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**ЭЛЕКТРОННЫЙ УЧЕБНО-МЕТОДИЧЕСКИЙ
КОМПЛЕКС
ПО УЧЕБНОЙ ДИСЦИПЛИНЕ
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**Составитель: В. Н. Василина, старший преподаватель кафедры теории
и практики перевода гуманитарного факультета БГУ**

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I. ТЕОРЕТИЧЕСКИЙ РАЗДЕЛ

1.1 УЧЕБНО-МЕТОДИЧЕСКИЕ ПОСОБИЯ

Практикум по теоретической грамматике английского языка = Guide to Theoretical English Grammar: учеб.-метод. пособие / сост. В.Н. Василина; ГУО «Акад. последиплом. образования» – Минск: АПО, 2008. – 204 с.

1.2 КУРС ЛЕКЦИЙ

TOPIC 1 INTRODUCTION TO THE THEORY OF GRAMMAR

1. Grammar as part of language
2. Grammar as a linguistic discipline. Variants of Grammar. Types of Grammatical Analysis
3. Stratification of Language. General characteristics of the grammatical structure of language
4. Categorical Grammar. Division of Grammar

1. Grammar as part of language

GRAMMAR IS A SYSTEM IN LANGUAGE WHICH PRESENTS MEANING THROUGH OPPOSITION OF VARIANTS OF UNITS, or, in other words, through the opposition of forms of one and the same unit.

2. Grammar as a linguistic discipline. Variants of Grammar. Types of Grammatical Analysis

Grammar is also a science, that is an activity to understand and describe the Grammar of a Language. Grammar as a study may include not all features that belong to Grammar as a part of Language and also may cover some fields that do not actually belong to Grammar as part of Language.

Grammatical studies (Grammar as a linguistic discipline) cover grammatical features of words and grammatical, communicative, semantic and structural features of sentences.

There are two main purposes why people describe the Grammar of a language. One type of descriptions is made to understand it, and the other is made to teach it. **Prescriptive** Grammars suggest rules how to build and use forms of words, word combinations and sentences. Such Grammars are sets of rules. Grammatical descriptions aimed at understanding the Grammar of a language, and because of that endeavouring to register the facts as accurately as possible, are called **descriptive Grammars**. The main purpose of such Grammars is stating the facts of a language. Descriptive Grammars usually include different interpretations of the facts registered in them. These interpretations present a third type of Grammars known as **the Theory of Grammar** or grammatical theory (grammatology).

Descriptive Grammars can be:

1. according to the analytic procedures:
 - a) **Distributional** (based on the analysis of the positioning of units);
 - b) **Categorical** (based on the analysis of the substitution of units);
 - c) **Transformational** (based on the analysis of procedures used to create units).
2. according to the purpose of description:
 - a) **Synchronic**;
 - b) **Diachronic** or **Historical**;
 - c) **Contrastive**;

d) **Typological.**

3. Stratification of Language. General characteristics of the grammatical structure of language

The Grammar of Language embraces all its levels and units. The problem is: how many and what sorts of units must we recognise to be sure that our model of language (i.e. the theory of language) should be its correct representation?

The solution to the problem depends on how we answer another question: what is a language? Language is a **means of communication**. If so, the structure of language, the number and properties of its components, units are determined by its function. It means that they depend upon the aim the means is used for and the manner it can be used in. The main aim of language due to its definition is to create conditions for communication. So the biggest structure language should provide us with is **dialogue**. Then it must give us a possibility to show our position in the event we speak about. So the next structure is a **communicative part (role)**. Then we have to inform each other about the matter we speak of, about our aims and about what we want our partners to do. So the next structure is an **utterance** or, in other terms, **text**. Then we have to correlate our informative structures with “the actual life as we know it”, producing sign models of the necessary fragments of that life. And language provides us with a **sentence**. Sentences, being models of fragments of states of things, must represent *relations* of things for which end language provides us with **members of sentence**. Because relations can exist only if there are objects, we need names of these objects. And language provides us with **words**. Then, to operate as names, words need elements which we know as **morphemes**. And finally we find **phonemes**, the material substance to make it all perceptible. The units and their functions which we have just listed constitute *levels* of language.

The grammatical structure of language is a system of means used to turn linguistic units into communicative ones, in other words – the units of language into the units of speech. Such means are inflexions, affixation, word order, function words and phonological means. Generally speaking, Indo-European languages are classified into two structural types – **synthetic** and **analytic**.

4. Categorical Grammar. Division of Grammar

Usually the study of words and morphemes is united under one heading **MORPHOLOGY**. Morphology describing grammatical features of words and morphemes is mostly concentrated on description of *forms* of words. Two other levels united under one heading are those of sentences and members of sentences (phrases). This part of Grammar is known as **SYNTAX**. Syntax deals with all features of sentences but intonation patterns and other prosodic features. We should have not two but four parts of Grammar: (1) Syntagmatic Syntax, (2) Paradigmatic Syntax, (3) Syntagmatic Morphology, (4) Paradigmatic Morphology.

TOPIC 2

THE MAIN NOTIONS OF CATEGORIAL GRAMMAR

1. Grammatical Meaning
2. Oppositions. Neutralization and transposition of morphological forms
3. Grammatical Categories
4. Paradigm
5. Parts of speech

1. Grammatical Meaning

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

The word combines in its semantic structure two meanings – lexical and grammatical. **Lexical** meaning is the individual meaning of the word (e.g. *table*). **Grammatical** meaning is the meaning of the whole class or a subclass.

Grammatical meaning differs from any other sort of meaning in four features.

1. GRAMMATICAL MEANING IS OPPOSITIVE.
2. GRAMMATICAL MEANING IS DEPENDENT.
3. GRAMMATICAL MEANING IS ABSTRACT.
4. GRAMMATICAL MEANING IS OBLIGATORY.

The grammatical meaning may be explicit and implicit. The **implicit** grammatical meaning is not expressed formally. The **explicit** grammatical meaning is always marked morphologically – it has its marker.

The implicit grammatical meaning may be of two types – general and dependent. The **general** grammatical meaning is the meaning of the whole word-class, of a part of speech (e.g. nouns – the general grammatical meaning of thingness). The **dependent** grammatical meaning is the meaning of a subclass within the same part of speech.

2. Oppositions

The unity of the general meaning and its particular manifestations which is revealed through the opposition of forms is a **grammatical category**. Any grammatical category must be represented by at least two grammatical forms (e.g. the grammatical category of number – singular and plural forms). The relation between two grammatical forms differing in meaning and external signs is called **opposition** – book::books (unmarked member/marked member). All grammatical categories find their realization through oppositions, e.g. the grammatical category of number is realized through the opposition singular :: plural. A minimal (two-member) opposition is called **binary**. Oppositions may be of three main types: 1) **privative**; 2) **equipollent**; 3) **gradual**. In the process of communication grammatical categories may undergo the processes of transposition and neutralization.

3. Grammatical Categories

A **grammatical category** is a general meaning realised through a formal and meaningful opposition of variants of one and the same unit and is obligatorily expressed by all units of the class. It means that a category consists of at least two forms. We shall call these forms of a unit opposed to each other **categorical forms**.

4. Paradigm

All the forms that are necessary to represent all the grammatical categories of a unit make up its **paradigm**. Since grammatical categories are obligatory, this set of forms should be found with each element of the class to which the unit belongs.

5. Parts of speech

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

1. Classical (logical-inflectional)
2. Functional
3. Distributional
4. Complex

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

The linguistic evidence drawn from our grammatical study makes it possible to divide all the words of the language into:

- a) those denoting things, objects, notions, qualities, etc. – words with the corresponding references in the objective reality – **notional** words;
- b) those having no references of their own in the objective reality; most of them are used only as grammatical means to form up and frame utterances – **function** words, or **grammatical** words.

TOPIC 3 THE NOUN. THE ADJECTIVE

1. The Noun
 - 1.1 General characteristics. Classification
 - 1.2 The category of number
 - 1.3 The category of Case
 - 1.4 The problem of the category of article determination
2. The Adjective
 - 2.1 A general outline of the adjective
 - 2.2 The category of comparison
 - 2.3 The problem of the category of state

1. The Noun

1.1 General characteristics. Classification

The noun is the central lexical unit of language. It is the main nominative unit of speech.

Semantic features of the noun. The noun possesses the grammatical meaning of thingness, substantiality. Nouns denote things and other entities presented as substances: *beauty, progress*, etc.

According to different principles of classification nouns fall into several subclasses which differ as to their semantic and grammatical properties:

1. According to the type of nomination they may be **proper** and **common**;

2. According to the form of existence they may be **animate** and **inanimate**. Animate nouns in their turn fall into **human** and **non-human** (personal – non-personal).
3. According to their quantitative structure nouns can be **countable** and **uncountable** (count – non-count, count – mass).
4. Concrete – abstract.

Morphological features of the noun. In accordance with the morphological structure of the stems all nouns can be classified into: simple, derived (stem + affix, affix + stem – *thingness*); compound (stem + stem – *armchair*) and composite (the Hague). Nouns are related by conversion with verbs: *to walk – a walk*; *an eye – to eye*, and with adjectives: *native – a native*.

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.

Syntactic features of the noun. The noun can be used in the sentence in all syntactic functions but predicate. Speaking about noun combinability, we can say that it can go into right-hand and left-hand connections with practically all parts of speech. That is why practically all parts of speech but the verb can act as noun determiners. However, the most common noun determiners are considered to be articles, pronouns, numerals, adjectives and nouns themselves in the common and genitive case.

1.2 The category of number

The grammatical category of number is the linguistic representation of the objective category of quantity. The number category is realized through the opposition of two form-classes: the plural form::the singular form. The category of number in English is restricted in its realization because of the dependent implicit grammatical meaning of countableness/uncountableness. The number category is realized only within the subclass of countable nouns.

The grammatical meaning of number may not coincide with the notional quantity: the noun in the singular does not necessarily denote one object while the plural form may be used to denote one object consisting of several parts. The general meaning revealed through the grammatical opposition *a book – books* is number, or quantity, or “oneness – more-than-oneness”. The general meaning revealed through the lexico-grammatical opposition is “discreteness – non-discreteness”. The opposition “discreteness – none-discreteness” is semantically broader than the opposition “oneness – more-than-oneness”. It embraces both countable and uncountable nouns. Singular presents the noun-referent as a single indiscrete entity. Plural presents the referent as a multiplicity of discrete entities (separate objects – *houses*; objects consisting of separate parts – *scissors*; various types – *wines*, etc.).

1.3 The category of Case

Case is a morphological category which has a distinct syntactic significance, as it denotes relations of nouns towards other words in the word-group or sentence (*my sister's coat*). In English the only case, which is marked morphologically, is the genitive (possessive), the other “case meanings” being expressed by word-order and prepositions. The case category in English is realized through the opposition: The Common Case :: The Possessive Case (*sister :: sister's*). However, in modern linguistics the term “genitive case” is used instead of the “possessive case” because the meanings rendered by the “s” sign are not only those of possession.

There is no universal point of view as to the case system in English. Different scholars stick to a different number of cases.

1. Positional and prepositional cases are very often analysed alongside of the inflexional case.
2. There are two cases. The Common one and The Genitive.
3. There are no cases at all, the form `s is optional because the same relations may be expressed by the ‘of-phrase’: *the doctor's arrival – the arrival of the doctor*.

4. 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*).
5. Case Grammar. Ch. Fillmore introduced syntactic-semantic classification of cases. They show relations in the so-called deep structure of the sentence. According to him, verbs may stand to different relations to nouns. There are 7 cases: 1) Agentive Case; 2) Instrumental Case 3) Dative Case; 4) Factitive Case; 5) Locative Case; 6) Objective Case; 7) Benefactive Case.

1.4 The problem of the category of article determination

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.

2. The Adjective

2.1 A general outline of the adjective

Semantic features. The adjective expresses the property of an entity. Typically, adjectives denote states, usually permanent states, although there are also adjectives which can denote temporary states. Adjectives are characteristically stative, but many of them can be seen as dynamic.

Morphological features. Derivationally, adjectives are related either to nouns or verbs. Suffixes changing nouns to adjectives are: - (*i*)*al*, -*ar*, -*ary* or -*ery*, -*ed*, -*en*, -*esque*, -*ful*, -*ic(al)*, -*ish*, -*istic*, -*less*, -*like*, -*ly*, -*ous*, -*ward*, -*wide*, -*y*. Suffixes changing verbs to adjectives are: -*able* or -*ible*, -*ent* or -*ant*, -*ed*, -*ing*, -*ive*, -(*at*)*ory*.

Syntactic features. In the sentence, the adjective performs the functions of an attribute (an adjunct) and a predicative. Of the two, the more typical function is that of an attribute since the function of a predicative can also be performed by other parts of speech.

Adjectives can sometimes be postpositive, that is, they can sometimes follow the item they modify.

Adjectives can often function as heads of noun phrases. As such, they do not inflect for number and for the genitive case and must take a definite determiner. An adjective can function as a verbless clause (e. g. *Anxious, he dialed the number*).

2.2 The category of comparison

The category of comparison is constituted by the opposition of three forms of the adjective: the positive, the comparative, and the superlative.

Some grammarians have expressed the view that there are only two degrees of comparison. Otto Jespersen, for instance, argues that the positive degree cannot be regarded as a degree of comparison as it does not convey the idea of comparison.

According to A.I. Smirnitsky, the degrees of comparison include the positive degree and the relative degree which is subdivided into the comparative and the superlative degree.

There are three ways of forming degrees of comparison: synthetic, analytic, and suppletive.

The question that linguists have been grappling with is: what is the linguistic status of analytic forms? Are *more* and *most* adverbs of quantity (degree) or grammatical word-morphemes? At present linguists are divided on this question: some linguists (A. I. Smirnitskyj, B. Khaimovich and B. Rogovskaya, B. Blokh) treat degrees of comparison with *more* and *most* as analytic constructions proper while others (V.N. Zhigadlo, L. S. Barkhudarov, D. A. Shteling,) treat them as free combinations of adverbs and adjectives.

2.3 The problem of the category of state

There is a class of words in English with the following morphological, semantic and syntactic characteristics:

- 1) the words of this type denote “states” while adjectives denote “qualities”;
- 2) the words of this type may be characterized by the prefix *a-* (it derives from the Middle English preposition *an* ‘in, on’): *alive, asleep, ajar, etc.*;
- 3) the words of this type do not possess the category of the degrees of comparison;
- 4) the words of this type are used predicatively only, *e.g. He is awake.*

Because of the said features, these words are regarded by some grammarians as a separate part of speech which has been variously referred to as the category of state words, adlinks, and statives (B. Ilyish; B. S. Khaimovich and B. I. Rogovskaya). The number of such words does not exceed several dozen. The traditional view of the stative, which separates temporary adjectives from other adjectives, does not seem to be convincing: temporary adjectives are part and parcel of the adjective class as a whole. At the same time, we must admit that these adjectives have features (meaning, function) that allow us to assign them to a separate subclass of the adjective. But the features examined are not sufficient for the distinction of the category of state within the adjective.

TOPICS 4

THE VERB. CATEGORIES OF TENSE, POSTERIORITY, ASPECT, ORDER

1. General characteristics of the verb as a part of speech
2. Classifications of English verbs
3. Time and linguistic means of its expression. Tense in Russian and English compared
4. The problem of the future and future-in-the-past. The category of posteriority (prospect)
5. The place of continuous forms in the system of the verb. The category of aspect
6. The place of perfect forms in the system of the verb. The category of order (correlation, retrospect, taxis, phase)

1. General characteristics of the verb as a part of speech

Grammatically the verb is the most complex part of speech.

Semantic features of the verb. The verb possesses the grammatical meaning of verbality – the ability to denote a process developing in time.

Morphological features of the verb. The verb possesses the following grammatical categories: tense, aspect, voice, mood, person, number, finitude and phase. The common categories for finite and non-finite forms are voice, aspect, phase and finitude. The grammatical categories of the English verb find their expression in synthetical and analytical forms. The formative elements expressing these categories are *grammatical affixes, inner inflexion* and *function words*. Some categories have only synthetical forms (*person, number*), others – only analytical (*voice*). There are also categories expressed by both synthetical and analytical forms (*mood, tense, aspect*).

Syntactic features. The most universal syntactic feature of verbs is their ability to be modified by adverbs. The second important syntactic criterion is the ability of the verb to perform the syntactic function of the predicate.

2. Classifications of English verbs

According to different principles of classification, classifications can be morphological, lexical-morphological, syntactical and functional.

A. Morphological classifications.

- I. According to their stem-types all verbs fall into: simple (*to go*), sound-replacive (*food - to*

feed, blood - to bleed), stress-replacive (*import - to im`port, transport - to trans`port, expanded* (with the help of suffixes and prefixes): *cultivate, justify, overcome, composite* (correspond to composite nouns): *to blackmail*), phrasal: *to have a smoke, to give a smile* (they always have an ordinary verb as an equivalent). 2. According to the way of forming past tenses and Participle II verbs can be regular and irregular.

B. **Lexical-morphological** classification is based on the implicit grammatical meanings of the verb. According to the implicit grammatical meaning of transitivity/intransitivity verbs fall into transitive and intransitive. According to the implicit grammatical meaning of stativeness/non-stativeness verbs fall into stative and dynamic. According to the implicit grammatical meaning of terminativeness/non-terminativeness verbs fall into terminative and durative. This classification is closely connected with the categories of Aspect and Phase.

C. **Syntactic** classifications. According to the nature of predication (primary and secondary) all verbs fall into finite and non-finite. According to syntagmatic properties (valency) verbs can be of obligatory and optional valency, and thus they may have some directionality or be devoid of any directionality. In this way, verbs fall into the verbs of directed (*to see, to take, etc.*) and non-directed action (*to arrive, to drizzle, etc.*).

D. **Functional** classification. According to their functional significance verbs can be notional (with the full lexical meaning), semi-notional (modal verbs, link-verbs), auxiliaries.

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

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). Languages differ as to the means of the grammatical expression of time. Time may be expressed by one category, the category of tense (Russian) or by several categories (English). In Modern Russian the category of tense denotes time both absolutely and relatively. In Modern English the category of tense denotes time only absolutely.

The essential characteristic of the category of tense is that it relates the time of the action, event or state of affairs referred to in the sentence to the time of the utterance (the time of the utterance being 'now' or the present moment). The tense category is realized through the oppositions. The present moment is the main temporal plane of verbal actions.

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

Generally speaking, the major tense-distinction in English is undoubtedly that which is traditionally described as an opposition of past::present. But this is best regarded as a contrast of past::non-past. 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). Quite a lot of scholars do not recognize the existence of future tenses, because what is described as the 'future' tense in English is realized by means of auxiliary verbs *will* and *shall*. Although it is undeniable that *will* and *shall* occur in many sentences that refer to the future, they also occur in sentences that do not. And they do not necessarily occur in sentences with a future time reference. That is why future tenses are often treated as partly modal. 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
came – would come.

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

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

English verbs have special forms for expressing actions in progress, going on at a definite period of time, i.e. for expressing limited duration – continuous forms.

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.

Aspect is a grammatical category representing distinctions in the temporal structure of an event. It is realized through the opposition Continuous::Non-Continuous (Progressive::Non-Progressive). The realization of the category of aspect is closely connected with the lexical meaning of verbs.

Generally speaking the Continuous form has at least two semantic features – **duration** (the action is always in progress) and **definiteness** (the action is always limited to a definite point or period of time).

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

In Modern English there are also special forms for expressing relative priority – **perfect forms**. Perfect forms express both the time (actions preceding a certain moment) and the way the action is shown to proceed (the connection of the action with the indicated moment in its results or consequences). So the meaning of the perfect forms is constituted by two semantic components: **temporal** (priority) and **aspective** (result, current relevance). That is why perfect forms have been treated as tense-forms or aspect-forms.

Consider the oppositions: *comes – has come*,
is coming – has been coming.

Members of these oppositions are not opposed either as tenses or as aspects (members of each opposition express the same tense and aspect). These oppositions reveal the **category of order (phase, correlation, retrospect, taxis, perfect, temporal relativity)**. The category of phase is a signification category.

Tense and order are closely connected, but they are different categories, revealed through different oppositions: *comes – came*, *comes – has come*.

The fact that verbals have the category of order (*to come – to have come*, *coming – having come*) and have no category of tense also shows the difference of these categories.

Generally speaking the perfect set on all temporal planes has a general categorical meaning of anteriority to the given axis of orientation, and is a purely relative tense.

The meaning of perfect forms may be influenced by the lexical meaning of the verb (limitive/unlimitive), tense-form, context and other factors.

So temporal relations in Modern English are expressed by three categories:

- tense (present – past)
- prospect (future – non-future)
- order (perfect – non-perfect).

The central category, tense, is proper to finite forms only. Categories denoting time relatively, embrace both finites and verbals.

The character of an action is expressed by two categories: aspect (common – continuous) and order.

TOPIC 5 THE VERB. THE CATEGORIES OF VOICE AND MOOD

1. The Category of Voice
 - 1.1 General characteristics
 - 1.2 The problem of the number of voices
2. The Category of Mood
 - 2.1 General characteristics
 - 2.2 The problem of subjunctive

1. The Category of Voice

1.1 General characteristics

The form of the verb may show whether the agent expressed by the subject is the doer of the action or the recipient of the action (*John broke the vase - the vase was broken*). The objective relations between the action and the subject or object of the action find their expression in language as the grammatical category of voice.

The category of voice is revealed through the binary opposition “active – passive”:

loves – is 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 direction of the action may be also expressed lexically, and the lexical and the grammatical meaning may or may not coincide:

He kills.

→ Grammatical

→ Lexical

He suffers.

→ Grammatical

← Lexical

The category of voice characterizes both finite forms and verbals:

to love – to be loved; loving – being loved.

The category of voice is closely connected with lexico-syntactic properties of verbs. According to the number and character of valencies verbs fall into subjective and objective, the latter being transitive and intransitive.

1.2 The problem of the number of voices

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

(1) "Reflexive Voice": *He hurt himself*. (2) "Reciprocal voice": *They met; They kissed*. (3) "Middle Voice": the verbs primarily transitive may develop an intransitive middle meaning: *That adds a lot; The door opened*. We cannot, however, speak of different voices, because all these meanings are not expressed morphologically.

2. The Category of Mood

2.1 General characteristics

The category of mood denotes modality, or the relation of the contents of the utterance to reality as viewed by the speaker. The grammatical category of mood expresses the degree or kind of reality attached to an utterance. Grammatically the category of mood is realized through the set of two oppositions: The Indicative Mood :: The Subjunctive Mood and The Indicative Mood::The Imperative Mood. The Indicative Mood in this case is an unmarked member of both oppositions. Mood is one of the most controversial categories – linguists distinguish from 2 to 16 moods in Modern English. The reasons for the divergence of views are as follows: 1) The category of mood is in the state of development. Some forms have a limited sphere of use (*he be*), new forms are coming into the system (*let*). 2) There is no direct correspondence of meaning and form. In Modern English there are no special forms for expressing unreal actions (with the exception of the forms *he be*, *he were*). 3) It is sometimes difficult to distinguish between mood auxiliaries and modal verbs: *may*, *let*.

2.2 The problem of subjunctive

Problematic and unreal actions are expressed in Modern English by 4 sets of forms:

(he) <i>be/come/take;</i>	<i>be/</i>	(he) <i>should</i> <i>come/take;</i>	(he) <i>were/</i> <i>came/took;</i>	<i>should,</i> <i>would</i>
		(he) <i>should</i> <i>have been/have</i>	(he) <i>had</i> <i>been/had come/had</i>	<i>be/come/take;</i> <i>should/wou</i>
		<i>come/have taken;</i>		<i>ld have been/have</i> <i>come/ have taken</i>

The form *(he) be/come/take*, expressing a problematic action, is the only form which differs from the forms of the indicative. There is one more form of the verb *to be*, different from the forms of the indicative: *(he) were*. But this difference disappears in all other verbs, and besides, the form *(he) were* is now being replaced by the form *(he) was*. The combinations *(he) should be*, *(he) should have been* do not differ from modal phrases. Forms expressing unreal actions, are the same as the forms of the past indicative. 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).

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

They were ... – real, past

If they were ... – unreal, non-past

According to this approach, subjunctive is represented by 4 sets of forms (see above).

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.

a) 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.

b) 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*).

c) As every category is revealed in the opposition of particular meanings and forms of their expression we should take into account both meaning and form. In this case the system of forms, expressing different degrees of unreality, will be subdivided into parts: 1) forms, denoting problematic actions (*he be, should be*); 2) forms, denoting unreal actions (*were, should/would be*).

TOPIC 6 SYNTACTIC THEORIES. BASIC SYNTACTIC NOTIONS

1. General characteristics of syntax
2. Syntactic theories
3. Basic syntactic notions
4. Syntactic relations
5. Phrases and forms of word connection

1. General characteristics of syntax

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. Syntax deals with the way words are combined. It is concerned with the external functions of words and their relationship to other words within the linearly ordered units – word-groups, sentences and texts.

2. Syntactic Theories

Syntax is a many-sided phenomenon. The following aspects of syntax can be singled out: logical syntax, psychological syntax, formal syntax, semantic syntax, communicative syntax, pragmatic syntax, etc.

Constructional Syntax. Constructional analysis of syntactic units was initiated by Prof. G.Pocheptsov in his book published in Kyiv in 1971. This analysis deals with the constructional significance/insignificance of a part of the sentence for the whole syntactic unit. The theory is based on the obligatory or optional environment of syntactic elements.

Communicative Syntax. It is primarily concerned with the analysis of utterances from the point of their communicative value and informative structure. It deals with the actual division of the utterance – the theme and rheme analysis.

Transformational-Generative Grammar. The Transformational grammar was first suggested by American scholar Zelling Harris as a method of analyzing sentences and was later elaborated by another American scholar Noam Chomsky as a synthetic method of ‘generating’ (constructing) sentences. The main point of the Transformational-Generative Grammar is that the endless variety of sentences in a language can be reduced to a finite number of kernels by means of

transformations. These kernels serve the basis for generating sentences by means of syntactic processes.

Semantic syntax focuses its attention on the generation of the semantic structure of the sentence, namely on the ways predicators (verbs) combine with arguments (nouns). **Pragmatic syntax** tries to establish the criteria that help speakers and linguists define the functions different sentence structures perform in the process of communication. **Textlinguistics** studies the text as a syntactic unit, its main features and peculiarities, different ways of its analysis. **Discourse analysis** focuses on the study of language use with reference to the social and psychological factors that influence communication.

3. Basic syntactic notions

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

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

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

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

$$\text{Syntactic unit} = \frac{\text{content side}}{\text{expression side}} = \frac{\text{syntactic meaning}}{\text{syntactic form}}$$

c) they are of communicative and non-communicative nature – word-groups and clauses are of non-communicative nature while sentences and texts are of communicative nature.

4. Syntactic relations

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

1. **Coordination (SR1)** – syntagmatic relations of independence. SR1 can be observed on the phrase, sentence and text levels. Coordination may be symmetric and asymmetric.

2. **Subordination (SR2)** – syntagmatic relations of dependence. SR2 are established between the constituents of different linguistic rank. They are observed on the phrase and sentence level. Subordination may be of three different kinds – adverbial (*to speak slowly*), objective (*to see a house*) and attributive (*a beautiful flower*).

3. **Predication (SR3)** – syntagmatic relations of interdependence. Predication may be of two kinds – primary (sentence level) and secondary (phrase level).

5. Phrases and forms of word connection

IC analysis splits a sentence into **phrases**, i.e. groups of words connected together. The same groups are found in sentences if we use other types of syntactical analysis. The logical connections of words in such groups have been already describe above, they are **subordination** and **co-ordination**. Grammarians also point to the semantic relations of words in phrases which are determined by the function of the elements in the sentence. These functions coincide with the set of members in the sentence. So we find *predicative, objective, attributive, and adverbial relations*. All these relations should be formally indicated.

There are two classes of formal indication of word relations: **positional** and **morphological**. Their names show which technique is employed to bind words together.

Morphological indicators use forms of words in two ways. The forms of two or more words may coincide, and if the form of one has to be changed it brings about the necessity of appropriate changing of the forms of other words in the group. This type of word connection is called **agreement**. The other type of morphological indication of syntactical connection of words can be described as follows: one of the words demands that another word should be in a specific form which does not change of the leading word is changed. This type of connection is known as **government**. The employment of position to indicate syntactical relations of words is called **adjoinment**.

TOPIC 7 SENTENCE. SYNTACTIC STRUCTURE. MODELS OF ANALYSIS

1. Sentence. Definition
2. Structural types of sentences
3. Communicative types of sentences
4. Different approaches to the study of the sentence

1. Sentence. Definition

A sentence can be defined as a complete structure, or as a completed representation of a thought, or as a completed and independent unit of speech. Completeness here means only that the unit we call a sentence is presented as complete. If so, there should be certain indicators of the fact that the speaker presented us with what he thinks is enough, and thus complete.

The function of the sentence is to model some fragment of the world. This model should be referred to the original, to a fragment of the world. It means that a sentence is to be referred to reality. This property of sentence was first proposed and described by V.V. Vinogradov in the late 1930s. V.V. Vinogradov named this feature **predicativity** and showed that predicativity means reference of the content of the sentence to reality indicating its time in relation to the moment of speech, the degree of probability of the fact described in the sentence, and its relation to the participants of communication. The *when*-component of predicativity is known as the temporal system and is shown by the grammatical category of **tense**. The *how-true*-component of predicativity is represented by modality and shown by the grammatical category of **mood** and some other modal elements. The *who-* or *what-about*-component shows whether the statement is made about the speaker or the listener or somebody or something else and is formalized as a **personal component** of predicativity.

2. Structural types of sentences

Structural types of sentences depend upon the way the most important features of the sentence, namely, predicativity, is reflected in their structure. Since predicativity has three features, they might be embodied either together in one component of a sentence, and such sentences are known as **one-member** sentences. Sentences in which the predicativity features are distributed between two elements of a sentence are named two-member sentences.

In case of two-member sentences the elements formalising the the features of predicativity are known as **the main members**. The element which incorporates the personal feature of predicativity is known as the **Subject** of the sentence. The element which incorporates the temporal and modal features of predicativity is known as the **Predicate** of the sentence. Because semantically all three features of predicativity are a unity, there exists specific attraction of the Subject and the Predicate. This attraction is known as **predication**. We shall discuss different variants of predication at the end of this section.

But a sentence may include either one **predicativity centre** or several. If a sentence has only one predicativity centre we call such sentences **simple**. All the sentences we gave as examples above are simple. If a sentence has more than one predicative centre we call it **composite**. But if we

have two or more predicativity centres within one structure, there must be some relations between these elements.

We know two types of relations: *co-ordination* and *subordination*. Coordination means that the predicative centres are not dependent on each other, but all of them depend upon the whole poly-predicative structure which imposes certain logical relationships between them. These **logical relations** might be *conjunctive* (or *copulative*), *disjunctive*, *causative* and *adversative*.

If the speaker or writer omits one or both main members of the sentence, i.e. the Subject and the Predicate of a two-member sentence, the resulting structure is an *elliptical sentence*.

3. Communicative types of sentences

The structural types of sentences do not have connections with any special meanings. Yet if we take a sentence and start changing its structure we may observe that the sentence received as a result of transformations possess some common and altering meanings. Lets take a simple sentence:

John will come tomorrow.

Will John come tomorrow?

Come tomorrow, John!

Comparing these sentences we can see that all of them describe one and the same event – John’s arrival at a certain place. But the first sentence presents this event as a fact that is to happen, and the speaker INFORMS the listener about it. The second sentence shows that the speaker wants to know if the event will become a fact and ASKS the listener to confirm or to negate it. The third sentence also shows that the speaker demands something of the listener, this time that the listener should do so that the event should become a fact. The difference of meanings corresponds to the difference of the form of the sentences. It means that we observe here an opposition of forms reflecting a certain meaning, which corresponds to the idea of a **grammatical** category. The semantic basis of the category or in other words its categorical meaning is the speaker’s influence upon the listener. This basis corresponds to the illocutionary meaning of speech acts. If we compare these meanings with the illocutionary classes we can see that they reflect two most frequent classes – informatives and directives. The first sentence embodies the informative type of speech acts and is called *declarative*. The other two belong to the directives and formally differentiate direction for an action (the third sentence) and has the name of *imperative* or direction for a special type of action – informing the speaker (the second sentence) and is termed *interrogative*.

4. Different approaches to the study of the sentence

a) Principal and secondary parts of the sentence

b) Immediate constituents of the sentence. IC analysis

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

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

It is obvious that dividing a sentence into ICs does not provide much information. Nevertheless, it can sometimes prove useful if we want to account for the ambiguity of certain constructions.

c) Oppositional analysis

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

d) Constructional analysis.

According to the constructional approach, not only the subject and the predicate but also all the necessary constituents of primary predication constitute the main parts because they are

constructionally significant. Therefore, the secondary parts of the sentence are sometimes as necessary and important as the main ones. The structural sentence types are formed on the basis of kernels (basic structures). Three main types of propositional kernels may be distinguished: N V, N is A, N is N.

TOPIC 8 THE FORMAL STRUCTURE OF SENTENCES. FUNCTIONAL SENTENCE PERSPECTIVE

1. The formal structure of sentences
 - 1.1 Introduction
 - 1.2 Subject
 - 1.3 Predicate
 - 1.4 Object
 - 1.5 Attribute
 - 1.6 Adverbial modifier
2. Functional sentence perspective

1. The formal structure of sentences

1.1 Introduction

The method designed for showing as many functions as possible is known as **the model of members of the sentence**. This model is as old in Europe as linguistic analysis itself. It states that a sentence includes the **main members**, namely the **Subject** and the **Predicate**, and each of these may have dependent **secondary members**. This division of a sentence into the subject and predicate groups is supported by one of the ways of formalizing predicativity, namely the disjoined one, when the personal feature of predicativity finds its own element for its embodiment.

The other elements of the sentence should be subordinated to these two main elements and are differentiated according to the grammatical class of words they are directly connected to.

1.2 Subject

We defined the **Subject** as the element of a sentence that embodies the **personal feature of predicativity**. But this definition does not show formal and semantic (referential) characteristics of the Subject. From the formal point of view, the definition of the English Subject seems rather simple: the Subject occupies the first position in the sentence. Still, there are some problems.

The meaning of the Subject presents more problems than its form. We expect that the Subject should indicate the doer of the action or at least the central element of the situation. But often it means quite different things. It may name not only the doer of the action but also its object, as in passive constructions, or its instrument or even the place (*The house is not lived in*). Moreover it may name the same thing which is named by the part of the predicate (*It is a dog*) or even nothing at all (*It is cold*). This evidence makes us definite the meaning of the Subject as anything the speaker wants to present as the personal element of predicativity, sometimes irrespective of the actual relations between the components of the situation the sentence describes. It means that the Subject is the formal indicator of the choice made by the speaker. This makes the formal features of the Subject, and in English its position is the only means of identifying it. We may say that any element, a word or a structure, that happens to be in the position envisaged by the construction for the Subject becomes the Subject of the sentence. This conclusion is supported by a wide variety of elements that may be Subjects in English. In this function we find not only pronouns (*"Everyone else was wishing," said the boy.* (Waugh)), nouns (*Jack and Gill went up the hill*), specialized verbal forms (*Reading and writing is the skill with which we start learning*), but also adverbs (*Now*

is the day to start), clauses (*That Joe came so early was quite unexpected*), and any other part of speech or syntactic structure.

We have to mention here that as the result of its fixed position the Subject could not be very complicated and sometimes it becomes what might be called analytical, that is in the Subject position we find a formal element filling in the position and somewhere further in the sentence we can see the description of what is meant to be the embodiment of the personal component of predicativity: *It is important for you to inform John about it*.

1.3 Predicate

The **Predicate** embodies the temporal and the modal components of predicativity. Besides it names the relationships between the nominal phrase incorporating the personal component of predicativity and other nominal groups. This naming function of the Predicate creates the semantic basis of predication that is the connection of the Subject and Predicate of a two-member sentence. This connection will be described in the other section, the section dealing with the sentence meaning. In this section we shall discuss the forms and components of the Predicate.

The temporal feature of predicativity always has its grammatical indication in the form of the verb, but special temporal elements connected with the development of the action or state name by the lexical component might be separated and the words naming different stages of development are known as **aspectual verbs**. The structures with the aspectual verbs produce a problem for classifying them. These verbs might be connected either with nouns (*They **began** a new discussion*) or with the Infinitive or the Gerund (*They **began** to discuss it anew; They **started** discussing it anew*). The structures with the noun must be classified as constructions with the direct object. The problem is how to classify the structures with the verbals. We may treat them as objects because they are synonymous to the constructions with nouns. But these combinations do not easily permit passive transformations and besides the verbals have connection of predicative with the Subject, which fact is supported by deletion of the aspectual verb (*They started to discuss it anew* → *They discussed it*). Thus we find more evidence for taking the combinations of an aspectual verb with a verbal as one member of the sentence, both elements of which are directly connected to the Subject.

The second element of the Predicate might also be a noun or an adjective. In this case the modal and temporal features of predicativity find embodiment in special lexical items known as **link verbs**. These link verbs may show modality and temporality both lexically by the meaning of the verb itself (look, remain) and grammatically by its tense and mood forms. **Intransitive verbs** in English irrespective of their lexical meaning may function both a simple Predicate and a link verb simultaneously. If you take a sentence like *He **stood** there angry*, we can see that the verb *to stand* in this sentence names the action of the Subject and at the same time is used as a connecting element for the adjective which names the state of the same Subject.

1.4 Object

The **Object** in English seems to be one of the most difficult problems. The difficulty is in the fact that English Objects have no special forms to indicate their function. The only formal feature is the position of the element functioning as an Object. But even this might be ambiguous because in the position after the predicate we can observe elements that are traditionally treated as adverbial modifiers. Some of them behave like **direct Objects**: *John slept in **his bed*** → ***His bed** was slept in*.

We can approach Objects either from their formal features or from the semantic relations existing between the verb and the Object. From the formal point of view, we may differentiate between Objects and adverbial modifiers. The difference is that Objects cannot change their position in the sentence while adverbial modifiers are movable. Further division is within the Objects. We can divide Objects, according to the presence or absence of a preposition, into **non-prepositional** and **prepositional Objects**. Semantically, Objects might be divided taking into consideration the meaningful relation of the Object and the Predicate.

1.5 Attribute

Attributes were defined as elements of noun groups. Forms and compositions of Attributes are very variable. The variability of the form of the Attribute to a large extent depends on the class of the word performing the attributive function. The form of the Attribute includes its position. Words having nominal character, such as nouns and gerunds, often are used in post position to the noun and are connected to it with a preposition. Words belonging to other groups normally take the position before the noun.

Semantically and functionally, all attributes might be divided into those which give certain information about the objects named by the noun and those which indicate general relations of the noun and do not name its properties. The latter Attributes are never used in post-position. They are expressed by pronouns and articles and open the whole noun group. These attributes are usually given a special term *determiners* and are not considered as real Attributes. Their meanings and functions will be discussed in the section describing articles and pronouns.

The difference between these two types of Attributes is supported by their transformational potentials. The *determiners* as a rule cannot be transformed into clauses, while other Attributes are easily transformable into predicative constructions in which the modified word occupies one of the nominal positions and the Attribute either becomes a part of the Predicate or is used as some other nominal element (*the green tree* → *the tree is green*; *the golden ring* → *the ring is made of gold*; *the dancing hall* → *the hall is designed for dancing*). It shows that between the Attribute and the noun modified by it there exist latent relations of predication.

1.6 Adverbial modifier

The forms and semantic features of *Adverbial Modifiers* are even more variable than those of Attributes. Adverbial Modifiers might be composed of adverbs, prepositional phrases, verbals and verbal constructions. Semantically, Adverbial Modifiers are divided into types depending upon the kind of circumstances they express. But from the grammatical point of view it is necessary to differentiate between those that are directly connected with the Predicate (or verbs, or adjectives) naming their specific features, and those that belong to the whole clause. The former are usually termed as Adverbial Modifiers of **manner or degree**. The latter are actually *circumstantial modifiers*, naming **time, place, reason, cause, condition**, etc. The formal difference between these two groups is in the positions they may occupy in the sentence.

2. Functional sentence perspective

The communicative structure of the clause can be described in terms of the **Theme** and the **Rheme**. Together, they make up the functional configuration of the clause as a message. This configuration is often called **Functional Sentence Perspective** (or **Actual Sentence Division** – актуальное членение предложения, after the Czech Scholar Vilem Mathesius). The purpose of this division is to reveal the informational importance of different sentence elements and to organize the message in such a way as to point out the **centre/focus of communication**.

The Theme is what the speaker or writer takes as his/her “point of departure” in that clause. It is realised by the first clause constituent, and the rest of the message constitutes **the Rheme**.

The choice of the Theme is important because it is from this point that the speaker projects his/her message, and partially conditions how the message develops. The functions of the Theme can be described as follows:

1. The initial element acts as a signal to the hearer as to the kind of structure that is likely to follow.
2. It establishes the state of affairs that the speaker considers known to the hearer.
3. It can also serve to link up with what has gone before in the discourse thus providing text cohesion.

The clause is also the basic bearer of information. In the linguistic sense, **information** is a process of interaction between what is already known or predictable and what is new or

unpredictable. It is the interplay of “new” and “not new” that generates information in the linguistic sense. Hence, the **information unit** is a structure made up of two functions, **the New** and **the Given**.

The Given element is concerned with the information that the speaker presents as recoverable by the hearer, either from what has been said before (the linguistic context) or from the context of situation or the context of culture. **The New element** is concerned with whatever information the speaker presents as not recoverable by the hearer.

There is a close relationship between the information structure and thematic structure. But although they are related, Given + New and Theme + Rheme are not the same thing. **The Theme** is what the speaker chooses to take as his or her point of departure. **The Given** is what the listener already knows about or has access to. Theme + Rheme is speaker-oriented, while Given + New is listener-oriented. But both, of course, are speaker-selected.

There are two important differences between the thematic and the information structure. The former is a system of the clause; and it is realized by the sequence in which the elements of the clause are ordered (word order). The information structure is not a system of the clause: it is the information unit and does not necessarily correspond to a clause. It is realized in the form of intonation nucleus, which typically comes at the end of the information unit. These differences make it possible for thematic and information structures to be combined in many varying ways (the Theme can be New and the Rheme can be Given).

TOPIC 9 SENTENCE. SEMANTIC STRUCTURE

1. General remarks
2. Valency theory
3. Deep Case theory
4. Compositional Syntax

1. General remarks

A sentence along with its grammatical meanings (predicativity, functional perspective and communicative types) has a referential meaning, which can be compared to the lexical meaning of a word. There are several ways of analysing and describing this meaning. They may be grouped into five trends. The oldest and most popular up till now is the method of **members of the sentence**. Much later and almost simultaneously appeared two theories – the **valency theory** and **generative (transformational) syntax**. A bit later, **deep case grammar** and, independent of it but logically close to it, **syntaxemic grammar** were developed. All these approaches to the referential semantics of a sentence were summarised in a theoretical framework called **compositional syntax**.

2. Valency theory

There were many attempts to overcome the inconsistencies of the method of members of the sentence. One of the most systematic approaches is known as the **valency theory**. It is usually considered that the founder of this theory is the French scholar Lucien Tesniere. Analysing the structure of sentences in Russian and French, he came to the conclusion that the meaning of a sentence resembles that of a drama, where the predicate verb is the name of the **action** of a scene, while the nouns are names of the participants, or **actants**. Along with the action and the participants, a sentence may include indications to the **circumstances** of the action. If so, the structure of the sentence depends upon the action described in it. Since the verb is the name of the action, the structure of the sentence depends upon the lexical meaning of the verb. The verb determines the number of participants (the nominal elements) and the formal indicators of their functions. This ability of the verb to predict the number and the functions of the nominal elements of the sentence was named the **VALENCY** of the verb. The outcome of all this is that a sentence

might be reduced to its predicate, which is most often a verb. Different semantic types of sentences are isolated on the basis of verbs having different valency.

Lucien Tesniere insisted that valency of verbs may vary from zero to three. So we may have four types of verbs and four semantic types of sentences.

Verbs with zero valency usually name natural phenomena like *It snows*, *It is cold*, etc. The appearance of zero-valency verbs and the examples given by Lucien Tesniere are very significant. It is natural that being a student of Russian he isolated **zero-valency** verbs having in mind Slavonic structures like *Светает*, *Холодно*, etc. Here we see a very important step toward constructing a radically new theoretical framework for describing sentence meanings – the sentence is **independent** of its form. **One-valency** verbs usually name states, processes or general activity, as *John is clever*, *A candle burns*, *A dog runs*, etc. **Two-valency** verbs usually name relations and actions as *Jane has a cat*, *John reads a book*. And finally, **three-valency** verbs name actions that are performed with the use of instruments or materials as *John cut meat with a sharp knife*. After Lucien Tesniere the valency theory was developed mostly by German and Soviet linguists. The first step in its development was differentiation between those nominal elements that have to be used in the sentence (they are named **obligatory arguments**) and those that might appear in a sentence (these were named **facultative** or **optional**).

3. Deep case theory

Transformational grammar was the starting point of a rather influential theory of sentence meaning known as the **Deep Case Theory**, or the **Frame Theory**. It should be immediately noted that this theory finally fused with the valency theory. The main idea of Deep Case Grammar is that each verb has a specific set of functional positions for nouns. This set is called a **frame** and the functional positions are termed **deep cases**. The term *deep case* was used to indicate that only the meaning of certain syntactic relations is represented in the frame. Morphological cases are considered to be superficial, accidental and only indirectly connected with the deep cases as possible forms of the latter. Trying to discover kernel structures, Ch. Fillmore found that they cannot be made up by immediate constituents as the latter are defined in the IC Theory. Instead, his material made him conclude that kernel structures, first, should be meaningful and, second, consist of a predicate and a number of nominal elements whose quantity and syntactic meanings depend upon the lexical meaning of the predicate. At the same time he found that the syntactical meanings of the nominal elements could be named by the terms used for Latin cases. His discoveries permitted Ch. Fillmore to develop a semantic theory of the sentence. According to his theory, the meaning of the sentence can be treated as a **frame consisting of deep cases**, or nominal elements having specific meaningful functions, and the predicate which determines this frame. The **deep case frame**, according to Ch. Fillmore, is a description of some **state of affairs**. The formal structure of the sentence is a result of formal (or, in his terminology, surface) operations aimed at making the frame perceivable for communicators. Thus, the semantic structure of the sentence represents the structure of what we want to speak about and is only indirectly reflected in the form of the sentence.

We can see that this short description of the Deep Case theory shows that it derives meanings of the whole sentence and its components directly from our knowledge of the world. This makes the number and meanings of the Deep Cases unlimited.

4. Compositional syntax

The concept named “Compositional Syntax” was first formulated and further developed in Minsk State Linguistic University, and more exactly, at the Department of Grammar and History of English.

This theoretical framework is an attempt to develop a united theory of Syntax. The presentation of the semantics of the sentence is based on several assumptions following from the general properties of the semantic aspect of the sign. These assumptions are:

1. The semantic sphere of any sign is divided into the **significational** and **denotational** aspects.
2. Because a sentence is a model of some fragment of the outer world, its semantics is necessarily a construction, which means that both the significational and the denotational aspects of the sentence meaning must be structures, relations of special elements.
3. The structures of the significational and the denotational aspects of the meaning of a sentence must be **INDEPENDENT** of each other. The meaning of the sentence is the result of co-ordination of these two structures.
4. Since these two structures (significational and denotational) are independent of each other and yet are elements of a united semantic entity, the sentence semantic structure should include a special system or mechanism for correlating and coordinating these structures.

These assumptions allow us to unite the most important ideas of the four theories of sentence meaning.

TOPIC 10

THE COMPOSITE SENTENCE. UNITS LARGER THAN A SENTENCE

1. The composite sentence
 - 1.1 The definition of composite sentence
 - 1.2 Compound sentences
 - 1.3 Complex sentences
2. Units larger than a sentence
 - 2.1 Dialogues
 - 2.2 Communicative parts
 - 2.3 Utterances and texts
 - 2.4 Grammatical aspects of the text

1. The composite sentence

1.1 The definition of composite sentence

Unlike a simple sentence that consists of a single independent clause with no dependent clauses, a **composite sentence** is built up by two or more predicative lines. It can be defined as a structural and semantic unity of two or more syntactic constructions each having a predicative center of its own, built on the basis of a syntactic connection and used in speech communication as a unit of the same rank as the simple sentence.

The following characteristics should be kept in mind when discussing composite sentences:

- the type of syntactic connection (coordination or subordination);
- the rank of predicative constructions, that is, the place occupied by the predicative construction in the hierarchy of clauses;
- presence or absence of connectors and their character.

A general classification of composite sentences can be based on the first two criteria – the type of syntactic connection and the rank of predicative constructions.

Here compound and complex sentences are singled out. In the compound sentence predicative constructions of the high rank are connected by means of coordination while in the complex sentence – by means of subordination.

According to the way in which parts of the composite sentence are joined together, two types can be singled out: 1) syndetic (by means of connectors); 2) asyndetic (without any connectors).

The connector can either be a conjunction, a pronoun or an adverb. If it is a conjunction, its function in the sentence is to join the clauses together. If it is a pronoun or an adverb (i. e. a relative pronoun or a relative adverb), then it serves as a part of one of the two clauses which are joined (a subject, object, adverbial modifier, etc.), and also joins the two clauses together.

1.2 Compound Sentences

Compound sentences are structures of co-ordination with two or more immediate constituents which are syntactically equivalent, i. e. none of them is below the other in rank.

The process of **coordination** involves the linking of structures of equal grammatical rank — single words and phrases in elementary compound groups or independent clauses in compound sentences. The coordinative conjunctions and the correlatives serve to produce coordination by joining the grammatically

equivalent elements. Two or more clauses equal in rank can together be given the status of a single sentence. Such co-ordinated units make up a compound sentence.

The formative words linking the parts of a compound sentence fall into the following types: **1) coordinative conjunctions, 2) conjunctive adverbs, 3) fixed prepositional phrases.**

Coordinative conjunctions are rather few in number: *and, but, or, yet, for*. Sentence-linking words, called conjunctive adverbs are: *consequently, furthermore, hence, however, moreover, nevertheless, therefore.*

Some typical fixed prepositional phrases functioning as sentence linkers are: *at least, as a result, after a while, in addition, in contrast, in the next place, on the other hand, for example, for instance.*

Coordinate connectors can establish different semantic relations between clauses. Coordinate sentence linkers can be grouped in the following way: **1) Copulative; 2) Disjunctive; 3) Adversative; 4) Causal; 5) Illative; 6) Explanatory.**

1.3 Complex Sentences

Complex sentences are structures of subordination with two or more immediate constituents which are not syntactically equivalent.

The semantic relations that can be expressed by subordination are much more numerous and more varied than with co-ordination: all such relations as time, place, concession, purpose, etc. are expressly stated in complex sentences only.

To express subordination of one syntactic unit to another in a complex sentence English uses the following means: **conjunctions**: *when, after, before, while, till, until, though, although, that, as, because*; a number of **fixed phrases** performing the same function: *as soon as, as long as, so long as, notwithstanding that, in order that, according as, etc.*; **conjunctive words**: the relative pronouns *who, which, that, whoever, whatever, whichever*, and the relative adverbs *where, how, whenever, wherever, however, why*, etc.

In complex sentences, traditionally, the main and the subordinate clause are singled out. There can be different approaches to classifying subordinate clauses.

One is based on the correlation of subordinate clauses to sentence members. Here subjective, predicative, objective, attributive and adverbial clauses are differentiated. According to correlation of subordinate clauses to parts of speech, the following types of subordinate clauses are identified: substantive (the subjective, predicative and objective clauses in the preceding classification), adverbial and adjectival (attributive). There is a certain correlation between the two classifications, which is quite expected since there is a certain connection between a word's belonging to a part of speech and its syntactic functions.

The following types of subordinate clauses are usually differentiated based on the semantic relations between the principal and the subordinate clause: 1. Subject and Predicate Clauses; 2. Object Clauses; 3. Attributive Clauses; 4. Clauses of Cause; 5. Clauses of Place; 6. Temporal

Clauses; 7. Clauses of Condition; 8. Clauses of Result; 9. Clauses of Purpose; 10. Clauses of Concession; 11. Clauses of Manner and Comparison.

2. Units larger than a sentence

2.1 Dialogues

The categories that seem most important for the formation of units of dialogues:

1) **the category of social setting**. The form of the dialogues indicates whether they belong to a *wide (open) social setting* or a *narrow (close) social setting*. The former type of the dialogues (*open dialogues*) presupposes a possibility of public observation.

2) the next very broad category regulates **the number of participants** and differentiates dialogues with a *fixed number of partners* and those in which anyone can take part (unlimited type).

3) **the category of social behaviour**. This category opposes dialogues with *formal expression of politeness* to those in which politeness is not formalized.

2.2 Communicative parts

Each of the participants in the dialogue has his or her own aim and, accordingly, exerts his or her influence upon the partner. Actual influence is exerted by a whole series of utterances of a **participant**, or a **communicative partner**.

Pragmatic analysis in this sphere produced at least three descriptive theories. Two of them are known as **principles of communication** and describe possible manners of performing communicative parts. In fact, these two theoretical frameworks are designed to register and explain *the verbal behaviour of a communicant*. The third system is aimed at defining and describing *the strategic or meaningful aims of a communicant* and is known as **the matrix of the communicant**.

The first principle of communication is known as **the Principle of cooperation**. It was proposed by Paul Grice in 1975 and includes four **Maxims** that define the contents of the communicant's utterances: *the Maxim of Quality, the Maxim of Quantity, the Maxim of Relevance, the Maxim of Manner*.

The conventions that are most often responsible for disobedience to the maxims of the Principle of Co-operation were summarized by Geoffrey Leech in his *Principle of Politeness* (1980). The principle comprises six maxims, all of them are designed to adapt the behaviour of the communicant so that his or her partner should feel at ease. This should be achieved even at the cost of disobeying the Principle of Co-operation.

The third theoretical framework does not actually determine the behaviour of the communicant but produces a frame of actions that can be performed by the communicant to achieve his or her aims. The possible aims are summarized in the **matrix of the communicant** proposed by M.K. Vetoshkina in 1991. The matrix includes five parameters, each having two meanings, namely, *yes* or *no*. The parameters are: a) the relative status of the communicants; b) attitude to the information relevant for the activity; c) attitude to the result of the activity; d) attitude to the activity, which means whether the participant is authorized to perform the activity; e) attitude to regulation of the activity, which means whether the participant has the authority to regulate the activity.

2.3 Utterances and texts

The informative function of the utterance has two aspects. As J. Austin stated in his lectures published in 1962, every utterance should inform the partner about the intention of the speaker and about some facts, about some fragment of the actual life as we imagine it.

The first aspect, the aspect informing about the speaker's intentions, was called the **illocutionary component**, and the latter one, informing about the world, is known as the

propositional component. These plus performance of the utterance (known as **locution**) and the expected (by the speaker) response of the partner (known as **perlocution**) compose an utterance as a **SPEECH ACT**.

Illocution

Illocution is what the speaker wants of his or her partner. It can be shown by the verbs that are called **performative**. A performative verb is a verb in the form of the first person Present Indefinite Indicative naming the intention of the speaker. It is called performative because by pronouncing it the speaker performs the named illocutionary act. For example, when somebody says *I promise that...*, he promises by pronouncing the word *promise*. But usually speech acts are formed without performative verbs and we understand the illocutionary component of the utterance through its structure in which the intonation patterns are most important. The illocutionary component is very often deduced through the logical procedure of inference. That means that the illocutions very often realize their meaning through oppositions of forms of utterances and thus they are liable to grammatical analysis.

It was found that the number of illocutions is very great. As a rule, five big classes of speech acts are defined. These are, if we follow the terminology of J. Austin, **directives**, which impose some obligations on the partner; **declaratives**, which change social situations; **informatives**, which describe a certain state of things; **behabatives**, which include ritual phrases expressing different social obligations and attitudes; **emotives**, which express the psychological state of the speaker.

Propositional component

The propositional component of an utterance reflects some fragment of the world as the speaker understands it. It may consist of one sentence or of a group of connected sentences. In the latter case the utterance has a structure which is described as a text.

2.4 Grammatical aspects of the text

Text as a linguistic unit has become an object of analysis in different linguistic disciplines known as “text linguistics”, “text grammar”, “discourse grammar”. The terms “text” and “discourse” are often used as synonyms to denote a continuous stretch of utterance larger than a sentence. Still in other linguistic studies these notions are often opposed: **discourse** may be understood as a dynamic process, **text** being the static physical result of this process, or **text** may be understood as an abstract notion, **discourse** being its actualization. There was a tendency to think of **texts** as monologues, usually written, whereas **discourse** was thought of as a dialogue, usually spoken. What is most universally understood by “a text” is a linguistic form in a stretch of language and those interpretations of it which do not vary with context, while “discourse” is a stretch of language in use, taking on meaning in context, and perceived by its users as purposeful, meaningful, and connected. Hence the correlation of these two notions may be formulated as follows: “discourse is a text in a situational context”.

Having become an object of linguistic studies, text has not found its universal definition as yet. Being a linguistic unit, it is understood as a unity of the plane of expression (form) and the plane of content (meaning) and as such possesses certain properties known as **text categories**.

The properties often discussed as **text categories** are **information, completeness, continuity, coherence, cohesion, retrospect, structural and semantic “parsibility”**, etc.

Both **coherence** and **cohesion** refer to molding a text into a unit characterized by logical-semantic and structural-semantic continuity. The two properties are differentiated when cohesion is described as a manifestation of certain aspects of coherence. Or when coherence is understood as a result of the interpreter’s knowledge about states of affairs mentioned in a text, while cohesion is defined as the formal linguistic realization of semantic and pragmatic relations between clauses and sentences in a text.

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1.2 ПРЕЗЕНТАЦИИ К ЛЕКЦИЯМ

http://gumf.bsu.by/sites/default/files/files/documents/Теоретическая_грамматика.zip

II. ПРАКТИЧЕСКИЙ РАЗДЕЛ

2.1 ПЛАНЫ СЕМИНАРСКИХ ЗАНЯТИЙ

SEMINAR 1 INTRODUCTION TO THE THEORY OF GRAMMAR. THE MAIN NOTIONS OF GRAMMAR

Issues to Study and Discuss

1. Language and speech. Paradigmatic and syntagmatic relations of grammatical units.
2. Grammar as part of language. Grammar as a linguistic discipline.
3. Variants of grammar.
4. Types of Grammatical analysis.
5. Division of Grammar. Morphology and syntax. Paradigmatic and syntagmatic relations of grammatical units.
6. Grammatical meaning, grammatical form.
7. Grammatical category. The notion of opposition as the basis of grammatical categories.
8. The morpheme as an elementary meaningful unit. Classification of morphemes. The notion of allomorphs.
9. The word as the smallest naming unit and the main unit of morphology.
10. A word and a morpheme. The notion of allomorphs.
11. Synthetic means of form–building. Analytical forms.
12. Parts of speech. Different approaches to the classification of parts of speech.
13. Criteria for establishing parts of speech: semantic, formal and functional. Notional and functional parts of speech.

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SEMINAR 2 NOUN. ADJECTIVE. ADVERB

Issues to Study and Discuss

1. General characteristics of the noun. Morphological, semantic and syntactic properties of the noun. Grammatically relevant classes of nouns.
2. The category of number. Formal and functional features of the number category. The problem of number in different subclasses of nouns.
3. The category of case in English.
4. The article. Number and meaning of articles. The problem of the zero article. The category of article determination.
5. The adjective as a part of speech. Classifications of adjectives.
6. Substantivization of adjectives. Adjectivization of nouns.
7. The category of degree of quality (degrees of comparison).
8. The problem of adlinks (statives).
9. The adverb as a part of speech.
10. Classifications of adverbs. Structural types of adverbs.
11. The problem of verb-adverb combinations.

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SEMINAR 3 THE VERB

Issues to Study and Discuss

1. A general outline of the verb as a part of speech. Classifications of English verbs.
2. The verbal categories of person and number.
3. Time and linguistic means of its expression. The category of tense. Tense in Russian and English compared.
4. The problem of the future and future-in-the-past. The category of posteriority (prospect).
5. The place of continuous forms in the system of the verb. The category of aspect.
6. The place of perfect forms in the system of the verb. The category of order (phase, correlation).
7. The category of voice. General characteristics. The problem of the number of voices. Peculiarities of English passive constructions.
8. The category of mood. General characteristics. The problems of subjunctive.
9. Finite and non-finite forms of the verb. The category of representation (finitude):
 - a) The infinitive and its properties. The categories of the infinitive.
 - b) The gerund and its properties. The categories of gerund.
 - c) Participle I, Participle II, and their properties.

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SEMINAR 4 SYNTACTIC THEORIES. THE SENTENCE

Issues to Study and Discuss

1. General characteristics of syntax. Syntax as a part of grammar.
2. Syntactic theories: Transformational-Generative Grammar; Constructional Syntax; Communicative Syntax.
3. Modern approaches to the language study: textlinguistics, pragmatics, discourse analysis.
4. Basic syntactic notions: syntactic units, syntactic relations, syntactic connections.

5. General characteristics of the word-group. Phrases and forms of word connection.
6. The sentence. General characteristics. Predication. Secondary Predication.
7. Structural types of sentences.
8. Communicative types of sentences.
9. The formal structure of sentences. The model of parts of the sentence.
10. The distributional model. The model of immediate constituents.
11. The transformational model.

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SEMINAR 5 COMMUNICATIVE, SEMANTIC AND PRAGMATIC SYNTAX

Issues to Study and Discuss

1. Functional sentence perspective. The theme and the rheme.
2. Semantic Syntax.
 - 2.1 Valency theory.
 - 2.2 Generative syntax.
 - 2.3 Deep Case theory.
 - 2.4 Compositional Syntax.
3. Pragmatic approach to the study of language units.
 - 3.1 Basic notions of pragmatic linguistics.
 - 3.2 Dialogues.
 - 3.3 Communicative parts. Maxims of conversation. The Politeness Principle
 - 3.4 Utterances and texts. Speech Act Theory.
 - 3.5 Classifications of speech acts. Indirect speech acts.
4. Complex sentence. Principles of classification.

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III. КОНТРОЛЬ ЗНАНИЙ

3.1 ОБРАЗЦЫ ТЕСТОВ ПО ДИСЦИПЛИНЕ «ТЕОРЕТИЧЕСКАЯ ГРАММАТИКА (АНГЛИЙСКИЙ ЯЗЫК)»

TEST 1 INTRODUCTION TO THE THEORY OF GRAMMAR

I. *Give the definitions of:*

- 1) the level of language;
- 2) the morpheme;
- 3) morph;
- 4) allomorph;
- 5) the paradigmatic and syntagmatic meanings;
- 6) the grammatical category;
- 7) the functional-semantic category.

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

1. Teacher: Do you know who built the ark?
Student: No.
Teacher: Correct.
2. – Did you know that Job spoke when he was just a baby?
– Where does it say that?
– It says: “Job cursed the day he was born.”
3. They are going to get going at once.
4. She gave me a little nod and went out.
5. Don't trouble trouble until trouble troubles you.

III. *Analyze the following oppositions and state what grammatical categories they constitute:*

- 1) had:: had had; 2) will do:: will have done; 3) will do:: will be done; 4) cats:: cats'; 5) she:: her

IV. *Differentiate between the processes of neutralization and transposition in the sphere of morphological categories:*

1. The human race is forever taking one step forward and one step back.
2. While we drove through the town I made a few snapshots.
3. I was walking through the hall ten minutes ago and suddenly his door bumps open...
4. The room needed airing.
5. – Will you stay for dinner?
– No, I am leaving in an hour.

V. *Find a mistake and explain the cause:*

1. I try to do my shopping on weak days because on weekends the shops are overcrowded.
2. There was a little town near the ocean. And in this town lived a fisherman.
3. Nobody likes to be meddled.
4. This problem I can't solve alone.
5. I didn't like that my name would appear in press.
6. The evening was warm and windless and I decided to walk.

TEST 2 MORPHOLOGY

I. Give the definitions of the following:

- 1) the level of the language;
- 2) the morpheme; the allomorph;
- 3) the grammatical category;
- 4) the functional semantic category
- 5) neutralization, transposition.

II. Give a detailed answer to one of the following problems:

- 1) The peculiarities of the grammatical structure of English.
- 2) The grammatical category of Number in English Nouns.
- 3) The factors which determine the choice of Voice form in English.

III. Do the following practical assignments:

1. What peculiarity of the grammatical structure of English is manifested in the following sentences:

- 1) He kept his thoughts to himself.
- 2) He kept smiling.
- 3) He keeps us waiting.

a) homonymy; b) polysemy.

2. Analyze the following oppositions and state what grammatical categories they constitute:

- 1) dog – dog's
- 2) is coming – will be coming
- 3) is done – is being done.

3. Differentiate between neutralization and transposition in the following sentences:

- 1) The piano needs tuning.
- 2) She is always sulking and pouting her lips.
- 3) As I waited in the hall I turned over the events in my mind.

4. Point out and define the case of syntactic transposition in the sphere of parts of speech.

E.g. The army. It does things its own way. – NAdv

- 1) The best die young.
- 2) You look very tired. A hard day? – A nothing day.
- 3) After a week we all served ourselves Chinese style.

5. Supply the forms of the plural:

- 1) bison –
- 2) radius –
- 3) genius –
- 4) penny –

6. Define the syntagmatic meanings of the Possessive Case:

- 1) She gave me a veteran's look.
- 2) Then came a minute's silence.
- 3) She wore a soldier's cap.

7. State the function of the underlined verb:

- 1) We found him a very cynical man.
- 2) Now she is jealous.
- 3) What is to become of him?

4) He looked tired and ready to faint.

8. *State the form of the Mood in the following sentences:*

- 1) I walked cautiously lest I should disturb the silence.
- 2) I wished the boat had been given a different name.
- 3) I would be worse than before if I should lose you now.
- 4) I suggest the matter be dropped.

TEST 3 SYNTAX

I. Define the following grammatical phenomena:

- 1) valency;
- 2) the phrase;
- 3) non-derivational phrases;
- 4) the actual division of the sentence;
- 5) the semi-compound sentence.

II. State the type of the predicate in the following sentences:

1. It made his mad desire to destroy her come back (Lawrence).
2. Good gracious, Mr. Holmes, you are surely not going to leave me in this abrupt fashion! (Doyle).
3. Mrs. Forrester began to be discouraged (Maugham).
4. Miriam, walking home with Geoffrey, watched the moon rise big and red and misty (Lawrence).
5. The house must be lived in, but now, at this moment, it was empty ((Christie).

III. Point out the means of promoting the rheme in the sentences:

1. One Sunday afternoon I heard a thumping on our back steps followed by a firm knock.
2. "What's your name?" "Bob".
3. You should be thankful for who you are and the things you do have.
4. Only to me did John send a postcard.
5. I agree with every word you have said – every single word.

IV. State the structural type of the sentence and define the type of the subordinate clauses:

1. She walked away from the wall towards the fire, dizzy, white to the lips, mechanically wiping her small, bleeding mouth (Lawrence).
2. There are two reasons why she should under no circumstances be his wife (Doyle).
3. I saw a middle-aged Frenchman with a big black beard, streaked with grey, a sunburned face, and large, shining eyes (Maugham).
4. A further knowledge of facts is necessary before I would venture to give a final opinion (Doyle).
5. The newcomer was pleasant in his manners and exceedingly well dressed even for St. Midas', but for some reason he kept aloof from the other boys (Fitzgerald).

V. Define the processes of extending or/and compressing the elementary sentences:

1. "She is so tired" – "She looks it".
2. "Who discovered the body, sir?" – "One of these fresh-air, early-morning old colonels".
3. We used to be friends at school.
4. We parted enemies.
5. There was nothing magical about their lives, nothing rare and unusual.

3.2 ПРОМЕЖУТОЧНЫЙ КОНТРОЛЬ ЗНАНИЙ (КСР 4 – Ч)

TOPIC 1

FUNCTION WORDS IN ENGLISH. THE ARTICLE IN MODERN ENGLISH

1. What classes of function words are commonly recognized?
2. What is the main problem with the class of adverbs?
3. What criteria for identifying the part of speech are generally applied?
4. What is the function of “only” in the sentence?
5. What is the textual function of “only”?
6. What does the term “proposition” mean?
7. What is the difference between “explicit” and “implicit” proposition?
8. What is the main function of particles in the text?
9. What is the main function of conjunctions and conjunctive expressions in the text?
10. What is the main function of modal words in the text?
11. In accordance with what criterion is the class of modal words divided into smaller groups?
12. What groups of particles can be singled out?
13. What groups of conjunctive expressions can be singled out?
14. What groups of modal words and parenthetical expressions can be singled out?
15. What is the principal difference between *-ly* adverbs and *-ly* modal words?
16. Why is the article defined as a function word?
17. How can the article be treated semantically if it is a function word?
18. Why is the article defined as “operator”?
19. What cognitive operations can the article perform?
20. Why is it so difficult to grasp the meaning of English articles?
21. What does the term “invariant” mean?
22. What is the invariant function of the article?
23. How can you define the rheme?
24. What is the difference between the theme and the rheme?
25. Provide a definition of the theme.
26. Provide the definition of the notion “referent”.
27. Provide an example of the indefinite article used as a generalizer.
28. What article is used with concrete nouns in generic sense?
29. In what way is the concretizing function of the article carried out?
30. Provide an example of the article used in its classifying function.
31. What are the functions of the zero article?

TOPIC 2

TEXT LINGUISTICS. GRAMMATICAL ASPECTS OF THE TEXT

1. How can the text as a linguistic unit be defined?
2. What is the difference between a text and a discourse?
3. What text categories do you know?
4. Define the following text categories:
 - a) information;
 - b) representation;
 - c) stage inclination.
5. What does the notion of “coherence” imply?
6. What types of the theme and rheme progression can be distinguished?
7. What does the notion of “cohesion” imply?
8. What types of textual cohesion can be distinguished?
9. What semantic groups of textual connectors do you know?

10. Provide a definition of the lexical cohesion.
11. What does collocation mean?
12. What is the difference between reiteration and collocation?
13. What types of endophoric relations can be determined?
14. Provide examples of anaphoric and cataphoric textual relations.
15. What does the term “deixis” mean?
16. What classes of deictic markers are usually distinguished?
17. Provide examples of textual deictic markers.

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ТЕМАТИКА ДОКЛАДОВ И УСТНЫХ СООБЩЕНИЙ ПО ДИСЦИПЛИНЕ «ТЕОРЕТИЧЕСКАЯ ГРАММАТИКА (АНГЛИЙСКИЙ ЯЗЫК)»

1. Характерные черты грамматического строя современного английского языка.
2. Проявление национально-культурных особенностей в грамматике современного английского языка.
3. Грамматическая норма и вариативность в современном английском языке.
4. Нетрадиционные части речи в английском языке.
5. Родовые оппозиции и семантика родовых классов имен существительных в современном английском языке.
6. Проблема падежа английского существительного: различные теоретические подходы к его изучению.
7. Падежная система английского существительного: их формальные и функциональные характеристики.
8. Формальные и функциональные признаки форм единственного и множественного числа английского существительного, особенности их проявления в различных лексико-грамматических классах имени существительного.
9. Проблема артикля как грамматического определителя существительного, его лексико-грамматический статус в сочетании «артикль + существительное».
10. Система артиклей в современном английском языке.
11. Система определителей имени существительного в современном английском языке.
12. Проблема грамматического статуса синтетических и аналитических форм степеней сравнения в современном английском языке.
13. Проблема грамматического статуса субстантивированных прилагательных в современном английском языке.
14. Лексические и грамматические способы выражения временного значения в современном английском языке.
15. Проблема статуса грамматической формы будущего времени в современном английском языке.
16. Лексические и грамматические способы выражения аспектного значения в современном английском языке.
17. Наклонение как один из способов выражения модальности.
18. Основные типы модальности.
19. Лингвистические особенности неличных форм глагола и их статус в грамматической системе языка.
20. Категория дейксиса и средства ее лексико-грамматической репрезентации в современном английском языке.
21. Статус междометий в системе частей речи.
22. Основные аспекты предложения: структурно-синтаксический, семантико-синтаксический, коммуникативный, прагматический.
23. Проблема выделения коммуникативных типов предложения.
24. Актуальное членение предложений разных коммуникативных типов.
25. Языковые средства выражения актуального членения в современном английском языке.
26. Осложненное предложение.
27. Проблема соотношения между системами сложного и осложненного предложений.
28. Языковые способы выражения связности текста в английском языке.
29. Монологический и диалогический текст.
30. Категории текста.

3.3 ИТОГОВЫЙ КОНТРОЛЬ ЗНАНИЙ (ЭКЗАМЕН)

Итоговый контроль проводится в виде экзамена, который проводится в устной форме. Экзамен включает: 1) ответы на теоретические вопросы; 2) выполнение практических заданий.

ВОПРОСЫ К ЭКЗАМЕНУ ПО ДИСЦИПЛИНЕ «ТЕОРЕТИЧЕСКАЯ ГРАММАТИКА (АНГЛИЙСКИЙ ЯЗЫК)»

1. Grammar as part of language. Paradigmatic and syntagmatic relations of grammatical units. Stratification of Language.
2. Grammar as a linguistic discipline. Variants of grammar. Types of Grammatical analysis.
3. Division of Grammar. Morphology and syntax.
4. Grammatical meaning, grammatical form.
5. Grammatical category. The notion of opposition as the basis of grammatical categories.
6. The word as the smallest naming unit and the main unit of morphology. The morpheme as an elementary meaningful unit. Synthetic and analytical means of form-building in English.
7. Parts of speech. Different approaches to the classification of parts of speech.
8. Criteria for establishing parts of speech: semantic, formal and functional. Notional and functional parts of speech.
9. General characteristics of the noun. Morphological, semantic and syntactic properties of the noun. Grammatically relevant classes of nouns.
10. Morphological categories of Noun (number, case).
11. The article in English. Number and meaning of articles. The problem of the zero article. The category of article determination.
12. A general outline of the verb as a part of speech. Classifications of English verbs.
13. The category of tense in Russian and English compared. The problem of the future and future-in-the-past. The category of posteriority (prospect).
14. The place of continuous forms in the system of the English verb. The category of aspect.
15. The place of perfect forms in the system of the English verb. The category of order (phase, correlation).
16. The category of voice in English. General characteristics. The problem of the number of voices. Peculiarities of English passive constructions.
17. The category of mood in English. General characteristics. The problems of subjunctive.
18. General characteristics of syntax as a part of grammar. Basic syntactic notions. Modern syntactic theories: Transformational-Generative Grammar; Constructional Syntax; Communicative Syntax.
19. The problem of the definition of the phrase. Phrases and forms of word connection.
20. General characteristics of the sentence. Predicativity. Predication.
21. Classification of sentences. Structural and communicative types of sentences.
22. The formal structure of sentences. The model of parts of the sentence.
23. The distributional model of the sentence. The model of immediate constituents.
24. The transformational model of the sentence.
25. Functional sentence perspective. The theme and the rheme.
26. The semantic structure of the sentence. Valency theory.
27. Semantic syntax. Deep Case theory.
28. Pragmatic approach to the study of language units. Basic notions of pragmatic linguistics.
29. The grammatical features of dialogues and communicative parts.
30. Maxims of conversation. The Politeness Principle.
31. Utterances and texts. Speech Act Theory.
32. Text linguistics. Grammatical aspects of the text.
33. General characteristics of the composite sentence. The compound sentence.
34. The Complex sentence. Principles of classification.

Примеры практических заданий на экзамене

1. Дайте терминологическое определение следующим понятиям...
2. Сделайте грамматический анализ...
3. Определите категориальное значение (функцию и др.) ...
4. Укажите структурный тип предложения.
5. Прокомментируйте грамматические особенности...
6. Укажите случаи грамматической транспозиции...
7. Прокомментируйте следующие грамматические категории...

Образец практического задания на экзамене по дисциплине «Теоретическая грамматика»

CARD 1

1. **Give the paradigm of: *far*.**
2. **Decide to what part of speech the underlined words may be assigned.**
They told him that it was in an old nunnery, taken over by the Germans then converted into a hospital after the Allies had laid siege to it. (M. Ondaatje)
3. **State the kind of the genitive case that is used in the following sentence.**
The voice of Goldstein had become an actual sheep's bleat, and for an instant the face changed into that of a sheep. (G. Orwell)
4. **State the form of the verb and its meaning in the following sentence.**
She had finished most of the work by the time her boss arrived.
5. **State the form of the mood and its meaning in the following sentence.**
If only Richard had left him alone, without interference, simply left him alone. (A. Cronin)
6. **State the type of syntactic relations in the following phrase:**
a lovely face.
7. **Analyze the following sentence according to the IC model.**
The boys usually answered rudely when they were questioned.
8. **Analyze the actual division of the sentence and the language means used to mark it.**
It was Bosinney who first noticed her, and asked her name. (J. Galsworthy)
9. **Define the pragmatic type of the following utterance.**
I'll lock you in the cellar if you don't stop making noise.

IV. ВСПОМОГАТЕЛЬНЫЙ РАЗДЕЛ

4.1 УЧЕБНАЯ ПРОГРАММА ДИСЦИПЛИНЫ «ТЕОРЕТИЧЕСКАЯ ГРАММАТИКА (АНГЛИЙСКИЙ ЯЗЫК)»

ПОЯСНИТЕЛЬНАЯ ЗАПИСКА

Учебная программа дисциплины «Теоретическая грамматика (английский язык)» предназначена для студентов, обучающихся по специальности 1-21 06 01-02 «Современные иностранные языки (перевод)» на гуманитарном факультете БГУ.

Дисциплина «Теоретическая грамматика (английский язык)» является базовой в системе общелингвистической подготовки специалистов по специальности 1-21 06 01-02 «Современные иностранные языки (перевод)». Теоретическая грамматика английского языка органически связана с дисциплинами «Практическая грамматика английского языка», «Функциональная грамматика английского языка», а также с такими теоретическими курсами лингвистического цикла, как «Введение в языкознание», «Общее языкознание», «История английского языка», «Лексикология английского языка», «Стилистика английского языка».

В рамках курса теоретической грамматики конкретизируются некоторые проблемы общего языкознания (например, *структура и функции единиц языка*); проводится дифференциация грамматического значения и других типов значений в языке; выявляется соотношение формы и содержания и т.п. Функционально-коммуникативный подход к грамматике языка позволяет определить не только системные, парадигматические свойства единиц современного английского языка, но и их употребление, приближаясь к прагматической трактовке грамматических явлений. Одновременно рассматриваются проблемы методов и процедур лингвистического анализа. Особое внимание уделяется вопросам выбора системы интерпретации (дефинирование и/или разъяснение) основных понятий (*слово, грамматическая форма, грамматическое значение, категория, членение* и т.п.), освещению различных способов описания грамматического строя английского языка и методов его исследования.

Целью преподавания дисциплины «Теоретическая грамматика» является:

- обучение системному и глубокому видению структурной организации английского языка и принципов его структурирования;
- выработка целостного представления о грамматическом аспекте английского языка;
- расширение общей научной базы, связывающей философию, психологию, историю и другие предметы гуманитарного цикла с языковыми дисциплинами;
- формирование и развитие навыков научного мышления, творческого анализа языкового материала и научных концепций для определения сущности языковых явлений и возможных аспектов их исследования.

Задачи изучения дисциплины:

- теоретически осветить основы грамматического строя английского языка в соответствии с современным состоянием науки о языке;
- ввести студентов в наиболее важные проблемы современных научных исследований грамматического строя английского языка;
- развить у студентов умение применять теоретические знания по грамматике английского языка в переводческой деятельности;
- развить у студентов научное мышление, соответствующее методологии теоретической грамматики, научить их библиографическому поиску в изучаемой области, привить им умение самостоятельно перерабатывать фундаментальную и текущую научную информацию по предмету, самостоятельно делать обобщения и выводы из данных, приводимых в специальной литературе.

Цели и задачи дисциплины «Теоретическая грамматика (английский язык)» направлены на приобретение студентам необходимых *компетенций*, которые включают:

- *академические (лингвистические)*, предполагающие усвоение студентами основных понятий данной дисциплины и соответствующей терминологии, а также понимание задач теоретической грамматики и осознание связи грамматики с другими уровнями языковой системы;
- *профессиональные*, предполагающие способность анализировать материалы современных исследований в области грамматики в самостоятельной научно-исследовательской деятельности;
- *социально-личностные*, предполагающие умение использовать адекватные грамматические средства при межкультурной коммуникации.

Результатом курса должны стать система знаний, обеспечивающая понимание системы английского языка как сложной организованной структуры со своими закономерностями и особенностями, а также система умений и навыков научного исследования.

Требования к уровню освоения содержания дисциплины

В результате изучения учебной дисциплины студент должен:

знать:

- терминологический аппарат грамматики;
- 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;
- применять методы грамматического анализа;
- 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.

В основу структурирования содержания учебной дисциплины «Теоретическая грамматика (английский язык)» положен принцип модульного подхода, который предполагает разбивку научно-теоретического материала в относительно самостоятельные учебные модули. По каждому учебному модулю в соответствии с его целями и задачами по формированию и развитию у студентов конкретных компетенций преподавателем проектируются и реализуются определенные педагогические технологии.

I. СОДЕРЖАНИЕ УЧЕБНОГО МАТЕРИАЛА

№ п/п	Наименование разделов, тем	Количество часов				Самост. работа
		Аудиторные				
		Лек- ции	Практич. Семинар.	Лаб. занят.	КСР	
1.	РАЗДЕЛ 1. ВВЕДЕНИЕ В ДИСЦИПЛИНУ	2				6
1.1	Тема 1.1. Введение в теоретическую грамматику. Общие положения Грамматика как особая система формальных средств передачи значений. Грамматика как научная дисциплина и ее место в общей теории языка. Виды грамматик: описательная (дескриптивная) и нормативная (прескриптивная). Теоретическая и практическая грамматики как смежные учебные дисциплины. Основные понятия грамматического описания: грамматическая форма (план выражения), грамматическое значение (план содержания), грамматическая категория. Парадигма и ее элементы. Аналитические и синтетические формы.	2				6
2.	РАЗДЕЛ 2. МОРФОЛОГИЯ	8	6		2	30
2.1	Тема 2.1. Морфология. Общие положения <i>Единицы морфологии.</i> Слово и словоформа. Структура словоформы. Морфема и (алло)морф. Принципы классификации морфем. Грамматические и лексические классы слов. <i>Части речи и принципы классификации слов.</i> Части речи как лексико-грамматические классы слов, имеющие синтаксическую направленность. Критерии выделения частей речи: значение, форма, функция. Несовпадение классов, выделенных по различным критериям, и полевая структура частей речи. Транспозиция частей речи.	2	2			8
2.2	Тема 2.2. Именные части речи. Имя существительное. Имя прилагательное <i>Имя существительное.</i> Обобщенное лексико-грамматическое значение имени существительного. Функциональные свойства имени	2	2			6

	<p>существительного. Парадигма существительного. Падеж как синтаксически ориентированная категория. Число и лексические классы имен существительных. Расчлененность (дискретность) как основа категории числа. Проблема категории определенности/неопределенности и лексико-грамматический статус артикля.</p> <p><i>Имя прилагательное.</i> Обобщенное лексико-грамматическое значение имени прилагательного. Функциональные свойства имени прилагательного. Функции определения и именной части сказуемого как основные функции прилагательного. Парадигма прилагательного. Степени сравнения прилагательного. Слова категории состояния.</p>					
2.3	<p>Тема 2.3. Глагол</p> <p>Обобщенное лексико-грамматическое значение глагола. Функциональные свойства глагола. Функция сказуемого как основная функция глагола. Парадигма глагола. Категория репрезентации и неличные формы. Темпоральные категории: категория времени, категория вида, категория временной отнесенности (порядка, таксиса). Проблема категоризации форм будущего и будущего в прошедшем, категория следования (проспективности). Категория наклонения: грамматическое значение модальности, проблема числа наклонений и модальные глаголы. Категория залога: грамматическое значение залога, залог и лексическое значение переходности глагола, возвратные и взаимные конструкции, проблема среднего залога и инактивное употребление глаголов, лексико-синтаксические ограничения на инактивное употребление глаголов. Согласовательные категории: лицо и число.</p>	4	2			8
2.4	<p>Тема 2.4. Наречия. Функциональные части речи. Артикль и детерминативы. Местоимения и слова заместители</p> <p><i>Наречия.</i> Обобщенное лексико-</p>				2	8

	<p>грамматическое значение наречия. Функциональные свойства наречия. Функциональная ограниченность наречия. Функция обстоятельства как основная функция наречия.</p> <p><i>Критерии выделения и классификации функциональных частей речи.</i></p> <p>Предлоги, модальные и связочные глаголы и формальная типология членов предложения. Союзы и союзные слова. Функция оформления членов предложения как основное лексико-грамматическое значение формальных (функциональных) частей речи. Артикль и детерминативы. Местоимения и слова заместители.</p>					
3.	РАЗДЕЛ 3. СИНТАКСИС	10	4		2	30
3.1	<p>Тема 3.1. Синтаксис. Основные понятия</p> <p><i>Словосочетание.</i> Номинативная сущность словосочетания. Возможные классификации словосочетаний: по типу и количеству компонентов, по типу синтаксической связи. Типы синтаксической связи между компонентами словосочетания: сочинительная, подчинительная, предикативная – и способы их выражения. Два уровня анализа предикативных словосочетаний.</p> <p><i>Предложение как номинативная и коммуникативная единица.</i> Предикативность как основной признак предложения, категории предикативности: модальность, темпоральность, коммуникативный дейксис (лицо). Вторичная предикативность.</p>	2				6
3.2	<p>Тема 3.2. Методы синтаксического анализа. Принципы классификации предложений</p> <p><i>Методы синтаксического анализа.</i> Дистрибутивный метод. Членение на непосредственно-составляющие; древо зависимости. Трансформационный анализ (глубинные и поверхностные структуры). Валентностный анализ.</p> <p><i>Принципы классификации предложений.</i> Коммуникативные классы предложений. Структурная классификация предложений.</p>	2	2			6

3.3	<p>Тема 3.3. Простое предложение Члены предложения в свете современных синтаксических теорий. Члены предложения как формальные компоненты предложения. Морфологические показатели членов предложения и связи между ними. Позиционный принцип идентификации членов предложения в английском языке. Семантика предложения. Пропозиция и модальность. Предложение как знаковая модель «положения дел» (ситуации). Глубинно-падежная рамка как семантическая структура предложения. Знаковый характер предложения. Коммуникативная структура предложения. Актуальное членение. Тема и рема. Функции порядка слов. Прагматический аспект предложения. Понятие о прагматическом синтаксисе. Типология речевых актов.</p>	4	2			6
3.4	<p>Тема 3.4. Сложные предложения и их типы <i>Способы связи в сложных предложениях.</i> Координация и субординация. <i>Сложносочиненные предложения как реализация сочинительной связи.</i> Логические связи компонентов (<i>clause</i>) сложносочиненного предложения. Союзная и бессоюзная связь. <i>Сложноподчиненные предложения как реализация подчинительной связи.</i> Два вида подчинения – присловное и предложенческое. Придаточные предложения, зависящие от всего предложения; возможность их трансформации в сложносочиненные структуры. Семантическая и структурная специфика предложений со значениями условия, сравнения, уступки, причины и следствия. Соотношение сложного предложения и других предикативных единиц.</p>	2				6
3.5	<p>Тема 3.5. Грамматика и категории текста Текст как особый объект лингвистического описания. Текст и дискурс. Коммуникативная и семантическая структуры текста. Категории текста. Когезия и</p>				2	6

	<p>когерентность. Абзац и его структура. Средства связи в тексте: тематические цепочки, дейксис, замещение, видо-временная последовательность, временной контекст. Семантическая связность текста: катафорические и анафорические связи в тексте.</p>					
	Итого:	20	10		4	66

II. УЧЕБНО-МЕТОДИЧЕСКАЯ КАРТА ДИСЦИПЛИНЫ

Номер раздела, темы, занятия	Название раздела, темы, занятия; перечень изучаемых вопросов	Количество аудиторных часов				Материальное обеспечение занятия (наглядные, методические пособия и др.)	Литература	Формы контроля знаний
		лекции	практические (семинарские) занятия	лабораторные занятия	управляемая самостоятельная работа студента			
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1.	РАЗДЕЛ 1. ВВЕДЕНИЕ В ДИСЦИПЛИНУ	2						
1.1	<p>Тема 1.1. Введение в теоретическую грамматику. Общие положения</p> <p>Грамматика как особая система формальных средств передачи значений. Грамматика как научная дисциплина и ее место в общей теории языка. Виды грамматик: описательная (дескриптивная) и нормативная (прескриптивная). Теоретическая и практическая грамматики как смежные учебные дисциплины. Основные понятия грамматического описания: грамматическая форма (план выражения), грамматическое значение (план содержания), грамматическая категория. Парадигма и ее элементы. Аналитические и синтетические формы.</p>	2				УМК, опорный конспект, проектор	[1], [2], [3], [4], [5], [9], [10]	Фронтальный опрос
2.	РАЗДЕЛ 2. МОРФОЛОГИЯ	8	6		2			
2.1	<p>Тема 2.1. Морфология. Общие положения</p> <p><i>Единицы морфологии.</i> Слово и словоформа. Структура словоформы. Морфема и (алло)морф. Принципы классификации морфем. Грамматические и лексические классы слов.</p> <p><i>Части речи и принципы классификации слов.</i> Части речи как лексико-грамматические классы слов, имеющие синтаксическую направленность. Критерии выделения</p>	2	2			УМК, опорный конспект, раздаточные материалы, проектор	[1], [3], [4], [5], [6], [9], [10]	Фронтальный и индивидуальный опрос

	частей речи: значение, форма, функция. Несовпадение классов, выделенных по различным критериям, и полевая структура частей речи. Транспозиция частей речи.							
2.2	<p>Тема 2.2. Именные части речи. Имя существительное. Имя прилагательное</p> <p><i>Имя существительное.</i> Обобщенное лексико-грамматическое значение имени существительного. Функциональные свойства имени существительного. Парадигма существительного. Падеж как синтаксически ориентированная категория. Число и лексические классы имен существительных. Расчлененность (дискретность) как основа категории числа. Проблема категории определенности/неопределенности и лексико-грамматический статус артикля.</p> <p><i>Имя прилагательное.</i> Обобщенное лексико-грамматическое значение имени прилагательного. Функциональные свойства имени прилагательного. Функции определения и именной части сказуемого как основные функции прилагательного. Парадигма прилагательного. Степени сравнения прилагательного. Слова категории состояния.</p>	2	2			УМК, опорный конспект, раздаточные материалы, проектор	[1], [3], [4], [5], [6], [7], [9], [10], [11]	Фронтальный и индивидуальный опрос
2.3	<p>Тема 2.3. Глагол</p> <p>Обобщенное лексико-грамматическое значение глагола. Функциональные свойства глагола. Функция сказуемого как основная функция глагола. Парадигма глагола. Категория репрезентации и неличные формы. Темпоральные категории: категория времени, категория вида, категория временной отнесенности (порядка, таксиса). Проблема категоризации форм будущего и будущего в прошедшем, категория следования (проспективности). Категория наклонения: грамматическое значение модальности, проблема числа наклонений и модальные глаголы. Категория залога: грамматическое значение залога, залог и лексическое значение переходности глагола, возвратные и взаимные конструкции, проблема среднего залога и инактивное</p>	4	2			УМК, опорный конспект, раздаточные материалы, проектор	[1], [3], [4], [5], [6], [7], [8], [9], [10], [11]	Фронтальный опрос. Защита рефератов, докладов

	употребление глаголов, лексико-синтаксические ограничения на инактивное употребление глаголов. Согласовательные категории: лицо и число.							
2.4	<p>Тема 2.4. Наречия. Функциональные части речи. Артикль и детерминативы. Местоимения и слова заместители</p> <p><i>Наречия.</i> Обобщенное лексико-грамматическое значение наречия. Функциональные свойства наречия. Функциональная ограниченность наречия. Функция обстоятельства как основная функция наречия.</p> <p><i>Критерии выделения и классификации функциональных частей речи.</i> Предлоги, модальные и связочные глаголы и формальная типология членов предложения. Союзы и союзные слова. Функция оформления членов предложения как основное лексико-грамматическое значение формальных (функциональных) частей речи. Артикль и детерминативы. Местоимения и слова заместители.</p>				2	УМК, раздаточные материалы	[1], [3], [4], [5], [6], [7], [9], [11]	Коллоквиум
3.	РАЗДЕЛ 3. СИНТАКСИС	10	4		2			
3.1	<p>Тема 3.1. Синтаксис. Основные понятия</p> <p><i>Словосочетание.</i> Номинативная сущность словосочетания. Возможные классификации словосочетаний: по типу и количеству компонентов, по типу синтаксической связи. Типы синтаксической связи между компонентами словосочетания: сочинительная, подчинительная, предикативная – и способы их выражения. Два уровня анализа предикативных словосочетаний.</p> <p><i>Предложение как номинативная и коммуникативная единица.</i> Предикативность как основной признак предложения, категории предикативности: модальность, темпоральность, коммуникативный дейксис (лицо). Вторичная предикативность.</p>	2				УМК, опорный конспект, проектор	[1], [2], [3], [4], [5], [6], [7], [8], [9], [10], [11]	Фронтальный опрос
3.2	<p>Тема 3.2. Методы синтаксического анализа. Принципы классификации предложений</p> <p><i>Методы синтаксического анализа.</i> Дистрибутивный метод. Членение на непосредственно-составляющие; древо зависимости. Трансформационный анализ (глубинные и</p>	2	2			УМК, опорный конспект, раздаточные материалы,	[1], [2], [4], [5], [7], [9], [10]	Фронтальный и индивидуальный опрос

	поверхностные структуры). Валентностный анализ. <i>Принципы классификации предложений.</i> Коммуникативные классы предложений. Структурная классификация предложений.					проектор		
3.3	Тема 3.3. Простое предложение Члены предложения в свете современных синтаксических теорий. Члены предложения как формальные компоненты предложения. Морфологические показатели членов предложения и связи между ними. Позиционный принцип идентификации членов предложения в английском языке. Семантика предложения. Пропозиция и модальность. Предложение как знаковая модель «положения дел» (ситуации). Глубинно-падежная рамка как семантическая структура предложения. Знаковый характер предложения. Коммуникативная структура предложения. Актуальное членение. Тема и рема. Функции порядка слов. Прагматический аспект предложения. Понятие о прагматическом синтаксисе. Типология речевых актов.	4	2			УМК, опорный конспект, раздаточные материалы, проектор	[1], [2], [3], [4], [5], [6], [7], [8], [9], [10]	Фронтальный опрос
3.4	Тема 3.4. Сложные предложения и их типы <i>Способы связи в сложных предложениях.</i> Координация и субординация. <i>Сложносочиненные</i> предложения как реализация сочинительной связи. Логические связи компонентов (<i>clause</i>) сложносочиненного предложения. Союзная и бессоюзная связь. <i>Сложноподчиненные</i> предложения как реализация подчинительной связи. Два вида подчинения – присловное и предложенческое. Придаточные предложения, зависящие от всего предложения; возможность их трансформации в сложносочиненные структуры. Семантическая и структурная специфика предложений со значениями условия, сравнения, уступки, причины и следствия. Соотношение сложного предложения и других предикативных единиц.	2				УМК, опорный конспект, проектор	[1], [2], [3], [4], [5], [6], [10]	Фронтальный опрос, защита рефератов, докладов
3.5	Тема 3.5. Грамматика и категории текста Текст как особый объект лингвистического описания. Текст и дискурс. Коммуникативная и семантическая				2	УМК, тесты	[1], [2], [4], [5], [7]	Контрольная работа

	<p>структуры текста. Категории текста. Когезия и когерентность. Абзац и его структура. Средства связи в тексте: тема-рематические цепочки, дейксис, замещение, видо-временная последовательность, временной контекст. Семантическая связность текста: катафорические и анафорические связи в тексте.</p>							
	Итого:	20	10		4			

4.2 МЕТОДИЧЕСКИЕ УКАЗАНИЯ ПО ИЗУЧЕНИЮ ДИСЦИПЛИНЫ

Структура содержания учебной дисциплины

Общая трудоемкость дисциплины составляет 3 зачетные единицы. Общее количество часов, отведенных на изучение дисциплины – 100, аудиторных часов – 34, из них лекционные занятия – 20 часов, семинарские занятия – 10, КСР – 4. Преподавание теоретической грамматики как самостоятельной учебной дисциплины продолжается в течение одного семестра. Формой итогового контроля является экзамен в 7 семестре.

Методы (технологии) обучения

Курс «Теоретическая грамматика» состоит из блока лекций и блока практических занятий. Лекции носят в основном проблемный характер, одной из главных целей которых является выработка самостоятельного научного мышления. Практические занятия нацелены на формирование навыков творческого анализа языкового материала и лингвистической литературы.

В числе наиболее перспективных и эффективных современных инновационных образовательных методик и технологий, способствующих вовлечению студентов в поиск и управление знаниями, приобретению опыта самостоятельного решения разнообразных задач, следует выделить: технологии проблемно-модульного обучения; технология учебно-исследовательской деятельности; проектные технологии; коммуникативные технологии (дискуссия, пресс-конференция, мозговой штурм, учебные дебаты и другие активные формы и методы); метод кейсов (анализ ситуации); игровые технологии, в рамках которых студенты участвуют в ролевых, имитационных играх, и др.

Для управления учебным процессом и организации контрольно-оценочной деятельности рекомендуется использовать рейтинговые, кредитно-модульные системы оценки учебной и исследовательской деятельности студентов, вариативные модели управляемой самостоятельной работы, учебно-методические комплексы, информационные технологии.

Рекомендации по подготовке к семинарским занятиям

Подготовку к семинарскому занятию следует начинать с изучения темы и плана, включающего несколько вопросов, и рекомендуемого списка литературы. Задания предусматривают анализ списка вопросов и поиск на них ответов в учебных пособиях, Интернет-источниках самостоятельно. Особое внимание обращается на те аспекты, которые не были достаточно освещены в лекциях и предназначены для самостоятельного усвоения и понимания.

При подготовке к обсуждению отдельных тем следует рекомендовать студентам дополнительную литературу, указанную в библиографическом списке. Вопросы к теоретическому материалу курса являются основой для контроля усвоения изученного материала.

Теоретические положения рекомендуется сопровождать заданиями и упражнениями, которые способствуют пониманию и усвоению теоретического материала. Упражнения должны содержать вопросы, которые стимулируют независимое, самостоятельное мышление, развивают свою точку зрения, учат отстаивать ее.

Рекомендации по организации и выполнению самостоятельной работы студентов по дисциплине

Самостоятельная работа по дисциплине «Теоретическая грамматика (английский язык)» направлена на углубление и закрепление знаний студента, развитие практических

умений и заключается в: работе студентов с лекционным материалом, анализе академической литературы по заданной проблеме; изучении теоретического материала к практическим занятиям; выполнении практических заданий на семинарских занятиях; изучении тем, вынесенных на самостоятельную проработку; изучении теоретического и практического материала заданного раздела. В рамках УСР также реализуется так называемая творческая проблемно-ориентированная самостоятельная работа студентов, которая направлена на развитие интеллектуальных умений, комплекса универсальных (общекультурных) и профессиональных компетенций, повышение творческого потенциала студентов и включает следующие виды работ: анализ научных публикаций по заранее определенной тематике и создание конспектов, схем, таблиц; создание банков примеров по темам курса; поиск, анализ и презентация информации на семинарских занятиях по темам, вынесенным на самостоятельную проработку.

Контроль самостоятельной работы студентов осуществляется во время аудиторных занятий или во время текущих консультаций в индивидуальной беседе с преподавателем. Часть заданий по УРС проверяется при использовании следующих приемов работы: работа в парах, в группах. Выполненные в рамках самостоятельной работы задания также заслушиваются в виде защиты проектов, докладов.

Рекомендуемые средства диагностики

Оценка учебных достижений студента осуществляется с использованием фонда оценочных средств и технологий. Фонд оценочных средств учебных достижений студента включает:

- типовые задания в различных формах (устные, письменные, тестовые, ситуационные и т.п.);
- контрольные работы;
- тестовые задания;
- творческие задания студентов;

Фонд технологий контроля обучения включает:

- устный индивидуальный и фронтальный опрос;
- защита творческого проекта по теме учебной программы дисциплины;
- текущая аттестация студентов в середине семестра с применением устной, письменной, тестовой и иных методик контроля обучения;
- коллоквиум.

4.3 ГЛЮССАРИЙ ТЕРМИНОВ

A

Accidence Accidence is part of morphology treating of word inflection.

Actant Semantic entities representing participants in a situation defined by their abstract semantic function — the function of Agent, Patient, Experiencer, Beneficiary, Instrument, etc (L. Tesnière, A. Greimas).

Active See **passive**.

Adjective An adjective is a word such as *wise* that typically can premodify a noun such as *decision* (*a wise decision*) and function as **subject predicative** after a **copular verb** such as *be* or *seem* (*The decision is/seems wise*). When used as the premodifier of a noun, the adjective is attributive; when used as subject predicative, it is predicative. Adjectives that can be used both attributively and predicatively are central adjectives. Most adjectives can be intensified by adverbs such as *very* (*very wise/informative*) and permit **comparison** either **inflectionally** (*wiser, wisest*) or periphrastically (*more informative, most informative*). The inflectional forms are comparative (*wiser*) or superlative (*wisest*). Adjectives that accept intensification and comparison are gradable adjectives. See also **gradability, nominal adjective**.

Adjective clause a subordinate clause used as adjective: Everyone *who approves* should vote for him.

Adjective phrase An adjective phrase has an adjective such as *heavy* or *informative* as its head. Within the adjective phrase the adjective may be premodified (*too heavy*) or postmodified (*afraid of spiders*) or both premodified and postmodified (*too heavy to carry, extremely afraid of spiders*).

Adjunct An adjunct is an **adverbial** (an optional element) that is integrated to some extent in sentence or clause structure. The major semantic subclasses of adjuncts are space, mainly referring to location (*in my city*) or direction (*to New York*); time, mainly referring to time location (*on Monday*), duration (*permanently*), or frequency (*every week*); process, mainly conveying the manner in which the action denoted by the verb is performed (*smoothly*); focus, adverbials that focus on a particular unit (*only, mainly, utterly*). Adverbials that are not adjuncts are sentence adverbials, either **conjuncts** or **disjuncts**.

Adverb An adverb is a word that typically functions as a premodifier of an adjective or another adverb or as an **adverbial**. *Very* is an adverb that can be a premodifier of an adjective (*very sharp*) or another adverb (*very carelessly*). *Often* is an adverb that functions as an adverbial (*They often complained about the noise*). Many adverbs can be either premodifiers (*too loud, too loudly*) or adverbials (*I too have complained*), though not necessarily with the same meaning. Adverbs that have the same form as adjectives can take **comparison** inflections: comparative ('work *harder*'), superlative ('work *hardest*').

Adverbial clause An adverbial clause is a clause that functions as an **adverbial** in sentence or clause structure: John left *whenever he felt like it*.

Adverbial modifier (adverbial) The Adverbial Modifier (The Adverbial) is a part of the sentence which modifies a verb, an adjective or an adverb and represents the circumstances (time, place, degree, manner, etc.) of an action.

Adverb phrase An adverb phrase has an adverb such as *badly* or *luckily* as its head. The adverb may be **premodified** (*so quickly, very luckily*), or **postmodified** (*quickly enough, luckily for me*), or both premodified and postmodified (*very luckily for me*).

Affix An affix is a segment that is not itself a word but is attached to a word. If it is attached to the beginning of a word it is a prefix (*un-* in *undecided*), and if it is attached to the end of a word

it is a suffix (*-ize* in *polarize*). Suffixes that represent grammatical categories, such as plural for nouns and past for verbs, are inflections (*-s* in *computers* and *-ed* in *revealed*). The process of adding affixes to form new words is affixation or derivation.

Agent (as a semantic role) It is the person or other being that instigates the happening denoted by the verb, e. g.: *Jenny* has written me a letter.

Agreement Agreement is a way of connection implying (involving) concord of grammatical forms in a subordinate word–group, as in *these books, those men*.

Allo–term Allo–term is a variant language unit actualized in a concrete speech string. See **eme–term**.

Allomorph An allomorph is a **variant** form of the same **morpheme**. For example, there is a negative prefix whose usual allomorph is *in–* (*incompetent*), but it also has allomorphs in *il–* (*illegal*), *im–* (*impatient*), and *ir–* (*irregular*). In phonetic conditioning, the choice of allomorph is determined by a neighbouring sound (as in the allomorphs of the negative prefix *in–*). In lexical conditioning, the choice depends on the particular word (the *–en* inflection in *taken*). In grammatical conditioning, the variation depends on the grammatical class of the word (the different stress pattern — and consequent pronunciation differences — of the verb *rebel* and the noun *rebel*). In stylistic conditioning, the choice of allomorph depends on the style (the informal contraction *n't* in *isn't*).

Allophone An allophone is a pronunciation variant of the same **phoneme** (abstract sound unit). Allophonic variation may depend on the sound that precedes or follows an allophone (the different way that /l/ is usually pronounced in *lick* and *milk*). Very often allophones are in free variation, varying with the same speaker on different occasions. Differences in pronunciation are also affected by physical differences between speakers as well as by general differences in sex and age.

Alternative condition An alternative condition presents two or more conditions ('*Whether you buy the house or rent it, you'll find the monthly payments too expensive*').

Alternative question An alternative question offers two or more choices for the response (*Do you want to stay a little longer or go home straightaway? Which would you prefer, coffee or tea?*).

Analytical(al) cases Analytical(al) cases is a conventional term applied to prep.+ noun groups rendering meanings similar to those of inflected cases; e. g. *to + N; with + N; of + N*.

Anaphoric Anaphoric reference is a reference to a preceding expression (*it* referring to *a draft* in *I'll write a draft and show it to you for your comments*). **Cataphoric** reference is a reference to a following expression (*she* referring to *the doctor* in *As soon as she had finished questioning the patient, the doctor phoned for an ambulance*). See also **deixis**, **ellipsis**.

Antecedent The antecedent of an expression is the expression that it refers to. The antecedent of *who* in *the official who spoke to us so rudely* is *the official*, and the antecedent of *she* is *the doctor* in *The doctor will see you as soon as she is ready*.

Anticipatory it Anticipatory *it* takes the position (usually a subject) that might have been occupied by a clause. Instead of the clausal subject in *That they refused to sign our petition is surprising*, anticipatory *it* is introduced as subject and the clause is extraposed (postponed to the end) in *It is surprising that they refused to sign our petition*.

Apposition Apposition is a relationship between two units that refer to the same entity or overlap in their reference. Typically the units are noun phrases and are juxtaposed (*George Washington, the first president of the United States*). Sometimes an apposition marker introduces the second unit (*namely, that is to say, for example*). In coordinative apposition the two units are linked by *or* or (less usually) *and* (*eeg, or brain wave trace*). (New York, *the Empire State*; Richard *the Lion Hearted*. The *Empire State* and *the Lion Hearted* are known as appositives.)

Article *A*, *an*, and *the* are articles. Their function is to modify a noun or noun substitute. *A* and *an* are the indefinite articles. *The* is the definite article.

Aspect Aspect is a grammatical category referring primarily to the way that the time denoted by the verb is regarded. English has two aspects: the perfect aspect and the progressive (or continuous) aspect. The perfect aspect is expressed by a combination of the auxiliary *have* and the *-ed* participle (*has mentioned*, *have called*, *had seen*); it is used to locate the time of a situation as preceding that of another situation (*She has mentioned it several times since she arrived*). The progressive aspect is expressed by a combination of the auxiliary *be* and the **-ing participle** (*is mentioning*, *was calling*, *were seeing*); it is chiefly used to focus on the duration of a situation (*He was calling for help*). The two aspects may be combined, the perfect followed by the progressive (*He had been calling for help*). See also **participle**.

Asyndetic co-ordination See **co-ordination**.

Attribute The attribute is a part of the sentence which refers to a noun or another word of nominal nature and expresses a state, a quality, a process, evaluation, etc.

Auxiliary An auxiliary (or auxiliary verb or helping verb) is one of a small set of verbs that combine with a **main verb** to form the perfect or progressive **aspect** or the **passive**, or to convey distinctions of modality (such as possibility and permission), and to function as **operator** for forming negative sentences and questions. The three primary auxiliaries are *be*, *have*, and *do*. *Be* is used to form the progressive (*was making*) and the passive (*was made*), and *have* to form the perfect (*has made*). *Do* is used to perform the functions of an operator when no auxiliary is otherwise present (*Did they make it?*, *They didn't make it*). The **modals** (or modal auxiliaries) are *can*, *could*, *may*, *might*, *shall*, *should*, *will*, *would*, *must*. In addition, there are a number of marginal auxiliaries (*dare*, *need*, *ought to*, *used to*) that share some of the characteristics of the auxiliaries and a larger group of semi-auxiliaries (auxiliary-like verbs) that convey similar notions of time, aspect, and modality (e. g.: *be going to*, *have to*, *had better*).

B

Backshifting Backshifting is a shifting in the tense of the verb of a reported clause in indirect speech. *She said Pam was looking well* reports an utterance such as *Pam is looking well*, where the verb (*is*) is in the present tense. Similarly, the simple past and the present perfect may be backshifted to the past perfect: *Pam played well* and *Pam has played well* may both be reported as *She said Pam had played well*. The present tense may be retained if the situation (including an expressed opinion) holds at the time of reporting: *She said Pam writes well*. Backshifting also takes place in **conditional clauses**.

Base The base of a word is the segment to which a prefix or suffix is attached: the suffix *-able* is attached to the base *enjoy*, and the prefix *un-* is attached to the base *enjoyable*. Compounds have more than one base: *dry-clean*. The root of a word is what remains when all affixes are stripped from a word. Thus, *agree* is the root of both *agrees* and *disagreeable*.

Base form The base form of the verb is the uninflected form (*remain*, *take*, *write*), the form to which inflections are added (*remained*, *takes*, *writing*), except that for the highly irregular verb *be* the base form is *be*. The base form is used for: (1) the present tense except for the third person singular (*They remain in good spirits*), but *be* has the equivalents *am* and *are*, (2) the imperative (*Remain here*); (3) present subjunctive (*I recommended that he remain here*); (4) infinitive, which may be the bare infinitive (*You must remain here*) or the **to-infinitive** (*I want you to remain here*).

Beneficient (as a semantic role) Beneficient is a person or other being for whose sake an action is performed.

Bound morph A bound morpheme is a morpheme that cannot form a word by itself. See **morpheme**.

C

Case Case is a grammatical category in which distinctions in the forms of words indicate grammatical relationships between words. In present-day English, case distinctions apply only to nouns and certain pronouns. For nouns, the only case form is the genitive (or possessive) case (as in *man's* and *men's*), all other forms having no inflection (common case). Certain pronouns, chiefly personal pronouns, distinguish between subjective case (*I, we*), objective case (*me, us*), and genitive case (*my, our*), though the genitives of personal pronouns are often separately designated as possessive pronouns. Old English had additional cases and they extended to adjectives and determiners. The cases in Old English (with their characteristic uses) were nominative (for the subject of a sentence or clause), accusative (for the direct object), the genitive, the dative (for the indirect object), and the instrumental (usually not distinct from the dative, to express the means employed in an action or the manner of the action).

Cataphoric See **anaphoric**.

Clause A clause is a construction that typically consists minimally of a subject and a verb (*I laughed*), though in an imperative clause the subject is generally absent but implied, so that minimally only the verb needs to be present (*Sir*). A clause may be within a larger construction: coordinated with another clause (the two clauses coordinated by *and* in *I paid this time and you can pay next time*), or subordinated within another clause (the subordinate **whether-clause** in *They asked whether I would pay*), or within a phrase (the **that-clause** in the noun phrase *the company that employed me*). In all the examples given so far, the clauses are **finite** in that their verb phrase is finite. But clauses may be non-finite (the infinitive clause in *I wanted to pay*, the *-ing* participle clause in *I enjoy paying*, and the *-ed* participle clause in *They wanted the house sold before the end of the year*) or verbless (the **when-clause** in *When in Rome, do as the Romans do*). A set of clauses interrelated by co-ordination or subordination (or minimally one clause that is independent of any such links) constitutes a sentence (or — a less misleading term for the spoken language — a clause cluster).

Clause cluster See **clause**.

Cleft sentence A cleft sentence is a sentence that is cleft (split) so as to put the focus on one part of it. The cleft sentence is introduced by *it*, which is followed by a verb phrase whose main verb is generally *be*. The focused part comes next, and then the rest of the sentence is introduced by a **relative pronoun**, **relative determiner**, or **relative adverb**. If we take the sentence *Tom felt a sharp pain after lunch*, two possible cleft sentences formed from it are *It was Tom who felt a sharp pain after lunch* and *It was after lunch that Tom felt a sharp pain*.

Clitic A clitic is a word that cannot occur independently but must be attached to another word. Clitics in English are contracted forms of words (*n't* for *not*, *'ll* for *will*). Generally they are attached at the end as enclitics (*wasn't, we're*), but they may also be attached at the beginning as proclitics (*d'you, 'tis*). A combination of proclitic and enclitic appears in *'t isn't*.

Closed class Closed classes are in contrast with open classes, and both denote classes of words (or parts of speech) that are required for grammatical description. A closed class is a set of words that is small enough to be listed fully and that does not readily admit new members. The closed classes that are generally recognized for English include **auxiliaries**, **conjunctions**, **prepositions**, **determiners**, and **pronouns**. The four open classes, which readily admit new members, are nouns, adjectives, verbs, and adverbs. Closed-class words are termed grammatical words or function words because of their importance in grammatical relations, whereas open-class words have been called lexical or content words.

Code A code is a semiotic system, a system of informative signs (signals), conventionally adopted by the community.

Coherence Coherence refers to the continuity of meaning that enables others to make sense of a written text or of a stretch of speech.

Cohesion Cohesion refers to lexical and grammatical devices for linking parts of a written text or spoken discourse. Lexical devices include repetition of words or substitution of synonymous expressions. Grammatical devices include use of pronouns and ellipsis.

Collective noun A collective noun denotes a group of people, animals, or institutions. A singular collective noun may be treated as plural (more commonly in British English than in American English) and therefore take a plural verb and (particularly) plural pronouns when the focus is on the group as individuals: *The enemy have brought in more of their paratroops.*

Combinatory co-ordination See **co-ordination**.

Common noun See **proper noun**.

Comparative See **adjective, adverb**.

Comparative clause Comparative clauses are introduced by the subordinators *as* or *than*. They correlate with a preceding comparative element: *more* or the *-er* comparative inflection, *less*, or *as* (*more tolerant than I thought, cleverer than his brothers are, less important than the other items on the agenda were, as tall as she is*).

Comparison Comparison applies to adjectives or adverbs that are gradable. There are three directions of comparison: higher (*taller than Sue*), same (*as tall as Sue*), lower (*less tall than Sue*). There are three degrees of comparison: absolute (*tall*), comparative (*taller*), superlative (*tallest*). The superlative *least* is used to express the lowest direction, *least tall* contrasting with *tallest*.

Complement A complement is a phrase or clause whose form is determined by the word it complements. For example, the verb *asked* in *She asked me three questions* admits two complements: *me* (**indirect object**) and *three questions* (**direct object**), whereas the verb *answered* in *I answered her questions* admits just one complement: *her questions* (direct object). Apart from direct and indirect objects, complements of verbs may be **subject predicative** (*responsible* in *Jeremy is responsible*) or **object predicative** (*responsible* in *I consider Jeremy responsible*). Prepositions generally require complements (*my parents* in *from my parents*). Complements also occur with adjectives (*of tomato juice* in *fond of tomato juice*) and nouns (*whether it is hers* in *the question whether it is hers*). See also **preposition**.

Complementary distribution Complementary distribution is the relation of formally different morphs having the same function in different environments, e. g.: cows — oxen. See **contrastive distribution, non-contrastive distribution**.

Complex sentence A complex sentence consists of a **main clause** that has one or more subordinate clauses. The **that-clause** is a subordinate clause in the complex sentence 'Everybody thought *that he had won*.'

Complex-transitive verb A complex-transitive verb has two complements: a **direct object** and an object predicative: *They named us* (direct object) *the winners* (object predicative). See also **subject predicative**.

Compound A compound is a word formed from a combination of two or more words (strictly speaking, two or more **bases**). Compounds may be written solid (*turncoat, mouthpiece*), hyphenated (*mother-in-law, cook-chill*), or as separate orthographic words (*smart card, junk food*). Noun compounds generally have their main stress on the first word.

Compound sentence A compound sentence is a sentence that consists of two or more **main clauses** (each of which could be an independent sentence) that are linked by coordination, the coordinator generally being *and, but, or* ('It has only been a week *and* I feel lonesome without you').

Compound-complex sentence Sentence containing two or more independent clauses and one or more dependent clauses.

Conditional clause Most conditional clauses are introduced by the subordinator *if*. Conditions may be open (or real), leaving completely open whether the condition will be fulfilled

(*You're going to be in trouble if you've infected me*). Or they may be hypothetical (or unreal or closed), expressing that the condition has not been fulfilled (for past conditions), is not fulfilled, or will not be fulfilled. Hypothetical conditions take backshifted tenses: for present and future conditions, the past is used in the conditional clause and a past modal (generally *would*) in the host clause ('If I *had* my dictionary, I *would look up* the word'); for past conditions, the **past perfect** is used in the conditional clause and a past perfect modal (generally *would have*) in the host clause ('If I *had seen* them, I *would have invited* them to eat with us'). Subjunctive *were* is sometimes used instead of indicative *was* in the conditional clause, particularly in formal style ('If she *were* here, you would not need me'). Conditional clauses may also have **subject–operator inversion** without a subordinator, generally when the operator is *had*, *were*, or *should* ('*Had* I known, I would have told you'). See also **backshifting**, **alternative condition**, **wh–conditional clause**.

Conjunct Conjuncts are sentence **adverbials** that indicate logical relationships between sentences or between clauses. They are mainly adverbs (e. g. *therefore*, *however*, *nevertheless*) or prepositional phrases (e. g. *on the other hand*, *in consequence*, *in conclusion*). See also **disjunct**.

Conjunction Conjunctions are either co–ordinators (or co–ordinating conjunctions) or subordinators (or subordinating conjunctions). The central co–ordinators are *and*, *or*, and *but*. Co–ordinators link units of equal status, which may be clauses or phrases (including single words): *I recognized them, but they didn't remember me, out of work and in trouble; soft or hard*. Often considered as marginal co–ordinators are *nor* and *for*. The co–ordination may be emphasized by a correlative expression: *both ...and; either ... or; not (only)... but (also); neither ... nor*. Subordinators link subordinate clauses to their host clauses. Among the many subordinators are *if*, *since*, *because*, *although*: *I can lend you some money if you have none on you*. Subordinators are sometimes emphasized by a correlative expression in the following clause: *if ... then; because ... therefore; although ... nevertheless; whether ... or; as ... so*.

Conjunctive adverb Adverb used as conjunction. Most common examples are: *however*, *thus*, and *therefore*.

Content word See **closed class**.

Continuous See **aspect**.

Continuous morpheme A continuous morpheme is an uninterrupted string of phonemes building up a morpheme. See **discontinuous morpheme**.

Contrastive distribution Relations of different morphs in the identical environment See **non–contrastive distribution**, **complementary distribution**.

Conversion Conversion is the term in word–formation for creating a new word by shifting an existing word to a different word class without adding a prefix: the noun *drink* from the verb *drink*, the verb *butter* from the noun *butter*, the verb *clean* from the adjective *clean*.

Co–ordination Co–ordination is the linking of two or more units that would have the same function if they were not linked. When co–ordinators such as *and* are present, the co–ordination is syndetic: *I enjoy classical music, jazz, and pop music*. When coordinators are not present but are implied, the co–ordination is asyndetic: '*Distinguished guests, colleagues, friends*, I welcome you all.' If three or more units are co–ordinated and the co–ordinator is repeated between each unit, the co–ordination is polysyndetic: '*The cake contains eggs and flour and cheese and honey and spices*' Co–ordination of noun phrases may be segregatory or combinatory. In segregatory co–ordination each noun phrase could function separately in a paraphrase involving the co–ordination of the clauses: '*Bomb warnings and drugs courier baggage were mentioned*' → '*Bomb warnings were mentioned and drugs courier baggage was mentioned*.' This is not possible in combinatory co–ordination: '*Peter and Laura first met at a dance*.' Combinatory co–ordination is also found with adjectives: '*a red, white, and blue flag*.' See also **conjunction**.

Co-ordinative apposition In co-ordinative apposition the two noun phrases that are in apposition are linked by the co-ordinator *and* or *or*. *eeg or electroencephalogram; She is the book's author and Mr. Deng's youngest daughter.*

Co-ordinator See **conjunction**.

Copular verb A copular (or linking) verb is complemented by a **subject predicative** in sentence or clause structure. The most common copular verb is *be*, others include *become* (*my friend*), *feel* (*tired*), *get* (*ready*), *seem* (*happy*). A copular prepositional verb is a prepositional verb (combination of verb plus preposition) that is complemented by a subject predicative: *sound like* (*you*), *turn into* (*a monster*), *serve as* (*mitigating circumstances*).

Correlative See **conjunction**.

Count noun A count (or countable) noun is a noun that has both singular and plural forms (*book/books*) and can take determiners (as appropriate) that accompany distinctions in number (*a/this book, many/these books*).

D

Dative case See **case**.

Declarative A declarative (or declarative sentence) is the most common type of sentence type, typically used in the expression of statements and generally requiring **subject — verb** order: *It was raining last night; Nobody saw us; Cindy is the best candidate*. The other sentence types, with which it is contrasted, are interrogative, imperative, and **exclamative**. A declarative question is a declarative that has the force of a question. In speech it ends with rising intonation, and in writing it ends with a question mark: *You accept their word?*

Deep structure The formal syntactical construction represented by dummy symbols replaced by lexical entities in ways determined by their feature content. See **surface structure**.

Definite A definite noun phrase conveys the assumption that the hearer or reader can identify what it refers to. Identification may be assumed when (for example) the phrase refers to something previously mentioned or uniquely identifiable from general knowledge or from the particular context. Definite reference is associated with the use of the definite article *the*, the personal pronouns, the demonstratives, and proper names. Definite reference contrasts with indefinite reference, commonly signalled by the indefinite article *a/an* ('I bought *a* used car last week for the family, but *the* car (or *it*) is giving me a lot of trouble').

Definite article The definite article is *the*. With singular noun phrases it contrasts with the indefinite article *a/an* (*a house, the house*). With plural noun phrases it contrasts with the zero article, i.e. the absence of an article or other determiner (*the houses, houses*), or with the indefinite determiner *some* (*the houses, some houses*).

Deixis Deixis may be situational or textual. Situational deixis denotes the use of expressions to point to some feature of the situation, typically persons or objects in the situation and temporal or locational features. For example, the pronoun *I* is necessarily deictic, referring to the speaker and writer and **shifting** its reference according to who is speaking or writing. Similarly, *here* and *now* may be situationally bound as is the use of tenses that take as their point of reference the time of speaking or writing. Textual deixis denotes the use of expressions to point to other expressions in the linguistic context. References to what comes earlier are anaphoric, whereas references to what comes later are cataphoric. See also **anaphoric**.

Demonstrative The demonstrative pronouns and determiners are singular *this* and *that* and their respective plurals *these* and *those*.

Denominatives Denominatives are verbs derived from N-stems and A-stems by means of conversion; e. g. *to eye, to elbow, to empty*.

Denotate A denotate is an object of extralingual reality denoted by a linguistic sign.

Deontic Deontic (or root or intrinsic) meanings of the modals refer to some kind of human control over the situation, such as permission or obligation (*may* in *You may sit down now* or *must* in *I must tell you about it*). Deontic meanings contrast with epistemic meanings, which refer to some kind of evaluation of the truth–value of the proposition such as possibility or necessity (*may* in *It may rain later* or *must* in *That must be your sister*). Each of the modals has both kinds of meaning. See also **auxiliary**.

Dependent genitive See **genitive**.

Derivation See **affix**.

Derived sentence A derived sentence is a transform of a kernel, a result of transformation; e. g. NVN_1N_2 — NVN_2 to N_1 . *They gave Jackson a package* — *They gave a package to Jackson*.

Designate A designate is the content side, the meaning of a linguistic sign; e. g. *the designate of to communicate is to exchange ideas, news, opinions*.

Designator (significant) A designator (significant) is the expression side, the form of a linguistic sign.

Determiner Determiners introduce noun phrases. They convey various pragmatic and semantic contrasts relating to the type of reference of the noun phrase and to notions such as number and quantity. In their positional potentialities they fall into three sets: predeterminers (e. g. *all, both*), central determiners (e. g. *a/an, the, my, this*), and postdeterminers (e. g. *two, many, several*). Most of the words that function as determiners also function as pronouns (e. g. *this, some, all*).

Direct object A direct object is a complement of a transitive verb. It generally follows the verb in a declarative sentence (*my car* in *Norman has borrowed my car*). It can be made the subject of a corresponding passive sentence (*My car has been borrowed by Norman*) and can be elicited by a question with *who(m)* or *what* in company with the subject and verb (*What did Norman borrow? My car*). The direct object is typically the entity affected by the action.

Direct speech Direct speech quotes the actual words used by somebody, and in writing it is enclosed in quotation marks: (*Charles asked me,*) *'What shall I do next?'*. Indirect speech reports the substance of what was said or written: (*Charles asked me*) *what he should do next*.

Discontinuous morpheme A discontinuous morpheme is a morpheme built up of an interrupted string of phonemes, e. g.: *be...-en*

Disjunct Disjuncts are sentence **adverbials**, either style disjuncts or content disjuncts. Style disjuncts comment on the act of speaking or writing, and may be adverbs (*bluntly, honestly, personally*), prepositional phrases (*in all fairness, in short, between you and me*), non–finite clauses (*frankly speaking, putting it bluntly, to be truthful*), and finite clauses (*if I may say so, since you ask me*): *'Honestly, I didn't do it'; 'Since you ask me, I wouldn't mind a drink'*. Content disjuncts comment on the truth–value of what is said (*possibly, undoubtedly, in all probability*) or evaluate it (*unfortunately, to my delight, what is more disappointing*): *'Our side will undoubtedly win'; 'Unfortunately, the deadline has passed'*.

Distribution Distribution is the contextual environment of a language unit. See **contrastive, non–contrastive, complementary distribution**.

Ditransitive See **transitive verb**.

Double genitive See **genitive**.

Doubly transitive phrasal–prepositional verb See **phrasal–prepositional verb**.

Doubly transitive prepositional verb See **prepositional verb**.

Dummy operator Auxiliary *do* is a dummy operator, since it functions as an operator in the absence of any other auxiliary when an operator is required to form questions (*My sister likes them*

→ *Does my sister like them?*), to make the sentence negative (*My sister doesn't like them*), or to form an abbreviated clause (*My sister likes them, and I do too*).

E

Ellipsis Ellipsis is the omission of a part of a normal structure. The ellipsed part can be understood from the situational context (ellipsis of *have you* in *Got any suggestions?*) or the textual context, where it may be anaphoric (dependent on what precedes: *May I drive? Yes, you may*) or cataphoric (dependent on what follows: *If you don't want to, I'll drive*). See also **anaphoric**.

Elliptical (incomplete) sentence An elliptical two-member sentence is a sentence in which one or more word-forms in the subject and the predicate positions are omitted. These words can be omitted because they have only grammatical, structural relevance, they do not carry any new relevant information and they can be readily supplied to complete the meaning of the sentence. (*Looks like rain. You sure?*)

Eme-term An eme-term is a generalized invariant language unit. See **allo-term**.

Emphatic reflexive See **reflexive pronoun**.

Empty morph See **morpheme**.

Enclitic See **clitic**.

End focus The principle of end focus requires that the most important information comes at the end of the sentence or clause.

End weight The principle of end weight requires that a longer unit follow a shorter unit if the choice is available. See also **extraposed postmodifier**.

Epistemic See **deontic**.

Equipollent opposition An equipollent opposition is an opposition whose members have different positive categorial features. See **privative opposition**, **gradual opposition**.

Exclamative An exclamative (or exclamative sentence) is a sentence type in which the exclamative element is fronted, introduced by *what* (followed by the rest of the noun phrase) or by *how* (otherwise): *What a good time we had; How kind you are*.

Existential there Existential *there* is used in a rearrangement of the sentence in which the subject is postponed, the effect being to present the postponed (notional) subject as new information: *Too many cars are ahead of us* → *There are too many cars ahead of us*. If the sentence consists only of the subject and the verb *be*, then only the existential sentence is normally possible: *There's still time*.

Experiencer Experiencer is the person enduring a certain state, e. g.: *He wants to eat*.

Explicit meaning Explicit meaning is that one of categorial relevance signalled by a formal marker and realized through oppositions; e. g. the plural meaning of the 's'-marker in the opposition *text* — *texts* is explicit.

Extraposed postmodifier An extraposed postmodifier is a postmodifier in a noun phrase (generally a noun phrase functioning as subject) that is postponed to a later position in the sentence, in accordance with the principle of **end weight**: *A tape recording in which a huge ransom was demanded was received* → *A tape recording was received in which a huge ransom was demanded*.

Extrinsic See **deontic**.

F

Finite A verb is finite if it displays tense, the distinction between present and past tense: *cares/cared, take/took*. A verb phrase is finite if the first (or only) verb in the phrase is finite, all other verbs being non-finite: *is caring/was caring, has taken/had taken*. A clause is finite if its verb

is finite: *I cared about what they thought of me, I generally take a nap after lunch.* The non-finite verb forms are the infinitive, the *-ing* participle, and the *-ed* participle. See also **aspect**, **clause**, **infinitive**, **participle**, **non-finite form of the verb**.

Formals Formals are structural substitutes of function sets (tagmemes); e. g. *we found it strange that...; it is necessary that...*

Form-class A form-class is a distributional class of elements (words, phrases, clauses) occurring in the same position of a construction.

Free morph See **morpheme**.

Function Function is manifestation of relationship between related elements; e. g. objective relations inherent between the *V*-head and *N*-complement in *V + N*-phrase are manifested by the object function of the complement.

Functional part of speech — a part of speech having a partial nominative value. See **notional part of speech**.

Function word See **word class**.

G

Gender Gender is a grammatical category in which contrasts are made within a word class (in present-day English restricted to certain pronouns and determiners) such as personal/non-personal, masculine/feminine/neuter. The most conspicuous gender contrasts in present-day English are found in the third person singular personal pronouns *he/she/it*.

Generic In generic reference, noun phrases are used in generalizations to refer to all members of the class denoted by the phrases that are relevant in the context: '*Coffee* contains *caffeine*'; '*The poor* are always with us'; '*Apples* are good for you'; '*An apple* a day keeps *the doctor* away'.

Genitive The genitive (or possessive) case applies to nouns and some pronouns. The genitives for *child* are singular *child's* and plural *children's*, and for *girl* they are singular *girl's* and plural *girls'*. Genitives may be dependent or independent. A phrase with a dependent genitive is dependent on a following noun phrase: 'the child's parents', parallel with 'her parents'. The independent genitive is not dependent in this way, though a following noun may be implied: 'I'm going to my cousin's.' The double genitive is a combination of a genitive and an **of-phrase**: 'that article of Estelle's.' The group genitive applies not just to the noun to which it is attached: 'an hour and a half's sleep'; 'the president of the company's resignation'. See also **case**.

Gerund The gerund is an **-ing participle** that shares characteristics of a noun and a verb. *Finding* is a gerund in 'It depends on Algeria's *finding* more efficient ways to run its factories'. Like a noun it is preceded by a genitive (*Algeria's*) that is dependent on it, but like a verb it takes a direct object (*finding more efficient ways to run its factories*). The genitive is often replaced by a noun in the common case (*Algeria*). In the same context, possessive pronouns (*their* in *their finding*) are often replaced by pronouns in the objective case (*them finding*).

Goal (Addressee, Dative) — entity towards which an action is directed, e. g.: *He gives a book to Jean*.

Government It is a way of connection when the head of a subordinate word-group requires of its adjunct to assume an appropriate grammatical form (usually a case-form) or to be used with definite preposition; e. g. *to see him* (case government), *to look at a man* (prepositional government).

Gradual opposition A gradual opposition is an opposition whose members are characterized by the expression of a certain degree of one and the same categorial feature. See **privative opposition**, **equopollent opposition**.

Gradability Gradable words allow intensification and comparison. *Clever* is gradable because we can intensify it up or down on a scale of cleverness (*very clever, quite clever, somewhat clever*) and it can be compared (*cleverer, cleverest, as clever, more clever*). On the other hand, *animate* is not gradable.

Group genitive See **genitive**.

H

Heterogeneous Different in kind; having dissimilar or incongruous elements. See **homogeneous**.

Hierarchy Organization of elements based on ranking.

Homogeneous Of the same kind or nature; essentially alike; uniform in structure; composed of parts all of the same kind. See **heterogeneous**.

Homograph Homographs are two (or more) distinct words that happen to be spelled the same. *Tear* represents two words that are pronounced differently, one being a noun ('drop from the eye') and the other a verb ('pull apart') or a noun derived from a verb.

Homomorph Homomorphs are words that are related in meaning and are pronounced and spelled the same but are distinct grammatically. For example, the verb *laugh* and the noun *laugh* are homomorphs.

Homonym Homonyms are distinct words that have the same form. *Bank* (where money is deposited) and *bank* (of a river) are homonyms. In this instance, they are spelled and pronounced the same and belong to the same word class (nouns). See also **homograph, homomorph, homophone**.

Homophone Homophones are distinct words that are spelled differently but happen to be pronounced the same. *One* and *won* are homophones.

Host clause See **subordinate clause**.

Host phrase See **subordinate clause**.

Hypotaxis Hypotaxis is in contrast with parataxis. Parataxis is a relationship between two or more units that are of equal grammatical status, as in co-ordination (*books and magazines*), whereas hypotaxis is a relationship between two units, one of which is dependent on the other, as in modification (the relationship between the relative *that*-clause and its noun head *books* in *books that I have read*).

Hypothetical condition See **conditional clause**.

Hypothetical subjunctive See **subjunctive**.

I

Illocutionary act An illocutionary act is an utterance which has a certain conventional force, e. g.: informing, ordering, warning, undertaking, etc. See **locutionary act, perlocutionary act, speech act**.

Imperative An imperative is a sentence (or clause) type. It expresses commands. The verb is in the **base form**, and typically the subject is absent, though *you* is implied as subject: *Look over there*. The term 'imperative' is also used for the verb functioning in the imperative sentence (*look* in *Look over there, be* in *Be quiet*).

Implicit meaning Implicit meaning is that one not expressed formally (implied passive, implicit plurality, reflexivity, etc.). Dependent implicit meanings realize through interaction with corresponding paradigmatic categories.

Indefinite article The indefinite article is *a* before consonant sounds (*a house*) and *an* before vowel sounds (*an hour*). See also **definite article**.

Indefinite determiner/pronoun Indefinite determiners and indefinite pronouns have indefinite reference. Some indefinite determiners and pronouns have the same form (*some, any, either, neither, all, both*), but *no* is only a determiner and others (e. g. *none, someone*) are only pronouns. See also **definite**.

Indefinite reference See **definite**.

Independent clause Clause that can stand alone and convey meaning as a simple sentence: *She was fond of all her friends*, although she loved no one in particular. Also known as main clause or principal clause.

Independent genitive See **genitive**.

Indicative See **mood**.

Indicative verbal forms Verbal forms expressing the categorial meanings of the indicative mood and describing the denoted action in terms of absolute time. See **mood**.

Indirect object An indirect object is a **complement** of a transitive verb. It normally comes between the verb and the **direct object** (*Jean* in *I gave Jean the old computer*). It can be elicited by a question introduced by *who(m)* (*Who do you give the old computer (to)? — Jean*), and can be made subject of a corresponding passive sentence (*Jean was given the old computer*). The indirect object typically has the role of recipient or beneficiary of the action.

Indirect speech See **direct speech**.

Indirect speech act See **speech act**.

Infinitive The infinitive has the **base form** of the verb. It may be preceded by infinitival *to* (*to be, to say*), but the bare infinitive (without *to*) is used after modals (*can say*), the **dummy operator** *do* (*did say, doesn't know*), and the imperative auxiliary *do* (*Do tell us*). **Infinitive clause** An infinitive clause is a clause whose verb is an **infinitive** (*I want to learn Chinese*).

Infix An infix is an affix inserted into the root (*sta-n-d: stood*) See **prefix, suffix, root**.

Inflection An inflection is an **affix** that expresses a grammatical relationship, such as the plural *-s* in *candidates* and the *-ed* ending in *wanted*. In English, inflections are always suffixes.

Inflectional suffix An inflectional suffix is a suffix which must always come at the end of the morpheme groups to which they belong.

Instrument (as a semantic role) — the physical stimulus of the action, e. g.: *to strike with a knife*

Instrumental case See **case**.

Interjection An interjection is an exclamatory emotive word that is loosely attached to the sentence or used as an utterance by itself, such as *oh* and *boo*.

Interrogative An interrogative (or interrogative sentence) is a sentence type in which there is **subject–operator inversion** (the operator coming before the subject), as in *Do you know them?* (in contrast to the **declarative** word order in *You know them*). The exception is if the subject is a *wh-item* in **wh-questions**, in which case the subject retains its position, as in *Who knows them?* (in contrast to *Who do they know?*). Interrogatives are typically used to ask questions.

Interrogative adverb The interrogative adverbs are *how, when, where, and why*. They are used to form **wh-questions**: *How did you find it? When did you last see her?*

Interrogative determiner/pronoun The interrogative pronouns are *who*, *whom*, *whose*, *which*, and *what*. The interrogative determiners are *which*, *what*, and *whose*. Like the interrogative adverbs, they are used to form **wh-questions**: *Who wants to play? Whose desk is this?*

Intertextuality Intertextuality is the relationship between a text and other past or coexisting texts. That relationship accounts for the conventions of genres and intentional deviations from conventions and for allusions.

Intransitive phrasal verb See **phrasal verb**.

Intransitive verb An intransitive verb is a verb that does not have a **complement**.

Intrinsic See **deontic**.

Inversion Any deviation from the rigid order of words.

Irregular verb Verb that forms its past tense and past participle by a change of vowels: *be*, *was*, *were*; *run*, *ran*, *run*; *sing*, *sang*, *sung*. Also known as strong verb.

Isomorphism Isomorphism is likeness or similarity of organisation.

L

Language Language is the system, phonological, lexical, and grammatical, which lies at the base of all speaking. It is the source which every speaker and writer has to draw upon if he is to be understood by other speakers of the language.

Left dislocation In left dislocation, an anticipatory noun phrase ('a phrase dislocated to the left') is followed by a pronoun that occupies the normal position for the phrase: '*Your mother, she* was just misunderstood'. In right dislocation, an anticipatory pronoun is in the normal position and an explanatory phrase appears later: '*They're* not great social animals, *computer scientists*.'

Level In structural grammar a level is a stage, a layer in hierarchy of language structure. It is common to distinguish the three main levels: phonological, morphological, syntactical.

Lexeme A lexeme is the lexical meaning bearer of the word, traditionally called "the stem"; a word taken as an invariant unity of form and meaning

Lexical cohesion See **cohesion**.

Lexical word See **closed class**.

Limitive verb (terminative verb) — a verb expressing a potential limit in the development of the denoted action. See **non-limitive verb**.

Locutionary act — uttering of a certain sentence with a certain sense and reference (J. Austin) See **illocutionary act**, **perlocutionary act**.

M

Main clause A main clause is a clause that is not subordinate to another clause. It may be coextensive with the sentence or it may be coordinated with one or more other main clauses.

Main verb The main (or lexical) verb is the head of the verb phrase (*smoking* in *may have been smoking*) and is sometimes preceded by one or more auxiliaries (*may have been* in *may have been smoking*).

Mandative subjunctive See **subjunctive**.

Marginal auxiliary See **auxiliary**.

Marker A marker is a formal signal of grammatical meaning. Zero-marker — the marker of the unmarked member of an opposition, meaningful absence of a grammatical marker; e. g. the *s*-inflection in *tasks* is the plural marker, whereas singular has a Zero-marker.

Marker of apposition See **apposition**.

Mass noun See **count noun**.

Modal auxiliary See **auxiliary**.

Modality Modality is the way in which proposition is modified in terms of reality/non-reality (possibility, necessity, desire, obligation, belief, hope, hypothesis, etc, etc.). It shows the relation of the nominative content to reality (M. Blokh) See **predication**.

Modifier A modifier is a subordinate element usually of a verb phrase which qualifies, describes or restricts the meaning of the head; e. g. *put the book here*; *come earlier*.

Monotransitive See **transitive**.

Monotransitive phrasal–prepositional verb See **phrasal–prepositional verb**.

Monotransitive prepositional verb See **prepositional verb**.

Mood English has three moods of verbs: indicative, **imperative**, and **subjunctive**. The indicative applies to most verbs in **declarative** sentences and to verbs in **interrogatives** and **exclamatives**. The imperative and the present subjunctive have the base form of the verb, and the past subjunctive is confined to *were*. See also **subjunctive**.

Morph See **morpheme**.

Morpheme A morpheme is an abstract unit established for the analysis of word structure. It is a basic unit in the vocabulary. A word can be analysed as consisting of one morpheme (*sad*) or two or more morphemes (*unluckily*, compare *luck*, *lucky*, *unlucky*), each morpheme usually expressing a distinct meaning. When a morpheme is represented by a segment, that segment is a morph. If a morpheme can be represented by more than one morph, the morphs are allomorphs of the same morpheme: the prefixes *in-* (*insane*), *il-* (*illegible*), *im-* (*impossible*), *ir-* (*irregular*) are allomorphs of the same negative morpheme. A portmanteau morph represents more than one morph: *men* is a combination of the morpheme for *man* plus the plural morpheme. An empty morph is a morph that lacks meaning; for example, the *-o-* in combining forms such as *psychology*. A suppletive morph is a morph from a different root that is used in a grammatical set; for example, *went* is the suppletive past of the verb *go*. A zero morph is postulated where a morpheme is expected in the grammatical system but is not represented; for example, the zero relative pronoun in *a letter I wrote* (compare *a letter that I wrote*). A free morph is one that occurs independently as a word, whereas a bound morph is always combined with one or more other morphs to form a word: inflections such as the plural *-s* are bound morphs, as are the suffix *-ness* in *goodness* and the bound root morph *cran-* in *cranberry*.

Morphology Morphology is the study of the structure of words.

Multi–word verb A multi–word verb is a combination of a verb with one or more other words to form an idiomatic unit. The most common multi word verbs are **phrasal verbs** (e. g. *give in*) and **prepositional verbs** (e. g. *rely on*).

N

Neutralization Neutralization is a type of oppositional reduction by which a neutralized language unit becomes fully functionally identified with its counter–member. See **transposition**.

Nominal adjective A nominal adjective is an adjective that functions as the head of a noun phrase. Like adjectives in general, nominal adjectives may be modified by an adverb (*very sick* in *They looked after the very sick*) and take comparative and superlative forms (*poorer* in *She employed the poorer among them*, *best* in *The best is yet to come*).

Nominal clause Nominal clauses have a range of functions similar to those of noun phrases. For example, they can be the subject of a sentence: the *that–clause* in *That they believe him is doubtful*, and the *whether– clause* in *Whether or not I am invited is irrelevant*.

Nominal relative clause A nominal relative clause (or independent relative clause or free relative clause) is a clause whose introductory word is a fusion of a **relative pronoun** or **relative determiner** with an implied **antecedent**: *Whoever said that* ('Any person who ...') *needs his head examining*; *What you want* ('The thing that you want') *is too expensive*; *They don't know how to behave* ('the way that they should behave'). See also **relative clause**.

Nominal relative determiner/pronoun Nominal relative pronouns and determiners introduce **nominal relative clauses**. There are twelve nominal relative pronouns: *who, whom, whoever, whomever, whosoever, whomsoever, which, whichever, whichever, what, whatever, whatsoever*. *Which* and *what* and their compounds can also be determiners.

Nominative case See **case**.

Non-contrastive distribution — relations of different morphs having the same function in the identical environments, e. g.: *learned* — *learnt*. See **contrastive distribution**, **complementary distribution**.

Non-count noun (uncountable noun) A non-count (or uncountable or mass) noun does not have a plural form; for example: *furniture, happiness, information*. Many nouns that are generally non-count can be treated as count when they are used to refer to different kinds (*French wines*) or to quantities (*two coffees*, 'two cups of coffee'). See also **count noun**.

Non-finite See **finite**.

Non-generic See **generic**.

Non-limitive verb (unlimitive/non-terminative/durative verb) — verb not expressing a potential limit in the development of the denoted action. See **limitive verbs**.

Non-restrictive See **restrictive**.

Non-specific See **specific**.

Notional part of speech — a part of speech of full nominative value.

Noun A noun is a word that (alone or with modifiers) is capable of functioning as subject (*rice* in '*Rice* is grown in this country'), or direct object ('I like *rice*'), or complement of a preposition ('This is made from *rice*').

Noun phrase A noun phrase is a phrase whose head (possibly its only word) is a noun (*coffee* in 'I prefer *black coffee*'), a pronoun (*that* in 'I prefer *that*'), or a nominal adjective (*elderly* in 'I prefer catering for *the elderly*'). See also **nominal adjective**.

Noun substitutes Noun substitutes are elements (usually pronouns) which can be substituted for a noun in its function.

O

Object The Object is a part of the sentence which typically refers to participants in the event different from the Subject, occurs after transitive verbs and can become the Subject in a passive structure. See **direct object**, **indirect object**.

Object (as a semantic role) Entity (thing) which is relocated or changed; whose existence is at the focus of attention, e. g.: *to break the window*. Sometimes Object is identified with patient, i.e. entity which is the victim of some action: *to kill a fox*.

Objective case See **case**.

Objective verb A verb taking an object of any kind (direct, indirect, prepositional) See **transitive verbs**.

Objectivity Objectivity is the ability of a verb to take an object of any kind. See **transitivity**.

Object predicative See **subject predicative**.

Oblique verbal form — the form of a verb which expresses the categorial meanings of irrealis. See **indicative verbal form**.

One-member sentence A one-member sentence contains one principal part which is neither the subject nor the predicate. There are nominal and verbal one-member sentences: *Silence. To think of that!*

Operator The operator is a verb that is being used for negation, interrogation, emphasis, and abbreviation. When the **main verb** *be* is the only verb in the verb phrase, it can function as operator (*is* in *He isn't in* and *Is he in?*). In British English in particular, the main verb *have* can similarly function as operator (*has* in *Has he any children?*). Otherwise, the operator is the first (or only) auxiliary in the verb phrase (*may* in *May I come in?* and *is* in *Is it raining?*). In the absence of another potential operator, the **dummy operator** *do* is introduced (*did* in *Did you see them?*).

Opposition (opposeme) Binary juxtaposition of linguistic elements or their paradigmatic forms; correlation of categorial forms having a certain function. The opposites are the marked and the unmarked members correlatively.

Oppositional reduction The process of curtailing an opposition of categorial forms. See **neutralization, transposition**.

Optative subjunctive See **subjunctive**.

Orthographic An orthographic word is the written form of a word as conventionally spelled and separated from other words. An orthographic sentence is a sentence in writing, usually signalled by an initial capital letter and a final stop (period, question mark, or exclamation mark).

P

Paradigm A paradigm is a set of grammatically related forms (a set of paradigmatic forms of linguistic units), such as the five forms of the irregular verb *drive, drive, drives, driving, drove, driven*.

Paradigmatic Referring to language system on the basis of invariant–variant relations, connected on a non–linear basis. See **syntagmatic**.

Paradigmatics Paradigmatics is one of the two planes of language structure comprising language units in their class membership. See **syntagmatics**.

Parallel construction Repetition of grammatical construction for coherence and emphasis: *flying and swimming; I came, I saw, I conquered*.

Parataxis See **hypotaxis**.

Part of speech A class of words distinguished by a particular set of lexico–grammatical features. See **word class**.

Participant (as a semantic role) a person acting together with the Agent, but who is somehow “overshadowed” by him: *You have me to ride with*. See Agent.

Participle There are two participles: the *–ing* participle (or present participle) and the *–ed* participle (or past participle). Both are non–finite forms of verbs. The *–ing* participle always ends in *–ing* (*shouting, singing, writing*). The *–ed* participle ends in *–ed* in regular verbs (*shouted*), where it is identical with the simple past (*They shouted at him, He was shouted at*), but it need not have an *–ed* ending in irregular verbs (*sung, written*). The *–ing* participle is used to form the progressive aspect (*He was shouting*), and the *–ed* participle is used to form the perfect aspect (*She has written*) and the passive (*It was sung beautifully*). Both participles function as the verb in non–finite clauses: *–ing* participle clauses (*'Writing letters is a chore*) and *–ed* participle clauses (*'Written in an unknown script, the inscription posed a challenge to scholars*). See also **aspect, passive**.

Particle A particle is a word that does not take inflections and does not fit into the traditional word classes; for example, the negative particle *not* and infinitival *to*. Particles also include the words that are used to form **multi-word verbs** (*in* in *give in*, *at* in *look at*, *up* and *with* in *put up with*), though further analysis may differentiate them as adverbs and prepositions.

Passive Passive voice is contrasted with active voice. Voice applies only to transitive verbs (those taking an object). The active is the norm. An active sentence will generally take the order subject–verb–object (or possibly two objects, the indirect followed by the direct): *Most students take the examination*; *Sandra took all the money*. The corresponding passive sentence will have the active object (*the examination*; *all the money*) as subject, the active subject (*Most students*; *Sandra*) will optionally appear after the verb in a *be* phrase, and the active verb phrase will be turned into a passive phrase by the introduction of the auxiliary *be* followed by the *–ed* participle of the main verb: *The examination is taken (by most students)*; *All the money was taken (by Sandra)*. For all regular verbs and for many irregular verbs the *–ed* participle is identical with the simple past: *Paul invited all the teachers* → *All the teachers were invited (by Paul)*. See also **direct object**, **indirect object**.

Past See **tense**.

Past perfect The past perfect is a combination of the past of the perfect auxiliary *have* followed by the *–ed* participle: *had revealed*, *had made*, *had seen*, *had been (crying)*. See also **aspect**.

Past progressive (continuous) The past progressive is a combination of the past of the progressive auxiliary *be* with the *–ing* participle of the following verb: *was phoning*, *were having*, *were being examined*. See also **aspect**.

Past subjunctive See **subjunctive**.

Perfect See **aspect**.

Performative verb A performative verb is a verb used to perform the **speech act** it denotes. For example: *I apologize* constitutes an apology.

Person Three persons are distinguished. The first person indicates the speaker(s) or writer(s); the second person indicates the hearer(s) or reader(s); the third person indicates any others. The distinctions apply to noun phrases and verbs. For example: *I* is the first person singular of the personal pronoun, and *am* is the corresponding first person singular of the present tense of *be*. In the plural, the first person *we* may be inclusive (including hearer(s)/reader(s)) or exclusive (including others). Similarly, the second person *you* may include others, though not speakers or writers.

Personal pronoun The personal pronouns are //*me, you, he/him, she/her, it, we/us, they I them*.

Phrasal-prepositional verb A phrasal-prepositional verb is a **multi-word verb** in which a verb combines with an adverb and a preposition to form an idiomatic unit. Monotransitive phrasal-prepositional verbs have just one object, a prepositional object (*'look down on somebody'*, meaning 'despise'). Doubly transitive phrasalprepositional verbs take two objects (*'let somebody in on something'*).

Phrasal verb A phrasal verb is a **multi-word verb** in which a verb is combined with an adverb to form an idiomatic unit. The phrasal verb may be intransitive, without an object (*shut up* 'keep quiet', *give in* 'surrender'), or transitive (*point out* something', *make up* something'). With transitive phrasal verbs the adverb may precede or follow the object (*'find out the truth'*, 'find the truth *out'*), though if the object is a pronoun the adverb generally follows the object (*'find it out'*).

Phrase The phrase comes between the word and the clause in the hierarchy of grammatical units. Five phrase types are distinguished: **noun phrase**, **verb phrase**, **adjective phrase**, **adverb phrase**, **prepositional phrase**.

Pluralia Tantum nouns (absolute plural nouns) — nouns having only the plural form. See **Singularia Tantum nouns**.

Polysemy Polysemy refers to the range of meanings denoted by a word. *Hand* is polysemous, denoting (for example) the hand of a human being and the hand of a watch, meanings that are perceived as related. Polysemy contrasts with homonymy, where words having the same form are perceived as distinct and unrelated in meaning. See also **homonym**.

Polysyndetic See **co-ordination**.

Portmanteau morph See **morpheme**.

Possessive pronoun The possessive pronouns are the possessives of the **personal pronouns**. They may be dependent (*my, your, his, her, its, our, their*) or independent (*mine, yours, his, hers, its, ours, theirs*).

Postdeterminer See **determiner**.

Pragmatic factor A factor relevant for the actualization of a message in a concrete communicative situation.

Pragmatics Pragmatics is the study of the use of the language and its interpretation in situational contexts.

Predeterminer See **determiner**.

Predicate Sentences and clauses are often divided into the subject and the predicate. The predicate is the member of a predication containing the mood and tense (or only mood) components of predicativity. The predicate is the verbal component of a sentence or clause which expresses a state, an action, or an event. The predicate consists of the verb and its **complements** and **adverbials** that are functioning as **adjuncts**. In the sentence *I met a girl on the train today, I* is the subject and the rest of the sentence is the predicate. Excluded from the predicate are sentence adverbials: **conjuncts** such as *therefore* and *however*, and **dlsjuncts** such as *perhaps* and *on the other hand*.

Predicativity Predicativity is the relation of the thought of a sentence to the situation of speech (to the act of speech, to the speaker and to reality).

Predication Within a sentence the word or combination of words that contains the meanings of predicativity.

Prefix A term in word-formation for an affix added at the beginning of a word or base to form a new word, e. g.: *re-write*. See **affix**.

Preposition A preposition is a word that introduces a prepositional phrase, which consists of a preposition and the prepositional complement. In *for your sake, for* is a preposition and the noun phrase *your sake* is its complement. Prepositional complements may also be *-ing* participle clauses (*trying harder* in *by trying harder*) and **wh-clauses** (*whether I will be available* in *about whether I will be available*).

Prepositional complement See **preposition**.

Prepositional object A prepositional object is the object of a **prepositional verb** (*the painting* in *I looked closely at the painting*) or the object of a **phrasal-prepositional verb** (*your insults* in *I've put up with your insults for too long*). In both instances, the object is introduced by a preposition.

Prepositional phrase See **preposition**.

Prepositional verb A prepositional verb is a **multi-word verb** in which a verb combines with a **preposition** to form an idiomatic unit. Monotransitive prepositional verbs take one object, a **prepositional object** (*a grant* in *I applied for a grant*). Doubly transitive verbs take two objects: a **direct object** and a **prepositional object**. In *Nobody will blame you for the mistake, you* is the direct object and *the mistake* is the prepositional object (introduced by the preposition *for*). A

copular prepositional verb takes a **subject predicative** as its complement, a *waste of time* in *It looks like a waste of time* (compare *It looks wasteful*, where *looks* is a **copular verb**).

Present See **tense**.

Present perfect The present perfect is a combination of the present tense of the perfect auxiliary *have* with the *-ed* participle of the following verb: *has seen*, *have owned*. See also **aspect**.

Present progressive (continuous) The present progressive is a combination of the progressive auxiliary *be* with the *-ing* participle of the following verb: *am saying*, *is taking*, *are eating*. See also **aspect**.

Present subjunctive See **subjunctive**.

Presupposition — a proposition whose truth is necessary for either the truth or the falsity of another statement. It stays intact under negation and modal operators, e. g.: *John is divorced* (presupposition: *John was married*) — *John is not divorced* (presupposition: *John is married*).

Primary predication Predication expressed in a sentence which has as its predicate a finite form of the verb. See **secondary predication**.

Principal parts of verbs The principal parts of a main verb are the three forms of verbs that are sufficient for deriving a list of all forms of the verb. The principal parts are the **base form** (*sail*, *see*, *drink*, *put*), the past (*sailed*, *saw*, *drank*, *put*), and the *-ed* participle (*sailed*, *seen*, *drunk*, *put*). From the base form we can derive the *-s* form (*sails*, *sees*, *drinks*, *puts*) and the *-ing* participle (*sailing*, *seeing*, *drinking*, *putting*).

Privative opposition An opposition based on the principle of presence/absence in its counter-members of one and the same feature. See **gradual opposition**, **equipollent opposition**.

Proclitic See **clitic**.

Progressive See **aspect**.

Pronoun Pronouns are a closed class of words that have a range of functions similar to those of nouns; for example they can serve as subject (*I* in *I know Paula*) or direct object (*me* in *Paula knows me*). Typically they point to entities in the situation or to linguistic units in the previous or following context. Many pronouns have the same form as corresponding determiners: *some* is a pronoun in *I have some with me*, whereas it is a **determiner** in *I have some money with me*. See also **demonstrative**, **indefinite determiner/pronoun**, **interrogative determiner/pronoun**, **nominal relative determiner/pronoun**, **personal pronoun**, **possessive pronoun**, **quantifier**, **reciprocal pronoun**, **reflexive pronoun**, **relative pronoun**, **wh-pronoun**.

Proper noun Proper nouns contrast with common nouns. Proper nouns have unique reference. They name specific people, places, etc. (*Esther*, *New York*).

Proposition The content of a declarative sentence, that which is proposed, or stated, denied, questioned, etc., capable of truth and falsity.

Q

Quantifier The primary quantifiers can function either as **pronouns** or as **determiners**: *many*, *more*, *most*, *a few*, *fewer*, *fewest*, *several*, *enough*, *much*, *more*, *most*, *a little*, *less*, *least*, *enough*, *few*, *little*. There are also compound quantifiers that function only as pronouns; for example: *a bit*, *a lot*, *a couple*.

R

Reciprocal pronoun The reciprocal pronouns are *each other* and *one another*.

Reduced relative clause See **relative clause**.

Reduplicative Reduplicatives are compounds formed by the combination of identical words (*hush–hush*) or near–identical words (*flip–flop*). The second segment is sometimes not an existing word but one invented for the purpose (*chairmanschmairman*).

Reflexive pronoun In standard English the reflexive pronouns are *myself*, *ourselves*, *yourself*, *yourselves*, *himself*, *herself*, *itself*, *themselves*. Singular *ourself* and *themself* are also used sometimes.

Regular verb Verb that forms its past tense and past participle by adding *ed*: worked, worked; talked, talked. Also known as weak verb.

Relation words (markers) Relation words (markers) are linguistic elements marking relationship between constituents in syntagmatics. The most common of these are prepositions and conjunctions.

Relative adverb Relative adverbs are used to introduce **relative clauses**. The relative adverbs are *when*, *where*, and *why*. 'the hotel *where* I stayed', 'the occasion *when* we first met', 'the reason *why* he did it'.

Relative clause Relative clauses postmodify nouns ('the house *that I own*'), pronouns ('those *who trust me*'), and nominal adjectives ('the elderly *who are sick*'). Sentential relative clauses relate not to any of those items but to a sentence, a clause, or a part of a clause: 'I missed them, *which is a pity*.' Relative clauses may be **restrictive** or nonrestrictive, but sentential relative clauses are only non–restrictive. Relative clauses are introduced by a relative item — a **relative adverb**, a **relative determiner**, or a **relative pronoun**. Reduced relative clauses are non–finite clauses that correspond to the full (finite) relative clauses: 'the person *to see*' ('the person *that you should see*'), 'the patient *waiting in the next room*', 'the work *set for tomorrow*'.

Relative determiner Relative determiners are used to introduce **relative clauses**. The relative determiners are *whose* and *which*: 'the patient *whose* records were misplaced', 'The complaint has been formally lodged, in *which* case I'd like a copy'.

Relative pronoun Relative pronouns are used to introduce relative clauses. The relative pronouns are *who*, *whom*, *which*, *that*, and zero: 'the candidate *who* was rejected', 'the meal *which* I prepared', 'a book *that* I've just read'. When *that* is omitted, the relative is the zero relative: 'a book I've just read'.

Restrictive Modification may be either restrictive or non–restrictive. Modification is restrictive when the modifier is intended to restrict the reference of the noun phrase. In *hair that grows slowly*, the postmodifying relative clause *that grows slowly* distinguishes that type of hair from other types. In 'This is Peter West, *who edits a men's magazine*', the relative clause *who edits a men's magazine* is non–restrictive, since it does not restrict the reference of *Peter West* but instead contributes information about Peter West.

Result/Factitive (as a semantic role) — entity that emerges due to some action, e. g.: She has written a **letter**.

Rhetorical questions A rhetorical question contains a statement disguised as a question. Usually it is a positive question hiding a negative statement. No answer is expected. (*Can anyone say what thruth is?*)

Right dislocation See **left dislocation**.

Root A root is the element left after all affixes have been removed from a complex word, carrying the basic lexical meaning of the word. See **base**, **stem**.

S

Secondary predication — predication expressed by potentially predicative complexes with non–ninite forms of the verb and verbal nouns. See **primary predication**.

Segregatory co-ordination See **co-ordination**.

Semantics Semantics is the study of meaning of words and sentences, their denotations, connotations, implications, and ambiguities.

Semi-auxiliary See **auxiliary**.

Sentence A communicative unit made up of words (and word-morphemes) in conformity with their combinability and structurally united by intonation and predicativity. See **clause**, **orthographic**.

Sentential relative clause See **relative clause**.

Sequence of tenses Sequence of tenses applies to indirect speech. It is the relationship between the tenses of the verbs in the reporting clause and the reported clause as a result of backshift of the verb in the reported clause. See **direct speech**, **backshifting**, **tense**.

Shifters Shifters are elements apt to changing their position in an utterance; e. g. *At that moment she ran into her friend*.

Sign A sign is a material designator of a meaning, a concrete token element used in the concrete process of communication and reference.

Simple past See **tense**.

Simple present See **tense**.

Simple sentence A sentence with only one predication. A simple sentence consists of one **main clause**, without any subordinate clauses: *No fingerprints were found anywhere in the house*.

Singularia Tantum nouns (absolute singular nouns) — nouns having only the singular form. See **Pluralia Tantum nouns**.

Situational deixis See **deixis**.

Situational ellipsis See **ellipsis**.

Source (as a semantic role) — smth. which gives rise/origin to another entity, cause of some action, e. g.: *He sells books*.

Specific A noun phrase has specific reference when it refers to a specific person, thing, place, etc. The reference in *a novel* is non-specific in 'I have always wanted to write *a novel*', since it does not refer to a particular novel.

Speech act The performance of an utterance (spoken or written) in a particular context with a particular intention is a speech act. The intention is the illocutionary force of the speech act. The illocutionary force of *You may smoke in here* is (for one plausible interpretation) permission and for *You mustn't smoke in here* it is prohibition. See **performative verb**.

Split infinitive A split infinitive is the separation between infinitival *to* and the infinitive verb by the insertion of one or more words. For example, *really* splits the infinitive in 'to *really* understand'. See **infinitive**.

Stem A stem is a term in grammar and word-formation for a root plus the element that fits it into the flow of speech. See **root**, **affix**.

Stranded preposition A preposition is stranded when it is left by itself, without a following prepositional complement. *With* is a stranded preposition in 'It will be dealt *with* at once'. It is followed by the prepositional complement if in 'I will deal *with it* at once'. See **preposition**.

Structure 1) the set of relations between the elements of a system; 2) construction.

Subject The subject is the independent member of a two-member predication, containing the person component of predicativity. The subject of a sentence (or clause) is the constituent that normally comes before the verb in a **declarative** sentence (*They* in '*They* have told you about it') and changes positions with the operator (**subject operator inversion**) in an *interrogative* sentence

(*'Have they told you about it?'*). Where applicable, the verb agrees in number and person with the subject: *'I am ready'* (the subject *I* is first person singular and so is *am*), *'He cares about you'* (the subject *he* is third person singular and so is *cares*). This part of a sentence denotes an agent, an instrument, a recipient, and other participants in an action. The subject is usually, but not necessarily, the topic of the sentence — i.e. it refers to what is in the front of your mind, that first thing that you want to talk about.

Subjective case See **case**.

Subject–operator inversion In subject–operator inversion, the subject and the **operator** change places. For example, the declarative sentence *'You have spent all of it'* has the normal word order, whereas the corresponding interrogative sentence *'Have you spent all of it?'* exhibits subject–operator inversion: the operator *have* comes before the subject *you*.

Subject predicative A subject predicative is the **complement** of a **copular verb** such as *he* or *seem*. It may be an adjective phrase, an adverb phrase, or a prepositional phrase as well as a noun phrase or a **nominal clause**: *'Paula feels very self-conscious'* (adjective phrase), *'Norman is outside'* (adverb), *'I am out of breath'* (prepositional phrase), *'Amanda is my best friend'* (noun phrase), *'My advice is to say nothing'* (nominal clause). A complex–transitive verb has two complements: a direct object and an object predicative. In *'I made my position clear'*, *my position* is the direct object and *clear* is the object complement. The predicative relationship between the object and its complement is analogous to that between the subject and the subject predicative in *'My position is clear'*.

Subject–verb agreement See **subject**.

Subjunctive There are two subjunctives: the present subjunctive and the past subjunctive. The present subjunctive has the **base form** of the verb, and the past subjunctive is restricted to *were*. The present subjunctive has three uses. The optative subjunctive expresses a wish: *'God help the Republic'*; contrast the indicative *helps* in *'God helps the Republic'*. The suppositional subjunctive expresses a supposition, and is used chiefly with conditional and concessive clauses: *'I can teach him, even though it be inconvenient for me.'* The mandative subjunctive is used in *that* clauses that convey an order, request, or intention: *'They demanded that he appear before them for interrogation.'* The past subjunctive *were* is the hypothetical subjunctive, used in hypothetical **conditional clauses** and some other hypothetical constructions: *'If I were you, I wouldn't go.'*

Subordinate (dependent) clause Subordinate clauses are grammatically dependent on a host (or superordinate) clause or host phrase and generally function as a constituent of their host. In the sentence (coterminous with a **main clause**) *'I wonder whether they are at home'*, the *whether-clause* is a subordinate clause. In the noun phrase *'the lunch that I've just finished'*, the relative clause *that I've just finished* is a subordinate clause.

Subordinator Subordinator is a relation word marking subordination; e. g. *she feared lest she (should) lose her way*. See **conjunction**.

Substantive A noun.

Suffix See **affix**.

Suggestive questions Suggestive, or declarative, questions form a peculiar kind of yes–no questions. They keep the word order of statements but serve as questions owing to the rising tone. (*'You're working late tonight?'*)

Superlative See **comparison**.

Suppletion (suppletivity) Suppletion is the use of a word from a different root to complete a **paradigm**, a grammatically related set of forms. Suppletive *went* (from the verb *wend*) is the past of the verb *go*. See also **morpheme**.

Surface structure — the resultant syntactic construction derived through transformations of the deep structure. See **deep structure**.

Syndetic co–ordination See **co–ordination**.

Syntagmatics Syntagmatics is one of the two planes of language structure comprising language units in their linear ordering. See **paradigmatics**.

Syntagmatic Connected on a linear basis. See **paradigmatic**.

System A system is a structured set of elements connected by a common function.

T

Tagmeme A tagmeme is a function set, a set of elements attributed with particular functions in this or that position.

Tag question Tag questions are attached to sentences that are not interrogatives. Typically, they are abbreviated *yes—no* questions: 'You can do it, *can't you?*', 'It hasn't reached you yet, *has it?*'

Tense Tense is a grammatical category referring to the time of a situation. English has two tenses that are signalled by the form of the verb: present and past. The tense distinction is made on the first or only verb in the verb phrase: *sings/sang, is/was crying, has/had made*. The simple present is the present tense when there is only one verb (the **main verb**): *sings, shows, writes, catches*. Analogously, the simple past is the past tense when there is only one verb: *sang, showed, wrote, caught*.

Textual deixis See **deixis**.

Textual ellipsis See **ellipsis**.

Time signals Time signals are lexical and lexico–syntactical means of expressing time; e. g. *yesterday, not long ago, the other day, soon*.

To–infinitive See **infinitive**.

To–inflnitive clause See **infinitive**.

Transformation Transition from one syntactic pattern to another syntactic pattern with the preservation of its notional parts.

Transitive phrasal verb See **phrasal verb**.

Transitive verb A transitive verb is a verb that has a **direct object** or an **indirect object** or both as its complement(s). *Heard* is a transitive verb in 'I've heard the news', since *heard* is followed by the direct object *the news*. *Lend* is a transitive verb in 'Lend me your pen', since it is followed by the indirect object *me* and the direct object *your pen*. A monotransitive verb has just one object. A ditransitive verb has two objects: an indirect object and a direct object. A **complex–transitive verb** has a direct object and an object predicative. See also **subject predicative**.

Transitivity Transitivity is the ability of a verb to take a direct object. See **objectivity**.

Transposition Transposition is the use of a language element in the contextual conditions typical of its oppositional counter–member by which it fulfils two functions simultaneously. See **neutralization**.

U

Unit (element) A unit is a constituent of a system.

Utterance acts Uttering words and sentences (J. R. Searle).

V

Valency (valence) Valency (valence) is a potential ability of elements to pattern with one another, the ability of a language unit to take an adjunct, potential combinability of a language unit.

Verb The term is used in two ways: (1) A verb is a word that displays contrasts such as **tense, aspect, mood, voice**, number (singular/plural), and **person**. It is generally inflected to offer non-finite forms: **infinitive** (write), *-ing* participle (writing), *-ed* participle (written). A non-finite **main verb** (or lexical verb) may combine with one or more **auxiliaries** (or auxiliary verbs) in a verb phrase: *may write, has been writing, could have written, was being written*. (2) A verb (consisting of a verb phrase) combines with the subject of the sentence to constitute a minimum sentence: *I* (subject) *won* (verb); *Dinner* (subject) *is served* (verb); *No complaints* (subject) *have been received* (verb); *All the guests* (subject) *have been complaining* (verb). If a sentence contains more than one clause, it is usual for each clause to have its own verb: 'The sun *is shining*, but I *predict* that it *will rain* before we *leave*.' See also **participle, verbless clause**.

Verbal (verbid) A non-finite form of the verb. See **finite verb**.

Verbal particle A verbal particle is a verb postfix, traditionally termed a postposition.

Verb-form indicators Verb-form indicators are contextual means predetermining the use of appropriate verb forms (continuous, perfect or perfect continuous indicators).

Verb-helpers Verb-helpers are auxiliaries (be, do, have, etc.) which are analytical markers of verbal categories.

Verbiality Verbiality is a general lexico-grammatical meaning of the verb implying the ability of the verb to denote an action or state.

Verbless clause A verbless clause is a clause-like structure except that it does not have a verb: 'Let me have your comments today, *if possible*'; 'When in doubt, ask me'. See also **clause**.

Verb phrase A verb phrase is a phrase whose head is a **main verb** (or lexical verb). The main verb may be preceded within the verb phrase by one or more **auxiliaries** or **semiauxiliaries**: *speaks, is speaking, is going to speak*.

Vocative A vocative is an optional addition to the basic sentence (or clause) structure, and is used to address directly the person or persons spoken to: 'You have a smudge on your nose, *Robin*.'

Voice Voice is a grammatical category which distinguishes between active and passive. The distinction applies to both clauses and verb phrases. See **passive**.

W

Wh-adverb The wh-adverbs are used (1) for questions and interrogative clauses: *how, when, where, why*, (2) for exclamative sentences and clauses: *how*, (3) for **relative clauses**: *when, where, why, whereby, whereupon*, and the two archaic adverbs *whence, wherein*; (4) for **nominal relative clauses**: *how, when, why, where*, (5) for **wh conditional clauses**: *however, whenever, wherever*.

Wh-conditional clause A wh-conditional clause leaves open the number of possible conditions: '*Whatever you've been doing, you've been doing the right thing*' ('if you've been doing X, if you've been doing Y,...').

Wh-determiner The wh-determiners are (1) for questions and interrogative clauses: *which, what, whose*; (2) for **exclamative** sentences and clauses: *what*, (3) for **relative clauses**: *whose, which*; (4) for **nominal relative clauses**: *which, what*, (5) for **wh-conditional clauses**: *whatever, whichever*. See **determiner**.

Wh-pronoun The wh-pronouns are used (1) for questions and interrogative clauses: *who, whom, whose, which, what*. (2) for **relative clauses**: *who, whom, which*; (3) for **nominal relative clauses**: *who, whom, whoever, whomever, whosoever, whomsoever, which, whichever, whichsoever, what, whatever, whatsoever*, for **wh-conditional clauses**: *whoever, whomever, whosoever, whomsoever, whatever, whichever*.

Wh-question *Wh*-questions and *wh*-interrogative clauses are introduced by a *wh*-word, which may be alone or within a phrase: '*Who* is next?'; '*To what* do I owe this visit?'; 'They asked me *which way* they should go'.

Wh-word *Wh*-words are words beginning with *wh*-, but they also include *how* and its compounds (such as *however*).

Word class A word class (or part of speech) is a class of words, such as noun and verb, that share characteristics. Word classes may be open classes (open to new words) or **closed classes** (which generally do not admit new words). Classes may be divided into subclasses; for example, within nouns the distinction between common nouns and proper nouns.

Word-formation Word-formation refers to the processes of forming new words from existing words or segments of words.

Word order Word order is the order of constituents within a phrase, clause, or sentence. For example, in a **declarative sentence** the normal word order is subject, verb, direct object: *All the workers* (subject) *have signed* (verb) *the petition* (direct object).

Y

Yes-no question A *yes-no* question is a question that typically may be appropriately answered by *yes* or *no*. *Yes-no* questions have **subject operator inversion**, in which the **operator** comes before the subject: '*Are* (operator) *you* (subject) ready?'; '*Have* (operator) *they* (subject) finished their breakfast?'; '*Do* (operator) *we* (subject) pay for ourselves?'

Z

Zero article A zero article (or zero determiner) is postulated for noun phrases where no article (or other determiner) is present. It is a device for simplifying the grammar by assuming a contrast that is elsewhere present in the singular: the contrast between the definite article *the* and the indefinite article *a/an* is extended to the plural, as in *a student*, *the student*, (zero article) *students*, *the students*. See also **definite article**, **morpheme**.

Zero relative The zero relative (or zero relative pronoun) is postulated at the beginning of a relative clause when no **relative pronoun** is overtly present. For example, the relative pronouns *which* and *that* introduce the relative clauses in 'computer games *which* I enjoy'; 'the car *that* they have just bought'. The same clauses are said to be introduced by a zero relative when these pronouns are omitted.: 'computer games I enjoy'; 'the car they have just bought'. See also **morpheme**.

4.4 СПИСОК УЧЕБНОЙ ЛИТЕРАТУРЫ И ИНФОРМАЦИОННО-АНАЛИТИЧЕСКИХ МАТЕРИАЛОВ

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