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**„THE TYPOLOGY OF THE PARTS OF  
SPEECH: THEORY AND PRACTICE”**

**DIDACTICAL SUPPORT**

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## PREFACE

The didactical support is meant for university students. It will help them learn and revise English grammar, to be more exact the English parts of speech in comparison with other languages thus determining the similarities and differences.

Grammar is a branch of lingual study, being one of the constituent parts of language. A language cannot exist without the three main systems: phonological, lexical and grammatical. Speech is manifestation of language.

The aim of theoretical grammar of the English language is to present a theoretical description of its grammatical system, the lingual units of two types of relations: paradigmatic (in absentia) – in absence and syntagmatic (in praesentia) – in presence and the division of the language units into: segmental and suprasegmental.

The two parts of grammar are treated in comparison with the native language, i.e. morphology and syntax.

The morpheme and the word, the morphemic structure of the word, the categorial structure of the word, types of grammatical categories and functional oppositions are of great importance and present some difficulties.

The typology of the notional parts of speech in English and other languages with their grammatical categories and functions as well as the functional parts of speech are paid much attention too.

Syntax, the second component part of grammar dealing with the study of phrases and sentences, their classification, types and functions presents interest. Different kinds of predicative constructions are analysed and the problems encountered in their understanding and use are clarified.

## CONTENTS

1. Introduction to the Course Grammar as a Branch of Lingual Study, its Aim and Notions.....	5
2. The Subject – Matter of Morphology. Morphemic Structure of the Word. Classifications of Morphemes.....	8
3. Categorial Structure of the Word. Types of Grammatical Categories. Functional Oppositions. Grammatical Forms.....	11
4. Grammatical Classes of Words. The Problem of Classifying Words into Parts of Speech .....	14
5. Notional Parts of Speech .....	17
6. The English Verb. General Characteristics. The Problem of Classification. The Morphological Grammatical Categories of the English Verb. Indirect and Represented Speech. The Sequence of Tenses.....	22
7. Structural Parts of Speech. Words not included in Traditional Classification of Parts of Speech. The Article .....	33
8. The Subject – Matter of Syntax. Classifications of Sentences. Syntactical Functions .....	36
9. EXERCISES.....	48
Selective Literature.....	56

## **1. Introduction to the Course Grammar as a Branch of Lingual Study, its Aim and Notions**

Language is a means of forming and storing ideas as reflections of reality and exchanging them in the process of communication (intercourse). Language is social by nature; it is inseparably connected with people who are its creators and users; it grows and develops together with the development of society.

Language includes three constituent parts. They are: the phonological system, the lexical system, the grammatical system. There is no human language without these three elements.

*The phonological system* is the subfoundation of language; it determines the material (phonetical) appearance of its significative units. *The lexical system* is the whole set of naming means of language, that is, words and word-groups. *The grammatical system* is the whole set of regularities determining the combination of naming means in the formation of utterances as a result of thinking process.

Human language, that unique characteristic of our species, has been of interest throughout history. The scientific study of human language is called linguistics. A linguist is a scientist who investigates human language in all its facets, its structure, its use, its history, its place in society.

The distinction between language and speech which was first introduced by Ferdinand de Saussure, a Swiss linguist (1857-1913), in his book on general linguistics, has since become one of the cornerstones of modern linguistics.

**Language** is the system of phonological, lexical and grammatical elements which are at the base of all speaking.

**Speech**, on the other hand, is the manifestation of language, its use by various speakers and writers. Thus, what we have before us, in oral or in written form, as material for analysis, is always a product of speech, something either pronounced or written by a speaker or writer.

The teaching of a language to foreigners requires the formulation of rules which the learner has to respect if he is to speak and write the language correctly. Practical grammar, written by the speakers of the English language as their native language or by foreigners that know and speak English (e.g. Polish, Romanian, Russian etc.) tend to be very strict in describing what is *admissible* and *inadmissible* in the language.

Each constituent part of language, three in number, phonological, lexical, grammatical, is studied by a particular linguistic discipline. Thus the phonological description of language is done by the science of phonology; the lexical description of language is effected by the science of lexicology; the grammatical description of language is performed by the science of grammar.

Any linguistic description may have a practical or theoretical purpose. A practical description is aimed at providing the learner with a manual (book) or practical mastery of the corresponding part of language.

The aim of theoretical grammar of a language is to present a theoretical description of its grammatical system that scientifically analyses and defines its grammatical categories and study the mechanisms.

The system of language includes, on the one hand, a body of material units – sounds, morphemes, words, word-groups; on the other hand, rules or regularities of the use of these units. Language and speech are inseparable, they together form an organic unity. Grammar, being an integral part of the language (lingual) macrosystem, dynamically connects language with speech, categorically determines the lingual process of utterance (speech) production.

Lingual units are in two fundamental types of relations: *syntagmatic* and *paradigmatic*. *Syntagmatic* relations are immediate linear relations between units in a segmental sequence (syntactic relations).

E.g. In the following sentence. The translation was made without the use of the dictionary.

Syntagmatically are connected the words and word-groups: "the translation", "was made"; "the translation was made", "was made without the use", "the use of the dictionary".

Morphemes within the words are also connected syntagmatically. E.g. translat/ion; with/out. Phonemes are connected syntagmatically within morphemes and words. Syntagmatic relations are seen in utterances (sentences) they are described by the Latin formula as relations "*in praesentia*" ("in the presence").

The other type of relations opposed to syntagmatic are called "*paradigmatic*". These relations between elements of the system are outside the sequence *string*. *In phonology* such series are built up by the correlations of phonemes on the basis of vowels or consonants, voiceless or voiced sounds, the factor of length: long phonemes / short ones – [α:-Λ; ɔ:-ɔ].

**In the sphere of vocabulary** these series are built on the correlations of synonymy and antonymy. *In the domain of grammar* related forms are based on grammatical numbers or *cases*, *persons* and *tenses*, *patterns* of sentences. Common, objective case nouns, I, II, III persons singular/plural, present/past.

Unlike syntagmatic relations, paradigmatic relations cannot be directly observed in utterances, that is why they are called relations "*in absentia*" ("in the absence").

But these two types of relations coexist in such a way that some kind of syntagmatic connection is necessary for the realization of any paradigmatic series. This is very evident in a grammatical paradigm which presents a productive series of forms each consisting of a

syntagmatic connection of two elements: one common for the whole series (stem, root), the other specific for every individual form in the series (grammatical feature – inflexion, suffix, auxiliary word). Grammatical paradigms express various grammatical categories. The minimal paradigm consists of two form-stages. For example, in the expression of the category of number: *boy – boys*. A more complex paradigm presents the system of the finite verb (tense forms), of different groups of tenses: Indefinite, Continuous, Perfect etc.

The units of a language are divided into *segmental* and *suprasegmental*.

Segmental units consist of phonemes which form phonemic strings (syllables, morphemes, words etc.). Suprasegmental units do not exist by themselves, but are realized together with segmental units and express different modificational functions which are reflected in segmental units. Suprasegmental units are: intonation, accents (stress), pauses, patterns of word-order (affirmative, interrogative etc. sentences). Suprasegmental units do not exist by themselves, they are realized together with segmental units and express different meanings (functions) which are reflected on the string (sequence) of segmental units.

The segmental units of a language form a *hierarchy* [haiəra:ki] of levels. This means that units of any higher level are formed of units of the immediately lower level. Thus *morphemes* are decomposed into *phonemes*, *words* are decomposed into *morphemes*, *phrases* are decomposed into *words* etc. Units of each level have specific functional features.

1. *The lowest level* of lingual (language) segments is *phonemic*: it is formed (this level) by phonemes as the material elements of the higher-level segments. The phoneme has no *meaning*, its function is purely differential: it differentiates morphemes and words: *cap – cab; learn – learned*. Units of all the higher levels are *meaningful*.

2. *The level above* the phonemic one is the *morphemic* level. The morpheme is the elementary meaningful part of the word. It is built up by phonemes, so the shortest morphemes include only one phoneme. E.g. *read-s* [z]; *wind-y* [i]; *a-rise* [ə].

3. *The third level* is the level of *words*, or *lexemic* level. The word which is different from the morpheme is a directly naming unit of the language: it names things and their relations. Since words are built up by morphemes, the shortest words consist of only one morpheme. Cf. (compare) *pen; wish; and; I*; etc.

4. The next higher unit is the *phrase* (word group), it is located at the *phrasemic* [fræzɪmɪk] level. Here combinations of two or more notional words belong. E.g. *extremely difficult; a famous writer*.

5. The next level is the level of sentences or *proposemic* level. This unit of the language names a situation, a situational event, it shows if this event is real or unreal, obligatory, desirable. Cf. *to come* (a word), *to come late* (phrase), *He came late yesterday* (a sentence). The sentence is

not the highest level.

6. Sentences united into sentence groups, microtopic, called *supra-proposemic* or in the printed text a *paragraph*. This is the transition from the sentence to the text.

Central in the hierarchy [haiəra:ki] of the language are **first** the notions of the word analysed by *morphology*, the grammatical teaching of the word and **second**, is the notion of the sentence analysed by *syntax*, the grammatical teaching of the sentence.

It is a very common statement that Modern English is an analytical language, as distinct from Modern Romanian, Russian, French which are synthetical.

The principal features characterizing an analytical language are:

1. Comparatively few grammatical inflexions case inflexions in nouns, adjectives and pronouns and personal inflections in verbs.
2. A wide use of sound alterations to denote grammatical forms: *man – men; write – wrote; good – better*.
3. A wide use of prepositions to denote relations between objects and to connect words in the sentence (the colour *of* the pen; the roads *in* the city).
4. A more or less fixed order of words to denote grammatical relations.

But two analytical languages, let's suppose Modern English and French; Romanian; Russian are not exactly alike in their grammatical structure.

E.g. English adjectives are not inflected for either gender or number, whereas in the compared languages they are, the attributive adjective (with a few exceptions) comes before the noun, whereas in Romanian it comes after it.

E.g. a *good* book – *good* books; o carte *bună* – cărți *bune*;  
a *good* pen – *good* pens; un stilou *bun* – stilouri *bune*;  
a *good* pupil – *good* pupils; un elev *bun* – elevi *buni*.

## **2. The Subject – Matter of Morphology. Morphemic Structure of the Word.**

### **Classifications of Morphemes**

*Morphology* is the part of grammar which treats the forms of words. *Syntax* is the part of grammar which treats phrases and sentences.

The morphological system of the language reveals its properties through the morphemic structure of words. It follows, that morphology as part of grammatical theory faces the two segmental units: *the morpheme* and *the word*. The morpheme is identified only as part of the word; the functions of the morpheme are effected only as the corresponding constituent functions of the word as a whole. The morpheme is the minimal meaningful unit (segment).

The American scholars (scientists) – representatives of Descriptive Linguistics founded



by L. Bloomfield – recognized not the word and the sentence, but the phoneme and the morpheme as the basic categories of linguistic description, because these units are the easiest to be isolated in the text due to their elementary segmental character: the phoneme is the minimal **formal** segment of the language, the morpheme – the minimal **meaningful** segment. Later a third level was added to these – the level of morpheme combinations, that is **the word**. The word is identified as a minimal *sign* capable of functioning alone, the word is understood as "*the smallest free form*". The word is a nominative unit of the language, it is formed by morphemes, meaningful segmental components of the word.

For example, if we take the form *writers*, it can be divided into three morphemes: (1) *writ* – expressing the basic lexical meaning of the word, (2) *-er* – expressing the idea of the agent performing the action indicated by the root of the verb, (3) *s* – indicating number, showing that more than one person of the type indicated is meant.

1. Two or more morphemes may sound the same but be basically different, that is, they may be homonyms. Thus the *er* morpheme showing the doer of the action as in *writer* has a homonym – the morpheme *er* denoting the comparative degree of adjectives and adverbs, as in *longer*.

Thus in the first case *er* cannot be the morpheme of the comparative degree, as the morpheme *writ* to which *er* is added is not the stem (root) of an adjective or adverb.

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

In traditional grammar the study of the morphemic structure of the word was conducted according to two basic criteria: *positional* (the location of the marginal morphemes in relations to central ones) and *semantic* or *functional* criterion (the correlative contribution of the morphemes to the general meaning of the word). These two criteria led to the rational classification of morphemes. According to the traditional classification, morphemes are divided into: *root-morphemes* and *affixal* morphemes (affixes). *The roots* express the concrete "material" part of the word, while the *affixes* express the specific part of the meaning of the word, specifications being of *lexico-semantic* and *grammatico-semantic* character.

The *roots* of notional (noțional, cu sens) words are classical lexical morphemes.

The *affixal* morphemes include prefixes, suffixes, and inflexions (in the tradition of the English school, grammatical inflexions are commonly referred to as (called) suffixes). Of these, prefixes and lexical suffixes have word-building functions, together with the root they form the stem of the word: inflexions (grammatical suffixes) express different morphological categories.

The root, the border-area (marginal) between the prefixes and suffixes, is obligatory for any word; while affixes are not obligatory.

The modern English words used in the lexicon of everyday speech have the preferable morphemic types of stems: *root-stems* (*one root stems* or *two-root stems*) and *one-affix stems*. With grammatically changeable words these stems take *one grammatical suffix*, two "*open*" *grammatical suffixes* are used only with some plural nouns in the possessive case, Cf.: the **children's** toys. The abstract complete morphemic model of the common English word is the following: *prefix + root + lexical suffix + grammatical suffix*. E.g. *prefabricated* (Pr.+R+L+gr.) { [Pr+(R+L)+Gr] } braces, brackets and parentheses

The environment of a unit may be either "right" or "left", e.g. *un-forgive-able*; *un-friend-ly*. In the distributional analysis at the morphemic level, phonemic distribution of morphemes and morphemic distribution of morphemes are discriminated. The study is conducted in two stages.

At the first stage, the text which we analyse is divided into segments consisting of phonemes. These segments are called "morphs", i.e. (that is) morphemic units distributionally uncharacterized. E.g. the / boat/s /were gain/ing / speed.

At the second stage, the environmental features of the morphs are established and the corresponding identifications are done.

Three types of distribution exist in the distributional analysis, namely, *contrastive* distribution, *non-contrastive* distribution and *complementary* distribution.

The first and the second types of distribution, i.e. (contrastive and non-contrastive) concern identical environments of different morphs. The morphs are in contrastive distribution if their meanings (functions) are different. Such morphs constitute different morphemes. Cf. the suffixes – *(e)d* and *ing* in the verb forms *answered, answering; returned, returning*. The morphs are said to be in *non-contrastive* distribution if their meaning is the same. Such morphs constitute "free variants" of the same morpheme. Cf. the suffixes *-e(d)* and *t* in the verb form *learned, learnt*.

Different from the above-mentioned, *complementary* distribution refers to different environments of formally different morphs but having the same meaning (function). If two or more morphs have the same meaning, but the difference in their form is explained by different environments, these morphs are in complementary distribution and are considered to be allomorphs of the same morpheme. Cf. the allomorphs of the plural morpheme: E.g. lists[s], banks [s], birds[z], beds[z], benches[iz], classes[iz], the plural allomorph *en* in *oxen, children* which stands in morphemic complementary distribution with the other allomorphs of the plural morpheme.

On the basis of *the degree of self-dependence*, "free" morphemes and "bound" morphemes are distinguished. *Bound* morphemes cannot form words by themselves, they are only component parts of words. *Free* morphemes can build up words by themselves, can be used "freely". For example, in the word *useful* the root *use* is a free morpheme, while the suffix *ful* is a bound morpheme. There are very few productive bound morphemes in the morphological system of English. The narrow list of bound morphemes is complicated by the relations of homonymy. These morphemes are the following:

1. the segments -(e)s [-z, -s, -iz]: the plural of nouns, the possessive case of nouns, the third person singular present of verbs;
2. the segments -(e)d [-d, -t, -id]: the past and past participle of verbs;
3. the segment *-ing*: the gerund and present participle;
4. the segments *-er, -est*: the comparative and superlative degrees of adjectives and adverbs.

On the basis of *formal presentation* "overt" [ou:və:t] – *evident* and "covert" [kʌvət] – *absent* morphemes exist.

The first are clear, explicit morphemes building up words, the second – a contrastive absent morpheme expressing a certain function, boys – boy (zero morpheme).

On the basis of *segmental relation*, *segmental* and "supra-segmental" morphemes exist segmental phonemes; supra-segmental – intonation, accents, pauses.

On the basis of *grammatical alternation*, "additive" and "replacive" morphemes are distinguished. E.g. Cf. work+*ed* (additive); long+*er*; replacive: Cf. *dr-i-ve* – *dr-o-ve* – *dr-i-ven*; *m-a-n* – *m-e-n*.

On the basis of *linear characteristic*, "continuous" and "discontinuous" morphemes exist.

*be ...ing* for the continuous verb forms (e.g. is doing);

*have ...en* for the perfect verb forms (e.g. has written);

*be ...en* for the passive verb forms (e.g. was written).

The grammatical form including an auxiliary word and a grammatical suffix is an analytical grammatical form of a two-element unit, having two different morphemes.

### **3. Categorical Structure of the Word. Types of Grammatical Categories.**

#### **Functional Oppositions. Grammatical Forms**

Notional words, first of all verbs and nouns, have some morphemic features expressing grammatical (morphological) meanings. These features determine the grammatical form of the word.

**Grammatical meanings** are very abstract, very general. That is why the grammatical

form is not limited to an individual word, but unites a whole class of words, and each word expresses the corresponding grammatical meaning together with its individual, concrete semantics.

E.g. the noun plural is formed by suffix -e(s), but in some cases by specific means, such as phonemic interchange. Because of the generalized character of the plural, groups of different nouns have this form and various modes of expression, they are more systemic phonologically conditioned and less systemic etymologically conditioned by nature. Cf. faces, books, dogs, stones; lives (f), wives (f), leaves (f); children, women, men, feet, mice, nuclei (nucleus) data (datum), phenomena (phenomenon).

Thus, grammatical form presents a division of the words on the principle of expressing a certain grammatical meaning. The most general meanings rendered by the language and expressed by systemic correlations of word-forms are interpreted in linguistics as *categorial grammatical meanings*. The forms themselves are identified in definite paradigmatic series.

The categorial meaning (e.g. the grammatical number) unites the individual meanings of the correlated paradigmatic forms (e.g. singular-plural) and is exposed through them; hence, the meaning of the grammatical category and the meaning of the grammatical form are related to each other on the principle of logical relation between the categorial and generic notions.

The grammatical category itself, presents the same as the grammatical form, a unity of form and meaning, constituting a certain system.

The **grammatical category** is a system of expressing a generalized grammatical meaning by means of paradigmatic correlation of grammatical forms. These paradigmatic correlations are exposed (shown) by the so-called "*grammatical oppositions*". The members (elements) of the opposition must possess two types of features: *common* and *differential*. The first serves as the basis of contrast, the second – the function.

The oppositional theory was first (originally) formulated as a phonological theory. Three main qualitative types of opposition were established in phonology: "*privative*" [privətiv] – (privative, negative); "*gradual*" [grædjuəl] – (treptat, succesiv, gradual) and "*equipollent*" [i:kwi'pələnt] – echipolent. By the number of members contrasted oppositions were divided into *binary* (two members) and more than two, *ternary* ['tə:nəri] consisting of three members, *quarternary* [kwɔ:tə:nəri] – 4 members etc.

The most important type of opposition is the binary privative opposition, the other types are smaller. The binary privative opposition includes a contrastive pair of members in which one member is characterised by a certain differential feature (mark), the other member is characterised by the absence of this feature. The first member thus is called "*marked*", "*strong*" or *positive* and is designated by the symbol +, the second is called "*unmarked*", "*weak*" or

"*negative*" and has the sign (minus –).

The *voiced* (sonore) and *devoiced* (voiceless) consonants form a privative opposition [b-d-g; p-t-k]. The differential feature is "*voice*". This feature is present in voiced consonants and is absent in voiceless (devoiced) consonants.

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

For instance, the front vowels [i: – i – e – æ] form a quarternary gradual opposition, because they are differentiated by the degree of their openness (their length, and some other individual properties, but they do not spoil the gradual opposition).

The *equipollent* opposition is formed by a contrastive pair or group, the members being distinguished by different positive features. For instance, the phonemes [m] and [b] both bilabial consonants, form an equipollent opposition, [m] being sonorous, nasalized, [b] being plosive (explosive).

Unlike phonemes which are *monolateral* lingual elements, words as units of morphology, are *bilateral*, and that is why morphological oppositions reflect the plane of expression (*form*) and the plane of content (*meaning*).

The most important type of opposition in morphology, the same as in phonology, is the *binary privative opposition*. This opposition is based on a morphological differential feature present in the strong member and absent in the weak one. Thus the differential feature, marks one member positively and the other negatively. For example, the verbal *present* and *past* tenses is based on a privative opposition, the differential feature of the past tense is the suffix *-ed-*, this marks the past tense form positively (we translated, they walked), and the present for negatively (we translate, they walk); the nouns: dogs ... dog, express plurality and singularity. The fact is that the meaning of the weak member is more general than that of the strong member.

*Equipollent oppositions* constitute a minor type in English morphology and are limited to formal relations. An example of such opposition is the correlation of person forms of the verb *be*: *am-is-are*.

*Gradual oppositions* in morphology is a minor type at the semantic (meaningful) level. In the category of comparison we see gradual opposition: *long-longer-longest*, opposition of forms. The ways for building up member-forms of categorical oppositions are traditionally divided into *synthetical* and *analytical*, the grammatical forms are classed into synthetical and analytical. *Synthetical* grammatical forms are realized by the *inner* morphemic composition of the word, they are based on vowel interchange (*man-men*), irregular verbs (*come, came*), *outerinflection* – the addition of a suffix – *reads-read*, and suppletivity – based on the correlation of different roots: *be – am, are, is, was, were*; *go – went*; *good – better*; *bad – worse*; *I – me – my – mine*; *I –*

*me, we – us, she – her.*

*Analytical grammatical* forms are built up by a combination of at least two words; one auxiliary and the other a word of notional, substantial meaning: *is* read – *are* read.

The proportion of synthetical oppositions (forms) is smaller than the analytical ones.

*Supplitivity*, like inner inflexion, is not productive as a purely morphological type of form. It can be recognized in a broader interpretation in paradigmatic correlations of some modal verbs as well as certain nouns. E.g. *can – be able; must – have to; be obliged to; may – be allowed to; news – items of news; information – pieces of information; advice – a piece of advice (some).*

The traditional opinion on the analytical morphological form recognizes two lexemic parts (auxiliary element and basic element), but there are some linguists (Smirnitsky and Barhudarov) who consider that not all grammatical combinations are analytical, but only those of them that are grammatically idiomatic, that is the grammatical meaning is not dependent on the meanings of their component elements taken apart.

From the point of view of referent relation, grammatical categories should be divided into *immanent / constant*, that is categories of a given class of words (lexemes), and *reflective* categories, they are based on subordinative grammatical agreement (such as the verbal person and verbal number). Immanent categories and forms are confined within a word-class: e.g. the tense of the verb, the comparison of the adjective and adverb, they do not cross the borders of a word class.

Another division of grammatical categories is based on the changeability factor, thus they are either "*unchangeable*" – *constant*. E.g. the category of number which in English is represented by the 3<sup>rd</sup> person personal pronouns: non-human names, human male names, female human names or *changeable* – *variable*, which are exemplified by the noun number: singular – plural, by the degrees of comparison (positive – comparative – superlative).

#### **4. Grammatical Classes of Words.**

##### **The Problem of Classifying Words into Parts of Speech**

The words of a language, depending on various formal and semantic features are divided, from the grammatical point of view, into sets or *classes*. These classes are traditionally called "*parts of speech*". Some scholars call them "*lexico-grammatical*" series of words or "*lexico-grammatical categories*" because the word has not only grammatical but also *semantico (meaningful) – lexemic (word) properties*" (Smirnitsky).

The term "part of speech" was introduced in the grammatical teaching of Ancient Greece, where the concept of the sentence was not clearly identified in distinction to the general idea of

speech, there was not strict differentiation between the word as a *vocabulary unit* and the word as a *functional element of the sentence*.

In modern linguistics, parts of speech are determined on the basis of the three *criteria: semantic, formal and functional*. The first one (semantic) is the evaluation of the meaning characteristic of all the words constituting a concrete part of speech. This *meaning* is understood as the categorial meaning of the part of speech.

The *formal* criterion provides the exposition of the specific inflexional and derivational (word-building) features of all lexemes (words) of a part of speech.

The *functional* criterion concerns the syntactic role of words in a sentence typical of a part of speech. These three factors that characterize the words refer to: "*meaning*", "*form*" and "*function*".

According to the three mentioned criteria, words are divided into *notional* (earlier called *changeable*) and *functional (unchangeable)*. To the first type of words, that is notional, refer: the *noun*, the *adjective*, the *numeral*, the *pronoun*, the *verb*, the *adverb*.

The *features of the noun* in accordance with the triad ([traɪæd] meaning-form-function) are the following:

1. the meaning of substance ("thingness");
2. the changeable forms of number and case; the specific forms of derivation by suffixes in English do not discriminate parts of speech as such;
3. the substantive (noun) functions in the sentence as subject, object, predicative, prepositional connections, modification by an objective.

The *features of an adjective*:

1. the categorial meaning of property (qualitative and relative);
2. the forms of the degrees of comparison (for qualitative adjectives); the specific suffixes for derivation;
3. adjectival functions in the sentence (attribute to a noun), adjectival predicative (It is late).

The *features of the numeral*:

1. the categorial meaning of number (cardinal and ordinal);
2. the narrow set of simple numerals; the specific forms for the composition of compound numerals; specific suffixes for the formation of ordinal numerals;
3. the functions of numerical attribute and numerical noun (one, 3 year(s)).

The *features of the pronoun*:

1. the categorial meaning of indication (deixis);
2. the narrow sets with formal properties of changeability and derivation (myself, everyone);

3. the substantival and adjectival functions for different sets (me, my; one; ones, this ...).

The *features of the verb*:

1. the categorial meaning of process (finite and non-finite forms); (finite process and non-finite process);
2. the categories – of person, number, tense, mood, aspect, voice; the opposition of finite and non-finite forms;
3. the function of the finite predicate for the finite verb forms: the mixed verbal – other than verbal functions for the non-finite verb forms. (I am *reading*; the book is *read*; stop *talking*).

The *features of the adverb*:

1. the categorial meaning of the secondary property, i.e. the property of process (to read *quickly*; to walk *silently*) or another property (to describe *nicely*, to characterize *fully*);
2. the forms of the degree of comparison for qualitative adverbs; the specific suffixal forms of derivation;
3. the functions of various adverbial modifiers (time, place, degree, manner, purpose, condition, reason, result etc.).

Contrasted to notional parts of speech are *functional* parts of speech, i.e. incomplete nominative meaning, mediatory functions in the sentence.

To this class of words in English belong: *the article, the preposition, the conjunction, the particle, the modal words, the interjection*.

The *article* expresses the specific limitation of the substantive functions – **a** book, **the** book, - books (zero).

The *preposition* expresses the dependences or interdependences of substantive referents.

The *conjunction* expresses connections of phenomena.

The *particle* unites the functional words with specifying or limiting meaning. Here belong verbal postpositions as functional modifiers of verbs.

The *modal word* used in the sentence expresses the attitude of the speaker to a situation: functional words of probability (*probably, perhaps*), of qualitative evaluation (*fortunately, unfortunately, luckily*) etc.

Each part of speech is further divided into subsets (subclasses) in accordance with the functional and formal features.

The *interjection*, which occupies a detached position in the sentence, is a *signal* of emotion.

The *stative* is a controversial item in the list of parts of speech. Such words as: *asleep, ablaze, afraid, ashamed, aware*, are statives, built up by the prefix *-a-* and denoting different



states, mostly of temporary duration. They have been called in traditional grammar "predicative adjectives". *He is asleep*, because their main position in the sentence is that of predicative. There are different opinions, disputes as to the possibility of considering them a separate part of speech. This problem was investigated by B.Ilyish, Khaimovici B., Rogovskaya B., L.Barkhudarov. B.Ilyish characterizes them as having:

1. *Meaning of statives*: a passing state a person or thing happens to be in;
2. *Statives* are invariable in *form*;
3. *Function*: a) they most usually follow a link verb (*fell asleep*). Sometimes they can follow a noun (*man asleep, alive*). They can sometimes be preceded by an adverb (*fast asleep*). b) In the sentence they most often are used as a predicative (*he was asleep*); they can also be objective predicatives (I found *him asleep*) and attributes following the noun (a man *asleep* in his car).

Other grammarians consider them to be a subclass of adjectives, as they have something in common.

Alongside the three criteria principle of dividing the words into lexico-grammatical classes that modern linguistics has developed, another, a narrower principle based on syntactic features of words only, their combinability appeared. These principles of syntactic classification (syntactico-distributional classification) of English words were worked out by L.Bloomfield and his followers Z.Harris and especially Ch.Fries. Comparing the two principles (syntactico-distributional and traditional parts of speech divisions of words) we see the similarity of the two: the opposition of the notional words (noun, adjective, verb, adverb) – (numerals and pronouns have no positional functions of their own and serve as pro-nounal and pro-adjectival elements); the functional words are syntactic mediators. It follows that the division of words is into: *notional* and *functional parts of speech*.

## 5. Notional Parts of Speech

*The English Noun*. The noun as a part of speech has the categorial meaning of "substance" or "thingness". It follows that the noun is the main nominative part of speech, thus characterizing it (the noun) as the central nominative (naming) unit of the language. The most characteristic functions is that of subject in the sentence, the referent of the subject being a person or a thing: object, attribute, adverbial modifier. It is also characterized by special types of combinability with another noun, a verb, an adjective, an adverb. E.g. an *entrance*, to the *hall*; to *run* along the *road*; *pale* in the *face*; *far* from the *city*. English nouns can also easily combine with another noun, the noun in pre-position plays the role of a semantic qualifier to the noun in post-position: *grammar rules*, *song contest*, *film festival*.

The noun in Modern English has only two grammatical categories: *number* and *case*.

Modern English as most other languages has two numbers: *singular* and *plural*. Singular number shows that one object is meant, plural – more than one. Thus we have the opposition that shows *one* – *more than one*. The strong member of the binary opposition is the plural, its productive mark is the suffix *-(e)s* – [-z, -s, -iz]. E.g. book-books(s); bag-bags[z], match-matches[iz].

A non-productive way of expressing *the number opposition is vowel interchange in several words (man-men, woman-women, tooth-teeth)*, the archaic suffix *-(e)n* (ox-oxen, child-children, brother-brethren [breðrin]), the correlation of individual singular and plural suffixes (phenomenon-phenomena; datum-data; nucleus-nuclei). In some cases the plural form is homonymous with the singular form (*sheep, deer, fish, fruit*). The category of number is one of the variable categories in the grammatical system of English. The variability is given in its form.

There are two types of nouns differing from all others in the way of number; they do not have two number forms but only one. The nouns that have only a plural are called "*pluralia tantum*" (the Latin for "plural only") and those that have only a singular form are termed "*singularia tantum*" (the Latin for "singular only").

Among the pluralia tantum are *trousers, scissors, jeans*. Close to this are some names of sciences: *mathematics, physics, phonetics, politics*. Opposite of pluralia tantum are singularia tantum. Among them are nouns denoting **material substance** as: *milk, butter, quicksilver* and names of *abstract notions: peace, usefulness*.

Nouns are divided into *countable* and *uncountable* on the basis of *quantitative* characteristics. Uncountable nouns take the predicate in the singular (3<sup>rd</sup> person Present Simple). The **family** *is* small – a group as a whole, The **family** *are* good speakers (the members of the group).

*The Category of Case*. This category is expressed in English by the opposition of the form in 's [-z, -s, -iz] usually called the "*possessive case*" or more traditionally, the "*genitive case*" and the "*common case*".

*Case* is the morphological constant category of the noun manifested in the forms of noun declension and showing the relations of the nounal referent to other objects and phenomena. Thus case is a morphological – declensional form.

E.g. *possessive: the boy's book, the children's toys.*

*Common case + preposition expresses the genitive case*

E.g. *the book of the boy, the toys of the children*

The noun in the common case is distinguished by the place in the sentence and its function. **N.** Rain falls (subject); **Vocative:** Are you ready, *my friend?* (address); **Dat.** I gave

**Mary** a book (direct object). **Acc.** The policeman stopped **the boy**.

Different scholars advanced opinions as to the number of cases. One of them is "the *theory of positional cases*" proposed by I.Nesfield, M.Bryant etc.: inflexional – possessive, and uninflexional – N.D.A.V.

The second view according to G.Curme is called "*the theory of prepositional cases*". Dat. *to + noun*; for + noun and the genitive case (*of+noun*).

The third view is called "*the limited case theory*" formulated by H.Sweet, O.Jespersen and developed by A.Smirnitsky and L.Barhudarov. It is based on the functional mark which differentiates the two case forms: *possessive* or *genitive* and *non-genitive*.

There are also opinions that 1) the number of cases in English is more than two and 2) there are no cases in English nouns at all, indicating for example the relations between *father* and *father's*. But the most usual view is – that the English noun has two cases: common and possessive (genitive).

The Modern English noun does not have the *category of grammatical gender*, which is found in Romanian, German, French, Latin, Russian.

*The English Adjective*. The adjective expresses the categorical semantics (meaning) of property of a substance. The adjective used in a sentence shows relation to some noun whose property the referent denotes such as: *material, colour, dimensions, position, state* and other characteristics both *permanent* or *temporary*. The adjective has neither number, nor case or gender distinctions. It differs from highly inflected adjectives in other languages such as Romanian, Latin, German and Russian. Adjectives are distinguished by a specific combinability with nouns they modify, link-verbs and with modifying adverbs. E.g. It is *hot* (pred.) He reads *interesting* books; They are *joyful* (pred.); She is *very happy*. All the adjectives are traditionally divided into two classes: *qualitative* and *relative*. *Relative* adjectives express properties of a substance to some other substance: *wood – a wooden house; history – historical event; colour – colourful (coloured) pictures; gold – golden rings*.

*Qualitative* adjectives, different from relative ones, denote various qualities of substances, thus permitting to make quantitative estimation, measure. Cf. *rather difficult, too long, very pretty*. *Qualitative* adjectives have degrees of comparison: positive, comparative, superlative.

There are:     *synthetical* degrees of comparison: long – longer – the longest;  
                  *analytical*: more interesting (less) – the most interesting;  
                  *irregular*: good – better – the best; bad – worse – the worst;  
                  little – less – the least; much (many) more – the most.

A complex problem is whether *more difficult* (the) *most difficult* are analytical degrees of

comparison. The question is whether *more difficult* is an analytical form or a free phrase like *very difficult*. In this case the adjective *difficult* would not have degrees of comparison, not being able to form them with the help of suffixes *er, est*. The traditional view held by practical and theoretical grammars until recently consider these analytical phrases degrees of comparison because the meaning of such formations does not differ from the degrees of comparison of *larger, the largest*; and qualitative adjectives like *difficult* express qualities which may be present in different degrees.

*The Statives*. Among the words having properties of a nounal referent there is a set of words to be or not a separate part of speech. These words are built up with prefix *-a-*, denoting different states, mainly of temporary duration, such as: **afraid, ashamed, astonished, ablase**.

The basic function of the statives as different from the common adjective is that of the predicative. The statives are not used in attributive pre-position like adjectives but they are distinguished by the left-hand combinability both with nouns and link-verbs.

L.Barhudarov denies the existence of statives in English, because 1) the meaning of "state" is simply a variety of the meaning of "property" typical of adjectives; 2) these statives can be preceded by more: more ashamed; 3) they can be modified by adverbs like adverbs: very ashamed. He considers them adjectives.

#### *Modal Words*

The distinction between modal words and adverbs is based on two criteria: 1) *their meaning*: modal words express the speaker's attitude (view) concerning the reality of the action expressed in the sentence; 2) *their syntactical function*: they are not adverbial modifiers but parentheses [pə'renθisis] – introductory word.

Modal words have been differently classified into groups according to their *meaning*: those expressing *certainty*, such as: *certainly, surely, undoubtedly*; those expressing *doubt*, such as: *perhaps, maybe, possibly*. Their number varies greatly with different authors. From the grammatical point it is sufficiently to say that they do constitute a separate part of speech. In the vast majority of cases the modal word indicates the speaker's attitude towards the whole thought expressed in the sentence. *She is a delicate little thing, perhaps nobody but me knows how delicate*.

If the modal word in each of the sentences is eliminated the whole thought will lose the *modal colouring*, it will be as a stated fact, without any attitude of the speaker. Sometimes a modal word may refer to a *word* or *phrase*, without any connection with the rest of the sentence. *No one expected his arrival, except Rose presumably*. A modal word can make up a sentence by itself, used when we give an answer to a question, admitting the answer *yes* or *no* or no answer. *Certainly, perhaps, maybe* may be used in this case. In this case *certainly* is a modal word not a

parenthesis.

### *The English Pronoun*

1. The *meaning* of the pronoun as a separate part of speech is somewhat difficult to define. In fact, some pronouns share essential peculiarities of nouns (e.g. *he*), while others have much in common with adjectives (e.g. *which*). This made some scholars think that pronouns were not a separate part of speech at all and should be distributed between *nouns* and *adjectives*.

It was necessary to find a definition of a specific meaning of pronouns so as to distinguish them from both nouns and adjectives. From this point of view, the meaning of pronouns as a part of speech is stated as follows: *pronouns point to things and properties without naming them* says B.Ilyish.

E.g. the pronoun *it* points to a thing without being the name of any particular class of things. The pronoun *its* points to the property of a thing by referring it to another thing. The pronoun *what* can point both to a thing and a property.

2. *Form*. Pronouns fall into different types according to form. Some of them have the *category of number* (singular and plural), e.g. *this*, while others have no such category, e.g. *somebody*. Some pronouns have the category of case (*he-him, somebody-somebody's*), while others have none (*something*).

3. *Function*. a) Some pronouns combine with verbs (*he reads, tell him*), while others can combine with a following noun (*this room*). b) In the sentence, some pronouns may be the subject (*he, what*) or the object, while others are the attributes (*my*). Pronouns can be predicatives. *It is me*.

There is the following classification of pronouns in grammars: they are: *personal, possessive, interrogative, indefinite, relative*. Pronouns have peculiarities as to the category of case which no noun has.

Some pronouns (personal pronouns) distinguish between two cases: called: *Nominative* and *Objective*.

*Nominative*: I, he, she, (it), we (you) they, who

*Objective*: me, him, her, us (you) them, whom

Some pronouns have a different case system, they have the *common* and *genitive* case like nouns. These are *somebody, anybody, one, another*. All other pronouns have no category of case (*something, everything, some, any, no, my, his, mine*).

The objective case of *me* can be object and predicative – *It is me*. But in "low colloquial" colouring we can encounter. *It is he, It is we, It is they*.

### *The English Numeral*

There are no grammatical categories in numerals. There is no category of number, nor of

case or any other morphological category. The numerals are invariable. The most *characteristic function* of numerals is that of *attribute* preceding the noun. But a numeral can be *subject*, *predicative* and *object*. E.g. We are *seven*. Of the seven people I was looking for I found only *three*.

There are cardinal and ordinal numerals. An ordinal numeral can be modified by an infinitive. He was *the first* to come. Both cardinal and ordinal numerals form constructions with pronouns. E.g. *five children*, *five of them*, *some children – some of them*, *the first of them*.

*Many*, *few*, *much*, *little* share morphological characteristics with adjectives and syntactical features with pronouns.

### *The English Adverb*

The adverb expresses either the degree of a property, the property of an action or the circumstances under which an action takes place. Among the adverbs there are some which admit degrees of comparison and others which do not. There are only two types of degrees of comparison of adverbs if we do not admit, as some grammarians say, the analytical degrees of comparison: e.g. *more quickly – most quickly*, considered by them phrases. The two types are: 1) the suffix type: *quickly*, *quicker*, *quickest*; *fast-faster-fastest*; 2) the suppletive type of a few adverbs: *well-better=best*; *badly-worse-worst*. In accordance with their meaning adverbs are characterised by combinability with verbs, adjectives and words of adverbial nature; but in accord with their word-building structure adverbs may be *simple* and *derived*. They are commonly divided into *qualitative* (*very*, *highly*, *quite*), *quantitative* (*twice*, *four times*, *manifold*) and *circumstantial* (*how*, *now*, *never*, *late*, *outside*).

There are *notional* and *functional adverbs*: *how*, *why*, *where*, *when* (*slowly*, *silently*, *tolerably*).

## **6. The English Verb. General Characteristics. The Problem of Classification.**

### **The Morphological Grammatical Categories of the English Verb.**

#### **Indirect and Represented Speech. The Sequence of Tenses**

From the point of view of grammarians the verb is the most complex part of speech. It is the only part of speech in present-day English that has a morphological system based on a series (number) of categories. It is the only part of speech that has analytical forms and again the only one that has forms (the Infinitive, the Gerund and the Participle) which occupy a special position in its system and do not share some of the characteristic features of this part of speech. The complexity of the verb refers not only to the complicated structure of its grammatical categories but also to its division into subclasses, as well as the existence of two groups of forms different from each other: finite and non-finite.

The principal and main role of the verb is in the expression of predicate function.

The general categorial meaning of the verb is process presented dynamically, that is developing in time. This processual meaning is continued, in the semantics of all the verbs, those that denote states, forms of existence, types of attitude, evaluation rather than actions. The verbs in the finite and non-finite forms are modified by *adverbs* and with the transitive verb, it takes a *direct object*.

Finite forms of the verb perform the function of the *verb + predicate*, expressing categorial feature of predication: *time, aspect, voice* and *mood*.

The non-finite forms perform different functions according to their intermediary nature the syntactic function of *subject, object, adverbial modifier, attribute, predicative*.

From the point of view of their outward structure verbs are characterized by specific forms of word-building, their stems may be *simple* (*go, take, read*), *sound-replacive* (*food-feed, blood-bleed*), *stress replacive* (*import-im'port, export-ex'port*) – these types are unproductive: *expanding* – (**broaden, clarify, nominalize**).

The processual categorial meaning of the notional verb determines its characteristic combination with a noun expressing both the doer of the action (its subject) and in cases of objective verbs (transitive) the recipient of the action (its object), it also determines its combination with an adverb as the modifier of the action.

The *phrasal* verb occupies an intermediary position between an analytical form of the verb and a syntactic word combination. The *first* is a combination of the head verb: *have, give, take* and sometimes some other verbs with a noun and has an equivalent as an ordinary verb: E.g. *to have a walk* – to walk; *to give an answer* – to answer; *to take a rest* – to rest.

The *second* is a combination of a head verb with a verbal postposition that has a specificational value. E.g. *to sit down, to come in; to be away; to give in*.

The class of verbs fall into: *full nominative* (notional verbs) and *partial nominative* (semi-notional and functional verbs).

*Semi-notional* and *functional* verbs serve as markers of prediction, they show the connection between the nominative content of the sentence and reality in a specialized way. These "*predicators*" include auxiliary verbs, modal verbs, semi-notional verbs and link-verbs.

E.g. *be, have, do, shall, will, should, would, may, might*.

Modal verbs are used with the infinitive as predicative markers which express the subject's attitude: *ability, obligation, permission, advisability*.

Semi-notional verbid introducer verbs (*seem, happen, turn out, chance*) are distinguished of relational semantics; phrasal-semantics (*begin, continue, stop*). Difference should be made between the following examples.

*They began to discuss* and *They began the discussion*.

In the first sentence the verb is inseparable from the Infinitive, in the second the transitive verb *began* is self-dependent, it forms the predicate of the sentence. The verb can be used in the passive voice: *The discussion was begun*.

*Link-verbs* introduce the nominal part of the predicate (predicative). The verb *to be* is a link-verb. He *is* young.

*Notional-verbs* on the basis of the subject – process relation can be divided into *actional* and *statal*.

*Actional* verbs express the action performed by the subject, thus they present the subject as an active doer of it. Such verbs belong to this class: *do, act, perform, make, go, read, learn* etc.

*Statal* verbs denote the state of the subject. They give the subject the characteristic of the inactive recipient of some activity (outward) or express the mode (way) of its existence. Such verbs refer to this class: *to be, to live, to survive, to stand, to see, to know*.

Alongside the two mentioned classes of verbs, a third one can be distinguished. They express neither actions, nor states, they express "*processes*". Such verbs refer to this class: *to thaw, to ripen, to consider, to support, to display*. But they can be divided into "*purely-processual*" and "*processual statal*".

E.g. The snow *is thawing* in spring.

The snow is in the *state of thawing* (state)

The scientist *is supporting* the discovery.

The action of the scientist is that *he is supporting* the discovery.

The verbs that present a process as potentially *limited* are called "limitive" (also called "terminative") such as: *arrive, come, leave, find, stop, conclude, aim* etc.

The verbs presenting a process as not limited are correspondingly "*unlimitive*" or ("non-terminative", "durative" ...). These are: *move, continue, live, work, hope*.

The power of taking complements (objects) the notional verbs are classed as "*complementive*" and "*uncomplementive*". In connection with the above division, the notions of verbal "transitivity" and "objectivity", should be considered. Verbal transitivity, one of the specific qualities of the general "completivity", is the ability of the verb to take a direct object, i.e. an object immediately affected by the denoted process. Verbal objectivity is the ability of the verb to take any object, be it direct or indirect (prepositional).

Transitive verbs are opposed to intransitive verbs; objective verbs are opposed to "subjective verbs" or "non-objective". This division is highly relevant for English because all the three types of objects can be made into subjects of the corresponding passive constructions.



"*Uncomplementive*" verbs fall into two unequal subclasses of "personal" and impersonal" verbs.

The first subclass, personal uncomplementive verbs, normally refer to the either a human-being or a non-human are. Here are some verbs: *work, start, pause, hesitate, act, function, laugh, grow, cough* etc.

The verbs of the second class is small and strictly limited. The verbs expressing natural phenomena belong to impersonal verbs. The natural phenomena are going on without a reference to a real subject. E.g. *rain, snow, freeze, drizzle, thaw* etc.

*Complementive* verbs are divided into the *predicative, objective* and *adverbial* sets.

The predicative complementive verbs are link-verbs: *to be* – the pure link-verb and the specifying links: *to become, grow, seem, appear, look, taste*.

The objective complementive verbs are divided into several important subclasses, depending on the kind of complements they combine with. They fall into *monocomplementive* (one complement) and *biocomplementive verbs* (taking two complements).

The *first* subclass is the possession objective verb *have* normally not *passivized* (forming no passive voice). The *second* – taking direct objects: *take, grasp, forget, enjoy, like*. The *third* prepositional objective verbs: *look at, point to, send for, think about*. The *fourth* – non passivized direct objective verbs: *cost, weigh, fall, become, suit*. The *fifth* – non passivized prepositional objective verbs: *belong to, relate to, merge with, abound in*.

The *biocomplementive* objective verbs fall into 5 main subclasses.

The *first* – is formed by addressee – direct objective. E.g. a) *give, bring, pay, hand, show* (the addressee object may be both non-prepositional and prepositional: *bring it, bring me*); b) *explain, introduce, mention, say, devote* (the addressee object is only prepositional).

The *second* subclasses – taking two direct objects: *teach* – *teach the students the English language, ask, excuse, forgive, envy, fine*.

The *third* subclass – two prepositional objects: *argue* – *Argue with them about this, consult, cooperate, agree*.

The *fourth* subclass – addressee prepositional objective verbs (a prepositional object and an addressee object). E.g. *remind of, tell about, apologize for, write of, pay for* – *He apologized her for the bad behaviour*.

The *fifth* subclass includes adverbial objective verbs, verbs taking an object and an adverbial modifier (of place or of time). E.g. *put* – *Put the book in its place; place, lay, bring, send, keep*.

*Adverbial* complementive verbs include two main subclasses. The *first* is formed by verbs taking an adverbial modifier of place or time: *be, live, stay, go, arrive*. The *second* –

adverbial complement of manner: e.g. *act, do keep, behave, get on*.

### *The Category of Tense of the English Verb*

The category of tense is defined as a verbal category which reflects the objective category of time and expresses on this background *the relations* between the time of the action and the time of the utterance (B.Ilyish).

The main divisions of objective time appear to be clear enough. There are three of them: *past, present* and *future*, but there are wide differences in this respect.

Some doubts have been expressed about the existence of a future tense in English. O.Jespersen discussed this question more than once. The reason why he denied the existence of a future tense in English was that the phrase "*shall/will* + infinitive"; these verbs preserve their original meaning (*shall* – an element of *obligation* and *will* – an element of *volition*). Thus in his view, English has no way of expressing "pure futurity", free from modal shades of meaning, that is it has no form (*future*) standing on the same grammatical level as the forms of the *past* and *present* tenses. However, this reasoning is not convincing, because there are contexts when *shall* and *will* preserve their original meaning of *obligation* and *volition*, but, as a rule, they are free from these shades of meaning and express *mere* futurity. E.g. I am afraid, I *shall* have to go back to the hotel. It is possible to use a present tense form when the action belongs to the future. E.g. I shall do it if I *have* time (conditional and time sentences).

Present continuous is also used to express future. E.g. *he is coming tomorrow*. The adverbial modifier makes it clear what action is meant. The train *is arriving in ten minutes*. Besides these 6 tense forms: namely Present, Past, Future Indefinite, Present, Past, Future Continuous, there are two more – Future in-the-Past Indefinite, Future in-the-Past Continuous used in subordinate clauses depending on the predicate verb in the main clause. E.g. This *did* not mean that she *would not come*. The film finished and the lights *were being put out*.

Prof. I.Ivanova considers that future-in-the-past and future-in-the-past-continuous do not easily fit into a system of tenses represented by a straight line out of the past into the future.

A different view of the English tense system has been advanced by prof. N.Irtenyeva who considers that the system is divided into two halves: tenses centering in the present (the present Indefinite, Present perfect, future, present continuous and present perfect continuous), the second half comprises (the past, past perfect, future-in-the-past, past continuous and past perfect continuous). A new theory of English tenses has been put forward (advanced, proposed) by A.Korsakov. He establishes a system of *absolute* and *anterior* tenses, and of *static* and *dynamic* tenses.

The Modern English *perfect forms* have been the subject of a long discussion. This form (Present Perfect) contains the present of the verb *have* and is called Present Perfect, yet it denotes

an action which no longer takes place and it is translated by the past tense. The position of the perfect forms in the system of the English verb is a problem and has been treated in many different ways.

1. O.Jesperson considers that the category of perfect is a peculiar (specific) tense category which should be included in the same list as the categories of "present" and "past".
2. G.Vorontsova holds the position that the category of perfect is a peculiar aspect category, which should be given a place in the list "common aspect" and "continuous aspect".
3. Prof. A.Smirnitsky expresses the opinion that the category of perfect is neither one of tense, nor one of aspect, but a specific category different from both. He considers the perfect to be a means of expressing the category of "*time relation*" or "*correlation*".

In conclusion, it should be said that, states B.Ilyish, the system of verbal categories is based on three notions: *tenses*: present vs. past, vs. future; *aspect*: common vs. continuous; *correlation*: non-perfect vs. perfect.

E.g. writes, is writing, has written, has been writing, wrote, was writing, had written, had been writing; will write, will be writing, will have written, will have been writing.

#### *The Category of Aspect*

The verb in present-day English is the only part of speech that has a morphological system based on a series of categories, it is the only part of speech that has analytical forms, again the only part of speech that has forms (the Infinitive, the Gerund, the Participle) which occupy a peculiar position in its system.

The aspective meaning of the verb different from its temporal meaning, reflects the inherent (proper) mode of the realization of the process irrespective of its timing.

There are two sets of forms in the Modern English verb which are contrasted with each other on the principle of use or non-use of the pattern (model) "*be + Participle I*"

E.g. writes – is writing  
wrote – was writing  
will write – will be writing  
has written – has been writing.

The basic difference between the two sets of forms appears to be this: an action going on continuously during a given period of time and an action not limited and not described by the very form of the verb as proceeding in such manner.

Each of the two aspects has been given a name: *continuous aspect* and *common aspect*. O.Jesperson and N.Irtenyeva consider that the form *is writing* is the meaning of *simultaneity* of

an action with another action. Prof. I.Ivanova recognizes that *is writing* is an aspect form, of the Continuous aspect, but *writes* is not an aspect form at all, because its meaning cannot be clearly defined. She denies the existence of the *common aspect*.

Besides the various theories with reference to the opposition *writes – is writing*, various terms have been proposed. H.Sweet used the term "definite tenses" for what we call the continuous aspect. Another term which has been used is "expanded form" or "progressive form". The term "form" in the opinion of B.Ilyish gives only a characteristic of the analytical structure of the form, without indicating its meaning. That is why the term "continuous aspect" is used. Comparing with other languages, for example, Russian we may conclude that the Russian language has two aspects: *the perfective* and *the imperfective*.

Russian	написал	писал
English	continuous	common

#### *The Categories of Person and Number of the English Verb*

The Categories of Person and Number must be considered in close connection with each other since in languages of the Indo-European family they are expressed simultaneously, that is a morpheme expressing person also expresses number.

The category of person in verbs is represented by the 1<sup>st</sup>, 2<sup>nd</sup> and 3<sup>rd</sup> person and it expresses the relation between the speaker / the person or persons addressed and other persons and things.

1<sup>st</sup> person singular – the speaker

2<sup>nd</sup> person singular – one person spoken to

3<sup>rd</sup> person singular – one person or thing (neither speaker nor spoken to)

1<sup>st</sup> person plural – the speaker and another person or other persons

2<sup>nd</sup> person plural – more than one person spoken to

3<sup>rd</sup> person plural – more than one person or thing (neither speakers nor spoken to).

The category of number expresses the quantity of the subjects (one or more than one).

But this system is not good for the Modern English verb for 2 reasons:

*First*, there is no distinction of persons in the plural number with the subject of any person (1<sup>st</sup>, 2<sup>nd</sup>, 3<sup>rd</sup>).

*Second*, there is no distinction of numbers in the 1<sup>st</sup> or 2<sup>nd</sup> person. Thus, the form *live* in these persons may refer both to one and to more than one subject.

So what we actually find in the Modern English verb is:

3<sup>rd</sup> person singular – *lives*

All the rest – *live*.

This s-inflection conveys 4 meanings:

1. 3<sup>rd</sup> person; 2. Singular number; 3. Present tense; 4. Indicative mood.

Some verbs do not fit into the system of person and number. E.g. *can, may, shall*. It follows that this verb has no category of person or number at all.

The verb **be** has a system of its own both in the present indicative and in the past (*am, is, are; was, were*).

#### *The Category of Voice of the English Verb*

The verbal category of voice shows the direction of the process as regards the participants of the situation reflected in the syntactic construction.

There are two main views, as to the definition of the category of voice, states B.Ilyish. According to one of them this category expresses the relation between *the subject* and *the action*. According to the other view, the category of voice expresses the relations between *the subject* and *the object* of the action.

The obvious *opposition* within the category of voice is that between *active* and *passive*. He *invited* Nick. He *was invited* by Nick. (he – doer of the action in sentence 1 and he does act as the doer of the act, but the object of the act in 2). This has not been disputed by any scholar, but views may differ concerning other *voices*.

This opposition may be illustrated by a number of parallel forms involving different categories of aspect, tense, mood. E.g.

invites – is invited

is inviting – is being invited

invited – was invited

has invited – has been invited

will invite – will be invited

should invite – should be invited.

From this point of view the passive voice is the marked member of the opposition: its characteristic is the pattern "be + part. II (second)" whereas the active voice is unmarked, its characteristic is the absence of the pattern.

Some forms of the *active* voice have no parallel in the *passive*: the forms of the *future continuous, present perfect continuous; past perfect continuous; and future perfect continuous*.

So – *will be inviting, has been inviting, had been inviting* and *will have been inviting* have nothing to correspond to them in the passive voice.

The question now is whether there are other voices in the English verb, besides the active and passive.

At various times the following three voices have been suggested.

1. the reflexive as in – *he dressed himself*

2. reciprocal as in – *they greeted each other*, and
3. the middle voice as in – *the door opened* (as distinct from *I opened the door*).

The category of voice has a wider representation in the system of the English verb than in other languages, since in English not only transitive but also intransitive objective verbs including prepositional ones can be used in the passive. E.g. *She was refused help* (tr.). *He was said to be attentive* (intr.). *Children are looked after by parents* (prep.). *I shall not be talked to like that* (prep.).

#### *The Problem of a Reflexive Voice*

The group "verb + *self*-pronoun" cannot be auxiliary words to form a voice of a verb; the *self*-pronoun coming after a verb does not perform the function of a separate part of a sentence (the direct object).

#### *The Problem of a Reciprocal Voice*

The formation like: *greeted each other, loved each other, praised one another*. The problem is similar to that of the reflexive voice, as the group *each other, one another* – does not make part of an analytical verb form, that's an auxiliary element for forming a special form of the verb.

#### *The Problem of a Middle Voice*

The problem arises chiefly in connection with the possible existence of a number of verbs in ME.

E.g.	I opened the door.	The door opened.
	I burnt the paper.	The paper burnt.
	I boiled the water.	The water boiled.
	We apply the rule to many cases.	The rule applies to many cases.

In the first column the verb denotes an action performed by the doer on an object.

In the second column a process is stated which is going on in the subject itself.

The differences of meaning and syntactical construction are not sufficient reason for establishing a difference of voice, considers B.Ilyish.

#### *The Category of Mood of the English Verb*

The category of mood in the present English verb has given rise to many discussions and has been treated in very many ways, that it seems hardly; possible to arrive at any more or less convincing and acceptable conclusion, states B.Ilyish. The point of view in the sphere of mood is: a) there is a category of mood; b) there are at least two moods in the modern English verb, one of which is the indicative mood. The Indicative Mood shows that the speaker represents the action as real, the mention of the speaker (or writer) is *most essential*.

The Imperative Mood in English is represented by one form only (Come!) without any

suffix or ending. There seems to be only one case of what might be called the perfect imperative, namely the form *have done!* Of the verb *do*, and it means now *stop immediately!* This means that the *order* should be finished by the time it's pronounced.

The imperative mood differs from all other moods in several important points. It has no *person, number, tense or aspect* distinctions, it is limited in its use to one type of sentences only – imperative sentences. Most usually a verb in imperative mood has no pronoun acting as *subject*. However the pronoun may be used in emotional speech. *You leave me alone! She cried out loudly.*

The groups *let me go, let us go, let him (them) go*, the patterns "let + personal pronoun (in the objective case) or noun (in the common case) + infinitive" may denote: 1) a decision of the 1<sup>st</sup> person singular (i.e. of the speaker himself) to do an action; 2) an appeal in the 1<sup>st</sup> person plural to one or more interlocutors to do an action together with the speaker; or 3) an appeal to the 3<sup>rd</sup> person (singular or plural) to do some action. These groups are not analytical forms of the imperative, because the noun or pronoun following the verb *let* stands in the object relation to the verb. *Conclusion: The imperative mood is represented by the 2<sup>nd</sup> person forms only.*

There are different opinions as to the number of moods, some grammarians consider that there are three moods (indicative, imperative and subjunctive), conditional sentences express desire, wish and they are as follows:

1. if he *knew* this he would come
2. if he *had known* he would have come.

The forms *knew, had known* express tense in the indicative mood, while *would know, would have known* future in the past and in conditional sentences (subjunctive mood) they are mood forms, expressing unreal condition referring to the present or past and unreal consequence in the principal clause.

#### *The Category of Finitude*

Non-finite forms of the verb (verbids, verbals) are intermediary in many lexicogrammatical features between the verb and non-processual parts of speech. The Infinitive, Gerund, Participle make up a part of the English verb system, they have some features common with the finite forms, but they have some peculiarities of their own. None of the verbals has any category of *person* or *mood*, and the category of *number* either.

#### *The Category of Aspect of the Infinitive*

(common)    *to speak*            –    *to be speaking*            (continuous)  
                  *to have spoken* –    *to have been speaking*

### *The Category of Tense and Correlation*

The Infinitive:       to speak – to have spoken  
                              to be speaking – to have been speaking  
The Gerund and P.I:  speaking – having spoken  
                              being spoken – having been spoken

### *The Category of Voice of the Verbals*

Like finite forms the verbals have distinctions between active and passive.

e.g.    (to) read – (to) be read  
          (to) have read – (to) have been read  
          reading – being read  
          having read – having been read

Participle II has only the passive form – *read*.

The difference between the *-ing*-forms – Gerund and Participle I is basically this: The *Gerund* along with *verbal qualities* has *substantival* (noun) qualities as well; the Participle I along with its *verbal qualities* has *adjectival* and *adverbial* qualities. The Infinitive has *verbal qualities* and like the Gerund has *substantival* qualities.

### *Direct, Indirect and Represented Speech*

In characterizing indirect speech as compared to the direct we must refer to two special cases in which a distinction found in direct speech gets lost in a change into indirect speech.

The first of these is the distinction between the past indefinite and the present perfect (and also the past perfect). Both these two forms are changed into appropriate forms of the indirect speech. There is another way of reporting a character's speech, his thoughts. This is neither direct speech, which reproduces the speaker's exact words, nor it is indirect speech because it does not introduce the speaker's words by the words: He said that ... So the represented speech alongside direct and indirect speech is an effective means of the thoughts and sometimes the uttered (pronounced, said) words of the characters in a novel or short story.

The term "sequence of tenses" is rather widely used both in practical language teaching and in theoretical investigation hasn't received common interpretation.

By sequence of tenses we mean the use of a tense form in a subordinate clause conditioned by the tense form of the predicate verb in the head clause (principal). Sequence of tenses applies to certain types of subordinate clauses, these being object clauses and adverbial clauses of purpose. E.g. He *asked* Ann how much work she *had done*. She *wanted* to know on what *purpose* Nick *would come*.



## 7. Structural Parts of Speech.

### Words not included in Traditional Classification of Parts of Speech. The Article

The article is a determiner of the noun. There are languages which have no articles. Russian most Slavonic languages, Latin. Greek (ancient) had only one article – the definite one. Many languages (Italian, Spanish, German, Swedish, Romanian) have two articles – the definite and the indefinite. The article is a separate unit which may be divided from its noun by other words, chiefly, adjectives. E.g. *an important problem, the high building*. However, in certain languages the article may also be a morpheme attached to the noun as a kind of suffix. E.g. in Romanian – *universul, fata*; It has long been debated how many articles there are in English.

E.g. I learn **a** foreign language. **The** language is easy. *Language* is a means of communication. There are three articles in English: *indefinite* (a, an), *definite* (the) and *zero*. The last was called differently by the grammarians (omission of the article, absence of article) and lately "zero article".

### *The English Preposition*

It is well known that prepositions are a most important element of the structure of many languages, especially those which like Modern English, has no developed case system in their nominal parts of speech (noun, adjective). It is sometimes said that prepositions express the relations between words in a sentence. However this is certainly not true. E.g. The book is lying **on** the table; The book is lying **under** the table. Here the prepositions express relations (in space). Here we have extralinguistic difference expressed by means of language.

Sometimes a preposition does not express extralinguistic phenomena, but serves as a link between words. This depends **on** you. The preposition doesn't have a meaning of its own.

As to the syntactical functions of prepositions we must distinguish between two levels of language: that of phrases and that of the sentence and its parts.

As far as *phrases* are concerned the function of prepositions *is to connect* words with each other, according to the models (patterns) "n+prep.+n", "adject.+prep.+n", "verb+prep+n" etc. E.g. "*a letter from Ann*", "*fond of music*", "*true to reality*", "*listen to music*", "*wait for an answer*".

On *the sentence level*: a preposition is never a part of a sentence by *itself*; it enters the part of sentence whose main centre is the following *noun, pronoun* or *gerund*. We should not say that prepositions connect parts of a sentence. They do not do that because they are within a part of a sentence, not between two parts. Sometimes the use of the preposition is predicted by the verb. E.g. This depends **on her** (an object); The book is *under the table* (adverbial modifier of place), here other prepositions can be used (on, in). The connection between the preposition with the preceding word is *stronger*, and vice versa the connection of the preposition with the

following word in *weaker*.

Sometimes the boundary line between a preposition and another part of speech is not quite clear. For instance, as to the words *like* and *near*, there can be various views. Certainly *near* is an adjective used in such phrases as *the near future*. On the other hand *near* is a preposition, e.g. They live *near* me. The adjective has degrees of comparison, the preposition not.

The status of the words *many*, *few*, *much*, *little* is considered, that the words are hybrids – pronouns and adjectives. Of course, they are adjectives having degrees of comparison, but they share features of pronouns. There are compound prepositions: *onto*, *into*, *within*, *in-between*.

Special attention is given to groups of words whose meaning and functions in the sentence are the same as those of prepositions. E.g. *out of*, *as to*, *as for*, *instead of*, *in spite of*. These are not prepositions as a preposition is a word, not a word group.

### *The English Conjunction*

Conjunctions express connection between things and phenomena. They are invariable; they connect any two words, phrases, clauses; they are never a special part of a sentence; they connect homogenous parts of a sentence or homogenous clauses (the so-called coordinating conjunctions) or they join a subordinate clause to a head clause (principal) (the so-called subordinating conjunctions).

Every conjunction has its meaning in comparison with prepositions that don't have. E.g. He *came before* 8 o'clock. He came *after* 8 o'clock. The use of a preposition is predicted by a preceding word (verb) the conjunctions are not preceded by a verb.

The syntactical functions of conjunctions are like those of prepositions on the *level of phrases* e.g. coordinating conjunctions: *day* and *night*; exercises *but* not texts. On the *level of sentence*, they connect clauses of different kinds. Both coordinating and subordinating conjunctions are used.

Comparing prepositions with coordinating and subordinating conjunctions we can say that prepositions have nothing in common with coordinating conjunctions (*and*, *but*, *or*) but some prepositions are very close in meaning with subordinating conjunctions in some cases (e.g. *since*, *after*, *before*). E.g. *Since* childhood he was interested in art. (preposition) *Since* he was so much interested in art, he decided to continue his studies. (conjunction)

### *The Interjection*

Interjections are part of the wordstock of a language as many other types of words are. The interjections, as distinct from nouns, verbs etc. are not names of anything, but expressions of emotions.

On the level of phrase an interjection does not make part of any phrase but stands

isolated. E.g. *Oh!, what shall I do*, but the interjection *alas* can be connected with the group "prep+noun" naming the person or thing which causes the feeling expressed by the interjection: *Alas for my friend!* But these cases are very limited. It can be followed by an adjective. *Oh dear!* Syntactically an interjection is part of the sentence loosely connected with the rest of the sentence and approaching a parenthesis (introductory word) in its character.

#### *Response words "yes" and "no"*

Speaking about the word "please" used in polite requests traditionally described as an adverb, but there is no reasonable ground for this, either in the meaning of the word and syntactical function. Another case are the words "yes", "no", treated as adverbs. But this is not justified, because these two words form sentences without any word being joined to them. They do not constitute a part of speech, their number being so small. That is why, these two words "yes", "no" and "please" are left outside the system of parts of speech. Academician L.Scerba expressed the opinion that there may be words in a language which are not included under any category.

#### *The Particle*

There are different views concerning the particle. But B.Ilyish states that the particle is a *separate secondary part* of the sentence. The particle *not* can be used in two different ways:

1) *On the one hand* it may stand outside the predicate. E.g. *Not* till he had actually arrived in town he realized how many difficulties he had.

It also stands outside the predicate in short answers, in which the negative meaning is expressed by the particle "*not*" if it is accompanied by a modal word like: *certainly, perhaps, probably* or a phrase equivalent to a modal word e.g. *of course not. Certainly not, Perhaps not.*

2) Another use of the particle *not* is that within, the predicate. In this case it is customary to treat it as part of the verb itself. E.g. Present Indicative mood: I am *not*, he is *not* (the verb to be); the other verbs I do *not* read, he does *not* read. The particle *not* is treated as an auxiliary element which makes part of the verb form. In this case the particle *not* has not syntactic function, it is an auxiliary element.

The particle *not* is fused (used) with forms of the verb *cannot*, it preserves its vowel sound [nɒt] and in contracted forms: *hasn't, doesn't, can't, shouldn't* etc. Here the particle "*not*" is no longer a word but a morpheme within a verb form.

There are some words (called doubtful) as to the opinions of considering them particles or adverbs. These are the words: *almost* and *nearly*, very close in meaning. The word *nearly* can be modified by the adverb *very* and it is quite clear that it is an adverb, while *almost* cannot be modified by any word.

## 8. The Subject – Matter of Syntax. Classifications of Sentences. Syntactical Functions

Two levels should be distinguished: that of *phrases* and that of *sentences*. The difference between a phrase and a sentence is a fundamental one.

A *phrase* is a means (way) of naming some phenomena or processes, just as a word is. Each component of a phrase can undergo changes in accordance with grammatical categories represented in it, without destroying the identity of the phrase: E.g. *publish books* (the first component can change according to verbal categories of *tense, mood* etc.) and the second according to the category of number). E.g. *published a book, has published a book, will publish books*. These are modifications of the phrase.

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

It should be remembered that a phrase *has no intonation* in the same way that a word has none. *Intonation* is one of the most important features of a sentence, distinguishing it in such a way from a phrase.

Types of phrases: n+n (grammar rule); n in Genitive Case + n = (Peter's book); adj + n (red paper); v + n (play games) and others. The relations (syntactical) between the components of a phrase are: 1) agreement or concord; 2) government.

By *agreement* we mean a method of expressing a syntactical relationship which consists in making the subordinate word take a form similar to the word to which is subordinate. E.g. *the girl sings; girls sing*.

By *government* we understand the use of a certain form of the subordinate word required by the head word. The only thing that may be called government in Modern English is the use of the objective case of personal pronouns and the pronoun *who*. E.g. *to invite her, to call them*.

### *The Sentence*

The notion of sentence has not so far received a satisfactory definition. There is a diversity of views concerning the definition of the sentence.

The sentence states M.Blokh is "the integral unit of speech built up of words according to a definite syntactic pattern and distinguished by a contextually relevant communicative purpose". The sentence is composed of words. In some cases it includes only one word. E.g. *Congratulation. Night. Certainly*. There is some 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*. Linguists point out that the sentence is not a unit of language proper, it is a piece of text built up of different units of language, first of all words which form bound sentences, i.e. *complete units of speech*. The sentence is characterized by its specific category of predication which establishes the relation of the named phenomena to actual life (reality). E.g. *Winter lasts 3 months*. Some

linguists do not accept the definition of the sentence through predication. Referring to the sentence structure different terms have been proposed by grammarians. The German scholars advanced the terms "psychological subject" and "psychological predicate", prof. A.Smirnitsky proposed the terms "lexical subject" and "lexical predicate", but B.Ilyish considers that the best suited pair of terms are "theme" and "rheme" that were used by several Czech linguists of Prague School.

These terms come from Greek "the root" "the theme" means "that which is established", "set", and the root "rhe" rheme means "that which is said, told" about that which was established or set beforehand. E.g. *The old woman came in. The old woman* (the subject of the sentence, *the theme*), *the rest is the rheme*.

The theme is not something known in advance. In some sentences it is something already familiar, but in other cases it is something mentioned for the first time. But the theme should be the starting point of the sentence, not its conclusion.

#### *Classification of Sentences*

##### I) Types of Sentences according to the means of communication:

- 1) declarative – mutual position of subject and predicate  
e.g. She did not mark the answer
- 2) interrogative – special word order  
e.g. Did she mark the answer?
- 3) imperative – peculiarities in the use of modal words  
e.g. Will you, please, mark the answer
- 4) exclamatory – contain emotional elements  
e.g. Oh, I have marked the answer.

##### II) Types of Sentences according to structure:

- 1) Simple: A simple sentence can be: declarative, interrogative or imperative
- 2) Composite: It is made up of clauses which are declarative, and then the whole composite sentence is declarative too.

#### *The Simple Sentence, their Types, Main Parts of a Sentence*

Sentences are classified into *two-member* and *one-member* sentences. The distinction is based on the so-called main parts of a sentence. E.g. *The girl smiled*. *The girl* denotes the *doer* of the action (the subject) and *smiled* denotes the action performed by the subject. The *two-member* sentence may have a *word or a phrase as the doer of the action and another word or phrase* to denote the action. E.g. *The girl in white smiled loudly*. However there are sentences that do not have two separate parts: E.g. *Fire! Come out!* or the opening sentence of "The American Tragedy", these are one-member sentences, with either subject or predicate omitted.

The predicative is a significant part of the compound nominal predicate. It can be expressed:

- a) by a **noun**, sometimes in the possessive case  
The book is my *sister's*.  
She is a pretty little *girl*.
- b) by an **adjective**  
She is always *kind*  
The girl remained (was) *silent*.  
She grew *more careful*.
- c) by a **pronoun**: personal, possessive, negative, interrogative, reflexive  
it was *he*. The books are *hers*. You are *nobody*. *What* is she. She was *herself* again.
- d) by a word of the category of **state (stative)**  
I am *afraid* of darkness. She was *ashamed* of that.
- e) by a **numeral**  
It is only *ten* (10). The train is at *6* (*six*).
- f) by a **prepositional phrase**  
This is *outside his experience*. That was not *in his power*.
- g) by an **Infinitive** or **Infinitive construction**  
His thought was *to go away*. The problem was *for him to settle*.
- h) by **Participle II**  
he was *surprised*. The boy was *astonished*.
- i) by an **adverb**  
That was *enough* for her. The money was *too much* for that.

#### *Object*

- a) a **noun** in the **common case**  
He had a *book* in his hand. She presented the *article* for discussion.
- b) a **pronoun**: personal in the objective case, possessive, reflexive, demonstrative, indefinite  
I saw *him*. I must do *this* for *her*. You must know *all* about it. What will you do with *yourself*? We found *nobody* there.
- c) a **substantivized adjective**  
They took care of *the wounded*. The young people helped *the poor* with products.
- d) an **Infinitive, Infinitive phrase, Infinitive constructions**.  
They decided *to stop*. We saw *him coming*. She brought me a *book to read*.
- e) a **Gerund**

I didn't like *his doing* that

f) a **group of words**

He received the money *for a loaf of bread*.

That was the parcel to take *to the post-office*.

*Attribute*

a) **adjective** – the most common way of expressing the attribute

She seems a very *silent* and *educated* girl.

b) a **pronoun**: possessive, demonstrative, interrogative, reflexive

*His* profession is very important. From *that* moment she became *my* friend. *What* books do you like to read? He *himself* was pleased of it.

c) a **numeral**: cardinal or ordinal

Each of the *four* brothers was different from each other. *The first* problem was discussed in details.

d) a **noun in the common case: genitive case**

He wore a large *straw hat*.

*Her sister's* name was Ann.

e) a **prepositional phrase**

He was a man *of great abilities*.

f) an **adverb in pre-position**

In the way *of further* events, we are to be attentive.

g) an **adverb in post-position**

The room *above* is large and light.

h) **Participle I** and **Participle II**

We looked at the *destroyed* building by the accident. The boy *doing* something there is my cousin.

i) a **prepositional phrase**

She hated the idea *of borrowing* money from him.

j) an **Infinitive, Infinitive phrase, Infinitive construction**

The book *to read* next term is very easy.

The decision was *never to argue with them*.

That was the question *for them to discuss*.

A special kind of attribute is *an opposition*. It is expressed by a **noun**, with or without accompanying words which explains the word by giving the person or thing another name. two kinds of apposition exist: **loose** or **detached** or **close**. The close apposition is not separated by commas and is in close connection with the word modified. This word-group consists of the

name of a person and a noun denoting a *title, rank, profession* or a noun denoting *relationship*. *Professor Brows, Aunt Pofly, Captain Butler, President Trump*. Sometimes the apposition consists of the preposition **of+noun**: *the city of London, the town of Odessa*.

The *lose* or *detached* apposition is not so closely connected with the noun and it is always separated by commas.

Mr. Dr. White, *his former teacher of English*, went to another country.

#### *Adverbial modifier*

There are the following adverbial modifiers:

a) of **time**

We shall do it again *tomorrow*.

b) of **frequency**

They *often* visited the Zoo.

c) of **place** and **direction**

She found such flowers *everywhere*.

They went *to the river*.

d) of **manner**.

The girl accepted the proposal *without hesitation*.

e) of **attendant circumstance**

Now we can go to bed at last *without* thinking of the past problems.

f) of **degree and measure**

That costs a *million*. The film is *rather* interesting.

g) of **cause**

*Having worked many hours*, they were exhausted.

h) of **result, consequence**

The work is too important *for him to leave it*.

i) of **condition** (very rare)

He would have bought the house, *but for the help of his parents*.

j) of **comparison**

Helen was *as white as snow* after she got frightened.

She knows the language *better than Ann*.

k) of **concession** (very rare)

*Though very tired* he continued to run.

l) of **purpose**

They opened the door, *for the children to come in*

#### *Ways of expressing adverbial modifiers*



a) by **an adverb**

She turned *abruptly* to see who was coming.

b) by a **noun** with or without accompanying words.

*Next week* they will meet again for a talk.

c) by a **prepositional phrase**

They walked straight *up the hill*.

d) by a **noun, pronoun, adjective, participle** or **prepositional phrase** with a subordinating conjunction

Mary swims *better than her sister*.

My brother plays chess *better than I*.

*If necessary*, I shall do it.

*While waiting for his friend*, he met another old acquaintance.

*When at home* she manages to do a lot of things.

e) by a **Participle** or **participle phrase**

*When asked* about it, she explained everything in great details. *Having accepted the proposal to marry him*, the girl was very happy.

f) by **an absolute construction**

*The night being very cold*, she dressed very warmly. Amry ran forward, *with pleasure in her eyes*.

g) a **prepositional phrase** or **construction with a Gerund**

Her friend left the room *without saying a word*.

*On coming home*, he did not find her.

h) by an **Infinitive**, an **Infinitive phrase** or **Infinitive Construction**

They rose *to go into the living-room*.

*To work hard* at learning a foreign language was his aim.

#### *Independent elements of the sentence*

They are words and word-groups which are not grammatically dependent on any part of the sentence. They are:

1. **Interjections:** *ah, oh, hurrah, hails, good heavens.*

*Oh*, if I only knew what a beautiful place that is.

2. **Direct address:**

Good morning, *sweet child*.

Don't be boring, *Mary*.

3. **Parenthesis:** It shows the speaker's attitude towards some thought expressed in the sentence. It is connected with the rest of the sentence rather semantically than grammatically. No

question can be put to it. Very often it is detached from the rest of the sentence and is separated by a comma or dash.

*To sum up, Mary was very good at this subject.*

It can be expressed by the

- a) **modal words:** *indeed, certainly, probably, surely, possibly.*
- b) **adverbs:** *moreover, consequently, nevertheless, therefore.*
- c) **Prepositional phrases:** *in the one hand, on the contrary, in short, to mention only, to say the least.*
- d) **Infinitive and Participle phrases:** *to begin with, generally speaking, to tell the truth*

#### *Sentences with homogeneous parts*

Two or more parts of the sentence having the same function and referring to the same part of the sentence are called homogeneous parts of the sentence. They are linked by coordinating conjunctions or asyndetically.

1. Two or more **subjects** to a predicate.

To her surprise, her *father* and *mother* appeared at the same time.

2. Two or more **predicates** to one Subject – simple predicates.

The girl *painted, painted, repainted, rubbed* her eyes, *painted* again and finally *stopped*.

- a) compound verbal **modal predicate** with homogeneous parts

The paper *must be written, printed* and *sent* to the office

- b) a compound *verbal aspect predicate* with homogeneous parts with it

First, he began *to read, to understand* and then *to retell* the story.

- c) a compound **nominal predicate** with several predicatives.

The room was *empty, clean* and *light*.

3. Two or more **objects, attributes** or **adverbial modifiers**.

The *untranslated, unfinished* and *unsigned* text lays on the table.

Nick could imitate other people's *speech, accent, manner, tone*.

He told his friends *of his parents, of his childhood, of his sisters* and *brothers, of his relatives*.

She opened the door and smiled *kindly* and *happily*. I saw nobody *in* or *out*.

#### ***Main Parts of a Sentence***

The subject and predicate are the main parts of a sentence.

- 1) *The subject* denotes the thing (in the widest meaning including human beings too) whose action is expressed by the predicate.
- 2) it is not dependent on any part of the sentence.
- 3)

it may be expressed by different parts of speech: *a noun* in common case (the boy); *a personal pronoun in the nominative* (he); *a demonstrative pronoun* (that); *a substantivized adjective* (the rich); *a numeral* (two); an *infinitive* (to work) and a *gerund* (working). It may also be expressed by a *phrase* (the old man).

2) The *predicate* is one of the two main parts of the sentence.

1. It denotes an action of the thing expressed by the subject.
2. It is not dependent on any part of the sentence.
3. Ways of expressing the predicate are varied, among them are: finite verb form and a variety of phrases as: "finite verb + infinitive" (like + to read); "link verb + noun" (to be a teacher); "link verb + adjective" (to be late); "link verb + preposition + noun" (to be fond of sport).

According to their structure predicates are *simple* and *compound*; *verbal* and *nominal* according to morphological characteristics.

<i>Simple</i>	and	<i>Compound Verbal predicates</i>
I work		I shall work, I can work
<i>Simple Nominal</i>	and	<i>Compound Nominal predicates</i>
He is a student		He is fond of reading He became furious, angry

#### *Secondary Parts of the Sentence*

The usual classification of these parts is: *objects*, *attributes* and *adverbial modifiers*.

*The objects*: is a secondary part of the sentence, referring to a part of a sentence expressed by the verb: *a noun*, *a pronoun*, *an adjective*, *a numeral*, or *an adverb* and denotes a thing to which the action *passes on*. The definition is based on two principles: 1) the relation of the object to a certain part of speech; 2) the meaning of the object, that is, the relation between the thing denoted and the action with which it is connected.

*The attribute*: is the secondary part of the sentence modifying a part of the sentence. 1) the attribute as distinct from the object cannot modify a verb; 2) the attribute expresses a property while the object expresses a thing.

*The adverbial modifier* is a secondary part of the sentence modifying a part of the sentence expressed by a verb, *an adjective*, *a noun*, or *an adverb* and serving to indicate the way an action is done, *the time*, *the place*, *cause*, *purpose*, or *condition* with which the action or manifestation of the quality is connected.

#### *Independent Parts of the Sentence*

*The Apposition* – by it we mean a word or a phrase referring to a part of the sentence expressed by a noun. E.g. For a moment, she thought how nice Captain Buttler was, the

apposition is *Captain*, a word or a phrase naming the title, social position or profession.

The *direct address* is neither a main or secondary part of the sentence. It is a name or designation of a person(s) to whom the speech or writing is addressed. E.g. Mary, *darling*, you are looking extraordinarily.

#### *Parenthesis and Insertions*

They are outside the sentence, it was until recently said. The *parenthesis* can be at the beginning of a sentence and at the end, but *insertion* can only come in the middle of the sentence, interrupting its course, adding some information. E.g. I *should say*, you know about this; You know about it, I *should say*; (Parenthesis). *Insertion* E.g. And she thought, *after all*, he was right.

#### *The Composite Sentences; Syndetic connection*

#### *The Compound Sentences; Conjunctions used*

#### *The Complex Sentences*

In *compound sentences*, the clauses of which they consist have equal rights, they are equal, none of them is below the other in rank, *they are coordinated*.

In *complex sentences*, on the other hand, the clauses are not equal. A complex sentence may consist of two clauses, one – the main clause, the other a subordinate clause, that is, it stands beneath the main clause in rank. Of course, there may be more than one main clause and more than one subordinate clause in a complex sentence.

*Syndetic composite sentences*. The joining of sentences is done either by a *conjunction* which is only for connection but it does not keep the place of a member of the sentence. A pronoun or an adverb have a function in the sentence. E.g. *What* you have told is very valuable for everybody (relative pronoun) function of an object; E.g. *When* he came, everybody was in the classroom (relative adverb; adverbial modifier of time) He said *that* he was busy. *That* does not keep the place of a member; it only connects.

The usual classification into compound and complex sentences is done according to syndetic composite sentences, that is how the sentences are connected.

Compound sentences consist of two clauses joined together by coordinating conjunctions (*and, but, or, for, yet, so*). The number of clauses in a compound sentence may, of course, be greater than two and the conjunctions may be different. E.g. Nick was disappointed, *for* (as, because) he had waited for that meeting, *but* he nevertheless put up with that situation.

#### *Composite Sentences*

The joining of sentences is done either by a conjunction which is only for connection but it does not keep the place of a member of the sentence. Example can serve conjunction **that** which can be omitted.

He said **that** he knew Nick.

### *Compound Sentences*

They consist of two or more **clauses** (propoziție în cadrul unei propoziții ori fraze) coordinated with each other. A **clause** is part of a sentence which has subject and predicate of its own. They are connected:

- a) Syndetically, that is by coordinating conjunction (an, or, else, but) or conjunctive adverbs (however, nether less, yet, still, therefore)

It was dark **but** the street was as light as in daytime.

He knew that very well, yet he did not want to argue.

- b) Asyndetically – without conjunction

The house was not so big, the garden around was very nice.

The conjunctions can be:

- a) **Copulative** (linking) and, nor, neither – nor, not only but

Mary liked **neither** coffee **nor** tea., she liked juice.

- b) **Disjunctive** (or, else, either or, otherwise)

A student should be hardworking, *otherwise* he will not make progress.

- c) **Adversative** (contrary) but, only, neither less, yet

The picture was modern **but** it was not famous.

- d) **Causative-consecutive** (causative-consecutive) for, therefore, so, consequently, hence, accordingly

There was something omitted in his paper, *for* he was in a great hurry to present it in time.

### *Complex Sentences*

They consist of a principal clause and one or more subordinate clauses.

- a) Syndetically – by means of subordinating conjuncts or connectives.

A conjunction *connected* separate claused.

A connective – is a link and has a syntactic function in the subordinate clause.

She was more and more convinced *that* some difficulty would be overcome (conj.)

All *that* she had done seemed suddenly to have no value (connective).

- b) Asyndetically – without conjuncts or connective.

*I wish you had done that.*

A complex sentence may contain two or more homogeneous clauses coordinated with each other.

They were all of the opinion that the boy had done that, and that he had not recognized it.

### *Complex Sentences*

The means of expressing subordination are numerous. There is a great variety of conjunctions: *when, after, before, while, till, until, though, as, because, since*; a number of phrase performing the same function: *as soon as, as long as; in order that, according to*; conjunctive words: the relative pronouns: *who, which, that, whoever, whatever, whichever*; the relative adverbs: *where, how, whenever, wherever, why*.

#### *Types of Subordinate Clauses*

*Subject clause* – a clause that performs within a complex sentence the same function that the subject performs within a simple sentence. E.g. *What had happened was* that I had spent too much time outdoors in fierce cold. E.g. *What you learn from him is* that you are never going to have it again, *that* the great success depends only on you. There is one subject clause in the complex sentence and two predicative ones.

*Predicative clause* – a clause that performs within the complex sentence the same function that the predicate performs in a simple sentence. E.g. What I think is *that you are supposed to come again* (predicative clause). Rather often there is *both a subject* clause and a predicative one, the only element outside these clauses is the link verb.

*Object clause* – the easiest way of determining an object subordinate cause is if it can be replaced by a noun. E.g. He bought *what he wanted* (a book, a car). Tom may marry *whom he likes* (Ann, Mary ...). Verbs which combine with a preposition in a simple sentence do so in a complex sentence as well: E.g. It depends *on what you will say* (propositional object clause). It depends on *whether you will come*.

*Attributive clause* – is said to be attributive if its function in the complex sentence is that of an attribute like in a simple sentence. It differs from an attribute as it characterizes the thing denoted by its head word. Most usually attributive clauses come after its head word. E.g. The *woman, who was* writing an article, looked up and said.

*Adverbial clauses* – they modify some part of the main clause or the whole main clause. The conjunctions introducing adverbial subordinate clauses are numerous and differ in the degree of definiteness of meaning.

#### *Types of Adverbial Clauses*

They are grouped according to the types of adverbial modifiers in simple sentences.

##### *Clauses of Place*

The only way of introducing such clauses is by means of the relative adverb *where* and in a few cases by the phrase *from where*. E.g. There were not any eyes and ears *where they were not wanted*. *From where he stood* he could see them. Come here *where I am*. *Where there is a*

*will there is a way.*

### *Clauses of Time (Temporal Clauses)*

The number of conjunctions used to introduce temporal clauses is very considerable and is growing at the expense of nouns denoting time units, with the definite article. E.g. *the moment, the instant, at five o'clock*. E.g. On most nights her eyes closed *the minute her head touched the pillow*. Jane had just entered the room and closed the door *when she heard a man's voice* in the parlour.

*Casual Clauses* are introduced by the conjunction *as*. He got wet to the skin *as he walked in the heavy rain*. *Since you don't know to behave correctly* you will be punished. Why have you come? *Because I must, because there is no other way*.

*Conditional Clauses* are introduced by several conjunctions such as: *if, provided, in case, unless, supposing*. There are three types of conditional sentences:

- 1) Real *If I have time* I shall come there.
- 2) If I *had* time today (tomorrow) I *should help* you, referring to present and future
- 3) Unreal, referring to past

If I *had known* the material I *should have got* a good mark.

*Clauses of Result* introduced by the conjunction *that* while in the main clause there is the pronoun *such* or the adverb *so*. The subordinate clause is introduced by the phrase *so that*.

E.g. The text was *so long that* it was impossible to remember it. The lamps were very bright *so that* they shone like gold.

*Clauses of Purpose* may be introduced by the conjunction *that* or by the phrase *in order that*. E.g. He went to the library *in order that* he could borrow the necessary book.

*Clauses of Concession* are introduced by the conjunctions *though, although, albeit*.

E.g. *Though he failed the exam* he kept his temper.

*Clauses of Manner and Comparison*

E.g. You must explain the material to them *as best as you can* (manner)

E.g. He must be *as convincing as* the results presented in the article.

*Appositional clauses* always modify a noun, usually an abstract noun such as *fact, thought, idea, question, suggestion*. They are introduced by the conjunction *that* (not by the pronoun *that*), *whether*, showing what *idea, question* is spoken of.

E.g. He suffers so much, Dan went on, from the *fact that beautiful words don't always mean what they ought to mean*.

*Parenthetical Clauses* (insertion).

E.g. She tried to convince her, as she was herself convinced, *that her parents would never refuse her son*. The clause is subordinated to the main clause and to the *as* clause.

The complex sentence does not always consist of one main and one subordinate clause. It may contain 2, 3 or more subordinate clauses which may or may not be connected with one another, they are connected if they belong to the same type (object clauses) and in this case they may be joined by a coordinating conjunction (*and, but, or*). E.g. He thought *what* good pair they were *and* how well they would live.

Two attributive clauses in a complex sentence may modify one part of the head clause, the other attributive clause may modify another part of the head clause. E.g. Of course, here I have *everything* that encourages me without *anything* that I have not yet tried.



# EXERCISES:

## 1. Fill in the correct article.

1. I like ... blue T-shirt over there better than ... red one.
2. Their car does 150 mile ... hour.
3. Where is ... USB drive I lent you last week?
4. Do you still live in ... Bristol?
5. Is your mother working in ... old office building?
6. Carol's father works as ... electrician.
7. The tomatoes are 99 pence ... kilo.
8. What do you usually have for ... breakfast?
9. Ben has ... terrible headache.
10. After this tour you have ... whole afternoon free to explore the city.

## 2. Fill in: a, an, some.

1. I have ...good idea.
2. That's ... interesting job!
3. They have found ... gold in that old mine.
4. Do the Smiths have ...yellow van?
5. Look! He's having ... water.
6. He always likes ...piece of chocolate.
7. I have ... homework to do for tomorrow.
8. There's ... nice girl in the red car.
9. Would you like ...milk with your cookies?
10. How about ...grapes?

## 3. Choose the necessary word

1. Do you know (that, what) they are discussing?
2. I can't say (that, what) I liked the film very much.
3. I've heard (that, what) Peter is coming back to Moscow soon.
4. Have you heard (that, what) they decided to do?
5. My friend has told me (that, what) his mother's ill.
6. I'm telling you (that, what) you should do.
7. I feel (that, what) he's right.
8. I feel (that, what) he's right.
9. Do you remember (that, what) he spoke about?
10. Sorry! I didn't hear (that, what) you said.

#### **4. Finish the sentences:**

1. He says that ... . 2. I'll tell you who ... . 3. He said that ... . 4. We didn't know either where ... . 5. He asked us when ... . 6. Do you know why ... ? 7. He didn't know why ... . 8. You didn't tell us whose ... . 9. They asked me how many ... . 10. We don't know who else ... . 11. We were sure that ... . 12. A man asked me how ... . 13. I forgot which exercises ... .

#### **5. Translate into the target language:**

1. He says that he lived in Kiev. 2. He said that he lived in Kiev. 3. He said that he had lived in Kiev. 4. He said that he was going to live in Kiev. 5. He knew that Peter was in Kiev. 6. He knows that Peter was in Kiev in 1996. 7. He knew why Peter had been in Kiev several times.

#### **6. Use the verb "to say" or "to tell"**

Indirect (Reported) Speech

1. "You ought to be grateful" he ... her in his light cockruse manner. 2. "Look at me, Gretta," he ... her, patting her cheek with his hand. 3. Harris ... them they could follow him, if they liked... They ... it was very kind of him, and fell behind, and followed. 4. He ... I must talk with your friend. 5. Fox ... me that you were here. 6. She ... she would ... us all about it the next time we met. 7. They met some people soon after they had got inside, who ... they had been there for three quarters of an hour, and had had about enough of it. 8. The man ... he would go and consult his master.

#### **7. Transform into indirect speech.**

1. "Jell" he said, "have you been in many caves?"
2. "When will Mr. Black be back, Sir? He inquired.
3. And have you anything else you want to explain to me, Danny?"
4. "Who is there?" he whispered.
5. The first question on Mary's side was: "How long has this been known to you?"

#### **Greetings in indirect speech.**

1. Nick said to them, "How do you do?" Nick greeted them.
2. He said to them, "Good-bye." He bade (bid) them good-bye.
3. She said to her: "She wished her good-night." Good-night!

### Exclamations in indirect speech

1. He said: "I am so sorry! Jane is leaving us.  
He said sadly (sorrowfully with sadness) that Jane was leaving them.
2. She said to them: Thank you for your advice!  
She thanked them for their advice. (expressed gratitude to them)
3. She said: "How pleasant! You are going to spend a week with us.  
She cried joyfully (with joy, delightfully) that I was going to spend a week with them.

### Pay attention to the type of subordinate clauses.

1. What she **would say** was of great importance. (subject)
2. The problem was what **she would say**. (predicate)
3. She had firm hope that life **would be better**. (attribute)

### 8. Translate into English

1. N-am știut că sunteți ocupat.  
Я не знал, что вы заняты.
2. El mi-a spus că știe 3 limbi străine.  
Он мне сказал, что знает 3 иностранных языка.
3. Prietena mea m-a telefonat și m-a informat că este bolnavă, și nu va putea veni la lecție.  
Моя подруга позвонила мне и сказала, что она больна и не сможет прийти на урок.
4. El m-a întrebat cât timp îmi ia să ajung la oficiu.  
Он спросил меня сколько времени у меня уходит на то, чтобы доехать до работы.
5. El a spus, că nu poate face acest lucru deoarece nu are timp.  
Он сказал, что не может сделать эту работу, потому что у него нет времени.
6. El a spus, că se va eliber (va fi liber).  
Он сказал, что освободиться, как только закончит переводить статью.

### 9. Finish the sentences.

he had a car

He said that he had had a car  
he would have a car.

1. He says that ...
2. I'll tell you who ...
3. He said that ...
4. We didn't know either where ...
5. He asked us when ...
6. Do you know why ?
7. He didn't know why ...
8. You didn't tell us whose ...
9. They asked me how many ...
10. We don't know who else ...
11. We were sure that ...
12. A man asked me how ...
13. I forgot which exercises ...

**10. Translate paying attention to the tense form of the predicate:**

1. He says that he lived in Chişinău.
2. He said that he did not live in Chişinău.
3. He said that he had worked a lot in Paris.
4. He said that he would take part in the conference.
5. She knew that Peter was not present at the lesson, because he was ill.
6. She knows that Peter was in Chişinău last year.
7. She knew why Peter had done that.
8. He said that he liked the city.
9. He showed me which places he had seen recently.
10. He knew what material he had had to prepare for the exam.
11. Didn't you know whose books they were.
12. The boy knows what he must do every day.
13. Nick knew what he must prepare.
14. Nick knew what he had to bring for the lesson.

15. Nick knew what he had had to prepare to pass exams well.

**11. Translate paying attention to Participle and Participial Constructions.**

1. Simultaneous translation *provided* at the conference was excellent.
2. For further details the reader is referred to the paper *presented* by Mr. Brown.
3. The temperature of the liquid *obtained* remained constant.
4. The results *obtained* contained some errors.
5. *Translating* this text I did not consult the dictionary.
6. *Addressing* the young man he said he would like to speak with him.
7. *Weather permitting*, the astronomer will proceed with his observations.
8. *There being* many people in the conference hall, we could not enter it.
9. My friend *being ill*, we decided to go and see him.
10. *Time permitting*, we shall discuss one more question.

**12.State the functions of the Gerund, translate the sentences:**

1. *Falling* is a case of motion at constant acceleration.
2. He could not help *joining* the discussion.
3. In recent years man has succeeded *in controlling* chemical changes.
4. I think of *trying* another method.
5. *In solving* problems it is necessary to distinguish between fact and hypothesis.
6. The expansive force of water *in freezing* is enormous.
7. The device has the merit *of being suitable* for many purposes.
8. He had early opportunity *of becoming* well acquainted with experimental work.
9. Dr. Brown's *being absent* was very strange.
10. *In spite of not having* any university education, Faraday made his great discoveries.

**13.Supply the correct form of Gerund.**

1.I do not mind (to wear) this dress.

2. The child insisted on (to teach) at home .

3.He had a strange habit of (to interfere) in other people's business.

---

5..They accuse him of (to rob) that house last month..

---

6. You never mentioned (to be) to France before.

---

7.He is glad of (to speak) to this famous person at that workshop.

---

7. The cat was afraid for (to break) the cup.

---

8. She confessed (to forget) to send the letter and seemed sorry for (to be) inattentive.

---

9. David was tired of (to scold) all the time.

---

10. The watch needs (to repair).

---

**14.Translate into English paying attention to the GERUND.**

1.Eu nu sunt împotriva ca el să deschidă fereastra.

---

2. Eu am renunțat la ideea de a participa la acel concurs.

---

3. Ea l-a felicitat pe feciorul său cu ocazia absolvirii școlii.

---

4. Ea i-a mulțumit pe toți pentru că au ajutat-o mereu.

---

5. Eu sunt împotriva ca el să împrumute bani de la ea.

---

**15. Transform from direct into indirect speech paying attention to Sequence of Tenses.**

1. Where have you been lately?

---

2. Did you come to the meeting yesterday?

---

3. What does she do at her English lessons?

---

4. Are you waiting for the teacher?

---

5. How often did she wear that black dress?

---

**16. Finish the sentences using Gerund.**

1. We thought .....

2. Mary did not thank him.....
3. We are looking forward .....
4. They could not help.....
5. They succeeded .....
6. She insisted .....
7. They prevented her.....

**17. Open the brackets using the correct form of the Infinitive.**

1. I hate (to bother) you but the students are still waiting (to give) books for their work.  
\_\_\_\_\_
2. It seemed (to rain) heavily since early morning.  
\_\_\_\_\_
3. She pretended (to write) the letter and (not to hear) the bell.  
\_\_\_\_\_
- 4.. We expected (to help) by the teacher daily.  
\_\_\_\_\_
6. I am glad (to do) the homework yesterday and I am free now.  
\_\_\_\_\_
7. The child was happy (to bring) home by the parents at last.  
\_\_\_\_\_
8. It was nice (to speak) you at that famous contest last week.  
\_\_\_\_\_

**18. Translate into English paying attention to the following Infinitive sixed word combinations.**

1. Este plăcut să o privești dar foarte dificil să-i intri în voie.  
\_\_\_\_\_
2. Discursul lui a lasat mult de dorit și sincer vorbind nu am înțeles nimic.  
\_\_\_\_\_
3. Sincer vorbind eu nu iubesc volley-ball.  
\_\_\_\_\_
4. Nu a fost greu de avut ceva în comun cu acești oameni.  
\_\_\_\_\_
5. Să vorbești o limbă străină înseamnă să lucrezi mult.  
\_\_\_\_\_

**19. Finish the sentences using Gerund.**

1. She denied.....  
\_\_\_\_\_
2. We avoided.....  
\_\_\_\_\_
3. We are looking forward .....
4. They could not help.....  
\_\_\_\_\_
5. They succeeded .....
6. They burst .....

7. She insisted .....

**20. Open the brackets paying attention to Complex Object.**

1. We hate Mary (to work) here because it is a difficult job.

---

2. We saw the children (to play) in the garden .

---

3. They were made (to laugh) and they wished (to stay) there as long as possible.

---

4. We watched the boys (to jump) outside.

---

5. Farther heard the children (to sing) in the hall.

---

21. **Make up a short story using Gerund with the following verbs:** to avoid, to postpone, to excuse, to burst out. (10 p.)

**Selective Literature**

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