



Ministry of Education and Science of Ukraine  
Sumy State University

**Course of lectures**  
on the discipline «*Theoretical and Practical Grammar  
of the English Language*»  
compulsory course available for study programme  
*"English and German Languages and Literatures"*

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## Preface

Theoretical and practical English grammar is concerned with understanding the rules and principles that govern the English language and how these rules and principles are used to communicate meaning. Theoretical grammar focuses on analyzing the underlying structure of the language and explaining how it works, while practical grammar is concerned with how to use the language effectively in real-life situations. Together, these two areas of study provide a comprehensive understanding of English grammar and are essential for anyone who wants to master the English language.

The course of lectures on theoretical English grammar aim to provide an overview of the principles and concepts that underlie the structure of the English language (word classes, sentence structure, and syntax); analyze the grammatical features of English, such as tense, aspect, and voice, and explain how they function in communication; explain how grammar rules are applied in spoken and written English, and discuss the differences between formal and informal language; explore the relationship between grammar and meaning, and how grammar is used to convey information and express attitudes.

On the whole, the course of lectures on theoretical English grammar strive to provide students with a solid foundation in the principles and concepts that underlie the structure of the English language and to help them develop the skills necessary to analyze and use English grammar effectively in various contexts.

The course of lectures comprise 12 lectures with self-control questions after each of them. The lectures are well-structured and designed to help students engage with the material meaningfully, providing valuable insights into the theoretical grammar of English. Having self-control questions after each lecture is a helpful way to reinforce learning and ensure that students have understood the key concepts. The course of lectures is a comprehensive and effective resource for students studying theoretical and practical English grammar.

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## Lecture 1

### The Scope of Theoretical Grammar. Basic Linguistic, Grammatical and Morphological Notions.

**I. Language as a semiotic system: its functions, elements, and structure.**

**II. General Linguistic Notions.**

**III. Morphology and Syntax.**

**IV. The Basic Notions of Morphology.**

**V. The Basic Notions of Syntax.**

**I. Language as a semiotic system: its functions, elements, and structure.**

Language is a complex, many-sided, and many-functional phenomenon and, therefore, not easy to define. Language has many aspects, or 'faces'; the definition of language depends mainly upon which aspect comes into the researcher's focus and what becomes the research subject matter. Even in linguistic studies, the definitions of language vary considerably.

**Language may be defined as a structured semiotic system of signs used for forming, storing and exchanging information in human communication.**

There are two basic approaches to language as a complicated social phenomenon:

1) *the internal approach;*

2) *the external approach.*

*Internally* any language as a semiotic system incorporates **the three constituent parts** (sides): *the phonological system, the lexical system, and the grammatical system.* Only the unity of these three elements forms a language; without any of them, there is no human language in the above sense.

The *phonological system* is the sub-foundation of language; it determines the material (phonetical) the appearance of its significative units. The *lexical system* is the whole set of naming means of

language, that is, words and stable word groups. The **grammatical system** is the entire set of regularities determining the combination of naming means in forming utterances as the embodiment of the thinking process.

**Externally** language represents a functional system, which makes up language as a social phenomenon. The basic functions of language are:

- 1) **the communicative**;
- 2) **the cognitive** (thought-forming);
- 3) **the emotive**.

From the point of view of the **communicative** function, “language is a means of forming and storing ideas as reflections of reality and exchanging them in the process of human intercourse. Language is social by nature; it is inseparably connected with the people who are its creators and users; it grows and develops together with the development of society”.

The **cognitive** function is predetermined by the organic connection between language and thought. In this respect, language is characterized as the immediate actuality of thought. Hence, language is a means of forming, expressing, and storing thoughts.

The emotional sphere of life also finds its reflection in language. An utterance comprises not only logical information (informative content) but also emotional aspect, which indicates emotions, attitudes, assessments of speakers. Hence, comes the **emotive** function of language.

By the present day the basic units of the European languages systems and speech have been defined and arranged into a hierarchy of the basic **segmental units**:

1. The basic unit of the lowest, phonological level is the **phoneme**. It is the smallest distinctive unit of language system, which has no meaning of its own and serves only to distinguish between words: (card— hard — lard). In speech, phonemes are represented by **allophones**.

2. The **morpheme** is the smallest meaningful unit of language since, unlike the phoneme, it always carries some lexical, lexico-grammatical or purely grammatical meaning. In speech, morphemes

are represented by **allomorphs**. Morphemes, as well as words, belong to the lexical (morphological level).

3. The **word** is the smallest naming unit of language since it names things, their properties or actions and processes. In actual speech, words are always represented by **word-forms**. Word-combinations are also considered to be naming units, though of a more complicated nature, than separate words (a table- a wooden table).

4. The **sentence** is the smallest unit of human communication since we usually communicate with one another with the help of sentences but not separate words or word-combinations. In speech, sentence patterns are represented by **utterances**.

## II. General Linguistic Notions.

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

Grammar may be practical and theoretical. The aim of **practical** grammar is the description of grammar rules that are necessary to understand and formulate sentences. The aim of **theoretical** grammar is to offer explanation for these rules. Generally speaking, theoretical grammar deals with the language as a functional system. Their purposes are different: the purpose of **practical** (or prescriptive) grammar is to prescribe the rules of how to correctly build sentences, or the Past Indefinite forms, or the plural number forms, etc., while the main purpose of **theoretical** (scientific, descriptive) grammar is to give a scientific description and analysis of the structure of Modern English and its grammatical categories along with the purpose of giving students a deeper insight into the mechanism, processes and tendencies in the grammatical structure of English.

As is well-known, every science has at its disposal certain fundamental (basic) **notions** (categories). Grammar has such categories as the **explicit** (= morphological) category of tense,

voice, case, etc. Such categories are usually a reflexion of some objectively existing things, their properties and interrelations.

There is one prerequisite for existence of a category: there should be an opposition of at least two forms, otherwise the category cannot exist. The grammatical (= explicit) category of case in Modern English is based on such a minimal opposition of the Common case against the Genitive (Possessive) case. So, it is based on a two-member (binary) opposition. The category of tense is based on a three member (ternary) opposition of the past tense against the present and future tense. The category of case in Modern Ukrainian is based on the so-called multi-member (polynomic) opposition, namely: on a seven-member opposition. Grammatical oppositions are pairs of grammatical forms opposed to each other in some way.

The members of oppositions are called **opposemes**. The whole set of the opposemes constituting a grammatical category make up the paradigm [ 'pærədam] of the category. For instance, the past, present and future tense opposemes make up the tense paradigm.

Besides the above mentioned explicit morphological categories there also exist the so-called implicit lexico-grammatical categories

### **III. Morphology and Syntax.**

It is common knowledge that grammar as a science consists of the two main parts: **morphology** and **syntax**.

**Morphology** and **syntax** are two parts of linguistic description.

**Morphology** deals with the internal structure of words, peculiarities of their grammatical categories, and their semantics, while traditional **syntax** deals with the rules governing the combination of words in sentences (and texts in modern linguistics).

**Morphology** (Greek *morph.* -form; *logos*-knowledge) is the part of grammar which deals with the morphemic structure of words and their classes (parts of speech) and their grammatical categories (of tense, case, etc.). The word is the main unit of morphology.

**Syntax** (Greek *syn.*-with; *taso*-arrange) deals with the rules governing combination of words in sentences (and texts in modern linguistics).



#### IV. The Basic Notions of Morphology.

Morphology as part of grammatical study faces the two segmental units: **the morpheme** and the **word**.

The **word** is the larger unit of morphology, while the **morpheme** is the smaller unit of morphology. The morpheme, as has been mentioned, is also the smallest meaningful unit of language.

The notion of morpheme includes the root of the word and its affixes, i.e., prefixes, suffixes and inflections (grammatical endings). Auxiliary and modal verbs, link-verbs and the so-called postpositives (*up, down, out, off, on* — to bring up, to set off, to take off, to turn out, etc.) are also morphemes (namely: word-morphemes).

The morphemes of the present day English (as well as Ukrainian) maybe classified in accordance with the two main principles:

1. In accordance with the mode of their functioning morphemes may be classified into **free** and **bound**. **Free morphemes** are also called “word morphemes” (L. Bloomfield). They are free because they may function in the sentence as separate words. Root words, auxiliary and modal verbs, link verbs and the above-mentioned adverbial postpositives (*up, off, etc.*) are free morphemes (or, simply, word-morphemes). **Bound morphemes** include all the inflexions, suffixes and prefixes.

2. According to the meaning morphemes may be subdivided into a) **lexical**, b) **lexico-grammatical** and c) **purely grammatical morphemes**.

**Lexical morphemes** have a quite concrete lexical meaning, which is directly connected with the thought. To lexical morphemes belong root-words (*book, boy, beauty, to write, etc.*), which may be free (*book, write, etc.*) and bound (in derived words: *bookish, boys, rewrite, beautiful, etc.*). To **lexico-grammatical morphemes** belong modal verbs, link verbs, postpositives (*off, up, out down: to set off, bring up, turn out etc.*) and suffixes and prefixes (they are bound lexico-grammatical morphemes).

To **purely grammatical morphemes** belong auxiliary verbs (free grammatical morphemes) and inflexions (bound grammatical morphemes). Grammatical morphemes are deprived of any lexical meaning, they only signal some grammatical meaning (of tense, aspect, number, case, degree of comparison): *boys, boy's, looked, will come*, etc.

## V. The Basic Notions of Syntax.

Syntax is divided into the phrase sublevel (**minor syntax**) and the sentence sublevel (**major syntax**). According to O. Morokhovskaya the phrase sublevel is made up by non-communicative units: word-forms and word-groups. The sentence sublevel is comprised by communicative units: the simple sentence (N+V finite) and the composite sentence (clause + clause). The clause is intermediary between the word-group and the sentence: like the sentence, it is of finite predication; like the word-group, it is a dependent non-communicative unit.

The **word combination (phrase)** is the lower syntactic unit. It remains a naming unit, like a separate word, though phrases name things and their properties in a more complicated way than a separate word.

The fundamental difference between a phrase and a sentence: phrases remain naming units (as separate words), while sentences are units of communication: we usually communicate with each other not with the help of separate words or word combinations but with the help of **sentences** — simple or complex. Sentences give some new information about objective reality.

### Self-Control Questions.

1. What is language?
2. What two basic approaches to language do you know?
3. Characterize the external approach from the point of view of language functions.
4. Characterize the internal approach from the point of view of language systems.
5. What are the basic units of the European language systems? Characterize them.
6. What are the two types of Grammar? Characterize them.

7. What does Morphology study?
8. What does Syntax study?
9. What are two segmental units of Morphology?
10. What is a morpheme? Name its kinds.
11. What are the sublevels of Syntax?

## Lecture 2

### The Noun: General Characteristics, Category of Number, Category of Case. The Article. Quantifiers.

#### I. General Characteristics of the Noun as a Part of Speech.

1. Category of Number.
2. Category of Case.
3. Article Determination of the Noun.
4. Gender of a Noun.

#### II. Articles: Definite, Indefinite, Zero.

#### III. Quantifiers.

#### I. General Characteristics of the Noun as a Part of Speech.

The noun is one of the most important parts of speech: its arrangement with the verb helps to express a predication, the core of the sentence. The categorical meaning of a noun is ‘substance’ or ‘thingness’. The popular definition of a noun is that “it describes a person, place or thing”.

The noun as a part of speech is characterized by the following:

1. The general implicit lexico-grammatical **meaning** of “substance” in the wide sense of the word: it denotes things, objects and abstract notions presented as substance.
2. **Form:** The noun is characterized by the grammatical forms of case and number which are signaled correspondingly by the inflexions - 's and the category

of indefiniteness/definiteness is expressed by the articles «a(an)» and «the». Formally, many English nouns are also characterized by specific noun-building suffixes: *-er* (*teacher*), *-hood* (*childhood*), *dom* (*kingdom*), *-ness* (*kindness*), *-ity* (*unity*).

3. **Function:** The chief functions of the noun in the sentence are those of **the subject and object**, but nouns may also function as **attributes or adverbial modifiers** (when used with a preposition),  
e.g.: They saw a *stone wall*. (*object, attribute*)  
The old *woman* is resting. (*subject*)  
I drove *north*. (*adverbial modifier*)

## 1. Category of Number

Modern English, as many other languages, distinguishes between two numbers, **singular** and **plural**. Their categorical meaning is clear enough: the singular number shows that one object is meant, the plural shows that two or more objects are meant. Thus, the opposition is “one — more than one” (e.g. *student* — *students*, *girl* — *girls*, *story* — *stories*, etc.), with the plural forms being the strong member, marked by the *-s* inflection in its three phonetic variants: [s], [z], [ɪz].

- 1) Four nouns add the non-productive suffixes *-en*, *-ren* (*ox* — *oxen*, *child* — *children*, *brother* — *brethren*, *aurochs* — *aurochsen*).
- 2) Seven nouns change their vowel; this process is known as mutation, or sound alternation (*man* — *men*, *woman* — *women*, *goose* — *geese*, *foot* — *feet*, *tooth* — *teeth*, *mouse* — *mice*, *louse* — *lice*). The change does not take place when there is a derived sense, as when *louse* refers to a person (*you, louses*) or *mouse* to a character (*We've hired three Mickey Mouses this month*).
- 3) A few nouns have the same form for both singular and plural, even though they are semantically variable, allowing a

difference between “one” and “more than one”. Only the context enables us to know which meaning is intended (*sheep — sheep, deer — deer, salmon — salmon, aircraft — aircraft, offspring — offspring, series — series, species — species*).

4) Many nouns, borrowed from Latin or Greek, have kept the original plural (e. g. *alga — algae, larva — larvae, bacterium — bacteria, datum — data, phenomenon — phenomena, criterion — criteria, bacillus — bacilli, locus — loci, nucleus — nuclei, stimulus — stimuli, codex — codices, analysis — analyses, basis — bases, crisis — crises*, etc.).

Many English nouns do not show a contrast between singular and plural. They are classified into several groups.

- Nouns with the descriptive plural. The plural form of such a noun has a pronounced stylistic coloring due to the usage of the uncountable noun in the function of the countable noun, e.g. *the waters of the Atlantic; Arabia, the land of sands; “A Daughter of the Snows”* (J. London). The opposition “one — more than one” does not apply here. We could not possibly say *three waters*, or *five snows*. The real difference in meaning between *water* and *waters*, or *snow* and *snows* is that the plural form serves to denote a landscape or seascape in order to impress (a vast stretch of water; the ground covered by snow, etc.). A peculiar stylistic value of such forms is evident.

- Nouns with a fully lexicalized plural form. The plural form develops a completely new meaning, which the singular does not have at all, e. g. *colour — colours (флаг), custom — customs (митниция)*.

- Pluralia Tantum nouns. These are nouns which have only a plural and no singular form. Here belong the names of “two-part” items (trousers, scissors, binoculars, jeans, etc.) and nouns of indefinite plurality (annals, amends, auspices, congratulations, dregs, outskirts, remain, thanks, tropics, etc.).

- There are also a few nouns which look singular but are always plural (*vermin, people, livestock*, etc.).

- Singulalia Tantum nouns. These are nouns which have only a singular and no plural form. In fact, they are uncountable, because they denote material substance (*air, milk, oxygen, oil*, etc.) or abstract notions (*peace, usefulness, music*, etc.). However, such nouns may become countable if they are used to denote objects made of the material (*iron — irons*), or special kinds of the substance (*wine — wines*).

- Names of subjects, diseases, and games, such as *linguistics, mathematics, physics, mumps, billiards*, etc. are always in singular.

- Collective nouns and nouns of multitude. These are nouns denoting groups of human beings (*family, folk, party, government, police*, etc.) and also of animals (*cattle, poultry*) which can be used in two different ways: either they are taken to denote the group as a whole, or else they are taken to denote the group as consisting of a number of individuals (e.g. *My family is small — My family are early risers*)

## 2. Category of Case.

The problem of case in Modern English nouns is one of the most difficult problems in English grammar. What is case? **Case** is the form of the noun indicating the relation of the noun to other words in a sentence or phrase.

The traditional view presented in most practical grammars is that English nouns have two cases: a **common case** (e.g. *father*) and a **possessive** or **genitive case** (e.g. *father's*). However, there are some other views, which can be divided into two main groups: 1) the number of cases in English is more than two; 2) there are no cases at all in Modern English nouns.

It seems obvious that the two-case system (**the common case** and the **possessive case**) is a reasonable choice from the morphological point of view. It should be kept in mind, however, that the possibility of forming the possessive case, also referred to as s-genitive, is limited to English nouns denoting living beings (first of all, person nouns, e. g. *my father's room*) and a few others (those denoting units of time, e. g. *this year's elections*, and also some substantivized adverbs, e. g. *yesterday's news*). It should also be noted that this limitation is not too strict and there seems to be some tendency at work to use the s-genitive more extensively (e. g. *a work's popularity, the engine's life*).

We have considered theoretical aspects of the problem of case of the English noun. As a result of the analysis, we may conclude that the inflectional case of nouns in English has practically ceased to exist. The remaining two-case system has a limited application in the expression of various case relations in Modern English.

The personal pronouns in English are commonly interpreted as having a case system of their own, quite different from that of nouns. The two cases traditionally recognized here are **the nominative case** (*I, you, he, etc.*) and the **objective case** (*me, you, him, etc.*).

### 3. Article Determination of the Noun.

The noun is also characterized by specific markers of the category of **definiteness/ indefiniteness**. The markers are the **articles**. They are markers (signals) of the following nouns. Though lexically empty, the articles are indicators of “nounness” of the words to which they refer; thus, the articles contribute to the meaning of nouns. **The definite article** signals the definiteness of the object named, **the indefinite article** and **zero article** usually signal the indefiniteness of the object named. The indefinite, definite and zero articles are mutually exclusive.

### 4. Gender of a Noun.

There is no grammatical gender in English as we have in Ukrainian. We find gender distinctions only in the case when it is connected with the biological category of sex. Gender finds its formal expression on the replacement of nouns by the pronouns **he**, **she**, **it**.

**He** – refers to a male person (or animal),

**She** – refers to a female person (or animal),

**It** – refers to an inanimate thing (or animal).

**He** and **she** are used for animals when we think of them as having the personal qualities of human beings (e.g. pets):

e.g. *Have you given Rover his dog biscuits?*

**It** is used for animals and sometimes for babies and very young children, especially when their sex is unknown or unimportant.

**She** is sometimes used for inanimate objects (especially ships) where we think of them as having animate qualities: e.g. *What a lovely ship! What is she called?*

**She** can also be used of countries seen as political or cultural units, rather than as geographical units: e.g. *Last year France increased her export by 10%.*

When a human noun is replaced by a pronoun and the sex is not known or specified, **he** is used rather than **she**: e.g. *A martyr is someone who gives up his life for his beliefs.*

Mass nouns and singular abstract nouns are replaced by **it**.

However, there are also some formal signs of gender. If you fail to remember them consult your grammar textbooks.

## **II. Articles: Definite, Indefinite, Zero.**

The definite article “**the**” and the indefinite article “**a/an**” are two of the most frequent words in English. Together they make up almost 10 percent of words in running texts. Moreover, most languages in the world do not possess anything that can be said to be



equivalent, and therefore most EFL learners will have no point of reference when confronted by them. Mistakes in article usage are often the last sign that someone is not an L1 speaker.

The articles do not have any referential meaning themselves, but they help noun phrases to refer to real-world entities. The first of these distinctions is between specific and generic reference, that is, whether reference is to a particular individual or group, or to all the members of a class denoted by the noun, i.e. generalizing.

***The Meaning of identification is the main for the Definite Article “the”.***

“**The**” can mainly be used:

a) in *the repeated nomination* of an object:

e.g.: A day was terrific! I will never forget **the** day.

b) with the limiting attribute:

e.g.: **The** man, who entered, was really nice.

c) when it is stipulated by the situation:

e.g.: Not a word was spoken in **the** parlor.

d) to define unique phenomena:

e.g.: **The** sun, **the** moon, **the** sky, **the** earth, etc.

e) to express the meaning of the whole class of things;

e.g.: **The** dog is a domestic animal.

**The indefinite article (a, an)** cannot be used with uncountable nouns or with plural nouns. Use ‘an’ if the word immediately after the article begins with a, e, i, o or u, except where the ‘u’ is pronounced like a ‘y’ (e.g., *an apple, an egg, an interesting result, an odd couple, an umbrella*, BUT *a university*).

“**A/an**” can mainly be used:

a) to present *a definite object which is not distinguished from the class* of homogeneous or similar ones; presents *a thing as one from a class*:

e.g.: *You can read **a** book while waiting. He is going to be **a** doctor.*

b) to express *a generalized meaning* which is realized in sentences expressing abstract classification:

e.g.: ***A** swarm (any) is more beautiful than **a** goose (any).*

c) to introduce or establish something in discourse.

e.g. *Suddenly they heard **a** gunshot;*

d) to describe (but not referring to) someone or something:

e.g.: *She's **a** teacher.*

We often do not use articles at all. This is sometimes called **the zero article**.

**Zero article** can mainly be used:

a) before plural countable nouns (when we are talking generally)

e.g.: *Journalists often face dangerous situations.*

b) before plural uncountable nouns (when we are talking generally)

e.g.: *News travels fast these days.*

### **III. Quantifiers.**

Quantifiers are adjectives or adjectival phrases that describe “how much” (uncountable) or “how many” (countable) of a given noun there is. Quantifier is a word or a group of words that is used before a noun to show an amount of this noun.

## ***Types of Quantifiers***

Some quantifiers can only go with countable (precise quantity) nouns, while others can only modify uncountable (imprecise quantity) nouns. A few quantifiers can modify both.

### **For use with uncountable nouns**

*A little, little*

*A bit of*

*A great deal of*

*A large amount of*

*Much*

### **For use with both types of nouns**

*No, none*

*Some (of)*

*Any*

*A lot*

*Lots of*

*Plenty of*

*Enough*

### **For use with countable nouns**

*A few, few*

*A number of*

*Numerous*

*Several*

*Many (numbers)\**

Many quantifiers that end in “of” must be followed by an article or determiner (these, his, my, etc.), although some do not. Unfortunately, no exact rule determines which quantifiers require an article after “of.”

*All of*

*Some of*

*Many of*

*Much of*

(A) few of

(A) little of

None of

Several of

Enough of

### **Self-Control Questions.**

1. What is categorical meaning of a noun?
2. How is a noun as a part of speech characterized?
3. What is the difference between singular and plural nouns?
4. How is the plural of a noun formed in general? What are pronunciation rules?
5. What irregular plural noun forms do you know?
6. Characterize groups of nouns that do not show a contrast between singular and plural.
7. What is the case of a noun? What cases of English nouns do you know?
8. Speak about article determination of a noun. What articles do you know? Characterize them.
9. What can you say about a gender of English nouns?
10. What are quantifiers? Speak about their types.

### **Lecture 3.**

#### **The Verb: General Characteristics, Grammatical Classes of Verbs, Non-Finite Forms of the Verb.**

##### **I. General Characteristics of the Verb as a Part of Speech.**

- II.     **Categorical System of the English Verb.**
- III.    **Grammatical Classes of Verbs.**
- IV.     **Non-Finite Forms of the Verb.**

### **I. General Characteristics of the Verb as a Part of Speech.**

**The verb** is the most complex grammatical class of words. It is the only part of speech in English that has a morphological system based on the six categories: person, number, tense, aspect, voice, and mood. Besides, there are two sets of verb-forms, essentially different from each other: **the finite forms** and the **non-finite forms** (*infinitive, gerund, participle I, participle II*). The verb performs the central role in the expression of predication, i.e. the connection between the situations described in the sentence and reality. The categorial meaning of the verb is a process presented dynamically, that is, developing in time. It is the semantic characteristic of all verbs both in finite and non-finite forms. The difference in the functional aspect is that the finite verb with its categories of tense, aspect, voice, and mood always performs the function of the verb-predicate in the sentence while the non-finite forms are used in the functions of the syntactic subject, object, adverbial modifier, attribute.

**The verb** is a part of speech that denotes a process in the wide meaning of the word. The processual meaning is embedded in all the verbs. We can distinguish the following types of process:

- 1) processes of doing, or material processes, *e.g. Mary is writing a letter;*
- 2) processes of happening, *e.g. The old man is dying;*
- 3) verbal, *e.g. She told me the truth;*
- 4) mental, *e.g. The student did not know the answer; The woman did not see the lorry driving at full speed; She did not feel the pain;*
- 5) relational, *e.g. John is clever; Mary is at home; John has a new car;*
- 6) existential, *e.g. There is a dog under the table.*

Concerning their structure, verbs are characterized by specific word-building patterns. The verb-stems may be *simple, sound-replacive, stress-replacive, expanded, compound, and phrasal*.

The group of *simple verb-stems* (e.g. *come, take, give, etc.*) has been greatly enlarged by conversion as one of the most productive ways of forming verb lexemes in Modern English (e.g. *a park — to park*).

The *sound-replacive* type and the *stress-replacive* type are nonproductive (e. g. *food — to feed, blood — to bleed, import — to import, export — to export, transport — to transport*).

The suffixes of *expanded verb-stems* are: -ate (*cultivate*), -en (*broaden*), -ify (*clarify*), -ise/ize (*normalize*). The verb-deriving prefixes are: be- (*belittle*), en-/ em- (*embed*), re- (*remake*), under- (*undergo*), over- (*overestimate*), sub- (*submerge*), mis- (*misunderstand*), un- (*undo*).

The *compound verb-stems* in English are rare enough; they usually result from conversion (*blackmail — to blackmail, a benchmark — to benchmark*).

*Phrasal verbs* can be of two different types. The first is a combination of a head-verb (have, give, take) with a noun; this combination has an ordinary verb as its equivalent (e. g. *to have a smoke — to smoke; to give a smile — to smile*). The second type is a combination of a head verb with a postposition (*go on, give up, get out, sit down, etc.*).

When taking the formal aspect of the English verbs, we are also to consider two different morphological groups: *the regular verbs* and *the irregular verbs*. With the regular verbs, making the bulk of the verb lexicon, the Past Indefinite and the Past Participle are formed by adding the suffix -ed. The other verbs referred to as irregular comprise various paradigmatic patterns (*put — put — put; send — sent — sent; come — came — come; begin — began — begun; go — went — gone; be — was/ were — been; etc.*).

## II. Categorical System of the English Verb.

The verb in English is unique for its grammatical categories. They are six: *person, number, tense, aspect, voice, and mood*. Each of them has a specific outer expression through a corresponding morphological form.

Person and number are specific substance-relational verbal categories reflected in the verb due to the agreement of the subject

with the verb-predicate. The categories of person and number are closely connected with each other, they are jointly expressed. In the system of the present tense the inflection -(e)sis used for the third person singular, with the other persons remaining unmarked. The modal verbs have no personal inflections. The unique verb to be has three suppletive personal forms for the present tense (am, are, is) and two forms for the past tense (was, were). As to the future tense, the differentiation between the analytical forms “shall + infinitive” for the first person singular or plural and “will + infinitive” for the other persons is considered to be classical British, not observed in the present-day grammatical system of English.

The category of tense has both synthetic (the inflection -(e) s for the Present, the inflection *-ed* for the Past) and analytical forms “will/ shall + infinitive” for the Future). With the irregular verbs one can also find various patterns of sound alternation (e. g. *write — wrote — written*) and two suppletive formations (*be — was/were — been; go — went — gone*).

The category of aspect is expressed by the analytical forms: “be + Present Participle” for the Continuous; “have + Past Participle” for the Perfect. The oppositional differentiation within the category of voice is based on the marking of the Passive with the analytical form “be + Past Participle”. The morphological category of mood has both synthetic (the bare infinitive, the specific form *were*) and analytical (*should/would + infinitive*) forms of expressions.

### III. Grammatical Classes of Verbs.

The class of verbs falls into a number of subclasses distinguished by different *semantic* and *lexico-grammatical features* as well as their *syntactic* functions. The first division is between the set of verbs of full nominative value (*notional verbs*) and the set of verbs of partial nominative value (*semi-notional* and *functional verbs*).

*Notional* verbs represent the bulk of the verbal lexicon. This set is derivationally open. It includes such grammatically relevant semantic subclasses as *stative verbs*, denoting the state of their subject (*be, live, suffer, know, see, etc.*), and *action verbs*, expressing the action, performed by the subject (*do, act, make, go, take, etc.*). There

are also *terminative verbs*, semantically related to the idea of a processual limit (e.g. arrive) and *durative verbs*, which are alien to any idea of a limit (e.g. move). The third categorization of notional verbs is based on their combinability. The *finite verb* as the centre of predication organizes all the other sentence members. This syntactic function of the verb results from its semantic compatibility with other words.

*Semi-notional* and *functional verbs* serve as markers of predication as they show the connection between the content of the sentence and reality. These predicators include *auxiliary verbs*, *link-verbs*, *modal verbs*, and *semi-notional verbal introducers*.

*Auxiliary verbs* (*be, have, do, will, would, etc.*) constitute the grammatical elements of the categorical forms of the verb.

*Link verbs* introduce the nominal part of a compound predicate (a predicative / complement). Their function is to link the subject with its predicated feature of identification or qualification. The class comprises the “pure link-verb” *be* and the “specifying link-verbs” falling into two main groups: those that express perceptions (*seem, appear, look, feel, taste, smell, etc.*) and those that express factual link-verb connection (*become, get, grow, remain, keep, etc.*).

*Modal verbs* (*can, may, must, should, ought to, need, etc.*) are used with the infinitive as predicative markers expressing the relational meanings of the subject attitude type i.e. ability obligation, permission, advisability, probability, etc. *Modal verbs* are defective in form; stative groups, e.g. *be able*, supplement them. The verbs *be* and *have* in the modal meanings *be planned, be obliged* are considered as modal verbs and usually included in the list of modal verbs.

#### IV. Non-Finite Forms of the Verb.

The English verbals include four forms: *the infinitive, the gerund, the present participle (Participle I), and the past participle (Participle II)*. Verbals or the non-finite forms of the verb are the forms of the verb intermediary in many of their lexicogrammatical features between the verb and the non-processual parts of speech. They render processes as peculiar kinds of substances and properties. They are also different from finite verb-forms in their syntactic functions. While the finite forms perform in the sentence



only one syntactic function, namely, that of predicate, the non-finite forms have various syntactic functions except that of the finite predicate. But the verbals, unable to express the predicative meanings of time and mood, still do express the secondary predication (potential predication, semi-predication) forming syntactic complexes directly related to certain types of subordinate clauses, e.g.: *We expect him to take this offer* —

*We expect that he will take this offer.*

**The infinitive (Base)** is the non-finite form of the verb, which combines the properties of the verb with those of the noun, serving as the verbal name of the process. The English infinitive exists in two presentation forms: with the particle *to* (this form is called “*the to-infinitive*”) or without the particle *to* (“*the bare infinitive*”). The latter is found, for example, in the combinations of modal verbs with the infinitive. The particle *to* can be separated from the infinitive, forming the so-called “*split infinitive*”, e. g.: *Our problem is to quickly reproduce the experiment results.* The infinitive is capable of expressing the categorical meanings of aspect and voice. Thus, the categorical paradigm of the objective verb infinitive includes eight forms: *the simple active, the continuous active, the perfect active, the perfect continuous active, the simple passive, the continuous passive* (a rare form), *the perfect passive, the perfect continuous passive* (a rare form); e.g. *to ask, to be asking, to have asked, to have been asking, to be asked, to be being asked, to have been asked, to have been being asked.* The infinitive paradigm of the non-objective verb includes four forms, e. g.: *to come, to be coming, to have come, to have been coming.*

The Problem of the ING-FORMS. As there is no formal difference between the *gerund* and the *present participle* (they are formed by one and the same suffix *-ing*) some scholars (Kruisinga, Murphy, Gordon, Krylova) find no reason to treat them as two different sets of forms. However, the classical approach is to admit of the grammatical homonymy and to distinguish between the *gerund* and the *present participle* as two different sets of grammatical forms.

**The gerund** is the non-finite form of the verb, which like the infinitive combines the properties of the verb with those of the

noun. Gerund is the verbal name of the process and it is referred to as the verbal noun.

The paradigm of an objective verb gerund includes four forms: *the simple active, the perfect active, the simple passive, the perfect passive*;

e.g.: *asking, having asked, being asked, having been asked.*

With the non-objective verb gerund there are only two forms: *the simple active, the perfect active*; e. g.: *coming, having come*. The gerund performs the functions of all the notional sentence parts (subject, object, attribute, adverbial modifier). It can also make a notional part of a compound predicate.

e.g.:

- 1) *My coming was a surprise to her.*
- 2) *She was surprised at my coming.*
- 3) *I like to work in the reading room.*
- 4) *One can learn a lot by reading.*
- 5) *I began working at this office last week.*
- 6) *My hobby is jogging.*

Similar to the noun, the gerund can be used with prepositions (e.g. *on coming home*) and modified by a noun in the possessive case or by its pronominal equivalents.

e.g.: *Jack's coming home, his coming home.*

Such combinability allows the formation of semi-predicative gerundial complexes.

e.g.: *She was surprised at my coming home so early .  
She was surprised that I came home so early.*

**The present participle (Participle I)** combines the properties of the verb with those of adjective and adverb. In its form the present participle is homonymous with the gerund, ending in the suffix *-ing*.

The categorial paradigm of the present participle is the same with the gerund.

(e.g. *asking, having asked, being asked, having been asked or coming, having come*).

Like all the English verbals, the participles have no tense distinctions and the adjectives present and past in their names are

conventional and traditional. In the sentence, the present participle performs the functions of the *attribute, the adverbial modifier, the predicative of a compound predicate* (with the link-verbs other than *be*), and of the notional part in the analytical form of the simple verbal predicate. e.g.:

- 1) *The article deals with the events accompanying solar flares.*
- 2) *Rearranging the lenses of his telescope, Galileo found that he could magnify close objects.*
- 3) *The questions became more irritating.*
- 4) *They are going to the South.*

**The past participle (Participle II)** is the non-finite form of the verb, which combines the properties of the verb with those of the adjective, serving as the qualifying-processual name. The past participle is a single form, specific for each of the irregular verbs and ending in the suffix *-ed* with the regular verbs. It has no paradigm of its own. The past participle performs the functions of the attribute, the predicative of a compound predicate, and also of the notional part in the analytical form of the simple verbal predicate.

e.g.:

- 1) *We passed through several deserted villages.*
- 2) *You are mistaken in this case.*

### **Self-Control Questions.**

1. What are the morphological categories of the verb?
2. What are two sets of verb-forms? Characterize them.
3. What are the types of process?
4. Characterize the verb-stems.
5. Speak about grammatical categories of a verb.
6. Characterize notional verbs.
7. Characterize semi-notional and functional verbs.
8. Characterize auxiliary verbs.
9. Characterize link verbs.
10. Characterize modal verbs.
11. Characterize non-finite forms of the verb (the infinitive, the gerund, the present participle (Participle I), and the past participle (Participle II).

## Lecture 4

### The Verb: Category of Tense, Category of Voice, Category of Mood.

- I. Category of Tense.
- II. Category of Voice.
- III. Category of Aspect.
- IV. Category of Mood.

#### I. Category of Tense.

Time is an unlimited duration in which things are considered as happening in the past, present or future. *Time* stands for a concept with which all humanity is familiar. *Time* is independent of language. *Tense*, which derives from the Latin word *tempus*, stands for a verb form used to express a time relation. *Time* is the same for all humanity, while *tenses* vary in different languages.

Graphically, time can be represented as a straight line, with the *past* represented to the left and the *future* to the right. Between the two points, there is the *present*.



Time can be expressed in language in two basic ways: 1) *lexically*; 2) *grammatically*. e.g. *John is in his study now*. This sentence expresses the present time in two ways: grammatically (*is*) and lexically (*now*). As for lexical means, English has three sets of temporal adjuncts: those which refer to the present (*now, today, this morning, this week, this month, this century, this epoch, etc.*); those which refer to the past (*yesterday, last week, last month, last year, last century, last decade, etc.; two minutes, days, weeks, months, etc. ago*); those which refer to the future (*tomorrow, next minute, hour, week, etc.; a minute, hour, day, week, month, decade, etc. from now*).

*Past, present, and future* are the objective time divisions. However, it does not mean that tense systems of different languages

are identical. Moreover, English grammar admits of two different tense systems. According to one interpretation, there are three tenses in English: *present, past and future*, represented by the *synthetic* forms (e. g. *write\writes, wrote*) or *analytical forms* (e.g. *will write*). Many scholars support this three tense system.

According to the other view, there are two grammatically relevant tenses in English: the present tense and the past tense. Some doubts about the existence of a future tense in English were first expressed by H. Sweet and O. Jespersen. They assumed that in the phrase “*shall/will + infinitive*” the verbs *shall* and *will* still preserved some of their original modal meaning (*obligation* and *volition*, respectively). This approach still prevails with many scholars (e.g. R. Quirk); the phrases “*shall/will + infinitive*” are treated by them as ungrammatical (a sort of free phrases which are used to express future actions).

Traditionally, 12 tenses are distinguished in modern English. These tenses are divided into four categories:

#### **Simple Tenses**

- Simple Present Tense
- Simple Past Tense
- Simple Future Tense

#### **Continuous Tenses**

- Present Continuous Tense
- Past Continuous Tense
- Future Continuous Tense

#### **Perfect Tenses**

- Present Perfect Tense
- Past Perfect Tense
- Future Perfect Tense

#### **Perfect Continuous Tenses**

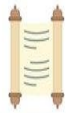
- Present Perfect Continuous Tense
- Past Perfect Continuous Tense
- Future Perfect Continuous Tense

# VERB TENSES

The past tense describes actions that have already happened or a state in the past.

The present tense describes actions that are happening now or habitually performed.

The future tense describes actions that have yet to happen or a state that does not yet exist.



PAST

PRESENT

FUTURE

SIMPLE

I wrote a story.  
He wrote a story.  
You did not write a story.  
Did she write a story?

I write a story.  
He writes a story.  
You do not write a story.  
Does she write a story?

I shall write a story.  
He will write a story.  
You will not write a story.  
Will she write a story?

CONTINUOUS

I was writing a story.  
He was writing a story.  
You were not writing a story.  
Was she writing a story?

I am writing a story.  
He is writing a story.  
You are not writing a story.  
Is she writing a story?

I shall be writing a story.  
He will be writing a story.  
You will not be writing a story.  
Will she be writing a story?

PERFECT

I had written a story.  
He had written a story.  
You had not written a story.  
Had she written a story?

I have written a story.  
He has written a story.  
You have not written a story.  
Has she written a story?

I shall have written a story.  
He will have written a story.  
You will not have written a story.  
Will she have written a story?

PERFECT  
CONTINUOUS

I had been writing a story.  
He had been writing a story.  
You had not been writing a story.  
Had she been writing a story?

I have been writing a story.  
He has been writing a story.  
You have not been writing a story.  
Has she been writing a story?

I shall have been writing a story.  
He will have been writing a story.  
You will not have been writing a story.  
Will she have been writing a story?

Each of these tenses has a specific function and is used to express a particular aspect of time, such as the present, past, or future, as well as the duration or completeness of an action. Understanding how to use these tenses correctly is essential to mastering the English language.

## ***Present***

### ***Present Simple:***

The tense that is used to refer to events, actions, and conditions that are happening all the time, or exist now.

*e.g.: I swim every day.  
I play football.*

### **Present Continuous:**

The tense that is used for actions happening now or for an action that is unfinished. This tense is also used when the action is temporary.

*e.g.: I am swimming in my neighbor's pool now.  
She is speaking to my mum at the moment.*

### **Present Perfect:**

The tense that is used for something that started in the past and continued to the present time.

*e.g.: I have swum in the sea countless times.  
I have spoken to her many times.*

### **Present Perfect Continuous:**

The tense that is used to show that something started in the past and is continuing at the present time.

*e.g.: I have been swimming since I was 7 years old.  
She has been competing in dance competitions lately.*

## **Past**

### ***Simple Past:***

The tense that is used to describe an event or action that happened in the past.

*e.g.: Yesterday, I swam 10 laps.  
Last night, I cooked chicken curry.*

### ***Past Continuous:***

The tense that is used for a continuing action or event in a time, which began or existed in the past. It can also be used to describe an unfinished action that was interrupted by another event or action.

*e.g.: I was swimming with David last night when Bob arrived.  
In May, she was teaching in a school in Darwin.*

### ***Past Perfect:***

The tense that is used to make it clear that one event happened before another in the past.

*e.g.: I had swum the breaststroke before I turned 8.”  
He had failed to communicate that he had another wife when we first met.*

### ***Past Perfect Continuous:***

The tense that is used to show that an action started in the past and continued up until another time in the past.

*e.g.: I had been swimming for many years before Priya picked up the sport.  
Dave had been playing soccer for 10 years when he was offered a spot on the US Olympic team.*



## ***Future***

### **Simple Future:**

The tense that is used to describe things that haven't yet happened at the present time, but which are expected, or likely to occur in the future.

*e.g.: I will swim more than 10 laps tomorrow.  
You will see her again next week.*

### **Future Continuous:**

The tense that is used for an unfinished action or event that will occur in future and continue for an expected length of time.

*e.g.: I will be swimming in the new Olympic-sized swimming pool on Friday.  
By December next year, I will be swimming like a fish.*

### **Future Perfect:**

The tense that is used for actions that will be completed between now and some point in the future.

*e.g.: I will have swum at least 1000 km by the end of the year.  
He will have built 40 homes by the first quarter of 2018.*

### **Future Perfect Continuous:**

The tense that is used to describe actions that will continue up until a point in the future.

e.g.: *By noon today, I will have been swimming for 2 hours.*

*In April, Damien will have been working in the company for 10 years.*

## II. Category of Voice

The category of voice expresses the relation between the subject and the action, or, in the other interpretation, this category expresses the relation between the subject and the object of the action. The obvious opposition within the category of voice is that between **active** and **passive**.

e. g. *He invited his friends — He was invited by his friends.*

The relations between the subject (He) and the action (invite) in the two sentences are different. In the first sentence, he performs the action and may be said to be the doer or agent, whereas in the second sentence he does not act and is not the doer but the object of the action. The opposition “active — passive” is represented by a number of forms involving the categories of tense, aspect and mood:

*asks — is asked;*  
*is asking — is being asked;*  
*has asked — has been asked;*  
*would ask — would be asked.*

The category of voice is realized through the opposition **active** and **passive** voice. The passive is the marked member of the opposition, its characteristic feature is the pattern “*be + Participle II*”, whereas the active voice is unmarked.

It should be remembered that some forms of the active voice find no parallel in the passive, namely *the future continuous, the present perfect continuous, the past perfect continuous, the future perfect continuous*. There are also some lexical limitations, as not all the verbs capable of taking an object are actually used in the

passive. In particular, the passive form is alien to many verbs of the stative subclass, such as *have, belong, cost, resemble, fail*.

The contrast between two voices can be seen in the following example: *They so but were not seen*.

### **III. Category of Aspect**

The category of aspect is a linguistic representation of the objective category of Manner of Action. 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.

Aspect is the form of the verb which shows the character of the action from the point of view of its progress or its completion.

It is revealed through the privative opposition of common-continuous forms of the verb (*writes—is writing*), the marked member of which is the *Continuous Aspect*, the unmarked one is the *Common Aspect*.

The Common form presents an action as a mere fact. The Continuous form presents an action as a developing process, gives an action a descriptive character or emphasis. It may also express repetition, duration, beginning or different emotions: irony, disapproval.

### **IV. Category of Mood.**

The category of mood expresses the character of connection between the process denoted by the verb and actual reality, either presenting the process as the fact that really happened, happens or will happen.

Verb mood is to the “attitude” of the verb. More specifically, “mood” refers to the degree of necessity, obligation, or probability. Is it a statement of fact? Is it a command? Mood can be expressed in any verb tense. The three main moods used in English are *indicative, subjunctive, imperative*.

## **Indicative**

The indicative mood is used for factual statements.

*Examples: Sally is drinking coffee.  
Sally drinks coffee.  
Sally drank coffee.*

## **Subjunctive**

The subjunctive mood is for hypothetical situations, emotions, or making requests. It is often (but not always) paired with a clause containing *would*, *should*, or *could*, or an if-then statement.

*Examples: If I were a pilot, I would fly through the clouds.  
The carousel closed. I wish it were still in use.*

## **Imperative**

The imperative mood is used to give commands.

*Examples: Go finish your homework.  
Please hang your coat.  
Don't eat a snack now or you'll ruin your supper.*

## **Self-Control Questions.**

1. How can time be expressed in a language?
2. How many tenses are there in the English language? Name and characterize them.
3. What do you know about the category of voice in the English language?
4. How is the category of aspect realized in the English language?
5. What does the category of mood express?
6. What are the three main moods used in English? Characterize them.

## **Lecture 5**

## **The Adjective: General Characteristics. The Category of the Degrees of Comparison. Substantivation of Adjectives. Adjectivation of Nouns.**

### **I. General Characteristics of the Adjective as a Part of Speech.**

### **II. The Category of the Degrees of Comparison.**

### **III. Substantivation of Adjectives and Adjectivation of Nouns.**

### **I. General Characteristics of the Adjective as a Part of Speech.**

The adjective expresses the property of an entity. They are divided into *qualitative* and *relative* adjectives. *Qualitative adjectives* denote various qualities of the nouns, e.g. *high, low, hearty, difficult*. *Relative adjectives* express such properties of a noun, which are determined by the relation of the noun to the other noun: e.g. *a wooden house, a historical event*.

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.

e.g. *The young man vs. The man is young.*

In the latter example, the adjective is syntactically the complement of the verb *be*, but semantically they both constitute the predicate.

To recognize adjectives in a text one should take into account their semantic and syntactic features. Derivative suffixes may also be helpful. Among these are the suffixes *-al, -ial (national, residential), -ful (doubtful), -less (useless), -y (dusty), -like (ghostlike)*. They are used to derive adjectives from nouns. There are two suffixes, *-ive (progressive)* and *-able (readable)*, to derive adjectives from verbal stems. Overall, the number of adjectives, which are recognized by their suffixes, is insignificant as compared with the mass of English adjectives.

### **II. The Category of the Degrees of Comparison**

The only morphological problem concerning English adjectives is the category of degrees of comparison. It is the only grammatical category of the adjective in English.

Most practical grammars only focus on the ways of forming degrees of comparison: 1) the synthetical pattern (with the suffixes *-er*, *-est*);

2) the analytical pattern (*more*+ *Adj.*; *the most*+ *Adj.*);

3) the suppletive formations (e.g. *good* — *better* — *the best*; *bad* — *worse* — *the worst*).

### **Comparative Adjectives**

Comparative adjectives compare two nouns. The comparative adjective usually ends in ‘er’ except for when the stem adjective is more than one syllable (or sometimes two). In this case, we use the word ‘more’ or ‘less’ before it.

For example, ‘The diamond is *more* beautiful than the emerald’ or ‘the emerald is *less* beautiful than the diamond’.

### **Superlative Adjectives**

Superlative adjectives usually take ‘est’ at the end of the stem except for when adjective is more than one syllable (or sometimes two). In this case ‘the most’ or ‘the least’ is used before it. E.g. ‘the *most* interesting film’ or ‘the *least* interesting film’.

Rarely, some one syllable words also require ‘more’/‘the most’ in order to express a comparison. For example, the word ‘bored’ needs ‘more bored’ and ‘the most bored’. *For example, I am bored, you are more bored, but he is the most bored.*

### **Irregular Adjectives**

Irregular adjectives do not use the stem to make the comparative and superlative, they require a different word altogether. For example, the word ‘good’ uses ‘better’ as its comparative adjective, and ‘the best’ as its superlative adjective.

*The book was less interesting than the film, but the television programme was the most boring of them all.*

*The bus was slower than the train, but the airplane was the fastest of the transport options.*

Theoretical interpretation of degrees of comparison is not so easy. The first question which arises here is about the number of them. How many degrees of comparison does the adjective have? If we take the three forms, *e. g. large (positive), larger (comparative), the largest (superlative)*, shall we say that they are all degrees of comparison? Or shall we say that only the latter two are degrees of comparison, whereas the first does not express any idea of comparison? Both views hold.

It is well known now that not every adjective has degrees of comparison. Since degrees of comparison express a difference of degree in the same property, only those of adjectives admit of degrees of comparison which denote properties capable of appearing in different degrees. For example, the adjective *middle* has no degrees of comparison. This refers to most relative adjectives and some qualitative, such as *blind, main, perfect*.

A more complex problem is the grammatical status of such formations as *more difficult, the most difficult*. They are referred to as the analytical forms of degrees of comparison. In that case, the words *more* and *most* would be auxiliary words devoid of their lexical meaning. In fact, they preserve their meaning in the word combinations under discussion and they should be treated as components of free phrases. But, on the other hand, qualitative adjective like *difficult, beautiful, interesting* express properties which may be presented in different degrees and, therefore, they are bound to have degrees of comparison. B. A. Ilyish says that considerations of meaning tend towards recognizing the formations of the type *more difficult* as analytical forms of degrees of comparison, whereas strictly grammatical considerations lead to the contrary view. The traditional interpretation of these formations as analytical forms prevails in linguistic literature.

### III. Substantivation of Adjectives and Adjectivation of Nouns.

Language is an economical system. When the need arises, the users of a language can easily change the categorical function of a word: verbs are transposed into nouns, nouns into verbs, adjectives into nouns. In English, it is easier than in other languages owing to the scarcity of suffixes.

Adjectives can, under certain circumstances, be substantivized, i.e. become nouns. This phenomenon can be found in many languages (e.g., in Ukrainian: Вчена Рада\ — вчена). Substantivized English adjectives acquire the characteristic feature of nouns: 1) ability to form a plural; 2) ability to have a possessive case form; 3) ability to be modified by an adjective; 4) ability to have both definite and indefinite article; 5) the functions of subject and object in a sentence. If we take, for example, the word *relative*, we can find that it possesses all these features:

*e.g. my close relatives, his relative's address, etc.*

Such words as *native, relative, representative* are fully substantivized. But there are cases of a different kind: *the poor, the rich, the Chinese, the English, etc.* They do not form a plural in -s; they have no possessive form; they cannot be used in the singular meaning and with the indefinite article. Such adjectives are said to be partially substantivized.

Transposition of adjectives into the class of appellative nouns is rather a frequent occurrence in colloquial English: *my little silly, my sweet, my dear.*

**Adjectivization** is the phenomenon of acquisition by nouns or adverbs of the characteristics of adjective. *Adjectivization* of nouns occurs when they function as attribute or predicative in the sentence,

*e.g. I adore Kyiv chestnut trees. This watch is gold.*

*Adjectivization* of adverbs can be illustrated by the following examples:

*Franklin Roosevelt, the then president of the United States, proclaimed the "New*

*Deal" –a new Government economic policy. The world today presents a picture radically different from what it was before the World War II.*



### Self-Control Questions.

1. What does the adjective express?
2. What types of adjectives do you know? Characterize them.
3. What functions does the adjective perform in the sentence?
4. What are semantic and syntactic features of the adjectives?
5. What is the only grammatical category of the adjective in English?
6. Characterize degrees of comparison of adjectives in English.
7. What is the substantivation of adjectives?
8. What is the adjectivation of nouns?

### Lecture 6

#### The Adverb: General Characteristics, Types of the Adverb, Degree of Comparison.

- I. General Characteristics of the Adverb.
- II. Types of the Adverbs.
- III. Comparison of Adverbs.

#### I. General Characteristics of the Adverb.

The **adverb** is an class of words expressing the quality or state of an action, the circumstances in which the action proceeds, or a degree of some other quality. Adverbs are used to add more information about a verb, an adjective, another adverb, a clause or a whole sentence and, less commonly, about a noun phrase.

*Can you move it **carefully**? It's fragile.*

***Quickly**! We're late.*

*She swims **really** well.*

*Don't go so **fast**.*

*You have to turn it **clockwise**.*

*Come over **here**.*

*Actually, I don't know her.*

*I haven't seen them **recently**.*

Adverbs have many different meanings and functions. They are especially important for indicating the time, manner, place, degree and frequency of something.

Adverbs in English and Ukrainian are indeclinable, they have some common, as well as some divergent features in their morphological structure and partly in their syntactic functions. It is difficult to define adverbs as a class, because they comprise a most heterogeneous group of words, and there is considerable overlap between the class and other word classes. They have many kinds of form, meaning and function. Alongside such undoubtful adverbs as *here, now, often, seldom, always*, there are many others, which also function as words of other classes. Thus, adverbs like *dead* (dead tired), *clear* (to get clear away), *clean* (I've clean forgotten), *slow, easy* (he would say that slow and easy) coincide with corresponding adjectives (*a dead body, clear waters, clean hands*).

## II. Types of the Adverbs.

Structurally adverbs may be **simple** (e.g. *here, there, now, quite, so*), **derived** (*slowly, sideways, clockwise, away*), **compound** (*sometimes, nowhere, anyhow*) or **composite** (*to and fro, upside down*).

Semantically adverbs are subdivided into **time adverbs, place adverbs, manner adverbs, degree adverbs, focusing adverbs, evaluative adverbs, viewpoint adverbs, linking adverbs.**

### Time adverbs

Time adverbs tell us about *when* something happens.

<i>already</i>	<i>lately</i>	<i>still</i>	<i>tomorrow</i>
<i>early</i>	<i>now</i>	<i>soon</i>	<i>yesterday</i>

<i>finally</i>	<i>recently</i>	<i>today</i>	<i>yet</i>
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*Have you seen Laurie **today**?*

*I'd prefer to leave **early**.*

*I went to the cinema on my own **recently**.*

*There's been an increase in house burglary **lately***

### **Place adverbs**

Place adverbs tell us about *where* something happens or where something is.

*There was somebody standing **nearby**.*

*Is that your scarf **there**?*

*You go **upstairs** and do your homework. I'll come up in a minute.*

### **Manner adverbs**

Manner adverbs tell us about *the way* something happens or is done.

<i>accurately</i>	<i>beautifully</i>	<i>expertly</i>	<i>professionally</i>
<i>anxiously</i>	<i>carefully</i>	<i>greedily</i>	<i>quickly</i>
<i>badly</i>	<i>cautiously</i>	<i>loudly</i>	<i>quietly</i>

Manner adverbs are often formed from adjectives by adding *-ly*:

She spoke very **loudly**. We could all hear what she was saying.

We walked up the stairs very **quietly** because Mum and Dad were asleep.

Some common manner adverbs have the same form as adjectives and they have similar meanings (e.g. *fast, right, wrong, straight, tight*).

adjective	adverb
<i>I was never a <b>fast</b> swimmer</i>	<i>Driving <b>fast</b> is dangerous</i>
<i>All of your answers were <b>wrong</b>.</i>	<i>People always spell my name <b>wrong</b>.</i>
<i>Is that the <b>right</b> time?</i>	<i>That builder never does anything <b>right</b>!</i>
<i>My hair is <b>straight</b>.</i>	<i>Let's go <b>straight</b> to the airport.</i>

## Degree adverbs

Degree and focusing adverbs are the most common types of modifiers of adjectives and other adverbs. Degree adverbs express degrees of qualities, properties, states, conditions and relations.

### Degree adverbs

<i>absolutely</i>	<i>enough</i>	<i>perfectly</i>	<i>somewhat</i>
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<i>a (little) bit</i>	<i>entirely</i>	<i>pretty</i>	<i>terribly</i>
<i>a lot</i>	<i>extremely</i>	<i>quite</i>	<i>too</i>
<i>almost</i>	<i>fairly</i>	<i>rather</i>	<i>totally</i>
<i>awfully</i>	<i>highly</i>	<i>remarkably</i>	<i>utterly</i>
<i>completely</i>	<i>lots</i>	<i>slightly</i>	<i>very</i>

Mary will be staying **a bit longer**. (*a bit longer* = for a little more time)

It all happened **pretty quickly**.

She was **quite** surprised they came, **actually**.

It was £3.52 if you want to be **totally** accurate.

## Focusing adverbs

Focusing adverbs point to something.

<i>especially</i>	<i>just</i>	<i>mainly</i>	<i>particularly</i>
<i>generally</i>	<i>largely</i>	<i>only</i>	<i>simply</i>

I **just** wanted to ask you what you thought.

I wouldn't **particularly** like to move to a modern house.

## Evaluative adverbs (*surprisingly*) and viewpoint adverbs (*personally*)

We put some adverbs outside the clause. They modify the whole sentence or utterance. Evaluative and viewpoint adverbs are good examples of this:

*The electric car, **surprisingly**, does not really offer any advantages over petrol cars.* (evaluative)

***Personally**, I think the show was great.* (viewpoint)

## Linking adverbs (*then, however*)

Linking adverbs show a relationship between two clauses or sentences (e.g. a sequence in time, cause and effect, contrast between two things):

*I left my house in the morning **then** [sequence] I went to pick up Leanne at her house.*

*We talked until the early hours and **consequently** [effect] I overslept the next morning.* (the result of the late night is that I was late the next morning)

*The sun will be shining in France. **However** [contrast], heavy rain is expected in Spain.*

### III. Comparison of Adverbs.

Adverbs, like adjectives, also have degrees of comparison, which are formed in the same way as the degrees of comparison of adjectives.

With adverbs ending in *-ly*, we must use *more* to form the comparative, and *most* to form the superlative.

<b>Adverb</b>	<b>Comparative</b>	<b>Superlative</b>
quietly	more quietly	most quietly
slowly	more slowly	most slowly
seriously	more seriously	most seriously

### Examples

- The teacher spoke **more slowly** to help us to understand.
- Could you sing **more quietly** please?

With short adverbs that do not end in *-ly* comparative and superlative forms are identical to adjectives: add *-er* to form the comparative and *-est* to form the superlative. If the adverb ends in *e*, remove it before adding the ending.

<b>Adverb</b>	<b>Comparative</b>	<b>Superlative</b>
hard	harder	hardest

<b>Adverb</b>	<b>Comparative</b>	<b>Superlative</b>
fast	<b>faster</b>	<b>fastest</b>
late	<b>later</b>	<b>latest</b>

### Examples

- Jim works **harder** than his brother.
- Everyone in the race ran fast, but John ran the **fastest** of all.

Some adverbs have irregular comparative and superlative forms.

<b>Adverb</b>	<b>Comparative</b>	<b>Superlative</b>
badly	worse	worst
Far	farther/further	farthest/furthest
little	less	least



<b>Adverb</b>	<b>Comparative</b>	<b>Superlative</b>
well	better	best

### **Examples**

- The little boy ran **farther** than his friends.
- You're driving **worse** today than yesterday!
- He played **the best** of any player.

### **Self-Control Questions.**

1. What does the adverb express?
2. What are structural types of adverbs? Characterize them.
3. What are semantic types of adverbs? Characterize them.
4. What degree of comparisons of adverbs do you know?
5. How are degrees of comparisons of adverbs formed?
6. Give examples of have irregular comparative and superlative forms of adverbs.

## **Lecture 7. The Pronoun: General Characteristics, Types.**

### **I. The Pronoun: General Characteristics.**

#### **II. Types of pronouns.**

#### **III. Features of pronouns.**

### **I. The Pronoun: General Characteristics.**

The grammatical status of pronoun as a separate part of speech is difficult to define. The peculiarity of pronouns as a class of words is that they are not united by any of the said features. What unites them is the way they denote reality: they denote it indirectly. Pronouns point

to the things and properties without naming them. Take, for instance, the pronoun *he*. *He* denotes a male human not directly but through a noun: a male human = John = he or he = John = a male human. The only feature which unites all the pronoun forms is the meaning of indication (deixis).

In view of this, pronouns are not notional words in the true meaning of the word; they are function words, their interpretation derives from the antecedent or the situation so that they need contain little descriptive information themselves. Their number is strictly limited and their meanings are acquired from the context.

Pronouns are said to ‘deputize’ for other parts of speech: nouns (*he, she, it, they*); adjectives (*his, her, its, their; this/these, that/those*); numerals (*many, much, few, several, some*), and adverbs (*here, there, thus*).

## II. Types of pronouns.

There are several types of pronouns in English:

1. **Personal pronouns.** These pronouns are used to refer to people or things. They can be **subjective** (*I, you, he, she, it, we, they*) or **objective** (*me, you, him, her, it, us, them*).  
*Example: He gave it to me.*
2. **Possessive pronouns.** These pronouns indicate possession or ownership. They include *mine, yours, his, hers, its, ours, and theirs*.  
*Example: This book is mine.*
3. **Reflexive pronouns.** These pronouns refer back to the sentence's subject and are formed by adding -self or -selves to a personal pronoun. They include *myself, yourself, himself, herself, itself, ourselves, and themselves*.  
*Example: I hurt myself.*
4. **Demonstrative pronouns.** These pronouns are used to point out a specific person or thing. They include *this, that, these, and those*.  
*Example: This is my car.*

5. **Indefinite pronouns.** These pronouns refer to people or things in a general or unspecified way. They include *anyone, someone, no one, everyone, somebody, nobody, anybody, and everybody*.  
*Example: Someone left their keys on the table.*
6. **Relative pronouns.** These pronouns are used to introduce a relative clause, which describes or identifies the noun that comes before it. They include *who, whom, whose, which, and that*.  
*Example: The woman who lives next door is a doctor.*
7. **Interrogative pronouns.** These pronouns are used to ask questions. They include *who, whom, whose, which, and what*.  
*Example: Whose bag is this?*
8. **Distributive pronouns:** These are pronouns used to talk about each and every person separately. They include *each, either, none, both, everyone, every, neither, any, one, everybody, everything*.  
*Example: Each of us has a car.*
9. **Reciprocal pronouns:** These are pronouns used to talk about mutual relationship. While the reciprocal pronoun relates to the action, the reflexive relates to the person. There are basically two types of reciprocal pronouns in English namely: *each other and one another*.  
*Example: John and Mary love each other.*

### III. Features of pronouns.

The pronouns are a mixed bag, and we can hardly find a name common to them. They constitute a functional word class – words that perform various functions in speech: semantic (act as determiners), deictic (act as words localizing entities in the context), and textual (act as cohesive devices across sentences).

*Morphological features of the pronouns.* Speaking of the personal and possessive pronouns, linguists (e.g. B. Ilyish, 1971) argue that the said pronouns distinguish the nominative, the objective, and the possessive case.

Attempts to treat such forms as I – me, you – you, etc. as case-forms date back to prescriptive grammar, when case was generally identified with a syntactic function. According to M. Blokh, “the categories of the substitute have to reflect the categories of the antecedent, not vice versa”: the so-called nominative case of the pronoun has no antecedent (i.e. a nominative case) in the noun; nor has the so-called objective case of the pronoun an antecedent in the noun. Such forms as *I, you, we* have no noun antecedents at all; *only he –him, she – her, it – it, they – them* have. The same holds for *my, your, our*; *only his, her, its, their* have noun antecedents. As we cannot speak of nominative and objective cases in nouns, we cannot speak of nominative and objective cases in personal pronouns.

However, what about *his, her, its, their*? These forms correspond to such noun forms as *Tom’s, Mary’s, the dog’s, Tom and Mary’s*. If we treat *his, her, its, their* as case forms, what is the status of *my, your, our*? And if we treat *him, her, it, them* as case-forms, what is then the status of *me, you, us*? Hence the best solution to the problem is not to treat the said forms of the pronoun as case forms.

*The deictic functions of the pronouns.* Deixis is a term for one of the most basic things we do with words. It means ‘pointing’ via language. Any linguistic form used so is called a deictic expression. Deictic expressions such as *this, that, me, you* are among the first forms to be spoken by very young children. The pronouns give us three types of deixis: person deixis, spatial deixis and temporal deixis.

1. *Person deixis.* A communicative act (interaction) generally consists of the speaker, the addressee, and others. The speaker is the reference, or deictic centre, i.e. he or she organizes the conversation: the speaker talks to the addressee, then the role of the speaker is transferred to the addressee. This suggests that the deictic centre shifts from one participant to another. The roles of the speaker, the addressee and others are generally grammaticalized in language: the speaker is actualized as *I* or *we*; the addressee as *you*, and others as *he*,

*she, it, they*. To the last group we can add indefinite pronouns, e.g. *somebody, each*. It should be noted that third person and indefinite pronouns can also be used as ‘addressee’ words,

e.g. A. *Who will come to the blackboard?*

B. (pointing to Peter) *He will* (Cf. *You will*).

2. *Spatial deixis*. By means of spatial deictic expressions we locate entities in space shared by the speaker, the addressee and the other participants, if any. Entities can be located near the speaker and away from the speaker.

Hence two types of distance: proximal and distal. When the speaker uses the pronouns *this, these, here, he* or *she* refers to entities near him or her; when the speaker uses the pronouns *that, those, there, he* or *she* refers to entities away from him or her. It is interesting to note that the pronoun *that* does not necessarily denote distance away from the speaker: the entity may be close to him, e.g. *I don't like that stuff*. *That* is used when the speaker wishes to distance himself from the entity. Thus, distance can be of two types: physical and psychological.

3. *Temporal deixis*. Like entities, processes are located with reference to the deictic centre. Such a deictic centre is the present moment, or now. Now is the speaker's time. The English pronouns give us only two deictic items –now and then. Temporal deixis in English is also expressed by appropriate adverbs or adverbial structures (e.g. *these days, nowadays, today vs. yesterday, the other day, last week; tomorrow, next year, etc.*) and grammatically, i.e. by tense.

### **Self-Control Questions.**

1. What is the peculiarity of pronouns as a class of words?
2. What types of pronouns do you know? Characterize them and give examples.
3. What are the features of pronouns?
4. What is “deixis”?
5. Characterize person deixis.
6. Characterize spatial deixis.
7. Characterize temporal deixis.

## Lecture 8. The Preposition.

### I. General Characteristics.

### II. Types of Prepositions.

### III. Phrasal Verbs and Pattern with Prepositions.

#### I. General Characteristics.

Prepositions indicate the relationship between a noun or pronoun and other words in a sentence. They usually indicate direction, location, time, or manner. They often show location, direction, time, and other spatial or temporal relationships. Some examples of prepositions are single words like *in*, *at*, *on*, *of*, *to*, *by* and *with* or phrases such as *in front of*, *next to*, *instead of*.

There are over a hundred prepositions in the English language, including graded and marginal prepositions. They can appear before nouns (*on Monday*), in front of gerund verbs (*for speaking*), as part of a phrasal verb (*get up*) or after adjectives (*interested in*).

The preposition is traditionally defined as a word expressing relations between words in the sentence, e.g. *Mary sent her photograph to John*. The preposition *to*, as used in the sentence, relates *John*, the Recipient, to the verb *send*. The weakness of the traditional definition is that it does not allow us to distinguish prepositions from subordinating conjunctions. Cf. *She never saw him after the concert*. vs. *She never saw him after he left town*. In traditional analysis, the preposition is used with the noun phrase, not with the verb phrase.

Such being the case, *after* in the first sentence is a preposition, while *before* in the second sentence is a conjunction. In other words, the status of *after* is determined by the linguistic status of the following phrase. Accepting this approach, we shall have to treat the two uses of *after* as homonyms.

Prepositions are peculiar to both synthetic and analytic languages.

However, if in synthetic languages they are generally employed to realize circumstantial functions, in analytic languages, like English, prepositions are used to realize both grammatical and circumstantial functions (e.g. *John's marriage to Mary* vs. *John's wedding-party in the Town Hall*). Being a predominantly analytic language, English has

developed an adequate compensatory mechanism. One such mechanism is the preposition, which historically derives from adverbs, nouns, and participles.

## II. Types of Prepositions.

Structurally, prepositions fall into two categories: **simple**, or **one-word** prepositions (*in, on, for, to, about, after*, etc.) and **composite**, or **two-or three word**, prepositions (*ahead of, because of, according to; by means of, at the cost of, with reference to*, etc.).

Functionally, prepositions can be divided into **grammatical** and **non-grammatical (spatial and non-spatial)**.

**Grammatical prepositions** have no identifiable meaning independent of the grammatical construction in which they occur. Consider:

1. *He was interviewed by the police.*
2. *They were discussing the speech of the President.*
3. *She sent the letter to John.*

In all these examples, the prepositions have no identifiable meaning of their own: it is only in the co-text that we can say what meaning they express. In (1) *by* marks the element that is the Agent; in (2) *of* marks the possessive relationship between the speech and the president; in (3) *to* marks the Recipient.

As for **non-grammatical prepositions**, their meaning can be easily identified outside the co-text (*e.g. in, on, above, under*, etc.). Dissimilar to grammatical prepositions, non-grammatical prepositions can be replaced by other non-grammatical prepositions.

As already indicated, non-grammatical prepositions can be divided into **spatial** and **non-spatial**, the term spatial including two types of space: non-temporal and temporal. Spatial non-temporal prepositions mark the position of entities with respect to each other: one entity is treated as a reference point (the deictic centre) with respect to which another is located.

The reference point could also be called the landmark and the entity whose location or moment is specified the trajector.

Therefore, for instance, in *The canary is in the cage*, *the canary* is the trajector, and *the cage* is the landmark. Landmarks can

be both concrete and abstract entities. Cf. *The canary is held in the cage.* vs. *The canary is held in captivity.*

It should be noted, that there are several ways to categorize prepositions in the English language. Here are eight types of prepositions commonly recognized:

1. **Time prepositions:** These prepositions indicate a specific time or duration. Examples include "at," "on," and "in."

*Example: I'll meet you at 3 o'clock.*

2. **Place prepositions:** These prepositions indicate a specific place or location. Examples include "in," "on," and "at."

*Example: The book is on the table.*

3. **Directional prepositions:** These prepositions indicate the direction of movement. Examples include "to," "from," and "towards."

*Example: She walked towards the park.*

4. **Agent prepositions:** These prepositions indicate the doer of an action. Examples include "by" and "with."

*Example: The painting was done by an artist.*

5. **Instrument prepositions:** These prepositions indicate the instrument or tool used to perform an action. Examples include "with" and "by means of."

*Example: I cut the paper with scissors.*

6. **Cause prepositions:** These prepositions indicate the reason or cause of something. Examples include "because of" and "due to."

*Example: The game was cancelled because of the rain.*

7. **Possession prepositions:** These prepositions indicate ownership or possession. Examples include "of" and "belonging to."

*Example: The keys are on the desk belonging to John.*

8. **Purpose prepositions:** These prepositions indicate the purpose or intention of an action. Examples include "for" and "to."

*Example: She went to the gym for a workout.*

### III. Phrasal Verbs and Pattern with Prepositions.

Phrasal verbs combine verbs and particles (prepositions or adverbs) that function as a unit. They can have idiomatic meanings



that are only sometimes predictable from the meanings of the individual words. Phrasal verbs are a common aspect of everyday English language use, and mastering them can help improve one's communication skills in the language.

There are several patterns of phrasal verbs with prepositions:

1. **Verb + Preposition.** In this pattern, the phrasal verb is made up of a verb and a preposition. The Preposition usually indicates the direction or location of the action.

*Examples:*

*She listened to the music.*

*He talked about his problems.*

*They laughed at the joke.*

2. **Verb + Preposition + Object.** In this pattern, the phrasal verb is made up of a verb, a preposition, and an object. The Preposition usually indicates the location of the Object.

*Examples:*

*He looked at his phone.*

*She threw the ball to the dog.*

*They waited for the bus.*

3. **Verb + Object + Preposition.** In this pattern, the phrasal verb is made up of a verb, an object, and a preposition. The Preposition usually indicates the location of the Object.

*Examples:*

*They put the flowers on the table.*

*He turned the key in the lock.*

*She left the book on the shelf.*

4. **Verb + Particle + Object.** In this pattern, the phrasal verb is made up of a verb, a particle, and an object. The Particle usually indicates the completion or cessation of the action.

*Examples:*

*She turned off the TV.*

*He picked up the phone.*

*They ran away from the danger.*

5. **Verb + Particle + Preposition + Object.** In this pattern, the phrasal verb is made up of a verb, a particle, a preposition, and

an object. The Particle and Preposition usually indicate the direction or location of the Object.

*Examples:*

*He ran into the house.*

*She jumped over the fence.*

*They looked up at the sky.*

It is important to note that phrasal verbs can be **separable** or **inseparable**. Separable phrasal verbs have the Particle separated from the verb by an object, while an object cannot separate inseparable phrasal verbs.

*Examples of separable phrasal verbs:*

*She turned the TV off. OR She turned off the TV.*

*He picked the book up. OR He picked up the book.*

*Examples of inseparable phrasal verbs:*

*They ran into the house. NOT They ran the house into.*

*She looked up at the sky. NOT She looked the sky up.*

### **Self-Control Questions.**

1. What do prepositions indicate?
2. How many prepositions are there in the English language?
3. Give the definition of a “preposition”.
4. Where can prepositions appear?
5. What are structural types of prepositions?
6. How can prepositions be divided into functionally?
7. What eight types of prepositions do you know?
8. What do phrasal verbs combine?
9. What patterns of phrasal verbs with prepositions do you know?

### **Lecture 9.**

#### **English Syntax**

##### **I. The Basic Notions of Syntax.**

##### **II. The Sentence: General Characteristics. Types of Sentences.**

##### **III. Parts of the Sentence.**

## I. The Basic Notions of Syntax.

The word '**syntax**' is derived from the Greek 'syntaxis' which literally means '*composition*', or '*order*'. It is a part of grammar, which studies ways of arranging words into phrases and sentences in order to produce speech.

It 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.

The part of syntax dealing with word combinations (phrases) is called the **Minor syntax**, while the part dealing with sentences is called the **Major syntax**.

The main units of the syntactic level of the language are:

- 1) the word in its syntactic position in the sentence (a part of the sentence);
- 2) the phrase which is a combination of two or more notional words arranged according to the rules of a particular language;
- 3) the simple sentence as the minimum unit of communication;
- 4) the composite sentence which is a combination of two or more clauses based either on coordinate (a compound sentence) or subordinate (a complex sentence) relations;
- 5) the text as the highest unit of language.

The basic unit of syntax is a sentence. Each sentence has a definite structure, which is in keeping with the rules for sentence formation in a given language.

## II. The Sentence: General Characteristics. Types of Sentences.

**The sentence** is the immediate unit of speech built up of words according to a definite syntactic pattern and distinguished by a contextually relevant communicative purpose. Therefore, the sentence is the main object of syntax as part of the grammatical theory.

The sentence, being composed of words, may in certain cases include only one word:

e. g. *Night. Congratulations. Why? Certainly.*

The actual existence of one-word sentences, however, does not contradict the general idea of the sentence as a special syntactic combination of words. Under no circumstances the sentence and the word may wholly coincide: a word-sentence as a unit of the text is radically different from a word-lexeme as a unit of lexicon. **The word** is a component element of the word-stock and as such is a nominative unit of language. The sentence is a predicative utterance-unit. **The sentence** not only names some referents with the help of its word-constituents but also:

– presents these referents as making up a certain situation or situation event;

– reflects the connection between the nominal denotation of the event on the one hand and objective reality on the other, showing the time of the event, its being real or unreal, desirable or undesirable, necessary or unnecessary.

e. g. *I am satisfied, the experiment has succeeded.*

*I would have been satisfied if the experiment had succeeded.*

*The experiment seems to have succeeded – why then am I not satisfied?*

There is another difference between the sentence and the word. Unlike the word, the sentence does not exist in the system of language as a ready-made unit; it is created by the speaker in the course of communication. The sentence, as different from the word, is not a unit of language proper; it is a chunk of text built up as a result of speech-making process, out of different units of

language, first of all words, which are immediate means for making up contextually bound sentences, i.e. complete units of speech.

### **Communicative types of sentences**

The sentence is a communicative unit; therefore, the primary classification of sentences must be based on the communicative principle. This principle is formulated in traditional grammar as the purpose of communication. In accord with the purpose of communication, four cardinal sentence-types have long been recognized in linguistics:

In English, there are four main types of sentences:

1. **Declarative sentences:** These statements make a declarative statement of fact and end with a period. *Example: The sun is shining brightly.*
2. **Interrogative sentences:** These questions require an answer and end with a question mark. *Example: What time is it?*
3. **Imperative sentences** are commands or requests that give directions or instructions and end with a period or exclamation mark. *Example: Please pass me the salt.*
4. **Exclamatory sentences:** These express strong emotions and end with an exclamation mark. *Example: "Wow, that's amazing!"*

It is important to note that some sentences may combine these types, depending on their context and tone.

### **Classification of sentences according to the structure:**

#### **1. Simple Sentence**

A simple sentence is a group of words that can stand independently to express a complete thought. It has a subject and a predicate and may have added phrases. A simple sentence is an independent clause. *Example: The rocket exploded.*

The subject is the rocket and the predicate is exploded. The sentence expresses a complete thought.

#### **2. Compound Sentence**

A compound sentence joins two or more independent clauses. A co-coordinating conjunction (and, but, for, or, so, yet) or a semicolon is used to join these two equal clauses. *Example: The rocket exploded, but the experimental satellite was salvaged.*

The two independent clauses, “The rocket exploded” and “the experimental satellite was salvaged” are connected by the coordinating conjunction “but”.

## 2. Complex Sentence

A complex sentence contains an independent clause and one or more dependent clauses. It usually contains a subordinating conjunction to help it flow more smoothly and to help make the sentence’s meaning clear.

*Example: The satellite was destroyed when the rocket exploded.*

The subordinating conjunction “when” weakens the clause “the rocket exploded” so that it can no longer stand alone. “The satellite was destroyed” is an independent clause. Combining the two clauses creates a complex sentence.

## 3. Compound-Complex

A compound-complex sentence is a blend of the two structures. It contains two or more independent clauses, as well as one or more subordinate (sometimes called dependent) clauses.

*Example: Although an amazing thing happened this afternoon, I missed it, but at least my sister took a picture of it.*

## III. Parts of the Sentence

In the study of syntax, sentences can be analyzed into different parts or constituents with specific functions in conveying meaning. Here are the main parts of a sentence:

1. **Subject:** The subject is part of the sentence that acts or is being described. It is usually a noun, pronoun, or noun phrase that comes before the verb.

*Example: John is reading a book.*

2. **Predicate:** The predicate is part of the sentence that describes the action or state of being. It includes the verb and any other words that modify or complete the verb's meaning.

*Example: John is reading a book.*

3. **Object:** The object is the noun or pronoun that receives the verb's action. It comes after the verb and is usually preceded by a preposition.

*Example: John is reading a book.*

4. **Attribute:** The attribute is a secondary part of the sentence modifying a part of the sentence expressed by a noun, a substantivized pronoun, a cardinal numeral, and any substantivized word, and characterizing the thing named by these words as to its quality or property.

*Example: The tall, dark, and handsome man walked into the room.*

5. **Adverbial modifier:** An adverbial is a word or phrase that modifies the verb or sentence. It can indicate time, place, manner, or degree.

*Example: John reads the book slowly.*

### **Self-Control Questions.**

1. What does Syntax study?
2. What does Minor Syntax deal with?
3. What does Major Syntax deal with?
4. What are the main units of the syntactic level of the language?
5. What is a sentence?
6. What are the differences between the sentence and the word?
7. What are communicative types of sentences?
8. What is the classification of sentence according to the structure?
9. What parts of a sentence do you know?

### **Lecture 10. A Simple Sentence.**

- I. **The Principal and Secondary Part of a Simple Sentence.**
- II. **Classification of simple sentences according to the syntactic structure.**
- III. **A Simple Sentence with Inserted Members.**
- IV. **Word Order in a Simple Sentence.**
- V. **Functions of Simple Sentences.**

## I. Principal and Secondary Parts of a Simple Sentence.

A simple sentence is a sentence that is made up of just one independent clause. An independent clause is a clause (that means that it's a group of words that has a subject and a predicate) that can stand alone as a complete thought.

Simple sentences are made up of just one subject and often only a single verb. Simple sentences are the most basic of the four different sentence types.

A simple sentence consists of two main parts: **the subject** and **the predicate**. The subject is the person or thing the sentence is about, and the predicate is the action or state of being that the subject is performing. The subject is usually at the beginning of the sentence, followed by the predicate.

*Example: John runs.*

In this sentence, "John" is the subject, and "runs" is the predicate.

In addition to the subject and predicate, other sentence parts provide more information. These secondary parts include attributes, adverbial modifiers, direct and indirect objects.

*Example: John runs fast in the park.*

In this sentence, "fast" is an attribute modifying the verb "runs," and "in the park" is a prepositional phrase modifying the verb "runs."

The parts of the sentence are arranged in a hierarchy wherein all of them perform some modifying roles.

Thus, **the subject** is a person-modifier of the predicate. **The predicate** is a process-modifier of the subject-person. **The object** is a substance modifier of the process. **The adverbial** is a quality-modifier of the predicate part or the sentence as a whole. **The attribute** is a quality modifier of a substantive part.

### Syntactic Parts of the Sentence

the principle parts	the secondary parts	the detached parts
• the subject	• the object	• the interjection
• the predicate	• the adverbial modifier	• the direct address
	• the attribute	• the parenthesis



## II. Classification of simple sentences according to the syntactic structure.

From the structural viewpoint, simple sentences are subdivided into the **one member** and **two-member sentences**. The two-member sentences have 2 principal parts – the subject and predicate, but most usually they are expanded by various secondary parts:

*He could not help smiling.*

*The USA is one of the largest countries in the world.*

If one or both of principal parts are missing, the sentence is called an **incomplete** or **elliptical**:

*What are you doing tonight? Going to the theatre.*

The missing parts of the sentence can be easily understood from the context: *I am going to the theatre.*

The one-member sentence has only one principle part (expressed by either a noun or a verb) which is neither the subject, nor the predicate and it makes the sentence complete:

1. nominal one-member sentences: *Dusk – of a summer night. What a nice view!*

2. verbal one-member sentences: *No! To have his friendship, his admiration, but not at that price.*

**The unextended sentence** consists only of principal parts of the sentence. Both two-member and one-member sentences may be unextended: *She is a student. Birds fly. Winter!*

**The extended sentence** consists of the subject, the predicate and one or more secondary parts of the sentence (objects, attributes, adverbial modifiers, direct address, parenthesis): *Birds come back from warm countries.*

## III. A Simple Sentence with Inserted Members.

A simple sentence can also add members, words, or phrases to the sentence for emphasis or clarification.

Inserted members of a sentence are words, phrases, or clauses that are not essential to the sentence's grammatical structure but are added to provide additional information, clarification, or emphasis. These elements are often separated from the sentence's main clause by commas or other punctuation *marks*.

For example, in the sentence "John, who is my neighbor, is a doctor," the phrase "who is my neighbor" is an inserted member. It provides additional information about John but is optional to the sentence's grammatical structure.

Commas or parentheses surround these inserted members and can be placed in different sentence parts.

*Example: John, the fastest runner on the team, runs in the park.*

In this sentence, "the fastest runner on the team" is an inserted member that provides more information about the subject "John." Commas surround the inserted member.

#### **IV. Word Order in a Simple Sentence.**

The position of words and syntactic structures relative to one another is well known to be a most important part of English syntax. The order of words in a sentence can affect its meaning and clarity. In English, the standard word order in a simple sentence is subject-verb-object (SVO).

*Example: John kicked the ball.*

In this sentence, "John" is the subject, "kicked" is the verb, and "the ball" is the object.

However, the word order can be changed for emphasis or to create a specific effect. For example, placing the object at the beginning of the sentence is known as fronting.

*Example: The ball John kicked.*

In this sentence, "the ball" is fronted for emphasis.

The basic word order has many variations and exceptions, depending on the emphasis or meaning that the speaker or writer wants to convey.

Some examples of different word orders in English sentences include:

- Verb-subject-object (VSO): *Jumped (verb) the cat (subject) over the fence (object).*
- Subject-object-verb (SOV): *The mouse (subject) the cat (object) chased (verb).*
- Object-subject-verb (OSV): *The mouse (object) the cat (subject) chased (verb).*

In addition to word order, English uses word function (such as auxiliary verbs, prepositions, and conjunctions) and word inflections (such as tense, number, and gender) to convey meaning in a sentence.

In conclusion, understanding the structure of a sentence is crucial for effective communication. The subject and predicate are the principal parts of a simple sentence, and the secondary parts provide additional information. A simple sentence can also have inserted members for emphasis or clarification, and the word order can be changed for effect.

## V. Functions of Simple Sentences.

We use simple sentences when presenting a limited amount of information. Although simple sentences may be shorter, they are not any less academic than other sentence types.

These are functions of simple sentences:

- To declare a direct statement.  
*Examples: First, I will give background information about my project. This conclusion is supported by extensive evidence.*
- To display a simple list.  
*Examples: The researchers created their hypothesis, conducted some tests, and drew their conclusions. My evidence comes from journal articles, periodicals, and books.*
- To give concise directions.  
*Examples: Please consider my application for the internship. Turn to Table 1 in the appendix.*
- To ask a question.  
*Examples: What is the true meaning of the poem? What will this study mean to medical research in a decade?*

## Self-Control Questions.

1. What is a Simple Sentence?
2. What parts does a simple sentence consist of? Characterize them.
3. What are the secondary parts of a simple sentence?
4. What are the detached parts of a simple sentence?
5. Speak about the classification of simple sentences according to the syntactic structure.

6. What can you say about the inserted parts of a simple sentence?
7. Speak about word order in a simple sentence.
8. What are functions of simple sentences?

## **Lecture 11. A Compound Sentence.**

### **I. Structural and Semantic Types of Compound Sentences.**

### **II. Functions of Compound Sentences.**

### **I. Structural and Semantic Types of 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.

A compound sentence consists of two or more independent clauses joined together by a coordinating conjunction, a semicolon, or a colon.

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*.

Compound sentences are commonly used in written and spoken English, and they can be categorized into two types: **structural** and **semantic**.

### **Structural Compound Sentences**

Structural compound sentences have a coordinating conjunction joining two or more independent clauses. Coordinating

conjunctions are words such as "and," "but," "or," "for," "nor," "yet," and "so." These conjunctions join two independent clauses of equal grammatical weight, meaning each clause could stand alone as a sentence.

*Examples:*

*I like coffee, and my sister likes tea.*

*She studied hard for the exam, but she still failed.*

*I want to go to the beach, or I want to go to the mountains.*

Each sentence contains two independent clauses joined by a coordinating conjunction in these examples.

### **Semantic Compound Sentences**

Semantic compound sentences have two or more independent clauses that are not necessarily connected by a coordinating conjunction. Instead, they are connected by a logical relationship, which could be causal, adversative, temporal, or concessive.

*Examples:*

*She was running late; therefore, she took a taxi.*

*I love eating ice cream; however, I'm lactose intolerant.*

*He finished his work; then, he went for a walk.*

In these examples, each sentence contains two independent clauses that are connected by a logical relationship rather than a coordinating conjunction.

Compound sentences are an important part of English grammar and can be categorized into structural and semantic. Structural compound sentences have two or more independent clauses joined by a coordinating conjunction, while semantic compound sentences have two or more independent clauses connected by a logical relationship. Understanding the different types of compound sentences is important for effectively communicating one's ideas in written and spoken English.

### **II. Functions of Compound Sentences.**

These are functions of Compound Sentences:

- To combine similar ideas.

*Example: Recycling is an effective way of helping the environment, and everyone should recycle at home.*

- To compare or contrast ideas.  
*Example: Van Gogh was a talented and successful artist, but he had intense personal issues.*
- To convey cause and effect or chain of events.  
*Example: The researchers did not come to the correct conclusion, so they restructured their hypothesis.*
- To elaborate on a claim or extend reasoning.  
*Example: Cell phones should not be permitted in class, for they distract students and teachers.*

### **Self-Control Questions.**

1. What are compound sentences?
2. What does a compound sentence consist of?
3. What are the formative words linking the parts of a compound sentence?
4. What types of compound sentences do you know? Characterize them. Give examples.
5. What coordinating conjunction do you know?
6. What are the functions of compound sentences?

## **Lecture 12. A Complex Sentence.**

### **I. General Characteristics.**

### **II. Types of Subordinate Clauses.**

#### **I. General Characteristics.**

A complex sentence contains one independent clause and one or more dependent clauses. A complex sentence will include at least one subordinating conjunction.

In English, a complex sentence is a sentence that contains one independent clause (a complete sentence) and one or more dependent clauses (incomplete sentences). A dependent clause is a group of words containing a subject and a verb but does not express a complete thought and cannot stand alone as a sentence.

The dependent clause in a complex sentence is introduced by a subordinating conjunction such as "*because*," "*although*," "*if*,"

"since," "when," "while," or "unless." The subordinating conjunction shows the relationship between the dependent clause and the independent clause, indicating whether the dependent clause is the cause, the effect, the condition, or the time of the independent clause.

*Examples:*

*Although it was raining, she went for a walk. (Although introduces the dependent clause and shows that the independent clause is still true despite the rain.)*

*Because he was late, he missed the meeting. (Because introduces the dependent clause and shows that the independent clause is the result of being late.)*

Complex sentences help communicate complex ideas and add variety to writing. They allow for the expression of multiple ideas in one sentence and can be used to show cause-and-effect relationships, compare and contrast ideas, or indicate time and condition.

It is important to use complex sentences appropriately and effectively in writing and speaking to ensure clarity and coherence. It is also important to punctuate complex sentences correctly, using a comma before the subordinating conjunction when the dependent clause comes first in the sentence.

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.*

## **II, Types of Subordinate Clauses**

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** (*Subject Clause: That he is a doctor surprises me. – "That he is a doctor" is the subject clause, and "surprises me" is the predicate.*); (*Predicate Clause: The fact that he was late annoyed his boss. – "The fact that he was late" is the predicate clause, and "annoyed his boss" is the predicate.*);
2. **Object Clauses.** (*I believe that he is telling the truth. – In this sentence, "that he is telling the truth" is the object clause that functions as the direct object of the verb "believe".*) (*She said that she would come to the party. – Here, "that she would come to the party" is the object clause that acts as the direct object of the verb "said"*);
3. **Attributive Clauses.** (*The book that I read yesterday was fascinating. – In this sentence, "that I read yesterday" is the attributive clause that modifies the noun "book".*) (*The girl who won the race is my friend. – Here, "who won the race" is the attributive clause that modifies the noun "girl"*);
4. **Clauses of Cause.** (*Since it was raining, we decided to stay indoors. – In this sentence, "since it was raining" is the clause of cause that explains the reason for the action of staying indoors.*) (*Because she studied hard, she passed the exam. – Here, "because she studied hard" is the clause of cause that explains why she passed the exam.*);
5. **Clauses of Place.** (*The children were playing in the park where we had a picnic last week. – In this sentence, "where we had a picnic last week" is the clause of place that provides information about where the children were playing.*) (*She found her lost keys*



*under the couch where the cat likes to sleep. – Here, "under the couch where the cat likes to sleep" is the clause of place that provides information about where the keys were found.);*

**6. Temporal Clauses.** *(As soon as the sun sets, the temperature drops quickly. – In this example, "As soon as the sun sets" is the temporal clause that indicates when the action of the temperature dropping occurs.). (While she was studying, her phone rang several times. – In this sentence, "While she was studying" is the temporal clause that indicates when the action of the phone ringing occurred.);*

**7. Clauses of Condition.** *(If it rains, we will stay at home. – In this sentence, "if it rains" is the clause of condition that indicates the condition that must be met for the action of staying at home to occur.) (Unless you study, you will not pass the test. – Here, "unless you study" is the clause of condition that indicates the condition that must be met for the action of passing the test to occur.);*

**8. Clauses of Result.** *(The weather was so cold that we decided to stay indoors. – In this sentence, "that we decided to stay indoors" is the clause of result that indicates the consequence of the weather being so cold.) (She studied hard, so she passed the exam with excellence. – Here, "so she passed the exam with excellence " is the clause of result that indicates the consequence of her studying hard.);*

**9. Clauses of Purpose.** *I bought a new laptop so that I can work from home more easily. – In this sentence, "so that I can work from home more easily" is the clause of purpose that indicates the purpose behind buying a new laptop.) (She went to the gym in order to lose weight. - Here, "in order to lose weight" is the clause of purpose that indicates the purpose behind going to the gym.);*

**10. Clauses of Concession.** *(Although it was raining, she went for a run. (In this sentence, "although it was raining" is the clause of concession that expresses a contrast to the action of going for a run.) Despite her fear of heights, she climbed to the top of the mountain. (Here, "despite her fear of heights" is the clause of concession that expresses a contrast to the action of climbing to the top of the mountain.);*

**11. Clauses of Manner and Comparison.** (*She sang the song beautifully as if she had been practicing for years. – In this sentence, "as if she had been practicing for years" is the clause of manner that describes how she sang the song.*) *She runs faster than I do. – Here, "faster than I do" is the clause of comparison that compares the speed at which the speaker and the woman run.*).

**Self-Control Questions.**

1. What does a complex sentence contain?
2. What is a dependent clause?
3. What subordinating conjunctions do you know?
4. What means does English use to express subordination of one syntactic unit to another in a complex sentence?
5. What types of subordinate clauses do you know? Characterize them.

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