As to the category of number, it should be observed that strictly speaking, the personal pronouns have no category of number. I and we or he and they cannot be treated as number opposites as they differ from each other not only grammatically, but lexically as well. The personal pronouns possess lexico-grammatical meanings of number. Similarly, we may speak of the lexico-grammatical meaning of person.

The combinability of the personal pronouns differs from that of nouns. A personal pronoun usually replaces a noun with all its attributes.

POSSESSIVE PRONOUNS. The possessive pronouns are usually treated as adjective pronouns, whereas they are in reality noun pronouns or pro-nouns, but they replace only possessive case nouns with which they are correlated. One of the peculiarities of Modern English is the extensive use of conjoint possessive pronouns. When used in cases like - **He entered with his eyes shining and his hair in disorder** - they add very little information. In fact their function is to specify nouns in the way the definite article does. They might be treated as pro-articles, but they are correlated only with the definite article and the meaning of the definite article is much more general than that of **his** or **her.**

REFLEXIVE PRONOUNS. They are compound noun pronouns which second element **-self** expresses the relation of the first element, that is, it shows that the first element refers to the person mentioned previously in the sentence. Thus, **I - myself, he (John) - himself, she (Jane) - herself.**

Like the personal and the possessive pronouns, the reflexive pronouns distinguish the lexico-grammatical meanings of person, number and gender.

In colloquial speech there is a marked tendency to use emphatic pronouns as synonyms of personal ones. Perhaps, the usage is caused by the fact that self-pronouns are felt to carry more weight than unstressed personal pronouns - **My wife and myself were left behind.**

DEMONSTRATIVE PRONOUNS. Usually only the pronouns **this (these), that (those), such** and **(the) same** are regarded as demonstrative. But even this small group is not homogeneous. The

pronouns **this — that (these —those)** are correlative. The pronouns **such** and **(the) same** have no correlative pronouns. They indicate objects or qualities by comparison with those pointed at by the speaker. Demonstrative pronouns can be pro-nouns (Since the interval she had left him а1олг and illogically he regretted **that** (Randall), pro-adjectives **(These** continental rooms are always overpoweringly stuffy (Randall)), pro-adverbs (My aunt has grown accustomed to the atmosphere, but I can never do **so** (Randall)).

This — these, that — those are number opposemes. The grammatical meanings of 'singular' and 'plural' number are also preserved when these pronouns are used as pro-adjectives, thus involving grammatical combinability: **this book - these books.**

INTERROGATIVE PRONOUNS. The meaning that unites the interrogative pronouns is "an inquiry" about some object **(what, who),** its properties **(whose, which, what),** place of some event **(where),** its time **(when),** cause **(why),** manner of existence **(how).** This group embraces pro-nouns **(what, who, which, whose),** pro-adjectives **(what, which)** and pro-adverbs **(where, when, why, how).** The interrogative pronouns are used to form a definite type of sentence - special questions.

Ch.Fries writes: " The expression **Who came?** signals a question not because of a different arrangement, but solely because the signal of question is in the word **who** as a word."

CONNECTIVE PRONOUNS. The pronouns **who, what, which, whose, that, where, when, why, how** are called 'connective' when they serve to connect clauses in complex sentences. At the same time they retain their meanings and functions of pro-nouns, pro-adjectives or pro-adverbs. This combination of functions is a typical feature of the connective pronouns. In accordance with their meaning and the types of clauses they introduce they fall into two groups: conjunctive pronouns and relative pronouns.

RECIPROCAL PRONOUNS. These are the group-pronouns - **each other** and **one another.** They serve to express mutuality. It is traditionally maintained that **each other** implies only two and **one another** more than two, but this rule is often ignored, **one another**

and **each other** becoming interchangeable. The reciprocal pronouns share the noun case system:

Common case	Possessive case
each other	*each other's*
one another	*one another's*

INDEFINITE PRONOUNS. In grammatical tradition the class of indefinite pronouns is the most variegated of all. It is said to include **some, any, every, no (and their compounds), all, each, either, much, many, few, little,** words of different lexical and grammatical nature. Indefinite pronouns can be pro-nouns, pro-adjectives, pro-numerals, pro-adverbs. Like some other groups of pronouns the indefinite pronouns regularly occur in certain types of sentences.

NEGATIVE PRONOUNS. The negative pronouns are **no, nobody, nobody's, none, nothing, neither, nowhere.** They can be used as pro-nouns, pro-adjectives as a pro-adverb **(nowhere)** and a pro-numeral **(none).**

Since Modern English admits the only one negation in a verbal construction the negative pronouns serve to build up negative sentences. Like the other pronouns ending in **-body, -one,- -thing** the negative pronouns distinguish 'person' and 'non-person'. **Neither** refers both to animate and inanimate objects. **Nobody - nobody's** is a case opposeme of the noun type.

GENERALIZING PRONOUNS. Here belong such pronouns as **all, both, each, either, every** and its compounds **(everyone, everybody, everything, everywhere)** which give a generalizing indication of persons, things, properties and circumstances. This group includes pro-nouns **(all, both, each, either, everybody, everyone, everything),** pro-adjectives and pro-numerals **(every, all, each, both, either),** pro-adverb **(everywhere). All, everybody, everything, everywhere, both** may be said to have an inclusive, uniting meaning as opposed to **every, each, either** conveying a separating meaning. Unlike the indefinite and negative pronouns, the generalizing pronouns are not attached to any definite type of sentence.

QUANTITATIVE PRONOUNS. Here belong **much, many, (a) few, (a) little, several, enough,** which may function as pronouns **(much, many, (a) few, several, (a) little, enough),** pro-adjectives **(much, (a) little, enough),** pro-numerals **(many, several, (a) few)** and pro-adverbs **(much, (a) little, enough).** Most quantitative pronouns form opposemes of comparison: **many -more - the most; few - fewer - the fewest.**

CONTRASTING PRONOUNS. Here **belong other (others, other's, others'), another (another's) and otherwise.** They are united by the meaning "not the (object, property, circumstance) indicated" and contrast therefore with the demonstrative pronouns:

this (that) book	-	another book;
these (those) books	-	other (books);
these, those	-	others;
thus, so	-	otherwise.

Other, others, other's, another, another's are used as pro-nouns, **other** and **another** as pro-adjectives and otherwise as a pro-adverb. The pro-noun **other** has some peculiarities. When the pro-noun **other** denotes inanimate things, it has only a number opposite - **others,** like nouns of the **book** type. When it denotes persons, it has also a case opposite **other's** like nouns of the girl type. Another peculiarity of **other** is its combinability. Like a noun it may be used with the definite article or a demonstrative pronoun, as in the sentence - **Please, tell the others how matters stand (Galsworthy).**

The pronoun O t i e stands somewhat apart outside the classification discussed above. We may speak of at least three variants of this pronoun:

 1. an indefinite pronoun,

 2. an indefinite personal or generalizing pronoun,

 3. a prop-word (or substituting **one).**

Summing up, we may say that the pronouns are not united by any morphological categories or syntactical functions. So they cannot be regarded as a part of speech. On the other hand, they constitute a

separate class of words with peculiar meanings and references to the world of reality.

All of them are of double nature, as they combine their peculiar meanings with certain properties of definite parts of speech (nouns, adjectives, numerals, adverbs).

QUESTIONS

1. What are the peculiarities of pronouns?
2. How can pronouns be defined?
3. Name the groups of pronouns you know.
4. Speak about personal pronouns and their categories.
5. How are possessive pronouns treated?
6. What lexico-grammatical meanings do reflexive pronouns have?
7. How do demonstrative pronouns indicate objects or qualities?
8. According to what meaning are interrogative pronouns united?
9. What is a typical feature of the connective pronouns?
10. What group of pronouns is the most variegated of all?
11. What is peculiar about the pronoun one?

2. THE NUMERAL

The numeral as a part of speech is characterized by
1) its lexico-grammatical meaning of 'number';
2) the category of numerical qualification represented in opposemes like seven - seventh, nine - ninth; its unilateral combinability with nouns (three children, the third child); such typical stem-building suffixes as -teen, -ty;
3) its functioning as an attribute.

The lexico-grammatical meaning of 'number' is not to be confused with the grammatical meaning of 'number', because the former is the generalization of a multitude of lexical meanings of individual numerals (six, twenty); the latter is the generalization of only two grammatical meanings: 'singular' and 'plural'. The plural number, as in girls, shows indefinite plurality, whereas the meanings of numerals, as in twenty, forty are definite plurality. Like any grammatical meaning the 'plural' of nouns is relative, dependent and indirect.

The lexical 'plural' of a numeral like ten is not relative. The 'plural' of ten is independent as it is the lexical meaning of an independent word. Its reflection of reality is direct as that of any lexical meaning.

Numerals are usually divided into two groups - cardinal numerals (one, two, five, twenty) and ordinal numerals (first, second, fifth, twentieth). The former denote some numerical quantity, the latter - some numerical order. The difference between these groups is sometimes exaggerated to such an extent that they are treated as belonging to different parts of speech.

A. I. Smirnitsky is of the opinion that only cardinal numerals form a separate part of speech, whereas ordinal numerals are adjectives. Language facts do not support such views (Khaimovich, Rogovskaya).

1. Each cardinal numeral has a corresponding ordinal one - ten -tenth.

2. Both cardinals and ordinals qualify substances quantitatively, as distinct from adjectives whose qualification is qualitative.
3. Cardinals often denote numerical order like ordinals - lesson five - the fifth lesson.
4. Only numerals have the suffix -th. Nouns denoting number (score) cannot be associated with it.
5. The relations between ten and tenth resembles the relation between girl-girl's.

As words of the girl's type are mostly used in the function of attributes, they might also be declared adjectives.

The pair ten - tenth forms an opposeme of the grammatical category of numerical qualification.

The lexical meaning of the two words expressed by the lexical morpheme ten- is the same. They are opposed only grammatically by the opposition of the zero morpheme in ten and the -th morpheme in tenth. This opposition is as regular as that of the zero morpheme of the singular and -(e)s morpheme of the plural. Even more so, in fact, because there are fewer exceptions. The meaning of the zero morpheme is that of 'numerical quantity' and the meaning of the morpheme -th is that of 'numerical order'. Like every grammatical meaning the meaning of 'numerical order' is relative (always correlated with the meaning of 'numerical quantity') and dependent on the lexical meaning of the word, that is the suffix -th does not express 'numerical order' in general but the order of the number named by the lexical part of the word.

In the opposemes one - first, two - second, three- third the meaning of numerical qualification is expressed by means of supplctivity or sound interchange. The words half, quarter, zero, score which have no ordinal opposites, but possess plural opposites are nouns, not numerals.

The combinability of numerals is rather limited. As a rule they form combinations with nouns. Numerals usually precede the nouns, but when a cardinal denotes numerical order it follows the noun.

Numerals are associated with countable nouns. In cases like the first love, the first snow instances of phenomena are meant.

As a rule numerals are not modified by other words. This negative combinability is also a characteristic feature of the part of speech.

QUESTIONS

1. Characterise the numeral as a part of speech.
2. What is the difference between the lexico-grammatical meaning of
3. 'number' and the grammatical meaning of 'number'?
4. Into what groups are numerals usually divided?
5. What is Smirnitsky's point of view on the numerals?
6. Do IC-haimovich and Rogovskaya support this view? What is their
7. opinion?
8. What can be said about the combinability of numerals?

3.THE ADVERB

The adverb is a part of speech, characterized by the following features:

1) the lexico-grammatical meaning of "qualitative, quantitative or circumstantial characteristics of actions, states or qualities";
2) the category of the degrees of comparison; typical stem-building affixes, as in quick-ly, side-ways, clock-wise, back-wards; its unilateral combinability with verbs, adjectives, adverbs, less regularly with nouns;
3) the function of adverbial complement, sometime they perform other functions.

The category of the degrees of comparison of adverbs is similar to that of adjectives. It is a system of three-member opposemes (soon - sooner - soonest), showing whether the characteristic the adverb contains is absolute or relative.

The synthetic and analytical forms are in complementary distribution like those of the adjective, only the number of synthetic forms is smaller because there are fewer monosyllabic or disyllabic adverbs.

With the regard to the category of the degrees of comparison adverbs (like adjectives) fall into comparables and non-comparables. The number of non-comparables is much greater among adverbs than among adjectives. In other words, there arc many adverbs which lexemes contain the only one word (yesterday, always, northward, upstairs).

As the definition of the lexico-grammatical meaning shows, adverbs may be divided into three lexico-grammatical subclasses: qualitative, quantitative and circumstantial. Qualitative adverbs like loudly, quickly, brightly usually modify verbs. They show the quality of an action or state much in the same way as a qualitative adjective shows the quality of some substance.

The connection between qualitative adverbs and adjectives is obvious. In most cases the adverb is derived from the adjective with the help of the most productive adverb-forming suffix -ly. Like the corresponding adjectives qualitative adverbs usually have opposites of the comparative and superlative degrees.

On the strength of this likeness A.l. Smirnitsky advances the view that **quick** and **quickly** might be treated as belonging to the same part of speech, but having different combinability. In other words, **quick - quickly** might be regarded as an adjectival grammatical opposeme, and **-ly** as a grammatical morpheme of "adverbiality". Khaimovich, Rogovskaya have a different point of view which proves that **-ly** is not an inflexion but a highly productive stem-building suffix. Therefore **quick** and **quickly** are not members of a grammatical opposeme.

Quantitative adverbs like **very, rather, too, nearly, greatly, fully, hardly, quite, utterly, twofold** show the degree, measure, quantity of an action, quality, state, etc. The combinability of this subclass is more extensive than that of the qualitative adverbs. Besides verbs quantitative adverbs modify adjectives, adverbs, numerals, modals, even nouns (She knew it only **tOO** well. (Randall).

It was **nearly** ten (Hornby)).

The combinability of some adverbs of this subclass can be rather narrow. The adverbs **very, awfully,** for instance, mostly precede those adjectives and adverbs which have opposites of comparison. They don't, as a rule, modify verbs or numerals.

The combinability of **nearly** or **almost,** on the other hand, is too extensive, that these words are close to particles.

Quantitative adverbs are correlative with quantitative pronouns, such as **much, (a) little, enough.** Circumstantial adverbs serve to denote various circumstances (mostly local and temporal) attending an action. They are

a) adverbs of time and frequency **(yesterday, tomorrow, before, often, again, twice);**
b) adverbs of place and direction **(upstairs, inside, behind,homewards).** Circumstantial adverbs are not connected with the verbs they are said to modify. They do not characterize the action itself but name certain circumstances attending the action described in the sentence and usually referring to the situation as a whole.

Therefore a circumstantial adverb can be used in a sentence in which the only verb is a link-verb and where no action is described (He will be ten **tomorrow).** Circumstantial adverbs are not necessarily placed near the verb, they may occupy different places in the sentence.

When H.Sweet speaks of adverbs, as showing ""almost the last remains of normal free order in Modern English", it concerns, mostly, circumstantial adverbs. Similarly, G. Curme's words that "an adverb can freely stand in almost any position" mainly apply to circumstantial adverbs. Only a small group of circumstantial adverbs denoting indefinite time and place **(soon, late, often, near, for)** have opposites of comparison. Most adverbs of this subclass form no opposemes of any grammatical category.

Circumstantial adverbs are mostly used in the function of adverbial modifiers of time and place (See you **tonight** (Lewis)). But sometimes they can be used in other functions, for example, as attributes (See the notes **above** (Hornby)).

When comparing English and Russian adverbs as parts of speech, one may say that they differ but slightly. Their lexico-grammatical meanings, morphological categories, combinability and syntactical functions are fundamentally the same.

Nevertheless, certain distinctions are worth noting:
1) the stem-building (lexico-grammatical) morphemes of Russian adverbs are somewhat more numerous;
2) among the adverb building morphemes we find several suffixes of subjective appraisal (онько/енько, -онечко/енечко) which are absolutely alien to English;
3) the adverbialization of substantival or adjectival grammemes (стрелой, шагом) is the most productive way of forming adverbs in Russian, whereas in English it is less common;
4) as to the degrees of comparison one might say that the synthetic form of the superlative grammeme (подробнейше, малейше) is no longer used colloquially and is employed for some stylistic purpose. The corresponding English grammeme **(oftenest, soonest)** occurs in different speech styles.

QUESTIONS

1. Characterize the adverb as a part of speech.
2. Speak about the category of the degrees of comparison of adverbs.
3. Into what subclasses may adverbs be divided?
4. How does Smirnitsky treat **quick - quickly?**
5. How do Khaimovich and Rogovskaya treat the same?
6. Speak about the combinability of adverbs.
7. Compare English and Russian adverbs. What is the same? What is different?

4. SEMI-NOTIONAL PARTS OE SPEECH

THE PREPOSITION is a part of speech characterized by the following features:
1) its lexico-grammatical meaning of 'relations (of substances)';
2) its bilateral combinability with a right-hand noun (or noun-equivalent) and a left-hand word belonging to almost any part of speech;
3) its function of a linking word. Prepositions are not characterized by any grammatical categories or typical stem-building elements.

As far as their structure is concerned prepositions, like other parts of speech, fall into the following groups:
1) Simple - at, in, of, by, with, for, etc.;
2) Derivative - below, beside, along, etc.;
3) Compound - inside, within, into, throughout, etc.;
4) Composite - instead of, in accordance with, owing to, in front of, etc.

Many prepositions are homonymous with adverbs (about, before, below, down, since), conjunctions (before, since), participles (regarding, concerning), lexico-grammatical word-morphemes (in, on, up).

It is difficult to define the lexical meaning of a preposition than that of a noun or an adjective, because prepositions usually have very general, abstract meanings. Nevertheless the lexical meaning of a preposition is always there, however weak or general it may be. We may call prepositions semi-notional words, but the term form-word often applied to them is not adequate: they have not only form, but content as well.

The combinability of the preposition is rather peculiar. As a rule, it is followed by a noun or a noun equivalent with which it is closely connected. At the same time it is associated with some preceding notional word belonging to nearly any part of speech. We may speak of stable right-hand connections and variable left-hand connections.

Of certain interest is the model 'verb+preposition+noun'. Sometimes the preposition is but loosely connected with the verb. In such cases one and the same verb can be followed by different prepositions depending on the sense (speak of (about, with, to) a person). In other cases a verb is regularly followed by a fixed preposition (depend on (somebody, something)).

THE CONJUNCTION is a part of speech characterized by the following features:
1) its lexico-grammatical meaning of 'relations between substances, actions, properties, situations, etc.';
2) its peculiar combinability. As a rule, a conjunction connects two similar units: words of a similar type or clauses;
3) its function of a linking word.

Conjunctions are not characterized by any grammatical categories or typical stem-building elements. As to their stem-structure conjunctions are, as usual, divided into simple (and, but, or, that, till), derivative (until, unless, because, provided), compound (although, whereas) and composite (as if, in order that, as soon as, either...or, neither...nor).

A variety of composite conjunctions is the group of the so-called correlative conjunctions which go in pairs: both...and, cither...or, no sooner... than.

Many conjunctions are homonymous with adverbs and prepositions (after, since, before), pronouns (that, so, neither), participles (supposing, provided).

The lexico-grammatical meaning of conjunctions is an abstraction from their lexical meanings. The latter are also very general, abstract and rather weak. Therefore, conjunctions can be treated as semi-notional words, though not as form-words, since they are not devoid of content.

As regards the nature of the relations they serve to express conjunctions are usually divided into two subclasses: coordinating (and, or, both...and) and subordinating (if, that, as soon as) conjunctions. The former connect syntactical units which are equal in rank, discharge the same functions. The latter are used to show the dependence of one unit on another.

The combinability of coordinating conjunctions is bilateral like that of prepositions. But there are essential differences.

1. The right-hand combinability of prepositions is stable, that of conjunctions is variable.
2. A conjunction connects homogeneous elements, while a preposition mostly connects heterogeneous elements.
3. A preposition cannot introduce a clause without a connective word, as a conjunction does.

The combinability of subordinating conjunctions is somewhat different from that of coordinating ones.

1. Subordinating conjunctions connect mostly clauses, not words.
2. Very often a subordinating conjunction begins a sentence, so that it precedes both clauses it connects.

The division of conjunctions into coordinating and subordinating ones is chiefly based on their lexical meanings and the types of units they connect.

According to their meanings coordinating conjunctions are divided into

1) copulative **(and, both..and, neither...nor, not only...but, as well as)** denoting addition, combination, interdependence;
2) adversative **(but, still, yet, however, nevertheless)** denoting contradiction;
3) disjunctive **(or, either...or)** denoting separation, choice.

The conjunctions are not numerous, but of very frequent occurrence in speech.

THE ARTICLE. The two words **a(n), the** form a separate group or class characterized by

a) the lexico-grammatical meaning of '(in)defmiteness';
b) the right-hand combinability with nouns;
c) the function of noun specifiers.

The lexical meaning of **a(n)** in Modern English is a very weak reminder of its original meaning. In spite of the long process of weakening there remains enough of the original meaning in **a(n)** to exclude the possibility of its being attached to a 'plural' noun.

The lexical meaning of **the** in Modern English is a pale shadow of its original demonstrative meaning. The general lexico-grammatical meaning of these word°, as usual, is not identical with their individual lexical meanings. It abstracts itself from the meaning of 'oneness' in **a(n)** and the demonstrative' meaning in **the.** Perhaps, the names of the articles ('definite', 'indefinite') denote the nearest approach to Ibis lexico-grammatical meaning, which, for lack of a better term, might be defined as that of 'definiteness - indefiniteness\

One might be tempted to regard the two articles as members of an opposeme, and the meanings of'definiteness*, 'indefmiteness' as the particular meanings of some grammatical category. Language facts, however, contradict such views. As we know, the members of an opposeme must belong to the same lexeme and have identical meanings. Now **a(n)** and **the** do not belong to one lexeme and their meanings are not identical. Besides the meaning of 'indefiniteness' **a(n)** possesses the meaning of oneness' not found in **the.** The 'demonstrative' meaning of **the** is alien to **a(n).** For similar reasons **a book - the book** are not analytical members of some noun opposeme. and **the, a(n)** are not grammatical word-morphemes.

The lexico-grammatical combinability of the articles is the same. Both of them have right-hand connections with the same part of speech, nouns. The difference in their combinability can be explained by the difference in their lexical meanings.

THE PARTICLE as a part of speech is characterized by the following features:

1) its lexico-grammatical meaning of 'emphatic specification';
2) its unilateral combinability with words of different classes, groups of words, even clauses;
3) its function of a specifier.

Particles have no grammatical categories, no typical stem-building elements. As far as their structure is concerned, they may be simple **(just, still, yet, even, else),** derivative **(merely, simply, alone),** compound **(also).**

Very few particles **(else, merely, solely)** are not homonymous with other words. Most of them are identical in form with adverbs **(exactly, precisely, simply, never, still),** adjectives **(even, right, just, only),** pronouns **(all, either),** conjunctions **(but),** articles **(the).**

The combinability of particles is unilateral and variable. They can specify different classes of words or clauses. Most of them precede the unit they specify, but some particles follow it, as in the case of **too.**

QUESTIONS

1. Characterize prepositions as a part of speech.
2. Why is it difficult to define the lexical meaning of prepositions?
3. What can be said about the combinability of prepositions?
4. Characterize conjunctions as a part of speech.
5. Do conjunctions have any grammatical categories?
6. Why can conjunctions be treated as semi-notional words and not form words?
7. What two subclasses of conjunctions do you know?
8. Is their combinability the same or different?
9. How are articles characterized as a separate class?
10. Why is it impossible to say that a(n) and the are members of an opposeme?
11. Characterize particles as a part of speech.

Задания для семинарских занятий

3 семинар
НАКЛОНЕНИЕ

1. Определение наклонения. Количество наклонений в английском языке. Обзор классификаций наклонения у различных авторов.

2. Определение повелительного наклонения. Категориальные и другие отличия повелительного наклонения от форм инфинитива. Возможные способы трактовки соответствующих форм не как повелительное наклонение. Косвенно-побудительные предложения. Другие возможности расширения значения повелительного наклонения. Сходство форм повелительного и сослагательного наклонений.

3. Определение сослагательного наклонения (СН). Параллельные системы аналитических форм СН. Использование временных форм изъявительного наклонения для выражения СН. Можно ли их считать формами СН. О взаимоотношении СН и сочетаний модальных глаголов с инфинитивом. Омонимия грамматических форм и СН.

4 семинар
ВРЕМЕНА И ВИД

1. Семантическая характеристика форм вида. Две семы вида. Понятие об экстенсивной и интенсивной формах.

2. Возникновение перфектных форм и появление первой нспредикативной категории вида. Появление новой категории "длительности".

3. Содержание грамматической категории времени.

4. Особенности непрошедшего времени: неправильность названия "настоящее время".

5. Проблема (не) выделения будущего времени. Другая точка зрения: особенности возникновения будущего времени из модальных глаголов. Особенности значения модальных глаголов

вообще. Почему именно эти модальные глаголы стали употребляться для выражения будущего времени. Семантические изменения этих глаголов и их значение для (не) признания существования будущего времени в современном английском языке. Появление будущего времени и изменение статуса настоящего времени.

5 с е м и п а р
ЗАЛОГ

1. Определение категории залога. Зависимость залога от лексического и синтаксического значения глагола.

2. Невозможность существования глагола вне категории залога. Залог и непереходность. Понятие о прямо-переходных и косвенно-переходных глаголах.

3. Определение действительного залога. Три разновидности действительного залога. Действительный, или "общий" (нестрадательный), залог.

4. Определение страдательного залога. Сложные вопросы направленности действия и вообще выделения категории залога. Потенциально возможные формы страдательного залога.

5. Всеобщий характер категории залога и глаголы, не употребляемые в страдательном залоге.

6. Специфические для английского языка случаи употребления страдательного залога.

7. Проблема разграничения страдательного залога и сочетаний "быть + причастие II".

8. Медиальное (среднее) и другие значения действительного залога.

9. Проблема выделения возвратного залога.

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Морфология современного английского языка

Часть 2

MORPHOLOGY

Учебно-методическое пособие

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В издании приводятся различные точки зрения отечественных и зарубежных лингвистов по предмету морфологии; объясняются грамматические термины; рассматриваются теоретические положения, предлагаются вопросы для самоконтроля и семинарских занятий.

Учебно-методическое пособие предназначено для студентов старших курсов факультета иностранных языков по специальности «Английский язык» и направлено на то, чтобы дать им начальные знания в области теоретической грамматики современного английского языка.

CONTENTS

INTRODUCTION. MORPHOLOGY: TERMS

The object of MORPHOLOGY is the structure, classification and combinability of words. SYNTAX deals with the structure, classification and combinability of sentences.

The MORPHEME is the smallest meaningful unit. It is said to be the ultimate unit of the semantic level of the language. The MORPHEME is

1) a recurrent meaningful form which cannot be further analysed into smaller recurrent meaningful forms;
2) a grammatical morpheme is a linguistic form which bears no partial phonetic-semantic resemblance to any other form.

The WORD is the smallest naming unit.

The units (of each levels) can be analysed as to their inner structure, the classes they belong to in the language system (or their paradigmatic relations), and the combinations they form in speech (or their syntagmatic relations).

The structure of various units and the classes they form (paradigmatic relations) are the sphere of language. The combinations the same units form in the process of communication (syntagmatic relations) are the sphere of speech.

PARADIGM is interpreted as a formal way of saying of a type of something: a pattern, a model; in grammar it means the different forms of a word, thus verbs are conjugated and nouns are declined, adjectives and adverbs have forms of degrees of comparison, their forms correspondingly make the verbal, noun, adjectival or adverbial paradigms.

The relationship between linguistic form and linguistic meaning reveals itself in what is known as SYNCRETISM and SUSPENTION, or in other words, grammatical homonymy and grammatical synonymy. The latter is sometimes terminologically presented by variation of expression. By syncretism is meant falling together of two or more grammatical meanings in one and the same grammatical form.

We speak of HOMONYMY when the same element of sound, the same unit of the expression le/el is connected with different units on the semantic level. Homonymy presupposes that the grammatical meaning of two forms is incompatible, while the form is assumed to be identical.

SYNONYMY as a fact of grammatical morphology presupposes that two units have the same grammatical meaning being different in form.

Grammatical POLYSEMY is observed in grammatical expression of a host of intricate distinctions of a noun known as the genitive and the possessive.

SYNTHESIS and ANALYSIS are two very powerful morphological devices and processes.

The grammatical system of Modern English is mainly based on what is usually described as analytical forms, that is, combinations of the type more rapidly, has said, was interviewed. The function of an analytical form is equivalent to that of a single synthetic word-form.

CATEGORY is defined as operating in a system for dividing things according to appearances, qualities: a type or a group of things having some features that are the same.

CATEGORIZATION is the process of discovering and explaining the fundamental concepts of a science. Categorization is closely related to a methodology of a science, the way of interpreting scientific facts, including language.

A grammatical category is connected with a certain expression of a certain meaning which is systematically, recurrently rendered. To understand the process of establishing a grammatical category it is very important to introduce the concept of opposition. A grammatical category is constituted by the opposition of no less than two mutually incompatible grammatical forms.

1. PRONOUNS

It has been shown above that words fall into classes known as parts of speech in accordance with their lexico-grammatical meanings, morphological categories, typical stem-building elements, combinability and functions.

The peculiarity of pronouns as a class of words is that they are not united by any of the above-mentioned features. They have certain grammatical peculiarities, but what unites them is the way they denote reality.

Pronouns are words serving to denote substances, qualities, quantities, circumstances not by naming or describing them, but by indicating them.

Pronouns can be defined as words which meanings are very general and stable, but which references in speech are particular, variable and relative with regard to the speaker and the situation of speech.

Etymologically, the word 'pronoun' means "a word used instead of a noun". This meaning reflects, to some extent, the role of pronouns in the language. A pronoun may replace hundreds of nouns with comparatively stable or limited references. This explains the fact that pronouns are used very frequently and form a considerable part of any text though as a class of words they are not numerous.

But the role of pronouns is much greater than it can be understood from the meaning of the word 'pronoun'.

What is more important, pronouns can be substituted not only for nouns, but for other parts of speech as well. Traditionally pronouns are divided into 'noun pronouns' and 'adjective pronouns'. In reality pronouns may also be used instead of numerals **(twenty books, several books, many books)** and adverbs **(here, there, now, then).** Using the prefix **pГО-** in its meaning "instead of, we may classify pronouns with regard to the parts of speech into **pronouns, pro-adjectives, pro-numerals** and **pro-adverbs.** Thus, pronouns are a collection of words correlated with different pails of speech, being united by any morphological categories or syntactical functions.

Since pronouns form a class chiefly on the basis of their semantical peculiarities, it is natural that the subdivision of pronouns into groups should be carried out on the same basis, through some grammatical peculiarities of each group are also taken into consideration.

Pronouns can be divided into:

1)	**personal;**	7)	**reciprocal;**
2)	**possessive;**	8)	**indefinite;**
3)	**reflexive;**	9)	**negative;**
4)	**demonstrative;**	10)	**generalizing;**
5)	**interrogative;**	11)	**quantitative;**
6)	**connective;**	12)	**contrasting.**

A pronoun may belong to more than one group at the same time. The pronoun **whose** may be treated as interrogative (or connective) and possessive. The pronouns **one, one's, oneself** may be grouped together as indefinite personal or they may be classified separately - **one** as personal, **one's** as possessive, **oneself** as reflexive.

PERSONAL PRONOUNS. The personal pronouns are the nucleus of the class. They are: I (we), thou (thee) (archaic), he (him), she (her), it, we (us), you, they (them).

In Modern English the personal pronouns have the category of case represented in two-member opposemes. Both these opposemes differ from the case opposemes of nouns. The general meaning of "case" manifests itself in the particular meaning of the 'nominative' and 'objective' cases. Case is a morphological category with syntactical significance. The opposition of the nominative and the objective cases is realized syntactically in the opposition of the subject and the object of the sentence - **She asked her.**

Some facts point to serious changes in the correlation between the nominative and objective cases taking place in Modern English. The objective case pronouns seem to encroach on their case opposites. We observe a peculiar trend which is steadily gaining ground, to use the objective case instead of the nominative when the pronoun is used predicatively or when it is separated from the predicate verb - **It is me (instead of It is I.)** has established itself as a literary norm.