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Морфология
(Учебно-методический комплекс)

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Обсуждено

на заседании кафедры английского языка и литературы

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Учебно-методический комплекс предназначен для преподавателей, а также студентов филологического факультета Жалал-Абадского государственного университета имени Б.Осмонова. 64 страниц

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ПОЯСНИТЕЛЬНАЯ ЗАПИСКА

Учебно-методический комплекс «Морфология» разработан в соответствии с требованиями Государственного образовательного стандарта высшего профессионального образования по направлению 550300 Филологическое образование, основной образовательной программы – бакалавриат, “Иностранный (английский) язык”.

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

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 и лексико-грамматических конструкций.

Программу дисциплины разработали:

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Аннотация Курс морфология английского языка направлен на эффективного изучения языка, поскольку оно помогает учащимся идентифицировать образцы слов, декодировать незнакомые слова и пополнять свой словарный запас. Формирование навыков перевода с русского языка на английский, в особенности, навыка многовариантного перевода за счет применения синонимичных грамматических и лексико-грамматических конструкций.

Преподавание морфологии английского языка должно осуществляться с использованием современных методов и форм обучения, способствующих успешной реализации всех целей обучения. Курс морфология дает основу для понимания сложного мира словообразования и структуры на английском и других языках. Они снабжают студентов инструментами для анализа морфологических закономерностей, оценки исторического развития слов и применения своих знаний в различных областях, от изучения языка до компьютерной лингвистики.

Актуальность и необходимость изучения дисциплины заключается в том, что морфология, изучение словообразования и структуры, имеет огромную актуальность и необходимость в различных областях лингвистики, образования и языковых приложений. Вот несколько убедительных причин, почему изучение морфологии имеет решающее значение: фундаментальные строительные блоки, правила словообразования, лингвистический анализ, теории овладения языком и создание словаря.

Предмет курса морфология включает изучение словообразования и структуры слов на определенном языке. Он углубляется в сложные механизмы, которые управляют тем, как значимые единицы (морфемы) объединяются для создания слов, и как эти слова функционируют в более широкой грамматической системе.

Цель и задачи дисциплины

Целью курса является предоставление студентам твердого понимания фундаментальных принципов морфологии, изучения словообразования и структуры. Сюда входят такие понятия, как морфемы, алломорфы, корни, аффиксы, перегибы и деривации. Курс углубляется в различные морфологические процессы, которые формируют английские слова, такие как аффиксация, соединение, преобразование и редупликация. Учащиеся получают представление о том, как эти процессы создают новые слова или изменяют существующие.

Основная задача морфологии — выявить и проанализировать морфемы, из которых состоят слова. Морфемы – это мельчайшие значимые единицы языка, которые вносят вклад в общее значение слова.

Задачи дисциплины курса определяется 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.

Студенты изучают концепцию морфологической продуктивности, способности языка создавать новые слова, используя существующие морфологические шаблоны. Они исследуют, как эта продуктивность способствует динамизму и гибкости английского 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 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 профессионального образования

Данная учебная дисциплина включена в раздел " Б.3.В.2 Профессиональный" основной образовательной программы 550300 Педагогическое образование и относится к вариативной части. Осваивается на 3- курсе, первом семестре. Курс "Морфология" 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	4 - семестр экзамен

Краткое содержание дисциплины

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

Часовые разделение дисциплин по разделам.

№	Наименование разделов	всего часов	аудиторные часы	лекционные часы	недельные разделение	практические часы	недельные часы	самостоят. работы	недельные разделение
1.	Часть 1 Морфология. Части речи. Глагол.	15	-	-	3,26	15	4,6	15	3,26
2.	Часть 2 Безличные формы глагола. Инфинитив.	7	-	-	1,52	7	4,6	7	1,52
3.	Часть 3 Герундий.	5	-	-	1	5	4,6	5	1
4.	Часть 4 Причастие I Причастие II	10	-	-	2,17	10	4,6	10	2,17
5.	Часть 5 Имя существительное Артикль.	5	-	-	1	5	4,6	5	1
7.	Часть 7 Наречие. Имя числительное	8	-	-	1,73	8	4,6	8	1,73

8	Часть 8 Модальные слова Союзы. Предлоги Частицы Междометие	10	-	-	2,17	10	4,6	10	2,17
	всего:	60			13	60	4,6	60	13

1.1.3. Содержание дисциплин

Темы	Обсуждаемые вопросы
1. Introduction.	What is morphology?
2. Parts of speech:	How many parts of speech in English?
3. Morphological composition of the verb.	Formation of verb categories
4. The category of aspect.	Aspect forms of the English verbs
5. The category of tense.	Tense forms of the English verbs
6. The category of perfect.	Perfect forms of the English verbs
7. The sequence of tenses	The rules of the sequence of tenses.
8. The category of voice.	Formation and the system of forms in the passive voice.
9. The category of mood.	Types of Mood.
10. The subjunctive mood and the tense category	Structurally determined use of subjunctive mood forms
11. Modal Verbs	Can, May, Must, To have to, To be to, Dare, Need, Ought and equivalents.
12. The infinitive as subject and predicate	Syntactical functions of the infinitive
13. The infinitive as object	Syntactical functions of the infinitive
14. The infinitive as attribute	Syntactical functions of the infinitive
15. The infinitive as adverbial modifier	Syntactical functions of the infinitive
16. The Gerund.	The grammatical categories of the gerund
17. Syntactical Functions of the Gerund.	The gerund as an object, attribute, adverbial modifier
18. The Participle I (Present Participle)	The grammatical categories of Participle I.
19. Syntactical functions of Participle I.	Participle I as predicative, attribute, adverbial modifier
20. Participle II (Past Participle)	Voice peculiarities of participle II
21. Syntactical functions of participle II.	Participle II as attribute, predicative, adverbial modifier.
22. Modal Verbs	Can, May, Must, To have to, To be to, Dare, Need, Ought and equivalents.
23. The Noun.	Semantic characteristics.
24. Morphological composition.	The category of number, case, person.
25. The Article.	Definite, Indefinite Articles.
26. The Adjective. Semantic characteristics. Morphological composition.	Morphological characteristics.
27. Syntactic functions of Adjectives	Substantivized adjectives.
28. The Pronoun. Morphological	Subclasses of pronouns and their functions.

composition and categorical characteristics.	
29. The Numerals. Morphological composition.	Syntactic function.
30. The Adverb. Morphological composition.	Morphological and semantic characteristics.
31. Prepositions. Modal words.	Morphological composition. Semantic characteristics.
32. The Conjunctions. The Conjuncts.	Morphological composition. Semantic characteristics.
33. The Interjection.	Morphological composition. Semantic characteristics.
34. The Particle.	Morphological composition. Semantic characteristics.

1.1.4. Структура и содержание самостоятельной работы дисциплины (модуля)

№	Раздел дисциплины	Семестр	Неделя семестра	Виды самостоятельной работы	Трудоемкость (в часах)	Формы контроля СРС
1	The use of Future Indefinite Tense.	IV	1	Подготовка к устному опросу	4	устный опрос
2	The formation of the Present, Past, Perfect Continuous	IV	2	презентация	4	презентация
3	The formation of the Past Perfect Continuous	IV	3	дискуссия	4	дискуссия
4	The use of Future Perfect Continuous Tense.	IV	4	устный опрос	4	устный опрос
5	The formation of Future Perfect Continuous Tense.	IV	5	устный опрос	4	устный опрос
6	The use of the Present Perfect Continuous Tense.	IV	6	устный опрос	4	устный опрос
7	The use and formation of the Indefinite	IV	7	письменно	4	письменно

	Passive.					
8	Modal verb “can”	IV	8	письменно	4	письменно
9	Modal verb “must”	IV	9	письменно	4	письменно
10	Modal verb “may”	IV	10	дискуссия	4	дискуссия
11	The use and formation of the Continuous Passive.	IV	11	дискуссия	4	дискуссия
12	The Particle is a part of speech.	IV	12	письменно	4	письменно
13	The classification of the gerund	IV	13	письменно	4	письменно
14	The morphological structure of the Infinitive.	IV	14	письменно	4	письменно
15	The use of Subjunctive Mood.	IV	15	письменно	4	письменно

Practical course

Theme: Morphology. Introduction.

Welcome to the captivating world of morphology, the branch of linguistics that delves into the fascinating realm of word formation and structure! Here, we embark on a journey to understand how seemingly simple words are built from smaller, meaningful units and how these units contribute to the overall meaning and function of those words.

The Mighty Morpheme:

Imagine a word as a house. Morphology equips you with the tools to analyze the house's foundation – the morphemes. Morphemes are the smallest units in a language that carry meaning. Just like building blocks, they come together to form words. There are two main types of morphemes:

- **Roots:** These are the core elements of a word, carrying the basic meaning. Examples include "book," "sing," or "happy."
- **Affixes:** These are prefixes (added before the root) or suffixes (added after the root) that modify the meaning or grammatical function of the root. Examples include the prefix "un-" in "unhappy" or the suffix "-ed" in "sing(ed)."

The Art of Word Creation:

Morphology not only identifies morphemes but also explores the various processes by which they are combined to form words. Here's a glimpse into some common word formation processes:

- **Affixation:** This is the most common process, where prefixes and suffixes are attached to roots to create new words. For example, "un-" + "happy" = "unhappy" or "sing" + "-er" = "singer."
- **Compounding:** This involves joining two or more existing words to create a new word. Examples include "daylight" or "bathroom."
- **Conversion:** This process changes a word from one grammatical category to another without adding any affixes. For instance, "the run" (noun) vs. "to run" (verb).
- **Reduplication:** This involves repeating all or part of a word to create a new word, often with an intensified meaning. Examples include "murmur" or "zigzag."

Language is a powerful tool for communication, and at its core lies the art of word creation. But how do simple sounds and letters transform into meaningful words that express a vast array of ideas? This is where morphology, the study of word formation and structure, steps in. Morphology unveils the fascinating mechanisms behind word creation, revealing a world where words are meticulously crafted from smaller, meaningful units.

The Building Blocks: Morphemes

Imagine words as intricate houses. Morphology equips you with the tools to analyze their foundation – morphemes. These are the tiniest units in a language that carry meaning. Just like building blocks, they come together in various combinations to form words. There are two main types of morphemes:

- **Roots:** These are the essential elements carrying the core meaning of a word. They act as the foundation, like the frame of a house. Examples include "book," "sing," or "happy."
- **Affixes:** These are prefixes (added before the root) or suffixes (added after the root) that modify the meaning or grammatical function of the root. They act like additional features or rooms added to the house. Examples include the prefix "un-" in "unhappy" (negation) or the suffix "-ed" in "singed" (past tense).

The Artistic Process: Word Formation

Morphology doesn't just identify morphemes; it explores the various artistic processes by which they are combined to form words. Here's a glimpse into some common word formation techniques:

- **Affixation:** This is the most widely used technique, where prefixes and suffixes are attached to roots to create new words. It's like adding extensions or features to the core structure. For instance, "un-" + "happy" = "unhappy" or "sing" + "-er" = "singer."
- **Compounding:** This process involves merging two or more existing words to create a new one. Imagine combining two rooms to make a larger one. Examples include "daylight" (day + light) or "bathroom" (bath + room).
- **Conversion:** This technique transforms a word from one grammatical category to another without adding any affixes. It's like repurposing a room for a different function. For example, "the run" (noun) vs. "to run" (verb).
- **Reduplication:** This technique involves repeating all or part of a word to create a new word, often with an intensified meaning. Imagine echoing a design element for emphasis. Examples include "murmur" (repeating "mur") or "zigzag" (repeating "zig").

Benefits of a Morphological Masterpiece

Understanding morphology offers a multitude of advantages:

- **Deeper Appreciation of Language:** It unveils the hidden structure of words, enriching your understanding and appreciation for the intricate mechanisms of language.
- **Enhanced Vocabulary Building:** Recognizing morphological patterns allows you to decode unfamiliar words and expand your vocabulary more effectively. It's like having a key to unlock new words based on familiar building blocks.
- **Improved Language Learning:** Morphology provides insights into how words function grammatically, aiding you in mastering a new language. It helps you understand how words are built and used in sentences.
- **Unlocking Etymology:** Studying morphology helps trace the history of words and understand their origins. It's like uncovering the architectural style of a house to understand its history.

The art of word creation is a fascinating journey through morphology. As you delve deeper, you'll discover the intriguing world of irregular verbs, inflectional morphology, and the evolution of word forms over time. So, embark on this linguistic adventure and unlock the secrets hidden within the structure of words!

Why Study Morphology?

Understanding morphology offers a multitude of benefits:

- **Deeper Understanding of Language:** It unveils the hidden structure of words, enriching your appreciation for the intricacies of language.
- **Enhanced Vocabulary Building:** Recognizing morphological patterns allows you to decode unfamiliar words and expand your vocabulary more effectively.
- **Improved Language Learning:** Morphology provides insights into how words function grammatically, aiding in language learning.
- **Unlocking Etymology:** Studying morphology helps trace the history of words and understand their origins.

This is just a glimpse into the captivating world of morphology. As you delve deeper, you'll discover the fascinating world of irregular verbs, inflectional morphology, and the evolution of word forms over time. So, get ready to embark on a linguistic adventure and unlock the secrets hidden within the structure of words!

Theme: Parts of speech in English

Parts of speech are the fundamental building blocks of sentences in English grammar. They classify words based on their function within a sentence. Here's a detailed breakdown of the eight major parts of speech:

1. Nouns:

- **Function:** Nouns name people, places, things, concepts, or ideas. They act as the subjects or objects of verbs in a sentence.
- **Examples:** * **People:** teacher, student, doctor * **Places:** park, city, country * **Things:** book, table, phone * **Concepts:** love, freedom, happiness * **Ideas:** democracy, evolution, creativity

2. Pronouns:

- **Function:** Pronouns take the place of nouns to avoid repetition or for emphasis. They refer back to previously mentioned nouns.
- **Types:** There are different types of pronouns, each with a specific function:
 - **Subject Pronouns:** I, you, he, she, it, we, they (refer to the subject)
 - **Object Pronouns:** me, you, him, her, it, us, them (refer to the object of a verb or preposition)
 - **Possessive Pronouns:** mine, yours, his, hers, its, ours, theirs (show ownership)
 - **Demonstrative Pronouns:** this, that, these, those (point to specific things)
 - **Interrogative Pronouns:** who, what, which, whom, whose (ask questions)
 - **Reflexive Pronouns:** myself, yourself, herself, himself, itself, ourselves, yourselves, themselves (refer back to the subject)
- **Examples:** She went to the store. **She** then came home. (**She** is a pronoun replacing the noun "She" in the first sentence)

3. Verbs:

- **Function:** Verbs express actions, events, states of being, or occurrences. They form the core of a sentence and tell what is happening.
- **Types:** Verbs can be classified in various ways:
 - **Action Verbs:** run, jump, eat (show physical or mental actions)
 - **Being Verbs:** am, is, are, was, were (indicate a state of being)
 - **Helping Verbs:** have, has, had, do, does, did, be, being, been (used with main verbs to form verb tenses or moods)
 - **Transitive Verbs:** require an object (e.g., She **eats** an apple)
 - **Intransitive Verbs:** do not require an object (e.g., The bird **sings**)
- **Examples:** The car **sped** down the road. (**Sped** is an action verb) She **is** happy. (**Is** is a being verb)

4. Adjectives:

- **Function:** Adjectives describe nouns or pronouns. They provide more information about the person, place, thing, or idea being referred to.
- **Position:** Adjectives typically come before the noun they modify but can also follow the noun with a linking verb (is, seems, becomes).
- **Examples:** The **red** car is parked outside. (**Red** describes the car) She seems **happy** today. (**Happy** describes her state)

5. Adverbs:

- **Function:** Adverbs modify verbs, adjectives, or other adverbs. They answer questions like how, when, where, why, or to what extent.
- **Position:** Adverbs can appear in various positions in a sentence depending on what they modify.
- **Examples:** She ran **quickly** across the street. (**Quickly** modifies the verb "ran") He is **very** intelligent. (**Very** modifies the adjective "intelligent")

6. Prepositions:

- **Function:** Prepositions show the relationship between a noun or pronoun and another word in the sentence. They indicate location, direction, time, or manner.
- **Common Prepositions:** in, on, at, to, from, by, with, about, for, during, etc.
- **Examples:** The book is **on** the table. (**On** shows the location of the book) They went **to** the park **after** school. (**To** shows direction, **after** shows time)

7. Conjunctions:

- **Function:** Conjunctions connect words, phrases, or clauses within a sentence. They can coordinate (join elements of equal grammatical rank) or subordinate (join clauses where one depends on the other).
- ****Coordinating Conjunctions (FANBOYS):**

Theme: Morphological composition of the verb.

The verb, in terms of morphological composition, can be analyzed in two ways:

1. Simple vs. Inflected Verbs:

Verbs can be classified based on the presence or absence of inflectional morphemes.

- **Simple Verbs:** These verbs consist solely of a root and no additional morphemes. They express the core meaning of the action or state of being. Examples include "run," "sing," "sleep," or "exist."
- **Inflected Verbs:** These verbs contain a root morpheme and one or more inflectional morphemes. Inflectional morphemes modify the verb's grammatical function, such as tense (past, present, future), aspect (simple, continuous, perfect), mood (indicative, imperative, subjunctive), or voice (active, passive). Here are some examples:
 - **Tense:** "walk" (present) vs. "walked" (past) - "-ed" is the inflectional morpheme for past tense.
 - **Aspect:** "play" (simple) vs. "playing" (continuous) - "-ing" is the inflectional morpheme for continuous aspect.
 - **Mood:** "He reads" (indicative - stating a fact) vs. "Read the book!" (imperative - giving a command) - no morpheme for indicative, but the exclamation point indicates the imperative mood.
 - **Voice:** "The dog chased the cat" (active) vs. "The cat was chased by the dog" (passive) - "-ed" and "be" + past participle ("was chased") create the passive voice.

2. Derivational Morphology of Verbs:

Verbs can also be analyzed based on derivational morphology, which involves the addition of derivational morphemes (prefixes, suffixes) to create new verbs from existing ones. These derivational morphemes often modify the meaning or grammatical function of the root verb. Here are some examples:

- **Prefixes:** re- (redo), un- (untie), en- (enlarge) - prefixes change the meaning of the base verb.
- **Suffixes:** -ize (legalize), -en (lengthen), -er (bake from bake) - suffixes can change the meaning or create a noun from a verb.

Note: Sometimes, a verb can have both inflectional and derivational morphemes. For example, "redecorated" has the root "decor," the derivational prefix "re-" (meaning "again"), and the inflectional suffix "-ed" (past tense).

By understanding the morphological composition of verbs, you can gain a deeper understanding of their grammatical function, meaning variations, and how they are formed and used in sentences.

Most verbs denote action or state. However, there are some verbs, which have other meanings. They are modal verbs, causative verbs, some impersonal verbs, relational and link-verbs. They present a system of finite and non-finite forms, except for modal verbs, which have no non-finite forms. The verb in its finite forms possesses the morphological categories of person, number, tense, aspect, perfect, voice and mood. Its syntactical function is that of the predicate. The

non-finite forms (or verbals) are four in number, they are: the infinitive, the gerund, participle I and participle II. According to their morphological composition verbs can be divided into simple, derivative, compound and phrasal. Simple verbs consist of only one root morpheme: to ask, to build, to come. Derivative verbs are composed of one root morpheme and one or more derivational morphemes (prefixes and suffixes). Among the synthetic verb forms there are those which are used independently and those which are used to build other verb forms. They are four in number:

the infinitive - work, rise;

the past indefinite - worked, rose;

participle II - worked, risen;

participle I - working, rising.

The infinitive stem and participles I and II are employed to build other verbal forms. The past indefinite is the only basic form that is not used to build other forms. Owing to the historical development of the verb system the English verbs fall into two groups: regular and irregular verbs. The regular verbs, which go back to the Germanic weak verbs, constitute the largest group. The past indefinite and participle II of these verbs are formed by means of the dental suffix -ed added to the stem of the verb. This is the productive pattern according to which all new verbs form their past indefinite and participle II. The irregular verbs form their past indefinite and participle II according to some fixed traditional patterns going back partly to the Germanic strong verbs, partly to the weak verbs, which underwent some changes in the process of history. The irregular verbs are about 250 in number. They can be arranged according to sound changes.

In general the category of aspect shows the way or manner in which an action is performed, that is whether the action is perfective (совершенное), imperfective (несовершенное), momentary (мгновенное, однократное), iterative (множественное, повторяющееся), inchoative (зачинательное), durative (продолженное, длительное), etc.

The category of tense in English (as well as in Russian) expresses the relationship between the time of the action and the time of speaking. The time of speaking is designated as present time and is the starting point for the whole scale of time measuring. The time that follows the time of speaking is designated as future time; the time that precedes the time of speaking is designated as past time.

The category of perfect is as fundamental to the English verb as the categories of tense and aspect, whereas it is quite alien to the Russian verb. The category of perfect is constituted by the opposition of the perfect to the non-perfect. The perfect forms denote action preceding certain moments of time in the present, past or future.

Theme: The category of aspect of the Verb

The category of aspect refers to how a verb expresses the relationship between an action or event and the flow of time within a sentence. It focuses on whether the action is ongoing, completed, momentary, or has some other relationship to the time frame. Here's a breakdown of the main verb aspects in English:

Simple Aspect:

- **Function:** The simple aspect presents the verb in its most basic form, focusing on the core meaning of the action without indicating its duration or completion relative to a specific point in time.
- **Examples:**
 - She **runs** every morning. (Habitual action, ongoing)
 - I **saw** a movie yesterday. (Completed action, no specific duration)
 - The bird **sings** beautifully. (Habitual or characteristic action, ongoing)

Continuous Aspect:

- **Function:** The continuous aspect emphasizes the ongoing or in-progress nature of an action. It is formed by using the auxiliary verb "be" (am, is, are, was, were) plus the present participle (verb ending in "-ing").
- **Examples:**
 - She **is running** in the park right now. (Action is happening at the moment of speaking)
 - We **were eating** dinner when the phone rang. (Action was ongoing at a specific point in the past)
 - They **will be studying** all night. (Action will be ongoing at a specific point in the future)

Perfect Aspect:

- **Function:** The perfect aspect emphasizes the completion of an action in relation to a specific point in time (present, past, or future). It is formed using the auxiliary verb "have" (has, had) plus the past participle of the main verb.
- **Examples:**
 - I **have eaten** lunch already. (Action is completed before the present moment)
 - She **had finished** her work by the time I arrived. (Action was completed before another past event)
 - They **will have graduated** by next year. (Action will be completed before a specific point in the future)

Progressive Perfect Aspect:

- **Function:** The progressive perfect aspect combines the ongoing nature of the continuous aspect with the completion aspect, emphasizing an action that started in the past, continued for some time, and is now complete. It is formed using the auxiliary verb "have" (has, had) been plus the present participle of the main verb.
- **Examples:**
 - She **has been working** on that project for weeks. (Action started in the past, is ongoing, and may not be finished yet)
 - We **had been waiting** for hours before the bus finally arrived. (Action started in the past, continued for a long time, and was finally completed)
 - They **will have been living** in that house for ten years by next summer. (Action will have started in the past, continued for a specific duration, and will be completed by a future point)

Choosing the Right Aspect:

The choice of verb aspect depends on the intended meaning and the context of the sentence. Here are some general guidelines:

- Use the simple aspect for habitual actions, momentary actions, or general statements about the ability or possibility of doing something.
- Use the continuous aspect for actions that are ongoing at a specific point in time or to emphasize the duration of an action.
- Use the perfect aspect to talk about actions that have been completed before the present moment.
- Use the progressive perfect aspect to talk about actions that started in the past, continued for some time, and are now complete (or may still be ongoing).

By understanding the different verb aspects, you can express the nuances of time and action with greater precision and clarity in your writing and speaking.

Theme: Tense forms of the English verbs.

English verbs utilize tense to convey the relationship between an action or state of being and time. Here's a breakdown of the main verb tenses in English:

Simple Tenses:

- **Present Simple:** This tense expresses habits, general truths, or events that happen regularly. It is formed using the base form of the verb (for most verbs) or the third-person singular form adds "-s" (for he, she, it).
 - Examples: She **walks** to school every day. (Habitual action) The sun **shines** brightly during the day. (General truth) The train **leaves** at noon every Monday. (Scheduled event)
- **Past Simple:** This tense refers to completed actions in the past. It is formed by adding "-ed" to the base form of the verb for regular verbs. Irregular verbs have their own unique past tense forms.
 - Examples: I **watched** a movie yesterday. (Completed action) They **lived** in France for ten years. (Completed past state) We **ate** dinner early last night. (Completed action)
- **Future Simple:** This tense indicates actions that will happen in the future. It is formed using "will" or "shall" (more common in British English) followed by the base form of the verb.
 - Examples: She **will** graduate next year. (Future event) We **shall** discuss this matter later. (Future promise or intention) They **will be** traveling next month. (Future continuous action)

Continuous Tenses:

- **Present Continuous:** This tense emphasizes actions that are ongoing at the moment of speaking or around that time. It is formed using "am/is/are" + the present participle (verb ending in "-ing").
 - Examples: She **is running** in the park right now. (Ongoing action) We **were eating** dinner when the phone rang. (Action ongoing at a specific point in the past) They **will be studying** all night. (Action planned to be ongoing at a specific point in the future)

- **Past Continuous:** This tense describes actions that were ongoing at a specific point in the past. It is formed using "was/were" + the present participle (verb ending in "-ing").
 - Examples: I **was working** on my project when you called. (Action ongoing at a specific point in the past) She **had been cooking** dinner all afternoon. (Action started earlier in the past and continued up to another point in the past) They **were playing** outside when it started raining. (Ongoing action interrupted by another event)
- **Future Continuous:** This tense indicates actions that will be ongoing at a specific point in the future. It is formed using "will be" + the present participle (verb ending in "-ing").
 - Examples: She **will be working** late tonight. (Action ongoing at a specific point in the future) We **will be traveling** across Europe next summer. (Ongoing action during a future period) They **will have been living** in that house for ten years by next year. (Action will have started in the past and will be ongoing at a future point)

Perfect Tenses:

- **Present Perfect:** This tense focuses on actions that have been completed at some point before the present moment, with the possibility of the action's impact continuing into the present. It is formed using "have/has" + the past participle of the verb.
 - Examples: I **have eaten** lunch already. (Action completed before the present moment) She **has finished** her work. (Action completed recently) They **have never been** to Europe. (Action never completed up to the present)
- **Past Perfect:** This tense describes actions that were completed before another past event. It is formed using "had" + the past participle of the verb.
 - Examples: She **had finished** her work by the time I arrived. (Action completed before another past event) We **had been waiting** for hours before the bus finally arrived. (Action started earlier and was completed before another past event) They **will have graduated** by next year. (Action will be completed before a specific point in the future)

Progressive Perfect Tenses:

- **Present Perfect Continuous:** This tense emphasizes actions that started in the past, continued for some time, and may still be ongoing or were recently completed. It is formed using "have/has been" + the present participle (verb ending in "-ing").
 - Examples: She **has been working** on that project for weeks. (Action started in the past, is ongoing, and may not be finished yet) We **had been waiting** for her.

Theme: Perfect forms of the English verbs

The perfect verb forms in English express the completion of an action in relation to a specific point in time. They come in four main varieties: Present Perfect, Past Perfect, Future Perfect, and Present Perfect Continuous. Here's a breakdown of each:

Present Perfect (Have/Has + Past Participle):

- Focuses on actions completed at some point before the present moment, with the possibility of the action's impact continuing into the present.
- Examples:
 - I **have eaten** lunch already. (Action completed before the present moment)
 - She **has finished** her work. (Action completed recently)

- They **have never been** to Europe. (Action never completed up to the present)

Past Perfect (Had + Past Participle):

- Describes actions that were completed before another past event.
- Examples:
 - She **had finished** her work by the time I arrived. (Action completed before another past event)
 - We **had been waiting** for hours before the bus finally arrived. (Action started earlier and was completed before another past event)
 - They **will have graduated** by next year. (Action will be completed before a specific point in the future)

Future Perfect (Will Have + Past Participle):

- Indicates actions that will be completed before a specific point in the future.
- Examples:
 - She **will have completed** the project by next week. (Action will be finished before a future time)
 - We **shall have traveled** to Asia by the end of the year. (Action planned to be completed before a future point)
 - They **might have moved** to a new house before you return. (Uncertain completion before a future time)

Present Perfect Continuous (Have/Has Been + Present Participle):

- Emphasizes actions that started in the past, continued for some time, and may still be ongoing or were recently completed.
- Examples:
 - She **has been working** on that project for weeks. (Action started in the past, is ongoing, and may not be finished yet)
 - We **had been waiting** for hours before the bus finally arrived. (Action started earlier and continued for a long time before completion)
 - They **have been living** in that house for ten years by next summer. (Action will have started in the past, continued for a specific duration, and will be ongoing by a future point)

Key Points to Remember:

- The choice of perfect tense depends on the intended meaning and the timeframe you want to emphasize.
- Present Perfect and Present Perfect Continuous can sometimes be used interchangeably, but the continuous form focuses on the duration of the action.
- Perfect tenses can be used with stative verbs (verbs describing states like "know," "believe," or "belong") to indicate a change in state or the duration of that state.

By understanding these perfect verb forms, you can express the nuances of action completion and their relationship to different points in time with more clarity and precision in your writing and speaking.

Theme: The rules of the sequence of tenses.

The sequence of tenses, also known as tense agreement, is a grammatical rule that ensures the tenses of verbs in a sentence (especially those in a main clause and a dependent clause) are logically consistent with the timeframe being described. Here's a breakdown of the main rules:

Basic Rule:

- The tense of the verb in the dependent clause is typically determined by the tense of the verb in the main clause.

Following Cases Apply:

1. Past Tense in the Main Clause:

- If the main clause verb is in the past tense, the verb in the dependent clause will also be in the past tense (or a past perfect tense). This indicates actions completed before or relative to the past action in the main clause.
 - **Examples:**
 - She **said** she **had seen** the movie before. (Main clause: past tense; dependent clause: past perfect - action completed before the main action)
 - We **thought** it **would rain** that day. (Main clause: past tense; dependent clause: conditional - future action relative to the past main action)
 - He **wished** he **knew** the answer. (Main clause: past tense; dependent clause: past tense - emphasizes the ongoing state of not knowing in the past)

2. Present or Future Tense in the Main Clause:

- If the main clause verb is in the present tense or future tense, the verb in the dependent clause can be in various tenses depending on the relationship between the actions being described.
 - **Present Tense:**
 - She **says** she **has seen** the movie before. (Main clause: present tense; dependent clause: present perfect - action completed at some point before the present)
 - We **think** it **will rain** tomorrow. (Main clause: present tense; dependent clause: future - future action)
 - He **wishes** he **knew** the answer. (Main clause: present tense; dependent clause: present tense - emphasizes the ongoing state of not knowing)
 - **Future Tense:**
 - She **will say** she **has seen** the movie before. (Main clause: future tense; dependent clause: present perfect - action completed at some point before the future main action)
 - We **will think** it **will rain** tomorrow. (Main clause and dependent clause: both future - two future actions)
 - He **will wish** he **knew** the answer then. (Main clause: future tense; dependent clause: past tense - emphasizes the state of not knowing at a future point in time)

Exceptions:

- **Universal Truths:** Even with a past tense verb in the main clause, the dependent clause can use the present tense to express universal truths or facts that are always true.
 - Example: She **explained** that the earth **revolves** around the sun. (Main clause: past tense; dependent clause: present tense - stating a scientific fact)
- **Historical Narrative:** The sequence of tenses can be relaxed in historical narratives, where past events are recounted using a variety of tenses to create a more vivid and dynamic flow.

Understanding the sequence of tenses helps you construct grammatically correct sentences that maintain logical coherence regarding the timeframe of the actions being described.

Theme: Formation and the system of forms in the passive voice.

Voice is the grammatical category of the verb denoting the relationship between the action expressed by the verb and the person or non-person denoted by the subject of the sentence. There are two main voices in English: the active voice and the passive voice. There are also other voices which embrace a very limited number of verbs: reflexive (wash oneself), reciprocal (embrace one another), medial (the book reads well). The active voice indicates that the action is directed from the subject or issues from the subject, thus the subject denotes the doer (agent) of the action:

We help our friends. - Мы помогаем нашим друзьям.

The passive voice indicates that the action is directed towards the subject. Here the subject expresses a person or non-person who or which is the receiver of the action. It does not act, but is acted upon and therefore affected by the action of the verb.

We were helped by our friends in our work. В работе нам помогли наши друзья.

The passive voice, a cornerstone of English grammar, allows you to shift the focus of a sentence from the agent performing the action (active voice) to the recipient of the action (passive voice). Here, we'll delve into the formation and system of forms in the passive voice.

Formation:

The passive voice is formed using two key elements:

- **The auxiliary verb "be" (be, am, is, are, was, were, been):** This verb indicates the tense of the sentence.
- **The past participle of the main verb:** This conveys the action being done to the subject.

Basic Structure:

Subject (Recipient of the action) + "be" (auxiliary verb) + Past Participle of the main verb + (Object/Prepositional phrase)

Examples:

- **Active Voice:** The boy **kicked** the ball. (Focus on the agent - the boy)
- **Passive Voice:** The ball **was kicked** by the boy. (Focus on the recipient - the ball)

System of Forms:

The passive voice utilizes the same verb tenses as the active voice, but they are combined with the "be" verb to create different forms. Here's a breakdown of the main passive voice tenses:

- **Present Simple: is/are + Past Participle**
 - Example: The report **is written** every week.
- **Past Simple: was/were + Past Participle**
 - Example: The cake **was baked** yesterday.
- **Future Simple: will be + Past Participle**
 - Example: The meeting **will be held** tomorrow.
- **Present Continuous: is/are being + Past Participle**
 - Example: Dinner **is being cooked** right now.
- **Past Continuous: was/were being + Past Participle**
 - Example: The house **was being cleaned** when we arrived.
- **Future Continuous: will be being + Past Participle**
 - Example: The presentation **will be being delivered** as you arrive.
- **Present Perfect: has/have been + Past Participle**
 - Example: The project **has been completed**.
- **Past Perfect: had been + Past Participle**
 - Example: The work **had been finished** before the deadline.
- **Future Perfect: will have been + Past Participle**
 - Example: The report **will have been submitted** by next week.

Choosing the Passive Voice:

The passive voice is a valuable tool, but it's important to use it strategically. Here are some situations where it might be preferable:

- **Emphasis on the recipient of the action:** When the focus is more on what is being done to something rather than who is doing it.
- **Unknown agent:** When the person or thing performing the action is unknown or unimportant.
- **Formality:** Passive voice can sometimes lend a more formal tone to writing.

However, consider using the active voice when:

- **Clarity and conciseness:** The active voice is often clearer and more concise than the passive voice.
- **Emphasis on the agent:** When it's important to highlight who is performing the action.

Remember: The passive voice offers a different perspective and adds variety to your writing and speaking. By understanding its formation and system of forms, you can effectively choose between the active and passive voice to enhance your communication skills.

Theme: Types of Mood.

The meaning of this category is the attitude of the speaker or writer towards the content of the sentence, whether the speaker considers the action real, unreal, desirable, necessary, etc. It is expressed in the form of the verb. There are three moods in English - the indicative mood, the imperative mood and the subjunctive mood.

The indicative mood. The indicative mood form shows that what is said must be regarded as a fact, as something which has occurred or is occurring at the moment of speaking or will occur in the future. It may denote actions with different time-reference and different aspective characteristics. Therefore, the indicative mood has a wide variety of tense and aspect forms in the active and passive voice.

The imperative mood. The imperative mood expresses a command or a request to perform an action addressed to somebody, but not the action itself. As it does not actually denote an action as a real act, it has no tense category; the unfulfilled action always refers to the future. Aspect distinctions and voice distinctions are not characteristic of the imperative mood, although forms such as, be writing, be warned sometimes occur. The imperative mood form coincides with the plain stem of the verb, for example: Come here! Sit down. The negative form is built by means of the auxiliary do + the negative particle not (the contracted form is don't). This form is always addressed to the second person. eg. Do not take it away.

The subjunctive mood. The subjunctive mood is the category of the verb which is used to express non-facts: unreal or hypothetical actions or states. A hypothetical action or state may be viewed upon as desired, necessary, possible, supposed, imaginary, or contradicting reality. Different forms of the verb are employed for this purpose.

The subjunctive mood and the tense category. The category of tense in the subjunctive mood is different from that in the indicative mood: unlike the indicative mood system in which there are three distinct time-spheres (past, present, future), time-reference in the subjunctive mood is closely connected with the idea of unreality and is based on the following opposition in meaning:

Imagined, but still possible (referring to the present or future indiscriminately)

imagined, no longer possible (referring to the past)

In Modern English the choice of the subjunctive mood form is determined by the structure of the sentence or clause even more than by the attitude of the speaker or writer to what is said or written. There exist strict rules of the use of the forms in different patterns of sentences and clauses.

The use of the subjunctive mood forms in subject clauses in complex sentences of the type It is necessary that you should come. Subject clauses follow the principal clause, which is either formal or has no subject (exclamatory). The predicate of the principal clause expresses some kind of modality, estimate, or some motive for performing the action denoted by the predicate in the subordinate clause. This close connection between the two predicates accounts for the nature of the subordinate clause, which completes, or rather gives meaning to general situation described in the principal clause.

The mood of a verb reveals the speaker's attitude or intention towards the action or state of being expressed in the sentence. Here's a breakdown of the main moods in English grammar:

1. Indicative Mood:

- **Function:** The indicative mood is the most common mood and is used to state facts, express opinions, or ask questions about factual situations. It simply indicates that something is happening, has happened, or will happen.
- **Examples:**
 - She **walks** to school every day. (Stating a fact)
 - I **believe** in honesty. (Expressing an opinion)
 - **Do you** understand? (Asking a question about a fact)

2. Imperative Mood:

- **Function:** The imperative mood is used to express commands, instructions, requests, or suggestions. It tells someone to do something.
- **Examples:**
 - **Close** the door! (Command)
 - **Please be quiet.** (Request)
 - **Why don't you** try again? (Suggestion)

3. Subjunctive Mood:

- **Function:** The subjunctive mood is used in various grammatical constructions to express a hypothetical situation, a wish, a suggestion, or a degree of uncertainty. It doesn't necessarily indicate reality.
- **Examples:**
 - I wish I **were** taller. (Expressing a wish)
 - If I **knew** the answer, I would tell you. (Hypothetical situation)
 - It's important that she **arrive** on time. (Expressing necessity)

Note: The use of the subjunctive mood can be tricky in modern English, and its usage is declining in everyday speech. However, it's still important in formal writing and certain grammatical constructions.

Less Common Moods:

- **Conditional Mood:** This mood expresses a condition or a hypothetical situation. It is often formed by using the indicative mood with "would" or "could" in the main clause.
 - Example: If I **had known** you were coming, I would have baked a cake.
- **Jussive Mood:** This mood expresses a command or request, similar to the imperative mood, but it can also be used to express permission or obligation. It's rarely used in modern English.
- **Optative Mood:** This mood expresses a wish or hope. Similar to the subjunctive mood, it's not as common in everyday English.

Understanding the different moods of verbs allows you to express a wider range of ideas and nuances in your writing and speaking. By choosing the appropriate mood, you can effectively convey your intended meaning and purpose.

Theme: The subjunctive mood and the tense category

The subjunctive mood can be a bit tricky in English, but some uses are quite common and determined by the structure of the sentence itself. Here's a breakdown of structurally determined uses of the subjunctive mood:

1. Subjunctive after Conjunctions:

- Certain conjunctions often trigger the subjunctive mood in the dependent clause to express a wish, suggestion, necessity, or hypothetical situation. These conjunctions include:
 - **That:** Used to express a suggestion, necessity, or an opinion about a future event.
 - Example: It's important **that** she **arrive** on time. (Necessity)
 - Example: I suggest **that** we **postpone** the meeting. (Suggestion)

- **As if/as though:** Used to express a hypothetical situation or an unreal comparison.
 - Example: He acted **as if** he **knew** the answer. (Hypothetical situation)
- **In order that/so that:** Used to express a purpose or desired outcome.
 - Example: We left early **so that** we **wouldn't** miss the train. (Desired outcome)
- **Lest:** Used to express a warning or fear of something happening.
 - Example: Study hard **lest** you fail the exam. (Warning)

2. Subjunctive after Verbs of Wish, Doubt, or Necessity:

- Verbs expressing wishes, doubts, or necessities can also be followed by the subjunctive mood in the dependent clause. These verbs include:
 - Wish: wish, hope, desire, pray
 - Doubt: doubt, question, wonder
 - Necessity: demand, require, insist, need
 - Examples:
 - I **wish** I **knew** the answer. (Wish)
 - I **doubt** he **will** come. (Doubt)
 - We **need** someone who **can speak** French. (Necessity)

3. Subjunctive in Contrary-to-Fact Clauses:

- The subjunctive mood can be used in clauses that express a situation that is contrary to fact, often used with the past tense even though referring to the future.
 - Example: If I **were** you, I **would take** the other job. (Hypothetical situation)

Remember:

- The use of the subjunctive mood, especially in everyday speech, can be flexible. In some cases, the indicative mood might also be used.
- Formal writing tends to use the subjunctive mood more frequently than informal speech.

By understanding these structurally determined uses, you'll gain a better grasp of when and why the subjunctive mood is employed in English grammar.

Theme: Modal verbs and their equivalents.

Modal verbs, unlike other verbs, do not denote actions to states, but only show the attitude of the speaker towards the action expressed by the infinitive in combination with which they form compound modal predicates. Thus, modal verbs may show that the action (or state, or process, or quality) is viewed by the speaker as possible, obligatory, doubtful, certain, permissible, advisable, requested, prohibited, ordered, etc. Modal verbs occur only with the infinitive. This or that meaning is to a great degree determined by the communicative type of the sentence and the form of the infinitive. There are 12 modal verbs in English. They are: can, may, must, should, ought, shall, will, would, need, dare, to be, to have (to have got). The latter two are modal only in one of their meanings.

Modal verbs are a special class of verbs in English that express possibility, ability, permission, obligation, necessity, or deduction **without** indicating tense. They are always followed by a base verb (not the past participle). Here are some common modal verbs and their equivalents:

Modal Verb	Equivalent	Example
can	be able to	She can swim. (She is able to swim.)
could	be able to (past)	I could speak French when I was younger. (I was able to speak French...)
may	be allowed to	May I borrow your pen? (Am I allowed to borrow your pen?)
might	could (possibility)	It might rain today. (It could rain today.)
will	be going to (future prediction)	She will be late. (She is going to be late.)
would	would (habit in the past)	We would go to the beach every summer. (We used to go to the beach...)
shall	(formal) should	Shall we begin? (Should we begin?) (More common in British English)
should	ought to	You should study for your exam. (You ought to study for your exam.)
must	have to	You must finish your homework. (You have to finish your homework.) (Must is stronger than have to)
needn't	don't have to	You needn't come if you don't want to. (You don't have to come...)

Equivalents with nuancé differences:

- **Can vs. Be Able To:** "Can" is generally used for general ability, while "be able to" can emphasize the possibility of doing something under specific circumstances.
 - Example: I **can** speak French. (General ability)
 - Example: I **might be able to** help you if you give me more information. (Ability under specific circumstances)
- **May vs. Might:** "May" indicates a stronger possibility than "might."
 - Example: It **may** rain tomorrow. (More likely)
 - Example: It **might** rain tomorrow. (Less likely)
- **Will vs. Be Going To:** "Will" expresses a general prediction, while "be going to" suggests an intention or plan.
 - Example: The train **will** leave in ten minutes. (General prediction)
 - Example: I **am going to** visit my grandma this weekend. (Intention)
- **Should vs. Ought To:** Both express obligation or recommendation, but "should" is more common and "ought to" is slightly more formal.

Note: These are just some common equivalents, and the best choice may depend on the specific context and nuance you want to convey.

In addition to these modal verbs and their equivalents, there are other ways to express modality in English using verbs and phrases:

- **Helping verbs:** "dare" (expressing boldness), "used to" (habit in the past)
- **Phrases:** be able to, be allowed to, be likely to, have to, need to

By understanding modal verbs and their equivalents, you can enhance the precision and expressiveness of your English communication.

Theme: The infinitive as subject and predicate.

The infinitive is a non-finite form of the verb which names a process in a most general way. As such, it is naturally treated as the initial form of the verb, which represents the verb in dictionaries (much in the same way as the common case singular represents the noun). In all its forms and functions the infinitive has a special marker, the particle *to*. The particle *to* is generally used with the infinitive stem and is so closely connected with it that does not commonly allow any words to be put between itself and the stem.

The infinitive as subject

The infinitive functioning as subject may either precede the predicate or follow it. In the latter case it is introduced by the so-called introductory *it*, which is placed at the beginning of the sentence:

To be good is to be in harmony with oneself.

It's so silly to be fussy and jealous.

The second of these structural patterns is more common than the first, and the subject in this pattern is more accentuated (compare for example: *It's impossible to do it* and *To do it is impossible*). The other difference is that in the second case the sentence can be both declarative and interrogative, while in the first one the sentence can only be declarative.

The infinitive can indeed function as a predicate in a sentence. In this context, the infinitive acts as the main verb of the sentence and expresses the state of being or action in relation to the subject.

Here's a breakdown of how infinitives function as predicates:

1. Subject Complement:

- Infinitives most commonly act as predicates when they follow a linking verb (like "be," "seem," "appear," "become") and complete the subject's description. These infinitives reveal what the subject is, seems to be, or will become.
 - Examples:
 - Her dream is **to become** a writer. (Infinitive clarifies the subject's dream)
 - The best way to learn is **to do**. (Infinitive defines the way)
 - The cake seems **to be ready**. (Infinitive describes the state of the cake)

2. Split Infinitives (Optional):

- In some cases, an adverb can be placed between the "to" and the verb of the infinitive, creating a "split infinitive." While grammatically correct, split infinitives can sometimes sound awkward. It's generally recommended to avoid them for better readability.
 - Example (Awkward split infinitive): We decided **to ultimately** postpone the trip. (Better alternative: We decided **ultimately to** postpone the trip.)

Key Points:

- Infinitives as predicates provide a more concise and formal way to express the subject's state of being or action compared to using a full clause.
- When using infinitives as predicates, ensure they logically connect with the subject and linking verb.

Examples of Infinitives as Predicates in Different Tenses:

- **Present Tense:** Her ambition is **to succeed** in her career.
- **Past Tense:** The plan seemed **to work** perfectly.
- **Future Tense:** My goal is **to graduate** next year.
- **Perfect Tense:** He appears **to have finished** his homework already.

By understanding how infinitives function as predicates, you can enhance your sentence structure and effectively convey the intended meaning.

The infinitive, a non-finite verb form, plays a versatile role in English grammar, functioning beyond simply indicating an action. Here's a breakdown of the various syntactical functions of the infinitive:

1. Verb Complement:

- Infinitives can complete the meaning of certain verbs, often expressing purpose, result, or perception.
 - Examples:
 - I **want** to **travel** the world. (Purpose)
 - Studying hard helped me to **get good grades**. (Result)
 - She seemed to **be enjoying** the movie. (Perception)

2. Modifier:

- Infinitives can function as modifiers in a sentence, providing additional information about nouns, verbs, adjectives, or adverbs.
 - **Adverbial Modifier:** Infinitives can express purpose, reason, manner, or result.
 - Examples:
 - We went there **to see** the museum. (Purpose)
 - She left the room **without saying goodbye**. (Manner)
 - He worked hard **to succeed**. (Reason)
 - **Adjectival Modifier:** Infinitives can modify nouns or pronouns, often expressing purpose or characteristic.
 - Examples: This is a good book **to read**. (Purpose) He has a dream **to become** a doctor. (Characteristic)

3. Noun Clause:

- Infinitives can function as a noun clause, acting as the subject, object, or complement of another verb or preposition.
 - **Subject:**
 - Example: **To learn** is to grow.
 - **Object:**
 - Example: I promised **to help** him.
 - **Complement:**
 - Example: My goal is **to graduate** on time.

4. Absolute Phrase:

- Infinitives can be part of an absolute phrase, which modifies a whole sentence by expressing cause, condition, or time.
 - Example: **The race having been canceled**, we went home. (Cause)

Points to Remember:

- The "to" particle usually precedes the infinitive, but there are some exceptions with specific verbs (e.g., "make," "let," "see").
- Bare infinitives (without "to") can be used after certain verbs (e.g., "help," "hear," "feel").

Understanding these syntactical functions equips you to effectively utilize infinitives in your writing and speaking, adding variety and nuance to your sentence structures.

Theme: The infinitive as an object.

The infinitive can have the function of object after verbs, adjectives, adjectivized participles and statives. After verbs the infinitive may be either the only object of a verb or one of two objects. Verbs that take only one object are: to agree, to arrange, to attempt, to care (to like), to choose, to claim, to consent, to decide, to deserve, to determine, to expect, to fail, to fear, to forget, to hesitate, to hope, to intend, to learn, to like, to long, to love, to manage, to mean, to neglect, to omit, to plan, to prefer, to pretend, to refuse, to regret, to remember, to swear, to tend, etc.

The infinitive, that versatile verb form, can also act as an object within a sentence. In this role, the infinitive receives the action of the main verb. Here's a closer look at how infinitives function as objects:

Following Verbs:

Infinitives typically function as objects following verbs that express:

- **Desire/Wish:** want, desire, wish, hope, crave, yearn
 - Example: I **want to travel** to Europe. (Infinitive receives the action of wanting)
- **Plan/Intention:** intend, plan, aim, expect, propose
 - Example: We **planned to meet** for coffee. (Infinitive receives the action of planning)
- **Necessity/Obligation:** need, require, must, have to, be supposed to
 - Example: She **needs to see** a doctor. (Infinitive receives the action of needing)
- **Perception:** see, hear, feel, watch, observe, notice
 - Example: I **heard him cough**. (Infinitive receives the action of hearing) (**Note:** Bare infinitive - no "to")
- **Permission:** allow, permit, let, enable
 - Example: The teacher **allowed us to use** our phones for research. (Infinitive receives the action of allowing)

Position in the Sentence:

The infinitive object can appear in various positions within the sentence, depending on the verb and sentence structure:

- **After the Verb:** This is the most common placement.

- Example: We decided **to visit** the museum.
- **Separated from the Verb by an Object:** When the verb has a direct object, the infinitive object can follow it.
 - Example: I gave him a book **to read**.
- **Introduced by a Preposition:** Certain verbs require a preposition before the infinitive object.
 - Example: She insisted **on going** with us. (Preposition "on" before infinitive)

Examples with Different Tenses:

- **Present Tense:** They expect **to win** the competition.
- **Past Tense:** We promised **to help** them move.
- **Future Tense:** She hopes **to graduate** with honors.
- **Perfect Tense:** He has decided **to take** a gap year.

Key Points:

- Infinitives as objects provide a more concise way to express the action received by the subject.
- Identifying the main verb and its function helps determine if an infinitive object is appropriate.

By understanding how infinitives function as objects, you can create clear and grammatically sound sentences that effectively convey the relationships between verbs and their actions.

Theme: The infinitive as an attribute.

The English infinitive functioning as an attribute is far more frequent than the Russian infinitive. This is because in Russian the infinitive attribute can combine with abstract nouns only, while in English it is used with a much wider range of words. In this function the infinitive always denotes a not yet fulfilled action, which is regarded as desirable, possible, advisable, necessary, etc. The modal meaning of the infinitive attribute is generally rendered in Russian by modal verbs or expressions, as is shown by the translations below.

The infinitive, a chameleon of verb forms, boasts a remarkable range of syntactical functions in English sentences. Here's a comprehensive recap of its various roles:

1. Verb Complement:

- Infinitives often complete the meaning of certain verbs, expressing purpose, result, or perception.
 - Examples:
 - I **want** to **travel** the world. (Purpose)
 - Studying hard helped me to **get good grades**. (Result)
 - She seemed to **be enjoying** the movie. (Perception)

2. Modifier:

- Infinitives can act as modifiers, providing additional information about various parts of speech.

- **Adverbial Modifier:**
 - They express purpose, reason, manner, or result.
 - Examples:
 - We went there **to see** the museum. (Purpose)
 - She left the room **without saying goodbye**. (Manner)
 - He worked hard **to succeed**. (Reason)
- **Adjectival Modifier:**
 - They modify nouns or pronouns, often expressing purpose or characteristic.
 - Examples:
 - This is a good book **to read**. (Purpose)
 - He has a dream **to become** a doctor. (Characteristic)

3. Noun Clause:

- Infinitives can function as a complete noun clause, acting as the subject, object, or complement of another verb or preposition.
 - **Subject:**
 - Example: **To learn** is to grow.
 - **Object:**
 - Example: I promised **to help** him.
 - **Complement:**
 - Example: My goal is **to graduate** on time.

4. Absolute Phrase:

- Infinitives can be part of an absolute phrase, modifying a whole sentence by expressing cause, condition, or time.
 - Example: **The race having been canceled**, we went home. (Cause)

5. Predicate:

- Infinitives can function as the main verb of the sentence (predicate), especially following linking verbs like "be," "seem," or "become."
 - Examples:
 - Her dream is **to become** a writer. (Defines the subject's dream)
 - The best way to learn is **to do**. (Defines the way)

6. Object:

- Infinitives can act as the object of a verb, receiving the action of the main verb. This is common with verbs expressing desire, plan, necessity, perception, or permission.
 - Examples:
 - **I want to travel** to Europe. (Infinitive receives the action of wanting)
 - We decided **to visit** the museum. (Infinitive receives the action of deciding)

Remember:

- The "to" particle usually precedes the infinitive, with some exceptions (e.g., "make," "let," "see").

- Bare infinitives (without "to") can be used after specific verbs (e.g., "help," "hear," "feel").

By mastering these diverse syntactical functions of the infinitive, you can elevate your writing and speaking, expressing yourself with clarity and precision.

Theme: The infinitive as an adverbial modifier.

The infinitive can be used as an adverbial modifier of: purpose, subsequent events, consequence, attendant circumstances, comparison, condition, exception, time, cause, or motivation. In all these functions but that of the adverbial modifier of exception, a “to”-infinitive is used. As you've already grasped, the infinitive, that flexible verb form, can indeed function as an adverbial modifier in a sentence. In this role, it elaborates on the verb, adjective, or adverb it modifies by providing information about:

- **Purpose:** Why an action is done
- **Reason:** The cause or motivation behind something
- **Manner:** How something is done
- **Result:** The outcome or consequence of an action

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

Placement:

Infinitives as adverbial modifiers can appear in various positions within the sentence, depending on the emphasis you want to create:

- **Following the Verb:** This is the most common placement.
 - Example: She ran **to catch** the bus. (Infinitive modifies "ran" - purpose)
- **Before the Verb:** This placement can add emphasis to the reason or manner.
 - Example: **To be honest**, I wasn't surprised. (Infinitive modifies "wasn't surprised" - reason)
 - **To celebrate**, we went out for dinner. (Infinitive modifies "went" - reason)
- **Split Infinitives (Optional):** An adverb can be inserted between "to" and the verb (e.g., "She bravely decided **to ultimately** confront him"). While grammatically correct, split infinitives can sometimes sound awkward. It's generally better to rephrase the sentence for readability if needed.

Common Verbs Modified by Infinitive Adverbials:

- **Purpose:** agree, attempt, decide, desire, expect, hope, intend, offer, plan, prepare, strive, try, want, wish
- **Reason:** appear, bother, care, dare, forget, happen, hesitate, manage, neglect, refuse, remember, seem, stop, trouble, worry
- **Manner:** begin, continue, hurry, learn, manage, pretend, proceed, seem, start
- **Result:** cause, force, help, lead, make, manage

Examples:

- **Purpose:** We studied hard **to pass** the exam. (Infinitive modifies "studied")

- **Reason: Knowing** the risks, he decided to proceed. (Infinitive modifies "decided" - reason)
- **Manner:** She spoke softly **to avoid waking** the baby. (Infinitive modifies "spoke" - manner)
- **Result:** His hard work helped him **to achieve** his goals. (Infinitive modifies "helped" - result)

Key Points:

- Infinitive adverbials provide a concise way to express purpose, reason, manner, or result.
- Identifying the verb, adjective, or adverb being modified helps determine if an infinitive adverbial is suitable.

By understanding how infinitives function as adverbial modifiers, you can enhance the clarity and flow of your sentences, adding valuable details about the actions, states of being, or qualities you describe.

Theme: The grammatical categories of the gerund.

The gerund is a non-finite form of the verb with some noun features. It is formed by adding the suffix -ing to the stem of the verb. The grammatical meaning of the gerund is that of a process. Thus, to some extent it competes with nouns of verbal origin, e.g. translating -translation, describing - description, arriving - arrival, perceiving - perception, helping - help. Nouns, however, tend to convey the fact or the result of an action, which in certain circumstances may be something material, whereas gerunds convey the idea of action or process itself. Show me your translation: it is neatly done, and there, are no mistakes in it. You will enrich your vocabulary by translating from English into Russian and vice versa.

The gerund, often confused with the present participle, occupies a unique space in English grammar. While it shares the "-ing" form with the present participle, it functions as a noun within a sentence. Here's a breakdown of the grammatical categories of the gerund:

Functioning as a Noun:

The core aspect of a gerund is its ability to act as a noun. It can take on various noun roles in a sentence:

- **Subject:** Swimming is a great way to exercise. (Gerund is the subject)
- **Direct Object:** I enjoy reading books. (Gerund is the direct object)
- **Indirect Object:** She gave helping others her top priority. (Gerund is the indirect object)
- **Object of a Preposition:** He insisted on winning the competition. (Gerund is the object of the preposition "on")
- **Subject Complement:** My goal is graduating with honors. (Gerund acts as a complement, renaming the subject "goal")

Key Differentiators from the Present Participle:

- **Function:** While the present participle acts as an adjective (modifying a noun or pronoun) or part of a verb tense (continuous tenses), the gerund always functions as a noun.
- **Article Usage:** Gerunds can often be preceded by articles ("a," "an," "the") or possessive nouns, which wouldn't be the case with a present participle modifying a noun.

Examples:

- **Present Participle (modifying a noun):** The **running** child tripped. (Modifies "child")
- **Gerund (Subject):** **Running** is a healthy activity. (Functions as the subject)
- **Present Participle (continuous tense):** She is **dancing** in the living room. (Part of the present continuous tense)
- **Gerund (Object of Preposition):** I'm looking forward to **traveling** to Europe. (Functions as the object of "to")

Understanding these distinctions is crucial for using gerunds correctly in your writing and speaking.

Additional Notes:

- Some verbs require a gerund after them, such as "admit," "avoid," "consider," "deny," "enjoy," "fancy," "finish," "imagine," "mind," "practice," "quit," "recommend," "risk," "suggest," and "try."
- Gerunds can have possessive noun modifiers: Studying **your notes** will help you prepare for the exam.

By mastering the grammatical categories of the gerund, you can add variety and precision to your sentences, effectively expressing actions or states of being as nouns.

Theme: Syntactical Functions of the Gerund.

The gerund, that versatile verbal noun, can indeed function in various grammatical roles within a sentence. Here's a breakdown of how the gerund acts as an object, an attribute, and an adverbial modifier:

1. Gerund as an Object:

- Similar to the infinitive, the gerund can function as the object of a verb. This is especially common with verbs that express:
 - **Beginning/Continuing:** begin, start, keep (on), continue
 - Example: We **began collecting** seashells on our vacation.
 - **Liking/Disliking:** enjoy, adore, hate, detest, love, prefer
 - Example: She **enjoys reading** mystery novels.
 - **Considering/Suggesting:** consider, contemplate, propose, recommend, suggest
 - Example: I **suggest talking** to your manager about it.
 - **Finishing/Stopping:** finish, stop, quit, avoid, deny
 - Example: He **finished painting** the house before sunset.
- **Position:** The gerund object typically follows the verb but can sometimes appear in passive voice constructions.

2. Gerund as an Attribute:

- Unlike the infinitive, which rarely functions as an attribute, the gerund can act as an attribute, modifying a noun or pronoun. However, it requires a preposition, most commonly "of."
 - Example: The idea **of winning** the competition excited him. (Gerund modifies "idea")
 - Her passion **for reading** is contagious. (Gerund modifies "passion")

3. Gerund as an Adverbial Modifier:

- The gerund can also function as an adverbial modifier, providing information about the verb, adjective, or adverb it modifies. Similar to the gerund as an attribute, it's usually preceded by a preposition.
 - **Reason:** Prepositions like "because of," "due to," "thanks to" can introduce gerunds expressing the reason.
 - Example: **Because of studying** hard, she got straight A's. (Gerund modifies "got" - reason)
 - **Manner:** Prepositions like "without" or "by" can introduce gerunds expressing manner.
 - Example: She solved the puzzle **by thinking** outside the box. (Gerund modifies "solved" - manner)
 - **Time:** Prepositions like "after," "before," "since," or "until" can introduce gerunds expressing time.
 - Example: **After finishing** work, I went for a walk. (Gerund modifies "went" - time)

Key Points:

- Recognizing the main verb and its function helps determine if a gerund object is suitable.
- The preposition "of" is almost always necessary for the gerund to act as an attribute.
- Identifying the verb, adjective, or adverb being modified helps determine if a gerund adverbial modifier is appropriate and what preposition to use.

By understanding these various functions of the gerund, you can enhance the structure and clarity of your sentences, effectively expressing actions or states of being in different grammatical contexts.

Theme: The Participle. Present Participle.

The participle is a non-finite form of the verb. There are two forms of the participle - participle I and participle II. Participle I is a non-finite form of the verb with some adjectival and adverbial features. It is formed by adding the suffix -ing to the stem of the verb. The verbal character of participle I is manifested morphologically in the categories of voice and perfect and syntactically in its combinability.

The present participle, often confused with the gerund due to its "-ing" form, plays a vital role in English grammar. Unlike the gerund, which functions as a noun, the present participle can act in two key grammatical categories:

1. Verb Tense:

- The present participle is a crucial component of continuous tenses in English. These tenses express ongoing or in-progress actions.
 - **Formation:** The present participle is formed by adding "-ing" to the base verb (for regular verbs) or following specific rules for irregular verbs.
 - **Examples:**
 - She is **walking** the dog. (Present continuous)
 - We were **playing** games all afternoon. (Past continuous)

- They will be **traveling** to Asia next summer. (Future continuous)

2. Adjective:

- The present participle can also function as an adjective, modifying nouns or pronouns to describe a characteristic or state of being.
 - **Position:** Present participles as adjectives typically appear before the noun or pronoun they modify.
 - **Examples:**
 - The **bubbling** pot of soup was ready to serve. (Modifies "soup")
 - The **smiling** children greeted their friends. (Modifies "children")

Key Differentiators from the Gerund:

- **Function:** The primary distinction lies in their grammatical function. Present participles act as verbs (in continuous tenses) or adjectives, while gerunds always function as nouns.
- **Article Usage:** Present participles modifying nouns generally don't have articles ("a," "an," "the") preceding them, unlike gerunds which can be preceded by articles.

Examples:

- **Present Participle (adjective):** The **sleeping** baby looked peaceful. (Modifies "baby")
- **Gerund (object of preposition):** I went for a walk **during** the **sleeping** baby's nap. (Gerund "sleeping" modifies "nap" as an object of "during")

Additional Notes:

- Present participles can sometimes act as a phrase (participial phrase) modifying a noun or pronoun.
 - Example: **Confused by the instructions**, she called for help. (Participial phrase modifies "she")
- Be cautious of dangling participles, which occur when a present participle phrase misplaces the intended modifier.

By understanding the grammatical categories of the present participle, you can ensure your sentences are clear and grammatically sound. You can effectively express ongoing actions or use them to describe the characteristics of nouns and pronouns.

Theme: Syntactical functions of Participle I.

The present participle, that versatile verb form ending in "-ing," boasts two main syntactical functions in English sentences:

1. Verb Tense:

- The present participle is essential for forming continuous tenses. These tenses depict ongoing actions or states of being at a specific time.
 - **Formation:** The present participle is formed by adding "-ing" to the base verb (regular verbs) or following specific rules for irregular verbs.
 - **Examples:**

- She **is walking** the dog right now. (Present continuous)
- We **were playing** games all afternoon yesterday. (Past continuous)
- They **will be traveling** to Asia next summer. (Future continuous)

2. Adjective:

- Present participles can also function as adjectives, modifying nouns or pronouns to describe a characteristic or state of being.
 - **Position:** Present participles as adjectives typically appear before the noun or pronoun they modify.
 - **Examples:**
 - The **bubbling** pot of soup was ready to serve. (Modifies "soup")
 - The **exhausted** runners reached the finish line. (Modifies "runners")

Additional Syntactical Roles (Less Common):

- **Absolute Phrases:** In rare instances, present participles can be part of absolute phrases that modify the entire sentence, often expressing cause or condition.
 - Example: **The race having been canceled**, we went home. (Absolute phrase)

Key Points:

- **Verb vs. Adjective:** The core distinction lies in its function. When part of a continuous tense, it acts as a verb. When modifying a noun or pronoun, it acts as an adjective.
- **Article Usage:** Present participles modifying nouns generally don't have articles ("a," "an," "the") preceding them, but gerunds (nouns formed with "-ing") can.

Understanding these functions equips you to effectively use the present participle in various ways:

- **Express Ongoing Actions:** Clearly depict actions that are happening at a specific time or over a period.
- **Describe Nouns and Pronouns:** Provide vivid details about the characteristics or states of nouns and pronouns.
- **(Rarely) Modify Sentences:** In absolute phrases, offer contextual information about the situation.

By mastering the present participle's syntactical functions, you can enhance the flow and clarity of your writing and speaking.

Participle I, also known as the present participle, can indeed function in three key syntactical roles within sentences: predicative, attribute, and adverbial modifier. Here's a breakdown of how Participle I fulfills these roles:

1. Predicative (Less Common):

- Participle I can act as a predicative element, but this is less frequent compared to linking verbs using the past participle (Participle II). It usually follows linking verbs like "be," "seem," or "appear" to describe a temporary state of being for the subject.
 - Example: The soup is **boiling** (Participle I describes the state of the soup)

2. Attribute:

- This is a more common role for Participle I. It functions as an adjective, modifying a noun or pronoun to describe an ongoing action, characteristic, or state of being.
 - Position: Participle I attributes typically appear before the noun or pronoun they modify.
 - Examples:
 - The **laughing** children played in the park. (Modifies "children")
 - The **smoking** chimney indicated someone was home. (Modifies "chimney")

3. Adverbial Modifier:

- Participle I can also act as an adverbial modifier, providing additional information about the verb, adjective, or adverb it modifies. It elaborates on:
 - **Reason:** Why an action is done (often with prepositions like "because of" or "due to")
 - Example: **Feeling tired**, I decided to go to bed. (Reason for going to bed)
 - **Manner:** How something is done (often with prepositions like "with" or "by")
 - Example: She solved the puzzle **by thinking carefully**. (Manner of solving)
 - **Time:** When something happens (often with prepositions like "after" or "before")
 - Example: **Finishing work**, I went for a walk. (Time of going for a walk)

Key Points:

- **Distinguishing Predicative vs. Attribute:** Consider the role of the verb. If it links the subject to a description (state of being), it's predicative. If it modifies the noun or pronoun directly, it's an attribute.
- **Verb vs. Adjective:** Similar to the distinction between gerunds and participles, the core function determines the role. When describing an ongoing action or state related to the subject (verb), it's a predicative or adverbial modifier. When directly modifying a noun or pronoun (adjective), it's an attribute.

Examples:

- **Predicative:** The flowers **seemed blooming** earlier this year. (Participle I describes a temporary state)
- **Attribute:** The **bloomed** flowers filled the garden with color. (Participle I modifies "flowers" as an adjective)
- **Adverbial Modifier (Reason):** **Worried about the exam**, I studied all night. (Reason for studying)

By understanding these syntactical functions of Participle I, you can elevate the richness and nuance of your sentences, effectively describing ongoing actions, states of being, and how they relate to other elements in the sentence.

Theme: Past Participle

Participle II is a non-finite form of the verb with verbal and adjectival features. Participle II stands apart from the other non-finites in that it does not possess their morphological categories. Nevertheless, being a verb form, it possesses the potential verbal meaning of voice, aspect and correlation, which depend upon the meaning of the verb it is formed from and which are realized in the context. The main meanings of participle II are those of a state as a result of some action or an action itself. One of the most essential characteristics of participle II is that when it is used as part of the sentence, participle II of a transitive verb is passive in meaning, participle II of an intransitive verb is active.

The past participle, also known as Participle II, is a verb form that typically indicates a completed action or state of being. It plays a vital role in various grammatical constructions in English. Here's a closer look at its functions:

1. Perfect Tenses:

- The past participle is essential for forming perfect tenses. These tenses express actions that have been completed at a specific time in the past (past perfect), are completed but relevant to the present (present perfect), or will be completed in the future (future perfect).
 - Formation: The past participle is formed by adding "-ed" to regular verbs, following irregular verb conjugation rules for others, or using the auxiliary verb "been" with the past participle of the main verb (for verbs with "be" as the present participle).
 - Examples:
 - I **have cooked** dinner. (Present perfect)
 - We **had eaten** lunch by noon. (Past perfect)
 - They **will have finished** the project by tomorrow. (Future perfect)

2. Passive Voice:

- The past participle is the cornerstone of the passive voice construction. It indicates that the subject undergoes the action of the verb rather than performing it.
 - Formation: The passive voice is formed with the auxiliary verb "be" (past tense conjugation) and the past participle of the main verb.
 - Example: The cake **was baked** by my grandmother. (Past passive voice)

3. Adjective:

- Similar to the present participle, the past participle can also function as an adjective, modifying nouns or pronouns to describe the result of a completed action or the state of being caused by that action.
 - Position: Past participles as adjectives typically appear before the noun or pronoun they modify.
 - Examples:
 - The **broken** window needed to be repaired. (Modifies "window")
 - The **tired** children went to bed early. (Modifies "children")

4. Other Uses (Less Common):

- In rare cases, past participles can be part of absolute phrases, similar to the present participle.

- Past participles can also be used in certain phrasal verbs where their meaning takes on a special nuance.

Key Points:

- The past participle indicates completion of an action or resulting state.
- It's crucial for forming perfect tenses and passive voice constructions.
- When used as an adjective, it describes the outcome or state caused by a verb.

Understanding these functions allows you to:

- Express the timing and completion of actions with perfect tenses.
- Clearly indicate the receiver of an action in passive voice constructions.
- Describe the state of a noun or pronoun resulting from a past action.

By mastering the past participle, you can enhance the variety and accuracy of your writing and speaking.

Theme: Syntactical functions of participle II.

Participle II, also known as the past participle, wears many hats in the world of grammar! While it's essential for perfect tenses and passive voice, it can also function in three key syntactical roles within sentences: attribute, predicative, and adverbial modifier. Here's a breakdown of how Participle II accomplishes these tasks:

1. Attribute:

- This is a common role for Participle II. It acts as an adjective, modifying a noun or pronoun to describe the result of a completed action or the state caused by that action.
 - Position: Participle II attributes typically appear before the noun or pronoun they modify.
 - Examples:
 - The **closed** door left the room silent. (Modifies "door")
 - She looked **exhausted** after the long hike. (Modifies "she")

2. Predicative (More Common than Participle I):

- Unlike Participle I, Participle II is more frequently used as a predicative element, following linking verbs like "be," "seem," or "appear" to describe a resulting state of being for the subject.
 - Example: The leaves were **blown** across the yard by the wind. (Participle II describes the state of the leaves)

3. Adverbial Modifier (Less Common):

- Participle II can also act as an adverbial modifier, providing information about the verb, adjective, or adverb it modifies. However, this usage is less common compared to Participle I. It elaborates on:
 - **Cause:** Why an action is done (often with prepositions like "because of" or "due to")
 - Example: **Surprised by the news**, I dropped my phone. (Cause for dropping phone)

- **Manner:** How something is done (often with prepositions like "with" or "by")
 - Example: The door swung open **unlocked**. (Manner of the door opening)
 ***(Note: This usage is less preferred and can sound awkward in some cases. A different sentence structure might be clearer) **

Key Points:

- **Distinguishing Predicative vs. Attribute:** Consider the role of the verb. If it links the subject to a resulting state of being, it's predicative. If it modifies the noun or pronoun directly describing the result, it's an attribute.
- **Frequency of Use:** Participle II is more commonly used as a predicative element compared to Participle I.
- **Adverbial Modifier:** This usage is less frequent and can sometimes sound awkward. Consider rephrasing the sentence for better clarity if needed.

Examples:

- **Attribute:** The **written** report was submitted on time. (Participle II modifies "report")
- **Predicative:** The door **was locked** when I arrived. (Participle II describes the state of the door)
- **Adverbial Modifier (Cause):** **Confronted with the evidence**, he confessed. (Participle II modifies "confessed")

By understanding these diverse functions of Participle II, you can effectively use it to describe the outcomes and states resulting from actions, enriching the depth and detail of your sentences.

Theme: Semantic characteristics of Noun

Nouns, the building blocks of subjects and objects in sentences, come with a variety of semantic characteristics that define their meaning and function. Here's a breakdown of some key features:

1. Reference:

- Nouns primarily function by referring to people, places, things, ideas, or substances. They act as names or labels for these entities within a sentence.
 - Examples:
 - **Boy** (Person), **France** (Place), **Book** (Thing), **Freedom** (Idea), **Water** (Substance)

2. Countability:

- Nouns can be classified based on whether they refer to countable or uncountable entities.
 - **Countable Nouns:** These represent things that can be individuated and counted using numbers (singular or plural forms).
 - Examples: cat, apple, house, people (can be one cat, two apples, etc.)
 - **Uncountable Nouns:** These represent substances, qualities, or concepts that cannot be easily divided into individual units and typically lack a plural form.
 - Examples: water, sugar, happiness, air (cannot be two waters, etc.)

3. Proper Nouns vs. Common Nouns:

- Nouns can be further categorized based on their specificity.
 - **Proper Nouns:** These refer to unique entities and are always capitalized.
 - Examples: Michael, London, Google, Monday (Names of specific people, places, companies, days)
 - **Common Nouns:** These refer to general categories of people, places, things, ideas, or substances and are not capitalized (unless at the beginning of a sentence).
 - Examples: doctor, city, table, love, knowledge (General categories)

4. Concreteness:

- Nouns can be distinguished by their level of concreteness.
 - **Concrete Nouns:** These refer to tangible things that can be perceived by the senses (sight, touch, taste, smell, hearing).
 - Examples: chair, flower, music, rain (Can be physically experienced)
 - **Abstract Nouns:** These refer to intangible ideas, concepts, or qualities that cannot be directly perceived by the senses.
 - Examples: freedom, democracy, honesty, time (Concepts or qualities)

5. Animacy:

- Nouns can also be classified based on whether they refer to animate beings (living things) or inanimate objects (non-living things).
 - **Animate Nouns:** These refer to living things.
 - Examples: dog, teacher, student, bacteria (Living things)
 - **Inanimate Nouns:** These refer to non-living things.
 - Examples: rock, table, book, cloud (Non-living things)

Understanding these semantic characteristics equips you to analyze the meaning and function of nouns within sentences. They play a crucial role in conveying the who, what, when, and where of your communication.

Theme: Morphological composition of Noun

The noun denotes thingness in a general sense. Thus nouns name things (book, table), living beings (man, tiger), places (valley, London, England), materials (iron, oil), processes (life, laughter), states (sleep, consciousness), abstract notions (socialism, joy) and qualities (kindness, courage). Semantically all nouns fall into proper nouns and common nouns. According to their morphological composition nouns can be divided into simple, derived, and compound. Simple nouns consist of only one root-morpheme: dog, chair, room, roof, leaf. Derived nouns (derivatives) are composed of one root-morpheme and one or more derivational morphemes (prefixes or suffixes). The main noun-forming suffixes are those forming abstract nouns and those forming concrete, personal nouns.

The categories of number, case, and person are all grammatical features that apply to specific parts of speech in a language, and they help define the relationship between words within a sentence. Here's a breakdown of each category:

1. Number:

- Number refers to whether a noun or pronoun is singular (referring to one) or plural (referring to more than one).
 - **Nouns:** Most nouns have singular and plural forms, often indicated by adding "-s" or "-es" to the singular form (e.g., book -> books, church -> churches). However, there are exceptions like irregular plurals (foot -> feet, tooth -> teeth) and collective nouns (e.g., team, family, which can be singular or plural depending on the context).
 - **Pronouns:** Pronouns also have singular and plural forms (e.g., I -> we, he -> they).

2. Case:

- Case applies primarily to nouns and pronouns and indicates their grammatical function within a sentence. Different languages have varying case systems, but here are some common cases found in English:
 - **Nominative Case:** The subject of a sentence (e.g., **She** runs.)
 - **Accusative Case:** The direct object of a verb (e.g., I saw **her**.)
 - **Genitive Case:** Indicates possession (e.g., The book **of hers** that I borrowed.)
 - **Dative Case:** The indirect object of a verb or preposition (e.g., I gave the book **to her**.) ******(Note: Dative case is less distinct in modern English compared to other cases) ******

3. Person:

- Person is a category that applies primarily to pronouns and indicates the speaker (first person), addressee (second person), or someone/something else being spoken about (third person).
 - **First Person:** Pronouns referring to the speaker (e.g., I, me, we, us)
 - **Second Person:** Pronouns referring to the listener (e.g., you, your)
 - **Third Person:** Pronouns referring to someone or something else (e.g., he, she, it, they, them, someone, something)

Here's a table summarizing these categories:

Category	Applies to	Description	Example
Number	Nouns, Pronouns	Singular (one) or Plural (more than one)	The cat (singular), The cats (plural)
Case	Nouns, Pronouns	Grammatical function within a sentence	She (nominative - subject), Her (accusative - object)
Person	Pronouns	Speaker (1st), Listener (2nd), Someone/Something Else (3rd)	I (1st person), You (2nd person), They (3rd person)

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Understanding these categories is essential for proper sentence structure and clarity. By using the correct number, case, and person for your nouns and pronouns, you ensure your message is grammatically sound and effectively conveys the intended meaning.

Theme: The Article.

The article is a form word that serves as a noun determiner. It is one of the main means of conveying the idea of definiteness and indefiniteness. There are two articles in English: the definite article the [ði:] and the indefinite article a [ei]. **D e f i n i t e n e s s** suggests that the object presented by the following noun is individualized and singled out from all the other objects of the same kind, whereas **i n d e f i n i t e n e s s** means a more general reference to an object. Thus when saying *The book is a historical novel* or *The boy has a dog* or *The telephone is out of order*, the speaker treats the objects book, boy, telephone as specific objects, while saying *a dog*, *a historical novel* the speaker characterizes the objects in a more general way, pointing out what kind of novel the book is and what kind of pet animal the boy has.

The definite and indefinite articles, also known as a/an and the, are essential tools for indicating specificity in your writing and speaking. Here's a breakdown of their functions:

Definite Article (the):

- The definite article "the" is used to refer to specific or clearly identified nouns.
 - **Unique Entities:** When referring to one-of-a-kind things or entities.
 - Example: **The** sun is shining brightly today. (There's only one sun)
 - **Previously Mentioned Nouns:** When referring to something already mentioned in the conversation.
 - Example: I saw a dog at the park. **The** dog was playing fetch.
 - **General Nouns with Context:** When referring to something general, but the context makes it clear which specific one is meant.
 - Example: Let's go to **the** park. (Assuming there's a familiar park being discussed)

Indefinite Articles (a/an):

- The indefinite articles "a" and "an" are used to introduce nouns that are nonspecific or mentioned for the first time.
 - **Singular Countable Nouns:** When referring to any one member of a category that is not specific.
 - Example: I would like **a** cup of coffee. (Any cup of coffee)
 - **Unfamiliar or Unspecified Nouns:** When introducing a noun for the first time without specifying which one.
 - Example: I saw **an** interesting bird in my garden. (Any interesting bird)
- **Choosing Between "a" and "an":**
 - Use "a" before words with a consonant sound (including the sounds of y at the beginning of a word).
 - Example: **a** book, **a** house, **a** yellow car
 - Use "an" before words with a vowel sound (including silent h).
 - Example: **an** apple, **an** honor, **an** hour

Key Points:

- The definite article indicates a specific noun, while the indefinite articles introduce nonspecific nouns.
- Context plays a role in how "the" is used with general nouns.
- The choice between "a" and "an" depends on the sound that follows the article.

By mastering these definite and indefinite articles, you can enhance the clarity and precision of your communication. You can effectively signal whether you're referring to something specific or introducing a new concept for the first time.

Theme: The Adjective. Semantic characteristics. Morphological composition.

According to their way of nomination adjectives fall into two groups - qualitative and relative. **Q u a l i t a t i v e** adjectives denote properties of a substance directly (great, cold, beautiful, etc.). **R e l a t i v e** adjectives describe properties of a substance through relation to materials (woollen, wooden, feathery, leathern, flaxen), to place (Northern, European, Bulgarian, Italian), to time (daily, monthly, weekly, yearly), to some action (defensive, rotatory, preparatory), or to relationship (fatherly, friendly). Qualitative adjectives in their turn may be differentiated according to their meaning into descriptive, denoting a quality in a broad sense (wonderful, light, cold, etc.) and limiting, denoting a specific category, a part of a whole, a sequence of order, a number (the previous page, an equestrian statue, medical aid, the left hand). Limiting adjectives single out the object or substance, impart a concrete or unique meaning to it, specify it, and therefore can seldom be replaced by other adjectives of similar meaning.

The adjective, a versatile part of speech, breathes life into our sentences by describing nouns and pronouns. But adjectives have more to offer than just beautification. Let's delve into their semantic characteristics and morphological composition to understand their true power.

Semantic Characteristics: Unveiling the Meaning

Adjectives paint a picture with words, adding details and nuances to the things we talk about. Here's a breakdown of their key semantic features:

- **Quality:** This is the most common type of adjective, describing the inherent properties or characteristics of a noun or pronoun.
 - Examples: **beautiful** flower, **tall** tree, **intelligent** student
- **State:** These adjectives describe a temporary condition or state of being.
 - Examples: **tired** runner, **hungry** child, **open** window
- **Size and Quantity:** These adjectives specify the size or amount of something.
 - Examples: **large** house, **small** cup, **few** remaining cookies
- **Origin:** These adjectives indicate where something comes from.
 - Examples: **French** bread, **Chinese** characters, **American** flag
- **Material:** These adjectives specify the material something is made of.
 - Examples: **wooden** table, **silk** scarf, **gold** jewelry

Morphological Composition: Building Blocks of the Adjective

Now, let's explore how adjectives are formed:

- **Simple Adjectives:** These are single words with inherent meaning.
 - Examples: happy, blue, interesting
- **Derived Adjectives:** These are formed from other words (nouns, verbs, adverbs) using suffixes like "-ful," "-able," "-ish," "-less," etc.
 - Examples: hopeful (from hope), lovable (from love), greenish (from green), homeless (from home)

- **Compound Adjectives:** These are formed by joining two or more words with a hyphen or acting as a single unit.
 - Examples: well-dressed, brand-new, bittersweet (hyphenated)
 - Examples: darkroom, handmade, highschool (single unit)

Understanding these characteristics empowers you to:

- Choose the most precise adjectives to paint vivid descriptions.
- Create new adjectives using derivational morphology to expand your vocabulary.
- Recognize and use compound adjectives effectively in your writing and speaking.

By mastering the semantic and morphological aspects of adjectives, you can transform your communication from basic to captivating, effectively conveying the essence of what you want to describe.

Theme: Syntactic functions of Adjectives

The adjective, our descriptive friend in the world of grammar, boasts two key syntactic functions within sentences:

1. Attribute:

- This is the most common role for adjectives. In this function, adjectives act as modifiers, directly describing nouns or pronouns.
- Position: Attributive adjectives typically appear before the noun or pronoun they modify.
- Examples:
 - The **red** car is parked outside. (Modifies "car")
 - She wore a **beautiful** dress. (Modifies "dress")

2. Predicative:

- Less frequent than attributive adjectives, predicatives follow linking verbs (like "be," "seem," "appear," etc.) to describe the subject. They rename or redefine the subject rather than simply modifying it.
- Examples:
 - The car is **red** (referring to color). (**Red** describes the state of being of the car)
 - The dress looks **beautiful** on you. (**Beautiful** describes how the dress appears)

Additional Syntactic Roles (Less Common):

- **Postpositive Adjectives:** In rare cases, adjectives can follow the noun they modify, separated by a preposition (usually "of").
 - Example: That was a sight **of wonder**. (**Wonder** modifies "sight")

Key Points to Remember:

- The core function determines the role: An adjective modifying a noun or pronoun directly is attributive, while one following a linking verb to describe the subject is predicative.
- Articles (a, an, the) typically come before attributive adjectives.

By understanding these syntactic functions, you can effectively use adjectives to:

- Add richness and detail to your descriptions.
- Create vivid imagery for your readers.
- Precisely convey the characteristics and states of nouns and pronouns in your sentences.

Substantivized adjectives are a grammatical phenomenon where adjectives shed their descriptive role and take on the function of nouns. They act as stand-ins for the noun they would typically modify. Here's a closer look at how substantivized adjectives work:

Form and Function:

- Substantivized adjectives can be formed in a few ways:
 - Used alone, without a following noun.
 - Example: "I prefer **the healthy** (ones)" (referring to healthy people).
 - Preceded by the definite article "the." This is the most common way.
 - Example: "They helped **the poor**" (referring to poor people).
- They can be singular or plural, depending on the context.
- They can function in various ways that nouns typically do:
 - Subjects: **The wealthy** control a large share of resources.
 - Objects: The teacher praised **the diligent**.
 - Appositives: My favorite color is **blue**. (Blue acts as an appositive to "color")

Types of Substantivized Adjectives:

- **General Classifications:** These refer to a class of people with a shared characteristic.
 - Example: Helping **the sick** is a noble act. (Refers to people who are sick)
- **Abstract Concepts:** These represent abstract ideas or qualities.
 - Example: Honesty is always the best policy. ("Honesty" represents the abstract concept)

Why Use Substantivized Adjectives?

- **Conciseness:** They can create a more concise sentence by avoiding repetition of the noun.
- **Emphasis:** They can draw attention to a specific quality or characteristic.
- **Generalization:** They can refer to a group of people with a shared trait.

Points to Consider:

- Not all adjectives can be easily substantivized. It depends on the adjective and the context.
- Substantivized adjectives formed without the definite article ("the") are less common and can sound awkward in some cases.

Examples:

- **With definite article:** We provided shelter for **the homeless**. (Refers to people who are homeless)
- **Without definite article (informal):** Help a friend in need, help **elderly**. (**Elderly** can sound informal without "the")

By understanding substantivized adjectives, you can expand your vocabulary and sentence structures. They offer a concise and impactful way to express ideas, especially when referring to groups of people or abstract concepts.

Theme: The Pronoun. Morphological composition and categorical characteristics

Pronouns are deictic words which point to objects, their properties and relations, their local or temporal reference, or placement without naming them. They constitute a limited class of words (that is a closed system) with numerous subclasses. They are generally differentiated into noun-pronouns (substituting nouns) and adjective-pronouns (substituting adjectives). Pronouns may be of different structure: simple, compound, and composite. Simple pronouns comprise only one morpheme - the stem: I, you, he, we, etc.; this, that, some, who, all, one, etc. Compound pronouns comprise more than one stem: myself, themselves, somebody, everybody, anything, nothing, etc. Composite pronouns have the form of a phrase: each other, one another.

Pronouns, those versatile workhorses of grammar, stand in for nouns, avoiding repetition and ensuring smooth sentence flow. Let's delve into their morphological composition (how they're formed) and categorical characteristics (different pronoun types).

Morphological Composition: Building Blocks of Pronouns

Unlike nouns that can be single words or multi-word phrases, pronouns are typically single words with inherent meaning. However, there are a few exceptions:

- **Reflexive Pronouns:** These combine a pronoun and the suffix "-self" or "-selves" (myself, ourselves, herself, etc.).
- **Demonstrative Pronouns:** While "this," "that," "these," and "those" are typically single words, they can be combined with "here" or "there" (e.g., "right here," "over there").

Categorical Characteristics: A Pronoun's Many Faces

Pronouns come in various flavors, each suited for a specific grammatical role:

1. **Personal Pronouns:** These refer to specific people or things involved in the conversation.
 - Subcategories:
 - **Subject Pronouns:** Perform the action of the verb (I, you, he, she, it, we, they)
 - **Object Pronouns:** Receive the action of the verb (me, you, him, her, it, us, them)
 - **Possessive Pronouns:** Indicate ownership (mine, yours, his, hers, its, ours, theirs)
 - **Reflexive Pronouns:** Refer back to the subject (myself, yourself, herself, himself, itself, ourselves, yourselves, themselves)
2. **Demonstrative Pronouns:** These point to specific things, both near and far.
 - Examples: this, that, these, those, such
3. **Interrogative Pronouns:** These introduce questions.
 - Examples: who, what, which, whom, whose
4. **Indefinite Pronouns:** These refer to nonspecific people or things.

- Examples: some, any, one, everyone, nobody, few, many, all, each, other, another
- 5. **Relative Pronouns:** These connect clauses and refer back to a noun or pronoun mentioned earlier.
 - Examples: who, which, that, whose

Key Points to Remember:

- Pronouns change form depending on their grammatical function (subject, object, possessive, etc.).
- The specific pronoun chosen depends on the context and the noun or pronoun it replaces.

By understanding these morphological and categorical characteristics, you can:

- Choose the correct pronoun for the situation.
- Avoid noun repetition and make your sentences flow more smoothly.
- Express a wider range of ideas and questions effectively.

Mastering pronouns empowers you to navigate the complexities of grammar and communicate with clarity and precision.

Pronouns, the handy substitutes for nouns, come in a variety of subtypes, each with a specific function within a sentence. Here's a breakdown of the most common pronoun subclasses and their roles:

1. Personal Pronouns: The workhorses of the pronoun world, referring to specific people or things involved in the conversation.

- **Subcategories:**
 - **Subject Pronouns:** Perform the action of the verb (I, you, he, she, it, we, they). They act as the doers in a sentence.
 - Example: **She** arrived early.
 - **Object Pronouns:** Receive the action of the verb (me, you, him, her, it, us, them). They are the receivers of the action.
 - Example: The teacher called **him** to answer the question.
 - **Possessive Pronouns:** Indicate ownership (mine, yours, his, hers, its, ours, theirs). They show who or what something belongs to.
 - Example: The book is **mine**.
 - **Reflexive Pronouns:** Refer back to the subject, emphasizing the action being done to oneself (myself, yourself, herself, himself, itself, ourselves, yourselves, themselves).
 - Example: She hurt **herself** while climbing the tree.

2. Demonstrative Pronouns: Point to specific things, acting like verbal pointers.

- Examples: this, that, these, those, such.
 - **Position:** Demonstrative pronouns can appear before the noun they modify (**this** book) or act alone (**That** is the answer I was looking for).

3. Interrogative Pronouns: Introduce questions, acting as question words.

- Examples: who, what, which, whom, whose.
 - Example: **Who** is at the door?

4. Indefinite Pronouns: Refer to nonspecific people or things, leaving them unidentified.

- Examples: some, any, one, everyone, nobody, few, many, all, each, other, another.
 - Example: I would like to see **some** of your paintings.

5. Relative Pronouns: Connect clauses and refer back to a noun or pronoun mentioned earlier.

- Examples: who, which, that, whose. They act as the bridge between two clauses.
 - Example: The man **who** helped me is a doctor. (**Who** refers back to "man")

Additional Subclasses (Less Common):

- **Reciprocal Pronouns:** Refer to two or more people or things performing an action on each other (each other, one another).
 - Example: They helped **each other** with their homework.

Key Points to Remember:

- The specific subclass of pronoun you choose depends on the context and its grammatical function within the sentence.
- Some pronouns (like who, which, that) can act as both interrogative and relative pronouns depending on the sentence structure.

By mastering these pronoun subclasses and their functions, you can:

- Achieve clarity and avoid confusion in your writing and speaking.
- Ensure smooth sentence flow by avoiding repetitive use of nouns.
- Express a wider range of ideas effectively, including questions and references to previously mentioned entities.

So, the next time you reach for a pronoun, remember the specific role it plays and choose the most fitting one to convey your message effectively!

Theme: The Numerals. Morphological composition.

The numeral denotes an abstract number or the order of thing in succession. In accordance with this distinction the numerals fall into two groups cardinal numerals (cardinals) and ordinal numerals (ordinals). Among the cardinals there are simple, derived, and compound words. The cardinals from one to twelve, hundred, thousand, million are simple words; those from thirteen to nineteen are derived from the corresponding simple ones by means of the suffix -teen; the cardinals denoting tens are derived from the corresponding simple ones by means of the suffix -ty. Among the ordinals there are also simple, derivative and compound words. The simple ordinals are first, second and third. The derivative ordinals are derived from the simple and derivative cardinals by means of the suffix -th:

Numerals, the workhorses of quantification, come in various forms, but their morphological composition (how they're built) is generally simpler than other parts of speech. Here's a breakdown of how numerals are formed:

1. Simple Numerals:

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

2. Compound Numerals:

- These are formed by joining two or more words to represent numbers beyond the range of simple numerals.
- **Examples:**
 - Eleven (ten + one)
 - Twenty-two (twenty + two)
 - One hundred (one + hundred)

3. Numeral Phrases:

- In some cases, a combination of words is used to express a number, especially for larger quantities.
- **Examples:**
 - Fifty-four thousand three hundred twenty-one
 - One million

Limited Use of Suffixes:

- Unlike some other parts of speech that heavily rely on suffixes (e.g., -ly for adverbs, -ment for nouns from verbs), numerals have minimal use of suffixes.
- The main exception is the suffix "-th" used for ordinal numbers indicating position in a sequence (first, second, third, etc.).

Key Points:

- Numerals can be single words, compound words, or even phrases.
- Suffixes play a minor role in numeral formation, with "-th" being the most common for ordinal numbers.

Additional Notes:

- Fractions can be expressed using numerals (one-half, two-thirds) or a combination of numerals and prepositions (a quarter of, three eighths).
- Collective numerals (dozen, gross) represent specific quantities and may have unique formations.

By understanding the morphological composition of numerals, you can better grasp how numbers are formed and use them accurately in your communication. The adjective, our trusty friend in the world of grammar, fulfills two key syntactic functions within sentences:

1. **Attribute:**

- This is the most common role for adjectives. In this function, adjectives act as modifiers, directly describing nouns or pronouns. They provide details about the characteristics, qualities, or states of being of the nouns or pronouns they modify.
- **Position:** Attributive adjectives typically appear before the noun or pronoun they modify.

- Examples:
 - The **red** car is parked outside. (**Red** modifies “car”)
 - She wore a **beautiful** dress. (**Beautiful** modifies “dress”)
- 2. **Predicative:**
 - Less frequent than attributive adjectives, predicatives follow linking verbs (like “be,” “seem,” “appear,” etc.) to describe the subject. They rename or redefine the subject rather than simply modifying it.
 - Examples:
 - The car is **red** (referring to color). (**Red** describes the state of being of the car)
 - The dress looks **beautiful** on you. (**Beautiful** describes how the dress appears)

Here are some additional points to consider:

- **Postpositive Adjectives (Less Common):** In rare cases, adjectives can follow the noun they modify, separated by a preposition (usually “of”).
 - Example: That was a sight **of wonder**. (**Wonder** modifies “sight”)
- **The Role Determines the Position:** The core function of the adjective determines its position in the sentence. If it directly modifies a noun or pronoun, it’s attributive and usually comes before. If it follows a linking verb to describe the subject, it’s predicative.
- **Articles (a, an, the) typically come before attributive adjectives.**
 - Example: The **red** car (article “the” followed by attributive adjective “red”)

By understanding these syntactic functions, you can effectively use adjectives to:

- Add richness and detail to your descriptions.
- Create vivid imagery for your readers.
- Precisely convey the characteristics and states of nouns and pronouns in your sentences.

Theme: The Adverb. Morphological composition.

The adverb is a word denoting circumstances or characteristics which attend or modify an action, state, or quality. It may also intensify a quality or characteristics. From this definition it is difficult to define adverbs as a class, because they comprise a most heterogeneous group of words, and there is considerable overlap between the class and other word classes. They have many kinds of form, meaning and function. Alongside such undoubtful adverbs as here, now, often, seldom, always, there are many others which also function as words of other classes. Thus, adverbs like dead (dead tired), clear (to get clear away), clean (I've clean forgotten), slow, easy (he would say that slow and easy) coincide with corresponding adjectives (a dead body, clear waters, clean hands). Adverbs like past, above are homonymous with prepositions. There is also a special group of pronominal adverbs when, where, how, why used either as interrogative words or as connectives to introduce subordinate clauses.

Adverbs, those versatile modifiers in our grammatical toolbox, add detail and nuance to verbs, adjectives, and even other adverbs. Let's delve into the fascinating world of adverb morphology, exploring how they're built:

1. Simple Adverbs:

- These are single words with inherent adverbial meaning, often indicating manner, degree, frequency, place, or time.
 - Examples: quickly, very, often, here, now, yesterday

2. Derived Adverbs:

- These are formed from other words (usually adjectives) using suffixes that signal their adverbial function. Here are some common suffixes:
 - **-ly:** This is the most productive adverb-forming suffix in English.
 - Examples: quickly (from quick), slowly (from slow), happily (from happy)
 - **-wards/-ward:** Indicates direction or tendency.
 - Examples: upwards, downwards, backwards, onwards
 - **-wise:** Indicates manner or way.
 - Examples: clockwise, lengthwise, sideways

3. Compound Adverbs:

- These are formed by joining two or more words to create a new adverbial expression.
 - Examples: nonetheless (no + nonetheless), somehow (some + how), everywhere (every + where)

4. Phrasal Adverbs:

- These consist of two or more words functioning together as an adverb. * Examples: in fact, by the way, all of a sudden, at most

Key Points:

- Suffixes, particularly "-ly," play a significant role in adverb derivation.
- Not all adjectives can take "-ly" to form adverbs (e.g., good -> well, bad -> badly). Some require a different vowel change (hot -> hotly).
- Prepositional phrases can sometimes function as adverbs (e.g., She ran upstairs [place]).

Understanding adverb morphology empowers you to:

- Recognize the different ways adverbs are formed.
- Create new adverbs using derivational morphology (if following established patterns).
- Identify the function of multi-word adverbial expressions.

By mastering adverb morphology, you can enhance the precision and expressiveness of your writing and speaking.

Theme: Prepositions

Prepositions, though tiny words, hold immense power in the world of grammar. They act as connectors, establishing relationships between nouns, pronouns, or phrases within a sentence. Here's a breakdown of their characteristics:

No Morphological Complexity:

- Unlike other parts of speech that can be built using suffixes (e.g., adverbs with "-ly"), prepositions are typically single, unchangeable words.
- There are a few exceptions where prepositions can be formed by combining two or more words (e.g., instead of, according to).

Common Prepositions:

- Here's a list of some of the most frequently used prepositions:
 - in, on, at, to, from, by, with, about, for, as, into, through, after, before, against, between, beyond, during, under, upon, over

Semantic Roles (Relationships Established):

- Prepositions indicate a variety of relationships between words, including:
 - **Spatial Relationships:** Show the physical location or position of something (in, on, at, under, above, behind, etc.)
 - Example: The book is **on** the table.
 - **Temporal Relationships:** Indicate time (in, at, on, before, after, during, etc.)
 - Example: We will meet **at** noon.
 - **Directional Relationships:** Show movement or direction (to, from, towards, through, etc.)
 - Example: She walked **towards** the park.
 - **Logical Relationships:** Express cause, reason, purpose, or contrast (because of, due to, for, despite, etc.)
 - Example: **Because of** the rain, we stayed home.
 - **Other Relationships:** Can also indicate manner, instrument, or material (with, by, of, etc.)
 - Example: He wrote the letter **with** a pen. (instrument)

Choosing the Right Preposition:

- The appropriate preposition depends on the specific relationship you want to convey in your sentence.
- Some verbs require specific prepositions (e.g., depend **on**, look **for**).
- Understanding the nuances of prepositions can improve your sentence clarity and precision.

Prepositional Phrases:

- A preposition can group with a noun, pronoun, or another phrase to form a prepositional phrase.
- The entire prepositional phrase functions as a single unit, modifying a verb, adjective, noun, or another adverb.
 - Example: The car parked **in front of the house** (prepositional phrase modifies "parked")

By understanding prepositions, you can:

- Construct grammatically correct sentences with clear relationships between words.
- Express a wider range of ideas and nuances in your writing and speaking.

- Avoid preposition misuse, a common grammatical error.

So, the next time you're crafting a sentence, remember the tiny but mighty prepositions that ensure your words are connected and your meaning is clear

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Unlike most other parts of speech, prepositions generally don't have complex morphological compositions (how they are built). Here's why:

- **Mostly Single Words:** Prepositions are typically single, unchangeable words. They convey their meaning without the addition of prefixes or suffixes.
 - Examples: in, on, at, to, from, by, with, about, for, as
- **Few Exceptions:** There are a small number of prepositions that consist of two or more words. These are formed by joining prepositions or adverbs with other words.
 - Examples:
 - instead of (preposition "in" + adverb "stead" + preposition "of")
 - according to (preposition "according" + preposition "to")
 - throughout (preposition "through" + adverb "out")

Key Points:

- Prepositions primarily rely on their inherent meaning rather than morphological features.
- The exceptions with two or more words are relatively uncommon compared to single-word prepositions.

While morphology isn't a major player for prepositions, focusing on their semantic roles (the relationships they express) is crucial. Understanding these roles empowers you to use prepositions effectively to connect words and build clear and concise sentence.

Theme: The Conjunctions. The Conjuncts.

A conjunction is a function word indicating the connection between two notional words, phrases, clauses, or sentences. According to their morphological structure conjunctions fall into the following types:

1. Simple conjunctions: and, or, but, till, after, that, so, where, when.
2. Derived conjunctions; until, unless, seeing, supposing, provided.
3. Compound conjunctions: whereas, wherever.
4. Composite conjunctions: as well as, in case, for fear, on condition that, on the ground that, as long as, etc. Several conjunctions form correlative pairs, though strictly speaking the first element is not a conjunction: both ... and, either ... or, neither ... nor, not only ... but (also), whether ...or.

Conjunctions, the linchpins of sentence structure, connect words, phrases, or clauses to create a smooth flow of ideas. But within the world of conjunctions, there exists a concept called the "conjunct." Let's delve into both these aspects of conjunctions.

Conjunctions: The Connectors

Conjunctions are grammatical workhorses that perform two main functions:

1. **Coordinating Conjunctions:** These connect grammatically equal elements in a sentence, such as words, phrases, or independent clauses.
 - Examples:
 - **Words:** She likes cats **and** dogs.
 - **Phrases:** I enjoy reading **but** not writing.
 - **Clauses:** She went to the store, **so** I stayed home.
 - Common Coordinating Conjunctions (often remembered with the mnemonic FANBOYS): For, And, Nor, But, Or, Yet, So
2. **Subordinating Conjunctions:** These introduce dependent clauses, which rely on the main clause for complete meaning.
 - Examples:
 - **Time: While** I was waiting, I read a book.
 - **Reason: Because** it was raining, we stayed inside.
 - **Condition: If** you study hard, you will succeed.
 - Examples of Subordinating Conjunctions: After, Although, As, As if, As long as, Because, Before, Even if, Even though, If, In order that, Since, So that, Than, That, Though, Unless, Until, When, Whenever, Where, Whereas, While

The Conjuncts: The Connected

The term "conjunct" refers to the elements being joined by a conjunction. These can be:

- **Words:** Hot and spicy (connected by "and")
- **Phrases:** The red car parked **in front of the house** (prepositional phrase connected by "of")
- **Clauses:** She said she would be late, **but** I didn't believe her. (independent clause connected by "but" to a dependent clause)

Understanding the Relationship:

By recognizing both conjunctions and conjuncts, you can effectively navigate sentence structure. The conjunction dictates the grammatical relationship between the conjuncts, ensuring your sentences flow logically and clearly.

Key Points:

- Conjunctions connect elements, while conjuncts are the elements being connected.
- Coordinating conjunctions connect equal elements, while subordinating conjunctions introduce dependent clauses.
- Recognizing both these aspects is essential for clear and well-structured sentences.

By mastering conjunctions and conjuncts, you can craft sentences that seamlessly link ideas and enhance the flow of your writing and speaking.

Conjunctions, the glue that holds our sentences together, might seem simple at first glance. But understanding their morphological composition (how they're built) and semantic characteristics (meaning) reveals a fascinating world of grammatical connections.

Morphological Composition: Mostly Simple

Unlike some parts of speech that rely heavily on suffixes (adverbs with "-ly"), conjunctions generally have a simpler morphological structure. Here's why:

- **Single Words:** Most conjunctions are single, unchangeable words with inherent meaning related to connecting elements.
 - Examples: and, but, or, for, nor, so, yet (coordinating conjunctions)
 - Examples: because, if, since, although, while (subordinating conjunctions)
- **A Few Exceptions:** A small number of conjunctions consist of two or more words. These are formed by joining prepositions or adverbs with other words.
 - Examples:
 - in order to (subordinating conjunction: preposition "in" + preposition "order" + infinitive "to")
 - despite the fact that (subordinating conjunction: preposition "despite" + noun phrase "the fact" + that)

Focus on Semantic Roles

While morphology plays a less significant role in conjunctions, their semantic characteristics (meaning) are crucial. Here's how conjunctions function based on meaning:

Coordinating Conjunctions:

- **Function:** Connect grammatically equal elements (words, phrases, or clauses).
- **Semantic Roles:** Express various relationships between these elements:
 - **Addition:** Indicate things being joined together (and, or)
 - **Contrast:** Show differences or oppositions (but, nor, yet)
 - **Sequence:** Express order or succession (so, for)

Subordinating Conjunctions:

- **Function:** Introduce dependent clauses, which rely on the main clause for complete meaning.
- **Semantic Roles:** Express a variety of relationships between the dependent clause and the main clause:
 - **Time:** When, while, before, after
 - **Reason:** Because, since, as
 - **Condition:** If, unless
 - **Purpose:** In order to, so that
 - **Concession:** Although, even though

Key Points:

- Morphology is less complex for conjunctions, with most being single words.
- Semantic characteristics are essential, as conjunctions convey relationships between the elements they connect.

- Understanding these semantic roles empowers you to choose the right conjunction for the specific connection you want to create in your sentence.

By mastering both the morphological and semantic aspects of conjunctions, you can elevate your writing and speaking by crafting clear and concise sentences with a smooth flow of ideas.

Theme: Morphological composition and semantic characteristics of Interjections

The interjection is a part of speech which expresses emotions, without naming them. They are invariable, whereas the emotions expressed by the interjections vary. Interjections express different kinds of feelings, such as: joy (hurray, hurrah), grief, sorrow (alas, dear me, dear, oh), approval (bravo; hear, hear), contempt (pooh, gosh, bosh, pah, bah, fie), triumph (aha), impatience (bother), anger (damn), surprise or annoyance.

Interjections, those colorful bursts of emotion or surprise in our language, stand out when it comes to morphology and semantics. Here's a closer look:

Morphological Composition: A Simpler Story

Unlike most other parts of speech that can be built and modified through prefixes and suffixes, interjections generally have a simpler morphological structure:

- **Single Words:** The majority of interjections are single words with inherent emotional meaning. They function as complete utterances on their own.
 - Examples: Oh! Ouch! Wow! Ugh! Hey!
- **Echoic Words:** Some interjections are formed by echoing or imitating sounds, creating an onomatopoeic effect.
 - Examples: Bang! Pow! Boom! Buzz!
- **Phrases (Less Common):** In rare cases, interjections can be formed by short phrases.
 - Examples: Good heavens! For goodness sake!

Semantic Fireworks: Expressing Emotions and More

While morphology might be less complex, interjections pack a punch when it comes to semantics (meaning):

- **Core Function:** The primary role of interjections is to express emotions or reactions. They convey feelings like surprise (Wow!), pain (Ouch!), joy (Hurray!), or disgust (Ugh!).
- **Beyond Emotions:** Interjections can also function in other ways:
 - **Greetings and Farewells:** Hi! Bye! Hello!
 - **Getting Attention:** Hey! Psst!
 - **Commands or Requests:** Hush! Stop! Shoo!
 - **Encouragement:** Go for it! Come on!
- **Context is Key:** The specific meaning of an interjection can be influenced by context, tone of voice, and body language.
 - Example: "Ouch!" can express pain at varying degrees depending on the situation.

Key Points:

- Interjections tend to be single words or short phrases with inherent emotional meaning.
- Their semantic power lies in expressing a wide range of emotions and serving various communicative functions.

By understanding the morphological and semantic characteristics of interjections, you can:

- **Interpret the emotional tone** of spoken or written language more effectively.
- **Use interjections appropriately** to add emphasis or express your feelings in your own communication.
- **Recognize the limitations of interjections** in formal writing, where more nuanced expressions might be preferred.

Remember, interjections are like sprinkles on your communication cake – a little goes a long way in adding flavour and personality!

Theme: Morphological composition and Semantic characteristics of Particles

The particle is a part of speech the meaning of which is difficult to define. It either emphasizes or limits the meaning of another word, or phrase, or clause. Particles are invariable and have no syntactical function in the sentence. They form a whole with the part of the sentence (a word or a phrase) they refer to. Particles may combine with any part of speech.

Don't worry – that's just Aunt Fanny practising her balancing act. - John is very proud of his daughter. - I should just think so.

Isn't that just beautiful? She lives just round the corner.

I said just what I thought.

Just as we thought the sun would sink, it grew still redder.

Particles generally stand before the word they refer to but they may also follow it. This book is for advanced students only.

Particles, the tiny but mighty members of the grammar world, hold a unique position when it comes to morphology (form) and semantics (meaning). Here's a breakdown of their characteristics:

Morphological Composition: A Spectrum of Complexity

Unlike some parts of speech with clear-cut morphological structures, particles exhibit a range of complexity:

- **Simple Particles:** These are single words with unchangeable forms and grammatical functions.
 - Examples: of, to, for, at, in, on, with, by
- **Phrasal Particles:** These consist of two or more words functioning together as a single unit.
 - Examples: up to (meaning "as much as"), out of (meaning "from"), down by (meaning "reduced by")
- **Verb Particles:** These particles combine with verbs to create phrasal verbs with altered meanings compared to the base verb.

- Examples: look **up** (search for information), run **out** (deplete), break **down** (stop functioning)

Semantic Characteristics: Adding Nuance and Function

Particles play a crucial semantic role in sentences, contributing to meaning in various ways:

- **Prepositions (a type of particle):** Establish relationships between words (e.g., spatial, temporal, logical)
 - Example: The book is **on** the table. (spatial relationship)
- **Markers of Tense or Aspect:** Indicate the timing or completeness of an action (often used with verbs).
 - Example: They **have** been waiting **for** hours. ("have" - present perfect tense, "for" - indicates duration)
- **Modality:** Express the speaker's attitude or likelihood of an event (e.g., may, might, must).
 - Example: You **may** leave now. (possibility)
- **Discourse Markers:** Organize the flow of conversation or writing (e.g., however, therefore, well).
 - Example: **However**, I disagree with your point.

Key Points:

- Particles can be single words, phrasal units, or verb particles, affecting verb meaning.
- Their semantic contribution varies, including establishing relationships, marking tense/aspect, expressing modality, and organizing discourse.

By understanding the morphological and semantic characteristics of particles, you can:

- **Grasp the subtle nuances** they add to sentences.
- **Use particles effectively** to express specific grammatical functions and relationships.
- **Avoid common errors** like confusing prepositions with phrasal verbs.

Particles, though small, are essential for crafting clear and precise communication. By mastering their unique characteristics, you can elevate your language skills and ensure your message is understood perfectly.

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 Моссиаро

10. Бархударов Л.С. Очерки по морфологии современного английского языка. М.: Высшая школа, 1975.
11. Блох М.Я. Практикум по теоретической грамматике английского языка. М. Высш. Шк., 2004.
12. Бузаров В. В.. Грамматика разговорного английского языка [Текст]: сборник упражнений / - 2-е изд., испр. и доп. - М.: Флинта: Наука, 2003.

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
8. https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Morphology_%28linguistics%29
9. <https://learnenglish.britishcouncil.org/>
10. <https://support.grammarly.com/hc/en-us/articles/115000089992-Select-between-British-English-American-English-Canadian-English-Australian-English-and-Indian-English>
11. <https://www.grammarly.com/blog/morphology/>

Дополнительные:

1. Аракин В.Д. Морфология английского языка. М.: Просвещение, 1984.
2. Виноградов В.В. Русский язык: грамматическое исследование. М.: Изд-во АН СССР, 1952.
3. Жирков Н.Г. Немецкий язык: морфология. М.: Высшая школа, 1986.
4. Иванова И.П., Бурлакова В.В., Копыленко И.В. и др. Грамматика английского языка. Морфология. Синтаксис. СПб.: Изд-во «Союз», 2006.
5. Кобрина Н.А., Корнеева Е.А. и др. Грамматика английского языка. Морфология. Синтаксис. СПб.: Изд-во «Союз», 2006.
6. Павлова М.В. Морфология английского языка. М.: Высшая школа, 1982.
7. Степанов Ю.С. Морфология английского языка. М.: Изд-во МГУ, 1991

Политика курса

Студенты обязуется:

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 Vndicam. 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.