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Нышанбай кызы Байыма

Морфология и синтаксис
(учебно-методический комплекс)

Жалал-Абад 2024

Обсуждено

на заседании кафедры английского языка и литературы

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Учебно-методический комплекс «Морфология и синтаксис» разработан в соответствии с требованиями Государственного образовательного стандарта высшего профессионального образования по направлению 550300 Филологическое образование, для бакалаврской программы Иностраный (английский) язык.

Учебно-методический комплекс предназначен для преподавателей, а также студентов филологического факультета Жалал-Абадского государственного университета имени Б.Осмонова.

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ПОЯСНИТЕЛЬНАЯ ЗАПИСКА

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Цель данного учебно-методического комплекса – создать условия для наиболее эффективной реализации требований образовательной программы по изучаемой дисциплине и соответствующего образовательного стандарта высшего образования.

Учебно-методический комплекс включает:

- практический раздел (тематика практических занятий, задания для самостоятельной работы студентов);
- раздел контроля знаний (вопросы к экзамену);
- вспомогательный раздел (учебная программа дисциплины, методические рекомендации, перечень учебных изданий); - список рекомендуемой литературы.

Учебно-методический комплекс может быть использован при подготовке преподавателем практических занятий, при индивидуальном освоении изучаемого материала, а также при организации самостоятельной работы студентов.

Данный комплекс носит рекомендательный характер. Его цель — систематизировать учебно-методический материал по изучаемой учебной дисциплине, оптимизировать образовательный процесс и обеспечить качественные условия для формирования навыков перевода с русского языка на английский, в особенности, навыка многовариантного перевода за счет применения синонимичных грамматических, синтаксических и лексико-грамматических конструкций.

Программу дисциплины разработали:

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Аннотация. Курс морфология и синтаксис английского языка направлен на точные воспроизведения изучаемого явления в типичных для его функционирования речевых ситуациях и его развитие требующих адекватного грамматического оформления. Формирование навыков перевода с русского языка на английский, в особенности, навыка многовариантного перевода за счет применения синонимичных грамматических, синтаксических и лексико-грамматических конструкций.

Преподавание морфологии и синтаксиса английского языка должно осуществляться с использованием современных методов и форм обучения, способствующих успешной реализации всех целей обучения. При этом учитывается коммуникативная и профессиональная направленность учебного процесса, оптимальное сочетание аудиторной и внеаудиторной работы студентов, использование различных форм работы в аудитории: групповой, парной, индивидуальной. Значительное место отводится современным методам активного социального обучения: игровым и дискуссионным.

Актуальность и необходимость изучения дисциплины заключается в расширении и углублении знаний в области понимания грамматических структур и особенностей английского

языка помогает лучше понять культуру англоязычных стран и изучение грамматики английского языка тренирует мозг и развивает когнитивные навыки, такие как логическое мышление, анализ и внимание .

Предмет курса - морфология и синтаксис – это два раздела грамматики, которые изучают строение и функционирование слов и предложений в языке. Морфология изучает: части речи, грамматические категории, словообразование и морфемный анализ. Синтаксис изучает: предложение, виды предложений, типы предложений, словосочетание и его виды, способы связи слов, а также синтаксический анализ .

Цель и задачи дисциплины

Целью освоения дисциплины морфологии и синтаксиса является формирование у студентов прочных знаний структуры языка и выработка у них практических навыков грамматически правильной иноязычной речи в устной и письменной форме.

Задачи дисциплины курса определяются следующими аспектами:

- подготовка всесторонне развитых конкурентоспособных выпускников
- формирование чувства ответственности и сознательного отношения к учебной деятельности;
- формирование правильной системы мировоззренческих взглядов, чувства патриотизма и понимания сущности общественных явлений в странах изучаемого языка.

В результате освоения дисциплины обучающийся должен

Знать: структуру грамматического строя изучаемого иностранного языка; грамматические явления, применяемые в различных ситуациях общения; правила построения и использования морфологических и синтаксических конструкций изучаемого иностранного языка; современные тенденции развития грамматики изучаемого иностранного языка.

Уметь: использовать различные формы и виды устной и письменной коммуникации на родном и иностранном языках в учебной и профессиональной деятельности; своевременно и грамматически верно употреблять морфологические и синтаксические конструкции изучаемого иностранного языка; замечать и самостоятельно исправлять грамматические ошибки в устной и письменной речи.

Владеть: технологиями приобретения, использования и обновления практических знаний по грамматике изучаемого иностранного языка; навыками рефлексии, самооценки, самоконтроля и продуктивными (устная и письменная речь) речевыми умениями.

Место дисциплины в структуре основной образовательной программы высшего профессионального образования

Данная учебная дисциплина включена в раздел " Б.3.КПВ. 3.2 основной образовательной программы 550300 филологическое образование и относится к вариативной части. Осваивается на 3- курсе, V-семестре. Курс "Морфология и синтаксис" в сочетании с другими практическими, теоретическими курсами, такими как практический курс английского языка, практикум по культуре речевого общения, основы англоязычной речевой компетенции, предусмотренными учебным планом должен заложить основу для дальнейшего совершенствования уровня владения английским языком.

Компетенции обучающегося, формируемые в результате освоения дисциплины В результате освоения дисциплины формируются следующие компетенции:

- владеет навыками восприятия, понимания, а также многоаспектного анализа устной и письменной речи на изучаемом языке (ПК-11);
- способен применять методы, приемы анализа, интерпретации, обработки, создания и трансформации различных типов и видов текстов (ПК-12);
- способен самостоятельно анализировать и интерпретировать с лингвистической (и литературоведческой) точки зрения различные типы текстов (ПК-13);

Структура и содержание дисциплины/ модуля

Виды учебной работы	Количество часов
Аудиторные занятия:	
- практические	60
- самостоятельные работы	60
Общая трудоемкость дисциплины	120 часа
Вид итогового контроля	5- семестр – экзамен

Краткое содержание дисциплины

№	Общие работы	Всего часов	Семестр
1	аудиторные	-	-
	лекционные	-	-
	практические	60 часов	V
	Лабораторные	-	-
2	СРС	60 часов	V
	Итого:	120 часов	V

Часовые разделение дисциплин по разделам.

№	Наименование разделов	всего часов	аудиторные часы	лекционные часы	недельные разделение	практические	недельные часы	самостоят. работы	недельные разделение
1.	Часть 1 Морфология. Части речи. Глагол.	13	-	-	3,5	13	4	13	3,5
2.	Часть 2 Безличные формы глагола. Инфинитив.	7	-	-	2	7	4	7	2
3.	Часть 3 Герундий.	3	-	-	1	3	4	3	1
4.	Часть 4 Причастие I Причастие II	6	-	-	1,5	6	4	6	1,5
5.	Часть 5 Имя существительное Артикль.	5	-	-	1,5	5	4	5	1,5
7.	Часть 7 Наречие. Имя числительное	5	-	-	1,5	4	4	5	1,5
8	Часть 8 Модальные слова Союзы. Предлоги Частицы	3	-	-	1	3	4	3	1

	Междометие								
9.	Часть 9 Синтаксис. Предложение. Простое предложение. Составное предложение.	7	-	-	2	7	4	7	2
10.	Часть 10 Сложносочиненное предложение. Сложноподчиненное предложение.	7	-	-	2	7	4	7	2
	всего:	60			16	60	4	60	16

1.1.2. Структура и содержание аудиторной работы по дисциплине

№	Раздел Дисциплины/ Модуля	Семестр	Неделя семестра	часы практической работы, их трудоемкость (в часах)
	Часть 1 Морфология. Части речи. Глагол.	V	3,5	13
	Часть 2 Безличные формы глагола. Инфинитив.	V	2	7
	Часть 3 Герундий.		1	4
	Часть 4 Причастие I Причастие II	V	1,5	7
	Часть 5 Имя существительное Артикль.	V	1,5	5
	Часть 7 Наречие. Имя числительное	V	1.5	5
	Часть 8 Модальные слова Союзы. Предлоги Частицы Междометие	V	1	5
	Часть 9 Синтаксис. Предложение. Простое предложение. Составное предложение.	V	2	7

	Часть 10 Сложно-сочиненное предложение. Сложноподчиненное предложение.	V	2	7
	всего:		16	60

1.1.3.Содержание дисциплин

1. Morphology. Introduction. Parts of speech:
2. The Verb. Morphological composition of the verb. The category of aspect. The category of tense. The category of perfect. The sequence of tenses. The category of voice. The category of mood. The subjunctive mood and the tense category. Modal Verbs.
3. The infinitive as subject and predicate. The infinitive as object. The infinitive as attribute. The infinitive as adverbial modifier.
4. The Gerund. Syntactical Functions of the Gerund.
5. The Participle. Participle I. Syntactical functions of Participle I. Participle II. Syntactical functions of participle II.
6. The Noun. Morphological composition.
7. The Article.
8. The Adjective. Semantic characteristics. Morphological composition. Syntactic functions.
9. The Pronoun. Morphological composition and categorial characteristics.
10. The Numerals. Morphological composition.
11. The Adverb. Morphological composition.
12. Modal words. Prepositions. The Conjunctions. The Conjuncts. The Interjection. The Particle.
13. Syntax. The Sentence. The Simple Sentence. The Subject. The Predicate. Communicative types of sentence.
14. Secondary parts of the Sentence.
15. The Composite Sentence.
16. The Compound Sentence.
17. The Complex Sentence
18. The complex sentence with a subject clause. The complex sentence with an object clause.

1.1.4.Структура и содержание самостоятельной работы дисциплины (модуля)

№	Раздел дисциплины	Семестр	Неделя сем-а	Виды самост. работы	Трудоемкость (в часах)	Формы контроля СРС
1	The use of Future Indefinite Tense.	V	1	Подготовка к устному опросу	4	устный опрос
2	The formation of the Present, Past, Perfect Continuous	V	2	презентация	4	презентация

3	The formation of the Past Perfect Continuous	V	3	дискуссия	4	дискуссия
4	The use of Future Perfect Continuous Tense.	V	4	устный опрос	4	устный опрос
5	The formation of Future Perfect Continuous Tense.	V	5	устный опрос	4	устный опрос
6	The use of the Present Perfect Continuous Tense.	V	6	устный опрос	4	устный опрос
7	The use and formation of the Indefinite Passive.	V	7	письменно	4	письменно
8	Modal verb "can"	V	8	письменно	4	письменно
9	Modal verb "must"	V	9	письменно	4	письменно
10	Modal verb "may"	V	10	дискуссия	4	дискуссия
11	The use and formation of the Continuous Passive.	V	11	дискуссия	4	дискуссия
12	The Particle is a part of speech.	V	12	письменно	4	письменно
13	The classification of simple sentence.	V	13	письменно	4	письменно
14	The structure of simple sentence.	V	14	письменно	4	письменно
15	The use of Subjunctive Mood in the simple sentence.	V	15	письменно	4	письменно

Practical course

Theme: General classification of the parts of speech

There are two main ways to classify parts of speech in English grammar:

1. Traditional Classification (8 parts of speech):

This is the most common system used in schools and basic grammar instruction. It divides words into eight categories based on their function in a sentence:

- **Nouns:** Words that name people, places, things, or ideas (e.g., cat, London, freedom, happiness).
- **Pronouns:** Words that take the place of nouns (e.g., she, it, them, who).
- **Verbs:** Words that express actions, states of being, or occurrences (e.g., run, sleep, happen).
- **Adjectives:** Words that describe nouns or pronouns (e.g., big, red, interesting).
- **Adverbs:** Words that modify verbs, adjectives, or other adverbs (e.g., quickly, very, quite).
- **Prepositions:** Words that show the relationship between a noun or pronoun and another word in the sentence (e.g., in, on, at, to).
- **Conjunctions:** Words that join words, phrases, or clauses (e.g., and, but, or, because).
- **Interjections:** Words that express sudden emotion or surprise (e.g., Ouch! Wow! Hello!).

2. Modern Classification (Adding Articles/Determiners):

Some grammarians argue for a more nuanced system that includes articles and determiners as a separate category. These words specify or limit nouns:

- **Articles:** "The" (definite) and "a/an" (indefinite).
- **Determiners:** Words like "this," "that," "these," "those," "some," "any," "all," "many," "much," "few," "a little," etc.

This expanded system recognizes that articles and determiners have a distinct function from adjectives in how they modify nouns.

Choosing a Classification System:

Both classification systems are valid. The traditional 8-part system is a good starting point for beginners, while the expanded system offers more detail for advanced learners.

Theme: Morphological composition of the verb.

The morphological composition of a verb refers to how it's built up from smaller meaningful units called morphemes. Here's a breakdown of the key aspects:

1. Types of Morphemes:

- **Root:** This is the core of the verb and carries its basic meaning. Examples: walk (in walk, talk, walkable), sing (in sing, singer, singing).

- **Prefix:** This is a morpheme added before the root that modifies the meaning. Examples: re- (redo, remake), un- (unlock, unhappy).
- **Suffix:** This is a morpheme added after the root that can change the verb's tense, aspect, mood, or create a new verb form (e.g., noun, adjective). Examples: -ed (past tense - walked), -ing (present participle - walking), -er (noun agent - walker).

2. Verb Inflection:

- Many verbs undergo inflection, which means they change their form based on grammatical features like tense (past, present, future), aspect (simple, continuous, perfect), or mood (indicative, imperative, subjunctive).
- These changes are typically caused by suffixes. For instance, "walk" becomes "walked" (past tense) due to the "-ed" suffix.

3. Not all verbs have complex morphology:

- Some verbs consist only of a root, like "go" or "put." These are called base verbs or uninflected verbs.

4. Derivational morphology:

- Sometimes, suffixes are added to verbs to create new words from them, but these suffixes don't indicate grammatical features. This is called derivational morphology.
- An example is "-er" turning "walk" into "walker" (someone who walks).

By analyzing the morphological composition of verbs, you can understand their meaning nuances, how they function in sentences, and how they relate to other words in the language.

Theme: The category of aspect of verb

The verb aspect is a grammatical category that tells us **how an action or state is viewed in relation to time**. It doesn't specify the exact time the action happens, but rather focuses on whether the action is:

- **Ongoing** (continuous)
- **Completed** (perfective)
- **A combination of both** (perfect continuous)
- **Neither ongoing nor completed** (simple)

Here's a breakdown of the four main verb aspects in English:

1. Simple Aspect:

- This aspect focuses on the basic meaning of the verb, without indicating ongoing or completion.
- It can refer to actions in the past, present, or future.
- Examples:
 - I **eat** an apple every day. (present)
 - She **walked** to the store yesterday. (past)
 - We **will travel** to Europe next summer. (future)

2. Continuous Aspect:

- This aspect emphasizes the action is ongoing at a specific point in time or over a period of time.
 - It's formed with the auxiliary verb "be" (am, is, are, was, were) + the present participle (verb ending in "-ing").
 - Examples:
 - I **am eating** an apple right now. (present)
 - She **was walking** to the store when I saw her. (past)
 - We **will be traveling** to Europe for a month. (future)
3. **Perfect Aspect:**
- This aspect emphasizes the action has been completed at a specific point in time before the moment of speaking.
 - It's formed with the auxiliary verb "have" (has, have) + the past participle of the main verb.
 - Examples:
 - I **have eaten** an apple already. (present)
 - She **had walked** to the store before it rained. (past)
 - We **will have traveled** to Europe by the end of the year. (future)
4. **Perfect Continuous Aspect:**
- This aspect combines the features of continuous and perfect aspects.
 - It emphasizes an action that began in the past, has been ongoing for some time, and may still be ongoing or may have just been completed.
 - It's formed with "have" (has, have) + been + the present participle.
 - Examples:
 - I **have been eating** an apple for the past hour. (present)
 - She **had been walking** to the store for an hour when she finally arrived. (past)
 - We **will have been traveling** to Europe for two weeks by the time we return. (future)

Understanding verb aspect is crucial for using English verbs accurately and conveying the intended meaning of your actions or states of being.

Theme: The category of tense.

Tense, another grammatical category of verbs, works alongside aspect to provide a more complete picture of verb meaning. Tense tells us **when** an action or state occurs in relation to the time of speaking. Here's a breakdown of the main verb tenses in English:

Simple Tenses:

- **Simple Present:** Used for habitual actions, facts, or universal truths that happen in the present. (e.g., I **work** here. The Earth **revolves** around the sun.)
- **Simple Past:** Used for actions completed entirely in the past. (e.g., She **lived** in France for a year.)
- **Simple Future:** Used for actions that will happen in the future. (e.g., We **will visit** our grandparents next month.)

Continuous Tenses:

- **Present Continuous:** Used for actions happening at the moment of speaking or around that time. (e.g., I **am** currently **reading** a book.)
- **Past Continuous:** Used for actions ongoing at a specific time in the past. (e.g., They **were playing** tennis when it started to rain.)
- **Future Continuous:** Used for actions that will be ongoing at a specific time in the future. (e.g., This time tomorrow, I **will be flying** to New York.)

Perfect Tenses:

- **Present Perfect:** Used for actions completed at an unspecified time in the past, with a connection to the present. (e.g., She **has finished** her homework.)
- **Past Perfect:** Used for actions completed before another past action. (e.g., By the time I arrived, they **had already left**.)
- **Future Perfect:** Used for actions that will be completed before another future action. (e.g., We **will have eaten** dinner by the time you arrive.)

Perfect Continuous Tenses:

- **Present Perfect Continuous:** Used for actions that began in the past, have been ongoing for some time, and may still be ongoing or may have just been completed. (e.g., I **have been working** on this project for weeks.)
- **Past Perfect Continuous:** Used for actions that began in the past, continued for a period of time, and ended before another past action. (e.g., They **had been arguing** for hours before they finally made up.)
- **Future Perfect Continuous:** Used for actions that will have begun in the future, continued for a period of time, and will be ongoing up to another future action. (e.g., By the time you graduate, I **will have been studying** here for four years.)

Remember, tense and aspect work together. For instance, "I ate" (simple past) tells us the action of eating happened in the past, while "I was eating" (past continuous) clarifies it was ongoing at a specific point in the past. By understanding both tense and aspect, you can precisely communicate the timing and nature of actions and states of being in your English sentences.

Theme: The category of perfect.

In the realm of verb tense, the category of perfect refers to a group of tenses that emphasize the **completion of an action** in relation to a specific point in time. This point in time is usually the present moment when you're speaking, but it can also be another point in the past or future.

Here's a breakdown of the key points about the perfect category:

Function:

- The perfect category highlights that an action has been **completed at some point before** the reference time (present moment, past moment, or future moment).

- It doesn't pinpoint the exact time of completion, only that it happened sometime before the reference point.

Tenses within the Perfect Category:

There are three main tenses that fall under the perfect category, each with a slightly different nuance:

1. Present Perfect:

- Focuses on actions completed **at an unspecified time in the past** but with a connection to the present.
- Formed with **"have/has" + past participle** of the main verb.
- Examples:
 - I **have eaten** lunch already. (Completed sometime before now, but relevant to the present because I'm not hungry now.)
 - She **has finished** her degree. (Completed sometime before now, but relevant to the present because she's a graduate now.)

2. Past Perfect:

- Emphasizes actions completed **before another past action**.
- Used to establish a sequence of events in the past.
- Formed with **"had" + past participle** of the main verb.
- Examples:
 - By the time I arrived, they **had already left**. (Their leaving happened before my arrival.)
 - After she **had graduated**, she moved to a new city. (Graduation happened before her move.)

3. Future Perfect:

- Indicates actions that **will be completed before another future action**.
- Used to talk about future sequences of events.
- Formed with **"will have" + past participle** of the main verb.
- Examples:
 - We **will have eaten** dinner by the time you get here. (Our eating will be finished before your arrival.)
 - They **will have completed** the project by next week. (Their completion will happen before the start of next week.)

Perfect vs. Simple Tenses:

The perfect category differs from simple tenses (past, present, future) because simple tenses only tell you when the action happened (past, present, future) without indicating completion.

For example:

- "I ate lunch" (simple past) tells us the action of eating happened in the past, but we don't know if it's finished or not.
- "I have eaten lunch" (present perfect) clarifies that the eating is complete at some point before now.

Understanding the perfect category is essential for using these tenses accurately and conveying the intended completion aspect of your verbs in English.

Theme: The sequence of tenses

The sequence of tenses is a grammatical rule that governs the relationship between the tenses of verbs in a complex sentence, particularly when one clause is dependent on another (main clause vs. subordinate clause). Here's how it works:

Main Idea:

- The tense of the verb in the **main clause** (independent clause) sets the reference point in time.
- The tense of the verb in the subordinate clause** is chosen based on its relationship to the time established by the main clause.

General Rules:

1. **Past Follows Past:** If the main clause is in the past tense, the verb in the subordinate clause referring to a past event will also be in the past tense. (e.g., She **said** she **had seen** a movie yesterday.)
2. **Any Tense After Present or Future:** If the main clause is in the present or future tense, the verb in the subordinate clause can be in any tense (present, past, or future) depending on the intended relationship to the present or future reference point. (e.g., I **think** he **lives** in New York. / We **will know** when they **arrive**.)
3. **Present Follows Future:** If the main clause is in the future tense, and the subordinate clause refers to a future event happening before the main clause's future event, the subordinate clause will use the present tense. (e.g., They **will call** you when the meeting **ends**.)

Additional Points:

- These are general guidelines, and some exceptions may exist.
- The specific tense choice can also depend on the speaker's intended meaning and the type of subordinate clause (e.g., conditionals, reported speech).
- When in doubt, using the same tense in both clauses (especially present or future) is usually a safe option.

Examples:

- **Past:** He **knew** she **had been waiting** for him for a long time. (Main clause - past, subordinate clause - past perfect)
- **Present:** She **believes** the Earth **is round**. (Main clause - present, subordinate clause - present)
- **Future:** I **will go** out for dinner after I **finish** work. (Main clause - future, subordinate clause - present)

Understanding the sequence of tenses helps you construct grammatically correct and clear sentences that accurately convey the relationships between events described in different parts of your sentence.

Theme: The category of voice.

The category of voice in English grammar refers to the relationship between the **subject**, **verb**, and **object** of a sentence. It tells us who or what is performing the action expressed by the verb. There are two main verb voices in English:

1. Active Voice:

- The **subject** of the sentence performs the action indicated by the verb.
- It follows the typical word order of Subject + Verb + Object (SVO).
- Examples:
 - The cat **chased** the mouse. (Cat is the subject doing the chasing.)
 - We **built** a sandcastle. (We are the subject performing the building.)

2. Passive Voice:

- The focus is shifted to the **object** of the action.
- The verb is formed using the auxiliary verb "be" (am, is, are, was, were) + the past participle of the main verb.
- The object becomes the subject, and the agent performing the action (if important) is introduced with the preposition "by."
- Examples:
 - The mouse **was chased** by the cat. (Focuses on the mouse being chased.)
 - A sandcastle **was built** by us. (Focuses on the sandcastle being built, with "us" indicating the builders.)

Choosing the Right Voice:

- The active voice is generally preferred in English for its clarity and directness.
- The passive voice can be useful in certain situations:
 - When the object of the action is more important than the subject. (e.g., The house was destroyed by the fire.)
 - When the person performing the action is unknown or unimportant. (e.g., The mistake was made.)
 - To create a more formal tone.

Additional Notes:

- Not all verbs can be used in both the active and passive voice. Some verbs are intransitive, meaning they don't have a direct object and cannot be used in the passive voice (e.g., sleep, rain).
- The passive voice can sometimes make sentences longer and less natural-sounding than the active voice.

Understanding the category of voice allows you to choose the most appropriate way to express your ideas in English, depending on the emphasis you want to place on the subject or object of the action.

Theme: The category of mood.

The category of mood in English grammar deals with the **speaker's attitude or intention** conveyed through the verb. It indicates whether the verb expresses a fact, a command, a wish, a possibility, or something else entirely. Here's a breakdown of the main moods in English:

1. Indicative Mood:

- The most common mood, used to express **facts, statements, and questions** about objective reality.
- Verbs in the indicative mood are conjugated in all the tenses (simple, continuous, perfect, perfect continuous) to show when the action or state of being occurs.
- Examples:
 - She **speaks** three languages. (Fact)
 - They **are playing** tennis right now. (Ongoing action)
 - We **have already eaten**. (Completed action)
 - Will you **help** me? (Question)

2. Imperative Mood:

- Used to express **commands, requests, instructions, or advice**.
- The verb is typically in the base form (without the "to" infinitive) and often directed towards the second person (you/you all).
- Examples:
 - **Close** the door, please. (Command)
 - **Don't forget** to call your mom. (Negative command)
 - **Can you help** me? (Polite request)
 - **Be careful** crossing the street. (Advice)

3. Subjunctive Mood:

- Used to express a variety of ideas that are **not factual** or certain, such as wishes, desires, recommendations, doubts, or hypothetical situations.
- The subjunctive mood can use different verb forms depending on the specific context. Some common subjunctive uses include:
 - **Past subjunctive:** Expresses wishes or hypothetical situations contrary to fact. (e.g., If I **were** you, I would take the job.)
 - **Present subjunctive:** Used in certain expressions of necessity, recommendation, or doubt. (e.g., It is important that she **arrive** on time.)
 - **"Were" + base verb:** Used in hypothetical situations or conditional clauses. (e.g., If they **were** here, they would help us.)
- Examples:
 - I wish I **lived** in a beach house. (Unlikely wish)
 - It's important that you **study** hard for the exam. (Recommendation)
 - I doubt they **will come** to the party. (Uncertainty)

4. Less Common Moods:

- In addition to the main three, there are a few less common moods in English:
 - **Optative Mood:** Expresses wishes or hopes. (e.g., May you **have** a wonderful day.)
 - **Potential Mood:** Expresses possibility or ability. (e.g., She **could** speak French when she was a child.)

Understanding mood allows you to use verbs effectively to convey the nuances of your meaning in English. By choosing the appropriate mood, you can indicate whether you're stating a fact, giving an order, expressing a wish, or suggesting a possibility.

Theme: The subjunctive mood and the tense category.

The subjunctive mood and tense category interact in English grammar, but it's important to understand that the subjunctive mood itself doesn't have tenses in the same way indicative verbs do. Here's a breakdown:

Indicative vs. Subjunctive:

- **Indicative mood:** Used for facts, statements, and questions about objective reality. Verbs are conjugated in all tenses (past, present, future, etc.) to show when the action or state of being occurs.
- **Subjunctive mood:** Used to express ideas that are not factual or certain, such as wishes, desires, recommendations, doubts, or hypothetical situations. The verb form used in the subjunctive mood depends on the context, not a specific tense.

Tense in the Subjunctive Mood:

There are three main ways tense interacts with the subjunctive mood:

1. Past Subjunctive:

- This form expresses wishes or hypothetical situations that are contrary to fact, often introduced by "if."
- It uses the past tense form of the verb, regardless of the tense of the main clause.
- Examples:
 - If I **were** a millionaire, I would travel the world. (Present tense main clause, but subjunctive verb "were" to express a counterfactual wish.)
 - I wish they **had invited** me to the party. (Present tense main clause, but subjunctive "had invited" to express a wish about the past.)

2. Present Subjunctive:

- This form is used in certain expressions that don't deal directly with the present time, such as:
 - Necessity - It is important that she **arrive** on time.
 - Recommendations - I suggest you **take** the train.
 - Doubt - I doubt they **will come** to the party.
- The verb form in the subjunctive here is usually the base form (infinitive without "to") or the third-person singular present tense.

3. "Were" + Base Verb:

- This construction is used in hypothetical situations or conditional clauses introduced by expressions like "if," "as if," or "as though."
- It uses "were" + the base form of the verb, regardless of the tense of the main clause.
- Examples:
 - If they **were** here, they would help us. (Present tense main clause, but subjunctive "were" for a hypothetical situation.)
 - He acts **as if he knew** everything. (Present tense main clause, but subjunctive "knew" for a hypothetical situation.)

Key Points:

- The subjunctive mood itself doesn't have tenses like the indicative mood.
- Tense plays a role in the subjunctive mood to express the time frame of the hypothetical situation or wish. (e.g., past subjunctive for wishes about the past).
- The specific verb form used in the subjunctive depends on the grammatical context.

Understanding this interaction between tense and the subjunctive mood is essential for using this mood accurately and effectively in your English writing and speaking.

Theme: Modal Verbs

Modal verbs are a special class of verbs in English that add grammatical meaning to other verbs. They don't convey an action themselves, but instead, they express modality, which refers to ideas like:

- **Ability:** can, could, be able to
- **Permission:** may, might, can
- **Obligation:** must, have to, should
- **Necessity:** must, have to, need to
- **Possibility:** may, might, could
- **Advice:** should, ought to
- **Prediction:** will, might

Here's a closer look at some common modal verbs:

- **Can:** Used for general ability in the present tense and possibility. (e.g., I **can** speak French. / It **can** rain today.)
- **Could:** Used for ability in the past, possibility, or asking for permission. (e.g., She **could** swim when she was five. / It **could** be aliens. / **Could** I borrow your pen?)
- **May:** Used for permission, possibility, or making a suggestion. (e.g., **May** I come in? / It **may** snow tomorrow. / You **may** want to try this restaurant.)
- **Might:** Used for less certain possibility than "may." (e.g., I **might** see you later. / There **might** be a problem.)
- **Must:** Used for strong obligation or necessity. (e.g., You **must** finish your homework. / She **must** be tired.)

- **Have to:** Similar to "must" but can also suggest external pressure. (e.g., I **have to** go to work today. / We **have to** follow the rules.)
- **Should:** Used for obligation or advice, often less strong than "must." (e.g., You **should** call your mom. / She **shouldn't** eat so much candy.)
- **Would:** Used for various purposes including requests, offers, habits in the past, and predictions about the future. (e.g., **Would** you like some tea? / I **would** help you if I could. / She **would** always go for a walk in the morning. / I think it **would** be a good idea.)

Modal verbs are followed by the base form (infinitive without "to") of another verb.

Here are some additional points about modal verbs:

- Some modal verbs (can, could, may, might, must, shall, should, will, would) can also be used as main verbs to express meaning on their own. (e.g., It **will** rain. / I **would** like some coffee.)
- Modal verbs have a limited set of tenses compared to regular verbs. They typically don't have participles or infinitives.
- The negative forms of modal verbs are usually created by adding "not" after the modal verb. (e.g., I **cannot** speak French. / You **should not** eat junk food.)

Understanding modal verbs is essential for expressing a wide range of nuances in English, from ability and permission to obligation and possibility. They add flexibility and complexity to your communication.

Theme: The infinitive as a subject and predicate

The infinitive, a verb form that typically follows "to," can act as both a subject and a predicate in English sentences. Here's a breakdown of how it works:

Infinitive as a Subject:

- In this case, the infinitive itself functions as the main thing the sentence is talking about.
- It's often used with the impersonal "it" as a placeholder subject, but "it" doesn't carry any real meaning.
- The infinitive is followed by the verb "to be" (is, are, was, were) and then the main verb.

Here are some examples:

- **To learn** a new language is always rewarding. (The infinitive "to learn" is the subject; "it" is a placeholder.)
- **It is** important **to be honest**. (Similar structure, infinitive as the subject.)
- **To travel** the world has always been my dream. ("To travel" is the subject.)

Infinitive as a Predicate:

- Here, the infinitive completes the meaning of a linking verb, typically "to be" or verbs like "seem," "appear," "prove," or "become."

- It describes or defines the subject.

Here are some examples:

- My goal **is to graduate** next year. (The infinitive "to graduate" completes the meaning of "is" and describes the goal.)
- The best way **seems to be** taking the train. (The infinitive "to be" completes the meaning of "seems" and describes the way.)
- Her dream **became to be** a doctor. (The infinitive "to be" completes the meaning of "became" and describes the dream.)

Key Points:

- Not all infinitives can function as subjects or predicates. It depends on the grammatical context and the specific infinitive phrase.
- Infinitives as subjects are more common in formal writing or to add emphasis.
- Using infinitives effectively can add variety and complexity to your sentence structure.

Examples in a sentence combining both functions:

- It is always a pleasure **to meet** people who are passionate **to make a difference** in the world. (Here, "to meet" is the infinitive as a subject, and "to make a difference" is the infinitive completing the predicate "are passionate.")

Theme: The infinitive as an object

The infinitive, often marked by the particle "to," can also function as the object of a verb in English sentences. Here's how infinitives are used as objects:

Following Main Verbs:

- Many verbs can take an infinitive as their direct object. These verbs express a desire, intention, plan, or action related to the infinitive.
 - Examples:
 - I **want to travel** to Europe. ("To travel" is the object of the verb "want" expressing a desire.)
 - We decided **to go** for a walk. ("To go" is the object of the verb "decided" expressing a plan.)
 - She promised **to help** me with my homework. ("To help" is the object of the verb "promised" expressing an action.)

Following Helping Verbs:

- Infinitives can also follow helping verbs like "can," "could," "may," "might," "must," "should," and "would" to form verb phrases that express modality (ability, permission, obligation, etc.).
 - Examples:

- You **can learn** a new language if you set your mind to it. ("To learn" is the object of "can" expressing ability.)
- We **should leave** early to avoid traffic. ("To leave" is the object of "should" expressing advice.)

Following Perception Verbs:

- Some verbs of perception, such as "see," "hear," "watch," "feel," "smell," and "notice," can take an infinitive when they describe an ongoing action.
 - Examples:
 - I **saw** her **leave** the building. ("To leave" is the object of "saw" describing an ongoing action.)
 - We **heard** them **argue** all night. ("To argue" is the object of "heard" describing an ongoing action.)

Key Points:

- The type of infinitive used as an object can vary depending on the verb. Some verbs require the bare infinitive (without "to"), while others require the full infinitive ("to" + verb).
- Understanding how verbs work with infinitives is essential for using them correctly and forming grammatically sound sentences.

Examples in a sentence:

- My dream is **to become** a doctor, and I'm working hard **to achieve** that goal. (Here, "to become" is the object of the verb "dream," and "to achieve" is the object of the verb "working hard".)

Theme: The infinitive as an attribute

The infinitive, often marked by the particle "to," can also function as an attribute in English sentences. An attribute modifies another word in the sentence, usually a noun or pronoun. Here's how infinitives are used as attributes:

Modifying Nouns:

- Infinitives can act as adjectives, providing more information about a noun and describing its purpose, characteristic, or content.
 - Examples:
 - This is a book **to read** before bed. (The infinitive "to read" describes the purpose of the book.)
 - They have a plan **to develop** new sustainable energy sources. (The infinitive "to develop" describes the content of the plan.)
 - He has a strong desire **to learn** new things. (The infinitive "to learn" describes a characteristic of the desire.)

Modifying Pronouns:

- In some cases, infinitives can also modify pronouns, similar to how they modify nouns.
 - Example:
 - The best thing **to do** is to relax and enjoy yourself. (The infinitive "to do" modifies the pronoun "thing" explaining what the best course of action is.)

Key Points:

- Infinitives used as attributes are similar to participial phrases (present participle and past participle phrases) that can also function as adjectives.
- Infinitives as attributes often add a sense of purpose, characteristic, or content to the noun or pronoun they modify.
- They can be used to create concise and clear sentences.

Examples in a sentence:

- Learning a new language can be a challenging but rewarding experience. (Here, the present participle "learning" modifies "experience" describing its nature.)
- Her passion **to help** others is truly inspiring. (The infinitive "to help" modifies the pronoun "her" describing her passion.)

Theme: The infinitive as an adverbial modifier

The infinitive, that versatile verb form often introduced by "to," can also take on the role of an adverbial modifier in English sentences. As an adverbial modifier, the infinitive adds context or detail about a verb, adjective, or another adverb, explaining how, why, when, or where something happens.

Here's a breakdown of how infinitives function as adverbial modifiers:

Expressing Purpose:

- Infinitives can be used to show the reason or goal for an action. They often come after verbs that indicate planning, deciding, attempting, or hoping.
 - Examples:
 - She studied hard **to get** into a good college. (The infinitive "to get" explains the purpose of her studying.)
 - We decided **to go** for a walk after dinner. (The infinitive "to go" explains the purpose of deciding.)
 - He volunteered **to help** clean up the park. (The infinitive "to help" explains the purpose of volunteering.)

Expressing Result:

- Infinitives can be used with some adverbs (enough, too, so) or adjectives (enough) to indicate a consequence or result.
 - Examples:

- He practiced enough **to win** the competition. (The infinitive "to win" shows the result of practicing enough.)
- It's too cold **to go swimming** today. (The infinitive "to go swimming" explains the result of it being too cold.)
- I'm happy **to help** in any way I can. (The infinitive "to help" expresses the result of being happy.)

Expressing Manner:

- In some less common cases, infinitives can be used to describe how something is done.
 - Example:
 - She danced **to impress** the judges. (The infinitive "to impress" describes the manner of her dancing, but a present participle ("dancing") might be more natural here.)

Key Points:

- Infinitives used as adverbial modifiers can be introduced by "to" or with the bare infinitive (without "to") depending on the verb or expression they follow.
- They provide flexibility in expressing purpose, result, or sometimes manner in your sentences.
- Be aware that some verbs or adjectives might require a different form, like a present participle, to function as an adverbial modifier.

Examples in a sentence:

- He arrived early in order **to secure** a good seat for the concert. (Infinitive expressing purpose)
- We were tired **enough to go** straight to bed. (Infinitive expressing result)
- She speaks French fluently **in order to** communicate with her colleagues. (Double infinitive construction, one for purpose and one for verb phrase.)

Theme: The grammatical categories of the gerund

The gerund, often confused with the present participle due to its "-ing" form, functions differently in sentences. Unlike the participle which can act as an adjective or verb form within a verb tense, the gerund takes on the role of a noun. Here's a breakdown of the grammatical categories of the gerund:

Function as a Noun:

- The core function of a gerund is to act as a noun. It can represent an action or state of being, similar to how a regular noun refers to a person, place, or thing.

Grammatical Positions:

- Due to its noun-like nature, gerunds can occupy various positions in a sentence where nouns typically go:

- **Subject:** Swimming is a great way to exercise. (Gerund "swimming" is the subject.)
- **Direct Object:** I love playing the piano. (Gerund "playing" is the direct object.)
- **Indirect Object:** My sister gave learning a new language a try. (Gerund "learning" is the indirect object.)
- **Subject Complement:** The best way to relax is taking a nap. (Gerund "taking" is the subject complement.)
- **Object of the Preposition:** She is good at solving puzzles. (Gerund "solving" is the object of the preposition "at".)

Examples:

- **Reading** before bed helps me fall asleep faster. (Gerund "reading" as the subject)
- We celebrated **winning** the game. (Gerund "winning" as the direct object)
- He offered **to help** with the chores. (Gerund "to help" as the infinitive object of the verb "offered")

Key Points:

- Gerunds can be modified by adjectives or possessives, just like regular nouns. (e.g., My favorite hobby is **reading** mystery novels.)
- They can be used with helping verbs like "be" to form continuous tenses for the gerund itself. (e.g., I am **enjoying** learning a new language.)
- While gerunds share the "-ing" form with present participles, their function and grammatical role differ significantly.

Understanding the gerund's role as a noun is essential for using it correctly and constructing grammatically sound sentences.

Theme: Syntactical Functions of the Gerund.

As we discussed earlier, the gerund, though verb-like in form with its "-ing" ending, functions as a **noun** in a sentence. This means it can occupy various positions typically held by nouns. Here's a deeper look at the syntactical functions of the gerund:

Subject:

- The gerund can act as the main entity the sentence is talking about.
 - Example: **Reading** is a great way to relax. (Here, "reading" is the subject.)

Direct Object:

- The gerund can be the recipient of the action expressed by the verb.
 - Example: I enjoy **playing** the guitar. ("Playing" is the direct object of "enjoy".)

Indirect Object:

- The gerund can benefit someone or something indirectly from the action.

- Example: She offered **helping** with the preparations. ("Helping" is the indirect object of "offered" benefiting "preparations".)

Subject Complement:

- The gerund can complete the meaning of a linking verb like "be" and describe the subject.
 - Example: The best thing to do after a long day is **taking** a nap. ("Taking" complements "be" and describes what "the best thing" is.)

Object of the Preposition:

- The gerund can follow a preposition to complete its meaning.
 - Example: He is good at **solving** puzzles. ("Solving" is the object of the preposition "at".)

Additional Functions:

- **Gerund Phrases:** Gerunds can be accompanied by modifiers like adjectives or possessive pronouns, forming gerund phrases that function as a unit within the sentence. (e.g., **Her passion for learning** languages is inspiring.)
- **Gerunds with Helping Verbs:** Similar to the present participle, gerunds can combine with helping verbs like "be" to form continuous tenses for the gerund itself. (e.g., I **am enjoying** learning a new language.)

Key Points:

- Recognizing the gerund's function as a noun is crucial for using it correctly.
- Gerunds can be modified and used in complex sentence structures like gerund phrases.
- The "-ing" form can be misleading; gerunds are distinct from present participles in their grammatical role.

By understanding these syntactical functions, you can effectively incorporate gerunds into your writing and speaking to express a variety of ideas and grammatical relationships within your sentences.

Theme: The grammatical categories of Participle I.

There seems to be a misunderstanding. Participle I, also known as the present participle, doesn't have its own grammatical categories like tense or mood. It's a verb form that functions in two main ways within a sentence:

1. **Verb Tense:** The present participle can be part of verb tenses, particularly the continuous tenses (present continuous, past continuous, future continuous). Here, it combines with a form of the verb "to be" (am, is, are, was, were, will be) to indicate an ongoing or continuous action.
 - Examples:
 - She **is cooking** dinner right now. (Present continuous)

- We **were playing** tennis when it started raining. (Past continuous)
 - They **will be working** on the project all weekend. (Future continuous)
2. **Adjective:** The present participle can also act as an adjective to modify a noun or pronoun, describing its state or characteristic.
- Examples:
 - The **laughing** children were having a great time. (Present participle modifies "children" describing their state.)
 - The **boiling** water was ready for tea. (Present participle modifies "water" describing its state.)

Key Points:

- The present participle doesn't have its own categories of tense or mood because it functions as part of a verb tense (continuous tenses) or as an adjective modifying a noun/pronoun.
- The tense is conveyed by the helping verb "to be" in continuous tenses, and the adjectival function describes the state or characteristic.

Here's a table summarizing the two main functions of the present participle:

Function	Example
Verb Tense (Continuous)	She is running in the park.
Adjective	The running athlete crossed the finish line first.

Theme: Syntactical functions of Participle I.

The Participle I (also known as the Present Participle) has several syntactic functions in English grammar. Here's a breakdown of the most common ones:

1. Attributive Modifier:

In this role, the participle I describes a noun or pronoun that comes directly after it. It functions like an adjective, providing additional information about the noun/pronoun.

- **Example:** The **running** child (describes the child who is running)
- **Example:** She wore a **flowing** white dress (describes the dress as flowing)

2. Adverbial Modifier:

Here, the participle I modifies the verb in the sentence, describing the manner, time, or reason for the action. It can come before the verb, after the verb, or in a separate phrase.

- **Time:** **Having finished** my work, I went home. (describes when the action of going home happened)
- **Manner:** She spoke **smiling**. (describes the manner of speaking)
- **Reason:** **Worried** about the exam, I studied all night. (describes the reason for studying)

3. Predicative (Part of a Compound Predicate):

Sometimes, the participle I can be part of a compound predicate, along with a helping verb like "be" or "get." It helps describe the state or condition of the subject.

- **Example:** He **was standing** at the bus stop. (describes his state)
- **Example:** My feet **got** tired from **walking** all day. (describes the condition of the feet)

4. Parenthetical:

A participle I phrase can be used parenthetically to add a comment or further explanation within a sentence. It's often set off by commas.

- **Example:** The movie, **being a comedy**, was quite funny.
- **Example:** We finally reached the summit, **exhausted but exhilarated**.

Important Note:

Participle I constructions can be misused, leading to dangling modifiers. A dangling modifier describes something unclear or grammatically incorrect. Here's an example:

- **Incorrect:** Walking down the street, a car hit me. (Who was walking? The car?)
- **Correct:** While I was walking down the street, a car hit me. (Clarifies who was walking)

Remember: The participle I should always modify a clear noun or pronoun in the sentence.

Theme: Voice peculiarities of participle II

Unlike participles I, participles II (also known as Past Participles) don't have a separate voice (active or passive) themselves. However, they are used to form the passive voice in conjunction with the verb "to be."

Here's how voice peculiarities come into play with participles II:

1. Passive Voice with Past Participles:

Participle II, combined with the verb "to be" in different tenses, creates the passive voice. The passive voice emphasizes the action done to the subject rather than the doer of the action.

- **Example:** The cake **was baked** by Mary. (Participle II "baked" + past tense of "to be" indicates a passive voice)
- **Example:** The house **will be painted** next week. (Participle II "painted" + future tense of "to be" indicates a future passive voice)

2. No Separate Passive Participle II:

Unlike some languages, English doesn't have separate participle II forms for active and passive voice. The same participle II form is used in both cases.

- **Active Voice Example:** She **painted** the house. (Participle II "painted" indicates an active action)
- **Passive Voice Example (same participle II):** The house **was painted** by her. (Participle II "painted" used in passive voice with "to be")

3. Voice of the Original Verb:

The passive voice construction using participle II reflects the voice of the original verb it comes from.

- **Original Active Verb:** They **built** a new bridge. (Active Voice)
- **Passive Voice with Participle II:** A new bridge **was built** by them. (Passive Voice, but participle II "built" reflects the original active verb)

4. Agent with "By" Phrase:

In the passive voice with participle II, the "by" phrase can be used to indicate the agent (the one who performs the action).

- **Example:** The cake **was baked** by Mary. ("by Mary" clarifies the agent)

Key takeaway: Participle II itself doesn't have separate voice forms, but it plays a crucial role in forming the passive voice along with the verb "to be." The voice of the original verb and the use of "by" phrase determine the passive voice construction.

Theme: Participle II as an attribute, predicative, adverbial modifier.

Participle II (also known as the Past Participle) can function in several ways within a sentence, including:

1. Attribute (Adjective):

Here, the participle II describes a noun or pronoun, acting like an adjective. It provides information about the state or condition of the subject.

- **Example:** The **tired** runner crossed the finish line. (Participle II "tired" describes the state of the runner)
- **Example:** The **broken** vase was on the floor. (Participle II "broken" describes the condition of the vase)

2. Predicative (Part of a Compound Predicate):

Participle II can be part of a compound predicate along with a helping verb like "be," "get," "seem," "become," or "look." It describes the state or condition of the subject.

- **Example:** The door **was closed**. (Participle II "closed" describes the state of the door)
- **Example:** She **got exhausted** after climbing the mountain. (Participle II "exhausted" describes the state of being tired)

3. Adverbial Modifier:

Participle II phrases can function as adverbial modifiers, providing information about the verb in the sentence. They can describe:

- **Time:** They **finished eating** and went for a walk. (Participle II phrase "finished eating" describes when the walk happened)
- **Manner:** He spoke in a **whispering** voice. (Participle II "whispering" describes the manner of speaking)
- **Reason: Feeling hungry**, I decided to cook dinner. (Participle II phrase "feeling hungry" describes the reason for cooking)

Here are some additional points to remember:

- **Perfect Tenses:** Participle II is also used to form perfect tenses (present perfect, past perfect, future perfect) along with the auxiliary verb "have." These tenses express an action completed before another point in time.
- **Passive Voice:** While not a separate voice itself, participle II plays a crucial role in forming the passive voice with the verb "to be."

Examples:

- **Present Perfect:** I **have finished** my homework. (Participle II "finished" used in present perfect tense)
- **Passive Voice:** The cake **was baked** by Mary. (Participle II "baked" used in passive voice with "to be")

By understanding these functions, you can effectively use participle II to add variety and nuance to your writing.

Theme: Semantic characteristics of Noun.

Nouns have several key semantic characteristics that define their meaning and function in a sentence. Here's a breakdown of some important ones:

1. Reference:

The primary function of a noun is to refer to something. This "something" can be:

- **People:** John, Mary, teacher, doctor
- **Places:** Paris, London, mountain, beach
- **Things:** Book, table, car, phone
- **Ideas:** Love, freedom, justice, happiness
- **Events:** Meeting, party, concert, race

2. Countability:

Nouns can be countable or uncountable.

- **Countable nouns:** These refer to things that can be counted individually. They typically have singular and plural forms (e.g., book, books; apple, apples).
- **Uncountable nouns:** These refer to things that cannot be easily counted individually. They usually lack a plural form or have a different form for singular and plural that refers to the amount (e.g., water, furniture, information; milk - carton of milk).

3. Proper vs. Common Nouns:

- **Proper nouns:** These refer to specific, unique entities and are always capitalized (e.g., Shakespeare, London, Google).
- **Common nouns:** These refer to a general category of things and are not capitalized (e.g., teacher, city, company).

4. Concreteness vs. Abstractness:

- **Concrete nouns:** These refer to tangible things that can be perceived by the senses (e.g., house, flower, car).
- **Abstract nouns:** These refer to intangible ideas, concepts, or qualities (e.g., love, freedom, justice).

5. Animacy:

- **Animate nouns:** These refer to living beings (e.g., dog, cat, person).
- **Inanimate nouns:** These refer to non-living things (e.g., table, chair, book).

Additional Characteristics:

- **Gender:** Some languages have grammatical genders assigned to nouns (masculine, feminine, neuter). English has some remnants of grammatical gender (e.g., he/she, actor/actress).
- **Number:** Nouns can be singular or plural, indicating one or more than one of the thing being referred to.

Understanding these semantic characteristics allows you to choose the right noun for your sentence and ensure clear and accurate communication.

Theme: The category of number, case, person

These three terms, **number, case, and person**, are all grammatical categories used in many languages, including English. Here's a breakdown of what each means:

1. Number:

Number refers to whether a noun or pronoun refers to one (singular) or more than one (plural) thing.

- **Singular:** This indicates a single entity (e.g., book, table, she, he).
- **Plural:** This indicates more than one entity (e.g., books, tables, they, we).

2. Case:

Case refers to the grammatical role that a noun or pronoun plays within a sentence. The case system helps indicate the relationship between the noun/pronoun and other words in the sentence. English, unlike some languages, has a relatively simplified case system. Here are the main cases found in English:

- **Nominative:** This is the subject of the sentence and performs the action (e.g., The **dog** (subject) chased the cat).
- **Accusative:** This is the direct object of the verb and receives the action (e.g., I saw the **dog** (direct object)).
- **Possessive:** This indicates ownership or belonging (e.g., The **dog's** (possessive) tail wagged).

3. Person:

Person refers to the grammatical perspective from which something is being spoken about. It applies primarily to pronouns.

- **First Person:** This refers to the speaker (e.g., **I, we**).
- **Second Person:** This refers to the listener(s) (e.g., **you, your**).
- **Third Person:** This refers to someone or something being spoken about who is not the speaker or listener (e.g., **he, she, it, they, they**).

Here's a table summarizing these categories:

Category	Description	Example
Number	Singular or plural	The car (singular) vs. The cars (plural)
Case	Grammatical role (Nominative, Accusative, Possessive)	She (Nominative) runs (verb). vs. I see her (Accusative). vs. That is her (Possessive) book.
Person	Grammatical perspective (speaker, listener, someone else)	I (First Person) like your (Second Person) hat. He (Third Person) went to the store.

It's important to note that:

- Not all languages have the same categories of number, case, and person.
- English, for instance, has a limited case system compared to some other languages.

Understanding these categories helps you use nouns and pronouns correctly in sentences and ensures clear communication.

Theme: Definite, Indefinite Articles.

Definite and indefinite articles are grammatical markers used before nouns in English to indicate specificity.

- **Definite article:** "The" is the definite article. It refers to a specific noun that has already been mentioned or is implied by the context.

- **Indefinite articles:** "A" and "an" are the indefinite articles. They are used to introduce a noun for the first time or to refer to a non-specific noun.

Here's a breakdown of their usage:

Using "The" (Definite Article):

- When referring to a specific noun that has already been mentioned:
 - **Example:** I saw a bird on the tree. **The** bird was singing beautifully. (We already know about the specific bird from the first sentence)
- When referring to something unique or well-known:
 - **Example:** **The** sun is shining brightly today. (There is only one sun)
 - **Example:** I'm going to visit the Eiffel Tower. (Well-known landmark)
- When referring to things considered one of a kind:
 - **Example:** **The** government is making decisions. (There is one government in a country)

Using "A" or "An" (Indefinite Articles):

- When introducing a noun for the first time:
 - **Example:** I saw **a** bird on the tree. (We don't know anything specific about the bird yet)
- When referring to a non-specific noun:
 - **Example:** I would like **a** cup of coffee. (Doesn't specify a particular cup)
- When used before a word that starts with a vowel sound (a, e, i, o, u) we use "an" instead of "a" for better pronunciation:
 - **Example:** I saw **an** apple on the table.

Here are some additional points to remember:

- **No article:** Sometimes, nouns are used without any article (definite or indefinite). This can happen with:
 - Uncountable nouns referring to materials, concepts, or abstract ideas: (water, love, happiness)
 - Proper nouns referring to specific people or places: (John, London)
- **Choosing "a" or "an":** The choice between "a" and "an" depends on the sound that follows the article, not the spelling.
 - Use "a" before consonant sounds (b, c, d, etc.)
 - Use "an" before vowel sounds (a, e, i, o, u) even if the word starts with a consonant (e.g., "an hour" because the "h" is silent)

By understanding definite and indefinite articles, you can improve the clarity and specificity of your writing and speaking in English.

Theme: The Adjective. Semantic characteristics. Morphological composition.

Adjectives are a vital part of speech in English, adding description and detail to nouns and pronouns. They play a crucial role in painting a vivid picture with words. Here's a breakdown of their semantic characteristics and morphological composition:

Semantic Characteristics (Meaning):

- **Describes Nouns or Pronouns:** Adjectives primarily function by modifying nouns or pronouns, providing information about their qualities, states, or properties.
 - **Example:** The **red** car (describes the color of the car)
 - **Example:** She is **intelligent** (describes the quality of the person)
- **Types of Adjectives:** Based on the kind of information they provide, adjectives can be categorized into different types:
 - **Descriptive adjectives:** These describe the quality, size, shape, color, or origin of a noun (e.g., big, beautiful, round, blue, French).
 - **Proper adjectives:** These are derived from proper nouns and modify other nouns (e.g., Shakespearean play, American culture).
 - **Demonstrative adjectives:** These point to specific nouns (e.g., this, that, these, those).
 - **Interrogative adjectives:** These are used to ask questions (e.g., what, which, whose).
 - **Possessive adjectives:** These indicate ownership (e.g., my, your, his, her, its, our, their).
 - **Numeral adjectives:** These specify quantity or number (e.g., one, two, three, first, second).
 - **Distributive adjectives:** These indicate how something is distributed (e.g., each, every, some, any).

Morphological Composition (Form):

- **Simple Adjectives:** These are single words with no derivational prefixes or suffixes (e.g., big, happy, red).
- **Derived Adjectives:** These are formed by adding prefixes or suffixes to base words (nouns, verbs, or adverbs). Here are some common examples:
 - **Prefixes:** un- (unhappy), dis- (disabled), pre- (premature)
 - **Suffixes:** -ful (grateful), -able (unbelievable), -less (hopeless), -ish (reddish)
- **Compound Adjectives:** These are formed by joining two or more words with or without hyphens (e.g., high-quality, brand new, bittersweet).

Additional Notes:

- **Comparison:** Some adjectives can be compared to show different degrees (positive, comparative, superlative) of the quality they describe (e.g., big, bigger, biggest).
- **Participle Adjectives:** Present participles (-ing) and past participles (-ed) can sometimes function as adjectives (e.g., a running start, a broken window).

Understanding the semantic characteristics and morphological composition of adjectives allows you to use them effectively to enhance your writing and speaking. You can choose the right

adjective to convey precise meaning, create vivid descriptions, and effectively modify nouns and pronouns.

Theme: Syntactic functions of Adjectives.

Adjectives play several key syntactic roles (functions) within a sentence, providing more information about nouns and pronouns. Here's a breakdown of the most common ones:

1. Attributive Adjective:

This is the most common function of adjectives. In this role, the adjective directly modifies a noun or pronoun that comes right after it. It acts like a descriptive label, providing details about the noun/pronoun.

- **Example:** The **red** car (describes the color of the car)
- **Example:** She is **intelligent** (describes the quality of the person)

2. Predicative Adjective:

Here, the adjective is part of a compound predicate, typically following a linking verb (be, seem, become, appear, etc.). It describes the state, condition, or characteristic of the subject.

- **Example:** The house **is red**. (describes the color of the house)
- **Example:** She **seemed happy**. (describes her emotional state)

3. Postpositive Adjective (with be):

In some cases, adjectives can follow a linking verb "be" and a noun phrase, providing additional description. This is less common than the predicative adjective position.

- **Example:** The view **was beautiful** from the mountaintop. (describes the view)

4. Appositive Adjective:

An appositive adjective follows a noun or pronoun it renames or clarifies, often set off by commas.

- **Example:** My friend, **outgoing** and friendly, made everyone feel welcome. (describes the personality of the friend)

5. Premodifier in Noun Phrases:

Adjectives can be part of longer noun phrases, modifying other adjectives or adverbs within the phrase.

- **Example:** The **bright, yellow** flowers bloomed in spring. (bright modifies yellow, which together modify flowers)

Important Note:

- Adjective placement can sometimes affect the meaning of the sentence. For example:
 - **Confident man:** The adjective "confident" modifies "man," implying the man has confidence.
 - **Man confident:** This is grammatically awkward but if used, it might imply someone else expressed confidence about the man.

By understanding these syntactic functions, you can effectively use adjectives to add nuance, detail, and clarity to your writing and speaking.

Theme: The Pronoun. Morphological composition and categorical characteristics.

The Pronoun: Morphological Composition and Categorical Characteristics

Pronouns are a vital part of speech that take the place of nouns in a sentence, avoiding repetition and ensuring smooth communication. Let's explore their morphological composition and categorical characteristics.

Morphological Composition (Form):

- **Simple Pronouns:** These are single words that cannot be further divided (e.g., I, you, he, she, it, we, they, me, him, her, us, them).
- **Compound Pronouns:** These are formed by joining two or more words (e.g., myself, herself, everyone, someone, nobody).

Categorical Characteristics (Types):

Pronouns can be categorized based on the grammatical role they play in a sentence:

- **Personal Pronouns:** These refer to specific people or things involved in the conversation. They have different forms depending on person (speaker, listener), number (singular, plural), and case (nominative, accusative, possessive).
 - **Subjective Case (Nominative):** Refers to the subject of the sentence (e.g., I, you, he, she, it, we, they).
 - **Objective Case (Accusative):** Refers to the direct or indirect object of the verb (e.g., me, you, him, her, it, us, them).
 - **Possessive Case:** Indicates ownership (e.g., mine, yours, his, hers, its, ours, theirs).
- **Reflexive Pronouns:** These refer back to the subject, emphasizing the action is done to oneself (e.g., myself, herself, himself, ourselves, yourselves, themselves).
- **Demonstrative Pronouns:** These point to specific nouns and come in singular and plural forms (e.g., this, that, these, those).
- **Interrogative Pronouns:** These are used to ask questions (e.g., who, what, which, whom, whose).

- **Indefinite Pronouns:** These refer to non-specific entities or quantities (e.g., someone, something, anyone, anything, some, any, all, none, each, every, one, another).
- **Relative Pronouns:** These connect clauses and refer back to a noun or pronoun mentioned earlier (e.g., who, which, that, whose).
- **Reciprocal Pronouns:** These indicate a mutual action between two or more people (e.g., each other, one another).

Additional Notes:

- Pronouns can change their form depending on the case (nominative, accusative, possessive) they play in the sentence. (e.g., I (nominative) vs. me (accusative)).
- Some pronouns (who, which, that) can be used both as interrogative pronouns (in questions) and relative pronouns (to connect clauses).

Understanding the morphological composition and categorical characteristics of pronouns allows you to use them effectively in your writing and speaking. You can choose the right pronoun to avoid repetition, ensure clarity, and maintain smooth sentence flow.

Theme: The Numerals. Morphological composition.

Numerals, as the name suggests, are words used to express numbers or quantities. Unlike pronouns that can be simple or compound, numerals exhibit a wider range of morphological composition in English. Here's a breakdown of the different ways numerals can be formed:

1. Simple Numerals:

These are single words representing basic numbers (one, two, three, four, etc.). They typically function as cardinal numerals, indicating quantity.

2. Compound Numerals:

These are formed by joining two or more words to express numbers beyond the basic ones. There are two main types:

- **Additive Compounds:** These numerals use the conjunction "and" to combine simple numerals (e.g., twenty-one, sixty-three).
- **Multiplicative Compounds:** These numerals use a combination of a number word and a unit word (e.g., twenty (two twenties), hundred (ten tens), thousand (one thousand)).

3. Numeral Phrases:

These can involve multiple words, including prefixes, suffixes, and hyphenation, to express specific quantities. Here are some examples:

- **Fractional numerals:** These use a combination of a cardinal number and a word like "half," "quarter," or a fraction like "third" (e.g., half, quarter, two-thirds).
- **Ordinal numerals:** These use suffixes like "-th," "-st," or "-nd" to indicate position in a sequence (e.g., first, second, third, fourth).

- **Numeral adverbs:** These modify verbs or adjectives and are formed from cardinal numerals with suffixes like "-ly" (e.g., once, twice, thrice).

4. Prefixes and Suffixes:

While not as common as in some languages, English uses some prefixes and suffixes to create numerals:

- **Prefixes:** Bi- (twice), uni- (one), tri- (three). These are less frequent and often used in technical contexts.
- **Suffixes:** -teen (thirteen, fourteen), -ty (twenty, thirty), -illion (million, billion).

Here's a table summarizing the morphological composition of numerals:

Type	Description	Example
Simple Numerals	Single words for basic numbers	one, two, three
Compound Numerals (Additive)	Two or more simple numerals joined by "and"	twenty-one, sixty-three
Compound Numerals (Multiplicative)	Number word + unit word	twenty (two twenties), hundred
Numeral Phrases	Phrases expressing specific quantities	half, two-thirds, first
Prefixes	Less common prefixes for numerals	bi-weekly, tri-lingual
Suffixes	Suffixes used for tens, ordinal numbers, and adverbs	-teen, -ty, -th, -ly

Understanding the morphological composition of numerals allows you to recognize different ways numbers are expressed in English and choose the most appropriate form for your communication.

Theme: The Adverb. Morphological composition.

Adverbs are words that modify verbs, adjectives, or other adverbs in a sentence. They provide more information about how, when, where, why, or to what degree something happens. Here's a breakdown of their morphological composition in English:

1. Simple Adverbs:

These are single words that function as adverbs without any derivational morphemes (prefixes or suffixes). They are the most common type of adverb.

- **Examples:** quickly, slowly, often, always, here, there, now, then

2. Derived Adverbs:

These adverbs are formed from other words (usually adjectives) by adding prefixes or suffixes.

- **Suffixes:** The most common adverb suffix is "-ly" added to adjectives (e.g., happy - happily, clear - clearly, beautiful - beautifully).

- **Prefixes:** Some adverbs are formed with prefixes like "un-" (unhappy), "re-" (redo), "dis-" (disagree), "pre-" (premature). However, these prefixes can also create adjectives, so context is important.

3. Compound Adverbs:

These adverbs are formed by joining two or more words together. Sometimes hyphens are used to connect the words.

- **Examples:** well-known, sometimes, everywhere, anyhow, in fact

4. Converted Prepositional Phrases:

Some prepositional phrases can function as adverbs when they modify a verb, adjective, or another adverb.

- **Examples:** all at once (modifies verb "arrived"), by chance (modifies verb "met"), in the morning (modifies adjective "sleepy")

5. Adverbs with Irregular Formation:

A few adverbs have irregular formations that don't follow the typical patterns mentioned above.

- **Examples:** well, better, best, much, more, most, little, less, least, far, farther, farthest

Here's a table summarizing the morphological composition of adverbs:

Type	Description	Example
Simple Adverbs	Single words, no derivational morphemes	quickly, often, here
Derived Adverbs	Formed from adjectives with suffixes (mostly -ly)	happily, clearly
Derived Adverbs	Formed with prefixes like "un-" or "re-" (can also be adjectives)	unhappy, redo
Compound Adverbs	Two or more words joined together (sometimes hyphenated)	well-known, sometimes
Converted Prepositional Phrases	Prepositional phrases functioning as adverbs	all at once, by chance
Irregular Adverbs	Uncommon formations	well, better, best

Understanding the morphological composition of adverbs equips you to recognize different ways they are formed and used in English. This allows you to choose the most appropriate adverb to enhance the clarity, precision,

Theme: Prepositions

Prepositions are a fundamental building block in English grammar, connecting nouns, pronouns, or phrases to other words in a sentence. They act like link words, indicating the relationship between these elements. Here's a comprehensive breakdown of prepositions:

Common Prepositions:

- **Basic Prepositions:** about, above, across, after, against, along, among, around, at, before, behind, below, beneath, beside, between, beyond, by, during, for, from, in, inside, into, near, of, off, on, onto, outside, over, since, through, throughout, to, toward, under, underneath, until, upon, with, within, without

Functions of Prepositions:

Prepositions show the grammatical relationship between a noun, pronoun, or noun phrase and other elements in the sentence. They can indicate various relationships, including:

- **Location:** They specify the physical location or position of something.
 - Example: The book is **on** the table. (on = physical location)
 - Example: They walked **towards** the beach. (towards = direction)
- **Time:** They indicate when something happens or for how long.
 - Example: I arrived **before** noon. (before = time)
 - Example: We studied **for** two hours. (for = duration)
- **Manner:** They describe how something is done or happens.
 - Example: He did it **with** a smile. (with = manner)
 - Example: They danced **to** the music. (to = according to)
- **Cause:** They explain the reason for something.
 - Example: **Because of** the rain, we stayed home. (because of = reason)
- **Possession:** In some cases, they indicate ownership or belonging.
 - Example: The gift is **from** my friend. (from = source of possession)

Choosing the Right Preposition:

The appropriate preposition depends on the specific verb or adjective it modifies and the intended meaning. Here are some tips:

- **Consult a dictionary:** If unsure, look up the verb or adjective in a dictionary to see which prepositions are commonly used with it.
- **Consider the relationship:** Identify the relationship you want to express (location, time, manner, etc.) and choose the preposition that best conveys it.
- **Practice and common usage:** Pay attention to how native speakers use prepositions in everyday speech and writing to improve your intuition.

Examples of Prepositions in Use:

- **Location:** The cat is sitting **under** the chair.
- **Time:** The meeting starts **at** 9 am.
- **Manner:** She spoke **with** confidence.
- **Cause:** We were late **due to** traffic.

- **Possession:** The book belongs **to** me.

Prepositional Phrases:

A group of words containing a preposition, its object (noun, pronoun, or another phrase), and sometimes modifiers, is called a prepositional phrase. The entire phrase functions as a unit within the sentence.

- **Example:** The house **on the corner** is for sale. (prepositional phrase = "on the corner" modifies "house")

By understanding prepositions and their functions, you can construct grammatically correct sentences and express a wide range of relationships between words in your writing and speaking.

Modal words

The modal words express the attitude of the speaker to the reality, possibility or probability of the action he speaks about. According to their meaning modal words fall under the following main groups:

- 1) words expressing certainty (certainly, surely, assuredly, of course, no doubt, apparently, undoubtedly, etc.);
- 2) words expressing supposition (perhaps, maybe, possibly, probably, etc.);
- 3) words showing whether the speaker considers the action he speaks about desirable or undesirable (happily— unhappily; luckily — unluckily; fortunately-unfortunately).

In the sentence modal words are used as parentheses. Sometimes they are used as sentence-words.

E.g. Certainly you'll admit we could finish all this in a month. "Will you allow me to detain you one moment," said he.

"Certainly," replied the unwelcome visitor. Most modal words have developed from adverbs, so very often there exists a formal identity between modal words and adverbs.

For instance such modal words as certainly, surely, happily are homonymous with the adverbs certainly, surely, happily. Such modal words as possibly, probably, indeed, also derived from adverbs, have no corresponding homonymous adverbs because the latter ceased to be used in Modern English. Though formally identical with adverbs, modal words differ from them in meaning and syntactical function.

E.g. If he were not married as happily as he was, might not something come of it? (adverb)
Soames smiled. Certainly, uncle Jolyon had a way with him. (modal word)

Theme: The Conjunctions. The Conjuncts. The Interjection. The Particle.

Conjunctions are linking words that connect words, phrases, or clauses within a sentence. They play a crucial role in creating smooth sentence flow and building complex sentence structures. Here's a breakdown of conjunctions in English:

Types of Conjunctions:

There are two main types of conjunctions:

- **Coordinating Conjunctions:** These connect words, phrases, or clauses of equal grammatical rank. They are often referred to using the mnemonic device FANBOYS:
 - **F**or
 - **A**nd
 - **N**or
 - **B**ut
 - **O**r
 - **Y**et
 - **S**o
- **Subordinating Conjunctions:** These introduce subordinate clauses, which depend on an independent clause for complete meaning. They express a variety of relationships between the clauses, such as time, cause, condition, contrast, or concession. Here are some common subordinating conjunctions:
 - **Time:** When, while, before, after, since, until
 - **Cause:** Because, since, as
 - **Condition:** If, unless
 - **Contrast:** Although, though, while
 - **Concession:** Although, even though

Functions of Conjunctions:

Coordinating conjunctions perform the following functions:

- **Joining words:** They connect words of the same part of speech (e.g., nouns, adjectives, adverbs).
 - Example: Apples **and** oranges are healthy fruits.
- **Joining phrases:** They connect phrases that function similarly in a sentence.
 - Example: I enjoy reading **both** novels and short stories.
- **Joining independent clauses:** They create compound sentences by joining two independent clauses.
 - Example: She went to the store, **but** they were already closed.

Subordinating conjunctions perform the following functions:

- **Introducing subordinate clauses:** They initiate clauses that depend on the main clause for complete meaning.
 - Example: **When** the sun sets, the birds fly back to their nests. (Subordinate clause = "When the sun sets")
- **Expressing relationships:** They indicate the relationship between the main clause and the subordinate clause (time, cause, condition, etc.).

Examples of Conjunctions in Use:

- **Coordinating:** We can go to the park **or** stay home and watch a movie. (Connects verb phrases)

- **Subordinating: Because** it was raining, we decided to postpone the picnic. (Introduces a reason clause)
- **Correlative Conjunctions:** In some cases, conjunctions come in pairs (correlative conjunctions) to emphasize the connection between sentence elements. Here are some examples:
 - **Either/or:** **Either** you come early, **or** you miss the opportunity.
 - **Neither/nor:** **Neither** do I know the answer, **nor** does she.
 - **Both/and:** **Both** the food **and** the service were excellent.

Understanding conjunctions allows you to craft grammatically correct and well-structured sentences. They help you express complex ideas by connecting clauses and creating clear relationships between them. By using a variety of conjunctions effectively, you can enhance the flow, clarity, and sophistication of your writing and speaking.

Interjections

Interjections, as you might already know, are a unique part of speech that function differently from others. Here's a breakdown of their characteristics:

Function:

- Interjections are words or phrases used to express sudden feelings or emotions.
- They act as standalone expressions, often placed at the beginning of a sentence but can also appear within it.
- Unlike other parts of speech, they don't grammatically connect to the surrounding words.

Examples of Emotions Conveyed by Interjections:

- Surprise: Oh!, Wow!, Huh?
- Joy: Yay!, Hurray!, Hooray!
- Disgust: Ugh!, Yuck!, Eww!
- Sadness: Oh no!, Aw!, Bummer!
- Anger: Hey!, Stop it!, Get out!

Grammatical Independence:

- Interjections are independent of the sentence's grammatical structure.
- They can be removed from the sentence without affecting its core meaning.
 - Example: "Wow, that was a close call!" (Interjection can be removed: "That was a close call.")

Syntactic Forms:

- Interjections can be single words (Ouch!), sound effects (Boom!), or short phrases (Good grief!).
- They can be followed by an exclamation point (!) to emphasize the emotion.

Importance:

- Interjections add liveliness, spontaneity, and emphasis to communication.
- They can effectively convey emotions that might be difficult to express with just words.

Non-verbal Cues:

- Interjections often work alongside non-verbal cues like facial expressions, gestures, and tone of voice to fully express an emotion.

Examples of Interjections in Use:

- "Ouch! That hurt!" (Expresses pain)
- "Wow! What a beautiful view." (Expresses amazement)
- "Ugh, I forgot my keys again." (Expresses frustration)
- "Hooray! We won the game!" (Expresses joy)

By understanding interjections, you can enhance your communication by effectively conveying emotions and adding natural flair to your writing and speaking.

Particles

Particles are a bit trickier than other parts of speech because they don't fit neatly into a single category. They are function words that add grammatical meaning to a sentence but don't have their own lexical meaning (meaning on their own). Here's a breakdown of the different types of particles:

Types of Particles:

There are several types of particles, each serving a specific grammatical function:

- **Grammatical Particles:**
 - **The infinitive marker "to":** This particle precedes a base verb to create the infinitive form, which can function as a noun or modifier. (e.g., I want **to** go to the beach.)
- **Adverb Particles:**
 - These particles combine with verbs to form phrasal verbs, changing their meaning. (e.g., She looked **up** the answer. They called **off** the meeting.)
Prepositions can sometimes also function as adverb particles.
- **Discourse Particles:**
 - These words or short phrases function like interjections but often serve a more specific purpose in structuring a conversation or written text. They can indicate hesitation (um), agreement (well), emphasis (indeed), or transition between ideas (so, however).

Key Points about Particles:

- **Limited Meaning:** Particles have little to no meaning on their own. Their meaning is derived from their context and the words they function with.

- **Grammatical Function:** They play a crucial role in sentence structure and meaning by indicating verb tense, forming phrasal verbs, or marking relationships between clauses in discourse.
- **Not Always Easy to Identify:** Some particles can overlap with other parts of speech, like prepositions acting as adverb particles. Understanding the context is essential.

Examples of Particles in Use:

- **Grammatical Particle:** She decided **to** take a nap. ("to" marks the infinitive)
- **Adverb Particle:** He ran **up** the stairs. ("up" changes the meaning of "ran")
- **Discourse Particle:** **Well**, that was an interesting presentation. ("Well" indicates a transition)

By understanding particles, you can improve your grammatical accuracy and fluency. They play a subtle but significant role in conveying meaning and shaping the flow of your communication.

The Conjuncts.

The term "conjunct" can have two meanings in linguistics, and it's important to distinguish between them:

1. Conjuncts as a synonym for Conjunctions:

This is the more common usage. Conjunctions are words that connect words, phrases, or clauses within a sentence. They play a crucial role in creating smooth sentence flow and building complex sentence structures.

Here's a breakdown of conjunctions as conjuncts:

- **Types:** There are two main types of conjunctions:
 - **Coordinating Conjunctions:** These connect words, phrases, or clauses of equal grammatical rank (FANBOYS: For, And, Nor, But, Or, Yet, So).
 - **Subordinating Conjunctions:** These introduce subordinate clauses, which depend on an independent clause for complete meaning (e.g., When, While, Before, After, Since, Until; Because, Since, As; If, Unless; Although, Though, While; Although, Even though).
- **Functions:**
 - Connecting words of the same part of speech (nouns, adjectives, adverbs).
 - Joining phrases that function similarly in a sentence.
 - Creating compound sentences by joining independent clauses.
 - Introducing subordinate clauses and expressing relationships between them (time, cause, condition, etc.).

2. Conjuncts as adverbials:

This is a less common usage specific to some grammatical frameworks. Here, conjuncts refer to a broader category of adverbials that add information to a sentence but are not considered part of

the propositional content (essential meaning). They connect the sentence with previous parts of the discourse.

This category of conjuncts can include:

- **Conjunctions:** As mentioned above, conjunctions can function as conjuncts in this sense by linking a clause to the broader context.
- **Adverbial phrases:** Phrases that function like adverbs but provide connective or transitional information (e.g., however, therefore, in addition, consequently).

Understanding the Context:

The intended meaning of "conjuncts" depends on the context in which you encounter the term. If you're unsure, consider the surrounding discussion or consult the specific grammatical framework being used.

Theme: What is the syntax?

Syntax refers to the way words are arranged in a sentence to create meaning. It's the grammatical blueprint that dictates the order and structure of words, phrases, and clauses within a sentence.

Here are some key aspects of syntax:

- **Word Order:** Different languages have different rules for word order. In English, for example, the typical word order is Subject-Verb-Object (SVO). So, a sentence like "The cat chased the mouse" follows proper SVO syntax.
- **Phrases and Clauses:** Sentences are built from smaller units called phrases and clauses. Phrases lack a subject-verb combination, while clauses contain both and can function as complete sentences themselves. Syntax dictates how these units are combined.
- **Sentence Structure:** Syntax governs how clauses are arranged to form sentences. Simple sentences contain one independent clause, while compound sentences have two or more independent clauses joined by coordinating conjunctions (FANBOYS). Subordinate clauses, introduced by subordinating conjunctions, depend on an independent clause for complete meaning.

Examples of Syntax in Action:

- **Correct Word Order:** "The man walked to the store" is a grammatically correct sentence due to its SVO order. "Walked the man to the store" is grammatically incorrect because it disrupts the expected word order.
- **Phrases and Clauses:** "The red car (phrase)" modifies the subject "car" in the sentence "The red car sped down the road." Here, the phrase functions as an adjective.
- **Sentence Types:** "She went to the park" is a simple sentence. "She went to the park, but it was closed" is a compound sentence with two independent clauses joined by "but."

Understanding syntax is essential for clear and effective communication. By following the rules of syntax, you ensure your sentences are grammatically correct and convey your intended meaning.

Theme: The sentences.

Sentences can be classified structurally based on their complexity and the number of clauses they contain. Here's a breakdown of the most common types:

1. Simple Sentence:

- The most basic sentence structure containing one independent clause that expresses a complete thought.
- It typically follows the Subject-Verb-Object (SVO) order but can have variations.
- Example: The girl rode her bike. (Subject: girl, Verb: rode, Object: bike)

2. Compound Sentence:

- Contains two or more independent clauses joined by coordinating conjunctions (FANBOYS: For, And, Nor, But, Or, Yet, So).
- Each independent clause can express a complete thought on its own.
- Example: She went to the store, but they were closed. (Two independent clauses joined by "but")

3. Complex Sentence:

- Contains one independent clause and one or more dependent (subordinate) clauses.
- Dependent clauses rely on the independent clause for complete meaning and are introduced by subordinating conjunctions (e.g., when, because, if, although).
- Example: When the rain stopped, we went outside. (Independent clause: "we went outside"; Dependent clause: "When the rain stopped")

4. Compound-Complex Sentence:

- The most complex structure, combining elements of compound and complex sentences.
- It contains multiple independent clauses and at least one dependent clause.
- Example: The movie was long, but we enjoyed it because the acting was superb. (Two independent clauses joined by "but", and a dependent clause introduced by "because")

Additional Considerations:

- **Sentence Length:** Sentence length can vary depending on style and purpose. However, using a variety of sentence structures keeps your writing engaging.
- **Sentence Openers:** Varying how you start your sentences (e.g., with subjects, adverbs, prepositional phrases) can improve your writing style.

By understanding these structural classifications, you can choose the most appropriate sentence type to convey your ideas clearly and effectively in your writing and speaking.

Theme: The Subject.

The subject, in the context of grammar, is a fundamental element of a sentence. It typically refers to the noun, pronoun, or noun phrase that initiates the action or experiences a state of being within the sentence. Here's a closer look at the subject's role and characteristics:

Function:

- The subject identifies who or what the sentence is about.
- It acts as the grammatical starting point for the verb and often determines the verb's tense and agreement.

Identifying the Subject:

- The subject typically precedes the verb in a declarative sentence (statement).
- You can often ask the question "Who?" or "What?" before the verb to identify the subject. The answer to this question will be the subject.

Types of Subjects:

- **Simple Subject:** A single word functioning as the subject (e.g., The cat sat on the mat).
- **Compound Subject:** Two or more words joined by a conjunction (and, or, nor, etc.) functioning together as the subject (e.g., The cat and the dog played in the yard).
- **Clausal Subject:** A subordinate clause acting as the subject (e.g., Whatever you decide is fine with me).

Examples:

- **Simple Subject:** She **walks** to the park every morning. (Subject: "She")
- **Compound Subject:** **Milk and cookies** are a delicious snack. (Subject: "Milk and cookies")
- **Clausal Subject:** **That she arrived late** surprised everyone. (Subject: "That she arrived late")

Subject-Verb Agreement:

The subject and verb in a sentence must agree in number (singular or plural). This means a singular subject typically requires a singular verb, and a plural subject requires a plural verb.

Expletive Subjects:

In some cases, sentences may start with a word or phrase called an expletive subject, which has little to no meaning on its own. The true subject follows the expletive and determines verb agreement.

- Example: **There** are apples on the table. (Expletive: "There"; Subject: "apples")

Understanding the subject is essential for constructing grammatically correct sentences. By identifying the subject and ensuring subject-verb agreement, you can ensure clear and effective communication.

Theme: The Predicate.

The predicate, as you learned earlier, is another crucial element working alongside the subject to form a complete sentence. Here's a breakdown of the predicate's role and its components:

Function:

The predicate follows the subject and provides information about what the subject does or experiences. It contains the main verb of the sentence and any words that modify or complete the verb's meaning.

Components of the Predicate:

- **Main Verb:** This is the core of the predicate and indicates the action, occurrence, or state of being associated with the subject.
- **Verb Phrase:** The main verb can be accompanied by helping verbs (auxiliary verbs) to form verb tenses or the passive voice. It can also include objects, adverbs, and prepositional phrases that modify the verb and provide more details.

Types of Predicates:

- **Verb Predicate:** The simplest form, containing only the main verb (e.g., The sun **shines** brightly).
- **Verb Phrase Predicate:** The most common type, containing the main verb and modifiers (e.g., The children **were playing** happily in the park).
- **Copula Predicate:** Uses a linking verb (copula) like "be," "seem," "appear," etc., to connect the subject to a noun phrase or adjective phrase that renames or describes the subject (e.g., The house **is** old. She **looks** happy).

Identifying the Predicate:

You can often identify the predicate by asking the question "What does the subject do?" or "What is happening to the subject?" after reading the subject. The answer to this question will be the predicate.

Examples:

- **Verb Predicate:** The dog **barks** at the mailman. (Predicate: "barks")
- **Verb Phrase Predicate:** She **has been waiting** for hours. (Predicate: "has been waiting")
- **Copula Predicate:** The cake **tastes** delicious. (Predicate: "tastes delicious")

By understanding the predicate and its components, you can effectively convey the actions, states of being, and descriptions related to the subject in your sentences. This is essential for creating complete and meaningful communication.

Theme: Communicative types of sentences.

Communicative types of sentences focus on the function and purpose they serve within communication, rather than their internal structure. Here's a breakdown of some common communicative sentence types:

1. Declarative Sentences:

- The most common type, used to make statements or provide information.
- They typically end with a period (.)
- Example: The earth revolves around the sun. (Statement of fact)

2. Interrogative Sentences:

- Used to ask questions, seeking information from the listener.
- They often end with a question mark (?) but can also be phrased indirectly.
- Example: What is your name? (Direct question)
- Example: I wonder where she is. (Indirect question)

3. Imperative Sentences:

- Used to express commands, requests, instructions, or advice.
- They often end with a period (.) or an exclamation point (!) depending on the forcefulness of the command.
- Example: Please close the door. (Request)
- Example: Go to your room! (Command)

4. Exclamatory Sentences:

- Used to express strong emotions or surprise.
- They typically end with an exclamation point (!)
- Example: Wow, that was a close call! (Expresses surprise)
- Example: I am so happy to see you! (Expresses joy)

5. Optative Sentences:

- Express wishes, hopes, or desires.
- They often use verbs like "wish," "hope," or the subjunctive mood.
- Example: I wish I could fly. (Expresses a desire)
- Example: May you have a wonderful day. (Expresses a hope)

Additional Types:

- **Vocative Sentences:** Used to directly address someone, often beginning with the person's name or a title (e.g., Hey there!, Doctor, can I ask you a question?)
- **Exclamatory-Interrogative Sentences:** Combine exclamation and question marks to express strong emotions while asking a question (e.g., Are you serious?!)

Understanding communicative sentence types allows you to tailor your language to achieve specific goals in your communication. You can effectively inform, persuade, request, or express emotions depending on the situation.

Theme: Secondary parts of the sentence

Secondary parts of a sentence, also sometimes referred to as modifiers, are words or phrases that add extra information to the main parts of the sentence: the subject and the predicate (verb). They don't convey the core meaning by themselves but rather elaborate on the who, what, when, where, why, and how of the sentence. Here's a breakdown of the most common secondary parts of a sentence:

Types of Secondary Parts:

- **Objects:**
 - **Direct Object:** Answers the question "what?" after the verb and receives the action of the verb (e.g., The baker **baked** a loaf of bread).
 - **Indirect Object:** Tells "to whom" or "for whom" the action of the verb is done (e.g., She gave **him** a present).
- **Complements:**
 - **Predicate Nominative:** Renames or clarifies the subject with a noun phrase following a linking verb (e.g., The winner **is** John).
 - **Predicate Adjective:** Describes the subject following a linking verb (e.g., The soup tastes **delicious**).
- **Adverbs:** Modify verbs, adjectives, or other adverbs by indicating manner, place, time, frequency, degree, or cause (e.g., She ran **quickly** across the street. They ate **there** yesterday. I **always** brush my teeth twice a day).
- **Adverbial Phrases:** Function like adverbs but consist of multiple words acting as a unit (e.g., She walked **to the store** in the afternoon).
- **Prepositional Phrases:** Start with a preposition and modify nouns, pronouns, verbs, or adjectives by indicating location, time, manner, cause, or possession (e.g., The book **on the table** is mine).
- **Appositives:** Rename or further identify a noun or pronoun next to it (e.g., My friend, **Sarah**, is coming over today).
- **Participial Phrases:** Act as adjectives or adverbs by containing a participle (present participle ending in -ing or past participle ending in -ed or -en) and modifying other words in the sentence (e.g., **Smiling**, she greeted her guests. **Exhausted** from the hike, they collapsed on the couch).

How Secondary Parts Function:

- **Provide Details:** They flesh out the sentence by giving more information about the subject, verb, object, or another modifier.
- **Improve Clarity:** By adding details, they enhance the sentence's clarity and understanding.
- **Create Emphasis:** Strategic placement of modifiers can place emphasis on specific elements of the sentence.
- **Vary Sentence Structure:** Using different types of modifiers helps create a variety of sentence structures, making your writing more engaging.

Examples:

- **Direct Object:** We planted **flowers** in the garden.
- **Indirect Object:** I sent a **letter** to my friend.
- **Predicate Nominative:** The capital of France **is** Paris.
- **Predicate Adjective:** The movie was **thrilling**.
- **Adverb:** He speaks English **fluently**.
- **Adverbial Phrase:** They arrived **at the party** late.
- **Prepositional Phrase:** The cat jumped **on the table**.

By understanding and using secondary parts of a sentence effectively, you can elevate your writing and speaking by adding detail, clarity, and nuance to your communication.

Theme: An object. An attribute. An adverbial modifier

These three terms all refer to secondary parts of a sentence, also sometimes called modifiers. They provide extra information about the main parts of the sentence (subject and verb) but don't convey the core meaning by themselves. Here's a breakdown of each:

1. Object:

- An object receives the action of the verb. It answers the question "what?" after the verb.
- **Types of Objects:**
 - **Direct Object:** Directly affected by the verb (e.g., The baker **baked** (verb) a loaf of bread (direct object)).
 - **Indirect Object:** Tells "to whom" or "for whom" the action of the verb is done (e.g., She gave (verb) **him** (indirect object) a present (direct object)).

2. Attribute (Adjective Complement):

- Modifies or renames the subject, typically following a linking verb (like "be," "seem," "appear"). It answers the question "what kind" or "what" about the subject.
- **Example:** The house (subject) is **old** (attribute).

3. Adverbial Modifier:

- Provides additional information about the verb, adjective, or another adverb. It can answer questions like "when," "where," "how," "why," "how much," or "to what extent."
- **Types of Adverbial Modifiers:**

- **Adverbs:** Single words modifying verbs, adjectives, or other adverbs (e.g., She ran **quickly** (adverb) across the street).
- **Adverbial Phrases:** Groups of words functioning like adverbs (e.g., They ate **at the restaurant** (adverbial phrase) yesterday).
- **Prepositional Phrases:** Starting with a preposition and modifying various words in the sentence (e.g., The book **on the table** (prepositional phrase) is mine).

Here's a table summarizing the key differences:

Feature	Object	Attribute (Adjective Complement)	Adverbial Modifier
What it modifies	Verb	Subject (after linking verb)	Verb, adjective, or another adverb
Answers the question	"what?"	"what kind" or "what"	"when," "where," "how," "why," "how much," or "to what extent"
Example	The baker baked a loaf of bread (object).	The house is old (attribute).	She sang beautifully (adverb)

Theme: The structure of composite sentence.

Composite sentences, also sometimes called compound sentences, are sentences that contain two or more independent clauses. These independent clauses can express complete thoughts on their own and are not grammatically dependent on each other. Here's a deeper look at the structure of composite sentences:

Key Characteristics:

- **Multiple Independent Clauses:** The core feature is the presence of at least two independent clauses. Each clause has its own subject and verb and can potentially stand alone as a complete sentence.
- **Joined by Conjunctions:** Independent clauses within a composite sentence are typically joined using coordinating conjunctions (FANBOYS: For, And, Nor, But, Or, Yet, So). These conjunctions help create a smooth flow between the clauses.
- **Semicolons or Commas:** While conjunctions are the most common way to connect independent clauses, semicolons or commas can also be used in specific situations.

Types of Composite Sentences:

- **Compound Sentence with Coordinating Conjunctions:** The most common type, using FANBOYS conjunctions to connect clauses (e.g., She went to the store, but they were closed).
- **Compound-Complex Sentence:** Contains at least one dependent clause (relies on another clause for complete meaning) along with independent clauses (e.g., The movie

was long, but we enjoyed it because the acting was superb). (Note that compound-complex sentences are a subcategory of complex sentences, which can also include simple sentences with one dependent clause).

- **Run-on Sentence:** An error where independent clauses are improperly strung together without a conjunction or proper punctuation (e.g., The weather was nice we went for a walk).

Understanding Structure:

By analyzing the sentence structure, you can identify independent and dependent clauses, and the coordinating conjunctions or punctuation used to connect them. This helps ensure your composite sentences are grammatically correct and convey your intended meaning clearly.

Examples:

- **Coordinating Conjunction:** She finished her homework, **so** she went outside to play. (Two independent clauses joined by "so")
- **Semicolon:** The meeting was a success; everyone seemed happy with the outcome. (Two independent clauses joined by a semicolon)
- **Comma Splice (Run-on Sentence - Incorrect):** The meeting was a success, everyone seemed happy with the outcome. (This is a comma splice because it incorrectly uses a comma to join independent clauses)

Understanding the structure of composite sentences is essential for crafting clear, grammatically sound sentences that effectively express complex ideas.

Theme: The Compound Sentence.

The compound sentence, as you've already learned, is another term for a composite sentence. Both terms refer to sentences that contain two or more independent clauses. Here's a breakdown of what makes a compound sentence and how it functions:

Key Features:

- **Independent Clauses:** The foundation of a compound sentence is its multiple independent clauses. Each clause can stand alone as a complete sentence with its own subject and verb.
- **Coordinating Conjunctions (FANBOYS):** These conjunctions (For, And, Nor, But, Or, Yet, So) are the usual tools for connecting independent clauses in compound sentences. They help create a smooth flow between the clauses and indicate the relationship between them (contrast, sequence, addition, etc.).
- **Punctuation:** Semicolons or commas can also be used in specific situations to join independent clauses in compound sentences. However, conjunctions are generally preferred for clarity.

Examples of Compound Sentences:

- **FANBOYS Conjunctions:**

- She aced the exam, **so** she celebrated with her friends. (Connected by "so" showing consequence)
- We can go to the park, **or** we can stay home and watch a movie. (Connected by "or" showing alternative options)
- **Semicolon:** It was raining heavily; the game was postponed. (Semicolon connects two independent clauses about the weather and the game).

Distinguishing from Complex Sentences:

- **No Dependent Clauses:** Compound sentences only contain independent clauses. Complex sentences, on the other hand, can have one or more dependent clauses (subordinate clauses) that rely on an independent clause for complete meaning.

Understanding Compound Sentences:

By recognizing the structure of compound sentences, you can effectively combine independent clauses to express complex ideas. Knowing how to use coordinating conjunctions and punctuation appropriately ensures your sentences are clear, grammatically correct, and achieve the desired effect in your writing or speaking.

Theme: The Complex Sentence.

A complex sentence is a sentence that contains at least one independent clause and one dependent clause (also sometimes called a subordinate clause). The key difference between a compound sentence and a complex sentence lies in the type of clauses they contain.

Structure:

- **Independent Clause:** The foundation of the sentence, it can express a complete thought and stand alone as a grammatically correct sentence. It has its own subject and verb.
- **Dependent Clause:** Relies on the independent clause for complete meaning and cannot stand alone as a sentence. It is introduced by a subordinating conjunction (e.g., because, since, if, although, when, while, etc.).

How it Works:

The dependent clause provides additional information that modifies or expands on the idea expressed in the independent clause. The subordinating conjunction acts as a bridge, connecting the dependent clause to the main idea.

Examples:

- **When the sun sets, the birds fly back to their nests.** (Independent clause: "the birds fly back to their nests"; Dependent clause: "When the sun sets")
- **Because it was raining, we decided to postpone the picnic.** (Independent clause: "we decided to postpone the picnic"; Dependent clause: "Because it was raining")

- **If I had known you were coming, I would have baked a cake.** (Independent clause: "I would have baked a cake"; Dependent clause: "If I had known you were coming")

Types of Dependent Clauses:

Dependent clauses can function in various ways within a complex sentence:

- **Adverbial Clauses:** Modify the verb in the independent clause, acting like adverbs (e.g., "when," "while," "before," "after," "since," "until," "because," "as").
- **Adjective Clauses:** Modify a noun or pronoun in the independent clause, acting like adjectives (e.g., "who," "which," "that").
- **Noun Clauses:** Function as nouns within the sentence (e.g., "what," "whether," "that").

Understanding Complex Sentences:

By analyzing the structure of complex sentences, you can identify the independent and dependent clauses, and the subordinating conjunction that connects them. This skill helps you construct sentences that express complex ideas with clear relationships between them. It's a valuable tool for enhancing your writing and speaking abilities.

Theme: The complex sentence with a subject clause.

A complex sentence with a subject clause is a specific type of complex sentence where the dependent clause functions as the subject of the entire sentence. The dependent clause, introduced by a subordinating conjunction, precedes the independent clause and provides introductory information about the main subject.

Here's a breakdown of this type of complex sentence:

Structure:

1. **Dependent Clause (Subject Clause):** Introduced by a subordinating conjunction (e.g., what, that, whoever, whichever) and acts as the subject of the entire sentence.
2. **Verb:** The main verb of the sentence, following the dependent clause (subject clause).
3. **Independent Clause:** Provides the main idea or outcome related to the subject clause.

Subordinating Conjunctions for Subject Clauses:

Some common subordinating conjunctions used to introduce subject clauses include:

- **What:** Used to introduce questions about the subject (e.g., what happens next...).
- **That:** Often used in formal writing to introduce a subject clause (e.g., that she arrived late surprised everyone).
- **Whoever/Whichever:** Introduce clauses specifying the subject based on a condition (e.g., whoever finds my phone gets a reward).

Examples:

- **What surprised everyone was her sudden departure.** (Subject clause: "What surprised everyone"; Independent clause: "was her sudden departure")
- **That he won the competition was no surprise.** (Subject clause: "That he won the competition"; Independent clause: "was no surprise")
- **Whoever arrives first gets to choose the movie.** (Subject clause: "Whoever arrives first"; Independent clause: "gets to choose the movie")

Understanding Subject Clauses:

- Subject clauses offer a way to introduce the subject of the sentence with a bit more detail or intrigue compared to a simple noun phrase.
- They can be useful for creating emphasis or suspense by placing the dependent clause at the beginning of the sentence.

Examples with Emphasis:

- **What mattered most was her happiness.** (Emphasizes the importance of her happiness)
- **Whoever breaks the rules will face consequences.** (Emphasizes the consequence of breaking the rules)

By understanding complex sentences with subject clauses, you can add variety and sophistication to your writing style. They allow you to introduce the main subject in an engaging way and provide additional context or emphasis.

Theme: The complex sentence with an object clause.

A complex sentence with an object clause features a dependent clause functioning as the object of the verb in the independent clause. This dependent clause, introduced by a subordinating conjunction, provides additional information about the action or state of being expressed in the main clause.

Here's a deeper look at this type of complex sentence:

Structure:

1. **Independent Clause:** Contains the main verb and the main subject.
2. **Verb:** The verb in the independent clause often requires an object to complete its meaning.
3. **Dependent Clause (Object Clause):** Introduced by a subordinating conjunction and functions as the object of the verb in the independent clause.

Subordinating Conjunctions for Object Clauses:

Several subordinating conjunctions can introduce object clauses, depending on the desired relationship between the clauses:

- **That:** Commonly used in formal writing (e.g., I know that she is here).
- **Whether:** Introduces questions about the object (e.g., I wonder whether they will come).
- **Who/What/Whom:** Used in questions or to specify the object (e.g., I don't know who called).
- **Because:** Indicates a reason or cause (e.g., I believe it because it's true).

Examples:

- **I hope that she arrives on time.** (Independent clause: "I hope"; Object clause: "that she arrives on time")
- **We asked whether they wanted to join us.** (Independent clause: "We asked"; Object clause: "whether they wanted to join us")
- **Tell me who broke the vase!** (Independent clause: "Tell me"; Object clause: "who broke the vase")
- **I don't believe everything I hear because some things are simply not true.** (Independent clause: "I don't believe everything I hear"; Object clause: "because some things are simply not true")

Understanding Object Clauses:

- Object clauses provide more details about the direct object of the verb, explaining what is being hoped for, questioned, believed, or reported.
- They can be used to express a variety of ideas, from stating facts or beliefs to asking questions.

Examples with Different Purposes:

- **Stating a Fact:** She knew that the earth revolved around the sun. (Object clause provides a fact known by the subject)
- **Asking a Question:** I wondered what they were talking about. (Object clause expresses the subject's curiosity)
- **Expressing a Belief:** They believed that honesty was the best policy. (Object clause clarifies what is believed)

By effectively using complex sentences with object clauses, you can enhance the clarity, precision, and variety of your writing and speaking. They allow you to elaborate on the verb's action or state of being in a grammatically sound and informative way.

Учебно-методическое и информационное обеспечение дисциплины

Основная литература:

1. English grammar, Дроздова, Татьяна Юрьевна; Берестова, Алла Иосифовна; Маилова, Вероника Григорьевна, 2012г.
2. А.В. Кузьмин “Английская грамматика в таблицах”
3. Essential grammar in Use, Naylor, Helen; Murphy, Raymond, 2004г.
4. Англо-русский, русско-английский современный словарь + грамматика, Сиротина, Татьяна Александровна
5. "Introducing Morphology" by Rochelle Lieber
6. "Understanding Morphology" by Martin Haspelmath

7. "The Semantics of English -ment Nominalizations" by Lea Kawaletz
8. "The Semantics of Derivational Morphology: Theory, Methods, Evidence" by Sven Kotowski
9. "Toward a Cognitive Classical Linguistics: The Embodied Basis of Constructions in Greek and Latin" by Egle Mocciaro

Online Resources:

1. Stanford Encyclopedia of Philosophy
2. Linguistics Society of America (LSA) Website
3. University of California, Berkeley Linguistics Department
4. Consult with a Linguistics Professor or Tutor
5. Join Online Linguistics Communities
6. Read Academic Journals and Articles
7. Practice Analyzing Language

Политика курса

Студенты обязуются:

1. регулярное посещение занятий;
2. активность во время занятий;
3. подготовка к занятиям;
4. презентовать домашнюю заданию;
5. сдавать СРС по требованию во время;

Недопустимо:

1. Опоздание и уход с занятий;
2. Пользование сотовыми телефонами во время занятий;
3. Обман и плагиат;
4. Несвоевременная сдача заданий;

Методы, используемые в обучении: Инновационно-интерактивные формы обучения характеризуются высокой коммуникативной возможностью и активным включением магистрантов в учебную деятельность, формировать навыков сопоставительного анализа на конкретном материале изучаемых языков, обладать интеграция теоретических знаний магистрантов в преподавания английского языка, эффективно развивают навыки коммуникативной компетенции: активные и пассивные методы, словесные и практические методы, объяснительно-иллюстративный метод;

Информационная база, информационно-справочная система: сетевые источники и ресурсы, областные и городские библиотеки, учебно-библиографическая библиотека университета, учебники, УМК, словари и справочники в читальном зале университета, электронная библиотека.

Материально-техническое обеспечение дисциплины: Занятия по данной дисциплине проводятся с использования персональных компьютеров, дидактическим материалами и разными наглядными пособиями, презентациями и видеоуроками сделанные с помощью приложений такие как PowerPoint и Bandicam. Преподаватель имеет учебные аудитории для проведения занятий лекционного типа, занятий семинарского типа, выполнения курсовых работ, групповых и индивидуальных консультаций, текущего контроля и промежуточной аттестации, а также помещения для самостоятельной работы и помещения для хранения и профилактического обслуживания учебного оборудования. Помещения укомплектованы специализированной мебелью и техническими средствами обучения, служащими для представления учебной информации большой аудитории. Для проведения занятий лекционного типа аудитории оснащены демонстрационным оборудованием и

учебно-наглядными пособиями, обеспечивающими тематические иллюстрации, соответствующие примерным программам дисциплин, рабочим учебным программам дисциплин. Помещения для самостоятельной работы обучающихся оснащены компьютерной техникой, подключенной к сети «Интернет» и обеспеченной доступом в электронную информационно-образовательную среду ЖАГУ. Программа магистратуры обеспечена комплектом лицензионного программного обеспечения, состав которого определяется в рабочих программах дисциплин и ежегодно обновляется. Электронно-библиотечная система (электронная библиотека) и электронная информационно-образовательная среда обеспечивает одновременный доступ 70% обучающихся.