**GRAMMAR IN THE SYSTEM OF LANGUAGE**

**C O N T E N T S**

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**Introduction**

Today the movements can be seen in education system. The responsibility of teachers is increasing in order to introduce the foreign language at a high level to the learners of our Republic. The bright proof of it is the decree “About organizing commission in developing the system of publishing books and spreading them, increasing the culture of reading and recitation as well as popularization” by our President Shavkat Miromonovich Mirziyoyev in 2017 on the 12th of January. This problem was not discussed accidentally. Today the process of teaching the foreign language should be organized with strict plans. We, teachers should solve these kinds of defects and to help the learners of our Republic to widen their world outlook [1].

 It is fundamentally essential for children to learn English from a young age in this rapidly globalizing world. English knowledge will help to open many opportunities for them in the future and it will be invaluable in their future careers. However , teaching English to children is not an easy job. But it is also not difficult, if we already know how to do it. Many teaching positions involve teaching children - a unique experience that is both challenging and fun. Compared to adults, children are more energetic, have shorter attention spans, and learn language according to specific stages of development; these present planning challenges for the teacher. The key to teaching English to children is to understand the principles of language acquisition and apply it in ways that keep children motivated to learn .

**Actuality of the theme of research.** The problem of Grammar and its forms are very important and actualnowadays because knowledge of Grammar is valued by the richness of one’s word stock and using it in a proper way.

This course work presents how to learn “Types of grammatical forms of the words” widely approved in many prestigious universities and the role of our society.

**The aim of the research** is investigation of the ways of useful methods to teaching styles during teaching English easily, desirably and quality.

**The tasks of the research:**

* to investigatethe grammatical forms of the word;
* to analyze each of the methods pointing positive and negative sides of them;
* to make a serious research on grammatical forms of the word devoted to teaching English by interesting games and interactive tasks;
* to present the ideas and opinions of famous methodologists and language teachers on this theme.

**The object of the research** is interactive, modern and effective ways of Types of grammatical forms of the word not only for teaching English language but also for teaching other subjects.

**The subject of the research** is investigation of results and effects of using grammar in the language.

**The theoretical value** of the present course paper is that the theoretical position of the paper can be used delivering lectures on English grammar on the problems of Grammatical structures.

**The practical significance** of the present course paper is that practical results of the research can be used as the examples or tasks in seminars on Practical Grammar of the English language.

**Structurally** the present research work consists of four parts – Introduction, Main part, Conclusion and Bibliography.

**MAIN PART**

**1. General characteristics of the grammatical structure of language**

The grammatical structure of language is a system of means used to turn linguistic units into communicative ones, in other words – the units of language into the units of speech. Such means are inflexions, affixation, word order, function words and phonological means.

Generally speaking, Indo-European languages are classified into two structural types – **synthetic**and **analytic**. Synthetic languages are defined as ones of ‘internal’ grammar of the word – most of grammatical meanings and grammatical relations of words are expressed with the help of inflexions (Ukrainian - *зроблю*, Russian, Latin, etc). Analytical languages are those of ‘external’ grammar because most grammatical meanings and grammatical forms are expressed with the help of words (*will do*). However, we cannot speak of languages as purely synthetic or analytic – the English language (Modern English) possesses analytical forms as prevailing, while in the Ukrainian language synthetic devices are dominant. In the process of time English has become more analytical as compared to Old English. Analytical changes in Modern English (especially American) are still under way [3, 15].

- Language is a multifaceted, complex phenomenon which can be studied and described from various points of view: as a psychological or cognitive phenomenon, as a social phenomenon, from the point of view of its historic changes, etc. But first and foremost language is treated as a semiotic system (system of signs). A system is a structured set of elements united by a common function. Language is a system of specific interconnected and interdependent lingual signs united by their common function of forming, storing and exchanging ideas in the process of human intercourse.

- The study of grammar may be either practical (practical grammar), which describes grammar as a set of rules and regulations to follow, or theoretical (theoretical grammar), aiming at the explanation of how and why the grammatical system works.

- The foundations of systemic language description were formulated at the turn of the 20th century in the works of many linguists, among them the Russian linguists I. A. Baudoin de Courtenay, A. A. Potebnya and others [4, 36]. The originator of the systemic approach in linguistics is considered to be a Swiss scholar Ferdinand de Saussure. He was the first to divide the phenomenon of language in general into two sides: an ‘executive’ side (‘parole’), concerned with the production, transmission, and reception of speech, and an underlying language system (‘langue’). This is one of the basic postulates of modern systemic linguistics: language in general comprises two aspects: the system of special lingual units, language proper, and the use of the lingual units, speech proper. (In other words, 1) language in the narrow sense of the term is a system of means of expression, while speech is the manifestation of the system of language in the process of intercourse. 2) The system of language comprises the lingual units and the rules of their use, while speech includes the act of producing utterances and the result of it (the utterances themselves, or the text). 3) Speech is individual, personal while language is common for all individuals. 4) Language is abstract and speech is concrete. 5) Language is stable, less changeable while speech tends to changes. 6) Language is a closed system, its units are limited while speech tends to openness and infinity).

- Ferdinand de Saussure was also among the first scholars who defined lingual units as specific signs - bilateral (two-sided) units that have both form and meaning.

- The most wide - spread opinion is that there are five language (speech) units and respectively there are five language (speech) levels, they are: phonetic/phonological; morphological; lexicological, syntax - minor and syntax - major. The levels and their units are as follows:

1. phonological/phonetical level: phoneme/phone (the smallest meaningless unit of language is called phoneme) 2. morphological level: morpheme/morph (the smallest meaningful unit of language is called a morpheme) 3. lexicological level: lexeme/lex (“Lexeme” is a language unit of the lexicological level which has a nominative function) 4. Syntax - minor: sentence (The sentence can be defined as the immediate integral unit of speech built up by words according to a definite syntactic pattern and distinguished by a contextually relevant communicative purpose). 5. Syntax - major: text (the text is a speech sequence of lingual units interconnected semantically (topically) and syntactically (structurally); in other words, it is a coherent stretch of speech, characterized by semantic and syntactic unity) [6, 56].

- According to the morphological classification English is one of the flexional languages. But the flexional languages fall under synthetical and analytical ones. The synthetical-flexional languages are rich in grammatical inflections and the words in sentences are mostly connected with each-other by means of these inflections though functional words and other grammatical means also participate in this. But the grammatical inflections are of primary importance. The slavonic languages (Russian, Ukraine…) are of this type. The flectional-analytical languages like English and French in order to connect words to sentences make wide use of the order of words and functional words due to the limited number of grammatical flexions. The grammatical means - order of words – is of primary importance for this type of languages.

Synthetic languages are defined as ones of ‘internal’ grammar of the word – most of grammatical meanings and grammatical relations of words are expressed with the help of inflexions (Ukrainian - *зроблю*, Russian, Latin, etc). Analytical languages are those of ‘external’ grammar because most grammatical meanings and grammatical forms are expressed with the help of words (*will do*). However, we cannot speak of languages as purely synthetic or analytic – the English language (Modern English) possesses analytical forms as prevailing, while in the Ukrainian language synthetic devices are dominant. In the process of time English has become more analytical as compared to Old English. Analytical changes in Modern English (especially American) are still under way.

Grammar systems' is a recent vivid field of formal language theory modelling distributed complex systems. The theory provides highly elaborated frameworks and tools for describing various kinds of multi-agent systems at the symbolic level, from distributed and cooperative problem solving systems to artificial life systems, collective robotics, mentioning only a few. It can be used in DNA computing as well. The area has been intensively investigated by several cooperating research groups from about a dozen of countries (Europe, Canada and Japan) for years.

In present day computer science, artificial intelligence, cognitive psychology and in other related fields we have to deal with complex tasks distributed among a set of agents (processors) which work/live together in some well-defined manner. Parallel computers, computer networks, distributed databases, and knowledge sources are practical materializations of this idea. Similarly, psychologists speak about the modularity of mind, in problem solving theories many models based on cognitive agents' cooperation appear.

Since formal language theory is a well developed theoretical framework for modelling aspects the essence of which can be captured at the level of symbol systems, a challenge appears: how to describe (the behaviour of) multi-agent (complex distributed) symbol systems in terms of language identifying devices. Grammar systems theory attempts to answer this challenge. Roughly speaking, a grammar system consists of several grammars (automata, or other language identifying mechanisms) that cooperate according to some well-defined protocol in deriving sentential forms of a language (or languages). The components of the system correspond to the agents, the current string(s) in generation to a symbolic environment, and the system's behaviour is represented by the language or the string sequences identifying the current state of the system. In addition to distribution, cooperation, communi-cation, other important notions as emergent behaviour can also be formalized in this context [5, 89].

We illustrate the great variety of models offered by the theory through the most important frameworks:

The investigations started in 1988 by introducing cooperating/distributed grammar systems for modelling the syntactic aspects of the blackboard model of problem solving. In this case the cooperating independent agents are represented by generative grammars which, under some cooperation strategy, derive in turn a common sentential form (the blackboard) in order to generate a common language. The achieved results demonstrate the power of cooperation showing that systems with syntactically very simple components under some appropriate cooperation strategy are able to generate complicated languages of very powerful language classes. Interesting results are, among other things, that any computation under some kind of competence-based cooperation of grammars can be performed in the same kind of system with three co-operating partners. Computation under hybrid (different) cooperation strategies does not need more than four grammars cooperating to determine the same language.

Team grammar systems with simultaneous actions of some grammars in the system (teams) which cooperate in deriving a common sentential form, demonstrate an equivalence between programming the sequence of actions and computation under some kind of competence-based cooperation of freely chosen grammar teams with a very limited number of components.

Colonies, motivated by subsumption architectures of R. Brooks, describe language classes in terms of behaviour of collections of simple, purely reactive, situated agents with emergent behaviour. In this model the agents are represented by very simple regular grammars. The basic variant characterizes the context-free language class, while the more sophisticated models (competition among the agents, timing, etc.) lead to considerably enhanced descriptive power.

Eco-grammar systems are grammatical models of ecosystems: developing grammatical agents in a (dynamically changing) population interact with each other and with their shared evolving symbolic environment. The framework provides tools for describing life-like phenomena (birth, death, hybernation, overpopulation, pollution, etc.) in terms of formal grammars and languages.

Networks of language processors form an essential part of the area. In this case each node of a virtual graph is represented by a language processor (a language identifying device). Each processor works on a string (on a collection of strings) and informs the others about its activity by communicating strings which are data and/or programs. Rewriting and communication take place alternately, the system functions (usually) in a synchronized manner. Parallel communicating grammar systems, a highly elaborated field, with Chomsky and Lindenmayer grammars at the nodes, studies networks with components communicating data strings by request. Test tube distributed systems based on splicing and that of cutting and recombination are particular cases of the model with components using variants of DNA recombination and they realize computationally complete and universal machines (in some cases with a limited number of components). Investigations have been started for implementing ideas of the Wave paradigm of active knowledge networks in this framework.

**2. Grammar in the systemic conception of language**

Language is a means of forming & storing ideas as reflection of reality & exchanging them into process of human intercourse. Language is social by nature. It is connected with people, who create & use it. It develops with the development of society. Language includes 3 parts:

1. **Formological** system – determines the phonetical appearance of the significant unites.
2. **Lexical** system – is a number of words & word groups.
3. **Grammatical** system – is a number of rules, determining the combination of naming means in the formation of utterance as the embodiment of thinking process [9, 87].

Each of these parts is studied by a particular linguistic discipline. 1 is carried out by **morphology**, 2 – by **lexicology**, 3 – by **grammar**.

Any linguistic description may have practical & theoretical parts. Practical description provides with a manual of practical mastery of the corresponding part of language. Practical linguistic manuals comprise all the types of description: Formological, lexical, grammatical.

As for the theoretical linguistic descriptions, they usually pursue analytical aims, thus the aim of theoretical grammar is to present a theoretical description of the grammatical system. That is to analyze its grammatical categories & study the mechanisms of grammatical formation of utterances & of words in the process of speech-making.

Theoretical grammar is used as the mechanisms according to which the language works, when it is used to communicate people.

There exist 3 types of grammar:

1. A – in our minds. “Language competence”
2. B – grammar in books. This grammar teaches you what you must do to speak correctly & what to avoid. “Normative grammar”
3. C – descriptive. “Theoretical”

The main function of language is to communicate with other people. There is no such thing as good or bad grammar. It is better to speak about good or bad communication. Language should be used in such a way that it expresses its meaning effectively. It is possible to speak or write according to the rules of Stanford language, & yet to produce language, that is not difficult to follow. In this case we say “bad style”. *E.g. This is a picture that a girl that friend of mine knows painted. She has given a job in London up.*

Theoretical grammar is descriptive. It takes into consideration all language parts, analyzes them, so as to give explanations. Within grammar we discriminate it in morphology & syntax. Morphology deals with the forms of words. Syntax deals with phrases, sentences & texts. Morphology is more abstract than syntax, because it doesn’t study connections between words used together in sentences. Different forms are analyzed extracted from their natural environment.

Theoretical grammar is scientific in its character. Using certain methods, it investigates speech material.

**Methods of linguistic research**

In grammar investigation scholars use a number of methods.

1. Historical comparative
2. Oppositional
3. Distributional
4. Immediate constituency
5. Transformational method

At the beginning of XIX century the first method was created. The appearance of this method marks the rise of linguistics as a science. The adherents of this method concentrate their attention of the history of separate linguistic fragments, losing sight of their interrelations in the system of language. As a reaction to this method a new theory appeared, paying much attention to the interconnections of lingual elements.

The main schools of modern linguistics are the  **Prague** school, the **Copenhagen** school & the **American** school. The Prague school deals with functional linguistics. The Copenhagen school deals with gloss semantics. The American school deals with descriptive linguistics.
The main contribution of Prague school is the technique for determining the unites of the formological structure of language. Main method of research is **oppositional**, made by N. **Smirnitsky** [8, 51].

**Oppositional analysis**

Nowadays the notion of opposition has become very popular not only in formology, but in grammar too. An **opposition** is such a relation of linguistic unites which presupposes the presence of some distinctive feature on the basis of some formal quality, which constitutes the basis of comparison. The main principles of opposition are comparison & contrast. The most important types of opposition are privative, gradual & equipollent.
**Privative** is such an opposition one member of which is characterized by the presence of some distinctive feature, while the other doesn’t signal whether this feature is present or not. The members of it are called the strong or marked member & weak or unmarked member.

*E.g. a dog – dogs.*

**Neutralization** – the unmarked member acquires the meaning of the marked member.
*E.g. Dog is a domestic animal.*

Transposition takes place when the marked member of the opposition acquires the meaning of the unmarked member.*E.g. comes – is coming*

**Gradual** is such an opposition the members of which are characterized by different degrees of the same quality.

*E.g. fine – finer – the finest*

**Equipollent** is such an opposition the members of which are logically equal, but each member has a distinctive feature of its own.
 *E.g. the Present Simple & the Past Simple.*

**Distributional analysis**

The main notions of this analysis are distribution & environment. **Distribution** is a total of all environments in which this element occurs. **Environment** is a set of its neighbouring elements.

*E.g. I don’t mind his presence. – mind + noun*

*I don’t mind taking part in the debate. – mind + gerund*

*I don’t mind his/him attending my lectures. – mind + gerundial construction*

There are **3 types of distribution**.

1. **Contrastive**. It is understood as difference of two linguistic unites occurring in the same environment & changing one linguistic form into another.

*E.g. He took my pen.*

*He took my pens.*

2. **Not-contrastive** is understood as difference of two linguistic unites occurring in the same environment without changing one linguistic form into another.

 *E.g. She learnt/learned English two years ago.*

3. **Complementary**. Two elements are in complementary distribution if they never occur in the same environment but have the same meaning.

*E.g. boys [z], cats [s], watches [iz]*

Distributional analysis was worked out by S. Harris. This method is based on the principle of occurrence. Any word may be represented by a symbol.
*E.g. N - noun, V - verb, A – adjective, D – adverb*

In studying speech, scholars try to see what classes of words occur together. This method helps to represent the language structure in a general form. It helps to see the changes in the linguistic elements, because they are signalled by the change in their distribution. In the distributional analysis all elements are given in a chain order.
 *E.g. A big man helped the small boy willingly.*

*t A N1 Ved t A N2 D*

This method doesn’t reflect different inner syntactic connections in structures which have the same sequence of elements. *E.g. The police shot the man in the red cap. The police shot the man in the right arm. t N N t N prep t A N*

To discriminate between such sequences it is better to resort to the **immediate constituent analysis (ICs).**

IC model is closely connected with terms constituent & immediate constituent. **Constituent** is a linguistic form, part of some larger construction. **Immediate constituent** is one of two constituents of which a given linguistic form is built up.

The **theoretical pieces of this model** include the following:

1. There is only one type of syntactic relations – subordination.
2. The predicate is the central part of the sentence.
3. The analysis is based on a binary principle. The unit of the analysis is a binary subordinate phrase.

*E.g. NP VP*
*The || man | hit || the ||| ball.*

The aim of this analysis is to find the IC structure of a sentence. The division of the construction under the IC analysis begins with the largest elements and goes on as far as possible. On each level of the IC analysis we deal with 2 elements only. These two elements are reduced into one new element, which is equal in its syntactic function to the head word of the group.
The **rules of reduction** are:

1. D + A → AP (adverbial phrase)
E.g. Very good
2. A + N → NP (noun phrase)
E.g. chilly weather.
3. V + N → VP (verb phrase)
E.g. hit the ball
4. NP + VP → S (sentence) [11, 63]

This method of analysis differs from the previous one, because it shows all the inner connections between words in a sentence under analysis.
**Transformational analysis**

This model is based on the idea that the structure of language consists of two subsystems: **kernel** & **transforms**. All the sentences are subdivided into these two types.
Transforms are derived from kernel sentences by certain transformational rules. There exist **3 sets of the transformational rules.**

1. S1 → S2
E.g. The secretary took the paper. → The paper was taken by the secretary.
2. S → NP
E.g. The weather is sunny. → Sunny weather.
3. S1 + S2 → S3
E.g. She didn’t answer his question. It displeased him. → As she didn’t answer his question, it displeased him.

This method of analysis helps to prove that some identical structures present quite different syntactic models. When we look for kernel sentences in order to explain the structure & meaning of some sentence, we say that we define its transformational history. The model takes into account not all the relations among the components of the same sentence, but the relations of the given sentence to the structure of the others.

*E.g. John is easy to please. John is eager to please.*

*It is easy. John is eager.*

*Somebody pleases John. John pleases somebody.*

**The main notions of morphology**

The **morph** is a minimal sequence of phonemes which possesses a certain meaning & regularly occurs in various environments.

*E.g. clear, clearly, clearness.*

The **morpheme** is a group of one or more morphs united by the same meaning & which are in complementary distribution.
*E.g. bags, notes, watches – a morpheme of plurality.*

Morphs which constitute a certain morpheme are called **variants** or **allomorphs**. Allomorphs are subdivided into **phonemically** & **morphologically** conditioned.
*E.g. smiled [d], worked [t], divided [id] – phoneme morphs.*

*child – children – morphemic morphs.*

*foot – feet, tooth – teeth – replacive morphs.*

*sheep – sheep – zero morph Ø*

**Types of morphemes**

In English there are 3 types of morphemes:

1. free (root)
2. bound (affixes)
*E.g. table – tables; deer – deer Ø*
3. word morphemes

Affixes are subdivided into **prefixes** & **suffixes**. Prefixes are always word-building ones. As for suffixes, they may be both lexical & grammatical.
*E.g. worker – lexical; works – grammatical*
Lexical suffixes are lexical grammatical morphemes.
*E.g. to teach – teacher*
Grammatical suffixes are called inflexions.
On the basis of this classification of morphemes a general structure of a word may be given like this:
in – just – ice – s
prefix – root – suffix – inflexion [9, 15-16]

Any morpheme or a combination of morphemes to which an inflexion can be added is called a **stem**. In English, besides free & bound morphemes an intermediate type of morphemes may be singled out. These morphemes function as affixes, but they are not found in the root. They are **grammatical word morphemes**.
*E.g. He has done it.*

*He gave up smoking.*

Lexico-grammatical word morpheme.

**Word form** is the unity of the stem & the inflexion.
E.g. smiles – smiled – smiling

Word forms have **patterns of derivation** depending on the types of grammatical morphemes, which constitute them.

1. affixation
2. sound alternation
3. suppletive formation
4. analytical formation

**Affixation** is found in the so called **synthetic forms**. Synthetic forms are built up with the help of inflexion. The number of inflexions is 8, besides among them there are many homonyms.

1. Z1 – the category of number (plurality).
*E.g. cats, dogs, watches*
2. Z2 – the Present Simple of the third person singular.
*E.g. translates, opens, watches*
3. Z3 – genitive case.
*E.g. a cat’s tail, baby’s toys, Charles’s article*
4. D1 – the Past Simple of regular verbs.
*E.g. played, dressed, translated*
5. D2 – Participle 2 of regular verbs
*E.g. played, dressed, translated*
6. Ving – participle 1 or gerund
7. er – comparative degree of adjectives
8. est – superlative degree

**Sound alternation.**

In modern English some word forms are built up by means of changing a sound inside of a root.

*E.g. take – took, speak – spoke, foot – feet*

**Suppletive** form of derivation is such a way of derivation when a word form is built up by means of using a word of a different stem.

 *E.g. be – am – is – are – was – were – been; good – better – best; go – went – gone*
**Analytical** word forms are such forms, which are built up with the help of grammatical word morphemes.
*E.g. She is coming in a minute.*
**Form class** is a set of word forms, which differ by their stems, but have the same inflexion.
*E.g. books, tables, chairs etc.*
**The grammatical category** is the opposition of at least 2 sets of form classes, contrasted on the basis of a certain general grammatical meaning.
**Paradigm** is a set of opposed form classes. It may contain several grammatical categories. The minimal paradigm coincides with a grammatical category.
*E.g. a boy – boys – category of number*
*a boy – a boy’s test – category of case*
*a boy – a girl – a star – category of gender*
**Lexeme** in grammar is a set of word forms which differ by their inflexions, but have the same stem.
*E.g. smile – smiles – smiled – smiling*

**Classes of words**

The problem of word classes is one of the most complicated in the history of language. The earliest attempts to describe them go back to such countries as India & Asia. Each stage of linguistics brought in its own way of dividing words into classes. The fact is quite natural, because classes of words inflect not only the structure of language, but also the depth of grammatical description [6, 29-30].

**Criteria for classification**

The first attempt at classifying words was made by **Henry Sweet**. He thought that semantic, morphological and syntactic characteristics of a word should be taken into consideration at one & the same time. It was the opinion of **Otto Jesperson** as well. He classified the vocabulary into **declinables** (nouns, adjectives, verbs) and **indeclinables** (adverbs, prepositions, conjunctions, interjections). With a slight variation this classification appeared in most traditional grammar books.

The Russian linguistics approach is more consistent. Russian linguists divided the word classes by the following **5 principles:**

1. The general lexico-grammatical meaning of words.
2. The lexicogrammatical morphemes or stem-building elements; *e.g. signify*
3. Grammatical categories or paradigms
4. Distribution (combinability)
5. The function in sentence.

**3. Grammar and its structure**

Grammar is the sound, structure, and meaning system of language. All languages have grammar, and each language has its own grammar. People who speak the same language are able to communicate because they intuitively know the grammar system of that language—that is, the rules of making meaning. Students who are native speakers of English already know English grammar. They recognize the sounds of English words, the meanings of those words, and the different ways of putting words together to make meaningful sentences. However, while students may be effective speakers of English, they need guidance to become effective writers. They need to learn how to transfer their knowledge of grammatical concepts from oral language to written language. In linguistics, grammar is the set of structural rules which influences the composition of clauses, phrases, and words in any given language. It is the systematic study and description of a language, and it helps us to understand how words and their component parts combine to form sentences. Some people think that correct English grammar matters only to teachers and is of no real importance in daily life. This is certainly not true. Grammar, regardless of the country or the language, is the foundation for communication. Grammar rules can help learners develop the habit of thinking logically and clearly. After studying grammar, learners are able to become more accurate when using a language. Without good grammar, clear communication is impossible. Proper grammar keeps you from being misunderstood while expressing your thoughts and ideas. A person with poor grammar skill can form a negative impression on others. First impressions can be lasting, and may hide the true judgment of character. Some people consider good grammar to be a mark of intelligence and education. Don’t allow strangers to form a negative impression of you based on your poor communication skills. Grammar improves the development of fluency. When a person has learned grammar, it will be easier for that person to know how to organize and express the ideas in their mind without difficulty. As a result, they will be able to speak, read and write the language more fluently.

It is generally accepted that there are four language skills: Speaking, Listening, Reading and Writing. Learners in foreign language situations need to learn and master the four skills in this order or in another order depending on the objectives and goals of learning for any particular group. For instance, air traffic controllers must possess a very high level of mastery in speaking and listening because these are the most important skills they need to do their job properly and efficiently; so there should be more focus on the two skills: speaking and listening. Grammar and vocabulary are not language skills. They are language components which are essential to the mastery of all the four skills. You cannot use any language skill without using grammar and vocabulary. Grammar is not an end in itself but it is a means to an end—to improve learners’ proficiency in the four language skills. Grammar is the backbone of language and without it, the produced text, whether it is spoken or written, will be classified with many labels: broken, uneducated, incomprehensible or simply not belonging to the English language. One way to improve your grammar is to read more in English. The more you read, the more you improve your grammar and vocabulary. It may be tiring and difficult to understand everything, but this is one step you cannot skip if you want to get better at grammar. Reading helps you to see how English works and how the grammar works.

Grammar is one of the main linguistic disciplines which studies the grammatical system of language. The grammatical system is the whole set of regularities determining the combinations of words in the formation of utterances. The aim of theoretical grammar of a language is to present a theoretical description of its grammatical system. Learning English grammar and using it correctly takes a lot of time, effort, and practice.

The nature of grammar is better understood in the light of discriminating the two planes of language — the plane of content and the plane of expression. The two planes are inseparably connected. Grammatical elements of language present a unity of content and expression, or a unity of form and meaning

Listening to others who use good English and watching television also helps. It works better if you watch what you are really interested in. Remember that the English spoken in America is different from that spoken in England. Some parts of spelling and grammar are different between the two countries. Make sure you work through all your grammar exercises in your course book regularly. To learn English grammar well, you will need to practice each grammar point until you can easily use it. Look for a book of grammar exercises that also has answers for additional practice. Online activities and quizzes can also help.

A person can’t learn a foreign language accurately only through a process of unconscious assimilation. Grammar is a sure ground of reference when linguistic habits fail us. So grammar is indispensable for the student. But modern language learners have different views and take different approaches. Modern language learners understand that grammar is the glue of language, and modern technology has adapted to this understanding. One example is the Grammar, a convenient grammar checker for your browser that checks your English writing for errors whenever you type anything online. Technology like this shows that we know grammar still matters for clarity, but we also don’t want to have to think about it all the time.

**Types of classifications**

1. Comprehensive classification was worked out by our Russian grammarians Khaimovich & Togovskaya [4, 11]. According to this classification there are 14 classes of words: noun, verb, statives (words of the category of state, *e.g. asleep, awake etc*), adjective, adverb, pronoun, numeral, conjunction, preposition, interjection, article, modal words (*e.g. probably, perhaps, evidently*), particles, responses (*yes/no*). B.Ilyish considered articles to be not words, but grammatical morphemes. For Barkhudarov statives & adjectives belong to one & the same class. Ilyish, Barkhudarov & Kaushanskaya considered that there is no class of response words.
2. Morphological classification is based on morphological principle. It was introduced by H.Glesson. He divided words into classes according to their paradigm. There are **4 classes** of words: noun, adjective, verb, personal pronoun. All the other groups are called syntactic groups.
3. Charles Frese divided all the words according to their functional syntactic features. He believed that all the words which can occupy the same position in the sentence must belong to the same class. He used the technique of substitution in the so called test-frames. He used 3 main test-frames.
4. The concert was good. (the structures meaning is thing and its quality at given time)
5. The clerk remembered the tax. (actor, action & thing acted upon)
6. The team went there. (actor, action & direction of the action)

All the words can fall in the same positions of the frames without affecting their general structural meaning can belong to one an the same class. Using this technique Charles Frese pointed out 4 classes: noun, adjective, verb, adverb. As for the rest of the words, he distributed them into 15 functional groups by means of the same method in extended test-frames [5, 39].

Groups of word classes

Classes of words are subdivided into notional, functional & sentence words (interjections, modal words, emphatic particles, yes/no).
The properties of functional words are as follows:

1. Invariable.
2. They don’t function as the members of the sentence.
3. They have no modifiers.
4. They are not stressed as a rule.

Migration of words

This process of migration of words is usually called conversion. Conversion is a way of forming new words from already existing ones by means of changing their paradigm, lexico-grammatical meaning, combinability & function. It is possible to point out several types of conversion:

1. Verbalization of nouns. *E.g. a doctor – to doctor*
2. Substantivization of adjectives. *E.g. a rich man – the rich.*
3. Adverbalization of nouns. *E.g. home – домашний очаг (уст.)*
4. Substantivization of verbs. *E.g. to break – a break.*

**The verb**

It is the most complex part of speech, a system of systems.

1. It’s categorical meaning is process developing in time.
2. Word class’s constituting affixes: -fy, -ize, -en, sub-, mis-, un- etc.
3. It has **7 grammatical categories**: tense, aspect, time correlation, mood, voice, person, number.
4. Distribution (combinability): combines with nouns & adverbs.
5. Syntactic function – predication.

The main division of the verb is between **finite verbs** & **non-finite**. As for the **finite verbs**, they have grammatical categories & the syntactic function is that of predication. The **non-finite forms** (infinitive, gerund, participle) have purely semantic connection with other words. Of the 7 grammatical categories they have **only 3: aspect, voice, time correlation**. These categories are not connected with predication. All the functions of the non-finite verbs are nominal, except the function of a part of a compound verbal predicate. The non-finite forms can be used as subject, object, predicative, attribute & adverbial modifier. But in our linguistics both forms finite & non-finite belong to the same class, because of their semantic using, some common grammatical categories, their combinability. It can be proved by their transformational history.E.g. bird sings – a singing bird; they arrived late – their arriving late [6, 85].

These are 3 main classifications of the verb: **morphological, semantic, functional.**

1. **Morphological classification** is the way the verb builds up its basic forms (infinitive, past simple, participle I & II). All the verbs are subdivided into regular & irregular. The group of irregular verbs includes 7 subgroups which are the remnants of the old English 7 classes of verbs.
*E.g. sit – sat – sat; build – built – built; cut – cut – cut etc.*
2. According to their morphological structure verbs are divided into:
3. Simple: to go, to take, to read.
4. Derived: to misunderstand, to rewrite.
5. Compound (consisting of two stems): to broadcast, to whitewash.
6. Composite (consisting of a verb & a post-position of an adverbial origin): to give up, to take off, to switch on. It is productive way of forming verbs.
7. **Semantic classification** is based on a general semantic character of a verb: there are verbs of motion (to arrive, to come, to go), verbs of sense perception (to see, to hear, to feel, to notice), of mental activity (to think, to believe, to consider).
Besides verbs can be subdivided into: terminative & non-terminative. **^ Terminative verbs** denote actions which cannot develop beyond a certain inherent limit. The actions denoted by **non-terminative verbs** have no inherent limits.
*E.g. terminative: to come, to take, to stand up, to sit down; non-terminative: to live, to love, to stand, to shine.*
8. The majority of verbs are of double semantic character. They may be both terminative & non-terminative.
9. **Functional classification** is based on the structural role of the verb in the sentence. According to the syntactic function of the verb they are derived into **notional & auxiliary**.

**Notional verbs** are those which have a full meaning of their own & can be used without any additional words as a simple predicate.
*E.g. She told the truth.*

 Notional verbs can be transitive & intransitive. **Transitive verbs** can take a direct object that is they express an action which passes on to a person or thing directly: to take to give, to send, to make etc.
There are verbs which can be used either with or without direct object: to read, to write, to hear etc.

 *E.g. He can read & write. (intransitive)*

 **Intransitive verbs** can’t take a direct object. Here belong: to stand, to sleep, to laugh, to think, to swim etc.

*E.g. They laughed bitterly.*

Some verbs in different context can be transitive & intransitive, such as: to open, to move, to change, to drop etc.

 *E.g. The door opened (intransitive). He opened the door (transitive).***Auxiliary verbs** are those which have lost their meaning & are used as form words, thus having a grammatical function. They are used in analytical forms.
*E.g. to be, to do, to have, shall, will, should, would*

There are **semi auxiliary verbs**. They are used as a structural element in a syntactic unit. Here belong: **link verbs, modal verbs, verb substitutes, emphatic verbs** [12, 33-34].

* 1. **Link verbs**: *to be, to become, to grow, to turn etc*.
	Every notional verb may be used as a link verb. Link verbs have lost their meaning & are used in a compound nominal predicate which usually denotes the state or quality of a person or thing expressed by the subject. Link verbs have partly lost their original concrete meaning. Only one link verb has lost its meaning altogether. It is the verb *to be*. It can be combined with any part of speech used as a predicative. According to their meaning link verbs are divided into 2 large groups:
	 **Link verbs of being and remaining**: to be, to remain, to look, to smell, to stand, to lie, to shine, to seem etc.
	2. **Link verbs of becoming**: to become, to get, to grow, to go, to turn etc.
	3. **Modal verbs** have a certain modal meaning & are used as the first element in a compound verbal modal predicate. Modal verbs usually show the speaker’s attitude either to the action or to the state denoted by the infinitive. The modal verbs are: can (could), may (might), must, should, would, ought, shall, will, dare, need. The modal expressions are: to be + infinitive, to have + infinitive.
	4. **Verb-substitutes** don’t name any action, but point to the action already mentioned in order to avoid repletion: do/did.
	E.g. The girl scraped through the exam, & so did he.
	5. **Emphatic verbs**: do/did.
	E.g. Do be quite! I did know him.

**The grammatical categories of the verb**

The main approach to the description of grammatical categories is oppositional, because oppositions the main in morphology. Finite forms have **^ 7 grammatical categories: tense, aspect, voice, mood, time correlation, person, number. The grammatical category of tense** is recognized by everybody. It reflects the objective category of time & expresses on this background the relations between the time of the action & the time of the utterance.
The main division of objective time is clear past, present, future. Thus the grammatical category of tense is represented by an opposition of 3 members showing the relations of the time and the action denoted by the verb to the moment of speech.

*E.g. present – writes, past – wrote, future – will write*

The time of the action can be expressed lexically with the help of such words and word combinations as: yesterday, a year ago, next week etc. It can also be shown grammatically by means of the category of tense. It is usual to express the notions of time graphically.

Past Present Future

The relation between the Present, the Past and the Future is complicated. The present in speech is not a point of the moment of speaking, but a more or less long period of time including this moment.

 *E.g. The Earth rotates round the Sun.*

In the sentence we deal the Present, but this Present not only includes the present moment, but covers a long period of time starching in both directions from the present moment [3, 58].

The Past is the time proceeding the present moment. The Future is the time following the present moment. Neither of them includes the present moment.
Tenses may be used absolutely and relatively. We say that the tense is used absolutely if it is used to show the time of the action with regard to the present moment (the moment of speech).

 *E.g. She loses her temper. She lost her temper. She will lose her temper.*

But very often tense reflects the time of an action not with regard to the moment of speech, but to some other moment in the past, indicated by the tense another verb.

*E.g. He said she lost her temper. He said she had lost her temper. He said she would lose her temper.*

The Future-in-the-Past tenses don’t easily fit into a system of tenses represented by a straight line running out of the Past into the Future. Their starting moment is not the Present from which the Past and the Future are reckoned, but the Past itself. With regard to all Future-in-the-Past tenses we may say that the Past is a new center of the system. Thus the idea of temporal centers suggested by professor **Ivanova** seems quite logical in analyzing the Future-in-the-Past tenses.
Professor **Irtenyeva** put forward a different view on the English tense system. There are tenses centering in the Present and those centering in the Past. The former include the Present Simple, the Present Perfect, the Present Progressive, the Present Perfect Progressive, Future tenses. The latter include the all the Past and all the Future-in-the-Past tenses. Thus we have a two fold division of tenses.
**The grammatical category of voice** is represented by a binary privative opposition constituted by 2 from classes, **active** & **passive**, in which passive voice is the marked member of the opposition both in form “to be +participle II” and in meaning. Active voice is a weak member both in form & meaning.
As for the **definition for the category**:

1. The category shows the relation between the subject & the action.

2. It shows the relation between the subject and the object of the action.
 **Active Passive**
invites is invited
invited was invited
will invite will be invited
There are **direct, indirect and prepositional passive.**

Some forms of the active voice find no parallel in the passive. It refers to the forms of the Future Continuous, Future Continuous in the Past and all the Perfect Continuous tenses. At various times the following 3 voices have been suggested in addition to the 2 already mentioned.

1. **Reflexive**
*E.g. He dressed himself.*
2. **Middle**
*E.g. The door closed.*
3. **Reciprocal**
*E.g. They kissed each other.*

**The grammatical category of aspect** is represented by 2 sets of forms in modern English: **non-continuous, continuous**. These forms are contrasted with each other on the principal of use & non-use of the pattern “to be + participle I”.

 **Non-continuous Continuous**
writes is writing
wrote was/were writing
will write will be writing

The **continuous** aspect is marked both in form and in meaning. As for the **non-continuous** aspect, it isn’t marked in form and in meaning as a rule.
The continuous aspect denoted an action going on at a given period of time. The non-continuous aspect denotes an action which is not limited in this way. The grammatical category of aspect shows difference in the way the action is shown to proceed.

Professor **Ivanova** [5, 66] recognizes the existence of this category in English, but she objects to the term common aspect or non-continuous aspect saying that the forms *write, wrote* are purely tense forms.

As for the Russian verb, it has 2 aspects, the perfective and the imperfective, but there is no direct correspondence between Russian and English aspects. Thus the English common (non-continuous) aspect may correspond not only to the Russian imperfective aspect.

**The grammatical category of time-correlation (of order, of phase)** is represented by binary opposition, constituted by 2 form classes: **perfect and non-perfect**. The perfect is the marked member of the opposition both in form and in meaning. The non-perfect is a weak member of the opposition both in form and in meaning as a rule.

 **Non-perfect Perfect**
writes has written
wrote had written
will write will have written

This category shows whether the action is viewed as prior to other actions or irrespective of other actions. Linguists disagree as to the category of the perfect belongs. Some grammarians think that it forms part of the aspect system (the resultive aspect). Other linguists treat perfect as belonging to the tenses. **Smirnitsky** was the first to draw attention that the forms represent a grammatical category which is different from the category of tense, though it is closely connected with it.

*E.g. She has come. – priority to the act of speech.*
*She had come before he phoned over. – priority to the act of his phoning over.*
Thus the perfect forms express priority, whereas non-perfect lays the action unspecified.

**The grammatical category of mood Mood** is the grammatical category of the verb reflecting the relation of the action denoted by the verb to reality from the speaker point of view.

 *E.g. He listens attentively. –* ***indicative*** *mood*

*Listen attentively! –* ***imperative*** *mood*

*He would have listened attentively if he had been interested. –* ***subjunctive*** *mood*

We deal with the same action of listening, but in the first sentence the action is represented as taking place in reality; in the second it is a command; in the third the action is imaginary, it is non-fact. So in modern English we distinguish **3 moods**.There is no unity of opinion concerning this category. In the opinion of **Kaushanskaya** in modern English there are synthetic and analytical forms. The **synthetic forms** are: the Present Subjunctive of all the verbs and the Past Subjunctive of the verb to be.

The  **Present subjunctive** denotes an action referring to the Present of Future. This form is found in poetry, elevated prose, scientific language, language of official documents and some set phrases.

*E.g. God forbid!*

*Suffice it to say that he soon came back.*

In American English the Present Subjunctive is used in colloquial speech.
*E.g. She insisted that he take care of her.*

The **Past Subjunctive** *were* is widely used in English is found not only in literature but in colloquial language.

*E.g. I wish she were wiser.*

The **analytical forms** are: *should + bare infinitive, would + bare infinitive, may/might + bare infinitive*.

*E.g. If I were the head of the country, I should extend the application of a law to all.*

In general the number of English moods in different theories varies from 2 to **Kaushanskaya, Ilyish, Ivanova, Iofik** find only 3 moods. **Barkhudarov** believed that there are 2 moods: indicative and subjunctive subdivided into subjunctive 1 and subjunctive 2. As for the imperative, it is treated outside the category of mood.

The difficulty of distinguishing of other moods from the indicative in English is connected with the fact that they do not contain a single form which is not used in the indicative. The meanings of these 3 moods are distinguished not so much by the opposition of the individual forms, but by the opposition of the system of forms each mood possesses.

*E.g. To have:*

*Indicative: have, has, had*
*Subjunctive: have, had*
*Imperative: have*

One of the most important differences between the indicative mood and the other moods is that the meaning of tense doesn’t go with the meanings of the subjunctive and imperative moods. Tense reflects the real time of the real action, but the imperative and subjunctive moods represent the action not as real, but as desirable or imaginary [13, 88].

**Syntax**
Our modern theory of syntax includes:

1. **the study of the phrase** (minor syntax)
2. **the study of the sentence** (major syntax). It deals with simple sentences, parts of sentence, complex sentences, compound sentences, composite sentences.
3. **the study of text or discourse**. The unit of investigation is text or complex syntactic unit.

**Syntactic bonds & means of their expression**
The structure of syntactic units is formed of constituencies which are joined by means of syntactic connections or bonds. A **syntactic bond** is a connection between words or groups of words in a flow of speech. In syntactic analysis more effective is the notion of an immediate syntactic bond, by which we mean the syntactic connection between 2 words or group of words which on a certain level of IC analysis turn out to be the immediate constituency of one and the same larger construction.

*E.g. He | deserved || my ||| friendship.*

**Types of syntactic bonds**

There are 3 types of syntactic bonds:

1. **predication**
2. **subordination**
3. **coordination**

**CONCLUSION**

This course paper we revealed detailed rules and recommendations of the use of the article or its omission in dependence on various features of the grammatical forms of the word and of the sentence in which it occurs. We ascertain which of the article must be used to show the concrete meaning of the grammatical forms of the word.

So in this work word-meaning is viewed as closely connected but not identical with either the sound-form of the word or with its referent. Proceeding from the basic assumption of the objectivity of language and from the understanding of linguistic units as two-facet entities we regard meaning as the inner facet of the word, inseparable from its outer facet which is indispensable to the existence of meaning and to intercommunication.

The two main types of word-meaning are the grammatical and the lexical meanings found in all words. The interrelation of these two types of meaning may be different in different groups of words. Lexical meaning is viewed as possessing denotational and connotational components. The denotational component is actually what makes communication possible. The connotational component comprises the stylistic reference and the emotive charge proper to the word as a linguistic unit in the given language system. The subjective emotive implications acquired by words in speech lie outside the semantic structure of words as they may vary from speaker to speaker but are not proper to words as units of language.

Lexical meaning with its denotational and connotational components may be found in morphemes of different types. The denotational meaning in affixal morphemes may be rather vague and abstract, the lexical meaning and the part-of-speech meaning tending to blend.

It is suggested that in addition to lexical meaning morphemes may contain specific types of meaning: differential, functional and distributional.

We pointed out different motivations. Morphological motivation implies a direct connection between the lexical meaning of the component morphemes, the pattern of their arrangement and the meaning of the word.

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**Internet resources**

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2. [http://www.ihes.com](http://www.ihes.com/bcn/tt/articles/cll.html)
3. [http://www.articlesbase.com](http://www.articlesbase.com/languages-articles/community-language-learning-4282256.html)
4. [http://www.teachingenglish.org.uk](http://www.teachingenglish.org.uk/think/articles/community-language-learning)