

**МІНІСТЕРСТВО ОСВІТИ І НАУКИ, МОЛОДІ ТА СПОРТУ УКРАЇНИ
МИКОЛАЇВСЬКИЙ НАЦІОНАЛЬНИЙ УНІВЕРСИТЕТ
ІМЕНІ В.О. СУХОМЛИНСЬКОГО**

Кафедра перекладу

**НАВЧАЛЬНО-МЕТОДИЧНИЙ КОМПЛЕКС
НАВЧАЛЬНОЇ ДИСЦИПЛІНИ**

ІНОЗЕМНА МОВА

Для напряму/спеціальності 6.020303 Філологія (Прикладна лінгвістика)

Автори:
викладач Плужнік А.В.

Затверджено на засіданні кафедри перекладу від «_____» _____ 20__р.

Затверджено на засіданні навчально-методичної комісії
факультету іноземної філології «_____» _____ 20__р.

Затверджено на засіданні Вченої ради факультету іноземної філології
«_____» _____ 20__р.

Миколаїв 2016

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3. Робоча навчальна програма дисципліни.
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1. Витяги з ОКХ, ОПП спеціальності.

Витяг з ОПП

Метою викладання навчальної дисципліни “Іноземна мова (англійська)” є формування у студентів навичок усного, письмового, монологічного, діалогічного мовлення та аудіювання в обсязі загально побутової тематики та тематики, що обумовлена професійними потребами, на рівні незалежного користувача.

Основними завданнями курсу є:

1. Розвинути вміння та навички письма, читання і перекладу англійською мовою.
2. Розвинути навички комунікативного спілкування англійською мовою за темами повсякденного спілкування.
3. Удосконалити вміння і навички сприймати мову як при безпосередньому спілкуванні, так і під час аудіювання.
4. Удосконалити вміння і навички діалогічно та монологічно спілкуватися в межах тем, зазначених програмою.
5. Навчити передавати в усній та письмовій формах здобуту при читанні інформацію англійською мовою.

Витяг з ОКХ

Студенти повинні знати:

- лексичний мінімум, який необхідний для володіння усними формами спілкування, що включає знання лексичних одиниць, тобто слів та словосполучень, які мають найбільшу семантичну цінність і часто вживаються в іншомовному спілкуванні на рівні монологічного, діалогічного та спонтанного мовлення;

- граматичний мінімум, який необхідний для володіння усними та письмовими формами спілкування, що включає знання граматичних структур та їх компонентів: іменник: рід та число іменників; прикметник: ступені його порівняння, узгодження іменників з прикметниками; прислівник: ступені його порівняння, використання прислівників з дієсловами; дієслово: дійсний, умовний та наказовий способи дієслів, часи дієслів, інфінітив, герундій та граматичні конструкції з їх використанням; порядкові та кількісні числівники; прийменник.

Студенти повинні вміти: володіти комунікативним аспектом спілкування;

- вживати граматичні структури;
- вести бесіду загально-побутового характеру;
- знати правила мовного етикету, читати художню та спеціальну літературу англійською мовою на загально-побутові теми та тексти зі спеціальності лінгвістичного напрямку з метою пошуку нової інформації;
- перекладати тексти за спеціальністю (мовознавчої тематики);
- складати анотації, реферати;
- виявляти обізнаність в основах міжкультурного спілкування.

Згідно з вимогами освітньо-професійної програми студент оволодіває такими *компетентностями*:

I. Загальнопредметні: Застосовує досягнення національної та світової культури у вирішенні власних професійних та життєвих завдань; володіє розвинутою культурою мислення, умінням ясно й логічно висловлювати свої думки; володіє навичками наукової організації праці; розвиває навички самостійного опанування нових знань; уміє працювати з довідковою літературою, різнотипними словниками, електронними базами даних, системами інформаційного пошуку.

II. Фахові: вміє застосовувати знання з граматики, лексикології, стилістики для здійснення іншомовної комунікації; усвідомлює і контролює організацію змісту, знань і навичок перцепції та продукції символів, із яких складаються письмові тексти; розуміє загальний зміст і суттєві деталі автентичних аудіо- і відеоматеріалів, пов'язаних з академічною та професійною сферами; розуміє основні ідеї та розпізнає конкретну інформацію в ході лекцій, семінарів, конференцій, дискусій за темами відповідного академічного і професійного спрямування; розуміє автентичні тексти, пов'язані з академічною та професійною діяльністю, з підручників, газет, популярних і спеціалізованих журналів та ресурсів мережі Інтернет; вміє визначати позицію і точки зору в автентичних текстах, пов'язаних з навчанням та спеціальністю, писати академічну та ділову документацію, пов'язану з особистою та професійною сферами (резюме, життєпис, заяви), анотувати наукові тексти іноземною мовою; володіє уміннями та навичками здійснювати іншомовну мовленнєву діяльність, зумовлену професійною та комунікативною метою.

МІНІСТЕРСТВО ОСВІТИ І НАУКИ УКРАЇНИ МИКОЛАЇВСЬКИЙ НАЦІОНАЛЬНИЙ УНІВЕРСИТЕТ ІМЕНІ В. О. СУХОМЛИНСЬКОГО

Кафедра перекладу

ЗАТВЕРДЖУЮ

Проректор із науково-педагогічної

роботи _____ Н. І. Василькова

«31» серпня 2016 р.

ПРОГРАМА НАВЧАЛЬНОЇ ДИСЦИПЛІНИ

ІНОЗЕМНА МОВА

ПРАКТИЧНИЙ КУРС АНГЛІЙСЬКОЇ МОВИ

ОКР «бакалавр»

Галузь знань ***0203 Гуманітарні науки***

6.020303 Філологія (Прикладна лінгвістика)

Код та найменування спеціальності

Філологічний факультет

(3 курс)

2016-2017 навчальний рік

Програму розроблено та внесено: Миколаївський національний університет імені В. О. Сухомлинського

РОЗРОБНИКИ ПРОГРАМИ: *Плужнік Анастасія Валеріївна*, викладач кафедри перекладу

Програму схвалено на засіданні кафедри іноземних мов
Протокол від **«22» серпня 2016 року № 1**

Завідувач кафедри іноземних мов _____ (Майстренко М.І.)

Програму погоджено навчально-методичною комісією філологічного факультету
Протокол від **«23» серпня 2016 року № 1**

Голова навчально-методичної комісії _____ (Васіна І.В.)

Програму погоджено навчально-методичною комісією університету
Протокол від **«29» серпня 2016 року № 1**

Голова навчально-методичної комісії університету _____ (Василькова Н. І.)

Програма вивчення нормативної навчальної дисципліни “Іноземна мова” складена *Плужнік А.В.* відповідно до освітньо-професійної програми підготовки ступеня бакалавра спеціальності 6.020303 *Філологія (Прикладна лінгвістика)*

Предметом вивчення навчальної дисципліни є практичні навички оволодіння іноземною мовою та їх застосування у майбутній професійній діяльності.

Міждисциплінарні зв'язки: практична фонетика, лексикологія, практична граматики, країнознавство, зарубіжна література, історія англійської мови, література Великобританії, методика викладання англійської мови, методика викладання зарубіжної літератури.

Програма навчальної дисципліни складається з таких змістових модулів:

Змістовий модуль 1: *Тема 1.* Засвоєння лексичного мінімуму до теми “Особистість. Харизма”. Граматика: Теперішній неозначений час. Теперішній тривалий час. Питальні форми. *Тема 2.* Засвоєння лексичного мінімуму до теми “Подорожування. Туризм”. Граматика: Теперішній перфектний час та минулий неозначений час. *Тема 3.* Засвоєння лексичного мінімуму до теми “Робота. Професії”. Граматика: Теперішній перфектний тривалий час у зіставленні з теперішнім перфектним часом.

Змістовий модуль 2: *Тема 1.* Засвоєння лексичного мінімуму до теми “Вивчаючи мови. Різні мови”. Граматика: Майбутні форми. Умовні речення I типу. *Тема 2.* Засвоєння лексичного мінімуму до теми “Реклама”. Граматика: Умовні речення II типу. *Тема 3.* Засвоєння лексичного мінімуму до теми “Бізнес”. Граматика: Минулий тривалий та минулий перфектний час.

1. Мета та завдання навчальної дисципліни

1.1. **Метою** викладання навчальної дисципліни “Іноземна мова” є формування у студентів навичок усного, письмового, монологічного, діалогічного мовлення та аудіювання в обсязі загально побутової тематики та тематики, що обумовлена професійними потребами, на рівні незалежного користувача; навчити студентів основ ділового спілкування в усних та письмових формах в типових ситуаціях: знайомство, розмова по телефону, влаштування на роботу, ділова зустріч, відрядження, замовлення квитків та номеру в готелі, ведення ділових переговорів, перебування на виставці, обговорення та підписання контракту, комерційна кореспонденція

1.2. Завданням вивчення дисципліни “Іноземна мова” є

- вивчення лексичного матеріалу, необхідного для спілкування (можливість вести бесіду, робити повідомлення на задані теми та оформлювати ділові папери) та читання англійської літератури зі спеціальності;

- засвоєння граматичного матеріалу, необхідного для оволодіння усними та письмовими формами спілкування;

- засвоєння фонетичного матеріалу, який дозволить студентам оволодіти вимовою звуків англійської мови та інтонацією англійського речення.

1.3. Згідно з вимогами освітньо-професійної програми студент оволодіває такими компетентностями:

I. Загальнопредметні: Застосовує досягнення національної та світової культури у вирішенні власних професійних та життєвих завдань; володіє розвиненою культурою мислення, умінням ясно й логічно висловлювати свої думки; володіє навичками наукової організації праці; розвиває навички самостійного опанування нових знань; уміє працювати з довідковою літературою, різнотипними словниками, електронними базами даних, системами інформаційного пошуку.

II. Фахові: вміє застосовувати знання з граматики, лексикології, стилістики для здійснення іншомовної комунікації; усвідомлює і контролює організацію змісту, знань і навичок перцепції та продукції символів, із яких складаються письмові тексти; розуміє загальний зміст і суттєві деталі автентичних аудіо- і відеоматеріалів, пов'язаних з академічною та професійною сферами; розуміє основні ідеї та розпізнає конкретну інформацію в ході лекцій, семінарів, конференцій, дискусій за темами відповідного академічного і професійного спрямування; розуміє автентичні тексти, пов'язані з академічною та професійною діяльністю, з підручників, газет, популярних і спеціалізованих журналів та ресурсів мережі Інтернет; вміє визначати позицію і точки зору в автентичних текстах, пов'язаних з навчанням та спеціальністю, писати академічну та ділову документацію, пов'язану з особистою та професійною сферами (резюме, життєпис, заяви), анотувати наукові тексти іноземною мовою; володіє уміннями та навичками здійснювати іншомовну мовленнєву діяльність, зумовлену професійною та комунікативною метою.

На вивчення навчальної дисципліни відводиться **240 години/ 8 кредитів ECTS**.

2. Інформаційний обсяг навчальної дисципліни

Змістовий модуль 1: *Тема 1.* Засвоєння лексичного мінімуму до теми “Особистість. Харизма”. Граматика: Теперішній неозначений час. Теперішній тривалий час. Питальні форми. *Тема 2.* Засвоєння лексичного мінімуму до теми “Подорожування. Туризм”. Граматика: Теперішній перфектний час та минулий неозначений час. *Тема 3.* Засвоєння лексичного мінімуму до теми “Робота. Професії”. Граматика: Теперішній перфектний тривалий час у зіставлення з теперішнім перфектним часом.

Змістовий модуль 2: *Тема 1.* Засвоєння лексичного мінімуму до теми “Вивчаючи мови. Різні мови”. Граматика: Майбутні форми. Умовні речення I типу. *Тема 2.* Засвоєння лексичного мінімуму до теми "Реклама". Граматика: Умовні речення II типу. *Тема 3.* Засвоєння лексичного мінімуму до теми "Бізнес". Граматика: Минулий тривалий та минулий перфектний час.

3. Рекомендована література

Базова

1. Ian Lebeau, Gareth Rees. Language Leader Intermediate. Course book. Pearson: Longman, 2008. – 168 p.
2. Ian Lebeau, Gareth Rees. Language Leader Intermediate. Work book. Pearson: Longman, 2008. – 95 p.

Допоміжна

1. English for Everyday Communication / за ред. Шпака В. К. – Київ, Вища школа, 2003.
2. English grammar: Reference and Practice. Дроздова Т. Ю., Бурустова А. И. Химера, Санкт-Петербург, 2000. – 320 p.
3. English grammar: Reference and Practice. Дроздова Т. Ю., Бурустова А. И. Химера, Санкт-Петербург, 2000.
4. Murphy, Raymond. English Grammar in Use. – Cambridge, 1988. – 328 p.
5. Raymond Murphy. English Grammar in Use. Cambridge University Press. – 386 p.
6. Thompson A. J., Martinet A. V. A Practical English Grammar Exercises#2. Oxford University Press.
7. Thompson A.T. J., Martinet A.V. A Practical English Grammar Exercises#1. Oxford University Press.
8. Верба Г. В., Верба Л. Г. Довідник з граматики англійської мови. – К.: Освіта, 1993.

12. Інформаційні ресурси

1. <http://moodle.mnu.mk.ua/course/view.php?id=68>
2. <http://www.etymonline.com/>
3. <http://eldum.phil.muni.cz/course/view.php?id=15>
4. <http://ijl.oxfordjournals.org/>

4. Форма підсумкового контролю успішності навчання:

VI семестр-іспит

5. Засоби діагностики успішності навчання: модульна контрольна робота (МКР)

**МІНІСТЕРСТВО ОСВІТИ І НАУКИ УКРАЇНИ
МИКОЛАЇВСЬКИЙ НАЦІОНАЛЬНИЙ УНІВЕРСИТЕТ
ІМЕНІ В. О. СУХОМЛИНСЬКОГО**

Кафедра перекладу

ЗАТВЕРДЖУЮ

Проректор із науково-педагогічної
роботи _____ Н. І. Василькова
«31» серпня 2016 р.

ПРОГРАМА НАВЧАЛЬНОЇ ДИСЦИПЛІНИ

ІНОЗЕМНА МОВА

ПРАКТИЧНИЙ КУРС АНГЛІЙСЬКОЇ МОВИ

ОКР «бакалавр»

Галузь знань ***0203 Гуманітарні науки***

6.020303 Філологія (Прикладна лінгвістика)

Код та найменування спеціальності

Філологічний факультет

(3 курс)

2016-2017 навчальний рік

Програму розроблено та внесено: Миколаївський національний університет імені В. О. Сухомлинського

РОЗРОБНИКИ ПРОГРАМИ: *Плужнік Анастасія Валеріївна*, викладач кафедри перекладу

Програму схвалено на засіданні кафедри іноземних мов
Протокол від «22» серпня 2016 року № 1

Завідувач кафедри іноземних мов _____ (Майстренко М.І.)

Програму погоджено навчально-методичною комісією філологічного факультету
Протокол від «23» серпня 2016 року № 1

Голова навчально-методичної комісії _____ (Васіна І.В.)

Програму погоджено навчально-методичною комісією університету
Протокол від «29» серпня 2016 року № 1

Голова навчально-методичної комісії університету _____ (Василькова Н. І.)

Програма вивчення нормативної навчальної дисципліни “Іноземна мова” складена Плузнік А.В. відповідно до освітньо-професійної програми підготовки ступеня бакалавра спеціальності 6.020303 Філологія (Прикладна лінгвістика)

Предметом вивчення навчальної дисципліни є практичні навички оволодіння іноземною мовою та їх застосування у майбутній професійній діяльності.

Міждисциплінарні зв'язки: практична фонетика, лексикологія, практична граматики, країнознавство, зарубіжна література, історія англійської мови, література Великобританії, методика викладання англійської мови, методика викладання зарубіжної літератури.

Програма навчальної дисципліни складається з таких змістових модулів:

Змістовий модуль 1: *Тема 1.* Засвоєння лексичного мінімуму до теми “Особистість. Харизма”. Граматика: Теперішній неозначений час. Теперішній тривалий час. Питальні форми. *Тема 2.* Засвоєння лексичного мінімуму до теми “Подорожування. Туризм”. Граматика: Теперішній перфектний час та минулий неозначений час. *Тема 3.* Засвоєння лексичного мінімуму до теми “Робота. Професії”. Граматика: Теперішній перфектний тривалий час у зіставленні з теперішнім перфектним часом.

Змістовий модуль 2: *Тема 1.* Засвоєння лексичного мінімуму до теми “Вивчаючи мови. Різні мови”. Граматика: Майбутні форми. Умовні речення I типу. *Тема 2.* Засвоєння лексичного мінімуму до теми “Реклама”. Граматика: Умовні речення II типу. *Тема 3.* Засвоєння лексичного мінімуму до теми “Бізнес”. Граматика: Минулий тривалий та минулий перфектний час.

2. Мета та завдання навчальної дисципліни

1.1. **Метою** викладання навчальної дисципліни “Іноземна мова” є формування у студентів навичок усного, письмового, монологічного, діалогічного мовлення та аудіювання в обсязі загально побутової тематики та тематики, що обумовлена професійними потребами, на рівні незалежного користувача; навчити студентів основ ділового спілкування в усних та письмових формах в типових ситуаціях: знайомство, розмова по телефону, влаштування на роботу, ділова зустріч, відрядження, замовлення квитків та номеру в готелі, ведення ділових переговорів, перебування на виставці, обговорення та підписання контракту, комерційна кореспонденція

1.2. Завданням вивчення дисципліни “Іноземна мова” є

- вивчення лексичного матеріалу, необхідного для спілкування (можливість вести бесіду, робити повідомлення на задані теми та оформлювати ділові папери) та читання англійської літератури зі спеціальності;

- засвоєння граматичного матеріалу, необхідного для оволодіння усними та письмовими формами спілкування;

- засвоєння фонетичного матеріалу, який дозволить студентам оволодіти вимовою звуків англійської мови та інтонацією англійського речення.

1.3. Згідно з вимогами освітньо-професійної програми студент оволодіває такими компетентностями:

I. Загальнопредметні: Застосовує досягнення національної та світової культури у вирішенні власних професійних та життєвих завдань; володіє розвиненою культурою мислення, умінням ясно й логічно висловлювати свої думки; володіє навичками наукової організації праці; розвиває навички самостійного опанування нових знань; уміє працювати з довідковою літературою, різнотипними словниками, електронними базами даних, системами інформаційного пошуку.

II. Фахові: вміє застосовувати знання з граматики, лексикології, стилістики для здійснення іншомовної комунікації; усвідомлює і контролює організацію змісту, знань і навичок перцепції та продукції символів, із яких складаються письмові тексти; розуміє загальний зміст і суттєві деталі автентичних аудіо- і відеоматеріалів, пов'язаних з академічною та професійною сферами; розуміє основні ідеї та розпізнає конкретну інформацію в ході лекцій, семінарів, конференцій, дискусій за темами відповідного академічного і професійного спрямування; розуміє автентичні тексти, пов'язані з академічною та професійною діяльністю, з підручників, газет, популярних і спеціалізованих журналів та ресурсів мережі Інтернет; вміє визначати позицію і точки зору в автентичних текстах, пов'язаних з навчанням та спеціальністю, писати академічну та ділову документацію, пов'язану з особистою та професійною сферами (резюме, життєпис, заяви), анотувати наукові тексти іноземною мовою; володіє уміннями та навичками здійснювати іншомовну мовленнєву діяльність, зумовлену професійною та комунікативною метою.

На вивчення навчальної дисципліни відводиться **240 години/ 8 кредитів ECTS**.

2. Інформаційний обсяг навчальної дисципліни

Змістовий модуль 1: *Тема 1.* Засвоєння лексичного мінімуму до теми “Особистість. Харизма”. Граматика: Теперішній неозначений час. Теперішній тривалий час. Питальні форми. *Тема 2.* Засвоєння лексичного мінімуму до теми “Подорожування. Туризм”. Граматика: Теперішній перфектний час та минулий неозначений час. *Тема 3.* Засвоєння лексичного мінімуму до теми “Робота. Професії”. Граматика: Теперішній перфектний тривалий час у зіставленні з теперішнім перфектним часом.

Змістовий модуль 2: *Тема 1.* Засвоєння лексичного мінімуму до теми “Вивчаючи мови. Різні мови”. Граматика: Майбутні форми. Умовні речення I типу. *Тема 2.* Засвоєння лексичного мінімуму до теми "Реклама". Граматика: Умовні речення II типу. *Тема 3.* Засвоєння лексичного мінімуму до теми "Бізнес". Граматика: Минулий тривалий та минулий перфектний час.

3. Рекомендована література

Базова

1. Ian Lebeau, Gareth Rees. Language Leader Intermediate. Course book. Pearson: Longman, 2008. – 168 p.
2. Ian Lebeau, Gareth Rees. Language Leader Intermediate. Work book. Pearson: Longman, 2008. – 95 p.

Допоміжна

1. English for Everyday Communication / за ред. Шпака В. К. – Київ, Вища школа, 2003.
2. English grammar: Reference and Practice. Дроздова Т. Ю., Бурустова А. И. Химера, Санкт-Петербург, 2000. – 320 p.
3. English grammar: Reference and Practice. Дроздова Т. Ю., Бурустова А. И. Химера, Санкт-Петербург, 2000.
4. Murphy, Raymond. English Grammar in Use. – Cambridge, 1988. – 328 p.
5. Raymond Murphy. English Grammar in Use. Cambridge University Press. – 386 p.
6. Thompson A. J., Martinet A. V. A Practical English Grammar Exercises#2. Oxford University Press.
7. Thompson A.T. J., Martinet A.V. A Practical English Grammar Exercises#1. Oxford University Press.
8. Верба Г. В., Верба Л. Г. Довідник з граматики англійської мови. – К.: Освіта, 1993.

12. Інформаційні ресурси

<http://moodle.mnu.mk.ua/course/view.php?id=68>
<http://www.etymonline.com/>
<http://eldum.phil.muni.cz/course/view.php?id=15>
<http://ijl.oxfordjournals.org/>

4. Форма підсумкового контролю успішності навчання:

VI семестр-іспит

6. Засоби діагностики успішності навчання: модульна контрольна робота (МКР)

4. Засоби діагностики навчальних досягнень студентів.

Принципи засобів контролю

Система оцінювання націлена на:

- Оцінювання досягнень бакалаврів в оволодінні іноземною мовою у відповідності до визначених навчальних цілей та РВМ;
- Забезпечення відгуків на програму та різних аспектів її втілення;
- Сприяння впливові програми на процес навчання;
- Ознайомлення бакалаврів з критеріями оцінювання і методами самооцінювання.

Система оцінювання повинна:

- Надавати валідні й надійні вимірники результатів навчання відповідно до цілей, завдань і змісту програми ;

- Бути комунікативною та орієнтованою на вміння, водночас не нехтувати необхідністю дотримуватися чіткості й точності у мовленні;
- Включати в себе як поточний так і підсумковий контроль;
- Представляти логічну рамку, для якої характерним є поступове ускладнення мовленнєвих умінь в межах кожного модуля навчання і при переході від одного рівня до іншого;
- Співвідноситись з рівнями володіння мовою ЗЄР та оцінювати усі макровміння;
- Піддаватися постійному аналізу, оцінюванню та подальшому вдосконаленню.

Засоби діагностики навчальних досягнень студентів

Завдання для практичних занять, завдання для поточних контрольних робіт, завдання для модульних робіт, письмові самостійні роботи у формі рефератів, індивідуальні завдання, підсумкове опитування студентів по тематиці змістовних модулів.

Методи контролю

1. *Метод усного контролю.* Етапи усного опитування: постановка викладачем питань (завдань) з урахуванням специфіки предмета і вимог програми; підготовка студентів до відповіді і викладення своїх знань: корекція і самоконтроль викладених знань під час відповіді; аналіз і оцінка відповіді.
2. *Метод письмового контролю* (письмові контрольні роботи, твори, перекази, диктанти, письмові заліки тощо).
3. *Тестова перевірка знань* (тести на доповнення; тести на використання аналогії; тести на зміну елементів відповіді тощо).
4. *Графічна перевірка знань* (графічні зображення умови завдання, малюнки, креслення, діаграми, схеми, таблиці). Графічна перевірка може виступати як самостійний вид або може входити, як органічний елемент, до усної або письмової перевірки.
5. *Іспити.* Усний іспит. Письмовий іспит. Оцінка.
6. *Самоконтроль і самооцінка.*

Розподіл балів, які отримують студенти

Усі види навчальної роботи з курсу «Іноземна мова»/ «ПКМ» підпорядковані Європейській кредитно-трансферній системі організації навчального процесу та контролю студентів. Контроль здійснюється за допомогою модульної контрольної роботи (МКР) наприкінці кожного модуля.

Модульний контроль передбачає перевірку стану засвоєння визначеної системи елементів знань того чи іншого модуля, до якої включаються елементи знань з планового повторення попередніх модулів. Завдання для модульного контролю складаються з двох рівнів: репродуктивного і творчого. Завдання репродуктивного рівня складаються з двох частин: нові знання і елементи знань з повторення попередніх модулів. Сума балів за завдання репродуктивного рівня контрольної роботи становить 50%. Загальна сума балів за одну модульну контрольну роботу становить 50/100.

5. Навчальні-наочні посібники, технічні засоби навчання.

Навчальні-наочні посібники

Рекомендована основна навчальна література:

Базова

1. Ian Lebeau, Gareth Rees. Language Leader Pre-Intermediate. Course book. Pearson: Longman, 2008. – 168 p.
2. Ian Lebeau, Gareth Rees. Language Leader Pre-Intermediate. Work book. Pearson: Longman, 2008. – 95 p.

Допоміжна

1. English grammar: Reference and Practice. Дроздова Т. Ю., Бурустова А. И. Химера, Санкт-Петербург, 2000. – 320 p.
2. Murphy R. English Grammar in Use. – Cambridge, 1988. – 328 p.
3. Thompson A. J., Martinet A. V. A Practical English Grammar Exercises#2. Oxford University Press.
4. Thompson A.T. J., Martinet A. V.. A Practical English Grammar Exercises#1. Oxford University Press.
5. Верба Г. В., Верба Л. Г. Довідник з граматики англійської мови. – К.: Освіта, 1993.
6. Каушанская В.Л. Грамматика английского языка. Пособие для студентов педагогических институтов и университетов. – М., 2000. – 320с.

7. Каушанская В.Л. Сборник упражнений по грамматике английского языка. – М., 2000. – 216с.

12. Інформаційні ресурси

<http://moodle.mnu.mk.ua/course/view.php?id=68>

<http://www.etymonline.com/>

<http://eldum.phil.muni.cz/course/view.php?id=15>

<http://ijl.oxfordjournals.org/>

Технічні засоби навчання

- добір до теми, що вивчається, аудіовізуальних навчальних засобів, які відповідають освітньо-виховним завданням заняття;
- попередній перегляд або прослуховування матеріалу з метою аналізу його змісту;
- визначення доцільності використання дібраного матеріалу;
- визначення форми навчального заняття (практичне заняття);
- визначення функції технічних засобів навчання в структурі заняття (повідомлення нової інформації, ілюстрація, узагальнення, систематизація, закріплення, контроль);
- вибір провідного методу у використанні технічних засобів навчання (наочно-ілюстративний, активно-евристичний) і методичних прийомів показу (цілком, частинами, окремими кадрами);
- визначення засобів активізації пізнавальної діяльності студентів на етапах використання технічних засобів навчання (повідомлення мети перегляду, постановка завдання, в т. ч. проблемного, контрольні запитання, складання плану, виконання вправ, розв'язування задач, обговорення).

Рівень застосування ТЗН залежить від характеру навчальної дисципліни, підготовки та інтересів самих студентів, форми занять, нахилів, наявних засобів, програмно-методичного забезпечення.

Рівні використання ТЗН: 1) епізодичний (використовуються викладачем від випадку до випадку), 2) систематичний (постійне застосування, що дає змогу розширювати і урізноманітнювати обсяг інформації); 3) синхронний (передбачає практично безперервне супроводжування викладу матеріалу застосуванням ТЗН протягом всього заняття).

6. Конспект лекцій з дисципліни

Lecture 1

Тема: Traditional Grammar

Мета: Засвоєння елементів граматичної теорії, необхідних для оволодіння практичною вимовою; розширення граматичного кругозору студентів та формування елементарних професійних навичок.

Методи: дедуктивний (пояснення загальних положень з наступним демонструванням можливості їх застосування на конкретних прикладах); метод ступінчастості (розкриття проблематики теми, переходячи від одного ступеня до іншого).

1. Traditional Grammar in Ancient Greece

Formally, traditional grammar is the type of grammar as it was before the advent of structural linguistics. Two periods of traditional grammar could be distinguished: 1) prescriptive (pre-scientific) and 2) descriptive (scientific).

Traditional grammar has its origins in the principles formulated by the scholars of Ancient Greece and Rome – in the works of **Dionysius Thrax, Protagoras, Plato, Aristotle, Varro, and Priscian**.

Dionysius Thrax (c. 100 B.C.) was the first to present a comprehensive grammar of Greek. His grammar remained a standard work for thirteen centuries. Thrax distinguishes two basic units of description – the

sentence (logos), which is the upper limit of grammatical description, and the word, which is the minimal unit of grammatical description. The sentence is defined notionally as “expressing a complete thought”. The constituents of the sentence were called meros logos, i.e. parts of the sentence. Thrax distinguished onoma (noun) class words, rhema (verb), metoche (participle), arthron (article), antonymia (pronoun), prothesis (preposition), epirrhema (adverb), and syndesmos (conjunction). He reunited the Stoic common and proper nouns into the single onoma (noun) class; he separated the participle from the verb. The adjective was classed with the noun, as its morphology and syntax were similar to those of nouns.

The noun was defined as a part of the sentence inflected for case and signifying a person or a thing; the verb as a part of the sentence without case inflection, but inflected for tense, person, and number, signifying an activity or process performed or undergone; the participle as a part of the sentence sharing the features of the verb and the noun; the article as a part of the sentence inflected for case and preposed or postposed to nouns; the pronoun as a part of the sentence substitutable for the noun and marked for person; the preposition as a part of the sentence placed before other words; the adverb as a part of the sentence without inflection, in modification of or in addition to the verb; the conjunction as a part of the sentence binding together the discourse and filling gaps in its interpretation.

Each defined class of words is followed by a statement of the categories applicable to it. Thrax refers to them as parepomena. By parepomena he means grammatically relevant differences in the forms of words which include both inflexional and derivational categories. To illustrate this, consider the noun. Thrax distinguishes five such categories of the noun:

- 1) Genos (gender): masculine, feminine, neuter;
- 2) Eidos (type): primary or derived;
- 3) Schema (form): simple or compound;
- 4) Arithmos (number): singular, dual, or plural;
- 5) Ptois (case): nominative, vocative, objective, genitive, dative.

The parepomena of the verb included mood, voice, type, form, number, person, tense, and conjugation. Three basic time references are distinguished: present, past, and future. Phrax's set of parts of speech has undergone only minor modifications and is still very much in use today. The main omission in this grammar is the absence of any section on syntax. Syntax was dealt with, rather extensively, by **Appolonius Dyscolus**. Appolonius based his syntactic description on the relations of the noun and the verb to each other and of the remaining word classes to these two. The achievements of the Greek scholars lie in devising and systematizing a formal terminology for the description of the classical Greek language, a terminology which, through adaptation to Latin and later on adopted from Latin by other languages, has become part and parcel of the grammatical equipment of the linguistics of our day.

2. Traditional Grammar in Ancient Rome

Roman linguistics was largely the application of Greek thought to the Latin language. The relatively similar basic structures of the two languages facilitated the process of this metalinguistic transfer. The first Latin grammar was written by **Varro (116–27 B.C.)**. His *De Lingua Latina* comprised 25 volumes. One of Varro's merits is the distinction between derivation and inflection. Inflexional formations are characterized by great generality; they do not vary in use and acceptability from person to person and from one word root to another. The former part of morphology Varro called *declinatio naturalis* (natural word variation) and the latter, *declinatio voluntaria* (spontaneous word form variation). Varro set up the following system of four inflexionally contrasting classes:

- 1) those with case inflexion (nouns including adjectives);
- 2) those with tense inflexion (verbs);
- 3) those with case and tense inflexion (participles);
- 4) those with neither (adverb).

The Latin grammars of the present day are the direct descendants of the works written by late grammarians, **Priscian (c. A.D. 500)** in particular. His aim, like theirs, was to transfer as far as he could the grammatical system of Thrax's grammar, as well as the writings of Appolonius, to Latin. He uses the classical system of eight word classes laid down by Thrax and Appolonius, with the omission of the article and the inclusion of the interjection. Priscian's work is based on the language of the best writers (e.g. Cicero, Virgil), i.e. not on the language of his own day. Priscian's work marks the bridge between Antiquity and the Middle Ages in linguistic scholarship.

Questions for self-correction:

1. What are the two periods of traditional grammar?
2. Who formulated the major principles of traditional grammar?
3. What are the achievements of the Greek scholars in grammar theory?
4. Characterize the development of traditional grammar in Ancient Rome.
5. What similar features could you distinguish in traditional grammar in Ancient Rome and Ancient Greece?

Lecture 2

Тема: Prescriptive Grammar

Мета: Засвоєння елементів граматичної теорії, необхідних для оволодіння практичною вимовою; розширення граматичного кругозору студентів та формування елементарних професійних навичок.

Методи: дедуктивний (пояснення загальних положень з наступним демонструванням можливості їх застосування на конкретних прикладах); метод ступінчастості (розкриття проблематики теми, переходячи від одного ступеня до іншого).

1. Prescriptive Grammar

Until the end of the sixteenth century, the only grammars used in English schools were Latin grammars. The aim was to teach Englishmen to read, write and sometimes converse in this lingua franca of Western Europe. One of the earliest and most popular Latin grammars written in English was William Lily's grammar, published in the first half of the 16th century. It was an aid to learning Latin, and it rigorously followed Latin models.

The Renaissance saw the birth of the modern world. It widened linguistic horizons. Scholars turned their attention to the living languages of Europe. Although the study of Greek and Latin grammar continued, they were not the only languages scholars were interested in. As can be expected, the first grammars of English were closely related to Latin grammars. Latin had been used in England for centuries, scholars had treated it as an ideal language. They were struck by its rigor and order. English, which replaced Latin, had to appear as perfect as Latin. As a result, some English scholars were greatly concerned with refining their language. Through the use of logic they hoped to improve English.

The first grammars of English were prescriptive, not descriptive. The most influential grammar of this period was R. Lowth's **Short Introduction to English Grammar** (1762). The aim of this grammar was "to teach us to express ourselves with propriety... and to enable us to judge of every phrase and form of construction, whether it be right or not". Unfortunately, the criterion for the discrimination between right and wrong constructions was Latin. As Latin appeared to conform best to their concept of ideal grammar, they described English in terms of Latin forms and imposed the same grammatical constraints.

For instance, a noun was presented in the form of the Latin noun paradigm:

Nominative: the house

Genitive: of the house

Dative: to the house

Accusative: the house

Ablative: in, at, from the house

Vocative: house

Prescriptivists promoted those grammatical variants which corresponded, in one way or another, to equivalents in Latin. Anxious to do it, they prescribed and proscribed many of the constructions used in English from time immemorial. They condemned the use of a preposition in sentence-final position, e.g. *who are you looking at?* or *who are you talking to?* The reason for the condemnation was that sentences do not end with a preposition in Latin. But even in Old English we could find sentences ending with prepositions. The rule 'It is incorrect to end a sentence with a preposition' was repeated in prestigious grammars towards the end of the eighteenth century, and from the nineteenth century on it was widely taught in schools. To quote Geoffrey K. Pullum and Rodney Huddleston, "The result is that older people

with traditional educations and outlooks still tend to believe that stranding is always some kind of mistake.”

Another restriction that the prescriptivists applied to English was the Latin constraint on the use of the accusative form of a noun after the verb *esse* (to be). Since *me* is historically the accusative form of the person (nom.: *I*; gen.: *my*; dat.: *to me*; acc.: *me*; abl.: *by me*; voc.: *o me*), it was considered wrong to say *it's me*. Instead we must say *It's I*. The pattern *It's me*, which had been common for centuries and still is, was thought incorrect since the Latin construction *ego sum* made use of the nominative form of the pronoun.

Another prescription was not to use the construction *better than him*. Writers of Lowth's era used both *better than he* and *better than him*. His preference for the former he explained by the fact that *better than he* can be followed by the verb *is* and *better than him* cannot. His decision and his reasons continue to be observed today.

Prescriptivists disliked variation and change. Correctness was associated with what used to be the case. *Different from* was preferable to *different to*, or *different than*, because the *di*-part of the word in Latin indicated division or separateness, and therefore from suits the etymological argument *better*.

Prescriptivists condemned constructions on account of logic as well. For instance, *had rather* and *had better*, double comparatives (*lesser*, *worser*) were regarded as contradicting the laws of reason. Logic was used to stigmatize some constructions and promote others. The most notorious example concerns double negation, e.g. *I don't know nothing*. Such patterns were traditional. Shakespeare used double negation. However, they were condemned as incorrect.

Last but not least, prescriptivists disregarded English of their day: they would rather draw their examples from the past. Even the English of the best writers of the past was sometimes regarded as wrong if it did not correspond to their conception of correct English.

Prescriptivists are conservative linguists: when there is a competition between an older form and a more recent alternative, they dislike change which is identified with corruption: the language of their ancestors had beauty, but the Language of his contemporaries is always diminished (Randal L. Whitman).

Latinization of English grammar was also reflected in the system of parts of speech. Patterning after Latin, prescriptivists set up a classification of eight parts of speech: noun, pronoun, verb, adjective, adverb, preposition, conjunction, and interjection. The English articles *a(n)* and *the*, having no Latin counterparts, were not given the status of a part of speech, but merely referred to as signs before nouns to identify them as nouns. Some prescriptivists treated the articles as a subclass of adjectives. Only Ben Jonson assigned them to a class of their own. Similar to Latin grammarians, prescriptivists, in defining word classes or syntactic structures, relied either on meaning or function. E.g. a noun is the name of a person, place or thing; an adjective is a word that modifies a noun; a sentence is a group of words expressing a complete thought; the subject is that of which something is said; the predicate is that which is said of the subject.

To sum up, prescriptive grammar could be characterized by the following features:

- 1) Patterning after Latin in classifying words into word classes and establishing grammatical categories;
- 2) Reliance on meaning and function in definitions;
- 3) Approach to correctness: the standards of correctness are logic, which was identified with Latin, and the past.
- 4) Emphasis on writing rather than speech.

As prescriptive grammarians were concerned with the rules for the correct use of English, they could be called the first standardizers of English. Unfortunately, their 'standardization' work was often based on subjective criteria and other languages. However, not all works written in the prescriptive era ignored actual usage. Those which did not paved the way to Standard English, which has today become an objective standard for correct English. Those grammarians who adhere to the norms of Standard English (the English of government, education, broadcasting, news publishing, and other public discourse) are also prescriptivists – prescriptivists in a good sense.

Questions for self-correction:

1. What grammars were used in English schools until the 17th century? What was their aim?
2. What did the Renaissance give to the grammar theory?
3. What kind were the first English grammars?
4. What way was latinization of English grammar reflected?
5. Characterize main features of the prescriptive grammar.

Lecture 3

Тема: Non-Structural Descriptive Grammar.

Мета: Засвоєння елементів граматичної теорії, необхідних для оволодіння практичною вимовою; розширення граматичного кругозору студентів та формування елементарних професійних навичок.

Методи: дедуктивний (пояснення загальних положень з наступним демонструванням можливості їх застосування на конкретних прикладах); метод ступінчастості (розкриття проблематики теми, переходячи від одного ступеня до іншого).

Non-Structural Descriptive Grammar

In the second half of the 19th century the development of prescriptive grammar was completed. The best prescriptive grammars of the period, **C.P. Mason's English Grammar, 1858** and **A. Bain's Higher English Grammar, 1863**, paved the way for the appearance of a new type of grammar, viz. **descriptive, or scientific grammar**: a need was felt for a grammar which could give a scientific explanation of the actually occurring structures without assessing the correctness of the structures. **Henry Sweet (1845–1912)**, the father of a new approach to linguistic studies, described it in the preface to his work, *New English Grammar, Logical and Historical* (1891) as follows: "As my exposition claims to be scientific, I confine myself to the statement of facts, without attempting to settle the relative correctness of divergent usages. If an 'ungrammatical' expression such as it is me is in general use among educated people, I accept it as such, simply adding that it is avoided in the literary language" (H. Sweet). Similar to prescriptive grammarians, Sweet mostly concerned himself with the written language, the language of the best writers of his time. Sweet also adopted the grammatical system of his predecessors, but in classifying words into word classes he was more explicit as regards the criteria, or principles, of classification than prescriptivists. The scholar seemed to adhere to the same conception of parts of speech as his ancient colleagues, parts of speech are syntactic categories – they manifest themselves in the sentence as relational categories: the noun is related to the verb, the adverb is related to the verb, the preposition is related to the noun, the adjective is related to the noun. This approach can be clearly seen in his description of the noun: "As regards their function in the sentence, words fall under certain classes called parts of speech, all the members of each of these classes having certain formal characteristics in common which distinguish them from the members of the other classes. Each of these classes has a name of its own – noun, adjective, verb, etc." (H. Sweet). "If we examine the meanings of the words belonging to the different parts of speech, we shall find that such nouns as tree, snow, man, are all substance-words..."

The term scientific grammar means reliance on facts and the use of the **inductive method**. Henry Sweet was the first to undermine the old tradition in linguistic studies where the function of grammar was to prescribe what is first. Being interested in phonetics, Sweet could not ignore the spoken language: "The first requisite is a knowledge of phonetics of the form of language. We must learn to regard language solely as consisting of groups of sounds, independently of the written symbols..." This is in fact the recognition of the priority of oral speech over written judged to be correct rather than describe actual usage.

Among his followers we can mention Poutsma, Kruisinga, Zandvoort, Curme, and Jespersen. However, of all the descriptivists, special mention should be given to **Otto Jespersen (1860–1943)**, a Danish linguist whose most enduring work is in **the theory of grammar and the grammar of English**. Like Sweet, he proposes three principles of classification – meaning, form, and function. He is much more original in syntactic studies. His theory is set out in **The Philosophy of Grammar (1924)**. It is based on the concepts of ranks distinguished in nexus (predication) and junction (subordination). The term rank is used of successive levels of subordination, or dependency. E.g. in the junction very cold water, water has the highest rank and is a primary; cold has the next highest rank and is a secondary; very has the lowest and is a tertiary. The ranks are also distinguished in nexus, e.g. He (primary) writes (secondary) a letter (primary) every day (tertiary). This sentence contradicts his theory of ranks since a letter is subordinate to writes. If the scholar had been more consistent, he would have had to apply the same principle of subordination to both junction and nexus structure, as he did in his analysis of a *furiously barking dog* and *a dog barks furiously*. Despite this inconsistency, the theory of ranks undoubtedly served as an impulse to transformational-generative grammarians who saw *transformational relations* between predicative and non-predicative structures.

Non-predicative structures were treated as transformationally derived from the corresponding predicative ones – both were built on the same type of subordination.

Non-Structural Descriptive Grammar in Summary

1. Unlike prescriptivists, descriptivists focus their attention on actual usage without trying “to settle the relative correctness of divergent usages”;
2. Descriptivists rely on the English of the best authors of their day as well as the English of the past. To them, change in language is not associated with corruption;
3. Similar to prescriptivists, descriptivists use meaning and function in their definition of parts of speech.

Questions for self-correction:

1. When was the development of prescriptive grammar completed?
2. What was the reason of the appearance of descriptive grammar?
3. What method was descriptive grammar based on?
4. What principles of classification of parts of speech were proposed by descriptivists?

Lecture 4

Тема: Structural Descriptive Grammar

Мета: Засвоєння елементів граматичної теорії, необхідних для оволодіння практичною вимовою; розширення граматичного кругозору студентів та формування елементарних професійних навичок.

Методи: дедуктивний (пояснення загальних положень з наступним демонструванням можливості їх застосування на конкретних прикладах); метод ступінчастості (розкриття проблематики теми, переходячи від одного ступеня до іншого).

Structural Descriptive Grammar

The non-structural descriptive approach to language had its heyday between 1900 and 1930, when it was replaced by structuralism. The father of American structuralism is generally called **Leonard Bloomfield**, who in his book *Language* presented the new approach as follows: "The study of language can be conducted...

only so long as we pay no attention to the meaning of what is spoken".

Followers of this approach sought to study the structure of a language as objectively as possible, without reference to meaning and other languages. By other languages they, first and foremost, meant Latin and Greek, the languages prescriptive and, to a lesser degree, descriptive grammarians modeled their analysis on. English was regarded as a language having its specific structure, and the task of a linguist was to reveal it by using scientific (i.e. formal) methods of analysis. Meaning as a criterion was not reliable since, being unobservable, it could be interpreted differently by different linguists. Therefore the linguist was to devise formal methods of analysis and replace meaning by form; the linguist must be interested in what he observes, i.e. objective data. The structuralists based their conclusions on the analysis of sentences that they had collected from native speakers of English, giving priority to Spoken English.

To structuralists, language is a highly organized affair, where the smaller units are built into larger units, which in turn are built into larger ones, until the largest unit is reached. Such building-blocks are phonemes and morphemes. The structures that we build out of the 'bricks' are lexemes. Lexemes, in their own turn, serve to build the largest unit, the sentence, i.e. the predicative unit.

Structural linguists ignored meaning not because they were not interested in it. Meaning was ignored on the grounds that it was not observable and could not be described objectively by using formal methods. The description of meaning had to wait until appropriate methods were devised. Such being the case, they focused their attention on structural, i.e. grammatical, meaning.

Structural grammarians have pointed out four devices used in English to indicate structural meaning:

- 1) word form;
- 2) function words;
- 3) word order;
- 4) intonation and accent patterns (prosodic patterns).

Present-day English depends strongly on word order to convey meaning. **Charles Fries** argues that "certain positions in the English sentence have become to be felt as subject territory, others as object territory, and the forms of the words in each territory are pressed to adjust themselves to the character of that territory". Function words are another device. Having little or no lexical meaning of their own, they serve to vary the functions of the lexical words.

Consider: *The mother of the boy will arrive tomorrow.*

The words *mother*, *boy*, *arrive*, and *tomorrow* have meaning in themselves quite apart from their grammatical relation, or meaning, in the sentence. By structural meaning is meant meaning expressed morphologically or syntactically; it can be simply described as meaning formed within a structure. So, for instance, when morphemes are organized into lexemes or predicative units, a new kind of meaning emerges which is not associated with the individual morphemes or individual lexemes. They are full, or **notional, words**. But the words *the*, *of*, and *will* express primarily a grammatical idea and have little or no meaning apart from the grammatical function

they indicate: the functions as a determiner of mother telling us that a particular member of the class is meant; of relates the boy to the mother or, in other words, of makes the word boy an attribute, or modifier, of the word mother; it is equivalent to a genitive inflection (cf. the boy's mother); will indicates that the process of arriving will occur in the future¹. The role of intonation is obvious when we have to differentiate between statements and questions, between the theme and the rhyme. Stress, or accent, helps to distinguish nouns from verbs (e.g. .suspect vs. suspect), juncture-pause in speech distinguishes between such structures as night-rate and nitrate or phrases, clauses and sentences. As already mentioned, anxious to be objective, structural grammarians used formal methods of linguistic analysis, such as immediate constituent, distribution, substitution, transformation (deletion, permutation, etc.).

The term *immediate constituents (IC)* was introduced by **L. Bloomfield** as follows: "Any English-speaking person who concerns himself with this matter is sure to tell us that the immediate constituents of Poor John ran away are the two forms Poor John and ran away; that each of these is, in turn, a complex form; that the immediate constituents of ran away are ran and away, and that the constituents of Poor John are poor and John". To put it in more simple language, the constituents Poor John and ran away belong together, for they stand side by side. They are the most important constituents since they constitute the core of the sentence. The same principle of togetherness underlies the constituents Poor and John, ran and away. However, as compared to Poor John and ran away, they are constituents of a lower level: they are subconstituents of the higher level – Poor John and ran away. Hence two levels of analysis: higher and lower where the lower level is subordinated to the higher level.

According to **D. Bolinger**, the principle of togetherness is very pervasive in language. It manifests itself in "our resistance to putting something between two things that are more closely related to each other than they are to what is inserted. Teachers find it hard to enforce the rule of interior plurals in forms like mothers-in-law and postmasters general – speakers want to put the –s at the end. They are even more reluctant to say hardest-working person, inserting the –est between the members of the compound hard-working; and though some might manage it there, probably no one would say farthestfetched story for most far-fetched story".

The aim of IC analysis is to discover and demonstrate the interrelationships of the words in a linguistic structure – the sentence or the word-combination.

It is not difficult to see a similarity between immediate constituent analysis and the traditional procedure of 'parsing' sentences into subject and predicate, attribute, object and adverbial. Thus L. Bloomfield's sentence could be described by a traditional grammarian as a simple sentence whose subject is a nounphrase, made up of the noun John modified by the adjective poor, and whose predicate is a verb-phrase consisting of the verb ran modified by the adverb away. Both the traditional procedure and the IC method view the sentence not as just a linear sequence of elements but as made up of "layers" of immediate constituents, each lower-level constituent being part of a higher-level constituent. The analysis of the sentence *Poor John ran away* can be represented graphically in a number of ways:

a) we may use brackets: (Poor/John) (ran/away)

b) we may construct a tree diagram:

S (=sentence)

a b

Poor John ran away

The tree-diagram given below is to be read as follows: the ultimate constituents of the sentence are: *poor*, *John*, *ran*, *away*; the words *poor* and *John* are the immediate constituents of one construction (layer) indicated by 'node' (a); the words *ran* and *away* are the immediate constituents of another construction (layer) indicated by 'node' (b). The two constructions *Poor John* and *ran away* are the immediate constituents of the highest-level construction, the sentence itself.

As can be seen, in analyzing the sentence into ICs we do not class the ICs into speech parts, nor do we say that Poor John is a noun-phrase. Neither do we call Poor John subject, and ran away predicate. In this respect IC analysis differs from, and is poorer than the traditional analysis. Its

merit is that it does not use the traditional concepts, concepts which are not defined clearly. However, "it tells us nothing about the nature of the elements nor the manner in which they are related".

Bloomfield's followers, Wells and Harris, formulated the principles of IC analysis in greater detail. We will not go into them but will only add that the nodes were replaced by the terms noun phrase and verb phrase; the noun phrase was analyzed into the Adjective (Adj) and the Noun (N); the verb phrase was analyzed into the Verb (V) and the adverb (Adv). These symbols were then replaced by the ultimate constituents – *poor, John, ran, away*. Consider now the new tree-diagram:

S (=sentence)

NP VP

Adj N V Adv

John ran away

Poor

The aim of IC analysis is to show the syntagmatic interrelations between the sentence constituents. Structuralists would agree that if we have described these interrelationships, we have described the syntax of the sentence in its entirety. The shortcoming of the IC method lies in its extreme formality: the analyst, using this method, is not interested in the content of the interrelationships. Such syntactic notions as subject, predicate, object, complement, attribute, adverbial, which constitute the basis of traditional analysis, practically were never used by structuralists. In this way, content was separated from form. And language is a dialectical unity of content and form. Besides, the method of IC analysis is only capable of revealing word relationships within the sentence. The classic example is the relationship between the active and the passive voice: *George sees Mary; Mary is seen by George*. An immediate-constituent analysis of these two sentences tells nothing about their underlying kinship."

The transformational method was developed by **Zellig Harris** in the 1950s. **The aim of a transformational** operation was to reveal similarities and differences in the structure of the units being examined or to reveal the structural potential of the unit. To understand it, let us examine the following structures:

1) Mary has a new car.

2) Mary has a good time.

Superficially, the two sentences are identical in structure. However, they present two distinct structures. Sentence (1) cannot be turned into the passive while sentence (2) can:

*Mary has a new car. *A new car is had by Mary.*

Mary has a good time. A good time is had by Mary.

The structural potential of a linguistic unit can also be tested by this method:

a) *my dog the dog of mine;*

b) *Susan's dog the dog of Susan the Susan dog;*

c) *John gave the book to me. John gave me the book The book was given to me.*

d) *John bought the book for me John bought me the book The book was bought for me I was bought the book.*

e) *A number of people came People came A number came The number of people came.*

f) *Bill fixed up a drink for John Bill fixed a drink up for John Bill fixed a drink for John up Bill fixed up John a drink.*

Transformations help to reveal the existing relations between linguistic structures.

g) *John resides in New York John resides.*

h) *John is my best friend John is.*

i) *John is walking in the park John is walking.*

j) *Mary put the flowers in the vase Mary put the flowers.*

k) *Mary is writing a letter. Mary is writing.*

l) *The door was closed the door was closed by the janitor.*

m) *The door closed The door closed by the janitor.*

n) *The woman looked angry The woman looked angrily.*

o) *The woman appeared angry* *The woman appeared angrily.*

p) *We do not allow smoking in the lecture hall* *It is not allowed to smoke in the lecture hall*
Smoking is not allowed in the lecture hall.

q) *The student arrived late.* *The student's late arrival.*

Through the transformational method we can show the structural potential of a linguistic unit as compared to units exhibiting superficially similar structure. If linguistic units can be subjected to the same transformation, we can say that they are identically structured. But if they cannot, their structure is different. To sum up, the merit of the transformational method can be stated as follows: 1) it enables the analyst to diagnose linguistic structures; 2) it reveals the structural potential of linguistic structures. The emergence of this method practically marks the end of post-Bloomfieldian linguistics and the beginning of a new stage of structural linguistics.

Questions for self-correction:

1. Who can be considered as the father of structuralism?
2. What method was structural descriptive grammar based on?
3. What is morpheme? Give examples of polysemantic and monosemantic morphemes in Modern English and Ukrainian.
4. Characterize notional and structural words. Give the examples of notional and structural words in Modern English and Ukrainian.
5. What does the term *immediate constituents* mean?
6. What is the aim of IC analysis?
7. Characterize the transformational method.

Lecture 5

Тема: Transformational – Generative Grammar

Мета: Засвоєння елементів граматичної теорії, необхідних для оволодіння практичною вимовою; розширення граматичного кругозору студентів та формування елементарних професійних навичок.

Методи: дедуктивний (пояснення загальних положень з наступним демонструванням можливості їх застосування на конкретних прикладах); метод ступінчастості (розкриття проблематики теми, переходячи від одного ступеня до іншого).

Transformational – Generative Grammar

From the transformational method there was only one step to the creation of a new type of grammar, ***transformational-generative grammar***. This method and the method of ICs had paved the way for the emergence of a grammar that could account for the generation of the sentence.

Unlike the structural grammarian, the transformational-generative grammarian is not content with describing what he finds in a corpus of sentences collected from native speakers. He is interested in possible sentences, i.e. the speaker's-hearer's knowledge of a language (competence), rather than in his actual use of it (performance).

There are two types of transformational-generative grammar:

- 1) the Harris – Chomsky grammar and 2) the Chomsky grammar.

The first type of transformational-generative grammar (TG) was developed by **Harris (1951)** in concert with his pupil Chomsky, in the 1950s. By the end of the decade their paths had separated. But first let us discuss the model of TG as worked out by Harris in association with Chomsky. According to this model, a language consists of a limited number of kernel sentences (i.e. structurally the most simple sentences), and their transforms, i.e. structures derived from them. Kernel sentences are generated by the use of the IC model. The set of rules showing how a sentence is generated is called *rewrite rules*, or *rewriting rules*. Consider the kernel sentence *The man hit the ball*. This sentence is generated by the application of the following rules:

- 1) Sentence NP + VP
- 2) NP T (a determiner) + N

- 3) Tthe
- 4) N man
- 5) VP V + NP
- 6) Vhit
- 7) NP T + N
- 8) T the
- 9) N ball

This sentence is derived by the use of 6 rules (rules 7, 8, 9 are recursive, i.e. they have already been used before). From this sentence, applying transformational rules, we can derive other sentences, such as The ball was hit by the man; Did the man hit the ball?; The man did not hit the ball; What the man did was hit the ball; It was the man who hit the ball, etc.

The principal transformational rules that can be applied to kernel sentences include:

- 1) expansion of the verb phrase and the noun phrase, e.g.

John is at home. John must be at home.

We like him. We came to like him.

John is walking. John is walking in the park.

The verb in the kernel sentence can be expanded by using modal and aspective verbs; the noun by restrictors (articles, pronouns), e.g.

John is at home The John (i.e. our John) is at home.

Poor John is at home.

Mary's John is at home.

- 2) permutation – change of the word-order, e.g.

He is a student. Is he a student?

Jane sent me a letter. Jane sent a letter to me.

- 3) introduction of functional words, e.g.

He arrived tonight. Did he arrive tonight?

Ted is clever How clever Ted is!

- 4) use of introducers (there, it), e.g.

A bell rang. There rang a bell.

- 5) deletion of an element, e.g.

Would you like a cup of tea? A cup of tea?

- 6) use of negation words, e.g.

The evening was warm. The evening was not warm.

- 7) passivisation, e.g.

The teacher praised the boy. The boy was praised by the teacher.

Kernel sentences can be nominalized, i.e. they can be transformed into noun-phrases (NP) which preserve the semantic relations of the kernel sentence, e.g.

The bird sings

1) *the singing of the bird;*

2) *the song of the bird;*

3) *the bird's song;*

4) *a singing bird.*

To sum up, this model of TG is divided into three parts:

- 1) phrase-structure rules, 2) lexicon, 3) transformational rules.

First we begin with the phrase structure rule which says: S NP + VP. Then we select the rules that are used to generate NP and VP. Then we turn to the lexicon and substitute words for the symbols. Having thus generated a kernel sentence, we can now derive other structures by using appropriate transformations. This model of TG is rather 'democratic': it does not require that the transformations should fully preserve the meaning of the kernels – they may or may not preserve it. Besides, it is very simple. Hence its great popularity among teachers of English.

The second type of TG was worked out by **N. Chomsky (1962)**, who radically moved away from the first type by distinguishing two levels of the sentence – surface and deep. Besides, Chomsky

gave up the concept of kernel sentence – his model aimed to show how all sentences (simple and composite) are generated in English.

A deep structure is a structure generated only by phrase-structure rules and lexical rules, e.g. *not John past can sing well*. A deep structure that has been transformed into a grammatical English sentence is called a surface structure, e.g. *John could not sing well*. All grammatical English sentences are surface structures; underlying each one is a deep structure. The deep structure of a sentence is a kind of ‘springboard’ for other structures which are generated by the application of transformational rules. As compared to the first type of TG, the Chomskyan TG imposes one important restriction on the transformations applicable to a deep structure, viz. the transformations must not change the meaning of the deep structure. In the first type of TG, Harris and Chomsky would derive, for instance, yes/no questions from related declaratives:

Tom is sick. Is Tom sick?

He heard us. Did he hear us?

But as the transformation would change the meaning of the sentences, questions are not derived from declaratives. The idea of interrogation must be presented in the deep structure of a question, e.g. Q (question) + Tom + present be + sick. This goes to say that declaratives and questions are based on different deep underlying structures.

What is especially new and useful in this type of TG is the observation that grammar is a device for generating grammatical sentences. The rules comprising this grammar are limited in number, but the sentences we generate by means of those rules are infinite. Although most of the sentences we encounter every day are totally new to us, we have no difficulty understanding them because the rules they are based on are very well known to us. A good knowledge of the rules enables the speaker to ‘create’ new sentences every time he speaks a language.

Special mention should be made of the importance of the concept deep structure. TG grammarians would agree that this concept helps us to account for ambiguity and predict it, e.g. Flying planes can be dangerous. The sentence Flying planes can be dangerous is ambiguous because it can be related to different deep structures:

A.

1) Planes + present fly

Flying planes can be dangerous.

2) Planes + present can + be + dangerous.

B.

1) X + pres. fly + planes

Flying planes can be dangerous.

2) Flying + pres. can be + dangerous

The term grammatical means two things: 1) generated by the application of phrase structure and transformational rules; 2) generated by the application of lexical, or semantic rules. Thus the sentence Green ideas sleep furiously is not grammatical because it violates the rule of semantic compatibility.

A transformation which combines two separate structures is called *generalized transformation*, or a *double-base transformation*. In the mid-1960s the concept of generalized transformation was rejected: the type of structures came to be derived in a base component, i.e. by phrase-structure rules.

The era of structural and transformational-generative grammar has already come to an end. However, their achievements have not vanished without trace: they have been incorporated into present-day traditional grammar.

Questions for self-correction:

1. What are the two types of transformational-generative grammar? Characterize each type.
2. What is transformational-generative grammar based on?
3. What are the principal transformational rules?
4. What is *generalized transformation*?

Lecture 6

Тема: The Explanatory Power of Non-Structural Descriptive, Structural Descriptive and Transformational-Generative Grammar

Мета: Засвоєння елементів граматичної теорії, необхідних для оволодіння практичною вимовою; розширення граматичного кругозору студентів та формування елементарних професійних навичок.

Методи: дедуктивний (пояснення загальних положень з наступним демонструванням можливості їх застосування на конкретних прикладах); метод ступінчастості (розкриття проблематики теми, переходячи від одного ступеня до іншого).

Grammar should seek to explain how language is structured, what functions its structures perform, what rules are used to form sentences or word-combinations. Different grammars solve these problems with a different degree of success.

Non-Structural Descriptive Grammar

Traditionally, the sentence is a group of words that expresses a complete thought or a group of words that contains a Subject and a Predicate. The first definition, which is a notional one, is rather subjective since there are no criteria by which we can judge the completeness of a thought. The second definition is not satisfactory either because it rules out verbless sentences. The sentence is a unit of communication, which suggests that any structure that can perform this function is a sentence. To be more precise, *any structure that can express new information is a sentence*. This interpretation of the sentence is also traditional in the sense that it is neither structural nor transformational-generative; it is present-day, or contemporary, traditional.

Traditional grammarians devote a great deal of time and energy to sentence analysis. According to the traditional method, the sentence is analyzed in terms of the parts of the sentence: Subject, Predicate (principle parts), Object, Attribute, Adverbial Modifier (secondary parts). Having identified the parts, traditional grammarians proceed to characterize them morphologically: What part of speech is it? In what form, tense, aspect, mood, voice, etc. is it expressed?

The main shortcoming of the traditional method is that sentence analysis is based on syntactic notions which are not defined clearly. Such being the case, syntactic analysis turns into an art: one and the same constituent is often given more than one analysis. Consider the sentence: *John wants to go there*. There being no clear criteria for distinguishing parts of the sentence, we cannot say for certain whether the infinitive is part of the verbal predicate or the object.

Consider another sentence: *He was known to like her*. It is not clear whether the Subject is only he or he + to like her. Both analyses can be found in traditional grammar. A similar situation can be observed when we analyze secondary parts of the sentence, e.g. *He swam across the river*. vs. *He swam the river*. The word the river is often given the same analysis despite a difference in pattern. The same indeterminacy concerns the analysis of a key in *He opened the door with a key*: is it an Adverbial Modifier of Manner or a Prepositional Object? All this suggests that traditional sentence analysis is endowed with serious problems.

Traditional grammarians cannot adequately cope with ambiguity in language, e.g. *He is a man to watch*. They are aware of the ambiguity and say that the sentence is ambiguous because a man may be given two interpretations: subjective and objective – *He is a man who watches* or *He is a man who is watched*. Although it is a correct account, we cannot say it is adequate: it does not say what is “responsible” for the ambiguity. A similar problem arises when we analyze the sentence *He fed her dog biscuits*. The traditionalist will be forced to say that the sentence is ambiguous, or that it is a trick sentence. He/ she will say that her may be treated as the Indirect Object of fed (fed her) or the possessive restrictor (determiner) of the noun dog (her dog). But he/she will not be in a position to answer the question what makes it ambiguous. Also, in treating the structure the love of God, the traditionalist will admit that it is ambiguous, for the constituent God may be given a subjective and an objective interpretation. Although the traditional analysis is correct, it is not adequate.

Traditional grammarians treat syntactic structures as independent units, although they are aware of existing derivational relationships between them. For instance, such relationships are assumed to exist between active and passive sentences, between simple and composite (compound and complex) sentences, between declarative, negative, interrogative, and exclamatory sentences. However, the existing relationships are not formalized in terms of paradigmatic relations. Traditional grammarians do not see such relationships between predicative structures and non-predicative ones, e.g. *John arrived vs. John's arrival*.

These days traditional grammar, which continues to be based on meaning and function, incorporates the achievements of the past and the present, and, as in the past, is used as a reference source by teachers of English and as a point of departure by scholars. The adoption of new methods of analysis (structural, statistical) greatly enhances its explanatory power.

Structural Descriptive Grammar

Structural grammarians prided themselves on being true linguists: they based their analysis on actual English, giving preference to spoken English; they used '*discovery procedures*' such as distribution and substitution tests, transformations of various sorts, etc. As compared to traditionalists, they were more analytic: their attention was on segmentation and categorization (i.e. labeling structures).

Rejecting traditional concepts and methods as unscientific, structural grammarians focused on the development of a grammar which would be devoid of 'old illnesses', a grammar not influenced by Latin or Greek. It was in the field of syntax that Latinization was the most obvious. As already indicated, structural grammarians put forward a new method of sentence analysis, viz. the immediate constituent (IC) method. The essence of the method is that the sentence is viewed as being composed of layers, or levels – higher and lower. The layers are subordinate to each other. By means of this method we can identify the syntactic relations between constituents that are adjacent (next) to each other. The term immediate means that there is no other syntactic element in between. Consider:

Mary married John.

Graphically, the IC structure of the sentence can be presented as follows:

Mary married John.

As can be seen, the sentence is divided into two immediate constituents *Mary and married John* subordinated to the sentence as a whole: *married John* is divided into *married and John* which are subordinated to *married John*. The highest level is represented by the sentence: the first unit represents a lower level and the second unit, the lowest. This method makes it possible to demonstrate that sentences having identical grammar may have different structure. Consider:

The police shot the man in the red cap.

The police shot the man in the right arm.

The first sentence has the following IC structure:

The police shot the man in the red cap.

The second sentence is structured differently:

The police shot the man in the right arm.

The difference between the two sentences concerns the relationship between the man and the adverbial constructions in the red cap and in the right arm with respect to the verb shot: in the first sentence the second cut is between shot and the man while in the second sentence it is between the man and the right arm. In traditional terms, in the first sentence in the red cap is an Attribute to the man while in the second sentence in the right arm is an Adverbial of Place.

Structuralists rejected the traditional method of the classification of words into word-classes and replaced it by the distributional method, or, roughly speaking, the *positional method*. As there are few forms in English, the behavior of a word in the context becomes a crucial factor in classifying words. But the distribution of a word is practically the same as the function of a word in a sentence. This suggests that the traditionalist also makes use of the same principle as the structuralist. Despite the similarities, structural grammar has an advantage over traditional grammar in being more rigorous as concerns linguistic analysis.

Giving an overall evaluation of structural grammar, it is necessary to point out that it pays special attention to analysis, to the distinction of structural units (phonemes, morphemes, lexemes, sentences). Structuralists were too preoccupied with the sequence of phoneme-to-sentence and failed to see the interrelationships outside the sentence. Last but not least, structural grammarians spent all the energies in gathering more and more examples without trying to create an alien compassing theory of language that “would, as theories must, see first the whole and then the parts” (D. Bolinger).

Transformational-Generative Grammar

Transformational-generative grammar does not teach us how to analyze sentences; it teaches us how sentences are generated in a language. Neither traditional nor structural grammar was interested in the generation of sentences. What is more, the recognition of two types of structure – surface and deep – makes it possible to relate all the sentences of a language and even different languages: sentences and languages which are quite different on the surface often show many similar features in their deep structures.

Transformational-generative grammar can account for any structural ambiguity by relating ambiguous constructions to two (or more than two) deep structures. Ambiguity is the result of the neutralization of the deep, or underlying, relations. Consider:

Hunting tigers can be dangerous.

This sentence can be related to two different deep structures:

DS (1) Tigers + pres. hunt + X + Tigers pres. can be + dangerous;

DS (1) X pres. hunt + tigers + It + pres. can be + dangerous.

As already mentioned, TG makes it possible to relate one sentence to another: sentences are related if they derive from the same deep structure:

DS The manager + past write + the letter

The manager wrote the letter.

The letter was written by the manager.

Besides, TG can relate sentences to other structures: the structures *The letter written by the manager* and *the manager's having written the letter* are related through the same deep structure – *The manager past write + the letter*. However, if we apply the Harris model, we shall be able to derive more structures from the same deep structure, for the Harris model, in contrast to the Chomskyan model, is ‘more democratic’ – it is not bound by the requirement that transformations should not change the meaning of the transforms. Thus the Harris model will derive all the structures derived by the Chomskyan model and others:

Did the manager write the letter?

The manager did not write the letter.

Who wrote the letter?

What did the manager write?

The writing of the letter by the manager.

For the manager to write the letter.

Because the manager wrote the letter, etc.

In view of this, the Harris model is more powerful: it can derive more structures from the kernel sentence. Besides, it is more simple. Being more simple, it is easier to use in the classroom. Transformations demonstrate the cohesiveness of language where simpler constructions are built into more and more intricate ones. The shortcoming of TG lies in its complexity. Besides, language is more complex than transformational grammarians thought it was: it contains structures that can only be described by a very sophisticated (intricate) formal apparatus which would render it useless in the classroom. Transformational grammar concentrates on competence and ignores performance, i.e. the actual use of linguistic structures, which suggests that the picture of a language presented by TG is one-sided.

Questions for self-correction:

1. Define the sentence according to different grammar approaches.
2. What principles did structural grammarians base their theory?

3. How does transformational-generative grammar analyze the sentence?
4. Analyze Harris model.
5. What does transformational grammar concentrate on?

LECTURE 7

Тема: Structural Features of Present-Day English

Мета: Засвоєння елементів граматичної теорії, необхідних для оволодіння практичною вимовою; розширення граматичного кругозору студентів та формування елементарних професійних навичок.

Методи: дедуктивний (пояснення загальних положень з наступним демонструванням можливості їх застосування на конкретних прикладах); метод ступінчастості (розкриття проблематики теми, переходячи від одного ступеня до іншого).

In the course of its development, English, as compared to Anglo-Saxon, its parent language, has changed beyond recognition: it has lost, with the exception of a few remains, most of its inflections. What used to be expressed by inflected noun forms is now expressed either by means of prepositions, i.e. lexically, or by a special position in the sentence or the word-combination, i.e. syntactically. The greatest changes of all can be seen in the adjective and the verb. The elaborate declension system of the adjective has completely disintegrated, and the adjective is now an invariable part of speech (not mentioning degrees of comparison). To quote B. Ilyish, "the simplification of adjective morphology had to be 'paid for' by limitation of freedom in word order". The verb has undergone radical changes as well: personal inflexions, with the exception of the singular 3rd person present tense inflexion, have been lost; new tense forms have come into being: present-day English now boasts of 16 tense forms against two in Anglo-Saxon. To innovations we should attribute the passive forms, the analytic forms of the subjunctive mood, and others. All these modifications have changed the structure of English: present-day English is generally described as an analytic language. This statement is not precise, for English is still in the process of development. We can still observe the struggle between the old and the new, i.e. between synthetic and analytic forms. At this stage, English is a predominantly analytic language.

The struggle between the old and the new can be seen in many areas of English. Consider, for instance, the formation of feminine nouns. Since the beginning of the 13th century, together with the decay of grammatical gender, English has gradually lost the unrestricted power of forming feminines by inflections and has replaced the morphological process by the syntactic, or analytic, process, i.e. by the addition of words denoting sex to the noun:

A visitor a gentleman visitor

A servant a woman servant

An employee a female employee

A teacher a male teacher

A cat a she (lady) cat; a Tom-cat

The process of the replacement of old synthetic forms is also seen in the use of the forms who/whom. The inflected, or old, form whom is disappearing from the spoken language and being replaced by who. It is quite normal to say I don't know who to invite, though in the written language we still find whom. Whom seems to be unshakable in one position, viz. after a preposition: *To whom shall I give it?*

In the spoken language, sentences with whom are not usually used; they occur with who and the prepositions to, for, with in sentence final position:

Who shall I give it to?

I don't know who it is intended for.

Analytic processes are also seen in the formation of the comparative and the superlative of adjectives, where forms with -er and -est are being replaced by forms with more and most, e.g. commoner more common, commonest most common. Other adjectives with more and most include cloudy, fussy, cruel, quiet, subtle, clever, profound, simple, and pleasant. The spread of more and

most can be illustrated by forms like more well-informed and most well-informed or more well-dressed and most well-dressed, where people used to say better-informed/ best-informed and better-dressed/ best-dressed. More and most are spreading even to monosyllabic adjectives: crude more crude, most crude; plain more plain, most plain; keener more keen, most keen.

Analytic processes are also going on in the 'realm' of the verb. For example, the distinction formerly made between shall and will is being lost, and will is coming to be used instead of shall when the meaning intended is simply futurity (i.e. prediction):

I will be there.

We will do it.

The same can be said about should and would:

I would like to know.

We would like to know.

However, there are some co-texts where should cannot be replaced by would:

I insist that he should come with us.

I asked the man whether the boy should wait.

Should is being replaced by would in purpose clauses:

I lent him the book so that he should/would study the subject.

New auxiliaries are coming into existence, for instance, *get* and *want*. *Get* is used in forming a passive:

He got hurt. vs. He was hurt.

Suppose someone gets killed. vs. Suppose someone is killed.

He failed to get re-elected. vs. He failed to be re-elected.

Want is used in the spoken language to mean *ought to*, *must*, or *need*:

You want to be careful what you're doing.

You want to go to a doctor.

You want to take it easy.

Another analytic process that is going on in English concerns the use of the verb *have*. When *have* is a full verb (i.e. when it means possession), not an auxiliary, it forms its negative and interrogative constructions in two ways: 1) with the auxiliary *do* (e.g. *Do you have a car? He did not have a car.*) and 2) without the auxiliary *do* (e.g. *Have you a car? He hadn't a car.*) Under the circumstances, British English would often add *got*: *Have you got a car? He hadn't got a car.* The use of the auxiliary *do* in possessive constructions is due to American usage. When *have* means experience, only the analytic construction is used – in both American and British English:

I had difficulty breathing.

Special mention should be made of the analytic construction consisting of verb + verbal noun: to have a look at, to give a ring, to make a mistake. This is a construction that is gaining ground rather fast in present-day English. The usefulness of the constructions becomes obvious when we compare them with the corresponding synthetic constructions:

A.

He looked at his watch. vs. He had a look at his watch.

He walked in the park. vs. He had a walk in the park.

He danced at a discotheque. vs. He had a dance at a discotheque.

B.

*He had a bad dream. vs. *He dreamed badly.*

*He made a terrible mistake. vs. *He mistook terribly.*

The comparison of the constructions shows that they 'come in handy' when we have to express the completion of the process and when we wish to modify the process in ways other than the synthetic form can be modified. In other words, the nominalized verb has more expressive possibilities than the corresponding verb.

The struggle between the old and the new is a perpetual process. The old forms will not give in so easily. Some of them, for instance, the old genitive seems to be strongly entrenched and even to be regaining lost territories. According to **Charles Barber (1964)**, the old genitive has come into common use with nouns denoting inanimate entities. The scholar illustrates the statement by such

constructions as biography's charm, the record's imperfection, evil's power, criticism's standard, human nature's diversity, amendments to the game's laws. The reason for this must lie in the simplicity and brevity of such constructions as compared to the corresponding analytic ones. To quote Barber, "This tendency for 's to replace of is a movement from the analytic to the synthetic: a syntactic form is being replaced by an inflexion".

The inflexions that remain in English (the third person singular present tense inflection of the verb, the past tense inflection, the past participle inflexion, the -ing inflection, the plural and genitive inflections of the noun, the nominative - accusative contrast in the personal pronouns (we/us; he/him), to quote Barber, "show little sign of erosion". The remaining synthetic forms, however, cannot overshadow the general picture: English has come to rely more and more on function words (prepositions, auxiliary verbs) and word-order in expressing meaning.

By way of summing up, let us recall the analytic and synthetic forms characteristic of present-day English:

A. Analytic forms

A form is analytic if the grammatical meaning is realized by a grammatical word-morpheme, e.g. John has done his work, where the grammatical meaning of the form has done is expressed by the grammatical word-morpheme has. In a broad treatment of analytic constructions, the grammatical meaning may be expressed by words which are not devoid of their lexical meaning, e.g. the man of property or we work, where the grammatical meanings of subordination (or modification) and person are realized lexically by the preposition of and the pronoun we, respectively.

To grammatical word-morphemes we can assign the following: have (John has done the work or John had a dream), be (The work is being finished), do (He does not love her). The status of shall and will is controversial: there is a view that shall and will have a lexical meaning. The status of such constructions as more beautiful and most beautiful is controversial, too: it is not clear whether more and most are adverbs, i.e. notional words, or grammatical word-morphemes.

B. Synthetic forms

Present-day English possesses four synthetic forms, i.e. forms which are an inseparable part of the word. There are three types of such forms in English:

1) outer forms, or outer inflexions, i.e. book + s books; clever + er cleverer; clever + est cleverest; walk + s walks; walk + ed walked; walk + ing walking.

2) inner forms, or inner inflections (sound alternation), e.g. mouse mice; manmen; write wrote written; sing sang sung.

Sound alternations do not play a significant role in Modern English; their role has been greatly reduced as compared to Old English (B. Ilyish, 1971: 25).

3) suppletive forms, e.g. good better best; bad worse worst; go went; I me, mine; we us, our.

In a broad treatment, suppletion – a morphological process in which one form wholly replaces another – is of two types: full and partial. For example, went illustrates full suppletion (go vs. went) while thought illustrates partial suppletion (think vs. thought)¹. Go and went, think and thought are considered as two forms

of the same words because in the vast majority of verbs the past tense is derived from the same stem as the present or infinitive. In Modern English suppletive forms constitute a very insignificant element. Yet they present very widely used words.

It will be obvious that these synthetic forms are not productive in present-day English. This is especially true of inner and suppletive forms. The low productivity of the forms is compensated for by their universality: one and the same grammatical element is often employed to build different grammatical forms:

-s:

a horse + shorses; a horse + 's a horse's; he drink + s he drinks; a drink + s drinks;

-ed:

John work + ed John worked; work + ed worked (past participle);
close + ed closed (past participle or adjective);

-ing:

John works John is working (present participle); John's work is boring (adjective); John's working in the office will only ruin him (a gerund).

Questions for self-correction:

1. What way has English changed since Anglo-Saxon times?
2. How is present-day English generally described?
3. What is morpheme? Give examples in Modern English.
4. What are the basic units of modern language and speech?
5. What do we call analytical and synthetic forms of the word? Give some examples of synthetic and analytical forms in Modern English and Ukrainian.

LECTURE 8

Тема: Parts of the Speech

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The Principles of Classification as Used by Prescriptive Grammarians

Prescriptive grammarians, who treated Latin as an ideal language, described English in terms of Latin forms and Latin grammatical constraints. As already shown, a noun, for instance, was presented in the form of the Latin noun paradigm (Rendal L. Whitman):

Nominative: the house

Genitive: of the house

Dative: to the house

Accusative: the house

Ablative: in, at, by, or from the house

Vocative: O house

Similar to Latin, words in English were divided into declinables (nouns, adjectives, pronouns, verbs, participles) and indeclinables (adverbs, prepositions, conjunctions, interjections, articles). The number of parts of speech varied from author to author: in early grammars nouns and adjectives formed one part of speech; later they came to be treated as two different parts of speech. The same applies to participles, which were either a separate part of speech or part of the verb. The article was first classed with the adjective. Later it was given the status of a part of speech and toward the end of the 19th century the article was integrated into the adjective. The underlying principle of classification was form, which, as can be seen from their treatment of the English noun, was not only morphologic but also syntactic, i.e. if it was form in Latin, it had to be form in English.

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

Non-structural descriptive grammarians adopted the system of parts of speech worked out by prescriptivists and elaborated it further. Henry Sweet, similar to his predecessors, divided words into declinable and indeclinable. To declinables he attributed noun-words (noun, noun-pronoun, noun-numeral, infinitive, gerund), adjective-words (adjective, adjective-pronoun, adjectivenumeral, participle), verb (finite verb), verbals (infinitive, gerund, participle) and to indeclinables (particles), adverb, preposition, conjunction, interjection.

Henry Sweet speaks of three principles of classification: form, meaning, and function. However, the results of his classification reveal a considerable divergence between theory and practice: the division of the parts of speech into declinable and indeclinable is a division based on form. Only within the class can we see the operation of the principle of function.

Otto Jespersen, another noted descriptivist, also speaks of three principles of classification: "In my opinion everything should be kept in view, form, function and meaning..." (O Jespersen). On the

basis of the three criteria, the scholar distinguishes the following parts of speech: substantives, adjectives, pronouns, verbs, and particles (adverbs, prepositions, conjunctions, interjections). Otto Jespersen's system is a further elaboration of Henry Sweet's system. Unlike Henry Sweet, Otto Jespersen separates nouns (which he calls substantives) from noun-words, a class of words distinguished on the basis of function – a noun word is a word that can function as a noun; he also distinguishes pronouns as a separate part of speech, thus isolating them from Henry Sweet's noun-words and adjective-words. Both scholars treat the verb alike: to Henry Sweet the verb includes primarily finite forms: he doubts as to the inclusion of non-finites in the verb. Although the scholar speaks of form, function and meaning, in practice he gives preference to form.

The Principles of Classification as Used by Structural Descriptive Grammarians

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

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

Frame A

The concert was good.

Frame B

The clerk remembered the tax.

Frame C

The team went there.

The position discussed first is that of the word concert. Words that can substitute for concert (e.g. food, coffee, taste, etc.) are Class 1 words. The same holds good for words that can substitute for clerk, tax and team – these are typical positions of Class 1 words. The next important position is that of was, remembered and went; words that can substitute for them are called Class 2 words. The next position is that of good. Words that can substitute for good are Class 3 words. The last position is that of there; words that can fill this position are called Class 4 words. According to the scholar, these four parts of speech contain about 67 per cent of the total instances of the vocabulary. He also distinguishes 15 groups of function words set up by the same process of substitution but on different patterns. These function words (numbering 154 in all) make up a third of the recorded material. Charles Fries does not use the traditional terminology. To understand his function words better, we shall use, where possible, their traditional names:

Group A words (determiners); Group B (modal verbs); Group C (the negative particle “not”); Group D (adverbs of degree); Group E (coordinating conjunctions); Group F (prepositions); Group G (the auxiliary verb “to”); Group H (the introductory “there”); Group I (interrogative pronouns and adverbs); Group J (subordinating conjunctions); Group K (interjections); Group L (the words “yes” and “no”); Group M (the so-called attention-giving signals: look, say, listen); Group N (the word “please”); Group O (the forms “let us”, “lets” in request sentences).

In classifying words into word-classes Charles Fries in fact used the principle of function, or combinability (the position of a word in the sentence is the syntactic function of word). Being a structuralist, he would not speak of function: function is meaning while position is not.

His classification is not beyond criticism. First, not all relevant positions were tested. Class 3 words are said to be used in the position of good (Frame A). But the most typical position of these words

is before Class 1 words. If this position had been used by the scholar, such words as *woolen*, *wooden*, *golden*, etc. (i.e. relative adjectives) would have found their place in the classification. But if he had done it, the classification would have collapsed, for their position can be filled by other word-classes: nouns, numerals, pronouns. Second, his functional classes are very much ‘splintered’, i.e. broken into small groups. This is good for practice but bad for theory, for theoretical grammar is more interested in uniting linguistic facts than in separating them. Third, being deprived of meaning, his word-classes are “faceless”, i.e. they have no character. No wonder, other structuralists deemed it necessary to return to traditional terminology and to use the criterion of form and, additionally, position. Such a linguist is **Nelson Francis (1958)**. According to the scholar, “we must make our classification on the basis of form, not meaning”. By this he means the five signals of structural meaning: word order, prosody, function words, inflections, and derivational contrasts. The same line of approach can be observed in **J. Sledd’s (1959)** and **H. A. Gleason’s (1965)** works. J. Sledd distinguishes inflexional (noun, pronoun, verb, adjective, adverb) and positional word-classes (nominals, verbals, adjectivals, adverbials, determiners, prepositions, conjunctions, relatives, interrogatives, intensive-reflexives, auxiliaries, adverbials of degree). H. A. Gleason speaks of paradigmatic classes, i.e. words having formal features (noun, pronoun, verb, adjective) and syntactic classes (i.e. words occurring in the same or comparable environments). Not only do inflectional and paradigmatic classes coincide in the two works; positional and syntactic classes coincide, too (nominals, verbals, adjectivals, adverbials, determiners, prepositions, conjunctions, relatives, interrogatives, intensive reflexives, auxiliaries, and adverbials of degree). By the terms nominal, verbal, adjectival and adverbial the linguists mean word-classes which lack a paradigm.

A paradigm is the forms of a given word-class arranged systematically according to their grammatical features, but which are capable of being used in the same linguistic environment as the corresponding paradigmatic classes. For instance, the word *beautiful* is an adjective but at the same time it can be used as a noun; it is not a true noun, it is a nounal only, or the word *stone* is a noun, but it can be used as an adjective and is then an adjectival. Consider:

Mary is beautiful. vs. *Mary is interested in the beautiful.*

The wall was made of stone. vs. *The stone wall was high.*

The Classification of Words in Post-Structural Traditional Grammar

Transformational generative grammarians did not concern themselves with classification problems at all: they focused on the generation of potential sentences. The TG theorists rejected the structuralists’ purely empirical approach to language which manifested itself by the rejection of description and the “primary linguistic data” (i.e. a corpus of actually occurring structures) as the starting point. By the advent of TG structural linguistics had already exhausted itself, and linguists gradually returned to the problems of synthesis, i.e. to the account of how speakers produce sentences (competence). In a way, TG theorists contributed to the rehabilitation of traditional linguistics by arguing that TG owes more to traditional grammar than to structural grammar, which was of course an exaggeration whose aim was to emphasize the fact that TG had its origins in traditional and universal grammar. However, traditional grammarians’ work was greatly overshadowed by the work being done by transformational-generative grammarians. This is particularly true of linguists living in the USA and other English-speaking countries. It was only in Europe that traditional linguists calmly continued to examine their problems.

In post-structural linguistics parts of speech are discriminated on the basis of three criteria: semantic, formal and functional. The lexemes of a part of speech are united by their meaning. This meaning is a category forming one. Therefore, it is referred to as categorical meaning. Lexemes that have the meaning of substance or thingness are nouns, those having the meaning of property are adjectives; those having the meaning of process are verbs; those having the meaning of circumstantial property are adverbs. As categorical meaning is derived from lexemes, it is often called lexicogrammatical meaning. In the surface, lexico-grammatical meaning finds outward expression. For instance, the meaning of substance, or thingness, is realized by the following lexico-grammatical morphemes: -er, -ist, -ness, -ship, -ment. It is also realized by specific grammatical forms

constituting the grammatical categories of number and case. These outward features are a formal criterion of classification. The functional criterion concerns the syntactic role of a word in the sentence.

In accordance with the said criteria, we can classify the words of the English language into notional and functional. To the notional parts of speech belong the noun, the adjective, the numeral, the verb, and the adverb. To the functional parts of speech belong the article, the pronoun, the preposition, the conjunction, the particle, the modal words, and the interjection. The notional parts of speech present open classes while the functional parts of speech present closed classes, i.e. the number of items constituting the notional word-classes is not limited while the number of items constituting the functional word-classes is limited and can be given by the list. The contrast notional word-classes vs. functional word-classes do not suggest that functional word-classes are devoid of content. As suggested by **B.Khaimovich and B.Rogovskaya**, function words can be called semi-notional. This distinction is to some extent reflected in the phenomenon of substitution: notional words usually have substitutes, e.g.:

I saw a cat in the street. It was shivering with cold.

He gave me an interesting book. vs. He gave me this book.

John has ten friends. vs. John has many friends.

He speaks English better than you do.

She lay down. Her eyes closed. It was thus (i.e. in this manner) that Robert saw her.

The lexical meaning of functional words is usually so weak and general that these words can hardly be replaced by substitutes, words whose meaning is even more general. Function words have other roles in the language: their duty is to 'service' the notional words by restricting the reference of a notional word (the article), by substituting for them (the pronoun), by expressing a relation between notional words or predications (the preposition and the conjunction), by intensifying the meaning of a notional word (the particle). As for the modal words and interjections, they function as restricters of predications: modal words help to remove the directness of a statement or express the presence or absence of an obligation and interjections serve to colour our statement emotionally. Consider a few examples:

A

The dog is man's best friend (the dog refers to the whole class).

I need a dog (a dog refers to an unspecified member of the class).

I saw a dog running across the street (a dog refers to a specific, i.e. concrete member of the class).

The dog came to our house again (the dog refers to a particular member of the class: you know what dog I'm talking about).

B

He was a member of a famous golf club.

I came here 1972 and I have lived here ever since.

C

Even Anthony enjoyed it.

The video is to be used for teaching purposes only.

D

There are perhaps fifty women here.

If nothing is done, there will certainly be an economic crisis.

E

"He refused to marry her the next day!" "Oh!" said Scarlett, her hopes dashed (M. Mitchell).

Oh dear, I'm late.

It will be obvious that the system of English parts of speech as presented here is not the only one possible. All depends on which feature we want to base our classification. So, for instance, if the classifying criterion is the variability of a form, we shall have to unite prepositions, conjunctions, interjections and particles into one class (cf. H. Sweet's and O. Jespersen's classifications). If we classify words in accordance with the criterion of meaning, we shall distinguish only four word-

classes: nouns, adjectives, verbs and adverbs. Besides, linguists do not agree on the number of features needed to distinguish a part of speech. So, for instance, besides the traditional parts of speech, some linguists distinguish the stative (I. Vinocurova, 1954; B. Ilyish, 1971; B. Khaimovich and B. Rogovskaya, 1967) and response words (B. Khaimovich and B. Rogovskaya).

Of all the parts of speech, the noun and the verb are the most important: they form the nucleus of the sentence, i.e. a subject-predicate structure. However, of the two parts of speech, the central role in the sentence is played by the verb: it is 'responsible' for both its meaning and structure. Consider the verb *break*. The verb expresses a 'doing' situation. This type of situation typically includes the following obligatory participants: Agent, Affected (Patient): Peter (Agent) broke (Process) the window (Affected). Thus the meaning of this sentence is the situation as represented by the Agent Peter, the Process broke and the Affected the window. Syntactically, the Agent here is the Subject, the Process the Predicate and the Affected the Objective Complement. It should be stressed, however, that the number of constituents in the semantic structure and the syntactic structure may not coincide: the context and the paradigmatic properties of a linguistic unit may render the use of a constituent redundant.

Cf. *Who broke the window? Peter vs. (You) get out of here!*

The verb does not only shape the semantic and syntactic structures but also expresses grammatical information, without which the sentence would only have a propositional structure.

Cf. *Peter broke the window (sentence) - Peter + break + the window (proposition).*

The grammatical information which turns a proposition into a sentence is: person, number, tense, aspect, voice, mood, order. We should not underestimate the role of the noun: in the semantic (propositional) structure the noun performs the role of a participant; in the syntactic structure the noun is a constituent. In other words, in both types of structure the noun serves as a building-block. Although it is the verb that is responsible for the form of the sentence, the noun makes its own contribution: it determines the person and the number of the verb: *The student is in the lecture-room vs. The students are in the lecture room.*

The remaining notional parts of speech – the adjective, the numeral and the adverb – are satellites of the noun (adjective, numeral) and the verb (adverb): they serve as their restricters, or concretisers. As for the functional parts of speech, some serve as satellites of the noun (article, pronoun, preposition), others serve as satellites of the verb (modal words, interjections). Some functional parts of speech – the conjunction, the particle – serve two masters – the noun and the verb.

Questions for self-correction:

1. How did prescriptive grammarians describe English?
2. What way did prescriptive grammarians divide words in English?
3. What are Henry Sweet's principles of classification of words into parts of speech?
4. What was the traditional classification of words into parts of speech?
5. What is paradigm? Give examples in Modern English.
6. What were the main criterions of classification of words into parts of speech in different grammatical approaches?

Lecture 9

Тема: The Noun. Grammatical categories.

Мета: Засвоєння елементів граматичної теорії, необхідних для оволодіння практичною вимовою; розширення граматичного кругозору студентів та формування елементарних професійних навичок.

Методи: дедуктивний (пояснення загальних положень з наступним демонструванням можливості їх застосування на конкретних прикладах); метод ступінчастості (розкриття проблематики теми, переходячи від одного ступеня до іншого).

The noun is one of the most important parts of speech: its arrangement with the verb helps to express a predication, the core of the sentence. As already indicated, the categorical meaning of the

noun is 'substance' or 'thingness'. As a part of speech, the noun is characterized by a set of formal features, or markers.

- a) word-building affixes such as -ment, -tion, -sion, -age, -al, -ance/-ence, (e) ry, -ure, etc. E.g. engagement, destruction, marriage, arrival, allowance, persistence, bribery, enclosure;
- b) the categories of number, case, gender, and determination (restriction).

It is also characterized by the syntactic functions it performs in the sentence. Nouns may function not only in the core of the sentence, i.e. as Subject, but also outside the core of the sentence - as Objective and subjective Complements and Adjuncts. Consider:

The old woman is resting (Subject).

Please give that man some money (Objective Complement).

Washington was the first President of the United States (Subjective Non circumstantial Complement).

Mary lives in London (Subjective Circumstantial Complement).

Mary is working in London (Circumstantial Adjunct).

The use of nouns as adjuncts of nouns is peculiar to English; most such adjuncts are singular in form, but some may be plural, e.g. *student activities* (not *students activities*), *women doctors*. Many such structures are merely set phrases that have been established by usage. New adjunct structures are constantly being created because of the increasing need for the names for new entities. Such structures are very common in technical, academic, and newspaper writing (Marcella Frank). As pointed out by M. Blokh, the status of the structures has presented a big problem for many scholars: are they compounds or free word-combinations? This is a problem of English, a language in which compounds may not differ formally from free word-combinations. Cf. *bathroom* (a compound) vs. *garbage dump* (a compound or a free word-combination). If the structure cannot be transformed into the corresponding prepositional structure, it is a compound, e.g. *bathroom* - *a room for a bath*. But: *a stone wall* - *a wall of stone* (a free word combination). Another test is the addition of a modifier: as the most essential feature of the compound is its indivisibility, the added modifier restricts the structure as a whole not one or the other part. E.g. *a big department store*, not *a big department store*. In speech, compounds and free word-combinations are distinguished by stress: compounds have even stress while free word-combinations have uneven stress (O. Jespersen, E. Kruisinga,), e.g. *a department store* vs. *a stone wall*.

The Semantic Classification of Nouns

We can distinguish two grammatically relevant classes of nouns: *countable (discrete) and uncountable, or mass (indiscrete)*. **Countables** are subdivided into proper and common nouns. A proper noun is the name of a particular member of a class or of a set of particular members. Cf. *Smith* and *the Smiths*. The function of a proper noun, or name, is similar to the definite article – both are particularizers: *Smith* means the man *Smith*/the *Smith* man. However, there is a difference between the man *Smith* / the *Smith* man and the man: it concerns the mode of naming. In the first case, man is particularized through the use of another name (i.e. *Smith*) while in the second case man is particularized through the use of a grammatical wordmorpheme, i.e. the definite article. The addition of a proper (i.e.

particularizing) name renders the common name (i.e. *man*) semantically redundant and it is dropped in the surface structure. Another difference concerns the way the two modes of naming solve the problem of the uniqueness of reference: proper names are not always 'proper', i.e. they may refer to more than one individual.

Consider:

A. *There's an Alice on the phone.*

B. *Is that the Alice you told me about?*

A. *There's a Broadway in almost every city.*

B. *The Broadway I'm referring to is in New York City.*

This suggests that proper names may function as common names. To put it otherwise, proper names, when they have no unique reference, behave like common names. Such 'proper' nouns need particularizing by the definite article, i.e. by a grammatical element that marks the entity denoted by

the noun as unique. Proper names 'proper' have unique reference and do not need to be particularized by the definite article. The use of the definite article with such nouns can only be accounted for by the fact that as proper names they are still in the making. Consider: *London vs. the Thames / the river Thames but not yet *Thames*. The knowledge of the said peculiarities of proper nouns is directly related to grammar, viz. to the category of determination and to the category of number. The relation of proper nouns to the category of case is not so clear: proper nouns denoting animate entities are used in the genitive while proper nouns denoting inanimate entities may or may not be used so. A common noun is a common name, i.e. it is the name common to the class as a whole. Similar to proper nouns, common nouns form two grammatically relevant groups: animate and inanimate. Animate common nouns are further subdivided into person and non-person nouns. This subdivision of nouns constitutes the basis for the category of gender in English: person nouns can be either masculine or feminine, while non-person nouns are neuter. Both types of countables – proper and common – serve as a basis for the category of number. The category of case is based on animate nouns.

Uncountable nouns, in contrast to countable nouns, do not denote individuals; they either denote substance as such (material nouns) or concepts, or ideas, which exist in our minds only (abstract nouns). Uncountables, naturally, cannot form the opposition of singular vs. plural within their class: they are singulars only. The other member of the opposition does not exist, or, to put it otherwise, is neutralized. Being singulars only (e.g. *Beauty is rare*), they do not behave in the same way as countables used in the singular: they do not take a numeral or the indefinite article, e.g. *one butter, a butter, one justice, a justice*. They also take different quantifiers (i.e. a word which gives an indefinite indication of quantity, distinguished as such from a numeral, which gives a precise indication of quantity). Cf. *few children vs. little money; fewer children vs. less money*. Uncountables are not primary nouns: they are, as a rule, derived from countable nouns or from other parts of speech – mostly from verbs and adjectives.

She likes lemon in her tea. vs. Here's a lemon.

I taste onion in the salad. vs. There's a large onion in the salad.

Do you like roast? vs. I'll buy a roast for dinner.

Would you like pie or cake? vs. She made a pie and a cake today.

This table is made of oak. vs. An oak is growing in the field.

However, some such nouns cannot be related to corresponding countables:

Would you like tea?

I smell gas.

Would you like cream in your coffee?

Such nouns as tea, coffee, cream, whiskey, juice, etc. are primaries, i.e. underived. But they can function as countables:

Would you like a green tea or a black tea?

Would you rather have a Chinese tea?

Our Chinese teas are especially good.

This is a rich heavy tea.

Is it a gas or a liquid ?

When used so, they denote a kind, type, or variety of the substance. These nouns can be turned into countables by using a container word:

He ordered a cup of tea / a glass of milk, whiskey, beer, juice, etc.

The container word may be dropped and we have a tea, a milk, a whiskey, a beer, a juice. However, such nouns are not countables proper since they function as units only: a tea means a cup of tea, i.e. tea remains uncountable despite the form. Cf. a tea/two teas vs. *He drinks many teas instead of He drinks a lot of tea.

As already mentioned, the other type of uncountable is nouns derived from verbs and adjectives:

She married him. Her marriage to him.

John loves money. John's love of money.

She is kind. Her kindness.

Rose was mad. Rose's madness.

Similar to material uncountables, abstract uncountables can be turned into either partially countables (e.g. He is sinking into a madness) or full countables (e.g. She moved with languor Her movements). To sum up, we can distinguish the following grammatically relevant semantic classes of nouns:

Countables vs. Uncountables

vv

Proper nouns Derived uncountables

Common nouns Underived uncountables

v

Animate nouns

Inanimate nouns

v

person and non-person nouns

Lecture 10

Тема: The Grammatical Category of Number

Мета: Засвоєння елементів граматичної теорії, необхідних для оволодіння практичною вимовою; розширення граматичного кругозору студентів та формування елементарних професійних навичок.

Методи: дедуктивний (пояснення загальних положень з наступним демонструванням можливості їх застосування на конкретних прикладах); метод ступінчастості (розкриття проблематики теми, переходячи від одного ступеня до іншого).

The Grammatical Category of Number

A **grammatical category** is linguistic meaning expressed by the opposition of mutually exclusive forms. The mutually exclusive, or opposed, forms must possess two types of features: common and distinctive. Consider, for example, the nouns a book and books. Both forms denote discrete, or individualized, entities: a book means 'one book' while books mean 'one book + one book + one book...' What feature differentiates them? Number: a book refers to one individual book, while books refers to more than one – 'oneness vs. non-oneness'. The category of number is, then, the opposition of the plural of the noun to the singular form of the noun. The plural form is the marked member of the opposition while the singular form is the unmarked member. The marked member of an opposition must have a marker in the surface structure. The markers of plurality are the inflection -(e)s [-z, -s, -iz]: dog - dogs, clock - clocks, box - boxes. The singular form has no material marker, it has a 'zero' inflection. The other, non-productive ways of marking plurality are:

1) internal vowel change in several relict forms (man - men, woman - women, foot - feet, mouse - mice,

2) the use of the archaic inflection -(e)n (ox - oxen, child - children, cow - kine, brother - brethren).

Some words borrowed from Latin and Greek preserve their classical plural forms (formula - formulae, phenomenon - phenomena, crisis - crises, criterion - criteria, etc.). There is an increasing tendency for regular -s plurals to alternate with classical plurals, e.g. memorandum - memoranda / memorandums; vertebra - vertebrae / vertebrae; vortex - vortices/vortexes; criterion - criteria / criterions; bureau - bureaux / bureaux; cactus - cacti / cactuses; index - indices / indexes; formula - formulae / formulas, antenna - antennae / antennas, etc. The tendency to use the classical plural form is still strong in the language of science. The English form is preferred in fiction and spoken English. In some cases the plural form of the noun is homonymous (i.e. identical in form) with the singular form (sheep - sheep; deer - deer; swine - swine; trout - trout; code - code; pike - pike; salmon - salmon; haddock - haddock; mackerel - mackerel; carp - carp; perch - perch; grouse - grouse; wildfowl - wildfowl; species - species; series - series; craft - craft; aircraft - aircraft).

The category of number is based on countable nouns, i.e. nouns having numeric (discrete) structure. Uncountable nouns have no category of number, for they have quantitative (indiscrete)

structure. Two classes of uncountables can be distinguished: *singularia tantum* (only singular) and *pluralia tantum* (only plural). M. Blokh does not exclude the *singularia tantum* subclass from the category of number. He calls such forms absolute singular forms comparable to the ‘common’ singular of countable nouns.

The absolute singular is characteristic of the names of abstract notions (love, courage, beauty, cruelty, etc.), the names of the branches of professional activity (philology, linguistics, mathematics, pragmatics), the names of materials (steel, iron, water, gas), the names of collective inanimate objects (foliage, fruit, furniture), the names of some diseases (measles, mumps).

As already indicated, some uncountables can be used in both singular and plural. To use M. Blokh’s terminology, “in the form of the common singular with the common plural counterpart”. When used so, they mean either different sorts of materials or a separate aspect, or a manifestation of the properties denoted by the uncountable noun. Consider:

She shouted with joy. vs. It was a joy to see her again. Who can resist the joy of spring?

Georgian tea is of high quality. vs. This is a Georgian tea. I am fond of Georgian tea. Our Georgian teas are especially good.

We can actualize, or restrict, uncountable nouns by combining them with words that express discreteness: a bit, a piece, an item, a sort of, etc.

He took some paper and a few bits of wood and soon made a fire.

Are there any interesting items of news in the paper this morning?

They served a sort of coffee.

She offered me another beer (i.e. another serving of beer).

There were five different sorts of wine.

It will be noted that the absolute singular can also be used with countable nouns, i.e. countables can be turned into uncountables:

The refugees needed shelter. The baby does not like apple.

Man is mortal. We had chicken for lunch.

As for the absolute plural, it is characteristic of uncountable nouns which denote objects consisting of two halves (trousers, jeans, scissors, tongs, spectacles, etc.), nouns expressing some sort of collective meaning (outskirts, clothes, earnings, contents, police, cattle, poultry, etc.). Similar to absolute singulars, they can be actualized (individuated) by using words showing discreteness.

He bought a pair (two pairs) of trousers.

Several cases of measles were reported.

Special mention should be made of absolute, non-distributive plurals expressed by the so-called collective nouns. Consider:

This family is friendly. vs. This family are early risers.

The common, or correlative, plural of the same noun can be illustrated by the following:

Almost every family in the village has a man in the army. vs. There are twenty families in the village.

The absolute singular and **the absolute plural** exhibit a linguistic process called oppositional reduction: the absolute singular means that its plural counterpart has been neutralized, and the absolute plural means that its singular counterpart has been neutralized.

Languages may differ with respect to the count/non-count distinction: what is countable in one language may be uncountable in another. In English, for instance, the basic noun for dust, sand, wheat and grass is a non-count noun denoting the substance, just like water. Cf. *one dust, *one sand, *one wheat and *one grass. In Lithuanian, however, these entities can be individuated: *dulkele/dulkyste, smiltele, kvietys, zolele/ zolyte/zole*. If we want to talk about individual particles, we have to use appropriate words expressing discreteness: a particle of dust, a grain of sand, an ear of wheat, a blade of grass. According to **John Payne and Rodney Huddleston**, “if the particles are very small and non-significant, then the conceptualization is likely to focus on the substance”. Larger entities such as peas, strawberries, potatoes are individuated and lexicalised as countable nouns: one pea, one strawberry, one potato – peas, strawberries, potatoes. In Ukrainian, however, these entities are generally conceptualized as non-countable nouns: *ропox* ‘a quantity of peas’, *полуниця* ‘a quantity of strawberries’, *картопля* ‘a quantity of potatoes’. Similar differences in

lexicalisation can be found with concrete nouns denoting aggregates, and with abstract nouns. Cf. furniture – baldas, baldai; information – informacija, viena informacija vs. меблі but одна інформація.

The Grammatical Category of Case

In present-day linguistics case is used in two senses: 1) semantic, or logic, and 2) syntactic. The semantic case concept was developed by **C. J. Fillmore** in the late 1960s. According to this theory, case is the semantic relation of the noun to the verb. E.g. In I opened the door with the key the cases of I, the door and with the key are respectively Agent, Affected / Patient, and Instrumental.

Semantic cases may correspond to varying forms in the syntactic structure of the sentence. In English, they are marked by the order of words and the use of the preposition with, but in Lithuanian they would be marked by case endings: the Nominative, the Accusative and the Instrumental. The syntactic case concept dates back to the grammars of Ancient Greece and Ancient Rome. It is a case whose main role is to indicate a relationship between constituents. To put it otherwise, its role is to indicate a construction in syntax. Thus genitive is a case which marks one noun as dependent on another, e.g. John's car.

The conception of case as a marker of a syntactic relation or a construction can be found in prescriptive, non-structural descriptive and structural descriptive grammars. Prescriptivists spoke of the nominative, the dative, the genitive, the accusative, and the ablative. **H. Sweet's** views (1925) rest on the syntactic conception of case: case to him is a syntactic relation that can be realized syntactically or morphologically. He speaks of inflected and noninflected cases (the genitive vs. the common case). Non-inflected cases, according to the scholar, are equivalent to the nominative, vocative, accusative, and dative of inflected languages. **O. Jespersen** (1933) speaks of the genitive and the common case. But **G. O. Curme (1935)**, who adheres to the syntactic conception of case, distinguishes four cases: nominative, accusative, dative, and genitive. G. Curme thinks that some prepositions have developed into inflectional particles, e.g. the sun of the man. Some grammarians (R. W. Pence (1947), H. Whitehall (1965), H. Shaw (1952) give three cases in English nominative, genitive (possessive) and accusative (objective). This three-case system, based on the analogy of the form of pronouns, remained extremely popular in the grammars of the 20th century, including some structural grammars (H. Whitehall). H. Whitehall, however, does not reflect the general situation in the school of structural grammar: structuralists at large recognize the existence of two cases - *the genitive and the common*.

Transformational - generative grammarians, who were interested in the generation of potential sentences, did not examine the problem of case in English: they accepted the two-case system without question. Those who adhered to the Harris model treated the genitive noun as a result of the nominalizing process (e.g. John arrived/John's arrival; John has a hat - John's hat); those who adhered to the Chomskyan model treated genitive nouns as primaries, i.e. underived. Only genitive nouns used in construction with the gerund were derived from corresponding deep structures, e.g. John writes John's writing. The reason for this lies in the very conception of the model: transformations applied to the deep structure cannot change its meaning, or, to put it otherwise, only structures that preserve the same meaning are treated as transforms of the deep structure: verbal nouns and the corresponding verbs differ in meaning, while gerunds and the corresponding verbs do not.

Some linguists deny the existence of the category of case in the English noun (G. Vorontsova, B. Ilyish). G. Vorontsova treats the inflection 's as a postposition, i.e. a kind of preposition. B. Ilyish thinks that 's has developed into a particle denoting possession. Other linguists, G. Curme, for instance, treats the prepositions of and to as "inflexional prepositions". To quote B. Ilyish "... once we admit prepositions, or word order, or indeed any nonmorphological means of expressing case, the number of cases is bound to grow indefinitely. Thus, if we admit that of the pen is a genitive case, and to the pen a dative case, there would seem no reason to deny that with the pen is an instrumental case, in the pen a locational case, etc., etc." M. Blokh recognizes a two-case system in English, but thinks that the element 's is no longer a typical inflexion; it has turned into a particle. To sum up, we can distinguish the following case-theories in Anglistics: 1) the theory of positional cases, which identifies the syntactic position, or function, with case; 2) the theory of prepositional

cases, which treats prepositional constructions as analytic cases; 3) the theory of limited cases, which recognizes a two-case system in English; 4) the theory of 'null' case, which argues that English has completely lost the category of case.

English does possess the category of case, which is represented by the opposition of the two forms - the genitive vs. the nongenitive, or the common. The marked member of the opposition is the genitive and the unmarked the common: both members express a relation - the genitive expresses a specific relation (the relation of possession in the wide meaning of the word) while the common case expresses a wide range of relations including the relation of possession, e.g. Kennedy's house vs. the Kennedy house. While recognizing the existence of the genitive case, we wish to say that the English genitive is not a classical case. Its peculiarities are:

- 1) the inflection -'s is but loosely connected with the noun (e.g. the Queen of England's daughter; the man I met yesterday's son);
- 2) genitive constructions are paralleled by corresponding prepositional constructions (e.g. Shakespeare's works vs. the works of Shakespeare);
- 3) the use of the genitive is mainly limited to nouns denoting living beings;
- 4) the inflection -'s is used both in the singular and in the plural (e.g. a boy's bicycle vs. the boys' bicycles), which is not typical of case inflexions.

The said peculiarities are often presented as facts demonstrating that English has already lost the morphological case. However, these are only specific facts, i.e. they do not reflect the general situation. According to the data obtained by B. Khaimovich and B. Rogovskaya, the -'s morpheme is mostly attached to individual nouns, not noun groups, to 96 per cent of the collected examples. Second, the possibilities of the replacement of a genitive-noun construction with the corresponding prepositional construction can only be treated as stylistic differentiation the standard construction is the one with the genitive and its stylistic variant is the prepositional construction: the genitive noun is grammatically more

integrated in the head-noun than its counterpart in the prepositional construction. As a result, the construction the work of Shakespeare makes it possible to give greater prominence to the adjunct Shakespeare. As to the semantic limitation, English does not seem to observe it very strictly: we can come across such constructions as the biography's charm, the record's imperfection, human nature's diversity, etc. Only the fourth peculiarity deserves more serious attention: in inflected languages, such as Lithuanian, we find different case inflexions in the singular and in the plural, e.g. *berniuko dviratis* vs. *berniuku dviraciai*. This would suggest that the English inflection 's is not a typical case inflection. However, we should not use in flected languages as a standard: 'separable' inflections are also known in other languages – Moldavian, for instance.

The genitive in English expresses a wide range of meanings. Two large groups of genitive constructions can be distinguished: non-descriptive genitive constructions and descriptive genitive constructions. The noun can be used in two functions: it can refer to a specific (i.e. concrete, occurring in a real situation) entity or to a nonspecific (i.e. abstract, occurring in a generalized situation) entity:

The children's room vs. *Children's room*.

The construction the children's room is ambiguous, for it may be interpreted in two ways: the noun children may refer either to specific or non-specific children. The ambiguity can be demonstrated by the IC method:

The / children's room (descriptive genitive, cf. Russ. *детская комната*) vs.

The children's / room (non-descriptive genitive, cf. Russ. *комната детей*).

The descriptive genitive construction is similar in meaning to the corresponding common-case construction. Cf. a cow's house vs. a cow house. The difference concerns the stylistic aspects of the two constructions: the genitive noun expresses a complex of images, the very substance of the thing while the common noun, functioning as an adjective, performs a labeling function. Cf. Lith. *Vaiku batai* vs. *Vaikiski batai*. It should be noted that not all non-descriptive genitive constructions can be paralleled by the corresponding descriptive ones: Consider: *the people's houses*. Structurally, the genitive construction consists of two parts: Adjunct +

Head-noun. In other words, it is a structure of modification: the genitive noun serves as a modifier of the other noun. Between the Adjunct and the Head-noun there obtain the following semantic relations, the actual content of which being determined by the semantic properties of the sentence the construction derives from:

1) Possessor + Possessed, e.g. Jane's doll; Peter's hand; John's sister.

The three constructions illustrate two types of possession: alienable

(Jane's doll) and inalienable (Peter's hands; John's sister;)

2) Carrier + Attribute, e.g. Mary's vanity;

3) Agent + Process, e.g. the President's arrival;

4) Patient + Process, e.g. John's trial;

5) Agent + Effected (Result), e.g. Smith's novel;

6) Circumstantial attribute + Carrier, e.g. an hour's delay;

7) Circumstance + Effected, e.g. yesterday's newspapers.

All these constructions derive from the corresponding semantic sentence types. Construction (1), traditionally called the genitive of possession, is derived from a relative sentence of possession: Jane has a doll Jane's doll; construction (2), the genitive of quality is also derived from a relative sentence: Mary is vain Mary's vanity; construction (3), the subjective genitive is derived from a 'doing' sentence: the President has arrived the President's arrival; construction (4) derives from a 'doing' sentence, too, but it may be also related to a 'happening' sentence: They tried John - John's trial; The King died - The King's death; construction (5), the genitive of authorship is derived from a 'doing' sentence: Smith wrote a novel - Smith's novel; construction (6), the adverbial genitive is derived from a relative sentence: The delay lasted an hour - an hour's delay; and construction (7), the adverbial genitive is derivationally related to a 'doing' sentence: They published the newspapers yesterday - yesterday's newspapers.

The Category of Gender

Gender in inflected languages is a grammatical category dividing nouns into classes for grammatical purposes, viz. for declension, agreement, pronoun reference. In Old English nouns were divided into masculine, feminine, and neuter: stan (stone), duru (door) and reced (house). Formal, or grammatical, gender disappeared with the loss of inflections. The category of gender in modern English is inherently semantic, i.e. it divides nouns into *masculine* (nouns denoting person males), *feminine* (nouns denoting person females), and *neuter* (nouns denoting non-persons). Of the said functions of gender, only the last function - pronominal concord - has been preserved in modern English: the category of gender is expressed now mostly by "the obligatory correlation with the personal pronouns of third person" and it is based on the opposition of person nouns vs. non-person nouns.

Persons are either masculine or feminine while non-person nouns are neuter. Speaking of person nouns, the strong (marked) member of the opposition is the feminine member; the weak (unmarked) member of the opposition is the masculine member. The common meaning, or the common semantic feature, is the meaning of person, the distinctive meaning is that of sex: masculine nouns are characterized negatively as non-female persons while feminine nouns as female persons. As already indicated, the term unmarked suggests greater generality: when we do not know the sex or when we are indifferent to it, we generally use the masculine gender, e.g. *If anybody calls, tell him I'm out.*

In the cited example, the pronoun *him* is not a marker of masculine gender: anybody signifies both masculine and feminine gender at the same time. In this respect it is similar to the pronoun *they*: Jane and Peter They came. This usage of the pronouns *he* and *they* demonstrates the linguistic process of gender neutralization, and the said pronouns can be called gender neutralizers.

The sentence *If anybody calls, tell him I'm out* is representative of formal English. In informal English, *him* will be generally replaced either by *they* or by the *he* or *she* construction:

If anybody calls, tell them I'm out.

If anybody calls, tell him or her I'm out.

He has traditionally been regarded as characteristic of relatively formal style. To quote **John Payne and Rodney Huddleston** "The issue of the choice between he and they has concerned writers on usage for some 200 years, but since this use of he represents one of the most obvious and central cases of sexism in language, the matter has received much more widespread attention since the early 1980s in the context of social changes in the status of women...The strong and persuasive criticisms that have been made of sexneutral he by supporters of the feminist movement have led to a marked reduction in its use". To avoid the sexist bias of he, the speakers or writers of English use the disjunctive coordinative construction he or she, which is more common in relatively formal style, but can also be found in informal conversation. It is regarded as somewhat clumsy. A relatively recent strategy is the use of (s)he, s/he, he/she in written texts.

The use of *they* with a singular antecedent goes back to Middle English. It is very common in informal style, and with the decline of the use of the sexneutral he it has spread to other styles. We can observe another relevant linguistic process: the process of depersonification and personification. Consider:

The baby is learning to walk, but it is still unsteady.

The noun baby is treated here as a non-person, i.e. baby is depersonified. On the other hand, the use of it can also be interpreted as gender neutralization: baby -he/she, it, where *it* includes both genders. To give just another example of depersonification:

Four schoolboys during a break are talking about their new teacher:

"Well, what do you think of it? "

"Looks as if it won't stand any rot".

The pronoun *it* refers to the new teacher who may be a female or a male. It implies contempt or disparagement. But its main function is to exclude the referent from the sphere of humanity. It may also be used affectionately:

Mother is talking to her dearly loved daughter:

"What's the matter, sweet one? Is it worrying itself over that letter? "

As for non-persons, they present two oppositions: living beings and nonliving beings. They are of neuter gender, no matter which subclass they belong to. But they can be subjected to the personification process, and when personified, i.e. treated as persons, they may be either masculine or feminine: a cat he or she. It will be remembered that the sex of an animal is not relevant grammatically, i.e. the noun may refer to a female or to a male, yet it will be treated as being neuter. E.g. bull calf; cow calf it; Tom-cat it; lady-cat it. This goes to say that sex and gender are different categories in non-person animate nouns; only in person nouns they are, as a rule, mutually related, e.g. woman she; a boy-friend he; a washer-man he; a waiter he; a waitress she. But: a baby she, he, it. These examples illustrate three ways of expressing sex in English: lexical (a woman), morphological (a waitress), and syntactical (a boyfriend). Personification does not only concern living beings; it may also affect non-living beings. In literary English he sometimes refers to sun, river, mountain, oak, love, death, time, war, etc.; she correlates with boat, ship, engine, train, balloon, aeroplane, moon, sea, earth, country, city, the church, Nature, science, Liberty, mercy, peace. According to Andre Joly, the choice of gender with nonliving beings is mostly determined by the capacity of an entity to exert force: entities of major power are masculine and entities of minor power are feminine.

The Category of Determination

The term **determination**, as used here, means the actualization of the functions (semantic, grammatical, informational, and pragmatic) of the noun.

Semantic determination of the noun

Countable nouns

Semantically, the noun presents a dialectical unity of genus (class) and individual. In the text, it may be actualized as a representative of the class or a subclass as a whole or as an individual member of the class or a subclass.

Consider the following sentences:

1. The dog is an animal.
2. A dog is an animal.

3. Any dog is an animal.
4. Dogs are animals.
5. All dogs are animals.
6. I see a dog.
7. The dog is under the table.

These sentences illustrate different types of semantic determination (or restriction): in sentences (1-5) the noun dog refers to the subclass as a whole; in sentences (6 and 7) the noun dog refers to an individual member of the subclass. As for the 'subclass' function, the sentences demonstrate different subtypes of determination: in sentence (1) the subclass is presented as an undifferentiated (indiscrete) unit, which reminds us of mass nouns (abstract or material); in sentences (2 and 3) the subclass is represented through a typical individual member; in sentences (4 and 5) the subclass is represented through individual members. As the said sentences describe a generalized situation, the nouns in them do not refer to a specific member or specific members of the subclass; they only denote a specific subclass.

Only in sentences (6 and 7) do they refer to the animal class specific (concrete) member. Specificity is of two types: particular and non-particular, or to put it in traditional terms, definite and indefinite.

Questions for self-correction:

1. What are the main indicators of the Noun as a part of speech?
2. What grammatical categories characterize the Noun?
3. What do we call the category of case? Give a definition.
4. Comment on the category of case in Modern English.
5. Comment on the peculiarities of the category of number in Modern English.

Lecture 11

Тема: The Noun. Grammatical categories.

Мета: Засвоєння елементів граматичної теорії, необхідних для оволодіння практичною вимовою; розширення граматичного кругозору студентів та формування елементарних професійних навичок.

Методи: дедуктивний (пояснення загальних положень з наступним демонструванням можливості їх застосування на конкретних прикладах); метод ступінчастості (розкриття проблематики теми, переходячи від одного ступеня до іншого).

Uncountable nouns

Uncountable nouns do not much differ from countables as concerns the realization of the category of determination: in the text they may be actualized as representatives of the entities as a whole or an individual manifestation of the entities. Consider:

1. Beauty is rare.
2. They had a courage that no defeats would crush.
3. Mary's beauty simply paralyzed him.

In sentence (1) the noun beauty stands for the entity as a whole; in sentences (2 and 3) the nouns courage and beauty refer to an individual manifestation of entities: courage denotes a non-particular, specific manifestation (aspect) and beauty, a particular, specific manifestation of the notion.

The definite article generally needs the support of the co-text: off the co-text nouns determined by the definite article are semantically ambiguous, e.g. the dog, the robbery of old people. Does the dog mean a specific particular dog or a particular class? Does the noun robbery mean a specific or a particular manifestation of the entity? We cannot answer the question without recourse to the context. Only the indefinite article is an unambiguous marker: it marks the noun as an individual representative or an individual aspect of the entity. However, it cannot tell us whether the noun

means a specific or a non-specific individual. The conclusion that we can draw from this analysis is that language often needs more than one signal to realize its meanings, the most powerful signal being the context or the co-text.

Grammatical determination of the noun

The article is generally treated as a marker of the noun - full or partial, e.g. a man, the rich. However, not all nouns are invariably used with the 'material' article, e.g. strength. Even countables are not always preceded by the material article, e.g. books. Besides the article, nouns are identified in the sentence by other determiners (pronouns, numerals), prepositions, by the presence of appropriate affixes, their relative position (i.e. by the co-text). The role of the article is often secondary, or supplementary. To prove this, compare the texts below: the original and its version in which the nouns have been stripped of the articles:

It was a hot day. The two windows opened upon the distant murmur of London. The burning sun of July danced on the rosy and grey waters of the Thames (J. Galsworthy).

It was hot day. Two windows opened upon distant murmur of London. Burning sun of July danced on rosy and grey waters of Thames.

Despite the absence of the articles in the second text, the reader still finds the passage comprehensible from a semantic point of view. The elimination of the definite article from the word-combination two windows only affects the communicative structure of the sentence as compared to the original: the two windows conveys thematic information, while two windows conveys rhematic information. We should not minimize the role of the article as a noun-marker: the article speeds up the process of identification and, consequently, it speeds up the process of the comprehension of the text. In this respect the article can be said to act as a compensatory mechanism for the scarcity of derivational affixes which would help us to differentiate nouns from the other parts of speech, verbs in particular, e.g. ship sales where ship may be a noun or a verb, and sales may be a noun or a verb.

Informational determination of the noun

To quote M. Halliday "Information is a process of interaction between what is already known or predictable and what is new or unpredictable". Hence the sentence, which is a unit of information, is a structure made up of two parts: the New and the Given. By Given Information is meant information shared by both the speaker and the addressee: it may be recoverable from the context or familiar to them due to the shared environment. Besides the context, Givenness and Newness can be expressed by the definite and indefinite article, respectively. Consider the following text:

A man and a woman were sitting on a park bench. The man was about forty years old. The woman was somewhat younger. The bench had recently been painted.

How important is the definite article as a marker of Givenness? In this type of text, where Givenness is established through the secondary mention of the entity, the article plays a supplementary role. But in texts where Givenness is established through the shared knowledge of the environment or the world in general, the article plays a primary role. Consider:

A. Where did you find the cat?

R. In the car.

When Givenness is not marked in any way, the text may lose communicative cohesion. Consider: *It was a hot day. Two windows opened upon the distant murmur of London.*

The text "comes off its hinges": the referents of two windows are not treated as part of the shared environment; the use of the indefinite article, i.e. the zero article, suggests that the author speaks of some other two windows, not the windows of the shared environment. In other words, the zero article signals to the reader that two windows is new information.

Pragmatic determination of the noun

Pragmatically, the noun can function as the Theme and the Rheme. The Theme is what we are talking about, and the Rheme is what we are saying about the Theme. Consider:

The ship (Theme) was glistening in the sun (Rheme).

Themes are generally selected from Given while Rhemes from both New and Given entities. Consider:

John (Theme) wrote a novel (Rheme). vs. John (Theme) wrote the novel (Rheme).

The Theme and the Rheme may be signalled by the article : the Theme by the definite article and the Rheme by both indefinite and definite. Consider:

A strange dog came to the porch. The dog seemed very friendly.

The linguistic status of the article

If we treat the article as a word, we shall have to admit that English has only two articles -the and a/an. But if we treat the article as a word-morpheme, we shall have three articles - the, a/an, o. B.Ilyish thinks that the choice between the two alternatives remains a matter of opinion. The scholar gives a slight preference to the view that the article is a word, but argues that “we cannot for the time being at least prove that it is the only correct view of the English article”. M.Blokh regards the article as a special type of grammatical auxiliary. Linguists are only agreed on the function of the article: the article is a determiner, or a restricter. The linguistic status of the article reminds us of the status of shall/will in I shall/will go. Both of the structures are still felt to be semantically related to their ‘parent’ structures: the numeral one and the demonstrative, and the modals shall and will, respectively.

The articles, according to some linguists, do not form a grammatical category. As is pointed out by B.Khaimovich and Rogovskaya, “the members of an opposeme must belong to the same lexeme and have identical meanings”. The articles, they argue, do not belong to the same lexeme, and they do not have meaning common to them: a/an has the meaning of oneness, not found in the, which has a demonstrative meaning. For this reason, they argue, a book and the book are not analytic structures.

B. Ilyish thinks that “There seems to be nothing to prevent us from thinking that a room is an analytical form of the noun room...”. If we treat the article as a morpheme, then we shall have to set up a grammatical category in the noun, the category of determination. This category will have to have all the characteristic features of a grammatical category: common meaning + distinctive meaning. So what is common to a room and the room? Both nouns are restricted in meaning, i.e. they refer to an individual member of the class ‘room’. What makes them distinct is that a room has the feature [-Definite], while the room has the feature [+Definite]. In this opposition the definite article is the strong member and the indefinite article is the weak member.

The same analysis can be extended to abstract and concrete countable nouns, e.g. courage: a courage vs. the courage. Consider: He has a courage equaled by few of his contemporaries. vs. She would never have the courage to defy him. In contrast to countables, restricted uncountables are used with two indefinite articles: a/an and zero. The role of the indefinite article is to individuate a subamount of the entity which is presented here as an aspect (type, sort) of the entity. Consider also: Jim has a good knowledge of Greek, where a denotes a subamount of knowledge, Jim’s knowledge of Greek.

A certain difficulty arises when we analyze such sentences as The horse is an animal and I see a horse. Do these nouns also form the opposemes of the category of determination? We think that they do not: the horse is a subclass of the animal class; a horse is also restricted - it denotes an individual member of the horse subclass. Cf. *The horse is an animal.* vs. *A horse is an animal.*

Unlike the nouns in the above examples, the nouns here exhibit determination at the same level: both the horse and a horse express a subclass of the animal class.

Other ways of determining the noun

Besides the article, the noun can be determined by **pronouns** (all, any, some, another, each, every, either, neither, no; this/that, these/those; my, your, his, her, its; our, their; much /many; little /a little; few /a few; several), numerals (one, two; first, second, etc.), and a genitive noun (John’s coat).

The category of determination can be given even a broader interpretation: it will then include notional words proper such as adjectives, numerals, nouns, adverbials, non-finites, which, when used with nouns, also function as determiners, or restricters.

The article can be attributed to grammatical determiners on the ground that its meaning is the least specific. Determiners expressed by pronouns are semigrammatical determiners, for, apart from the function of individualization, they express other functions. Consider, for example, the definite article and the **demonstrative pronoun**. The definite article identifies the entity by referring it to its

prior mention (anaphoric reference) or to its prospective mention (cataphoric reference), e.g. *A man came in. The man looked very sad; This is the man you were talking about.* The demonstrative pronoun individuates by pointing: this man means the man near the speaker who is the deictic center, or the reference point of the act of communication. To put it otherwise, the demonstrative pronoun does not need prior or prospective mention of the entity. Cf.

-A house is burning.

-Which house?

-This house, not *The house.

Possessive pronouns also individualize entities. However, apart from the function of individuation, they express possession. Cf. the book vs. my book. Demonstrative and possessive pronouns are particularizing determiners. The other pronouns are non-particularizing determiners. They fall into three groups:

1) determiners which are not explicit in regard to the exact number of entities or their exact quantity (some, several, a few, etc.);

2) determiners which denote a small number or a large number of entities or a small quantity or a large quantity of the entity (many, much; a few; a little /little);

3) determiners which denote an absolute number of entities or an absolute quantity of entities (all, any).

Semantically, the **two types of determiners** (grammatical and semi-grammatical) are closely related. Take, for instance, the definite article and demonstrative pronouns: the book vs. this book. This means the + here, i.e. the book here. As this in fact includes the, constructions used with both are not acceptable: this the book; the this book. That is, the article the and the demonstrative pronoun form mutually exclusive determiners. The same holds good for the construction the my book: the use of the definite article is redundant: the feature [Definite] is included in the possessive pronoun. A different picture emerges when we add a demonstrative pronoun, e.g. the my book vs. this book of mine. In contrast to the definite article, the demonstrative pronoun enriches the entity semantically by giving it an emotional colouring.

The peculiarity of English lies in the fact that the demonstrative determiner is not generally used in preposition to the possessive determiner, although some writers do use such constructions, e.g. *this our London*. English usage demands that demonstrative and possessive determiners should be separated.

Similar to definite semi-grammatical determiners, indefinite semi-grammatical determiners can also be used as complex determiners, i.e. we can also speak of the coexistence of determiners, e.g. some other young man. The rules are the same: the new determiner must point out a new aspect of the noun.

We can also observe the coexistence of definite and indefinite determiners, e.g. several of the students are members of the club. The determiners are arranged in the order indefinite + definite. Because of their position, indefinite determiners are called **predeterminers** and determiners following them, **postdeterminers**. Here are some examples of predeterminers + postdeterminers constructions:

A few of the students came to the party.

All (of) the box lunches are in those cartons.

Any (one) of the boys should be able to ride a bicycle.

None of the small children will sit still for more than a few minutes.

Every one of the boys has a locker.

Either of the boys can do it.

Neither of the boys is here.

Quite a few of the students understand the article.

Most of the volunteers are women.

If we omit the prepositions and the definite determiner, the resulting construction will be indefinite:

A few students came to the party.

Any boy should be able to ride a bicycle.

No small child will sit still for more than a few minutes.

Every boy has a locker.

All dogs are nasty, smelly brutes.

Most volunteers are women.

An apparent exception is the case of either, neither, both: the omission of the preposition and the definite determiner does not render the construction indefinite:

Either boy can do it.

Neither boy is here.

I want both books.

Apart from the pronouns, the noun can also function as a determiner: a boy's book vs. the boy's book/John's book. If the adjunct is indefinite, the head-noun is also indefinite, and if the adjunct is definite, the head-noun is also definite.

Questions for self-correction:

1. What is determination?
2. Comment on grammatical determination of the Noun.
3. Comment on informational and pragmatic determination of the Noun.
4. What are the two types of determiners?
5. What is the linguistic status of the article?

Lecture 12

Тема: The Verb. Grammatical categories.

Мета: Засвоєння елементів граматичної теорії, необхідних для оволодіння практичною вимовою; розширення граматичного кругозору студентів та формування елементарних професійних навичок.

Методи: дедуктивний (пояснення загальних положень з наступним демонструванням можливості їх застосування на конкретних прикладах); метод ступінчастості (розкриття проблематики теми, переходячи від одного ступеня до іншого).

Semantic Features of the Verb

The verb is a part of speech that denotes a process in the wide meaning of the word. The processual meaning is embedded in all the verbs. We can distinguish the following types of process: 1) *processes of doing, or material processes*, e.g. Mary is writing a letter; 2) *processes of happening*, e.g. The old man is dying; 3) *verbal*, e.g. She told me the truth; 4) *mental*, e.g. The student did not know the answer; The woman did not see the lorry driving at full speed; She did not feel the pain; 5) *relational*, e.g. John is clever; Mary is at home; John has a new car; 6) *existential*, e.g. There is a dog under the table.

Semantically, the said process-types are expressed by two types of verb: 1) bounded and 2) unbounded. Unbounded verbs are verbs that have no endpoint built in. Such verbs denote processes that go on without reaching a limit, i.e., there is nothing in them that can stop them; they can only be stopped from the outside. So, for instance, when we say: The earth turns round the sun, we do not mean that turns has a programmed limit beyond which the process comes to an end. The verb turns, however, can be used as bounded. Consider:

The wheel is turning. It will finish turning in half an hour.

As can be seen, turning in this sentence does have an end-point programmed. When processes function as bounded, they can be paraphrased using the verb finish: John lived to be old, i.e. John finished living when he reached an advanced age, i.e. when his 'programmed' life span exhausted itself.

When processes are unbounded, they can be paraphrased using the verb stop: John loves Mary. vs. John stopped loving Mary. Unbounded processes can only be interrupted, but not finished. The word finish implies a programmed end-point and, consequently, cannot be used with an unbounded process. However, theoretically and practically traditional unbounded verbs can all be used as bounded: the actual meaning of such verbs is determined by the context. Consider:

A. *Is the baby still sleeping? (i.e. Hasn't the baby had enough sleep?)*

B. *Yes. She generally sleeps (for) two hours during the day.*

Sleep is potentially a bounded process: one sleeps until one has had his fill of sleep. Can we say, then, that the traditional unbounded verbs are a category which has no foundation, i.e. linguistic facts do not support it? No, we cannot. The category of unbounded verbs include verbs that typically function as unbounded; it is only in an appropriate co-text that they change their status. The same cannot be said about boil, for instance, which is bounded irrespective of the co-text in which it may occur. Verbs like boil can be called bounded verbs proper. Unlike unbounded verbs, bounded verbs proper do not have to be 'programmed' with respect to an end-point; an end-point is inherent in their semantics.

So, for instance, the process of boiling (e.g. John is boiling water) necessarily comes to an end; its end-point is the start of boiling. The same analysis can be extended to the process of writing (e.g. John is writing a novel) which comes to an end when the 'program', a novel, comes into existence. Unlike unbounded processes, bounded processes can be paraphrased using the verb finish: John wrote a novel. vs. John finished writing a novel.

Unbounded verbs can be of two types: *stative and dynamic*. Stative unbounded verbs express a static situation, i.e. a situation in which the entity is at rest while dynamic verbs express a situation in which the entity is engaged in some or other activity. To stative verbs belong: 1) cognitive verbs (e.g. know, think, i.e. be of an opinion; understand, believe, remember); 2) perceptive verbs (e.g. smell, taste, feel); 3) affective verbs (e.g. like, love, hate); 4) relational verbs (e.g. be, have, lack). Semantically, they generally present the result of a bounded process. Consider:

John has learned the rule.

John knows the rule.

Mary has grasped the meaning of the word. Mary understands the word.

The dog has perceived the smell of a cat. The dog smells a cat.

Dynamic unbounded verbs express a dynamic situation, i.e. a situation in which the entity is engaged in some activity. To dynamic unbounded verbs belong: run, walk, swim, skate, play, sleep, stand (i.e. to keep an upright position), live, stay, etc. Consider:

Peter is running.

The girl is walking.

The children are swimming in the river.

Unbounded processes have no end-point built in: they either denote the end of a bounded process (statives) or the activity itself (dynamic verbs).

Bounded verbs constitute a much larger class. We can distinguish two subclasses of the verbs: 1) punctual (e.g. shoot, promise, propose, fire, name); 2) non-punctual (e.g. boil, read, write, paint, peel, slice, kill). Punctual verbs have very short duration: the time occupied to express the process is longer than the time occupied to perform it. Such processes are indivisible, i.e. we cannot say The soldier started shooting an arrow nor The soldier is shooting an arrow nor The soldier finished shooting an arrow. Only non-punctuals can be thus divided: He started writing; he is writing; he finished writing. However, not all such verbs have all the phases realized. Take, for instance, the verb arrive which denotes only the final phase while the inceptive and the middle phases are realized through the verb go: he started going; he is going; he is arriving. The end-point of the process of going is the time of arriving. Verbs that denote only the inceptive or the final phase are called achievements; and verbs that have all the three phases are called accomplishments (e.g. write, read, paint, do, make, etc.)

Consider:

John wrote/ will write two letters.

The boy broke/will break the window.

The verb write is bounded. Its peculiarity is that the past and future forms of it can be perfective and imperfective in meaning. When used as an imperfective verb, write denotes the middle, or the developmental, phase (e.g. John wrote letters yesterday); when used as a perfective verb, it denotes the final phase (e.g. John wrote two letters). However, not all bounded verbs can be used so, e.g. The boy broke/will break the window, where broke, will break are perfective only. We will call verbs of the first type dual aspect verbs and verbs of the second type single aspect verbs. To **dual**

aspect verbs belong: *write, read, paint, ring, lead, climb, build, teach, show, spend, learn, etc.*; **to single aspect verbs** belong: *break, put, leave, die, open, take, make, produce, pay, sell, bend, etc.*

Unbounded verbs are imperfective in meaning, e.g. The baby slept well (badly) or We lived very simply. However, in an appropriate environment, unbounded verbs can turn into bounded: The girl slept through everything or He lived out the remaining years of his life in London. Unbounded verbs are generally perfectivized by using an adverbial particle: up, down, off, through, out, over, across, away, etc. These elements can also be used with bounded verbs of dual aspect, e.g. eat, write. Consider:

She ate up the cream in silence or

I wrote down what the boy said.

An understanding of the aspective features of the verb helps both the speaker and the translator. The speaker, using unbounded verbs, has to differentiate between statives and non-statives: statives are not generally used in the progressive aspect, while non-statives are. Cf. *Max is knowing the answer.* vs. *Max is running in the yard.*

Unbounded verbs as well as dual aspect bounded verbs may be used in both progressive and non-progressive perfect forms without a marked difference in meaning:

John has been living in London for ten years. vs.

John has lived in London for ten years.

Peter has been smoking for ten years.

Peter has smoked for ten years.

Verbs can also be examined from the point of view of their syntactic features. We can distinguish two classes: 1) verbs of complete predication (i.e. notional verbs); 2) verbs of incomplete predication (function verbs – non-modal and modal). Verbs of complete predication are capable of expressing the predicate of the sentence by themselves: they do not need the support of other words, e.g. John read a book. It is only when they have to express tense, person, mood, voice, aspect, order and other distinctions that they are combined with function verbs (be, have, do, shall, should, will, would, can, could, may, might). Verbs of incomplete predication are not capable of expressing the predicate of the sentence by themselves. Cf.

John read a book.

**John will.*

**John tried.*

**John became.*

Their role is both grammatical and semantic: through them we realize the grammatical meanings of the notional verb and express various semantic aspects. Metaphorically speaking, they are semantic colours of the notional part of the predicate. Consider:

1) *John will read the book.*

2) *John tried to read the book.*

3) *John managed to get across the river.*

4) *John seems to have crossed the river.*

In sentence (1), will, besides futurity (a prediction), expresses intention; in sentence (2), tried, besides the grammatical categories of tense, voice, etc., expresses the meaning of non-factivity – tried to read does not mean that he read the book through; in sentence (3), managed, besides the grammatical categories of tense, voice, etc., expresses the meaning of attainment – difficult as it was, John was able to reach the other bank of the river; in sentence (4), seems, besides its grammatical meaning, expresses the meaning of epistemic modality.

Verbs of incomplete predication present a problem to the analyst. Such verbs as do and have are grammatical word-morphemes; but the status of shall/should, will/would, may/might, can/could is not clear enough. Consider:

If John came, Mary would be happy.

They came early so that they wouldn't miss the overture.

They made a note of it so that they could not forget.

Linguists are not agreed on the status of the said verbs: some think that in the type of co-texts they still preserve their lexical meaning while others think that they can already be treated as grammatical word-morphemes. An exception may be taken by the verb *be*, which is generally seen simply as a link or mark of a relationship between one element and another. It is distinguished from the existential *be*, e.g. *There is a solution* (i.e. *A solution exists*). This type of *be* is notional.

The semantic properties of the verb are not only related to the meaning of the sentence but also to its combinability with other parts of the sentence. The verb is the centre of a predication: it organizes all the other sentence constituents. The combining power of words in relation to other words is called their syntactic valency. We can distinguish two types of valency: obligatory and optional. An obligatory constituent is a constituent without which the sentence is incomplete semantically, e.g. *John is making*. To complete the sentence, we need one more constituent: *John is making a toy*. The valency of a verb, or the number of syntactic elements it is associated with, is determined by the type of process, or situation, it represents. Let us consider each type of verb and its valents.

Transitive doing, or material, verbs represent a situation in which we find the following participants: Agent, Patient (Affected), Recipient, Effected, Beneficiary, and Instrumental. Besides participants, processes are also associated with Circumstances. Processes, participants and circumstances constitute the semantic structure of the sentence. The said participants are not on a par: some are obligatory (i.e. required), others optional (i.e. permitted but not required). To obligatory participants belong: Agent, Patient, Recipient, Effected. Beneficiary and Instrumental participants are optional. Circumstances also belong to optional elements in 'doing' processes. Consider the following 'doing' sentences:

- 1) *He moved the table.*
- 2) *They built a bridge.*
- 3) *She gave the cat some milk.*
- 4) *John bought her a car.*
- 5) *Peter opened the door with a key.*
- 6) *Max read the book in the library.*

In the sentences, *he*, *they*, *she*, *John*, *Peter*, *Max* are Agents, or performers of the process: the *table* is a Patient, or a participant affected by the process; a *bridge* is an Effected participant, i.e. a participant that represents an entity brought into existence; the *cat* is a Recipient, i.e. a participant receiving milk; *some milk* is a Patient; *her* is a Beneficiary, i.e. a participant for whom some service is done; a *key* is an Instrumental, i.e. an entity serving as an instrument with which the process was carried out; the *library* is a Place Circumstance, i.e. a semantic element indicating the place of the process. The Beneficiary, the Instrumental and the Circumstance, as used in the said sentences, are semantically optional. If we suppress them, the sentences will still be conceived to be semantically complete: they will contain the necessary minimum of information.

A distinction should be made between semantic and grammatical, or syntactic completion. Cf. *John is making a toy*. vs. *John is making*. The sentence *John is making*, which consist of Subject and Predicate, is only complete from a grammatical point of view. It will be obvious that such a sentence is useless communicatively: it does not convey New information, information which is the backbone of any sentence. As for intransitive doing verbs, they are associated with one participant, the Agent, e.g. *John is walking*.

Happening verbs represent a situation in which the participant is affected by the process:

The King is dying.

The old lady collapsed.

These verbs are obligatorily associated with one participant, viz. the Patient.

In other words, they are one-valent verbs.

Verbal processes, i.e. processes of saying or communicating, obligatorily include the Sayer, the Recipient and the Verbiage (or the Report):

She told me the story of her life.

He announced to his wife that he was leaving.

In the above sentences, she, he are Sayers; me, his wife – Recipients and the story of her life, he was leaving are Verbiage, or Report. Verbs of saying are, then, three-valent.

Mental verbs obligatorily include two participants: Recipient Experiencer and Phenomenon. Consider:

Mary heard a strange noise in the street.

The student did not know the answer to the question.

In these sentences, the Subjects are Recipient Experiencers (Mary, the student, John) and the Objective Complements are Phenomena. Recipient Experiencers are participants affected by Phenomena. As can be seen, mental verbs are two-valent.

Relation verbs express a situation with two obligatory semantic elements: a participant called the Carrier and the Attribute. Consider:

Mary is beautiful

Mary has a daughter.

Mary is in the room.

Mary is the Carrier, beautiful, a daughter, the room are Attributes. Relational verbs are two-valent. Last but not least, existential verbs are obligatorily associated with one participant, viz. the Existent, and the Circumstance, e.g. *Once upon a time there lived a king*. It should be observed that obligatory participants may not be realized in the surface structure. Take, for instance, the material verbs *read*, *paint*, *write*: The boy is reading (painting, writing).

In the literature, such verbs are said to have an incorporated object, or verbs with an incorporated participant. In the above existential sentence, the place Circumstance is only implied. And if we place the sentences discussed in a context, the possibilities of the deletion of obligatory sentence elements will be much greater: with a few exceptions, all previously mentioned participants or circumstances can be deleted.

Sentences in which the verb is followed by a participant (i.e. an object) are called **transitive**. Semantically, such a participant is generally the Patient or the Effected. However, it may also be the Phenomenon (e.g. She heard a cry), the Verbiage (e.g. She did not utter a word) or even the Circumstance (e.g. They walked the streets). Transitive verbs are opposed to intransitive verbs, i.e. verbs not followed by a participant, e.g. *The King is dying*.

It is important for the category of voice: the active and the passive voice are based on transitive-verb sentences, i.e. it is only transitive-verb sentences that are capable of being used as both active and passive, e.g. Charles Dickens wrote “David Copperfield” (active) vs. “David Copperfield” was written by Charles Dickens (passive).

Finite Forms of the Verb

All verbal forms can be analyzed under the rubric “The Category of Finitude” (Cf. M. Blokh), which divides the forms of the verb into finite and non-finite (verbals). These forms constitute a system of their own which is united by such verbal categories as voice, aspect and order. The categories that set finites and non-finites apart are tense, person, number, and mood.

Speaking of non-finites (the infinitive, the participle, the gerund) special mention should be made of the infinitive. It has a unique position: it is the principal representative of the verb-lexeme as a whole. The infinitive serves both as the name of a process and as a derivative base for all the other forms of the verb.

The Category of Person

The category of person serves to associate the process with three deictic categories in a communicative act: the speaker, the addressee and the one (ones) not participating in a communicative act. The speaker is first person (I, we); the addressee is second person (you) and the one (ones) not participating in the act is third person (he, she, it, they). The deictic centre of the communicative act is the speaker, i.e. first person. In the process of communication, the deictic center keeps changing: I you; you I, which suggests that the deictic center is always the speaker, i.e. the one who is speaking at the moment.

The three deictic categories, or persons, are, as a rule, lexicalized in languages, i.e. special words are used. These words are called personal pronouns. Apart from special lexemes, the category of

person is often grammaticalized, i.e. a special form of the verb additionally shows which person, or deictic category, is meant.

Special mention should be made of the modal verbs and the verb be. Modal verbs, with the exception of shall/should and will/would, do not show person grammatically. Cf.

I can speak English I shall speak English

You can speak English You will speak English

He, she can speak English He, she will speak English

The verb be is more grammaticalized in this respect: it takes an exception to the other verbs. Consider:

I am/was. We are/were

You are /were. You are/were

He, she, it is/was. They are/were

As can be seen, it has two grammaticalized persons in the singular - first and third person – and no grammaticalized persons in the plural. In the past tense, the verb be does not distinguish person – without a personal pronoun we cannot say which person the form expresses.

The category of person is represented in English by two member oppositions: third person singular vs. non-third person singular. The marked member of the opposition is third person; the unmarked member is non-third person (it includes the remaining forms – first person, second person forms – singular and plural).

The Category of Number

The category of number shows whether the process is associated with one doer or with more than one doer, e.g. He eats three times a day. The sentence indicates a single eater; the verb is in the singular despite the fact than more than one process is meant. The category of number is a two-member opposition: singular and plural. An interesting feature of this category is the fact that it is blended with person: number and person make use of the same morpheme.

As person is a feature of the present tense, number is also restricted to the present tense. Cf. *John goes to college. vs. John went to college.*

The students live in dormitories. vs. The students lived in dormitories.

Goes is singular + third person; the remaining forms are not marked for number. The same holds good for the verb be used in the present tense:

I am/ at home.

John is/ at college now.

The forms am, is are first and third person singular; the remaining forms are not marked for number. Consider now examples in which be is used in the past tense:

I was at home.

John was at college.

The form was, unlike is, is not blended with person: it marks only singular; the form were is not blended with person either. However, it can be used in both singular and plural:

You were at home.

They were at home.

Some verbs – modals – do not distinguish number at all. Still others are only used in the plural because the meaning of ‘oneness’ is hardly compatible with their lexical meaning (B. S. Khaimovich, B. I. Rogovskaya):

The boys crowded round him. vs.

**The boy crowded round him.*

The soldiers regrouped and opened fire. vs.

**The soldier regrouped and opened fire.*

The boys scattered, squealing in horror. vs.

**The boy scattered, squealing in horror.*

The analysis of the examples demonstrates the weakness of the English verb as concerns the expression of person and number and its heavy reliance on the subject: it is the subject that is generally responsible for the expression of person and number in English.

Questions for self-correction:

1. Why do we say: to know the English verb is to know English?
2. How are verbs classified in English?
3. What is the category of aspect? What other means of expressing aspectuality do you know?
4. Comment on the category of person in the Verb.
5. Comment on the category of number in the Verb.

Lecture 13

Тема: The Category of Tense

Мета: Засвоєння елементів граматичної теорії, необхідних для оволодіння практичною вимовою; розширення граматичного кругозору студентів та формування елементарних професійних навичок.

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Introductory

1. Time and tense.

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

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

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

- 1) He + read + now.
- 2) He + read + yesterday.
- 3) He + read + tomorrow.

Of the three constructions, only the first could replace the grammaticalized way of expressing the ongoing process at the time of speaking. Cf. *He + read + now. vs. He is reading now*. The other constructions are not in a position to replace the corresponding tenses: this situation is generally expressed in English by using two tense forms:

- 1) *He read yesterday.*
- 2) *He was reading yesterday.*
- 1) *He will read tomorrow.*
- 2) *He will be reading tomorrow.*

As can be seen, in English lexicalized time is semantically poorer as compared to grammaticalized time. Can, then, grammaticalized time (i.e. tense) dispense with lexicalized time? To answer the question, let us delete the temporal adjuncts from the above sentences:

- 1) He read.
- 2) He was reading.
- 1) He will read.
- 2) He will be reading.

Sentences stripped of their temporal adjuncts sound indefinite: they express the time distinctions in a rather general way, i.e. the processes are conceived to be tied to some specific time which, unfortunately, is not made explicit. Our analysis shows that English needs both ways of expressing time – lexical and grammatical. However, as has been pointed out by John Lyons, there are languages (e.g. Chinese, Malay) that do not have tense. Tenseless languages are not semantically or expressively poorer than tensed languages on condition they have a sufficient wide range of lexical expressions, i.e. time distinctions as expressed by tense should be expressed in such languages by appropriate lexical expressions.

2. Tense and time.

Does tense always show real time? No. Consider the present tense:

This guy comes up to me and says that he wants to see the boss, so I didn't think anything of it, and take him back to the office.

This sentence describes an event that occurred in the past but the verbs are mostly used in their present forms. This use, called the 'historic' present (in other words, the 'past' present), is motivated by a desire to achieve a dramatic effect by bringing the situation into the moment of speaking. Consider more examples:

A rolling stone gathers no moss.

John walks to school every morning.

I leave for London tomorrow.

It will be obvious that the present forms of the verbs used in the above sentences do not show real time, i.e. they are not directly associated with the moment of speaking: a rolling stone may not now be in the process of gathering moss; John may not be walking to school now and I may not be leaving for London now. The first two sentences describe a habitual situation, i.e. a situation that holds at all times. However, this does not suggest that it does not hold at the time of speaking. In the last example, the present tense is used to refer to the future. This form is generally used for programmed (planned) events. A clash between tense and time can also be observed in sentences recounting the plots of books and films:

This book describes a situation where a man is going off to report some trouble somewhere in America...On the way he gets on the wrong train and ends up in the wrong place. (taken from Downing and Locke, 1992) The present tense with a past meaning is often used in reporting information: Peter tells me (i.e. told) he has changed his job. The weatherman forecasts (i.e. forecast) heavy showers in the north. So much about the present tense forms. Let us now look at the past tense forms. Consider a few examples:

I thought you were on the beach.

I was wondering whether you needed any help.

Did you want to see me now?

I wish I weighed less than I do.

If he went tomorrow, he could get all his work done.

He said he would not marry her.

In all these examples the past forms of the verbs do not express the past time: they express present time with the exception of the last sentence in which the past form would refer to future time. To sum up, we cannot simply equate the Present Tense with the meaning of 'present time' and the Past Tense with the meaning of 'past time'. However, the basic meaning of the present form of the verb is present time and the basic meaning of the past form of the verb is past time. The meanings expressed by the above sentences are derived from the basic meanings, i.e. they are secondary meanings.

3. Tense as a deictic category.

Any process must be located in time. Otherwise it is useless communicatively. To locate it in time, it is necessary to establish some arbitrary reference point. Such a reference point is the present moment, or the moment of speaking. Tenses locate situations either at the same time as the present moment, or prior to the present moment, or subsequent to the present moment. A system, which relates processes to a reference point is called a deictic [daiktik] system. Tense is deictic since it relates processes to the present moment: processes that occur at the same time as the present

moment are expressed by the present tense; processes that occur before the present moment are expressed by the past tense and processes that occur after the present moment are expressed by the future tense. These tenses we will call absolute. Tenses that are established with reference to some other point in time are relative. Cf. Mary is walking in the garden (is is related to the moment of speaking; therefore, it is an absolute present tense) vs. Peter said that Mary was walking in the garden (was is related to the time expressed by said; therefore, it is relative). However, the tense of said is established with reference to the present moment. Hence it is an absolute tense, or the tense used absolutely.

The category of tense in English is a system of two-member oppositions showing the relation of the time of the process denoted by the verb to the present moment, or the moment of speaking. The existence of a future tense in English is problematic. We will return to the problem when we have examined the present and the past tense.

The present tense is the unmarked member of the opposition: it is the least specific in meaning and therefore can be used to express a wide range of temporal meanings. The present tense is also unmarked morphologically (except for the –s inflection); its forms are identical with the forms of the ‘bare’ infinitive. The past tense is marked both semantically and morphologically: it refers to a process that is visualized as remote, either in time or as unreality, and in the vast majority of verbs it has a distinct past form.

Present Tense

The present tense locates the process at the same time as the present moment, e.g. John lives in at Oxford now. The verb form lives expresses a process that coincides with the present moment, or the time of speaking. We can distinguish three types of relationship between the process and the present moment:

- 1) the duration of the process is the same as the duration of the report of the process;
- 2) the duration of the process is longer than the duration of the report of the process;
- 3) the duration of the process is shorter than the duration of the report of the process.

Consider the following sentences:

1. *I name this ship the ‘Titanic’*
2. *The Eiffel Tower stands in Paris.*
3. *He shoots an arrow and runs away.*

In the first sentence, the process of naming occupies as much time as the report of the process; in the second sentence, the process of standing occupies a much longer period of time than the report of the process, i.e. The Eiffel Tower will continue to stand long after the report of the process; in the third sentence, the process of shooting is shorter than the report of the process, i.e. it takes us a longer time to utter the sentence than to shoot an arrow.

However, what has been said has nothing in common with the present tense from a grammatical point of view: what is important is that the verb used in the present tense expresses a situation located at the present moment. The form itself does not say how long the process lasted, or whether the same situation continues or does not continue beyond the present moment, nor that it held or did not hold in the past. Whether or not this situation is part of a larger situation is an implicature (Bernard Comrie, 1985). In practical grammars we often observe the confusion of grammar with pragmatics, a branch of linguistics examining meanings beyond linguistic meanings, i.e. contextual meanings. So, for instance, in discussing the meaning of the present tense, A. S. Hornby says that the present in such sentences as The sun shines during the day or Your sister speaks French well indicates that what is referred to could be found in the past, and can be found now and it will be possible to find it in future. As already said, the meaning of the present form of the verb has nothing to do with the above meanings, meanings based on our general knowledge.

Past Tense

The past tense locates the process prior to the present moment. The past form of the verb does not say anything about whether the past process occupied a single point or an extended time period. This is not the job of the past tense; it is the job of appropriate adjuncts or the lexical meaning of the verb. Consider:

1. *At seven o’clock yesterday John promised to give me ten pounds (a single point).*

2. *John Lived in Manchester from 1962 to 1982 (an extended time period).*

As already pointed out, the past form of the verb only locates the process in the past, without saying anything about whether the situation described by it occupied a single point or an extended time period. Consider another example: *John used to live in London*. In practical grammars, the construction used to live is described as follows: "If we say that somebody used to do something, we mean that some time ago he did it habitually, but that he does not do it now." (Michael Swan). As with the present tense, the second meaning (i.e. "that he does not do it now") is not the meaning of the past tense: it is an implicature or the listener's or reader's meaning. If we say that John used to live in London, it is very natural for us to think that John no longer lives in London; if he still lives in London, we would use the present tense. That the past tense does not mean it can be clearly seen from the following text in which the implicature that John no longer lives in London is cancelled, or eliminated:

A. *Where did John live ten years ago?*

B. *He used to live in London then and still does.*

A similar interpretation can be given to past progressive constructions, e.g. *John was eating his lunch when I looked into his room*. The sentence says nothing about whether the situation described by the past progressive construction still continues at the present moment or not. The implicature that John is no longer eating his lunch or that he is still eating it can be qualified or cancelled contextually:

A. *John was eating his lunch when I looked into his room.*

B. *Is he still eating it?*

A. *Yes, he is /No, he isn't*

The Problem of Future Tense

Traditional grammar usually presents English as having a future tense expressed by will (for some speakers, also shall) and the citation form of the verb, e.g. *Mary will get married tomorrow*. But is it a tense? There are several objections to the traditional treatment of the said construction. The first objection concerns the meaning of the future tense in general: the future tense differs from the past and the present tense – the future describes a non-factive situation while the past and the present tense describe a factive situation. So, for instance, when we say that *Mary will get married tomorrow*, we do not present the situation as a fact; we only make a prediction or say what we think will happen. The second objection concerns the meaning peculiarities of will: the auxiliary will, apart from the meaning of prediction, has modal uses which do not necessarily have future time reference, e.g. *He will go swimming in dangerous waters* or *He will be swimming now*. The third objection concerns the expression of a future meaning by the present tense, e.g. *Peter leaves for London tomorrow* or *If it rains tomorrow, we will get wet*. These examples show that we can refer to future time by using the present tense. Reference to future time can also be made by using the construction *to be about to do something* vs. *to be going to do something*. Will then is not the only means of referring to future events. If we choose to say that will is the future tense marker in English, what is then the status of other means? But perhaps will (or shall) can be treated as grammatical word-morphemes? If they are grammatical word morphemes, then they must have lost their former lexical meaning. There are co-texts in which will or shall express a mere prediction. In other words, will is 'demodalized' in the co-texts. Consider:

1) *Mary will get married tomorrow.*

2) *Mary will be twenty tomorrow.*

3) *If John does not change his mind, Mary will get married tomorrow.*

The difference between the past tense and the present tense on the one hand, and the future tense on the other, can be treated as a difference of mood (a speculative one) rather than that of tense: will or shall +infinitive does not describe a real situation, a feature not peculiar to tense. We cannot refer to future events as facts, as we can to past and present events. Events in the future have not yet happened; we can predict them with more or less success.

If we do agree that it is a tense, then will and shall, as already pointed out, will have to be assigned to grammatical word-morphemes. Otto Jespersen defended the view that will and shall have preserved their modal meanings in all their uses. A similar treatment can be found in works by

structural grammarians. So, for instance, Randal L. Whitman says that “The syntax of the modal will is identical to the syntax of the other modals, must, can, etc (well almost), so that it would be incorrect to say that will, by itself, represents a future tense form (of the verb will) unless you are willing to say the same of all auxiliaries”. The same treatment can be found in Rodney Huddleston: “If one looks at the verbal system of English without preconception that the tripartite division between past, present, and future time will inevitably be reflected in a system of three corresponding tenses, then the evidence is overwhelming for grouping will, shall, may, can, must, etc., together as auxiliaries of the same kind.” A similar view is taken by L. S. Barkhudarov, who does not regard the construction shall/ will+ infinitive as an analytic future tense. The scholar argues that shall and will always preserve their modal meanings which, depending on the co-text, either dominate over the meaning of futurity or are considerably weakened. Other linguists, for instance, B. Ilyish, B. Khaimovich and B. Rogovskaya argue that the original meaning of shall or will has been obliterated and in some co-texts they are markers of pure futurity only:

I shall be forty next autumn.

They will know it in due time.

It will take place next month.

But as already indicated, such “pure” future sentences express a prediction: we can predict with more or less confidence what will happen. The above examples are ‘safe’ predictions – predictions which do not involve the subject’s volition. However, to quote M. Blokh, “a certain modal colouring of the meaning of the English future cannot be denied... But then, as is widely known, the expression of the future in other languages is not disconnected from modal semantics either”. We can add by saying that in other languages, for example, Lithuanian, the modal meaning of prediction is expressed morphologically while in English it is still expressed syntactically. Terms do not matter here – we can use the term ‘the category of futurity’ or ‘the category of future tense’. What matters is the way we express the category, i.e. whether it is grammaticalized or not. The creation of such terms as the category of posteriority (B. Khaimovich and B. Rogovskaya, or the category of prospect (M. Blokh) only leads us away from the problem. To attribute the forms shall/should and will/would to grammatical word-morphemes, we must prove that the said words have lost their modal meanings. As we cannot do this, all attempts to prove the existence of a grammaticalized future tense, or the grammatical category of posteriority or prospect, are futile. At present we could speak of a semi-grammaticalized future tense despite the existence of the so-called predictive future forms expressed by shall or will which are only demodalized (i.e. lose the meaning of obligation and volition) in specific co-texts.

There are signs that shall and will are turning into a kind of inflection (similar to the genitive inflection ‘s), e.g. *I’ll do it tomorrow*. The contracted form ‘ll, which is a feature of spoken English, neutralizes the distinction between shall and will and at the same time turns into a marker of futurity. However, the element ‘ll may be convenient enough when the subject is expressed by a personal pronoun, but it may be cumbersome and not quite suitable phonologically when the subject is expressed by a noun. Cf. *I’ll go* – *Victor’ll go* or *Beryl’ll go*. The possibility of misinterpretation of such constructions in oral speech (*Victor’ll* may be treated as a name) may be a discouraging factor in the use of the element with nouns. Whether the clitic ‘ll will completely replace shall and will is a question that cannot be answered now. But if it does, we shall then have the right to speak of a grammatical future in English.

To sum up, English has no grammatical category that can be analyzed as a future tense. Shall and will are auxiliaries of mood, not tense. Although English has no grammatical future tense, it has numerous constructions which permit a future time interpretation:

[Give] her my regards (imperative);

It is essential[that she tell the truth] (mandative);

The match [starts] tomorrow (main clause present futurate);

If [she goes], I’ll go too (subordinate present);

I may/will [see her tomorrow] (bare infinitival);

I intend/want [to see her tomorrow] (to-infinitival);

*I intend/am [seeing her tomorrow] (gerund-participial) (see Rodney Huddleston, *ibid.*).*

Absolute and Relative Tenses

Depending on the nature of the reference point (deictic center), tense forms can be of two types: absolute (primary) and absolute-relative (secondary). In **absolute tenses** the point of time from which we measure the time of the process is the present moment only, i.e. the time of the speaker, e.g. John visited his mother yesterday. Here the speaker locates the process of visiting in the past. As for **absolute-relative tenses**, the point of time from which we measure the time of the processes are the present time and some other time. Typically they are expressed in a complex sentence.

Consider: *John said that he visited his mother once a week.*

John said that he would visit his mother once a week.

John said that he had visited his mother once a week.

The form said is used absolutely, i.e. the process of saying is located with reference to the present time. In other words, the form said describes a situation in the past. The forms *visited*, *would visit* and *had visited* are dependent, or relative to the point of time established by the form said: the time of visited coincides with the time of said (both processes took place in the past simultaneously); the time of would visit is posterior to the time of said and the time of had visited is prior to the time of said. Processes that are simultaneous with the time of reference point are expressed by the past simple or past continuous forms; processes that occur after the reference point are expressed by the so-called future-in-the-past form, and processes that precede the reference point are expressed by the past perfect tense forms. Special mention should be made of the perfect forms of the verb. Consider:

The President has arrived.

The President had arrived by six o'clock yesterday.

The President will have arrived by six o'clock tomorrow.

The form *has arrived* is temporally complex: it is based on two time points – present and past. The present is indicated by the form *has* and the past by *arrived*. The role of *has* is to relate the process of arriving to the reference point, which is the moment of speaking. In view of this, the present perfect tense form is used absolutely. The other perfect forms are absolute-relative. The forms *had arrived* and *will have arrived* are related both to the moment of speaking and to the moment established by the adverbial six o'clock yesterday and six o'clock tomorrow, respectively. The form *had arrived* establishes the point of time prior to the moment of speaking and *will have arrived* establishes the point of time after the moment of speaking. However, the forms as a whole – *had arrived* and *will have arrived* also relate the process to the time denoted by the said adverbials (relative use). Relative tenses are typically used in subordinate clauses: object and temporal. Consider:

Mary said she wanted to be a teacher.

When John came home, Jane was watching a TV programme.

Object clauses are reported statements, questions, and exclamations. In reported speech, two obvious changes take place: 1) the speaker's original wording may be changed (leave depart, for instance); 2) the deictic center is changed. This change involves other changes. Cf. *Mary said: "I want to be a teacher"*. *Mary said that she wanted to be a teacher.*

One such change is a change of the personal pronoun: I she; the other change concerns tense: the present absolute tense changes to the past relative tense to correspond to the deictic center established by the verb in the reporting clause. As the tense of this utterance denotes a past time, the tense of the reported clause must also denote a past time. To put it otherwise, with the main clause describing a past situation, the subordinate clause, which presents the content of the past situation, must be based on a past form of the verb.

The correspondence between the tenses is called the **sequence of tenses**. It should be observed that the English sequence of tense rule is subject to one interesting modification: even when the main verb is in a past tense, it is possible to use the tense absolutely in the reported clause provided the content of the reported clause still has validity. Cf. *John said that he was ill.* vs. *John said that he is ill.* In the first sentence, the speaker is not explicit as to whether John is still ill or not; in the second sentence, the speaker is reporting an illness which he believes still has relevance.

Questions for self-correction:

1. What are the three divisions of time? Which of them is the most important? Why?

2. What are the main means of expressing temporality?
3. What is an absolute, relative and transposed use of tenses?
4. How is the correspondence of tenses called?

Lecture 14

Тема: The Category of Aspect

Мета: Засвоєння елементів граматичної теорії, необхідних для оволодіння практичною вимовою; розширення граматичного кругозору студентів та формування елементарних професійних навичок.

Методи: дедуктивний (пояснення загальних положень з наступним демонструванням можливості їх застосування на конкретних прикладах); метод ступінчастості (розкриття проблематики теми, переходячи від одного ступеня до іншого).

The category of aspect is concerned with the internal character of the process denoted by the verb: the process can be durative (i.e. considered as continuing or as being in progress) or non-durative (i.e. considered as noncontinuing, or completed). Consider: *John wrote letters yesterday. vs. John wrote two letters yesterday.*

As can be seen, the form wrote in the two sentences denotes two types of process: durative and non-durative. This is lexical aspect since wrote has no morphological, or grammatical markers that would signal one or the other aspect. Thanks to its meaning peculiarities, write, depending on the co-text, can denote either a process seen as developing or a process seen as accomplished.

Theoretical grammar is naturally concerned with grammaticalized aspective forms. Unfortunately, English is only in a position to express duration grammatically (completion is expressed lexically). However, duration expressed by the so-called progressive forms differs from the duration expressed lexically. To see the difference, compare the following sentences:

John wrote letters yesterday. vs.

John was writing a letter when his wife returned.

Traditional grammarians analyze the sentences as follows: the durative process of wrote is not tied to a specific moment, i.e. the duration of the process is not specific in this respect. But the process of was writing concerns a specific moment – when his wife returned. Specific duration is relatively short duration, i.e. the process is viewed as temporary. Cf. *He walks to work every morning. vs. He is walking to work now/this week.* The moment the progressive form is connected to may denote a short or a relatively long period (now vs. this week, this year) treated as specific point of time. Can yesterday be treated as such a point? It can if the process occupied the whole period denoted by the adverbial, e.g. *John was writing all day yesterday.* The same is true of tomorrow and other temporal adverbials, e.g. *John will be writing all day tomorrow.* As the process denoted by the progressive form is specific, the present, past and future forms can be referred to as the real present, the real past and the real future compared to the corresponding non-progressive forms which generally denote habitual situations (e.g. *John walks to work*).

What has been said about the progressive aspect so far is somewhat superficial: it fails to reveal the inherent (the invariant) function of the progressive: the progressive is used to present a durative situation as dynamic, or developing. Consider:

1. *John is working in the library.*

2. *This process has been going on ever since the beginning of time.*

Dynamic durative situations are specific, i.e. they are tied to a particular moment; they include the moment and do not overstep its temporal boundaries. Thus, when we say *John is working in the library*, we merely indicate what John is doing at the moment of speaking. Our experience tells us that John must have started working before this moment and, consequently, he is now in the middle phase of the process. It will be obvious, however, that this is only an implicature and has nothing to do with the meaning of the progressive. The phases of the process can be explicitly expressed in the co-text only. Consider:

1. *Mother was just boiling water when the telephone rang (the beginning phase).*

2. *Between 10 and 12 I was working in the library (the beginning, the middle and the terminal phases).*

Being confined to a particular moment, dynamic durative situations are of relatively limited duration, the limit being established by appropriate temporal circumstances (now, today, this week, this month, this year, this century, this millennium, etc.). As for non-specific (i.e. habitual) durative situations, their duration is not restricted in this way: they are typically restricted by circumstances denoting the frequency of the process, e.g. John works in the library every day, where every day indicates that we are dealing with a multiple situation rather than a singularly situation. Such circumstantial elements as this week, this month may be said to express a multiple situation as well: this week = seven weekdays. This is true, but such circumstances, when they combine with the progressive, are interpreted as singularly points of time.

The category of aspect, then, consists of two members: progressive and non-progressive. The progressive form is marked and the non-progressive is unmarked. Outside the co-text, the unmarked form denotes non-specific duration or non-duration, or completion. Consider:

Mother was reading old letters yesterday (specific duration).

Mother read old letters yesterday (non-specific duration).

Mother read two old letters yesterday (non-duration).

Progressive forms are relatively new forms in English. According to B. Ylyish, in Anglo-Saxon (700 A.D. – 1100 A.D.) such forms did not exist: the aspective meanings were actualized by the co-text. The first instances of the progressive aspect appear in Middle English (1100 – 1500); they were still rare in Early Modern English (in the 17th and 18th centuries). In the 17th century they were considered a feature of spoken English and were not used in poetry. William Wordsworth (1770 – 1850) was the first to use progressive forms in his poem *Written in March* (1802):

The cork is crowing,
The stream is flowing.

The cattle are grazing,
Their heads never raising.

Small clouds are sailing,
Blue sky prevailing;
The rain is over and gone!

According to B. Ylyish, “at this time this use of continuous forms in poetry seemed very bold and almost vulgar”. With regard to the category of aspect, verbs are divided into two categories: those that have not aspect opposites and those that have. To the first category belong stative verbs (mental, relational, and existential); to the second category belong process, achievement, and accomplishment verbs. That stative verbs are not used in the progressive form is a statement we usually find in reference grammars. However, actual usage does not bear it out. Theoretically, any verb can express specific dynamic duration. Consider a few examples taken from Henryk Katuze:

1) *“For the moment I’m believing him; he’d better turn out to be right”.*

2) *“The trouble is that we’re disregarding Roosevelt’s advice; we’re fearing fear itself”.*

3) *“First she likes this and then she likes that; right now she’s liking Marlon Brando”.*

4) *“He’s loving Jane this week”.*

5) *“Did you hurt yourself?” “Well, I’m seeing stars, but otherwise I’m all right”.*

6) *“I’m understanding gender in the limited sense”.*

7) *“He is putting his pen down”.*

To these examples we can add the so-called behavioural process sentences, such as John is being foolish. Cf. John is foolish. The first sentence describes John’s temporary state (i.e. he is acting foolishly at a specific moment), while the second sentence speaks of John’s permanent state (i.e. he generally acts foolishly).

As can be seen, the progressive form has the effect of dynamizing the process; i.e. owing to it the process can be viewed as developing. Process (atelic) verbs (i.e. verbs denoting duration) are dynamic verbs and, consequently, can be used in the progressive form without any restrictions.

More problematic are achievement verbs (i.e. verbs denoting the initial or the final phase of the process). Such verbs resemble momentary, or point-action verbs. Consider:

He started singing.

He finished singing.

The verbs start and finish denote relatively short duration and are not the best candidates for the progressive form. However, when we wish to 'stretch out' the process, or increase its duration, we can do it using the progressive form:

He is starting singing.

He is finishing singing.

Take other, more common examples:

John is arriving at the hotel.

Mary is winning.

The verbs arrive and win are achievement verbs: they denote the final phase of the process. When used in the progressive form, they implicate the middle phase of the process, e.g. Mother is boiling the water.

7. Інструктивно-методичні матеріали до практичних занять.

Практичне заняття № 1

Розмовна тема “Типи особистостей”. “Теорія К.Юнга”.

Граматика: Типи питань. Питання. Теперішній неозначений час. Теперішній тривалий час.

Мета: оволодіти лексичним матеріалом по темі заняття, засвоїти граматичний матеріал, вміти використовувати свої знання на практиці: у монологічному мовленні та діалозі, усно та письмово; розвивати навички аудіювання.

Актуалізація опорних знань: володіння лексичним матеріалом з теми заняття надає можливість студенту вільно розмовляти і підтримувати бесіди про погоду та погодні явища.

Зміст основної частини заняття:

стр. 6-7 (Coursebook). Виконати впр. 1-2 стр. 6.

Узагальнення та систематизація вмінь і навичок:

Аудіювання впр. 3 стр. 6 (Coursebook).

Введення граматичної теми стр. 126 (Coursebook).

Автоматизація граматичного матеріалу Впр. 4-6 стр.7

Підведення підсумків заняття: оголошення оцінок та домашнього завдання на наступне заняття.

Домашнє завдання Впр. 1-4 стр. 4 (Workbook).

Практичне заняття № 2

Розмовна тема “Оцінюючи особистість”.

Граматика: Теперішній неозначений час. Теперішній тривалий час (запитання).

Мета заняття: оволодіти лексичним матеріалом по темі заняття, засвоїти граматичний матеріал, розвиток навичок письма, вміти використовувати свої знання на практиці: у монологічному мовленні та діалозі, усно та письмово.

Актуалізація опорних знань: володіння лексичним матеріалом з теми заняття надає можливість студенту вільно розмовляти і підтримувати бесіди. **Зміст основної частини заняття:**

Перевірити домашнє завдання. Повторити граматичну тему.

Обговорити питання впр. 7 стр. 7 (Coursebook).

Введення граматичної теми стр. 126 (Coursebook).

Узагальнення та систематизація вмінь і навичок:

Автоматизація граматичного матеріалу Впр. 4-5 стр.9

Підведення підсумків заняття: оголошення оцінок та домашнього завдання на наступне заняття.

Домашнє завдання Впр. 5-8 стр.5 (Workbook).

Практичне заняття № 3

Розмовна тема “Харизматичні особистості”.

Граматика: Теперішній неозначений час. Теперішній тривалий час.

Мета заняття: оволодіти лексичним матеріалом по темі заняття, засвоїти граматичний матеріал, розвиток навичок письма, вміти використовувати свої знання на практиці: у монологічному мовленні та діалозі, усно та письмово.

Актуалізація опорних знань: володіння лексичним матеріалом з теми заняття надає можливість студенту вільно розмовляти і підтримувати бесіди про погоду та погодні явища.

Зміст основної частини заняття:

Перевірити домашнє завдання. Повторити граматичну тему.

Обговорити питання впр. 1 стр.8 (Coursebook).

Перевірити розуміння слів: familiar, to last, to melt, scary, to burst, community.

Опрацювати текст стр. 8.

Узагальнення та систематизація вмінь і навичок:

Виконати вправи до тексту (впр. 2а-с стр. 8).

Робота над словниковим запасом (впр. 3а-б стр. 9).

Підведення підсумків заняття: оголошення оцінок та домашнього завдання на наступне заняття.

Домашнє завдання Впр. 1-8 стр. 6-7 (Workbook).

Практичне заняття № 4

Розмовна тема “Порівняльне есе”

Граматика: Теперішній неозначений час. Теперішній тривалий час.

Мета заняття: оволодіти лексичним матеріалом по темі заняття, засвоїти граматичний матеріал, розвиток навичок письма, вміти використовувати свої знання на практиці: у монологічному мовленні та діалозі, усно та письмово.

Актуалізація опорних знань: володіння лексичним матеріалом з теми заняття надає можливість студенту вільно розмовляти і підтримувати бесіди про погоду та погодні явища.

Зміст основної частини заняття:

Перевірити домашнє завдання.

Розглянути фото на стр. 10-11 (Coursebook).

Узагальнення та систематизація вмінь і навичок:

Виконати впр. 1-2 стр. 10. Аудіювання впр. 3 стр. 10-11 (Coursebook).

Опрацювання лексики (погодження – непогодження). Виконати впр. 4а - 6б стр. 11, впр.5 стр. 127. Виконати впр. 7-8 стр. 11.

Підведення підсумків заняття: оголошення оцінок та домашнього завдання на наступне заняття.

Домашнє завдання Впр. 1-4 стр. 8 (Workbook).

Практичне заняття № 5

Розмовна тема “Подорожування і туризм”

Граматика: Теперішній неозначений час. Теперішній тривалий час.

Мета заняття: оволодіти лексичним матеріалом по темі заняття, засвоїти граматичний матеріал, розвиток навичок письма, вміти використовувати свої знання на практиці: у монологічному мовленні та діалозі, усно та письмово.

Актуалізація опорних знань: володіння лексичним матеріалом з теми заняття надає можливість студенту вільно розмовляти і підтримувати бесіди про погоду та погодні явища.

Зміст основної частини заняття:

Виконати впр.1 стр. 12 (Coursebook).

Узагальнення та систематизація вмінь і навичок:

Індивідуально виконати впр. 2 стр. 12..

Виконати впр.3, 4 стр.12 в парах.

Підведення підсумків заняття: оголошення оцінок та домашнього завдання на наступне заняття.

Практичне заняття № 6

Розмовна тема “Дослідження Т.Хейердала”.

Граматика: Теперішній неозначений час. Теперішній тривалий час.

Мета заняття: оволодіти лексичним матеріалом по темі заняття, засвоїти граматичний матеріал, розвиток навичок письма, вміти використовувати свої знання на практиці: у монологічному мовленні та діалозі, усно та письмово.

Актуалізація опорних знань: володіння лексичним матеріалом з теми заняття надає можливість студенту вільно розмовляти і підтримувати бесіди про погоду та погодні явища.

Зміст основної частини заняття:

Виконати впр.5 стр. 12 (Coursebook).

Узагальнення та систематизація вмінь і навичок: Виконати впр. 6-8 стр. 12

Підведення підсумків заняття: оголошення оцінок та домашнього завдання на наступне заняття.

Практичне заняття № 7

Розмовна тема “Біографічний нарис”.

Граматика: Минулий неозначений час.

Мета заняття: оволодіти лексичним матеріалом по темі заняття, засвоїти граматичний матеріал, розвиток навичок письма, вміти використовувати свої знання на практиці: у монологічному мовленні та діалозі, усно та письмово.

Актуалізація опорних знань: володіння лексичним матеріалом з теми заняття надає можливість студенту вільно розмовляти і підтримувати бесіди про погоду та погодні явища.

Зміст основної частини заняття:

Перевірити домашнє завдання.

Введення теми заняття. Вибрати декілька відомих людей, яких добре знають студенти. Запитати студентів, чому вони відомі. Разом з іменами написати на дошці слова "inspiration, inspire, inspirational". Виявити їх розуміння. Виконати вправи 1-2 стр. 14 (Coursebook).

Узагальнення та систематизація вмінь і навичок:

Аудіювання впр. 3 стр. 14 (Coursebook).

Робота над лексикою: прикметники, що описують особистість:

dedicated, determined, friendly, hard-working, helpful, inspirational, kind, lovely, patient, talented.

Виконати вправи 4a,b стр. 14 (Coursebook).

Введення граматичної теми "Past Simple" стр. 128 (Coursebook).

Автоматизація граматичного матеріалу Впр. 5-7 стр. 15

Підведення підсумків заняття: оголошення оцінок та домашнього завдання на наступне заняття. Домашнє завдання Впр. 1-7 стр. 10-11 (Workbook).

Практичне заняття № 8

Розмовна тема “Подорож до пустелі”. “Освітня подорож ”

Граматика: Минулий неозначений час.

Мета заняття: оволодіти лексичним матеріалом по темі заняття, засвоїти граматичний матеріал, розвиток навичок письма, вміти використовувати свої знання на практиці: у монологічному мовленні та діалозі, усно та письмово.

Актуалізація опорних знань: володіння лексичним матеріалом з теми заняття надає можливість студенту вільно розмовляти і підтримувати бесіди про погоду та погодні явища.

Зміст основної частини заняття:

Перевірити домашнє завдання, стр. 16, Coursebook.

Узагальнення та систематизація вмінь і навичок:

Виконати вправи до тексту (впр. 1-3 стр. 16, Coursebook),стр. 128 (Coursebook).

Автоматизація граматичного матеріалу Впр. 4-5 стр. 17 (Coursebook).

Підведення підсумків заняття: оголошення оцінок та домашнього завдання на наступне заняття. Домашнє завдання Впр. 1-7 стр. 12-13 (Workbook).

Практичне заняття № 9

Розмовна тема “Різні професії”.

Граматика: Теперішній перфектний тривалий час

Мета заняття: оволодіти лексичним матеріалом по темі заняття, засвоїти граматичний матеріал, розвиток навичок письма, вміти використовувати свої знання на практиці: у монологічному мовленні та діалозі, усно та письмово.

Актуалізація опорних знань: володіння лексичним матеріалом з теми заняття надає можливість студенту вільно розмовляти і підтримувати бесіди про погоду та погодні явища.

Зміст основної частини заняття:

Перевірити домашнє завдання.

Аудіювання, розвиток навичок усного мовлення (впр. 8 a,b,c стр. 17)

Узагальнення та систематизація вмінь і навичок:

Автоматизація граматичного матеріалу. Виконання вправ.

Підведення підсумків заняття: оголошення оцінок та домашнього завдання на наступне заняття. Домашнє завдання Впр. 1-7 стр. 12-13 (Workbook)

Практичне заняття № 10

Розмовна тема Працевлаштування.

Грамматика: Теперішній перфектний тривалий час.

Мета заняття: оволодіти лексичним матеріалом по темі заняття, засвоїти граматичний матеріал, розвиток навичок письма, вміти використовувати свої знання на практиці: у монологічному мовленні та діалозі, усно та письмово.

Актуалізація опорних знань: володіння лексичним матеріалом з теми заняття надає можливість студенту вільно розмовляти і підтримувати бесіди.

Зміст основної частини заняття:

Виконати вправи 1-2 стр. 18 (Coursebook).

Узагальнення та систематизація вмінь і навичок:

Аудіювання впр. 4 стр. 18 (Coursebook). Відповісти на запитання:

Виконати вправи 5a - d стр. 19 (Coursebook).

Підведення підсумків заняття: оголошення оцінок та домашнього завдання на наступне заняття. Домашнє завдання Впр. 1-5 стр. 14 (Workbook).

Практичне заняття № 11

Розмовна тема “Моя майбутня професія”

Мета заняття: оволодіти лексичним матеріалом по темі заняття, засвоїти граматичний матеріал, розвиток навичок письма, вміти використовувати свої знання на практиці: у монологічному мовленні та діалозі, усно та письмово.

Актуалізація опорних знань: володіння лексичним матеріалом з теми заняття надає можливість студенту вільно розмовляти і підтримувати бесіди про погоду та погодні явища.

Зміст основної частини заняття:

Перевірити домашнє завдання.

Аудіювання впр. 1a – 2b стр. 20 (Coursebook).

Узагальнення та систематизація вмінь і навичок: впр. 3 стр. 20).

Підведення підсумків заняття: оголошення оцінок та домашнього завдання на наступне заняття. Домашнє завдання Впр. 1 стр. 15 (Workbook).

Практичне заняття № 12

Розмовна тема “Співбесіда. Резюме”.

Грамматика: Теперішній перфектний тривалий час.

Мета заняття: оволодіти лексичним матеріалом по темі заняття, засвоїти граматичний матеріал, розвиток навичок письма, вміти використовувати свої знання на практиці: у монологічному мовленні та діалозі, усно та письмово.

Актуалізація опорних знань: володіння лексичним матеріалом з теми заняття надає можливість студенту вільно розмовляти і підтримувати бесіди про погоду та погодні явища.

Зміст основної частини заняття:

Текст на стр. 21 (Coursebook)

Узагальнення та систематизація вмінь і навичок:

Виконати впр. 4-7 стр. 21 (Coursebook).

Підведення підсумків заняття: оголошення оцінок та домашнього завдання на наступне заняття.

Практичне заняття № 13

Розмовна тема “Робота на відстані”.

Грамматика: Теперішній перфектний тривалий час.

Мета заняття: оволодіти лексичним матеріалом по темі заняття, засвоїти граматичний матеріал, розвиток навичок письма, вміти використовувати свої знання на практиці: у монологічному мовленні та діалозі, усно та письмово.

Актуалізація опорних знань: володіння лексичним матеріалом з теми заняття надає можливість студенту вільно розмовляти і підтримувати бесіди.

Зміст основної частини заняття:

Перевірити домашнє завдання.

Узагальнення та систематизація вмінь і навичок:

Опрацювання нових слів. Виконати впр. 1a,b стр. 22 (Coursebook).

Робота з текстом, вправи на розуміння (впр. 2a,b стр. 22-23).

Аудіювання впр. 3a , b стр. 22 (Coursebook).

Введення граматичної теми "Articles" стр. 130 (Coursebook).

Автоматизація граматичного матеріалу Впр. 4-5 стр. 23 (Coursebook).

Підведення підсумків заняття: оголошення оцінок та домашнього завдання на наступне заняття. Домашнє завдання Впр. 1-6 стр. 16-17 (Workbook).

Практичне заняття № 14

Розмовна тема “Вакантна посада”.

Граматика: Теперішній перфектний тривалий час у зіставленні з теперішнім перфектним часом.

Мета заняття: оволодіти лексичним матеріалом по темі заняття, засвоїти граматичний матеріал, розвиток навичок письма, вміти використовувати свої знання на практиці: у монологічному мовленні та діалозі, усно та письмово.

Актуалізація опорних знань: володіння лексичним матеріалом з теми заняття надає можливість студенту вільно розмовляти і підтримувати бесіди.

Зміст основної частини заняття:

Перевірити домашнє завдання.

Узагальнення та систематизація вмінь і навичок:

Робота з текстом .

Job Vacancy for a quarter refers to the number of unfilled posts at the end of the quarter for which an establishment is **actively recruiting** employees from outside the establishment. They exclude:

- Positions for which the employees have been appointed but not yet commenced duty; or
- Positions open only to internal transfers or promotions.

Recruitment action to fill a post includes advertising in newspapers, posting notices on Internet (e.g. online job banks), making “word-of-mouth announcements”, soliciting employees through employment agencies or job fairs, contacting or interviewing registered job applicants.

Job Vacancy Rate for a quarter is defined as the total number of job vacancies divided by the total demand for manpower at the end of the quarter.

The total demand for manpower is defined as the sum of the number of employees and job vacancies at the end of the quarter. The annual figures are the simple averages of the quarterly figures.

Job Vacancy to Unemployed Ratio is the ratio of the estimates of the total number of job vacancies for the whole economy to the total number of unemployed persons. The job vacancies for the whole economy is estimated based on the assumption that private sector establishments with less than 25 employees have the same vacancy rate as private establishments with 25-49 employees. Estimates on the total number of unemployed persons are obtained from the Labour Force Survey.

Підведення підсумків заняття: оголошення оцінок та домашнього завдання на наступне заняття.

Практичне заняття № 15

Граматика: Теперішній перфектний тривалий час у зіставлення з теперішнім перфектним часом.

Мета заняття: оволодіти лексичним матеріалом по темі заняття, засвоїти граматичний матеріал, розвиток навичок письма, вміти використовувати свої знання на практиці: у монологічному мовленні та діалозі, усно та письмово.

Актуалізація опорних знань: володіння лексичним матеріалом з теми заняття надає можливість студенту вільно розмовляти і підтримувати бесіди.

Зміст основної частини заняття:

Перевірити домашнє завдання.

Робота з текстом стр. 25 (Coursebook).

Узагальнення та систематизація вмінь і навичок:

Виконати вправи до тексту (впр. 1-4 стр. 24, Coursebook).

Опрацювання лексичних одиниць з теми (впр. 5 a,b стр. 24, Coursebook).

Стр. 130 (Coursebook).

Автоматизація граматичного матеріалу Впр. 6-8 стр. 25 (Coursebook).

Підведення підсумків заняття: оголошення оцінок та домашнього завдання на наступне заняття. Домашнє завдання Впр. 1-8 стр. 18-19 (Workbook).

Практичне заняття № 16

Розмовна тема “Мозковий штурм”.

Граматика: Теперішній перфектний тривалий час у зіставлення з теперішнім перфектним часом.

Мета заняття: оволодіти лексичним матеріалом по темі заняття, засвоїти граматичний матеріал, розвиток навичок письма, вміти використовувати свої знання на практиці: у монологічному мовленні та діалозі, усно та письмово.

Актуалізація опорних знань: володіння лексичним матеріалом з теми заняття надає можливість студенту вільно розмовляти і підтримувати бесіди.

Зміст основної частини заняття:

Перевірити домашнє завдання.

Аудіювання впр. 2a, b стр. 26; впр. 4a, b стр. 26 (Coursebook). Перед аудіюванням перевірити засвоєння лексики.

Узагальнення та систематизація вмінь і навичок:

Робота з фразами стр. 130. Опрацювання фраз в контексті впр. 5a-d стр. 27

Робота в парах за ситуаціями "Плануючи телевізійну програму". Виконати впр. 6 a-d стр. 27 (Coursebook).

Підведення підсумків заняття: оголошення оцінок та домашнього завдання на наступне заняття. Домашнє завдання Впр. 1-3 стр. 20 (Workbook).

Практичне заняття № 17

Розмовна тема “Вивчення мов”.

Граматика: Майбутні форми.

Мета заняття: оволодіти лексичним матеріалом по темі заняття, засвоїти граматичний матеріал, розвиток навичок письма, вміти використовувати свої знання на практиці: у монологічному мовленні та діалозі, усно та письмово.

Актуалізація опорних знань: володіння лексичним матеріалом з теми заняття надає можливість студенту вільно розмовляти і підтримувати бесіди.

Зміст основної частини заняття:

Запитати студентів, як часто вони працюють в парах або групах. Виявити, яким видам роботи вони надають перевагу.

Аудіювання впр. 2a стр.28.

Узагальнення та систематизація вмінь і навичок:

Виконати впр. 2b – 4 стр. 28 (Coursebook).

Підведення підсумків заняття: оголошення оцінок та домашнього завдання на наступне заняття.

Практичне заняття № 18

Розмовна тема “Різні мови – різні культури”.

Граматика: Майбутні форми.

Мета заняття: оволодіти лексичним матеріалом по темі заняття, засвоїти граматичний матеріал, розвиток навичок письма, вміти використовувати свої знання на практиці: у монологічному мовленні та діалозі, усно та письмово.

Актуалізація опорних знань: володіння лексичним матеріалом з теми заняття надає можливість студенту вільно розмовляти і підтримувати бесіди.

Зміст основної частини заняття:

Перевірити домашнє завдання.

Виконати впр. 1a, b стр. 32 (Coursebook).

Прочитати і виконати завдання впр. 2 стр. 32.

Аудіювання впр. 3a, b стр. 33.

Автоматизація навичок з граматичної теми стр. 132 (Coursebook).

Узагальнення та систематизація вмінь і навичок:

Автоматизація граматичного матеріалу Впр. 4 - 5 стр. 33 (Coursebook).

Підведення підсумків заняття: оголошення оцінок та домашнього завдання на наступне заняття. Домашнє завдання Впр. 1-4 стр. 22 (Workbook).

Практичне заняття № 19

Розмовна тема “Мови, що зникають”.

Граматика: Майбутні форми.

Мета заняття: оволодіти лексичним матеріалом по темі заняття, засвоїти граматичний матеріал, розвиток навичок письма, вміти використовувати свої знання на практиці: у монологічному мовленні та діалозі, усно та письмово.

Актуалізація опорних знань: володіння лексичним матеріалом з теми заняття надає можливість студенту вільно розмовляти і підтримувати бесіди.

Зміст основної частини заняття:

Перевірити домашнє завдання.

Робота з текстом "Health care in Saudi Arabia" стр. 23 (Workbook).

Виконати вправи до тексту (впр. 5-7 стр. 23, Workbook).

Автоматизація навичок з граматичної теми стр. 132 (Coursebook).

Узагальнення та систематизація вмінь і навичок:

Автоматизація граматичного матеріалу Впр. 3a-4 стр. 35 (Coursebook).

Підведення підсумків заняття: оголошення оцінок та домашнього завдання на наступне заняття. Домашнє завдання Впр. 2-4 стр. 24 (Workbook).

Практичне заняття № 20

Розмовна тема “Мовний тренінг”.

Граматика: Майбутні форми

Мета заняття: оволодіти лексичним матеріалом по темі заняття, засвоїти граматичний матеріал, розвиток навичок письма, вміти використовувати свої знання на практиці: у монологічному мовленні та діалозі, усно та письмово.

Актуалізація опорних знань: володіння лексичним матеріалом з теми заняття надає можливість студенту вільно розмовляти і підтримувати бесіди.

Зміст основної частини заняття:

Перевірити домашнє завдання.

Виконати впр. 1 стр. 34-35 (Coursebook).

Узагальнення та систематизація вмінь і навичок:

Виконати вправи до тексту (впр. 2a-c стр. 34-35, Coursebook).

Робота в парах за ситуаціями (впр. 5 a-d стр. 35 Coursebook).

Підведення підсумків заняття: оголошення оцінок та домашнього завдання на наступне заняття. Домашнє завдання Впр. 1, 5-9 стр. 24-25 (Workbook).

Практичне заняття № 21

Розмовна тема “Викладання мов”.

Граматика: Майбутні форми.

Мета заняття: оволодіти лексичним матеріалом по темі заняття, засвоїти граматичний матеріал, розвиток навичок письма, вміти використовувати свої знання на практиці: у монологічному мовленні та діалозі, усно та письмово.

Актуалізація опорних знань: володіння лексичним матеріалом з теми заняття надає можливість студенту вільно розмовляти і підтримувати бесіди.

Зміст основної частини заняття:

Перевірити домашнє завдання.

Аудіювання впр. 2a, b стр. 26; впр. 4a, b стр. 36 (Coursebook).

Узагальнення та систематизація вмінь і навичок:

Робота з фразами стр. 132. Опрацювання фраз в контексті (впр. 5a-b, 6 стр. 36 Coursebook)

Робота в парах Виконати впр. 7-8 стр. 37 (Coursebook).

Підведення підсумків заняття: оголошення оцінок та домашнього завдання на наступне заняття. Домашнє завдання Впр. 1-5 стр. 26 (Workbook).

Індивідуальне заняття № 22

Розмовна тема “Сучасні зміни у мовах різних країн ”

Мета заняття: оволодіти лексичним матеріалом по темі заняття, засвоїти граматичний матеріал, розвиток навичок письма, вміти використовувати свої знання на практиці: у монологічному мовленні та діалозі, усно та письмово.

Актуалізація опорних знань: володіння лексичним матеріалом з теми заняття надає можливість студенту вільно розмовляти і підтримувати бесіди

Зміст основної частини заняття:

Узагальнення та систематизація вмінь і навичок:

Презентація проектів студентами на тему заняття.

Підведення підсумків заняття: оголошення оцінок та домашнього завдання на наступне заняття.

Практичне заняття № 23

Розмовна “У світі реклами”.

Граматика: Умовні речення II типу.

Мета заняття: оволодіти лексичним матеріалом по темі заняття, засвоїти граматичний матеріал, розвиток навичок письма, вміти використовувати свої знання на практиці: у монологічному мовленні та діалозі, усно та письмово.

Актуалізація опорних знань: володіння лексичним матеріалом з теми заняття надає можливість студенту вільно розмовляти і підтримувати бесіди

Зміст основної частини заняття:

Обговорити питання (впр. 7 стр. 39, Coursebook).

Прочитати, перекласти Email подяку та відповісти на питання (впр. 8 стр. 39, Coursebook).

Узагальнення та систематизація вмінь і навичок:

Робота з впр. 9 стр. 39, (Coursebook) впр. 10a,b-11 стр. 39 (Coursebook).

Підведення підсумків заняття: оголошення оцінок та домашнього завдання на наступне заняття. Написати Email подяку другу.

Практичне заняття № 24

Розмовна тема “З історії реклами”.

Граматика: Умовні речення II типу.

Мета заняття: оволодіти лексичним матеріалом по темі заняття, засвоїти граматичний матеріал, розвиток навичок письма, вміти використовувати свої знання на практиці: у монологічному мовленні та діалозі, усно та письмово.

Актуалізація опорних знань: володіння лексичним матеріалом з теми заняття надає можливість студенту вільно розмовляти і підтримувати бесіди про погоду та погодні явища.

Зміст основної частини заняття:

Перевірити домашнє завдання.

Опрацювання нових слів. Виконати впр.1 a-b стр.40 (Coursebook).

Робота з текстом стр. 40. Виконати вправи до тексту 2a-b стр. 40 (Coursebook).

Узагальнення та систематизація вмінь і навичок:

Аудіювання впр. 3 a, b, c стр. 41 (Coursebook) стр. 134 (Coursebook).

Автоматизація граматичного матеріалу Впр. 4-6 стр. 41 (Coursebook).

Підведення підсумків заняття: оголошення оцінок та домашнього завдання на наступне заняття. Домашнє завдання Впр. 1-3, 8-9 стр. 28-29 (Workbook).

Практичне заняття № 25

Розмовна тема “Реклама і діти”.

Граматика: Умовні речення II типу.

Мета заняття: оволодіти лексичним матеріалом по темі заняття, засвоїти граматичний матеріал, розвиток навичок письма, вміти використовувати свої знання на практиці: у монологічному мовленні та діалозі, усно та письмово.

Актуалізація опорних знань: володіння лексичним матеріалом з теми заняття надає можливість студенту вільно розмовляти і підтримувати бесіди

Зміст основної частини заняття:

Перевірити домашнє завдання.

Повторити граматичний матеріал. Виконати впр.1-3 стр. 135 (Coursebook).

Узагальнення та систематизація вмінь і навичок:

Робота з текстом впр. 4 стр. 28-29 (Workbook). Виконати вправи до тексту 5-7 стр. 29 (Workbook). Виконати впр. 5 a,b стр. 42 (Coursebook).

Підведення підсумків заняття: оголошення оцінок та домашнього завдання на наступне заняття. Домашнє завдання Впр. 1, 6-8 стр. 30-31 (Workbook).

Практичне заняття № 26

Розмовна тема “Рекламне агентство”.

Граматика: Умовні речення II типу.

Мета заняття: оволодіти лексичним матеріалом по темі заняття, засвоїти граматичний матеріал, розвиток навичок письма, вміти використовувати свої знання на практиці: у монологічному мовленні та діалозі, усно та письмово.

Актуалізація опорних знань: володіння лексичним матеріалом з теми заняття надає можливість студенту вільно розмовляти і підтримувати бесіди

Зміст основної частини заняття:

Перевірити домашнє завдання.

Впр. 1a, b стр. 42. Робота з текстом стр. 43 (Coursebook).

Узагальнення та систематизація вмінь і навичок:

Виконати вправи до тексту (впр. 2 – 4 стр. 42, Coursebook).

Введення граматичної теми стр. 134 (Coursebook).

Автоматизація граматичного матеріалу Впр. 4-6 стр. 42-43 (Coursebook).

Підведення підсумків заняття: оголошення оцінок та домашнього завдання на наступне заняття. Домашнє завдання Впр. 6-8 стр. 30-31 (Workbook).

Практичне заняття № 27

Розмовна тема “Реклама та кіноіндустрія”.

Граматика: Умовні речення II типу.

Мета заняття: оволодіти лексичним матеріалом по темі заняття, засвоїти граматичний матеріал, розвиток навичок письма, вміти використовувати свої знання на практиці: у монологічному мовленні та діалозі, усно та письмово.

Актуалізація опорних знань: володіння лексичним матеріалом з теми заняття надає можливість студенту вільно розмовляти і підтримувати бесіди

Зміст основної частини заняття:

Перевірити домашнє завдання.

Узагальнення та систематизація вмінь і навичок:

Виконати впр. 1a,b стр. 44 (Coursebook).

Аудіювання впр. 2, 3 a, b, c стр. 44 (Coursebook).

Виконати впр. 4a,b стр. 44-45 (Coursebook).

Підведення підсумків заняття: оголошення оцінок та домашнього завдання на наступне заняття. Домашнє завдання Впр. 1-3 стр. 32 (Workbook).

Практичне заняття № 28

Розмовна тема ““Види реклами”.

Граматика: Умовні речення II типу.

Мета заняття: оволодіти лексичним матеріалом по темі заняття, засвоїти граматичний матеріал, розвиток навичок письма, вміти використовувати свої знання на практиці: у монологічному мовленні та діалозі, усно та письмово.

Актуалізація опорних знань: володіння лексичним матеріалом з теми заняття надає можливість студенту вільно розмовляти і підтримувати бесіди про погоду та погодні явища.

Зміст основної частини заняття:

Виконати впр. 1 – 5 стр. 46 (Coursebook).

Аудіювання впр. 3b стр. 46.

Підведення підсумків заняття: оголошення оцінок та домашнього завдання на наступне заняття. Підготовка до модульної контрольної роботи.

Практичне заняття № 29

Розмовна тема “Як писати формальний лист”.

Граматика: Умовні речення II типу.

Мета: оволодіти лексичним матеріалом по темі заняття, засвоїти граматичний матеріал, вміти використовувати свої знання на практиці: у монологічному мовленні та діалозі, усно та письмово; розвивати навички аудіювання.

Актуалізація опорних знань: володіння лексичним матеріалом з теми заняття надає можливість студенту вільно розмовляти і підтримувати бесіди

Зміст основної частини заняття:

Обговорити питання Впр. 6 стр. 47(Coursebook).

Опрацювати текст Впр. 7 стр. 47

Узагальнення та систематизація вмінь і навичок:

Виконати впр. 8 – 9 стр. 47 (Coursebook).

Підведення підсумків заняття: оголошення оцінок та домашнього завдання на наступне заняття.

Практичне заняття № 30

Розмовна тема “Бізнес-план.”.

Граматика: Минулий тривалий час.

Мета: оволодіти лексичним матеріалом по темі заняття, засвоїти граматичний матеріал, вміти використовувати свої знання на практиці: у монологічному мовленні та діалозі, усно та письмово; розвивати навички аудіювання.

Актуалізація опорних знань: володіння лексичним матеріалом з теми заняття надає можливість студенту вільно розмовляти і підтримувати бесіди

Зміст основної частини заняття:

Перевірити домашнє завдання.

Узагальнення та систематизація вмінь і навичок:

Аудіювання впр. 3 а, b стр. 48-49 (Coursebook), впр. 4 стр. 49.

Підведення підсумків заняття: оголошення оцінок та домашнього завдання на наступне заняття.

Практичне заняття № 31

Розмовна тема “Розв’язання бізнес-ділемм”.

Грамматика: Минулий тривалий час.

Мета: оволодіти лексичним матеріалом по темі заняття, засвоїти граматичний матеріал, вміти використовувати свої знання на практиці: у монологічному мовленні та діалозі, усно та письмово; розвивати навички аудіювання.

Актуалізація опорних знань: володіння лексичним матеріалом з теми заняття надає можливість студенту вільно розмовляти і підтримувати бесіди

Зміст основної частини заняття:
стр. 136 (Coursebook).

Узагальнення та систематизація вмінь і навичок:

Автоматизація граматичного матеріалу Впр. 5a,b,c, 6a стр. 49 (Coursebook).

Підведення підсумків заняття: оголошення оцінок та домашнього завдання на наступне заняття.

Домашнє завдання Впр. 1-6 стр. 34-35 (Workbook).

Практичне заняття № 32

Розмовна тема “Відомі бізнесмени”.

Грамматика: Минулий перфектний час.

Мета: оволодіти лексичним матеріалом по темі заняття, засвоїти граматичний матеріал, вміти використовувати свої знання на практиці: у монологічному мовленні та діалозі, усно та письмово; розвивати навички аудіювання.

Актуалізація опорних знань: володіння лексичним матеріалом з теми заняття надає можливість студенту вільно розмовляти і підтримувати бесіди

Зміст основної частини заняття:
Перевірити домашнє завдання.

Обговорити питання впр. 1 стр. 50.

Робота з текстом стр. 50 (Coursebook).

Узагальнення та систематизація вмінь і навичок:

Виконати вправи до тексту (впр. 2 a-d – 3 стр. 50, Coursebook, стр. 51, Coursebook).

Виконати впр. 4 a-b стр. 51.

Підведення підсумків заняття: оголошення оцінок та домашнього завдання на наступне заняття. Домашнє завдання Впр. 1-6 стр. 36-37 (Workbook).

Практичне заняття № 33

Розмовна тема “Успішні бізнесмени України”

Мета: оволодіти лексичним матеріалом по темі заняття, засвоїти граматичний матеріал, вміти використовувати свої знання на практиці: у монологічному мовленні та діалозі, усно та письмово; розвивати навички аудіювання.

Актуалізація опорних знань: володіння лексичним матеріалом з теми заняття надає можливість студенту вільно розмовляти і підтримувати бесіди

Зміст основної частини заняття:
Перевірити домашнє завдання.

Узагальнення та систематизація вмінь і навичок:

Захист проектів студентами.

Підведення підсумків заняття: оголошення оцінок та домашнього завдання на наступне заняття.

Практичне заняття № 34

Розмовна тема “Як вести переговори”.

Грамматика: Минулий перфектний час.

Мета: оволодіти лексичним матеріалом по темі заняття, засвоїти граматичний матеріал, вміти використовувати свої знання на практиці: у монологічному мовленні та діалозі, усно та письмово; розвивати навички аудіювання.

Актуалізація опорних знань: володіння лексичним матеріалом з теми заняття надає можливість студенту вільно розмовляти і підтримувати бесіди.

Зміст основної частини заняття:

Перевірити домашнє завдання.

Введення граматичної теми стр. 136 (Coursebook).

Узагальнення та систематизація вмінь і навичок:

Автоматизація граматичного матеріалу. Виконати впр. 5a,b - 6a,b стр. 51 , а також впр. 3-4 стр. 137 (Coursebook).

Підведення підсумків заняття: оголошення оцінок та домашнього завдання на наступне заняття. Домашнє завдання Впр. 7-9 стр. 37 (Workbook).

Практичне заняття № 35

Розмовна тема “Угода”.

Грамматика: Минулий тривалий та минулий перфектний час.

Мета: оволодіти лексичним матеріалом по темі заняття, засвоїти граматичний матеріал, вміти використовувати свої знання на практиці: у монологічному мовленні та діалозі, усно та письмово; розвивати навички аудіювання.

Актуалізація опорних знань: володіння лексичним матеріалом з теми заняття надає можливість студенту вільно розмовляти і підтримувати бесіди. **Зміст основної частини заняття:**

Перевірити домашнє завдання.

Аудіювання впр. 7 а стр. 51 (Coursebook). Розіграти прослухані ситуації.

Узагальнення та систематизація вмінь і навичок:

Відповісти на запитання (впр. 7 а,b стр. 51).

Виконати впр. 6a,b - 7a,b стр. 53 (Coursebook).

Підведення підсумків заняття: оголошення оцінок та домашнього завдання на наступне заняття.

Практичне заняття № 36

Розмовна тема “Менеджери: вчора і сьогодні”.

Грамматика: Минулий тривалий та минулий перфектний час.

Мета: оволодіти лексичним матеріалом по темі заняття, засвоїти граматичний матеріал, вміти використовувати свої знання на практиці: у монологічному мовленні та діалозі, усно та письмово; розвивати навички аудіювання.

Актуалізація опорних знань: володіння лексичним матеріалом з теми заняття надає можливість студенту вільно розмовляти і підтримувати бесіди

Зміст основної частини заняття:

Перевірити домашнє завдання.

Обговорити питання (впр. 1 стр. 52).

Узагальнення та систематизація вмінь і навичок:

Аудіювання впр. 2 а-с стр. 52 (Coursebook стр. 136). Опрацювання фраз в контексті: виконати впр. 3 а-b, 5 стр. 52-53, впр. 5 стр. 137 (Coursebook); впр. 3 стр. 38 (Workbook).

Підведення підсумків заняття: оголошення оцінок та домашнього завдання на наступне заняття. Домашнє завдання Впр. 1, 2, 4 стр. 38 (Workbook).

Практичне заняття № 37

Розмовна тема “Як писати Email”.

Граматика: Минулий тривалий та минулий перфектний час.

Мета: оволодіти лексичним матеріалом по темі заняття, засвоїти граматичний матеріал, вміти використовувати свої знання на практиці: у монологічному мовленні та діалозі, усно та письмово; розвивати навички аудіювання.

Актуалізація опорних знань: володіння лексичним матеріалом з теми заняття надає можливість студенту вільно розмовляти і підтримувати бесіди

Зміст основної частини заняття:

Обговорити питання Впр. 5а стр. 55 (Coursebook).

Впр. 5b стр. 55 (Coursebook)

Узагальнення та систематизація вмінь і навичок:

Прочитати текст Впр. 6 стр. 55.

Виконати впр. 7 – 10 стр. 55 (Coursebook).

Підведення підсумків заняття: оголошення оцінок та домашнього завдання на наступне заняття.

7. Контрольні завдання до практичних занять, завдання для заліків.

МКР № 1

Варіант 1

1 Use the sentences below to write adjectives that describe Naomi and Sylvina. The first two letters of each personality adjective is given for you.

NAOMI	SYLVINA
1) She loves to try new things. 2) She rarely gets angry. 4) She loves giving presents. 6) She's very relaxed about things. 8) She's always ready to accept new ideas. 10) You can trust that she will get things done.	1) She wants to be the manager of the company. 3) She is always pushing her ideas. 5) She always tells people what to do. 7) Some days she's happy, others angry. 9) She always has lots of new ideas.

1 ad _____
2 ev _____
4 ge _____
6 ea _____
8 op _____
10 re _____

1 am _____
3 as _____
5 bo _____
7 mo _____
9 cr _____

2 Correct the questions. Use the answers to help you.

- | | |
|--------------------------------------------|----------------------|
| 1 Are you like Italian food? | A: Yes I do. |
| 2 Do you have finished the exams? | A: Yes, I have. |
| 3 Why is the best company to work for? | A: The Purple Group. |
| 4 Do they discuss the issue at the moment? | A: Yes. They are. |
| 5 Who did see the accident? | A: That man did. |
| 6 How often are they being in the office? | A: Every Monday. |
| 7 Were you go to the exhibition? | A: No, not yet. |

- 8 Which car do you choose? A: I chose the black one.
 9 Have you seen David on the TV last week? A: Yes, I did.

3 Make sentences or questions from the prompts using present simple or present continuous.

- 1 This summer / people / buy / lots of sun cream.
- 2 He / look / like / a very thoughtful person.
- 3 Our sales people / usually / not come / to the office.
- 4 More and more people / believe / in personality tests?
- 5 In the background / two women / dance.
- 6 I / not see / the connection.
- 7 They / go / to Canberra twice a month? Yes, they do. Every month.
- 8 The publication of new books / decline / every year.

4 Find the odd one out. Then write the prefix that two words share.

- | | | | | |
|---|-----------|----------|------------|-------|
| 1 | lingual | cycle | define | _____ |
| 2 | comfort | rail | like | _____ |
| 3 | boss | rated | use | _____ |
| 4 | define | do | social | _____ |
| 5 | behave | player | understand | _____ |
| 6 | circle | perform | run | _____ |
| 7 | confident | shadowed | behave | _____ |

5 Translate into English.

1. Екстраверти насолоджуються біти в центрі уваги, вони самовпевнені, компанійські та лідери.
2. Інтроверти почувають себе зручно на самоті, вони уникають великих скупчень людей, більшість часу задумливі та тихі.
3. Він створює атмосферу напруги і передчуття.
4. Фільми повинні бути про важливі людські емоції такі, як сльози, сміх та страх.
5. Білл Клінтон відомий промовець, який дає промови по всьому світові перед різними аудиторіями.
6. Харизматичні люди можуть притягувати до себе інших і вони почуватимуться щасливими.
7. Гарна та талановита жінка, яка могла затьмарити кожного.
8. Щоб уникати помилок, ми повинні бути розважливими у такій ситуації і не приймати швидких рішень.
9. Ця робота справді нудна, тому нам необхідно наняти амбіційну людину.
10. Я і не очікувала, що він приїде вчасно, він такий ненадійний.

Варіант 2

1 Use the sentences below to write adjectives that describe Naomi and Sylvina. The first two letters of each personality adjective is given for you.

NAOMI	SYLVINA
1) She loves to try new things.	1) She wants to be the manager of the company.
2) She rarely gets angry.	3) She is always pushing her ideas.
4) She loves giving presents.	5) She always tells people what to do.
6) She's very relaxed about things.	7) Some days she's happy, others angry.
8) She's always ready to accept new ideas.	9) She always has lots of new ideas.
10) You can trust that she will get things done.	
1 <u>ad</u> _____	1 <u>am</u> _____
2 <u>ev</u> _____	3 <u>as</u> _____
4 <u>ge</u> _____	5 <u>bo</u> _____
6 <u>ea</u> _____	7 <u>mo</u> _____
8 <u>op</u> _____	9 <u>cr</u> _____
10 <u>re</u> _____	

2 Correct the questions. Use the answers to help you.

- | | |
|--------------------------------------------|----------------------|
| 1 Are you like Italian food? | A: Yes I do. |
| 2 Do you have finished the exams? | A: Yes, I have. |
| 3 Why is the best company to work for? | A: The Purple Group. |
| 4 Do they discuss the issue at the moment? | A: Yes. They are. |
| 5 Who did see the accident? | A: That man did. |

- | | | |
|---|------------------------------------------|---------------------------|
| 6 | How often are they being in the office? | A: Every Monday. |
| 7 | Were you go to the exhibition? | A: No, not yet. |
| 8 | Which car do you choose? | A: I chose the black one. |
| 9 | Have you seen David on the TV last week? | A: Yes, I did. |

3 Make sentences or questions from the prompts using present simple or present continuous.

- 1 They / go / to Canberra twice a month? Yes, they do. Every month.
- 2 The publication of new books / decline / every year.
- 3 Our sales people / usually / not come / to the office.
- 4 More and more people / believe / in personality tests?
- 5 This summer / people / buy / lots of sun cream.
- 6 He / look / like / a very thoughtful person.
- 7 In the background / two women / dance.
- 8 I / not see / the connection.

4 Find the odd one out. Then write the prefix that two words share.

- | | | | | |
|---|-----------|----------|------------|-------|
| 1 | lingual | cycle | define | _____ |
| 2 | define | do | social | _____ |
| 3 | behave | player | understand | _____ |
| 4 | circle | perform | run | _____ |
| 5 | confident | shadowed | behave | _____ |
| 6 | comfort | rail | like | _____ |
| 7 | boss | rated | use | _____ |

5 Translate into English.

1. Харизматичні люди можуть притягувати до себе інших і вони почуватимуться щасливими. 2. Гарна та талановита жінка, яка могла затьмарити кожного. 3. Щоб уникати помилок, ми повинні бути розважливими у такій ситуації і не приймати швидких рішень. 4. Ця робота справді нудна, тому нам необхідно наняти амбіційну людину. 5. Я і не очікувала, що він приїде вчасно, він такий ненадійний. 6. Екстраверти насолоджуються біти в центрі уваги, вони самовпевнені, компанійські та лідери. 7. Інтроверти відчувають себе зручно на самоті, вони уникають великих скупчень людей, більшість часу задумливі та тихі. 8. Він створює атмосферу напруги і передчуття. 9. Фільми повинні бути про важливі людські емоції такі, як сльози, сміх та страх. 10. Білл Клінтон відомий промовець, який дає промови по всьому світові перед різними аудиторіями.

9. Питання до екзаменаційних білетів, екзаменаційні білети.

Тести до іспиту

1. It ... a lot in Britain.
a) rain b) rains c) is rain d) rainy e) are rain
2. I ... pizza very much.
a) likes b) is like c) am like d) like e) alike
3. I ... English very well.
a) not speak b) no speak c) speak not d) don't speak
e) doesn't speak
4. I ... married.
a) am not b) is not c) don't d) doesn't e) aren't
5. Your brother ... tennis very well.
a) play b) plays c) is play d) are play e) playing

6. Mozart ... more than 600 pieces of music.

- a) writes b) wrote c) wrote d) was write e) was wrote

7. We ... David in town a few days ago.

- a) did see b) was saw c) did see d) was see e) saw

8. I ... to the cinema three times last week.

- a) went b) going c) did go d) goed e) was go

9. The film wasn't very good. I ... it very much.

- a) enjoyed b) wasn't enjoy c) didn't enjoyed d) didn't enjoy
e) enjoying

10. The window was open and a bird ... into the room.

- a) fly b) flew c) was flew d) did fly
e) flying

11. He ... five letters.

- a) write b) was write c) has written d) is write
e) writing

12. We ... a severe storm in this area recently.

- a) has b) was have c) did have d) has had e) have had

13. They ... an electric car.

- a) never drive b) never have drive c) have never driven d) drives never
e) never driven

14. She ... a new dress.

- a) just buy b) has just bought c) has just buy d) just is buy e) is just buy.

15. I ... to Italy yet.

- a) have not been b) not be c) not am d) is not e) have not

16. He ... when the phone rang.

- a) was sleeping b) were sleeping c) slept d) slept e) sleeps

17. All the rivers and lakes ... yesterday.

- a) freeze b) froze c) freezes d) were freezing e) frozed

18. At six o'clock I ... for Jennie at the station.

- a) waited b) wait c) waites d) was waiting e) had waited

19. Toby ... up very late yesterday. (wakes, woke, wake)

- a) wake b) wakes c) will wake d) waken e) woke

20. Nora ... her friends in the park last week.

- a) meets b) met c) has met d) meet e) was meeting

21. While my son for my call, somebody knocked at the door.

- a) waits b) was waiting c) waited d) has waited e) wait

22. I ... by the window when I heard the noise.
a) sat b) sits c) have sat d) sit e) was sitting
23. Anna ... her cousin at the party a fortnight ago.
a) saw b) see c) sees d) have seen e) had seen
24. When we came in, the children their desks.
a) clean b) cleaned c) had cleaned d) were cleaning e) clean
25. He ... to join them because of a very bad weather.
a) refuses b) will refuse c) had refused d) refused e) refuse
26. She ... to play the piano in her childhood.
a) hasn't like b) doesn't like c) likes d) don't like e) didn't like
27. When I arrived, they ... tennis.
a) were playing b) play c) played d) plays e) would play
28. Their brother ... a lot last year.
a) had travelled b) travelled c) have travelled d) travel e) travels
29. Yesterday at six I ... dinner.
a) prepare b) was preparing c) have prepared d) prepared e) prepares
30. He ... a poem at the party yesterday.
a) recite b) recites c) have recited d) was reciting e) recited
31. I have bought a computer, ... is more expensive than this one.
a) who b) which c) what d) where e) whose
32. This is a school ... I used to study
a) whose b) which c) where d) that e) who
33. This is the girl ... comes from Spain
a) that b) whose c) who d) what e) which
34. I talked to the girl ... car had broken down in front of the shop
a) who b) which c) what d) where e) whose
35. Thank you very much for your e-mail ... was very interesting
a) what b) whose c) who d) what e) which
36. What did you do with the money ... your mother lent you?
a) whose b) what c) where d) that e) who
37. That's Peter, the boy ... has just arrived at the airport
a) who b) which c) what d) where e) whose
38. I'm ... actor.
a) a b) an c) the d) - e) that
39. People drive ... cars too fast
a) this b) an c) - d) the e) a

40. He works as ... painter

- a) an b)- c) this d) the e) a

41. Petra started at a factory last week. ... factory is very new

- a) a b) an c) the d) - e) that

42. I don't really enjoy watching ... documentaries

- a) that b) an c)- d) the e) a

43. Look at this picture. Do you like ... dress she is wearing?

- a) an b)- c) that d) the e) a

44. Do you like ... computer games?

- a) -b) an c) this d) the e) a

45. I really like ... photos in this magazine

- a) an b)- c) that d) the e) a

46. I enjoy all ... documentaries I watched last night.

- a) an b) a c) this d) the e)-

47. ... soap operas are boring

- a) that b) an c)- d) the e) a

48. This is ... presenter who interviewed Bill Gates on TV

- a) an b)- c) this d) the e) a

49. The shop sells ... DVDs

- a) that b) an c)- d) the e) a

50. Do you know _____ good Italian search engine?

- a) an b)- c) this d) the e) a

51. There isn't ... coffee in the cup.

- a) any b) some c) a

52. This armchair is ... than that armchair.

- a) comfortabler b) most comfortable c) more comfortable
d) the most comfortable e) comfortable

53. I think that picture is....

- a) worse b) the worst c) worst d) badder e) baddest

54. How ... money did you spend?

- a) much b) few c) many d) a much e) a few

55. We have ... eggs in the fridge.

- a) any b) little c) a few d) much e) a little

56. Sleeping pills are as ... as warm milk and honey if you can't fall asleep at night.

- a) better b) good c) best d) gooder e) goodest

57. You see, this car is ... than that one.

- a) less more expensive b) much more expensive c) much expensive
d) expensive e) more expensiver

58. ... you try, ... you learn.

- a) the hardest, the fastest b) the harder, the faster c) the hard, the fast
d) the most harder, the most faster e) the more harder, the more faster

59. Have you got ... ink in your pen?

- a) many b) few c) a few d) much e) an

60. At the conference we met ... people whom we knew well.

- a) much b) a few c) little d) a little e) a

61. If you have ... spare time, look through this book.

- a) many b) a few c) a little d) few e) fewer

62. She gave him ... water to wash his hands and face.

- a) many b) few c) a few d) a little e) a

63. The rivers in America are much ... than those in England.

- a) bigger b) the biggest c) big d) more big e) the most big

64. What is the name of the ... mountain in Asia?

- a) high b) higher c) the highest d) more high e) the most high

65. The London underground is ... in the world.

- a) old b) older c) elder d) the oldest e) the eldest

66. Unless it ... considerably altered, the offer will not be accepted.

- a) is b) will be c) won't be d) are e) am

67. He ... this translation for an hour already but he has not finished it yet.

- a) has been doing b) has done c) had done d) have done e) have been doing

68) I ... the washing up when the phone rang.

- a) am doing b) had been doing c) was doing d) were doing e) is doing

69) If we ... him he will take us there.

- a) asked b) will ask c) ask d) asks e) has asked

70) He will see you as soon as Mr. Brown

- a) leaves b) will leave c) is leaving d) are leaving e) left

71) He could ... ill, if he hadn't taken the medicine.

- a) have fallen b) fall c) fell d) falls e) is falling

72) This time next week I'll probably ... on a beautiful beach.

- a) lie b) lye c) be lying d) are lying e) lies

73) We're late. I think the film will already ... by the time we get to the cinema.

- a) start b) be starting c) have started d) has started e) starts

74) The room ... cleaned when I arrived.

a) was being b) was c) has been d) were e) have been

75) When we got back from the holiday we found out that our house

a) was broken into b) had been broken into c) was being broken into

d) were being broken into e) has been broken into