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GRAMMAR THEORY

Учебное пособие

Рекомендовано ученым советом федерального государственного бюджетного образовательного учреждения высшего образования «Оренбургский государственный университет» для обучающихся по образовательным программам высшего образования по направлению подготовки 45.03.01 Филология

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В учебном пособии «Grammar Theory» представлены упражнения и задания, необходимые для успешного и продуктивного знакомства обучающихся с дисциплиной «Основной язык/языки (теоретический курс)» в 6 семестре.

Учебное пособие предназначено для обеспечения аудиторной и самостоятельной работы обучающихся очной формы обучения по направлению подготовки 45.03.01 Филология, профиль «Зарубежная филология».

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Introduction

«Grammar Theory» – учебное пособие по дисциплине «Основной язык/языки (теоретический курс)», предназначенное для обеспечения аудиторной и самостоятельной работы студентов очной формы обучения по направлению подготовки 45.03.01 Филология, профиль Зарубежная филология.

Пособие в полной мере соотносится с рабочей программой дисциплины и включает такие темы как «Грамматический строй английского языка», «Морфология», «Части речи», «Синтаксис», «Текст, его единицы: высказывание, сверхфразовое единство», которые составляют первую главу издания. Вторая глава содержит аутентичный материал, обогащающий содержание вышеперечисленных тем и созданный на основе учебно-методических и научно-исследовательских материалов сайта Collins Dictionary.

Данное пособие, благодаря входящему в его структуру комплексу упражнений и заданий, знакомит студентов с положениями теоретической грамматики английского языка, лингвистическими понятиями и явлениями, их типологиями и обоснованиями. Названный комплекс включает в себя ряд обязательных компонентов: список вопросов для обсуждения; глоссарий; упражнения практико-ориентированной направленности; тестирование. В структуру большинства тем также входит задание на прочтение аутентичных статей научного или научно-популярного характера, освещающих актуальные тенденции языкового развития и сопровождающихся заданиями дискуссионного характера.

Разнообразие упражнений, их содержание и тематическая направленность обеспечивают формирование таких компетенций филолога как ОПК-1, подразумевающей «способность использовать в профессиональной деятельности, в том числе педагогической, представление об истории, современном состоянии и перспективах развития филологии в целом и ее конкретной области с учетом направленности (профиля) образовательной программы», а также ОПК-2, отвечающей за «способность использовать в

профессиональной деятельности, в том числе педагогической, основные положения и концепции в области общего языкознания, теории и истории основного изучаемого языка (языков), теории коммуникации».

Целью данного пособия является расширение кругозора студентов; формирование навыков работы с лингвистическими объектами и лексикографическими изданиями; создание глоссария, который необходим для успешного профессионального общения и развития терминологической грамотности обучающихся; развитие навыков и умений чтения на базе современных аутентичных научных и научно-популярных материалов, а также формирование коммуникативных способностей на основе прочитанного материала.

Необходимость создания данного учебного пособия продиктована потребностью познакомить студентов с понятиями, концепциями и терминами теоретической грамматики, вызвать интерес к нормам употребления языка, их теоретическому обоснованию и сформировать более высокий уровень самообразовательных навыков.

1 English Grammar Theory

1.1 Grammar System of the English Language

Outline

1. Theoretical Grammar: aims and concepts.
2. Insight into history of Theoretical Grammar.
3. Grammar elements.
4. Grammar subdivisions.
5. Grammar units' relations.

Glossary

Grammar system; a grammar element; an utterance; (pre)normative grammar; a plane of content; a plane of expression; morphology; syntax; syntagmatic relations; paradigmatic relations; a paradigm; a segmental sequence; a hierarchy of levels; predicative\objective\attributive\adverbial syntagmas; segmental\supra-segmental language units.

Task 1.

Revise the terms from the Glossary list given above to get ready for the dictation. The definitions for the terms under study are provided in Appendix A.

Task 2.

Read the entry from Encyclopedia Britannica on the notion of Grammar. Do the assignments suggested below afterwards.

Grammar, rules of a language governing the sounds, words, sentences, and other elements, as well as their combination and interpretation. The word grammar also denotes the study of these abstract features or a book presenting these rules. In a restricted sense, the term refers only to the study of sentence and word structure (syntax and morphology), excluding vocabulary and pronunciation.

Conceptions of grammar

A common contemporary definition of grammar is the underlying structure of a language that any native speaker of that language knows intuitively. The systematic description of the features of a language is also a grammar. These features are the phonology (sound), morphology (system of word formation), syntax (patterns of

word arrangement), and semantics (meaning). Depending on the grammarian's approach, a grammar can be prescriptive (i.e., provide rules for correct usage), descriptive (i.e., describe how a language is actually used), or generative (i.e., provide instructions for the production of an infinite number of sentences in a language). The traditional focus of inquiry has been on morphology and syntax, and for some contemporary linguists (and many traditional grammarians) this is the only proper domain of the subject.

Ancient and medieval grammars

In Europe the Greeks were the first to write grammars. To them, grammar was a tool that could be used in the study of Greek literature; hence their focus on the literary language. The Alexandrians of the 1st century BC further developed Greek grammar in order to preserve the purity of the language. Dionysus Thrax of Alexandria later wrote an influential treatise called *The Art of Grammar*, in which he analyzed literary texts in terms of letters, syllables, and eight parts of speech.

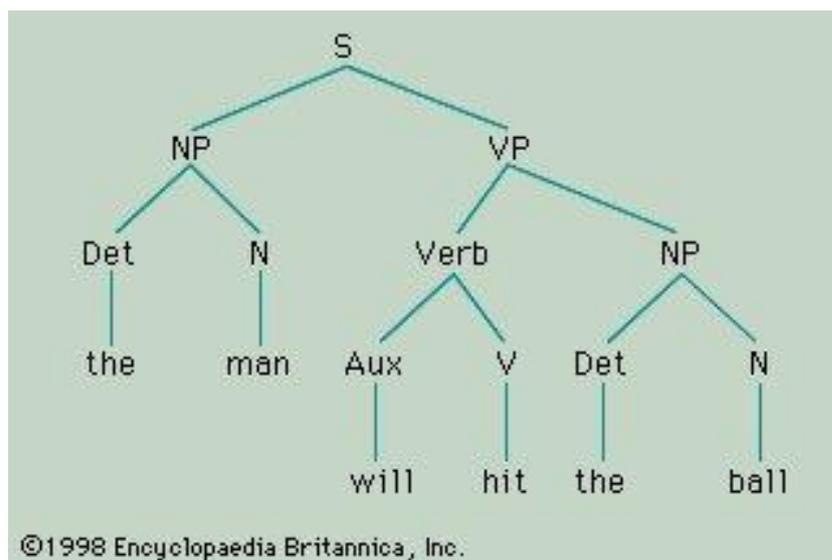
The Romans adopted the grammatical system of the Greeks and applied it to Latin. Except for Varro, of the 1st century BC, who believed that grammarians should discover structures, not dictate them, most Latin grammarians did not attempt to alter the Greek system and also sought to protect their language from decay. Whereas the model for the Greeks and Alexandrians was the language of Homer, the works of Cicero and Virgil set the Latin standard. The works of Donatus (4th century AD) and Priscian (6th century AD), the most important Latin grammarians, were widely used to teach Latin grammar during the European Middle Ages. In medieval Europe, education was conducted in Latin, and Latin grammar became the foundation of the liberal arts curriculum. Many grammars were composed for students during this time. Aelfric, the abbot of Eynsham (11th century), who wrote the first Latin grammar in Anglo-Saxon, proposed that this work serve as an introduction to English grammar as well. Thus began the tradition of analyzing English grammar according to a Latin model.

The *modistae*, grammarians of the mid-13th to mid-14th century who viewed language as a reflection of reality, looked to philosophy for explanations of

grammatical rules. The modistae sought one “universal” grammar that would serve as a means of understanding the nature of being. In 17th-century France a group of grammarians from Port-Royal were also interested in the idea of universal grammar. They claimed that common elements of thought could be discerned in grammatical categories of all languages. Unlike their Greek and Latin counterparts, the Port-Royal grammarians did not study literary language but claimed instead that usage should be dictated by the actual speech of living languages. Noting their emphasis on linguistic universals, the contemporary linguist Noam Chomsky called the Port-Royal group the first transformational grammarians.

Modern and contemporary grammars

By 1700 grammars of 61 vernacular languages had been printed. These were written primarily for purposes of reforming, purifying, or standardizing language and were put to pedagogical use. Rules of grammar usually accounted for formal, written, literary language only and did not apply to all the varieties of actual, spoken language. This prescriptive approach long dominated the schools, where the study of grammar came to be associated with “parsing” and sentence diagramming. Opposition to teaching solely in terms of prescriptive and proscriptive (i.e., what must not be done) rules grew during the middle decades of the 20th century.



Picture 1. Structural description of the sentence “The man will hit the ball,” assigned by the rules of a simple phrase-structure grammar.

The simplification of grammar for classroom use contrasted sharply with the complex studies that scholars of linguistics were conducting about languages. During the 19th and early 20th centuries the historical point of view flourished. Scholars who realized that every living language was in a constant state of flux studied all types of written records of modern European languages to determine the courses of their evolution. They did not limit their inquiry to literary languages but included dialects and contemporary spoken languages as well. Historical grammarians did not follow earlier prescriptive approaches but were interested, instead, in discovering where the language under study came from.

As a result of the work of historical grammarians, scholars came to see that the study of language can be either diachronic (its development through time) or synchronic (its state at a particular time). The Swiss linguist Ferdinand de Saussure and other descriptive linguists began studying the spoken language. They collected a large sample of sentences produced by native speakers of a language and classified their material starting with phonology and working their way to syntax.

Generative, or transformational, grammarians of the second half of the 20th century, such as Noam Chomsky, studied the knowledge that native speakers possess which enables them to produce and understand an infinite number of sentences. Whereas descriptivists like Saussure examined samples of individual speech to arrive at a description of a language, transformationalists first studied the underlying structure of a language. They attempted to describe the “rules” that define a native speaker’s “competence” (unconscious knowledge of the language) and account for all instances of the speaker’s “performance” (strategies the individual uses in actual sentence production).

The study of grammatical theory has been of interest to philosophers, anthropologists, psychologists, and literary critics over the centuries. Today, grammar exists as a field within linguistics but still retains a relationship with these other disciplines. For many people, grammar still refers to the body of rules one must know in order to speak or write “correctly.” However, from the last quarter of the 20th century a more sophisticated awareness of grammatical issues has taken root,

especially in schools. In some countries, such as Australia and the United Kingdom, new English curricula have been devised in which grammar is a focus of investigation, avoiding the prescriptivism of former times and using techniques that promote a lively and thoughtful spirit of inquiry.

Source: <https://www.britannica.com/topic/grammar>.

A. Make sure you can pronounce the following proper names easily and correctly: the Alexandrians; Dionysus Thrax of Alexandria; Varro; Homer; Cicero; Virgil; Donatus; Priscian; Aelfric, the abbot of Eynsham; Port-Royal; Noam Chomsky; Ferdinand de Saussure.

B. Answer the questions below.

1. What does the word “grammar” denote? Consider the wide and the restricted senses.
2. What is a common contemporary definition of grammar?
3. What language features does grammar describe?
4. What does grammar traditionally focus upon?
5. Provide a brief outline of grammar evolution.
6. What model was accepted for analyzing English grammar?
7. Who has developed the idea of “universal” grammar? What does it imply?
8. Who are referred to as the first transformational grammarians?
9. When did the printed grammar manuals appear? What is meant by “vernacular languages”?
10. What does “parsing” and sentence diagramming imply?
11. What types of language study have been outlined by historical grammarians?
12. Who has initiated studying of the spoken language?
13. What other disciplines is grammar connected with?

Task 3.

Read the article below and get ready to discuss the difference between theoretical grammar and traditional grammar; theoretical grammar and pedagogical

grammar; descriptive grammar and theoretical grammar. Provide the arguments to prove your points. Organize your ideas in a form of a mind map (use <https://www.mindmeister.com/>).

An Introduction to Theoretical Grammar

By Richard Nordquist

Updated July 03, 2019

Theoretical grammar is concerned with language in general rather than with an individual language, as is the study of essential components of any human language. Transformational grammar is one variety of theoretical grammar.

According to Antoinette Renouf and Andrew Kehoe:

"Theoretical grammar or syntax is concerned with making completely explicit the formalisms of grammar, and in providing scientific arguments or explanations in favour of one account of grammar rather than another, in terms of a general theory of human language" (Antoinette Renouf and Andrew Kehoe, *The Changing Face of Corpus Linguistics*. Rodopi, 2003).

Traditional Grammar vs. Theoretical Grammar

"What generative linguists mean by 'grammar' should not be confused, in the first instance, with what ordinary persons or nonlinguists might refer to by that term: namely, a traditional or pedagogical grammar such as the kind used to teach language to children in 'grammar school.' A pedagogical grammar typically provides paradigms of regular constructions, lists of prominent exceptions to these constructions (irregular verbs, etc.), and descriptive commentary at various levels of detail and generality about the form and meaning of expressions in a language (Chomsky 1986a: 6). By contrast, a theoretical grammar, in Chomsky's framework, is a scientific theory: it seeks to provide a complete theoretical characterization of the speaker-hearer's knowledge of her language, where this knowledge is interpreted to refer to a particular set of mental states and structures.

The difference between a theoretical grammar and a pedagogical grammar is one important distinction to bear in mind in order to avoid confusion about how the term 'grammar' operates in theoretical linguistics. A second, more fundamental

distinction is between a theoretical grammar and a mental grammar" (John Mikhail, *Elements of Moral Cognition: Rawls' Linguistic Analogy and the Cognitive Science of Moral and Legal Judgment*. Cambridge University Press, 2011).

Descriptive Grammar vs. Theoretical Grammar

"A descriptive grammar (or reference grammar) catalogues the facts of a language, whereas a theoretical grammar uses some theory about the nature of language to explain why the language contains certain forms and not others" (Paul Baker, Andrew Hardie, and Tony McEnery, *A Glossary of Corpus Linguistics*. Edinburgh University Press, 2006).

Descriptive and Theoretical Linguistics

"The purpose of descriptive and theoretical linguistics is to further our understanding of language. This is done through a continual process of testing theoretical assumptions against data, and analyzing data in the light of those assumptions which previous analyses have confirmed to such a degree that they form a more or less integral whole that is accepted as the currently preferred theory. Between them, the mutually dependent fields of descriptive and theoretical linguistics provide accounts and explanations of how things seem to be in language, and a terminology for use in discussions" (O. Classe, *Encyclopedia of Literary Translation Into English*. Taylor & Francis, 2000).

"It seems that in modern theoretical grammar the differences between morphological and syntactic constructions are beginning to show up, for example in the fact that, in the European languages at least, syntactic constructions tend to be right-branching while morphological constructions tend to be left-branching" (Pieter A. M. Seuren, *Western Linguistics: An Historical Introduction*. Blackwell, 1998).

Source: <https://www.thoughtco.com/theoretical-grammar-1692541>.

Task 4.

Reflect upon the links between Grammar and other linguistic branches such as:

- Phonetics;
- Lexicology;
- Stylistics.

Give examples to prove your point.

Task 5.

Fill in the table with data reflecting the history of English grammars (Table 1).

| Grammar type | Aim | Representative(s) |
|----------------------------------|-----|-------------------|
| Early descriptive grammar | | |
| Prescriptive grammar | | |
| Scientific grammar | | |
| Historical grammar | | |
| Comparative grammar | | |
| General grammar | | |
| Structural grammar | | |
| Transformational grammar | | |
| Communicatively oriented grammar | | |
| Semantically oriented grammar | | |
| Pragmatically oriented grammar | | |
| Textual grammar | | |

Table 1. History of English grammars

Task 6.

Follow the link <https://learningenglish.voanews.com/a/education-report-rethinking-grammar-who-makes-the-rules/3005148.html> to listen to the report by Dr. Richard Epstein, a linguist at Rutgers University in Camden, New Jersey, about grammar and grammar rules. Answer the following questions afterwards.

- A. What is the definition of “prescriptive grammar”?
- B. What is meant by the term “Standard American English”?
- C. What is the definition of “descriptive grammar”?
- D. Demonstrate by the examples that prescriptive and descriptive grammars have a different approach to language facts.

E. Explain the Case of the Double Negative. What is the gist of the problem?

F. Refer to the example of using the form “ain’t”. What does the rule say? What are the real facts of its usage?

Refer to Appendix A to consult the full text of the script.

Task 7.

Fill in the table defining the types of syntagmas and supplementing them with proper examples.

| Syntagmas | Definition | Examples |
|-------------|------------|----------|
| Predicative | | |
| Objective | | |
| Attributive | | |
| Adverbial | | |

Table 2. Types of syntagmas

Task 8.

Study the table below where language levels are listed. Fill in the missing information concerning language units representing each level and their functions.

| Language level | Language unit | Function |
|----------------|---------------|----------|
| Dictemic | | |
| Proposemic | | |
| Denotemic | | |
| Phrasemic | | |
| Lexemic | | |
| Morphemic | | |
| Phonemic | | |

Table 3. Language levels and their units

Task 9.

Report on one of the scholars who carried out research in the field of grammar theory. Refer to Appendix C to make your choice.

Task 10.

Comment upon the following quotation: «Grammar is the structural foundation of our ability to express ourselves. The more we are aware of how it works, the more we can monitor the meaning and effectiveness of the way we and others use language. It can help foster precision, detect ambiguity, and exploit the richness of expression available in English» (David Crystal, "In Word and Deed," TES Teacher, April 30, 2004).

Test yourself

1. One of the prominent representatives of classical scientific grammar is Henry ...

- a) Sweet;
- b) White;
- c) Manfield;
- d) the eighth.

2. Any language unit has a plane of expression and a plane of ...

- a) meaning;
- b) impression;
- c) content;
- d) syntax.

3. The branch of grammar which studies the arrangement of form and structures is ...

- a) syntax;
- b) morphology;
- c) lexicology;
- d) discourse analysis.

4. The branch of grammar which studies the parts of speech and their categories is ...

- a) syntax;
- b) morphology;
- c) lexicology;

d) discourse analysis.

5. The relations between units in a segmental sequence are called ...

a) syntagmatic;

b) paradigmatic;

c) semantic;

d) syntactic.

6. The relations between units based on different formal and functional properties are called ...

a) paradigmatic;

b) syntagmatic;

c) semantic;

d) syntactic.

7. The prevailing type of opposition in English grammar is ...

a) equipotent;

b) gradual;

c) privative.

8. The member of the opposition which is formally marked by the presence of a certain differential feature is ...

a) a strong (positive) member of the opposition;

b) a weak (negative) member of the opposition.

9. In the category of case opposition (girl-girl's) the form of genitive is ...

a) a strong (positive) member of the opposition;

b) a weak (negative) member of the opposition.

10. Semantically the weak member of the opposition is ...

a) more general and more abstract, used in a wider range of contexts;

b) more particular and concrete, used in a narrower range of contexts.

11. Pre-normative grammar appeared at the end of the 16th century and it was based on the principals of ...

a) the Latin grammar description;

b) the Greek grammar;

c) the Gothic grammar;

d) the Roman grammar.

12. The first grammar book by ... set a standard for the arrangement of material and suggested the possibility of presenting English forms using the same terminology as in Latin grammar.

a) Henry Sweet;

b) Charles Fries;

c) William Lily;

d) Otto Jespersen.

1.2 Morphology

Outline

1. Basic notions of morphology.

2. Syntactical distributional classification.

3. Categorical structure of the English word.

Glossary

A morpheme; a word; a meaningful component; a root; a stem; an affix; an inflection; word building; word formation; allo-terms; eme-terms; distributional analysis; left\right environment; contrastive\non-contrastive\complementary distribution; free\bound\semi-bound morphemes; overt\covert morphemes; additive\replacive morphemes; continuous\discontinuous morphemes; grammatical meaning; grammatical form; grammatical category; a categorial function; grammatical opposition; privative\gradual\equipollent oppositions; synthetic\analytical forms; suppletive forms; vowel interchange.

Task 1.

Revise the terms from the Glossary list given above to get ready for the dictation. The definitions for the terms under study are provided in Appendix A.

Task 2.

Compare and contrast derivational and inflectional morphemes. Fill in the table with the results of your analysis.

| Feature | Derivational morpheme | Inflectional morpheme |
|--------------|-----------------------|-----------------------|
| Formative | | |
| Recursive | | |
| Position | | |
| Independence | | |

Table 4. Derivational and inflectional morphemes

Task 3.

Comment upon the term «zero-morpheme». How justified is its usage? Is it equivalent to the variant «zero-exponent»?

Task 4.

Prove the point that one and the same morphemic segment of functional status, depending on various morphemic environments, can be used as an affix or as a root. Consider the following examples: out; throughout; outing; outline; out-talk; knock-out. Give your own examples of similar nature.

Task 5.

Read the extract from the article «Language change and morphological processes» by Camiel Hamans, University of Amsterdam, on affixoids (or semi-affixes). Summarize the contents and provide the definition of the phenomenon under study illustrated with your own examples.

Morphological change is not a result of mechanical, predictable processes, but of the behavior of language users. Speakers reinterpret opaque data in order to assign a more transparent structure to them. Subsequently successful reinterpretation may form the basis of new derivations. The moment such a derivative word formation process becomes productive a language change has taken place. <...>

The change that will be discussed here is a form of reinterpretation of opaque forms as if they were transparently analyzable (grammatical) syntagmas (Marchand 1969: 2) followed by a subsequent liberation of elements. The result of such a process is called a libfix by Zwicky (2010). On a scale of bondedness such a change may be described as a change from more to less bound.

Traditionally one uses the term splinter for such non-morphemic portions of a word that has been split off (Adams 1973: 142, 149; Bauer et al. 2013: 19, 525; Lehrer 1996: 361; Mattiello 2013: 258; Mattiello 2017: 8,16,71–72; for Dutch, Meesters (2002) and Van den Toorn 1983). Since the term splinter focuses on the result of the process of splitting and not on the potential of the remaining portion, we prefer the new term libfix, in which its allusion on affix emphasizes the possible productive word formation aspect, that will be shown hereafter. In addition, the term splinter quite often is defined as “parts of words in blends which are intended to be recognized as belonging to a target word, but which are not independent formatives” (Lehrer 1996: 361). As we will see also splinters of opaque, non-blend, forms may become a recurrent element in a series of new formations, which is another reason to prefer the new term libfix.

A first example from Marchand (1969: 211) will show how libfixing may work.

(1) English *scape*

(1a) *landscape*

(1b) *seascape*

mindscape

moonscape

(1c) *soundscape*

dreamscape

memoryscape

Landscape is an opaque form, in which the speakers of English recognize an existing word land. Subsequent reinterpretation then leads to an analysis as if landscape is a compound. So *scape must be attributed a certain morphological status, which makes it possible to use it productively as in (1b). The recent coinings soundscape, dreamscape and memoryscape show that the process is still productive.

Since *scape does not have a clear morphological status of its own, one may call it a libfix following Zwicky (2010); in this case more precisely a postlibfix. It is

not necessary that the language speaker recognizes an existing word in the opaque form, as another example, also adapted from Marchand (1969: 212-213), will show.

(2) English *cavalcade*

(2a) *autocade*

aquacade

motorcade

camelcade

“The word *cavalcade* was re-interpreted as containing the element *caval-* ‘horse’ and the suffix *-cade* ‘parade’” (Marchand 1969: 212).

Another similar example offers forms derived from the English forms *Watergate* and *hamburger*.

(3) *Watergate*

(3a) *closetgate*

nipplegate

donutgate

(4) *hamburger*

(4a) *fishburger*

weedburger

cheeseburger

Originally *Watergate* was a compound, but in the meaning discussed here it was only a name, without any transparent morphological structure. However, since the original form is a grammatical syntagma, speakers of the language distinguished two separate elements *water-* and *-gate* of which the last one became used in a word formation process productively. Since the meaning of *-gate* in this process has no relation whatsoever with the original meaning one cannot describe this process either as a form of (quasi) compounding or as a process of affixoidation. Therefore, an analysis in terms of libfixing seems more adequate.

The hamburger-case may be analyzed in a similar way. Speakers reinterpret hamburger as a quasi-compound, consisting of ham and burger, which resulted in a productive process of -burger derivation.

Source: Camiel Hamans. Language change and morphological processes // Yearbook of the Poznac Linguistic Meeting 3 (2017), pp. 1–23. DOI: 10.1515/yplm-2017-0001.

Task 6.

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

Task 7.

Compare and contrast grammatical meaning and lexical meaning. Fill in the table with the results of your analysis.

| Feature | Grammatical meaning | Lexical meaning |
|-----------------------|---------------------|-----------------|
| Degree of abstraction | | |
| Content | | |
| Form of expression | | |
| Thought basis | | |

Table 5. Grammatical meaning vs Lexical meaning

Task 8.

Explain the links between the notions «grammatical form», «grammeme» and «grammatical category».

Task 9.

What feature(s) of grammatical forms are revealed in the following examples:

- Who did they see? – Whom did they see?
- It's me. – It's I.
- He drinks a lot. – Have you got any soft drinks?

Task 10.

Read the extract on the English language evolution from the synthetic to analytical type. Recall the course of the English Language History and give your own examples to prove the point.

Drift in the history of English

By Raymond Hickey

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January 2012

There is a generalisation about the development of English morphology which holds true particularly for the Middle English period: inflections are reduced and then lost with other mechanisms arising which compensate for this. This gradual shift from a synthetic language type in Old English to an analytic type in Modern English has been known as drift ever since the term was introduced by the American linguist Edward Sapir at the beginning of this century.

Three reasons for drift in English

1) Simplification, lack of redundancy in bilingual situations (Old English and Scandinavian in the north of the country).

2) Infection of Old English through contact with British Celtic which already had inflectional decay due to phonetic attrition.

3) Long-term effect of the initial stress-accent of Germanic which led to a corresponding weakening of unstressed syllables, typically morphological endings.

Not all languages which were once synthetic have lost their inflections. For instance verbal and nominal endings have been retained to a large extent in German. Hence the question arises as to whether there are recognisable causes for the observed drift in English. The standard wisdom on the subject is that the mixture of languages in the Old English period gave the impetus. Certainly there was a high degree of bilingualism in the north as of the 9th century when the Scandinavians established a firm foothold there. Furthermore, it is true that the north of England has been more innovative in morphology than the south, in keeping with the assumption that mixing leads to change, given that when speakers of one language are dealing with those of another then they tend to leave out unnecessary, redundant elements which are not required for conveying meanings.

There may well have been a further powerful force behind the demise of inflections in Old English. It is known that the Celtic languages which were in England before the arrival of the continental Germanic tribes showed considerable weakening in the articulation of consonants – a phonetic process known as lenition – and that this led to the ultimate loss of many inflections in these languages (Modern Welsh and Cornish and Modern Irish in Ireland). Now the Germanic tribes mixed with the Celts once they had subdued them. They did not banish them out of the land they conquered, as shown by the Old English word *wealh* which means both ‘Celt’ and ‘slave’. The assumption here is that the ‘soft’ pronunciation of consonants in British Celtic infected the pronunciation of Old English – In the north as much as elsewhere in the country as Celtic was spoken over the entire country and not just in the west and south-west as was later to be the case with the retreat to these areas. This is not an unreasonable assumption as it is known from other regions that linguistic features – particularly low-level ones, such as lack of aspiration with consonants or the use of extra vowels to break up groups of consonants – tend to cluster in geographical areas. The advantage of the hypothesis of an influence of Celtic on Old English is that it gives a greater time depth to the decay of inflections. The fact that this influence is not immediately apparent in Old English has to do with the fact that the West Saxon *koinē* masked many of the innovations which had taken place in morphology and which only came to the surface in writing in the documents of the Early Middle English period – as of the late 12th century when written material in English rather than French or Latin began slowly to appear again.

There is a third reason which should be taken into account here. If one compares the Germanic sub-group of languages with others in the Indo-European family then one sees that it developed a strong initial stress-accent in its early development, probably sometime after the first millennium BC. It shares this stress pattern with Italic but not with the Slavic or Baltic subgroups for example. Stress frequently has a demarcative function in language and in Germanic it was placed on the lexical root of words so that these were easily recognisable. This must have been different before in Indo-European because the oldest stages of the language family

have variable stress and within Germanic there are reflexes of the former stress pattern, for instance in the alternation between /s/ and /r/ in *Verlust* but *verlieren* which goes back to Verner's Law combined with rhotacism (the shift of /z/ to /r/ in intervocalic position). The result of strong lexical root stress is the backgrounding of morphological affixes – prefixes and inflectional endings. The less distinct the phonetic profile of an ending is, the more likely it is to be neglected by speakers and eventually dropped or for it to merge with other endings. Thus neither German nor English still have a distinction between inflectional /-n/ and /-m/ although the former has retained a far greater number of inherited inflections.

As is often the case in language development the reasons for the drift towards an analytic type are probably manifold, then one would argue not so much about a single cause as the relative importance of the different causes. Whatever the weighting of the contributory factors in the drift, the effect was the same: phonetic attrition led to the blurring of inflectional distinctions and later to their loss. For instance the Old English nominal endings -a, -u, -e originally had separate vowel values but these coalesced to one in Middle English, -e [ə]. The distinctions between /-n/ and /-m/ in endings was lost and this along with the vowel mergers meant that -an, -on, -un, -um all reduced to -en [ən]. A general levelling of the phonetic distinction between unstressed /a/ and /e/ meant that /-as/ and /-es/ as well as /-aθ/ and /-eθ/ were no longer distinguished in pronunciation. Final -e [ə] was lost in the north by the mid 13th century and by the end of that century had disappeared in the south as well.

Source: Raymond Hickey. *Studying the History of English*. https://www.uni-due.de/SHE/HE_Grammar_Drift.html.

Task 11.

Identify the type of the following grammar forms and distribute them into a corresponding column in the table below: will grow; boys; has written; greatest; is given; sleeps; is raining; man – men; has been doing; they – them; must have been; this – these; was calling; sing – sang – sung; more important.

| Analytical forms | Synthetic forms |
|------------------|-----------------|
| | |

Table 6. Analytical vs. Synthetic forms

Task 12.

Consider the phenomenon of sound interchange and give the examples of :

- ablaut;
- umlaut;
- vowel interchange;
- consonant interchange.

Task 13.

Consider the phenomenon of suppletivity and give the corresponding examples of grammar forms in the English and Russian languages.

Task 14.

Enumerate the conditions of singling out grammatical categories. Prove your points with your own examples.

Task 15.

Consider the notion of «opposition» and fill in the table with the examples demonstrating the types of oppositions.

| Privative | Gradual | Equipollent |
|-----------|---------|-------------|
| | | |

Table 7. Opposition types

Task 16.

Analyze the oppositions and say what grammatical categories they constitute:

has::has had; will have:: will be having; is done:: has been done; will have:: will be had; is writing:: was writing::will be writing; goose::geese; men::men's; he::him.

Task 17.

Define the term «oppositional reduction (substitution)». Dwell upon the following examples and explain why they refer to the phenomenon mentioned above:

- Man ruins nature.

- Tonight we start for Berlin.
- You are always asking silly questions.

Give your own examples to illustrate the oppositional reduction, opposition neutralization, etc.

Test yourself .

1. The grammatical suffixes are also called ...

- a) morphs;
- b) morphemes;
- c) inflections;
- d) prefixes.

2. The meaning of the morpheme is ...

- a) nominative;
- b) significative;
- c) vague;
- d) distributional.

3. Which type of affixes can function only as lexical (derivative or word-building) affixes?

- a) prefix;
- b) suffix;
- c) infix;
- d) postfix.

4. Suffix –ed in the verb ‘decided’ (as in ‘he decided to stay’) is ...

- a) lexical;
- b) grammatical;
- c) semantic;
- d) syntactic.

5. Suffix –ed in the adjective ‘relaxed’ (as in ‘relaxed atmosphere’) is ...

- a) lexical;
- b) grammatical;
- c) semantic;

d) syntactic.

6. Allomorphs (variants) of the same morpheme are distinguished in...

a) contrastive distribution;

b) non-contrastive distribution;

c) complementary distribution;

d) binary distribution.

7. In which of the following words 's' is not the allomorph of the same morpheme?

a) speaks;

b) dreams;

c) phonetics;

d) washes.

8. The lexical morpheme –ment is ..

a) free;

b) bound;

c) semi-bound.

9. "Zero" morpheme is ...

a) overt;

b) covert.

10. In the word 'worked' affixation is ...

a) additive;

b) replacive.

11. A system of expressing a generalized grammatical meaning by means of paradigmatical correlation of grammatical forms is ...

a) a grammatical category;

b) a grammatical type;

c) a grammatical function;

d) grammatical means.

12. The grammatical interchange of word roots to produce another part of speech or another grammatical form is called ...

- a) word formation;
- b) word building;
- c) conversion;
- d) suppletivity.

1.3 Parts of Speech

Outline

1. Parts of speech: notion and types.
2. Features of parts of speech.
3. Parts of speech in English: their variety and categories
 - 3.1 Finite verbs.
 - 3.1.1 General characteristics and classes.
 - 3.1.2 The categories of person and number.
 - 3.1.3 The categories of tense and aspect.
 - 3.1.4 The categories of mood and voice.
 - 3.2 Non-finite verbs.
 - 3.2.1 The Infinitive.
 - 3.2.2 The Gerund.
 - 3.2.3 Participles I and II.
 - 3.3 The Nouns.
 - 3.4 The Adjectives and statives.
 - 3.5 The Adverb.
 - 3.6 The Pronoun.
 - 3.7 The Numeral.
 - 3.8 Function words.

Glossary

Parts of speech; semantic\morphological\syntactic description; declinable\indeclinable parts of speech; theory of ranks; a principle of determination; a positional principle; function words; syntactic valency; word formative affixes; heterogeneity; grammatical field; kernel; periphery; notional\functional parts of

speech; subcategorization; finite\non-finite forms; verbals; the categories of mood\voice\aspect\tense\ person\number; substantive; substantivized; countable\uncountable; animate\inanimate; abstract\concrete; absolute singular\absolute plural; the category of gender; feminine\masculine\neuter; common gender; positional cases; article determination; relative\qualitative; positive\comparative\superlative degrees of comparison; personal\possessive\reflexive\reciprocal\negative\interrogative\relative\demonstrative \conjunctive\defining\indefinite; cardinal\ordinal; particle; interjection; preposition; conjunction.

Task 1.

Revise the terms from the Glossary list given above to get ready for the dictation. The definitions for the terms under study are provided in Appendix A.

Task 2.

Read the entry from Encyclopedia Britannica on Grammatical information provided in dictionaries. Do the assignments listed below.

Dictionaries are obliged to contain the two basic types of words of a language – the “function words” (those that perform the grammatical functions in a language, such as the articles, pronouns, prepositions, and conjunctions) and the “referential words” (those that symbolize entities outside the language system). Each type must be treated in a suitable way. Dictionaries have been much criticized for not including a sufficiency of grammatical information. It is usual to mark the part of speech, but not the categories of mass noun and count noun. (A mass noun, such as milk or oxygen, cannot ordinarily be used in the plural, while a count noun is any noun that can be pluralized.) Such information is given in some dictionaries designed for teaching, and the technique could well be adopted more generally. The irregular inflections must be given, showing that one says goose, geese, but not moose, meese. Or in the verbs, one says walk, walked, but ride, rode. It is usual to treat the different parts of speech as separate lexical entries, as in “to walk” and “to take a walk,” requiring a parallel list of senses, but Thorndike, in his school dictionaries,

experimented with grouping the parts of speech together when they had a similar sense.

The relation of grammar to the vocabulary is the subject of considerable controversy among linguists. If one considers the analysis of language as one unified enterprise, then the grammar is central and the lexical units are inserted at some point in the analysis. Another view is that the division is into coordinate branches, such as phonology, syntax, and lexicon. Certainly lexicographers try to take advantage of all findings made by grammarians.

Source: <https://www.britannica.com/topic/dictionary/Features-and-problems#ref31971>.

A. Answer the following questions:

1. Name two basic types of language words differentiated in dictionary entries.
2. What kind of grammatical information is normally given in dictionary entries? Does it vary?
3. Where can we find grammatical information within a dictionary entry? Demonstrate your skills on the basis of any dictionary of your choice.

B. Study the entries for the following words: intelligence; suburbs; smoke; while; close, to find out their grammatical information. Consider such sources as Oxford Dictionary <https://www.oxfordlearnersdictionaries.com/>, MacMillan Dictionary <https://www.macmillandictionary.com/>, Collins Dictionary <https://www.collinsdictionary.com/>, Merriam Webster Dictionary <https://www.merriam-webster.com/>.

Task 3.

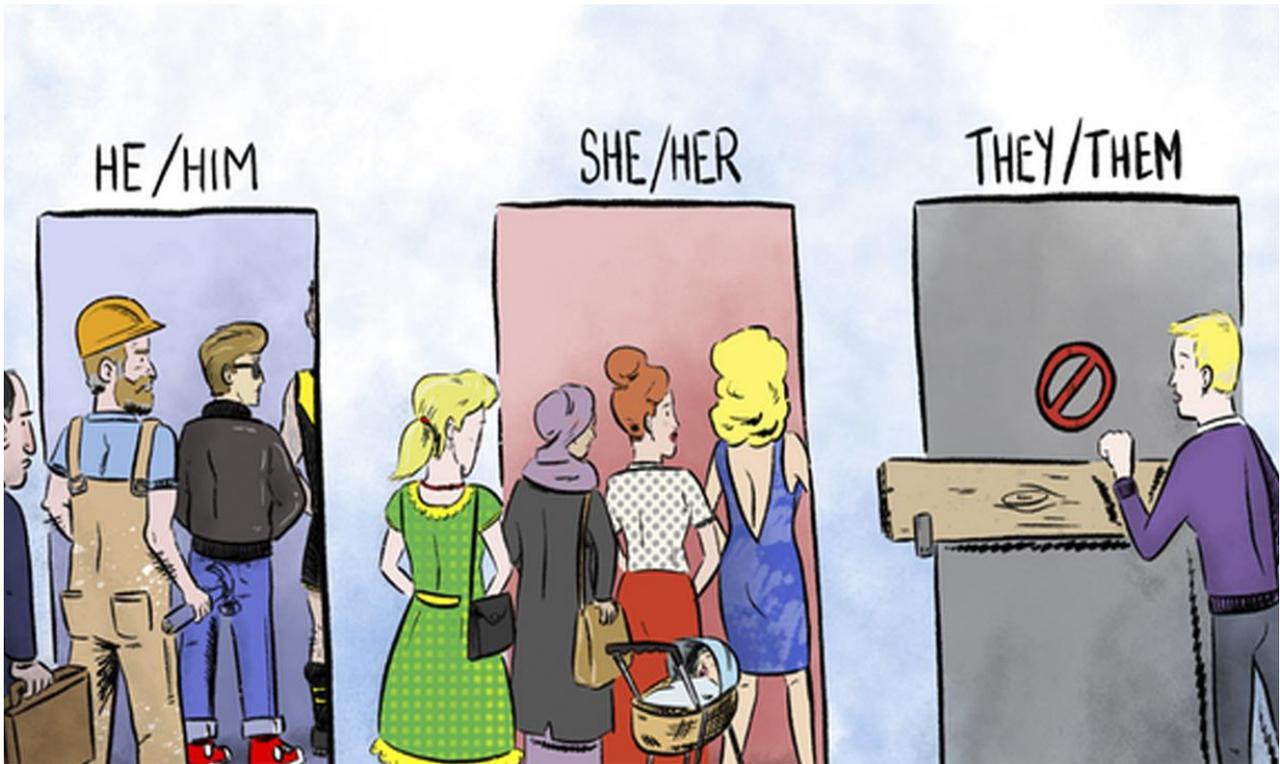
Comment upon the term «parts of speech». Is it objective or arbitrary? Can you name any synonymic variants to exchange it with?

Task 4.

Recall the classic fundamental classification of parts of speech into notional and functional. Enumerate all parts of speech referring to either type.

Task 5.

Read the article on the recent change in the English grammar and usage. Has it found any reflection in your speech?



Picture 2

Singular They Continues to be the Focus of Language Change

January 6, 2020

By Mark Allen

It was the decade of the epicene pronoun, as the usually plural *they* gained new acceptance with its singular sense as a way to avoid assumptions or make generalizations about gender.

They was declared by the American Dialect Society to be the Word of the Decade at its annual conference in New Orleans on January 3. In early December, they was chosen as Merriam-Webster's Word of the Year after a big spike in lookups and because the sense of the word as a nonbinary preferred pronoun was added to Merriam-Webster's online dictionary in September.

It's good choice: the new sense of *they* has become established in the past five years and there is an emerging acceptance of *they* as a substitute for more specific pronouns.

Editors generally appreciate what's happening to *they* because it fixes a flaw in the English language. But changes, especially gradual changes, create uncertainty. Usage guidelines are easiest when there is no wiggle room; singular *they* creates questions. The one situation where style guides agree that singular *they* is fine – as a person's preferred pronoun – is actually an uncommon use.

Not yet fully endorsed

Outside of the personal pronoun use, the Associated Press Stylebook and the Chicago Manual of Style still advise that the epicene *they* is not yet fully accepted and that it is better to resort to *he* or *she* or write around constructions that otherwise would require a singular pronoun.

The Publication Manual of the American Psychological Association released its seventh edition in the fall of 2019, and it followed the lead of these other style guides with new advice on *they* as a pronoun for those who identify as neither male nor female. But APA Style goes further than AP Style or Chicago, advising that “writers should always use the singular *they* to refer to a person who uses *they* as their pronoun.”

The Chicago Manual of Style 17th edition, updated in 2017, advises: “When referring specifically to a person who does not identify with a gender-specific pronoun, *they* and its forms are often preferred.” It also says, “In general, a person's stated preference for a specific pronoun should be respected.”

The AP Stylebook, in an entry added in March 2017, suggests that repeating a person's name or rewording is preferable to using the epicene pronoun, but it allows for *they* with explanation.

The American Medical Association's AMA Manual of Style also now endorses *they* for when “rewriting the sentence as a plural would be awkward or unclear.” That language is in AMA's 11th edition, scheduled to be published in February 2020.

The Modern Language Association's MLA Handbook and the U.S. Government Publishing Office's Style Manual, both updated in 2016, are silent on the epicene *they*.

Accepted use is a rare use

The nonbinary use of the pronoun is new and specific. The number of people who prefer *they* as their personal pronoun is relatively small. Those who identify as male or female tend to prefer that gender's pronoun regardless of what sexual characteristics they were born with. To simply use *they* to refer to a transgender person can be insulting. (Note that a construction using personal pronouns was selected as the American Dialect Society Word of the Year for 2019.)

We can't declare yet that we have resolved the bigger problem of English lacking a broadly accepted gender-neutral singular pronoun. But we do seem to be on the path. Even if the gender-nonbinary *they* is limited in usage, it may open the door for other senses of gender-neutral *they*.

It's useful to think of the singular *they* in its various senses. Merriam-Webster's online dictionary lists four senses, the Oxford English Dictionary has three, the American Heritage Dictionary has two (along with a 482-word usage note), and these various senses don't quite align. We can consider:

They for a person who identifies as gender nonbinary and prefers *they* as a personal pronoun.

They used with a singular antecedent like "everyone" though in a plural sense.

They to describe a hypothetical individual.

They with a specific person whose gender is deliberately concealed.

They with a specific person whose gender is unknown or only assumed.

Preferred personal pronoun

We've already taken a look at this first sense, but it's worth adding that to use *he* or *she* based on a person's biological sex at birth is inaccurate if that person no longer identifies with that pronoun. If we desire accuracy, we can no longer assume binary pronouns do the job.

Singular *they* with a plural meaning

The second sense is common in writing and it seems particularly persnickety for an editor to change it. This is the "Everyone should take out their pencils" example: Everyone refers to individuals, but it's clearly used in a plural sense. (The plural pencils emphasizes the plural sense.)

Hypothetical individual

The third sense, describing a hypothetical person, is less common and it's generally changed by editors of formal writing. But it's unlikely to raise an eyebrow in conversation or in informal writing. The OED offers nine examples since the middle of the fifteenth century, including this 2019 tweet from Shristi Uprety (@_ShristiUprety): "My personal rule is to never trust anyone who says that they had a good time in high school." And from 1968: "When somebody becomes prime minister they're immediately put on a pedestal."

Anonymous individual

The fourth sense is accepted usage in the AP Stylebook, which says: "A singular *they* might be used when an anonymous source's gender must be shielded and other wording is overly awkward." A recent example of this is the frequent use of *they* when referring to the Ukraine whistleblower, including this sentence from The Guardian online: "Their alleged name and photograph have been circulating in conservative media for months. Despite whistleblower protection laws, they have to be driven to work by security detail to protect their safety."

Unknown gender

The final sense – a specific person with an unknown or assumed gender – is somewhat common in conversation, but it hasn't been considered acceptable in anything but the most informal written usage.

Even that may be changing.

"Henry called me yesterday, and they said I should come in today."

This example avoids assuming a gender for Henry, and we may see greater acceptance in the coming years among writers who don't want to make assumptions. APA Style already speaks to this: "If you do not know the pronouns of the people being described, use 'they' instead or rewrite the sentence." In my made-up example, the issue is easily resolved by a rewrite.

While APA Style endorses this use, it goes well beyond what AP Stylebook or CMOS advise. But give it another decade, and we may find *they* as a fully accepted

universal pronoun. *They* has the potential to be the Word of the Decade for the 2020s as well.

Source: <https://aceseditors.org/news/2020/singular-they-continues-to-be-the-focus-of-language-change>.

Task 6.

What group of words is termed as “inserts”? What are their characteristic features? Give examples of inserts. Identify inserts in the sentences below, define what class they belong to.

- A. Right, let’s try another approach.
- B. Hey! Watch where you’re going!
- C. Come and see us, okay?
- D. I’d like to buy some new clothes. – OK.
- E. Well, I wouldn’t have put it quite like that.
- F. Oh Jesus, it hurts.

Task 7.

Are parts of speech stable classes of words? Do they undergo any changes in the course of time? Prove your point with any examples.

Task 8.

Identify the semantic type of the genitive case in the phrases below:

- a) my parents’ car;
- b) his colleagues’ choice;
- c) the lady’s letter;
- d) France’s policy;
- e) Princess Diana’s car crash;
- f) five minutes’ break;
- g) ten kilometres’ run;
- h) a men’s club.

Task 9.

Match the types of the genitive case with corresponding examples.

- | | |
|------------------------------|---------------------------|
| 1. Dependent genitive case | A. a minute or two's rest |
| 2. Independent genitive case | B. some friends of Jane's |
| 3. Double genitive case | C. my father's smile |
| 4. Group genitive case | D. go to the dentist's |

Give your examples of the types of the genitive case mentioned above.

Task 10.

Study the following types of the category of number:

- 1) lexicalized plural;
- 2) the plural of approximation;
- 3) the common (generic) number.

Define these types and give the examples to illustrate their specific meaning.

Task 11.

Unite the following nouns into groups according to the way they form the category of gender: policeman; host; father; boyfriend; son; hen; actor; uncle; he-goat; man; bull; Tom-cat; waiter; duck; landlord; lion.

Task 12.

Outline the categories of the following nouns: water; intelligence; suburbs; customs; beauty; glass.

Task 13.

Distribute the following adjectives into an appropriate column in the table below: brown; illiterate; quick; much; wooden; golden; weekly; few; Italian; preparatory; extreme; many; small; little; deaf.

| Qualitative | Relative | Quantitative |
|-------------|----------|--------------|
| | | |

Table 8. Classes of adjectives

Task 14.

A. Write synonyms for the strong adjectives.

| Strong adjectives | Normal adjectives |
|---|-------------------|
| 1. The island's tiny – only 16 square kilometres. | = very ... |
| 2. The food in Lipsi was delicious . | = very ... |
| 3. Her father is furious . She crashed his car. | = very ... |
| 4. I'm terrified of flying. I never travel by plane. | = very ... |
| 5. I've been working all day. I'm exhausted . | = very ... |
| 6. It's going to be boiling tomorrow – about 40 degrees! | = very ... |
| 7. Can I have a sandwich? I'm starving . | = very ... |
| 8. The flat is enormous . It's got five bedrooms. | = very ... |
| 9. I'm not going to swim. The water's freezing . | = very ... |
| 10. Your car is filthy . Why don't you wash it? | = very ... |
| 11. That's a great idea. Let's do it! | = very ... |
| 12. This book's awful . I can't finish it. | = very ... |

Table 9. Strong adjectives

B. Complete the responses with a strong adjective.

1. Are you hungry? – Yes, I am ...
2. Was your mother angry? – Yes, she was ...
3. Is her flat small? – Yes, it's ...
4. Are you tired? – Yes, I'm ...
5. Is the floor dirty? – Yes, it's ...

6. Are you afraid of spiders? – Yes, I'm ... of them.
7. Is the water cold? – Yes, it's ...
8. Was the film good? – Yes, it was ...
9. Is it a big house? – Yes. It's ...
10. Was the weather bad? – Yes, It was ...

Source: New English File. Intermediate Student's Book.

Task 15.

A. Study the typical patterns to produce compound adjectives:

- 1) number + noun (a ten-minute break);
- 2) adjective + noun (a long-distance run);
- 3) adjective + Present Participle (a hard –working person);
- 4) noun + Present Participle (a record-breaking athlete);
- 5) noun + adjective (a smoke-free room);
- 6) noun + Past Participle (a water-cooled engine);
- 7) adjective + Past Participle (a bad-tempered man);
- 8) adverb + Past Participle (a densely populated city).

B. Construct an adjective according to the models given above:

- 1) a walk that takes ten minutes;
- 2) a building that has twelve stories;
- 3) a boy who is five years old;
- 4) a report that is thirty pages long;
- 5) students in high spirits;
- 6) children who behave well;
- 7) a monster with green eyes;
- 8) a man who has short hair;
- 9) a lady with a kind heart;
- 10) an app that saves time;
- 11) a dessert that makes your mouth water;
- 12) a woman that has a strong will;
- 13) traffic that moves slowly;

- 14) a man who looks good;
- 15) medicine that lasts a long time;
- 16) a person who has an open mind;
- 17) a room that has bright lights;
- 18) a documentary that provokes thinking;
- 19) a museum that is famous throughout the world;
- 20) cookies that are free from fat.

Source: Teach-This.com.

Task 16.

Classify the following phrases according to the type of comparison they express.

| Comparison to the same degree | Comparison to a lower degree | Comparison to a higher degree |
|----------------------------------|---------------------------------|----------------------------------|
| | | |

Table 10. The degrees of comparison

1. They are all beautiful women.
2. She is as pretty as her mother.
3. The problem is less difficult than we have expected.
4. That man is stronger than his rival.
5. This is the least difficult issue.
6. You are the strongest of them.

Task 17.

What terms are used by the foreign grammarians to refer to synthetic and analytical forms of degrees of comparison? Can the phrases like “more interesting”, “less complex” be considered analytical forms of degrees of comparison? Give the reasons to justify your point of view.

Task 18.

Explain the difference between partial and complete substantivization of adjectives. Identify what type of substantivization the adjectives demonstrate in the phrases below.

1. All natives are open-hearted.
2. The poor have come to get some food.
3. I spoke the language like a native.
4. The natives have been treated badly.
5. The very best is yet to happen.
6. My aunt is my nearest living relative.
7. Never speak ill of the dead.

Task 19.

Draw the borderline between adjectives and statives. Enumerate their differentiating features. Study the examples below and make use of them to prove your point.

1. She stayed aloof while the argument went on around her.
2. Suddenly he found himself awake and fully alert.
3. The whole building was soon ablaze.
4. They suddenly became aware of people looking at them.
5. Two alert scientists spotted the mistake.

Task 20.

Should phrasal verbs be considered with a group of verbs proper? Give reasons to justify your point of view. Do such verbs as “look after”, “look for”, “look at” refer to the class of phrasal verb? Why?

Task 21.

Revise semantic classification of verbs and distribute the following items into the appropriate columns of the table below: cause; think; carry; become; state; help; change; know; let; happen; leave; permit; love; increase; grow; allow; go; want; call.

| Activity verbs | Communication verbs | Mental verbs | Causative verbs | Occurrence verbs |
|----------------|---------------------|--------------|-----------------|------------------|
| | | | | |

Table 11. Semantic classification of verbs

Task 22.

Point out transitive and intransitive verbs in the following group of words: fall; like; read; see; wait; drop; come; hear; give.

Comment upon the nature of the verbs in the sentences below. Why might it be challenging to identify the verb type?

1. He sold his gold watch.
2. His new book is selling well.
3. She works hard.
4. She worked her servants hard.

Task 23.

Explain the difference between the primary\secondary\tertiary passive constructions. Refer the sentences below to either type.

1. The window was opened by me.
2. We were shown a banquet room.
3. They were never referred to again.
4. The bed had not been slept in.
5. The baby should be taken care of.

Task 24.

Define the following terms:

- the reflexive voice;
- the reciprocal voice;
- the middle voice.

Give several examples to illustrate your variants.

Task 25.

A. Read the blog post on the changing use of modal verbs in English. Do the assignments suggested afterwards.

Modal verbs: Has their use declined?

By Oxford University Press ELT
posted on August 27, 2020

As is well-known, English has a number of core modal verbs, including can/could, will/would, shall/should, may/might, and must. These make it possible for us to express meanings such as ‘possibility’, ‘necessity’, ‘obligation’, ‘permission’, and the like. The use of the modal verb must has declined over recent decades. A very likely reason for this is that speakers have become less willing to impose obligations on others, or to be seen to be imposing obligations, even in situations when they are entitled to do so.

What about the other modal verbs in English? The table below shows how their use has declined across the board in written and spoken British English between the 1960s and the 1990s:*

| Modal | Written British English 1960s-1990s Change in % | Spoken British English 1960s-1990s Change in % |
|---------------|--|---|
| <i>would</i> | -11.7% | -7.1% |
| <i>will</i> | -4.2% | +12.8% |
| <i>could</i> | +1.4% | -11.9% |
| <i>can</i> | +2.9% | +6.8% |
| <i>might</i> | -17.9% | +5.1% |
| <i>may</i> | -17.6% | -39.8% |
| <i>should</i> | -11.9% | -14.1% |
| <i>shall</i> | -43.7% | -48.6% |
| <i>must</i> | -29.1% | -54.2% |
| Total | -9.6% | -6.4% |

Table 12. Changes in modal usage, calculated as a percentage change per million words of text. Bold figures are statistically significant.

Notice first of all that the rate of change is different for the various modals in written and spoken English. For example, the use of can has increased more in spoken than in written English. This may be due to speakers using this verb more often to ask for permission than may, which has declined in use.

Let’s now take a closer look at shall, which is much more common in British English than in American English. Like must, it has also dropped dramatically in use. When used with first person subjects shall is used interchangeably with will:

I shall look into this.

I will look into this.

Is there a difference between these two ways of talking about a future event? From a stylistic point of view there is: the first of these alternatives sounds more formal, and is more likely to be used by older speakers. However, there is really no difference in meaning: both sentences are used to speak about a situation in the future.

Not everyone would agree with what I just wrote. Some writers would say that with first person subjects (I/we) will should be used to convey an element of volition, whereas shall should be used to talk about a neutral future. With other persons (he, you, they, etc.) shall should be used for promises/guarantees (Cinderella shall go to the ball), in 'regulatory language' (Students shall not enter the premises after midnight), or to express strong volition (You shall not smoke here). The journalist Simon Heffer explains the difference with a well-known anecdote in his book *Strictly English* (2012): "The Victorian schoolmaster had a way of impressing this distinction upon his charges, with the story of the boy who drowned: for he had cried out 'I will drown, and no-one shall save me'".

Heffer regrets the fact that speakers no longer know how to use shall and will in the right way. Maybe it's true that a useful distinction in English is lost. However, another way of looking at this development is to recognize that the language has changed in such a way that the difference between shall and will (other than in questions) is slowly disappearing because speakers no longer sense a meaning difference between these verbs. This would mean that speakers need only one verb, and it looks like will has won out. The increased use of will shown in the table above supports this hypothesis, but the increase is not as high as you would expect, so perhaps the table only offers a partial explanation for the trends in usage. What's interesting is that the decline of shall is slightly higher in spoken English than in written English. This may well mean that the decline will spread in the future because changes in spoken language often make their way into written language.

Source: <https://learningenglishwithoxford.com/2020/08/27/modal-verbs/>.

B. Summarise the contents of the article. Share your opinion on the issue and draw the examples of your own to prove the point.

C. What are the lexical or\and grammatical means to substitute the modal verbs in the English language? Enumerate them and give the examples.

Task 26.

Student A

A. Match each interjection with an appropriate meaning.

| | |
|----------------|--|
| 1. Darn! | a. Now I understand |
| 2. Hooray! | b. I'm amazed |
| 3. Uh-oh, ... | c. I didn't mean to do that. |
| 4. Aha! | d. I want your attention. |
| 5. Shhh! | e. I'm delighted. |
| 6. Oops! | f. I'm in pain. |
| 7. Wow! | g. I think something bad has happened. |
| 8. Brrrr, | h. I'm disappointed. |
| 9. Ow! | i. I'm really cold. |
| 10. Hey! | j. Be quiet. |

Table 13. Interjections in English

B. Now take it in turns to read the sentences below to your partner. Your partner has to find and provide a suitable interjection from their worksheet to begin each sentence. If you both agree it is correct, write it before the sentence. If not ask for other suggestions. The first pair to finish wins.

1.The exam has been cancelled.
2. I'm so proud of you.
3. I'm not going to do it.
4. We made it just in time.
5. ... You just stepped on my toe.
6. ... Are you awake?

7. ... That's revolting.
8. ... I'm not really bothered. You can decide.
9. ... A mouse just ran across the floor.
10. ... That pizza is making my mouth water.

Student B

A. Match each interjection with an appropriate meaning.

| | |
|---------------|---------------------------|
| 1. Phew! | a. Well done. |
| 2. Yum! | b. I'm relieved. |
| 3. Yippee! | c. I want your attention. |
| 4. Eeek! | d. I refuse. |
| 5. Ouch! | e. That's disgusting. |
| 6. Uh-uh, ... | f. I'm scared. |
| 7. Meh, ... | g. Delicious. |
| 8. Bravo! | h. I'm delighted. |
| 9. Pssst! | i. I'm indifferent. |
| 10. Yuck! | j. That hurt! |

Table 14. Interjections in English

B. Now take it in turns to read the sentences below to your partner. Your partner has to find and provide a suitable interjection from their worksheet to begin each sentence. If you both agree it is correct, write it before the sentence. If not ask for other suggestions. The first pair to finish wins.

1. ... That's incredible.
2. ... Sorry, I didn't see you there.
3. ... I think I left the cooker on.
4. ... We won the match.
5. ... Now it makes sense.
6. ... It's freezing in here.
7. ... That's my bike, not yours.
8. ... I left my phone at home.

9. ... You'll wake the baby.

10. ... I cut my finger.

<https://www.teach-this.com/images/resources/interjections-race.pdf>

Task 27. Test yourself.

1. The noun has the categorial meaning of ...

- a) thingness;
- b) process;
- c) quality;
- d) manner.

2. The nouns are subdivided into proper and ...

- a) common;
- b) abstract;
- c) animate;
- d) plural.

3. Otto Jespersen classified all parts of speech according to his theory of ...

- a) levels;
- b) positions;
- c) status;
- d) ranks.

4. Traditional parts of speech classification is ...

- a) homogeneous;
- b) heterogeneous.

5. Pronouns and numerals in the traditional parts of speech classification belong to ...

- a) notional parts of speech;
- b) functional parts of speech.

6. Notional parts of speech are ...

- a) open classes of words;
- b) closed classes of words.

7. Which of the syntactic functions is not fulfilled by the noun in English?

- a) subject;
- b) predicate;
- c) attribute;
- d) object.

8. The category of gender in English is ...

- a) formal;
- b) meaningful.

9. The combination of an article with a noun is ...

- a) a word-combination;
- b) an analytical form of the noun;
- c) a combination of a specific intermediary status between the morphological status of the noun and the word-combination.

10. The basic semantic function of relative adjectives is ...

- a) specificative;
- b) evaluative.

11. Charles Fries based his parts of speech theory on the ... principles

- a) positional;
- b) oppositional;
- c) formal;
- d) informal.

12. The numeral has two syntactic functions...

- a) a numerical attribute;
- b) an adverbial modifier;
- c) a numerical substantive;
- d) a predicate.

1.4 Syntax

Outline

1. Syntagmatic connections of the words.
2. The general characteristics of the sentence.

3. Actual division of the sentence.
4. Communicative types of sentences.
5. Structural types of sentences.

Glossary

Notional\formative\functional syntagmatic connections; equipotent \dominational connection; syndetical\asyndetical connection; coordinative \cumulative; principal\subordinate elements; kernel (head word); adjunct; bilateral \monolateral domination; completive connection of words; fully\semi-predicative connections; objective\qualifying connections; attributive\adverbial connections; primary\secondary connections; sentence; communicative purpose; syntactic pattern; predication; modality; nominative\predicative function; actual\nominative division; theme; rheme; direct\inverted; transition; declarative\imperative\interrogative sentences; statement\command\question; exclamatory\non exclamatory; simple\composite\complex\compound sentence; predicative line; mono-\poly predicative; subject, predicate, object, adverbial modifier, attribute, parenthetical enclosure, addressing enclosure, interjectional enclosure; (non-)detached; obligatory\optional sentence parts; (un-)extended sentence; one-axis\two-axis sentences; elliptical; personal\impersonal; human\non-human; definite\indefinite; animate\inanimate; factual\perceptual; process featuring\substance featuring; actional\statal; subjective\objective\nneutral; principal\subordinate clause; parataxis\hypotaxis; coordination\subordination; pleni-composite\semi-composite; parallel\consecutive subordination; transformation.

Task 1.

Revise the terms from the Glossary list given above to get ready for the dictation. The definitions for the terms under study are provided in Appendix A.

Task 2.

Explain the difference between logical\psychological\formal syntax. Enumerate their specific features.

Task 3.

Classify the following phrases and define the type of syntactic relations between the components: the flying Dutchman; my old friend; an obvious lie; pure truth; mere nonsense; a ghost of a smile; the moon and the stars; this way.

Task 4.

Classify the following phrases and define their type singling out exocentric and endocentric ones: red flower; my family and I; side by side; poor child; grow taller; diligence of all kinds.

Task 5.

Point out grammatical and ungrammatical sentences; complete the ungrammatical ones in accordance with the valency of the verb.

1. I waited.
2. He paused.
3. He bought.
4. Tulips are grown.
5. My mother took.
6. The doctor treated.
7. She arrived.
8. The dishes clank.
9. She envied.

Task 6.

Focus on the sentences below, comment upon the type of the clause they contain according to the morphological, syntactic, formal, functional and structural-semantic classifications.

1. What you say does not matter.
2. This is what I call pleasure.
3. When I woke up I looked around.
4. What is done cannot be undone.
5. He made it clear that he had to leave.
6. You may stay where you are.
7. Do as I say.

8. The more we study, the more we know.
9. He told me the news that upset me.
10. A chef is a person who cooks exquisite dishes.
11. This is the person you were eager to see.
12. I felt that I was getting sick.
13. He was as tall as I am.
14. Even though you may be right I cannot follow your advice.
15. I am not sure if it is true.

Task 7.

Analyze the following examples and define the term “sentencoid”. Name its specific features.

1. Winter.
2. Nice weather.
3. What’s wrong? – Nothing.
4. What is your major? – English.
5. Silence in the court!
6. Orange juice. – Yes, madam.

Test yourself.

1. The major unit of syntax is ...
 - a) the phrase;
 - b) the sentence;
 - c) the supra-sentential construction;
 - d) the discourse.
2. The phrase ‘spent the weekend’ is ...
 - a) progressive;
 - b) regressive.
3. What is the theme of the sentence “The speaker has arrived”?
 - a) the speaker;
 - b) has arrived.
4. The sentence is ...

- a) a nominative lingual unit;
- b) a predicative lingual unit;
- c) a nominative-predicative lingual unit.

5. The sentence as a lingual unit in the broad sense is ...

- a) a unit of speech;
- b) a unit of language as a system;
- c) a unit of language and speech at the same time.

6. Define the type of the sentence "I am a teacher".

- a) expanded;
- b) unexpanded.

7. Define the communicative type of the following sentence "Could you show me your book?"

- a) interrogative;
- b) imperative;
- c) declarative.

8. Define the communicative type of the following sentence "Could you show me your book?"

- a) purely interrogative;
- b) a rhetorical question;
- c) a polite request.

9. What type does the last from the following sentence group refer to: "You can't do it yourself?" - "No"?

- a) one-axis;
- b) two-axis.

10. The ... sentence is formed by two or more predicative lines, expressing a complicated act of thought, reflecting two or more situational events making up a unit.

- a) compound;
- b) simple;
- c) composite:

d) complex.

11. The principle element in dominational connection is called ...

a) the kernel-word;

b) the adjunct;

c) the nucleus;

d) the independent word.

12. The subordinate element in dominational connection is called ...

a) the kernel-word;

b) the adjunct;

c) the nucleus;

d) the dependent word.

1.5 Text Study

Outline

1. Text as an object of research.
2. Basic categories of the text.
3. The problem of textual units.
4. Parcellation and its stylistic load.

Glossary

Text; semantic and syntactic unity; monologue\dialogue sequences; coherence; cohesion; interlocutor; supra-phrasal unity; cumuleme; occurseme; cumulative \occursive sequence; dicteme; prospective (cataphoric)\retrospective (anaphoric) cumulation; pure conjunctions (coordinative\subordinative); adverbial connectors; parenthetical connectors; antecedent; succeedent; communicative unity; paragraph; parcellation; macro-text (pleni-text); macro-topic; micro-texts (parti-texts); micro-topics.

Task 1.

Revise the terms from the Glossary list given above to get ready for the dictation. The definitions for the terms under study are provided in Appendix A.

Task 2.

Group the following coordinative connectors on the base of the relations between the clauses that they denote: and, nevertheless, or, so, neither... nor, but, therefore

- a) copulative relations;
- b) adversative relations;
- c) disjunctive relations;
- d) causal-consequential relations.

Task 3.

Define the type of cumulative connections between the sentences in the following supra-sentential constructions:

- a) I'd like to mention one thing. No matter what. I'll be on your side.
- b) He wanted to stay. But that was absolutely impossible.

Task 4.

A. Study the following example of the analysis of means of cohesion in the given text fragment:

Ten minutes later, with face blanched by terror, and eyes wild with grief, Lord Arthur Savile rushed from Bentinck House, crushing his way through the crowd of fur-coated footmen that stood round the large striped awning, and seeming not to see or hear anything. The night was bitter cold, and the gas-lamps round the square flared and flickered in the keen wind; but his hands were hot with fever, and his forehead burned like fire. On and on he went, almost with the gait of a drunken man. A policeman looked curiously at him as he passed, and a beggar, who slouched from an archway to ask for alms, grew frightened, seeing misery greater than his own. Once he stopped under a lamp, and looked at his hands. He thought he could detect the stain of blood already upon them, and a faint cry broke from his trembling lips.

Murder! That is what the cheiromantist had seen there. Murder! The very night seemed to know it, and the desolate wind to howl it in his ear. The dark corners of the streets were full of it. It grinned at him from the roofs of the houses.

First he came to the Park, where sombre woodland seemed to fascinate him. He leaned wearily up against the railings, cooling his brow against the wet metal, and

listening to the tremulous silence of the trees. “Murder! Murder!” he kept repeating, as though iteration could dim the horror of the word. The sound of his own voice made him shudder, yet he almost hoped that Echo might hear him, and wake the slumbering city from its dreams. He felt a mad desire to stop the casual passer-by, and tell him everything.

(from O. Wilde “Lord Authur Savile’s Crime”)

The principal means of textual cohesion in this fragment is repetition of different kinds: 1) lexical repetition (repetition of the key word): “Murder!...”, the repetition of the pronouns: he and it (substituting “the murder”), repetition of the words used to describe the background: “night, dark, wind”; 2) lexical synonymic repetition: “with the face blanched by terror”, “the horror of the word”, “eyes wild with grief”, “seeing misery greater than his own”; 3) repetition of the verbs of motion: “rushed, crashed the way through, on and on he went, he passed, came to the Park”.

Among the other means we find substitution (Lord Authur Savile – he, his; the murder – it, the word, everything) and representation: “Murder! Murder! He kept repeating” – “iteration”.

Besides, the function of connectors is performed by conjunctions (but, and, yet). Another means of textual cohesion is contrast: “the night was bitter cold, and the gas-lamps round the square flared and flickered in the keen wind; but his hands were hot with fever, and his forehead burned like fire.

The whole piece deals with the description of the main character’s agitated state of mind after he had learnt his fate. The following lexical units contribute to the thematic unity of the text: face blanched with terror, eyes wild with grief, rushed, crushing his way, seemed not to see or hear anything, his hands were hot with fever, his forehead burned like fire, the gait of a drunken man, misery, could detect the stain of blood, a faint cry, trembling lips, desolate wind, leaned wearily, the horror of the word, shudder, a mad desire.

B. Analyze the following text from the point of view of the means of cohesion:

We sat there for half-an-hour, describing to each other our maladies. I explained to George and William Harris how I felt when I got up in the morning, and William Harris told us how he felt when he went to bed; and George stood on the hearth-rug, and gave us a clever and powerful piece of acting, illustrative of how he felt in the night.

George FANCIES he is ill; but there's never anything really the matter with him, you know.

At this point, Mrs. Poppets knocked at the door to know if we were ready for supper. We smiled sadly at one another, and said we supposed we had better try to swallow a bit. Harris said a little something in one's stomach often kept the disease in check; and Mrs. Poppets brought the tray in and we drew up to the table, and toyed with a little steak and onions, and some rhubarb tart.

(from J.K. Jerome "Three Men in a Boat")

Task 5.

A. Read the article and do the assignments suggested afterwards.

The importance of punctuation in English

by Laura Jones

August 04, 2020

Think punctuation isn't worth learning think again because without punctuation english is very difficult to comprehend

Let's try that again: Think punctuation isn't worth learning? Think again. Because without punctuation, English is very difficult to comprehend.

Is punctuation in English important?

Punctuation is essential, and is used to convey and clarify the meaning of written language. It is such simple marks as the full stop or the comma, and the more complex ones of semicolons and hyphens. Getting punctuation wrong can change the entire meaning of a sentence. So, if you want to make sure your written English is understood, read on.

Commas ,

Perhaps more than any other punctuation mark, the omission or improper use of commas can have confusing, hilarious, or even life-threatening consequences for your writing in English.

Look at this sentence, with and without its comma:

Let's eat Bob.

Let's eat, Bob.

If you don't see why the comma is so important here, glance at your friend Bob as you read the first sentence. He should look extremely worried. He may even nervously start joking that a prime rib might be much tastier than a middle-aged English man.

How about when we find an unnecessary comma in a phrase or sentence? A street sign that says 'No, U turn' holds a very different meaning to the more regularly seen one reading, 'No U turn.' In fact, the two sentences have opposite meanings.

The Oxford Comma

The Oxford comma comes after the penultimate item in a list of three or more things. Here is an example: 'The scarves were red, blue, and yellow'. With or without the comma, the meaning doesn't change in this sentence. English speakers often argue over whether this type of comma is necessary.

However, the Oxford comma can be extremely important in some situations.

For example, you write, 'I love my parents, Dolly Parton and Martin Luther King.' On reading this, most English speakers will have a good chuckle imagining that your parents are Dolly Parton and MLK. Things are much clearer with the Oxford comma: 'I love my parents, Dolly Parton, and Martin Luther King'. All four of them.

Or this: 'For breakfast I had toast, eggs and orange juice'. Bleurgh! Try: 'For breakfast I had toast, eggs, and orange juice'. Much more palatable.

Quotation marks ""

Aside from their use in speech and quotations from books, quotation marks are often used by writers to put distance between them and the words. It's the same as when we use air quotes to say we disapprove or disagree with something.

So, if I put that this blog was written by a “professional” writer, that’s quite an insult to me. Unfortunately, these quotation marks are overused in English and you will see them in lots of places they shouldn’t be. Would you buy a sandwich that was made “fresh”? Or perhaps you would like to have a deep and meaningful conversation with a “real” person? No, me neither.

Hyphens –

Like quotation marks above, hyphens are often misused in English, even by native speakers. Their importance is also underestimated, but they too can change the whole meaning of a sentence.

Would you be able to tell the difference if your boss offered you these alternatives: ‘twenty-four hour shifts’ or ‘twenty four-hour shifts’? In the former, your hours would be long. In the latter, you’d be doing a lot of short shifts. It’s certainly worth checking the difference.

Look at these two signs and decide which would make you be more cautious:

Caution! Man eating crocodiles.

Caution! Man-eating crocodiles.

If you’re human, which I presume you are, then you should be more scared of the second one. (If you’re a crocodile, then it’s the first.)

More punctuation

Two people might punctuate the same sentence in different ways to create meaning of their own.

A university professor famously gave his class this sentence to punctuate: A woman without her man is nothing. Before you read any further, try it yourself.

Most of the men in the professor’s class either didn’t change the punctuation or added commas. ‘A woman, without her man, is nothing’. Pretty awful for women everywhere. Most of the women wrote this: ‘A woman: without her, man is nothing’. Which side did you fall on?

And finally, I’m a fan of Oxford commas, so here’s another example to persuade you:

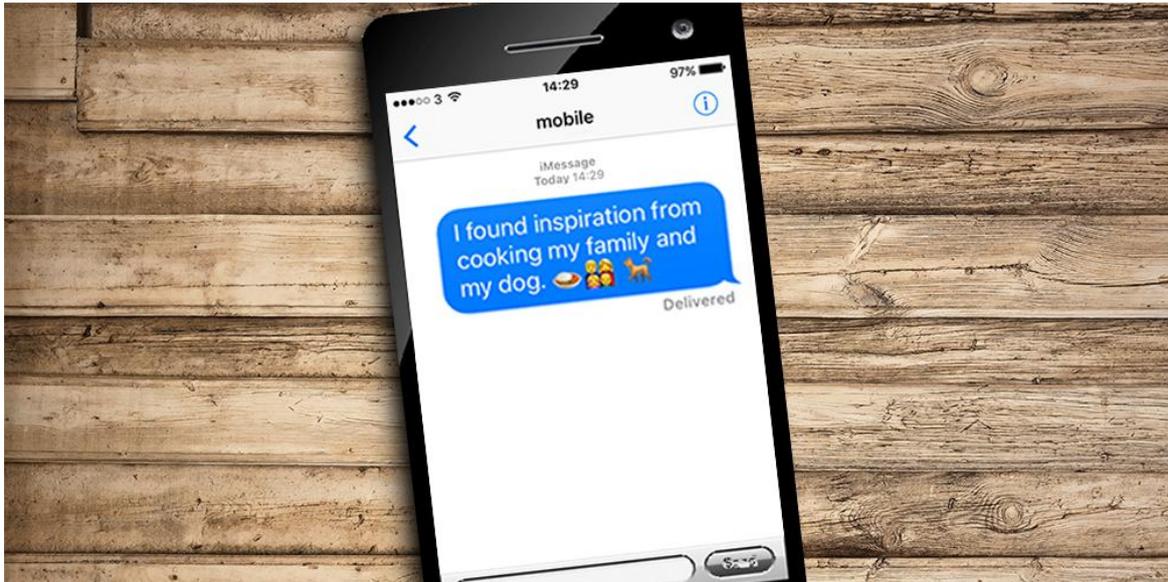
Last night I saw the strippers, JFK and Stalin.

Punctuation: a way to give inappropriate professions to deceased world leaders.

Source: <https://blog.lingoda.com/en/importance-of-punctuation-english>.

B. Enumerate punctuation marks of the English language. Give their Russian equivalents.

C. Comment on the use of punctuation marks or their absence in the following examples (Pictures 3-6).



Picture 3. English punctuation



Picture 4. English punctuation



Picture 5. English punctuation



Picture 6. English punctuation

Test yourself.

1. Define the type of cumulative connections between the sentences in the following supra-sentential construction: I'd like to mention one thing. No matter what. I'll be on your side.

- a) prospective (cataphoric) cumulation;
- b) retrospective (anaphoric) cumulation.

2. Define the type of cumulative connections between the sentences in the following supra-sentential construction: He wanted to stay. But that was absolutely impossible.

- a) prospective (cataphoric) cumulation;
- b) retrospective (anaphoric) cumulation.

3. Which of the following categories is not the feature of the text?

- a) semantic unity;
- b) semantic-syntactic cohesion;
- c) predication.

4. The most widely used type of theme-rheme connections in the text, when the rheme of the previous sentence becomes the theme of the following sentence, is called ...

- a) chain connections;
- b) parallel connections;
- c) linear connections.

5. Syntactic constructions with parcellation (e.g. No one is perfect. But him) are ...

- a) a type of a composite sentence;
- b) a type of supra-sentential (textual) constructions;
- c) a unit of intermediary status between the sentence and the textual unity*.

6. A monologue sequence of sentences united by a common topic is identified as the basic textual unit and it is called ...

- a) a sentence chain;
- b) parcellation;
- c) supra-phrasal unity.

7. A speech sequence of lingual units interconnected semantically (topically) and syntactically (structurally) is ...

- a) a text;
- b) a discourse;
- c) a sentence;
- d) a phrase.

8. A two-directed sequence of sentences is sometimes called ...

- a) a dialogue unity;

- b) a text;
- c) a monologue;
- d) a discourse.

9. The occurseme as an element of the system occupies a place above ...

- a) the cumuleme;
- b) the dicteme;
- c) the sentence;
- d) the phrase.

10. A ... correlates with a separate sentence which is placed in the text in a topically significant position

- a) cumuleme;
- b) dicteme;
- c) sentence;
- d) occurseme.

11. According to the definition of David Crystal: a continuous stretch of (especially spoken) language larger than a sentence, often constituting a coherent unit such as a sermon, argument, joke, is called ...

- a) the discourse;
- b) the narrative;
- c) the text;
- d) the speech.

12. Reference to the world outside the text or the interpreters' schemata is called ...

- a) intertextuality;
- b) ellipsis;
- c) cohesion;
- d) coherence.

2 Grammar Patterns

2.1 Insight into the issue of Grammar Patterns

Grammar patterns are ways of describing how words are used in English. A grammar pattern tells us what phrases or clauses are used with a given adjective, noun, or verb. For example the adjective *afraid* can be used with a that-clause (He was afraid that...) or a prepositional phrase with of (She is afraid of...). The verb *give* can be used with one noun phrase (She gave some money) or two noun phrases (She gave the children some money) or a noun phrase and a prepositional phrase with to (She gave some money to the children).

The resource which can be studied through the link <https://grammar.collinsdictionary.com/grammar-pattern> is a unique website in listing all the grammar patterns used in English, and all the words regularly used with a given pattern. These lists are based on corpus research carried out by lexicographers at Collins COBUILD, and by experts at the University of Birmingham. Grammar patterns can also be seen in the Collins learner's dictionaries, as well as on this website. This information has been designed to heighten learners' awareness of grammar patterns, and to give them practice in recognising and using particular patterns.

A video frame from a Collins Grammar Pattern presentation. On the left, there is a red box with the word 'Collins' in white. Below it, the text 'Nouns used with in' is displayed. Underneath, there are three bullet points: 'Nouns such as increase, help, participant and pause are often used with in.', '...even a tiny increase in cancer rates would cause many deaths.', and 'He offered a huge reward for help in their capture.' On the right side of the frame, there is a photograph of Professor Susan Hunston, an elderly woman with short grey hair and glasses, wearing a dark jacket over a black top.

Picture 7. Professor Susan Hunston

Watch a series of videos presented by Professor Susan Hunston demonstrating Pattern Grammar in practice. In these videos Susan shows us how words are associated with particular types of grammatical patterning and how grammar patterns are associated with groups of words which share similar or related meanings. She also talks about the link between Pattern Grammar and collocation and how Pattern Grammar and Construction Grammar are related.

Video 1 <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=UIMpaKanqfE>.

Video 2 <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=3EQ82T0sfsM&feature=youtu.be>.

Video 3 <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=6bULC6sA2dw>.

Video 4 <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=EnBo-IKKyW8>.



1. What grammar patterns are

In this first video of the series, Prof. Susan Hunston talks about Verbs, Nouns, Adjectives and the kinds of words that follow them
[READ MORE](#)



2 Words and their patterns

In this second video, Prof. Susan Hunston looks at some examples of words and the patterns they appear in
[READ MORE](#)



3 Patterns and their words

Prof. Susan Hunston focuses on individual patterns and the words that are used with them in this third video of the series
[READ MORE](#)



4 Patterns and collocation

In this fourth video of the series, Prof. Susan Hunston talks about the link between pattern grammar and collocation
[READ MORE](#)

Picture 8. Collins' Grammar Patterns

2.2 Practice of Grammar Patterns

Follow the link <https://grammar.collinsdictionary.com/grammar-pattern> and study the Table of Contents to fulfill the following assignments.

Task 1.

Enumerate and note down the patterns for graded and ungraded adjectives.

Task 2.

Enumerate and note down the patterns for vocative nouns.

Task 3.

Enumerate and note down the patterns for ergative verbs.

Task 4.

Here are 50 concordance lines taken from the Bank of English for the adjective *afraid*.

- A. How many different meanings does *afraid* have?
 - B. Identify some of the frequent grammatical patterns associated with *afraid*.
 - C. Are these different meanings associated with particular patterns?
 - D. Point out grammatical status, categories and functions of the word in focus.
1. here, Lieutenant Andrews?" I'm afraid I can't make any comment at this
 2. Laughs) Literally. Gwendolen: I'm afraid I don't have experience in anything
 3. here, Lieutenant Andrews?" I'm afraid I can't make any comment at this
 4. can't tell you. 3rd MAN: I'm afraid I can't help you- except with
 5. light to encourage others. I'm afraid I had to laugh when Mr Blunkett
 6. over. So on to the World Cup. I'm afraid I'm not all that convinced Colin
 - 7 get him change his behavior, I'm afraid we're going to have to show that we
 - 8 indicating a fallen elm nearby, `I'm afraid we've just cut it down!" Oh, never
 - 9 her an amicable grin. `Well, I'm afraid you are out of luck. This one is
 - 10 living on his royalties. But I'm afraid Billy's got it wrong again. He
 - 11 fan ended on an upbeat note. I'm afraid England were out for a hundred and
 - 12 indeed. Belgium,deja vu? Yes, I'm afraid, folks, it's beginning to look that
 - 13 tax prior to-to that, but I was afraid that I would have problems, so I went to
 - 14 really afraid of the strike. She was afraid that it wasn't going to work.
 - 15 of Patrick's shows. But he was afraid that she would be offended by close-to
 - 16 in numerical order, but I was afraid that his poor social skills would
 - 17 that's what I was afraid of. I was afraid that nobody would believe me.
 - 18 woman without using condoms but I am afraid that's going to put them off.
 - 19 end of some of this stuff. And I'm afraid that if more comes out, it's just a
 - 20 when we start getting close as I'm afraid that if we have sex, they will
 - 21 Still. I stood there. I was afraid that if I opened the door, I should
 - 22 I had regained my equilibrium; I was afraid that if she thought I was still in
 - 23 got her hands full ... and Kick, I'm afraid that if I lean too hard on him for
 - 24 would go after it full tilt. He was afraid that if anyone started looking for

25 already had. They were shy and afraid of being criticized for the way
26 they're afraid--I sense they're afraid of being blamed. They're afraid
27 program, software. Many people are afraid of being overwhelmed by the
28 gassed in his bedroom. He was also afraid of being poisoned and he had his
29 crime was soaring because cops were afraid of being racists. He said
30 for me though. At the time I wasn't afraid of being caught as it was exciting.
31 know, the beauty of the art, but I'm afraid that's not what our students see
32 love may work for some but I'm afraid it will not work for you. You need
33 That's what I'd like to do, but I'm afraid I'm not very good at it which
34 won Book of the Year but I'm afraid I could not understand what he said
35 so much on that outfit, but I'm afraid you have not won an award this
37 She won't mind. But he was so afraid of hurting you and of your
38 is not your transmission, but he's afraid of feeling foolish in front of the
39 Her ex-husband said she used to be afraid of flying but conquered her fear
40 no longer grasp the oars and he was afraid of dying in the blackness of the
41 with a family, yet part of me is afraid of commitment. I don't want to get
42 But he's so sharp--and he's not afraid of hard work. And at his age he's
43 who did not appear to be at all afraid of death. As a dying man, I can
44 a risk, but she was not one to be afraid of risks. `Tell me, Shaerl. I want
45 First of all, banks are still afraid to loan. They're really very
46 fear. Techno fear is when people are afraid to press the buttons of a machine
47 in that I have a skipper who's not afraid to lead from the front. The
48 in the action and Chereau is not afraid to tell it how it was - Charles IX
49 that Hall and others like him were afraid to rock the boat, believing that
50 the old girl sick? They mustn't be afraid to tell me. I want to know. I know
Task 5.

Here are 50 concordance lines taken from the Bank of English for the verb *manage*.

- A. How many different meanings does *manage* have?
- B. Identify the most frequent grammatical patterns associated with *manage*.

C. Are these different meanings associated with particular patterns?

D. Point out grammatical status, categories and functions of the word in focus.

1. If you can afford it, and if you can manage it, that's the way to go.' As rice
2. leave for a few days? I think he can manage it. And I've telephoned Rachel.
3. formally, 'I'm so pleased you could manage it. Won't you come inside?' The
4. overflow; some people can never manage it, especially in our century,
5. concerns as well, as to how we will manage it. And appreciate that until you'
6. exercising because they cannot manage it anymore, but some struggle on,
7. us instead." Of course, no one ever managed to prove that the two policemen
8. T Alex was in bed when he finally managed to get upstairs, his first hours
9. a colleague and I eventually managed to restrain him. There was a lot
10. three years. Sophie has finally managed to quit heroin and has been clean
11. enough to hold on until we somehow managed to pull him to the deck
12. collapsed on my single bed. He then managed to finish the scotch
13. and explained why. 'How will you manage?' Senna asked. 'I'll be all right.
14. went their way unchecked. How can we manage?' Aimee Diderot asked.
15. feel my way and guide you." Can you manage?" Rick's voice vibrated.
16. How's it all going, how are you managing? Elsie said this evening, people
17. a week for 26 weeks. How do you manage?" Danny: 'This is the technical
18. success. That is to say that he is managing to get the things published and,
19. according to Greg, because he was managing to keep on working
20. girl band Back Alley have been managing to make a name for themselves.
21. around because fewer people are managing to fiddle the taxman. He also
22. said: 'This shows our staff are managing to do a very good job despite
23. run off our feet but are managing to cope. I thought we were doing fine
24. on how well their country was managing the environment. 'Australia's
25. period of that--time I have been managing this campaign, Mr. Perot and I
26. the incompetent way ministers are managing the NHS." IRA back on war
27. her grandfather. One day you'll be managing all this, Nicky," he told her.
28. manner in which Ernst and Young are managing the project.

29. everything you need to manage and save your money and your time!
 30. learn techniques that allow you to manage and deal with stress more
 31. 500 left behind at Clark Air Base to manage and provide security.
 32. solution- a not-for-profit trust to manage and maintain the track and
 33. a few weeks ago, they were able to manage and motivate a staff of 20 and
 34. the target of misguided attempts to manage costs to the employer
 35. about weight helps the therapist to manage medical situations that might
 36. solution, of using displacement to manage her pain, this cultural defense,
 - 37Delores, the alter trying to manage life and the demands of this world,
 38. differed, however, on how best to manage the transition from an agrarian
 39. and denied states the right to manage their own affairs; he also
 40. Middlethorpe is managed by Malcolm Broadbent and is owned
 - 41 within the piles. But a study managed by Britain's Natural Environment
 42. rights of the user on rivers are managed by British Waterways and the
 43. The lucky duo are being managed by Whitney Houston's artist to.
 44. the same name. The mine will be managed by giant UK mining house RTZ
 45. CARTY Pat Carberry, 34, has managed a Kwik Save store in Handsworth,
 46. Minister and Frank Dobson have mis-managed the NHS.
 47. his own ability were unfounded; he managed the London Office efficiently
 48. of seven hotel clubs. She has managed the Fulham branch for four months.
 49. a former senator from Berlin and managed the German business
 50. million deal with IBM. Big Blue will manage the Co-op's network of cash
- Task 6.

Here are 50 concordance lines taken from the Bank of English for the noun *time*.

- A. How many different meanings does *time* have?
 - B. Identify some of the frequent grammatical patterns associated with *time*.
 - C. Are these different meanings associated with particular patterns?
 - D. Point out grammatical status, categories and functions of the word in focus.
- 1 Caddick his fourth wicket, the first time he has taken so many in a one-day

2 a really good young keeper. The last time he was here we had a long
3 People tend to do better the second time they take a test, after they have
4 and even do their ironing. The only time we sleep together is at weekends but
5 that is incredible. The one time he did pull the book out was for Don
6 seven, even though this is the third time it's been released. It's just a pity
7 where your cursor is. The next time you work on that document, you can
8 They were total hangers-on. Every time they went out, Russell paid." Just
9 services -- One individual taking time to visit with another who is unable
10 then after while you know, it takes time to heal, and I'm still not
11. year on the grounds that it takes time to build up enough expertise
12 There are periods you don't even get time to sit down and eat dinner. You're
13 moment I just feel as though I need time to take in everything that is
14 up your love life, which means making time to be together and having fun.
15 afraid she's a bit late." What time was she supposed to be here?" I
16 Gil chuckled softly and asked: `What time is it?" He looked at his wrist
17 ite uptown," Brooks amplified. `What time were you planning lunch?" Half
18 I would call Terry and say, `What time are you coming home? and he'd say
19 Erm all right well what time are you coming over in the morning?
20 any time won't you basically. What time are you thinking of coming?
21 New York. Bob Edwards, host: The time is 21 minutes before the hour. This
22 gradually changing as we turned. The time was then 01.12. I woke again
23 Office for the Census Bureau. The time is 19 minutes past the hour. Bob
24 from Dhahran, Saudi Arabia. The time is now 21 minutes before the hour.
25 item, ending with a loud hiccup. The time was now 12.29 and fifty-five
26 exclusively for News The time was 3.27pm, the venue New Brighton
27 for years and years, and that it was time to give someone else a chance to do
28 to her guns, Phil decides it is time to make life difficult for her.
29 Very Rev Joseph Devine said: `It is time to forgive and forget." Former
30 oli yawned and then said, `Now it is time to sleep. We must hunt tomorrow
31 of the bonce with her elbow. It was time to throw in the towel. I was well

32 mother and I finally decided it was time to get someone to look after her.
 33 strongly about this because it is time that these kind of things must stop
 34 saturated with such people and it is time that politicians recognised that it
 35 be in a tight spot. But maybe it is time that you were forced into a position
 36 being broken in opera, perhaps it is time that more black and Asian people
 37 was being ignored and that it was time that someone paid attention to her. `.
 38 for good reading, but maybe it is time that one airline learned its lesson
 39 enough for anybody. I think it is time for me to hang up my boots.
 40 have enjoyed knowing her but it is time for her to move on. Then sit down
 41 The Garda need to accept that it is time for change. Nobody can reasonably
 42 want to refute. She judged it was time for her to go; she could depend on
 43 here." More tears. I decided it was time for a break. So I rambled over to
 44 bath or the steam room until it is time for another 15 minutes of pure joy.
 45 behind him. Yuletide is an emotional time for any turkey, what with the risk
 46 in emerging markets makes this a good time for long-term investors
 47 remarks such as `Did you have a nice time in Swdedn?" or `Oh, hello Alex,
 48 Even sterling, which has had a torrid time in the currency markets
 49 Face value. It was 1992, and a dark time for Honda. The legendary founder,
 50 planned but it's come at a great time in both their lives. They're both thrilled
 Task 7.

A. Study the pattern in the table below.

| N (personal pronoun) | v-link (verb to be) | Adj (predicative adjective) | That (that clause) |
|-------------------------|------------------------|--------------------------------|-----------------------|
| I | Am | afraid | that |

Table 15. Grammar Pattern 1

Here are 50 concordance lines taken from the Bank of English which follow this pattern.

B. Put the adjectives together into 'meaning groups' (i.e. groups of adjectives with related meanings).

C. What are the main groups? What types of adjective are associated with this pattern?

D. Is this particular pattern associated with one or more meanings?

1 prior to--to that, but I was afraid that I would have problems, so I went to

2 afraid of the strike. She was afraid that it wasn't going to work.

3 of Patrick's shows. But he was afraid that she would be offended by close-to

4 owner. As it matures I am afraid that it is likely to get worse.

5 He told journalists: `I am afraid that the present British government is

6 However, she is adamant that polygamy is not a good thing.

7 He was adamant adamant that he could never find satisfactory

8 substitute, for his pain. He is angry that the treatment was abandoned as too

9 after a restless night. He was angry that promised medical supplies had not

10 he was anxious anxious that any Hispano-Portuguese agreement

11 He was anxious anxious that the birds should be provided with

12 questioned by police I am ashamed that I didn't know my rights

13 officials said they are aware that groups of Muslim refugees are on the

14 to everything and if you are aware that what you are going to say will cause

15 the Sun Metals dispute. I was aware that there was a level of dissatisfaction

16 practitioners, and I am certain that some of my readers will disagree

17 He dismissed them all. He was certain that the court would believe his story

18 up for a great deal. She was certain that Anna and Johannes would love it

19 of nuclear weapons. So we are certain that we can test the intention of our

20 left than I have, I am confident that I can complete my apprenticeship

21 with the changes and we are confident that our customers will want to buy

22 s success of 1998. We are confident that the new structure will add value to

23 with Down's Syndrome. I was conscious that people might say,

24 within the district I was conscious that tenants were you know, there was

25 Kurds' perspective, they were fearful that the act of releasing this evidence

26 put it: `Perhaps we were fortunate that we were born Gentiles and citizens

27 even more nauseous, and she was glad that she had not been selected to play

28 not his real name, and he was glad that his hunch had proved correct; he'd
 29 shops as they promised, I am grateful that the police protected my civil
 30 work with, you know, they were happy that it finally started. They look at it
 31 of the patient - said he was happy that adequate steps had been taken to
 32 in her last letter that she is happy that you'll stay a little longer, and
 33 in committee. He was heartbroken that this frivolous and ill-thought-out
 34 region are excellent. I am hopeful that an announcement in this regard can
 35 But said he was hopeful that the difficulties could be overcome.
 36 the state. And he was indignant that Mr Said should have been arrested
 37 The NHS needs more money. I am lucky that the treatment I have received
 38 Mr Cook said he was optimistic that a few remaining points would be
 39 Mr. Miller says he is optimistic that the taste will match that of the
 40 the officer on this; she was positive that her report was accurate. An attempt
 41 either side. He said: `I am proud that two great English clubs are
 42 about working part-time. I am proud that the Met is recognising the need to
 43 the new qualifications, and I am sure that your school is trying to anticipate
 44 Mark Ella. But one day I am sure that Jonny will be England's fly-half. It
 45 onto the cinders. We were thankful that we didn't have to attend this
 46 Tony has died but we are thankful that his wife is not too badly hurt. She
 47 Secretariat of State he was unaware that the Vatican was already secretly
 48 Sgt Hayes also said he was unaware that the couple owed money to the
 49 Sue Lawley. `I was unhappy that we were taking photographs of them
 50 to rebuild as it is, and I am unsure that your excessive attention to their
 Task 8.

A. Study the pattern in the table below.

| N (pronoun) | Adverb | Verb | To-infinitive |
|----------------|---------|---------|---------------|
| I | Finally | managed | to prove |

Table 16. Grammar Pattern 2

Here are 50 concordance lines taken from the Bank of English which follow this pattern.

B. Put the adjectives together into 'meaning groups' (i.e. groups of adjectives with related meanings).

C. What are the main groups? What types of adjective are associated with this pattern?

D. Is this particular pattern associated with one or more meanings?

1. for an allied attack before he finally agreed to cooperate with the UN reed
2. and `After the Ball," before he finally agreed to give up what he called reed
3. for the first album. Even when they finally agreed to let me produce myself
4. and was cold and tired when she finally agreed to take a pill about 3am reed
5. by his experience in Tunis. When he finally arrived to see for himself what
6. immaturity of men. That was when I finally began to think for myself, and it
7. win the second at a gallop, they finally began to wake up and get behind gan
8. to go home to bed. Even so, she finally began to feel safe. She had since gan
9. critics and other artists. When they finally came to accept this work me
10. He drove for three days, and when he finally came to realize what he was
11. mine of information. From him, I finally came to understand the process by
12. sit staring for hours and hours. I finally came to understand that he was me
13. the country we wanted to live on. We finally chose to move to the Pacific
14. he claims was involved and why he finally chose to resign 3 hrs.
15. another source of trouble, they finally condescended to give her a form
16. who had emigrated to Germany, he finally consented to go in return
17. a challenge-something tougher. I finally dared to admit to myself that I red
18. moans and screeches. Terrified, he finally dared to look outside, and saw
19. and broke into their cars. She finally decided to act when her son's
20. band. It's just ironic that when we finally decided to call it a day
21. would wreck their romance. They finally decided to go public last month
22. in April and three months later he finally decided to take the plunge.
23. to her computer screen. When she finally deigned to speak to him, it was to

24 .even refused to even see me. When I finally did get to see FX came
25. I wasn't even embarrassed when we finally emerged to find a queue of
26. change these procedures. When we finally got to see a doctor with Jessie, t
27. wall behind the bedstead. When he finally got to sleep, the dreamer found t
28. huge sense of relief. But when I finally got to talk to him later that t
29. life, Lady James reflects, that she finally grew to value her own father's
30. had adult and tense overtones. I finally learned to cook when I left home
31. days they had together after they finally learned to listen to each
32. of being pushed around before we finally managed to get on a train
33. But he never returned home. When I finally managed to get hold of him
34. pill herself. `It wasn't easy but I finally managed to persuade a friend
35. murderer Fred West has told how she finally managed to rebuild her
36. was not the right one. And when she finally paused to look more minutely
37. Moore lifted the World Cup, they finally promised to put that right.
38. to such a point, I am told, that he finally refused to make any French fused
39. called the police! And after you finally returned to collect the car
40. page prepared statement in which he finally started to discuss some
41. his parents' Merseyside home as he finally started to become aware
42. feel his thoughts were far away. He finally started to speak, although he did
43. the blinds of his hotel room when he finally succumbed to sleep. He awoke
44. but none of them would talk. When I finally threatened to invite Ross
45. Apart from saying that when they finally tried to play, they were found
46. they tormented him without mercy; he finally tried to fight them," T.R.
47. that determined how and why he finally tried to deal with domestic
48. I took it as a good sign that as I finally waited to take possession of the
49. on and off for several years, and I finally wanted to know what they were."
50. and more and more, and--and when I finally went to work, then I started
Task 9.

A. Study the pattern in the table below.

| Subject | Verb | Noun | To-infinitive |
|---------|-------|------|---------------|
| It | Takes | Time | to heal |

Table 17. Grammar Pattern 3

Here are 50 concordance lines taken from the Bank of English which follow this pattern.

B. Put the adjectives together into 'meaning groups' (i.e. groups of adjectives with related meanings).

C. What are the main groups? What types of adjective are associated with this pattern?

D. Is this particular pattern associated with one or more meanings?

1. When a draft begins this badly, it takes ages to sort it out." Greens go s
2. are medium spiced and so filling it takes ages to eat a pack. They are also s
3. so on. Even if we did get new ones it takes ages to adapt them so they can be
4. once, Stephen. Today of all days." It takes balls to face up to realities, ls
5. s Best Selling Business Magazine." It takes balls to run that sort of slogan, ls
6. making is the new rock'n'roll, it takes brains to be more than a one-hit ins
7. and instinct of a lifetime. It takes bravery to dare to trust one's very
8. and brave enough--because it takes bravery to change and to bring perfect,
9. has a lot of character flaws. It takes character to resign and I don't
10. downtown Petra. I say climb", but it takes character to defy the locals
11. person, it's hard to handle. It takes commitment to keep up.' To go this
12. about the young Esther -- and it takes confidence to carry on with a
13. when people get into a rut it takes courage to change. But the choice rage
14. about what was happening because it takes courage to do the right thing.
15. live and work with others as well. It takes courage to say what you think
16. of like an envelope. Apparently it takes days to learn how to do the perfect
17. the entry of take at work and like it takes days to go through it 'cos
18. manager of HSBC bank, admits that it takes decades to check the progress
19. to chewing tobacco. Given that it takes decades to build the kind of
20. of strong, sculpted, sexy legs. It takes determination to reshape your body

21. free, enjoyable evening. But it takes discipline to use this technique
22. It's what you're meant to do." It takes discipline to be involved, not to
23. seen each other the week before. It takes effort to keep friendships going,
24. investment of time and effort. It takes effort to be on time. Reliability ort
25. language, and we know that it takes energy to do things. For example,
26. find the energy necessary to grow. It takes energy to be a healthy man. The
27. You won't be selling our house. It takes enthusiasm to flog a sodding tea-
28. even to folks with a good eye. It takes experience to know how to get
29. you will be unable to walk again." It takes faith to hold on to a cure or
30. language" of its surroundings. It takes generations to build up tolerances
31. the media having a go at you. But it takes guts to do the job properly. Clubs
32. year to promote the 's lifestyle. It takes guts to do what they do, and when s
33. When Parliament reassembles, it takes hours to deal with them. For a
34. of guy. When your kid is sick, it takes hours to reach a doctor. You
35. in the British House of Commons, it takes ingenuity to use concern about
36. between unrelated individuals. It takes intelligence to monitor the level
37. out of trouble and off the street. It takes intelligence to know right from
38. to the classic version, but it takes minutes to cook. And it won't break
39. problems and some may fold. It takes money to run shows and trials, and
40. as they did before their babies. It takes months to develop a proper lump
41. trade unions that oppose reform. It takes months to get a new idea accepted
42. have quit years ago. Dick said it takes nerve to do what you did. Myers?" I'
43. get much practice in writing them. It takes practice to get the knack. You
44 plan. Credit where it is due. It takes skill to hold the attention of Congress
45 for next year on the grounds that it takes time to build up enough expertise e
46. But then after while--you know, it takes time to heal, and I'm still not
47. television, and they insisted it takes time to develop new programs and
48. and columnist Linda Gilbey. `It takes years to crack the code of Northern
49. Time is essential - it takes years to undo psychological damage.
50. regulatory bodies before: `It takes years to get them up and running."

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Appendix A

(*obligatory*)

Glossary

The plane of content comprises the semantic elements contained in language.

The plane of expression comprises the material units of language.

Morphology is the science of form; it studies the ways of changing of grammatical forms of words, parts of speech and their categories.

Syntax studies the arrangement of form and structures; it includes the sentence and parts of sentence (so-called large syntax); it also studies building of word group (small syntax)

Lingual synchrony focuses on coexistence of lingual elements.

Lingual diachrony focuses on different time-periods in the development of lingual elements.

Language is a system of means of expression.

Speech is the manifestation of the system of language in the process of communication.

Syntagmatic relations are relations between units in a segmental sequence.

Syntagma is a unity formed by the combination of two words or word-groups one of which is modified by the other.

Paradigmatic relations exist between elements of the system outside the sequence where they occur.

Segmental language units consist of phonemes, syllables, morphemes, words.

Supra-segmental units do not exist by themselves; here belong intonations, accents, pauses, patterns of word-order.

Morpheme is a meaningful segmental component of the word, it is formed by phonemes, as a meaningful component of the word it is elementary that is indivisible.

Word is a nominative unit of language, it is formed by morphemes, it enters the lexicon of language as its elementary component that is indivisible in its nominative function.

Root expresses the concrete part of the meaning of the word.

Affix expresses the specificational part of the meaning of the word.

Inflections are grammatical suffixes that express different morphological categories.

Stem is the main part of a word, to which various grammatical suffixes or endings may be added.

Distribution is a set of positions that the grammar determines to be possible for a given category.

Free morphemes are those which can stand alone as a word.

Bound morphemes are word elements that cannot stand alone as a word, including both prefixes and suffixes (derivational or inflectional).

Semi-bound morpheme forms categorial units with its notional stem-words (e.g. sea-man)

Additive morphemes are outer grammatical suffixes (play-played).

Replacive morphemes express grammatical category by changing a sound inside the root (drive-drove).

Continuous morphemes are uninterruptedly expressed (play-played).

Discontinuous morphemes are interrupted by the insertion of another morphological unit (be... playing).

Grammatical meaning is general abstract meaning which unites classes of forms or words and finds its expression through formal markers.

Grammatical form unites a whole class of words and each class expresses the corresponding grammatical meaning with its semantics.

Grammatical category is a system of expressing a generalized grammatical meaning by means of paradigmatical correlation of grammatical forms.

Paradigm is the ordered set of grammatical forms expressing a categorial function.

Opposition is a generalized correlation of lingual forms by means of which a certain function is expressed (privative\gradual\equipollent).

Synthetical grammatical forms are realized by the inner morphemic composition of the word (suppletivity, vowel interchange).

Analytical grammatical forms are built up by a combination of at least 2 words (auxiliary word + a word).

Suppletivity consists of the grammatical interchange of word roots.

Parts of speech are the traditional grammatical classes of words.

Case is the immanent morphological category of the noun manifested in the forms of noun declension and showing the relations of the nounal referent to other objects and phenomena (common\genitive).

Article is a determining unit of specific nature accompanying the noun in communicative collocation.

Finite forms of the verb express the processual relations of the substances and phenomena making up the situation reflected in the sentence.

Tense is the grammatical category of the verb expressing the relationship between the time of the action and the time of the utterance (Past, Present, Future).

Aspect is the grammatical category of the verb indicating duration and type of action expressed.

Voice is the grammatical category of the verb that shows the direction of the process as regards the participants of the situation reflected in the syntactic construction.

Mood is a grammatical category, which indicates the attitude of the speaker towards the action expressed by the verb from the point of view of its reality.

Non-finite forms of the verb are intermediary in many of their lexicogrammatical features between the verb and the non-processual parts of speech.

Infinitive is the non-finite form of the verb, which combines the properties of the verb with those of the noun, serving as the verbal name of the process.

Gerund is the non-finite form of the verb, which combines the properties of the verb with those of the noun.

Present Participle is the non-finite form of the verb, which combines the properties of the verb with those of the adjective and adverb, serves as the qualifying-processual name.

Past Participle is the non-finite form of the verb, which combines the properties of the verb with those of the adjective, serving as the qualifying-processual name.

Adjective is a part of speech which is used to describe a quality of a noun.

Relative adjectives express such properties of a substance as are determined by the direct relation of the substance to some other substance (e.g. wood – wooden).

Qualitative adjectives denote various qualities of substances which admit of a quantitative estimation, establishing their correlative quantitative measure.

Statives are built by the prefix a- and denote different states mostly of the temporary duration.

Adverb is the word expressing either property of an action, or property of another property, or circumstances in which an action occurs.

Numeral is a notional part of speech, which indicates number of or the order of persons and things in the series.

Sentence is the main object of syntax; the immediate integral unit of speech built up of words according to a definite syntactic pattern and distinguished by a contextually relevant communicative purpose

Predication establishes the relation of the named phenomena to actual life.

Theme expresses the starting point of the communication, denoting an object about which something is mentioned.

Rheme expresses the basic and most important part of the communication, its contextually relevant center.

Simple sentence is a sentence in which only one predicative line is expressed (The doctor came in).

Subject is a person-modifier of the predicate.

Predicate is a process-modifier.

Object is a substance-modifier of a processual part (predicate).

Adverbial modifier is a quality-modifier of a processual part or the whole of the sentence.

Attribute is a quality-modifier of a substantive part (subject, object).

Composite sentence is formed by two or more predicative lines, expressing a complicated act of thought, reflecting two or more situational events making up a unit.

Clause is a part of polypredicative construction; it corresponds to a separate sentence as a part of a contextual sequence.

Subordinate clause presents the information as naturally supplementing the information of the principal clause

Coordination presupposes clauses arranged as units of syntactically equal ranks.

Subordination presupposes units of unequal rank, one is dominated by the other.

Complex sentence is a polypredicative construction built up on the principle of the subordination.

Compound sentence is a composite sentence built up on the principle of coordination.

Text is a speech sequence of lingual units interconnected semantically (topically) and syntactically (structurally); it is a coherent stretch of speech, characterized by semantic and syntactic unity.

Cohesion is the basic category of the text mostly concerned with surface features of connectivity.

Coherence is the basic category of the text referring to the underlying development of topic.

Monologue is a syntactic structure where sentences are directed from one interlocutor (participant of communication) to another.

Dialogue is a syntactic structure where the sentences are directed from one interlocutor to another in turn, to meet one another.

Supra-phrasal unity is a monologue sequence of sentences united by a common topic and identified as the basic textual unit.

Cumuleme is the supra-sentential construction of the one-direction communicative type based on cumulation of sentences

Occurseme is the supra-sentential construction based on the components of a dialogue sequence.

Dicteme is the general elementary unit-segment of text built up by either a cumuleme or by a single sentence.

Appendix B

(obligatory)

Rethinking Grammar: Who Makes the Rules?

VOA Learning English.

October 14, 2015

If you learned about grammar in school, you were probably taught to think about “correct” and “incorrect” ways of using a language. Maybe you had to “unlearn” some grammar patterns that you heard at home because your teacher said they were wrong.

Prescriptive Grammar

The traditional way of teaching grammar in school is called prescriptive grammar. Grammar is seen as a set of rules to follow. The rules are passed from one generation to another. Those who do not follow the rules are looked down upon as being careless or poorly educated.

In America, the style of grammar used in academic, government, and professional situations is called Standard American English. There is no official government agency in the United States that makes rules for the English language. In fact, the United States does not even have an official language.

Teachers usually rely on tradition and popular style guides to decide what proper grammar is.

Descriptive Grammar

Descriptive grammar takes a different approach. Descriptive grammarians observe and analyze language as it is used in different communities. They look for rules and patterns that people follow. In descriptive grammar, there is no correct or incorrect way of using grammar.

For example, a prescriptive grammarian might say, “Don’t use a double negative because it is illogical.” A descriptive grammarian might say, “Some communities use double negatives and some do not. Why is that?” We’ll talk more about double negatives later.

Dr. Richard Epstein is a linguist at Rutgers University in Camden, New Jersey. Dr. Epstein says that most people do not understand the social and political processes behind grammar rules.

“Nobody knows why we should not use ‘ain’t’ or why we should not use double negatives because the teachers teach these things as if they were simply rules that came down from some higher power, authority, maybe God, and there’s no rhyme or reason taught for the reason what the reason is for the existence of these rules. So it seems quite boring and totally arbitrary.”

The Case of the Double Negative

Dr. Epstein says grammar rules have nothing to do with logic. Instead, they are based on social fashions, politics, and power. He gives the example of the double negative.

As we mentioned on an episode of *Everyday Grammar*, certain types of double negative words are not allowed in Standard American English. For example, “I don’t know nothing.” The two words “don’t” and “nothing” are both negative. Most Americans were taught that double negatives are illogical.

In math, two negatives equal a positive. But is this true in language? Does “I don’t know nothing” mean “I know something.”? Of course not. It just makes a stronger negative. The rule against the double negative does not come from math; it comes from Robert Lowth, the bishop of London.

Robert Lowth’s book *A Short Introduction to English Grammar*, first published in 1762, prohibited the double negative. Dr. Epstein says that random grammar rules were a way for the upper classes of London to protect themselves from a rising middle class.

“The upper classes became concerned that people below them were getting educated and getting access to sources of power. So to protect their own status and authority people started to prescribe rules for grammar. And if you couldn’t follow those rules then you didn’t have access to power and authority like the rich people of the day.”

Ain’t ‘ain’t’ a word?

Here's another example. American children are taught that "ain't" is not a word. However, many Americans say "ain't" in place of "is not" or "are not." Listen to this song by Bob Dylan.

Someone to open each and every door

But it ain't me, babe

No, no, no it ain't me, babe

It ain't me you're looking for, babe

American school teachers told children to stop using the word "ain't" in the 1800s. But long ago, the word "ain't" was the proper negative contraction for "I am not." Ironically, the British upper classes continued to use "ain't" after the Americans banned it. Dr. Epstein explains.

"Knowing that regular folks used 'ain't' but the upper classes of the United States didn't, they created this sort of fake rule that you shouldn't use 'ain't' because it didn't make sense. Of course it makes perfect sense to anybody who says it. But now we have this rule."

So who makes the grammar rules? In America, the grammar patterns of rich white men are the basis of Standard American English, Epstein says. Nobody will go to jail for ignoring grammar rules. But they will have difficulty getting into the best schools and finding good jobs.

You ain't seen nothin' yet...

B-b-b-baby you just ain't seen nothin' yet

I'm Adam Brock.

Adam Brock wrote this story for VOA Learning English. Kathleen Struck was the editor.

Source: <https://learningenglish.voanews.com/a/education-report-rethinking-grammar-who-makes-the-rules/3005148.html>.

Appendix C
(optional)

Scholars of Grammar Theory



Picture C.1 – Mark Yakovlevich Blokh



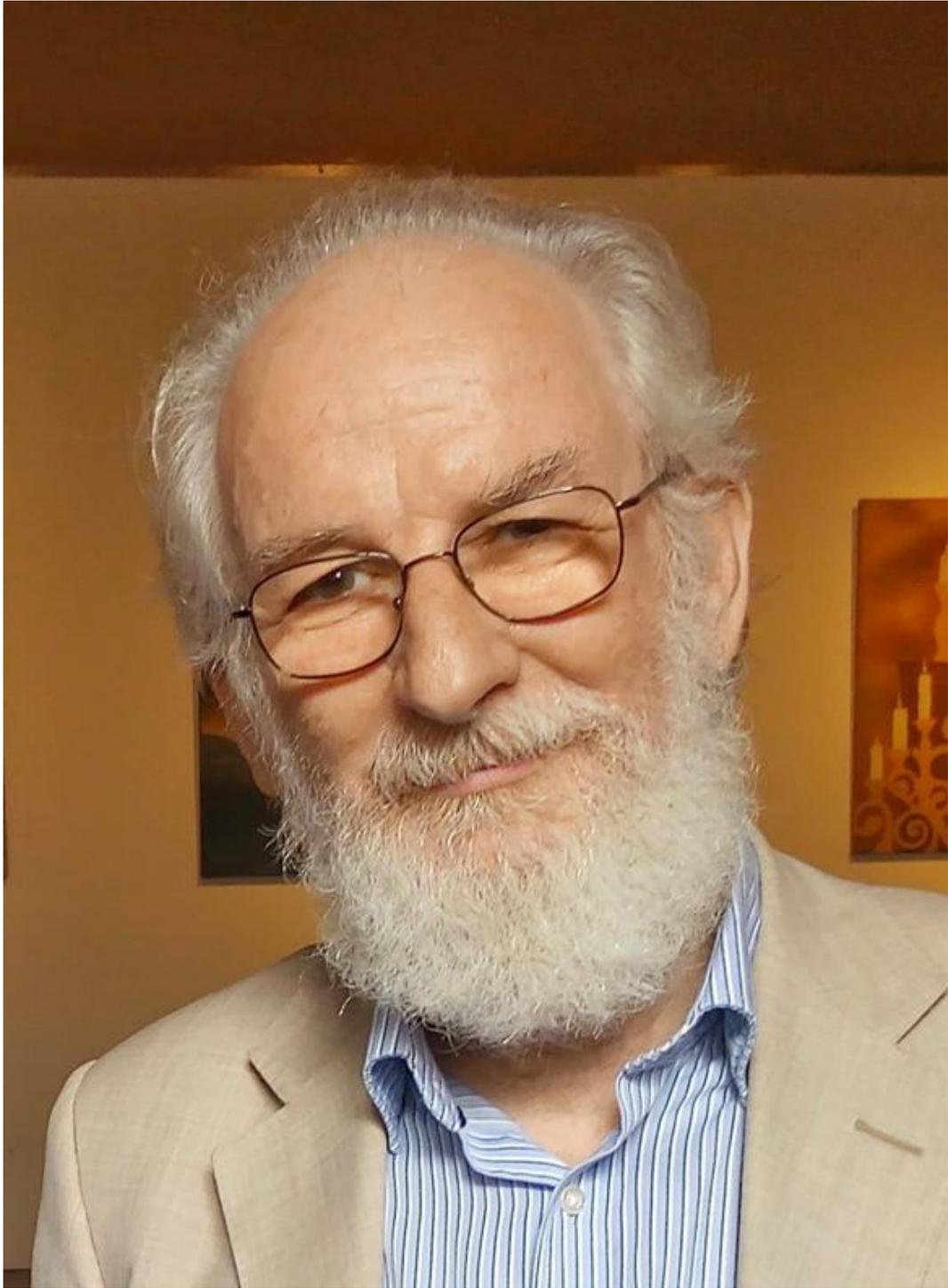
Picture C.2 – Leonard Bloomfield



Picture C.3 – Aleksandr Vladimirovich Bondarko



Picture C.4 – Noam Chomsky



Picture C.5 – David Crystal



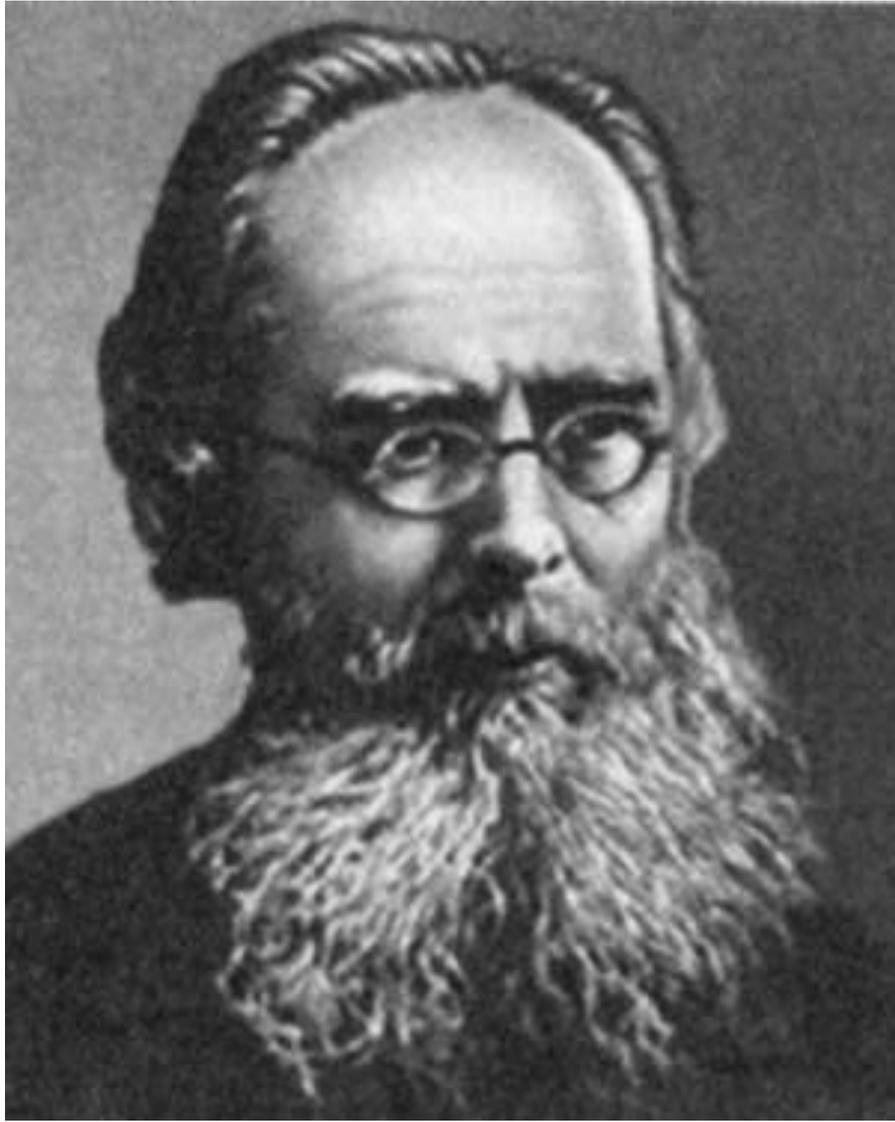
Picture C.6 – Charles Fries



Picture C.7 – Henry Allan Gleason



Picture C.8 – Otto Jespersen



Picture C.9 – Alexander Afanasyevich Potebnya



Picture C.10 – Alexander Ivanovich Smirnitsky



Picture C.11 – Henry Sweet

Appendix D

(*obligatory*)

Test Key

Test 1

1. One of the prominent representatives of classical scientific grammar is Henry ...

a) Sweet*.

2. Any language unit has a plane of expression and a plane of ...

c) content*.

3. The branch of grammar which studies the arrangement of form and structures is ...

a) syntax*.

4. The branch of grammar which studies the parts of speech and their categories is ...

b) morphology*.

5. The relations between units in a segmental sequence are called ...

a) syntagmatic*.

6. The relations between units based on different formal and functional properties are called ...

a) paradigmatic*.

7. The prevailing type of opposition in English grammar is ...

c) privative*.

8. The member of the opposition which is formally marked by the presence of a certain differential feature is ...

a) a strong (positive) member of the opposition*.

9. In the category of case opposition (girl-girl's) the form of genitive is ...

a) a strong (positive) member of the opposition*.

10. Semantically the weak member of the opposition is ...

a) more general and more abstract, used in a wider range of contexts*.

11. Pre-normative grammar appeared at the end of the 16th century and it was based on the principals of ...

a) the Latin grammar description*.

12. The first grammar book by ... set a standard for the arrangement of material and suggested the possibility of presenting English forms using the same terminology as in Latin grammar.

c) William Lily*.

Test 2

1. The grammatical suffixes are also called ...

c) inflections*.

2. The meaning of the morpheme is ...

a) nominative*.

3. Which type of affixes can function only as lexical (derivative or word-building) affixes?

c) infix*.

4. Suffix –ed in the verb ‘decided’ (as in ‘he decided to stay’) is ...

b) grammatical*.

5. Suffix –ed in the adjective ‘relaxed’ (as in ‘relaxed atmosphere’) is ...

a) lexical*.

6. Allomorphs (variants) of the same morpheme are distinguished in...

a) contrastive distribution*.

7. In which of the following words ‘s’ is not the allomorph of the same morpheme?

c) phonetics*.

8. The lexical morpheme –ment is ..

b) bound*.

9. “Zero” morpheme is ...

b) covert*.

10. In the word ‘worked’ affixation is ...

a) additive*;

11. A system of expressing a generalized grammatical meaning by means of paradigmatical correlation of grammatical forms is ...

a) a grammatical category*.

12. The grammatical interchange of word roots to produce another part of speech or another grammatical form is called ...

d) suppletivity*.

Test 3

1. The noun has the categorial meaning of ...

a) thingness*.

2. The nouns are subdivided into proper and ...

a) common*.

3. Otto Jespersen classified all parts of speech according to his theory of ...

d) ranks*.

4. Traditional parts of speech classification is ...

b) heterogeneous*.

5. Pronouns and numerals in the traditional parts of speech classification belong to ...

a) notional parts of speech*.

6. Notional parts of speech are ...

a) open classes of words*.

7. Which of the syntactic functions is not fulfilled by the noun in English?

b) predicate*.

8. The category of gender in English is ...

a) formal*.

9. The combination of an article with a noun is ...

c) a combination of a specific intermediary status between the morphological status of the noun and the word-combination*.

10. The basic semantic function of relative adjectives is ...

a) specificative*.

11. Charles Fries based his parts of speech theory on the ... principles

a) positional*.

12. The numeral has two syntactic functions...

a) a numerical attribute*;

c) a numerical substantive*.

Test 4

1. The major unit of syntax is ...

b) the sentence*.

2. The phrase 'spent the weekend' is ...

a) progressive*.

3. What is the theme of the sentence "The speaker has arrived"?

a) the speaker*;

4. The sentence is ...

c) a nominative-predicative lingual unit*.

5. The sentence as a lingual unit in the broad sense is ...

c) a unit of language and speech at the same time*.

6. Define the type of the sentence "I am a teacher".

b) unexpanded*.

7. Define the communicative type of the following sentence "Could you show me your book?"

a) interrogative*.

8. Define the communicative type of the following sentence "Could you show me your book?"

c) a polite request*.

9. What type does the last from the following sentence group refer to: "You can't do it yourself?"- "No"?

a) one-axis*.

10. The ... sentence is formed by two or more predicative lines, expressing a complicated act of thought, reflecting two or more situational events making up a unit.

c) composite*.

11. The principle element in dominational connection is called ...

a) the kernel-word*.

12. The subordinate element in dominational connection is called ...

b) the adjunct*.

Test 5

1. Define the type of cumulative connections between the sentences in the following supra-sentential construction: I'd like to mention one thing. No matter what. I'll be on your side.

a) prospective (cataphoric) cumulation*.

2. Define the type of cumulative connections between the sentences in the following supra-sentential construction: He wanted to stay. But that was absolutely impossible.

b) retrospective (anaphoric) cumulation*.

3. Which of the following categories is not the feature of the text?

c) predication*.

4. The most widely used type of theme-rheme connections in the text, when the rheme of the previous sentence becomes the theme of the following sentence, is called ...

a) chain connections*.

5. Syntactic constructions with parcellation (e.g. No one is perfect. But him) are ...

c) a unit of intermediary status between the sentence and the textual unity*.

6. A monologue sequence of sentences united by a common topic is identified as the basic textual unit and it is called ...

c) supra-phrasal unity*.

7. A speech sequence of lingual units interconnected semantically (topically) and syntactically (structurally) is ...

a) a text*.

8. A two-directed sequence of sentences is sometimes called ...

a) a dialogue unity*.

9. The occurseme as an element of the system occupies a place above ...

a) the cumuleme*.

10. A ... correlates with a separate sentence which is placed in the text in a topically significant position

a) cumuleme*.

11. According to the definition of David Crystal: a continuous stretch of (especially spoken) language larger than a sentence, often constituting a coherent unit such as a sermon, argument, joke, is called ...

a) the discourse*.

12. Reference to the world outside the text or the interpreters' schemata is called ...

a) intertextuality*.