

Міністерство освіти і науки України
Миколаївський національний університет імені В. О. Сухомлинського
Кафедра германської філології

В. В. БАРКАСІ, Т. О. МОРОЗ, С. С. НІКІФОРЧУК

ТЕОРЕТИЧНА ГРАМАТИКА АНГЛІЙСЬКОЇ МОВИ

*Навчально-методичний посібник
для змішаної форми навчання*

Миколаїв
Видавець Румянцева Г. В.
2023

УДК 811.111'36

ББК 81.432.1

Б 24

РЕЦЕНЗЕНТИ:

ШЕХАВЦОВА С. О., доктор педагогічних наук, професор, декан факультету іноземних мов ДЗ «Луганський Національний університет імені Тараса Шевченка»;

БЕЗКОРОВАЙНА О. В., доктор педагогічних наук, професор, зав. кафедри методики викладання іноземних мов Рівненського державного гуманітарного університету

Рекомендовано вченою радою

*Миколаївського національного університету імені В. О. Сухомлинського
(протокол № 19 від 24.04.2023)*

Баркасі В. В.

Б 24

Теоретична граматики англійської мови : навчально-методичний посібник для змішаної форми навчання / В. В. Баркасі, Т. О. Мороз, С. С. Нікіфорчук. – Миколаїв : видавець Румянцева, 2023. – 215 с.

ISBN 978-617-729-134-2

Даний посібник розрахований на студентів-германістів як денної так і заочної форми навчання III, IV курсів спеціальності 014.021 Середня освіта. Англійська мова і література і 035.041 Філологія. Германські мови та літератури (переклад включно), перша – англійська. Навчально-методичний посібник «Теоретична граматики (для змішаної форми навчання)» укладено згідно до вимог та змісту навчальної програми з курсу «Теоретична граматики». У навчально-методичному посібнику подано теоретичний матеріал – автентичні статті та відеоматеріал фахівців з актуальних питань теоретичної граматики англійської мови, завдання, що сприяють формуванню мовної та мовленнєвої компетенцій студентів, яка є складовою професійної компетентності майбутніх філологів і учителів іноземних мов, та тестові завдання. До навчально-методичного посібника включені дискусійні питання, що демонструють різні точки зору дослідників.

УДК 811.111'36

ББК 81.432.1

© Баркасі В. В., Мороз Т. О., Нікіфорчук С. С., 2023

ISBN 978-617-729-134-2

© МНУ імені В. О. Сухомлинського, 2023

CONTENTS

Передмова.....	4
Unit I. Controversial problem of part of speech classification	6
Unit II. The English article system: acquisition, function and pedagogy	14
Unit III. Notional words and function words in Modern English. Various interpretations....	25
Unit IV. Pronouns: male, female and undersignedated	33
Unit V. Pronouns	44
Unit VI. Semantic classification of adverbs	60
Unit VII. The category of mood: problems and solutions	69
Unit VIII. Modality and the English modals	80
Unit IX. Mood and modality.....	92
Unit X. The category of aspect: continuous forms	103
Unit XI. Controversial aspects of the English verb (Continuous forms).....	112
Unit XII. The polysemy of the perfect.....	122
Unit XIII. The number of voices in Modern English. The passive in English	134
Unit XIV. Active and passive voice	143
Unit XV. Verbal gerunds	174
Unit XVI. Classification of Secondary Parts. Parts of the Sentence.....	193
ENGLISH GRAMMAR TERMS	203
REFERENCES	211

Передмова

Навчально-методичний посібник «Теоретична граматика (для змішаної форми навчання)» укладено згідно до вимог та змісту навчальної програми з курсу «Теоретична граматика» для студентів III, IV курсів спеціальності 014.021 Середня освіта. Англійська мова і література і 035.041 Філологія. Германські мови та літератури (переклад включно), перша – англійська.

Теоретична граматика – одна з основних нормативних лінгвістичних дисциплін в системі професійного навчання майбутніх філологів і вчителів англійської мови. Вона вивчає мовні явища, одиниці мови та мовлення на різних рівнях мови з точки зору їхнього функціонального взаємозв'язку. Зміст дисципліни охоплює основні концепції і граматичні теорії сучасної англійської мови, специфіку фахової термінології, методи дослідження граматичних явищ англійської мови. Предметом вивчення є граматична будова як основа системності у мові, морфологічна структура слова, граматичні класи слів, критерії виділення частин мови, класифікації частин мови, іменник та його граматичні категорії, проблема роду в англійській мові, проблема артикля, прикметник та його граматичні категорії, граматичне значення дієслова, семантико-граматичні групи дієслів, граматичні категорії дієслова, граматичні категорії та синтаксичні функції інфінітива і герундія, дієприкметник теперішнього часу, дієприкметник минулого часу, предикативна лінія простого речення, класифікація речень, елементарне речення, конституентний аналіз речення, будова складносурядних і складнопідрядних речень, комунікативний аналіз речення. Зазначений курс покликаний розвивати у студентів теоретико-гіпотетичне мислення, формувати навички екстраполяції основних мовознавчих понять на суміжні дисципліни, сприяти розумінню діалектичної суті базових положень мовознавства.

Змішане навчання – це поєднання онлайн та офлайн-навчання у один ланцюжок, що творить «навчальний досвід» учня та самодостатній логічний курс чи предмет. При змішаному навчанні інструкції/теорія, яку студент опрацьовує онлайн (чи то у формі самостійного прочитання матеріалів, чи при

перегляді демонстраційних відео, чи при перегляді відеозапису лекції тощо), знаходять своє застосування офлайн.

Запропонований навчально-методичний посібник має за мету допомагати студентам при змішаному навчанні під час підготовки до семінарських занять з теоретичної граматики англійської мови, при самостійному опрацюванні матеріалу. Поданий матеріал може використовуватись як додатковий навчальний матеріал.

У навчально-методичному посібнику подано теоретичний матеріал – автентичні статті та відеоматеріал фахівців з актуальних питань теоретичної граматики англійської мови, завдання, що сприяють формуванню мовної та мовленнєвої компетенцій студентів, яка є складовою професійної компетентності майбутніх філологів і учителів іноземних мов, та тестові завдання. До навчально-методичного посібника включені дискусійні питання, що демонструють різні точки зору дослідників.

Unit I. Controversial problem of part of speech classification

Synopsis:

The lesson gives an overview of the differentiation between parts of speech in the English language. The key points highlighted during the lesson are the main features of classification proposed by Otto Jespersen and the main features of classification proposed by Henry Sweet. Students will know what criteria can words be classified by; word classes that are traditionally divided into parts of speech; the parts of speech distinguished by O. Jespersen and which of them belong to “particles”; the main features of classification proposed by Henry Sweet; the problem of part of speech classification.

Lesson aim and learning outcomes

The aim of the lesson is to give full information about a long tradition of classifying words, for the purpose of grammatical description, into the eight classes (nouns, pronouns, adjectives, verbs, adverbs, prepositions, conjunctions, and interjection) and the differentiation between parts of speech. We must consider functional, formal and also semantic criteria. In such way we will be able to much adequately classify the words and continue research for development of scientific idea in grammar. Learning outcomes: to comprehend theoretical and practical knowledge about the problem of part of speech classification; to be able to apply in-depth cognitive and practical skills to analyze the main features of classification; to be able to solve practical problems in the field of classifying words, for the purpose of grammatical description.

Key Reading

1. Kovbasko Y. On the Problem of Parts of Speech Identification in the English Language: A Historical Overview. Research Journal Studies about Languages No. 36, 2020, pp. 30-45.

2. Demidov D. V. Theoretical English Grammar: the manual for part-time students of higher educational institutions / Denys Valeriyovych Demidov; The State institution —Luhansk Taras Shevchenko National University. – Luhansk: Luhansk Taras Shevchenko National University, 2014. – 121 p
3. Kharytonov I. K. Theoretical grammar of the modern English language. Vinnytsia, Nova knyha, 2008 – 352 p.
4. Alexeyeva I. Theoretical English Grammar. Vinnytsia, Nova knyha, 2007 – 328 p.

References Used in the Teaching Materials

1. <https://slideplayer.com/slide/5867375/>
2. https://www.academia.edu/6543262/1_The_main_approaches_to_the_part_of_speech_classification
3. <https://wac.colostate.edu/docs/books/sound/chapter6.pdf>
4. <http://etheses.whiterose.ac.uk/10933/1/362047.pdf>
5. https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=sk5iO_uFgKw

Content of the lesson

Activity 1. Spark.

A. Follow the link: https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=sk5iO_uFgKw and watch the video about functional parts of speech.

B. Reflect on the question:

What is the distinction between open and closed class parts of speech and the distinction between lexical and functional parts of speech?

Input

Activity 2. Follow the link: <http://etheses.whiterose.ac.uk/10933/1/362047.pdf> and read the article. Make sure to pay attention to the following points while reading:

1. What does the term “word” mean?
2. What criteria can words be classified by?
3. What word classes are traditionally divided into parts of speech?

4. What are the main features of classification proposed by Otto Jespersen?
5. What parts of speech are distinguished by O. Jespersen and which of them belong to “particles”?
6. What is the main difference between nouns and adjectives, according to O. Jespersen?
7. What are the main features of classification proposed by Henry Sweet?
8. What groups of part of speech classification are introduced by H. Sweet? Why do they have such a denomination?
9. What is the relationship between a noun and a pronoun, according to H. Sweet?
10. What is the designation of the verb suggested by O. Jespersen?
11. What is the designation of pronouns suggested by H. Sweet?
12. What is the division of pronouns by H. Sweet?
13. How can we solve the problem of part of speech classification?

Rodríguez-Navarro L. Q.

CONTROVERSIAL PROBLEM OF PART OF SPEECH CLASSIFICATION

Words are integral component of human communication or language. They can be classified by various criteria, such as phonological properties (e.g., monosyllabic vs. polysyllabic words), social factors (e.g., general vs. technical vocabulary), and language history (e.g., loanwords vs. native words). There is a long tradition of classifying words, for the purpose of grammatical description, into the eight classes: nouns, pronouns, adjectives, verbs, adverbs, prepositions, conjunctions, and interjections. Differentiation between parts of speech can be regarded as an instance of one of the most fundamental traits of human cognition: putting people or things, but also more abstract entities such as words, into groups on the basis of certain shared characteristics (categorization). While each of these terms is useful, and they are indispensable for practical purposes, their status in a fully explicit description of a language or in theoretical grammatical theory remains disputed. The main problems of the part of speech classification are their diversity and ambiguity.

Danish linguist, Otto Jespersen (1860-1943) tried to take into account the basis of the traditional classification of words and due to his learning word in its isolation, has created his own classification of parts of speech. The scientist introduced the system which grounds on forms of words. At the same time, English philologist, phonetician and grammarian, Henry Sweet (1845-1912) considered the division of the parts of speech according to its functional appropriation. Both classifications have their advantages and disadvantages and therefore couldn't wholly end polemic problem in grammar.

O. Jespersen's classification includes 5 parts of speech: substantives, adjectives, pronouns, verbs, and particles. The linguist stated nouns (or "substantives" that is have a function of the noun) to be words that can take in plural ending -s, while verbs have the same ending in the 3-d person singular present. Those words, which can contain endings of the comparative degrees, have a full right to be called adjectives. Nouns differ from adjectives by their formal side (e.g., "old" is an adjective from its having no ending in the old boy's (gen.)and the old boys' (pl.), and "boys" is a substantive from its ending -s).The explanation lies on endings of nouns which have preserved some historical peculiarities (ending -s), and adjectives were historically deprived of such features.

The verb is a separate part of speech and O. Jespersen regarded it as a life—giving element, which makes it particularly valuable in building up sentences. Due to its sentence-building power, finite forms of verbs are recognized as verbs proper. Participle is concerned by O. Jespersen as a special kind of adjective formed from the verb and substantives are similar to infinitive, verbids are regarded as an intermediate class between verbs and nouns.

Speaking about pronouns, they also discerned as a separate category. It should be noted, that pronouns differ significantly from the other parts of speech due to a complex relationship between them, which is difficult to treat from functional or formal side. They can be group due to case (he-him; they-them), gender (he, she, it) and other pronouns have the similar distinction. O. Jespersen included such "pronominal adverbs" as then, there, when, where, thus and numerals and quantifiers,

as much, little, to pronouns because they have the same historical roots basis. Danish linguist suggested adverbs, prepositions, conjunctions, and interjections to be invariable class called particles. We can easily compare his treatment with H. Sweet's one, where he included these words into "indeclinable."

Many grammarians often suggest O. Jespersen to rely on form rather than function of a word, and such a classification cannot be accepted in analytical English in comparison with Latin. Therefore, we should pay attention to the functional classification of words.

H. Sweet believes that the formal classification is not sufficiently grounded to separate parts of speech (comparison of forms can be traced in adjectives and a participle). His studies based on the functional aspect of the classification of parts of speech. H. Sweet separates the part of speech into "declinable" (words which can take the ending in a word) and "indeclinable" (words which cannot take the ending in a word). The declinable parts of speech are divided into nouns, adjectives, and verbs. He analyzed parts of speech from the formal side also: nouns are those words which meaning admits of it have plural inflection (trees); adjectives have degrees of comparison (big, bigger, biggest); and verbs have inflections of their own distinct from those of the other parts of speech (I grow, he grows, grown). Each part of speech has special form-words associated with it (a tree, the tree; to grow, is growing, has grown); and each part of speech has more or less definite position in the sentence with regard to other parts of speech (white snow, the snow melts, the green tree, the tree is green).

The indeclinable words or "particles" comprise adverbs, prepositions, conjunctions, and interjections. H. Sweet enumerates their functions. The main function of adverbs, such as quickly and very, is to serve as adjunct-words to verbs and to other particles, as in the snow melted quickly, very quickly. Prepositions are joined to nouns to make them into adjunct-words. Conjunctions and interjections are used mainly to show the connection between sentences and to express them with particular manner. Numerals are another special class of noun and adjectives: three in three of us are a noun-numeral, in "three men" and adjective-numeral in "third man".

Sweet suggested pronouns to be a special class of nouns and adjectives and made their further distinguishing into noun-pronouns (I, they) and adjective-pronouns, (“my” and “that” in “my book”, “that man”). As for connection between nouns and pronouns, these two classes which is for convenience distinguished as declinable and indeclinable parts of speech is not necessarily dependent on the presence or absence of ending, but it corresponds, to some extent, to the distinction between head-word and adjunct-word.

From the foregone discussion we can conclude that neither the functional nor the formal evidence alone is adequate if we must classify English words into lexical and grammatical categories. We must consider functional, formal and also semantic criteria. In such way we will be able to much adequately classify the words and continue research for development of scientific idea in grammar.

Activity 3. State whether the following statements are true or false. Correct the false ones.

1. There is a long tradition of classifying words, for the purpose of grammatical description, into the ten classes: nouns, pronouns, adjectives, verbs, adverbs, prepositions, conjunctions, particles.
2. Many grammarians often suggest O. Jespersen to rely on meaning rather than form of a word, and such a classification cannot be accepted in analytical English in comparison with Greek.
3. The declinable words or “particles” comprise adverbs, pronouns, conjunctions, and interjections.
4. Spanish linguist, Otto Jespersen (1840-1943) tried to take into account the basis of the modern classification of words and due to his learning sentence in its isolation, has created his own classification of parts of speech.
5. Sweet separates the part of speech inflected on flexional (words which can take the ending in a word) and inflexional (words which cannot take the ending in a word).

6. Participle is concerned by O. Jespersen as a special kind of adjective formed from the noun and substantives similar to gerund, verbals are regarded as an intermediate class between verbs and nouns.

7. At the same time, Deutsch philologist, writer and philosopher, Henry Sweet (1845-1912) considered the division of the parts of speech according to its formal appropriation.

8. Sweet suggested pronouns to be a special class of nouns and adjectives and made their further distinguishing into noun-adjectives (I, they) and noun-pronouns, (“my” and “that” in “my book”, “that man”).

9. The main advantages of part of speech classification are their diversity and uncertainty.

10. As for verbs and adverbs these two classes which is for convenience distinguished as declinable and indeclinable parts of speech is not necessarily dependent on the presence or absence of affixes, but it corresponds, to some extent, to the distinction between independent word and dependent word.

Activity 4. Fill in the table. Be ready to compare different approaches to part of speech classification.

	Advantages	Disadvantages
O. Jespersen’s classification		
H. Sweet’s classification		
Traditional classification		

Activity 5. Self-assessment. Choose the correct part of speech:

Noun, pronoun, verb, adjective, adverb, preposition, conjunction, interjection.

1. The name of a person, place or thing is called a noun.
2. The word used in place of nouns.
3. It tells about the activity of things and persons or their state.

4. A word that qualifies the noun or pronoun.
5. A word that qualifies a verb, an adjective or another adverb.
6. A word showing the relation or connection of a noun or pronoun with another noun or pronoun is called the preposition.
7. It is used to join the words or phrases.
8. A word or a sound which expresses sudden feelings or emotions.

Activity 6. To solve this exercise, you have to identify the noun, pronoun, verb, adverb, adjective, preposition, conjunction, interjection in the given sentences.

1. Tom went to market to buy **books** (_____).
2. He went to the market **but** (_____) did not buy new books.
3. **I liked** (_____) **him** (_____) better than he likes me.
4. A smart girl was dancing **quickly** (_____).
5. **She** (_____) eats apples in the morning daily.
6. When he was **sitting** (_____) on the grass, a snake bit him.
7. **You** (_____) caught him by his arm.
8. **A rich** (_____) lady bought a **beautiful** (_____) necklace.
9. The cat is sitting **under** (_____) the chair.
10. The body of the cage is made of **iron**. (_____)
11. It is not **your** (_____) pen; it is hers.
12. There is still some milk **in** (_____) the jug.
13. Jimmy is **performing** (_____) his duties diligently.
14. The drawing made by you is **almost** (_____) perfect.
15. I shall not go **unless** (_____) you allow.
16. The road is too (_____) goby.
17. The flowers smell **sweet**. (_____)
18. He **frequently** (_____) goes to the beach.

Activity 7. Assessment. Prepare additional information about conjunction and interjection.

Unit II. The English article system: acquisition, function and pedagogy

Synopsis:

The lesson gives an overview of teaching of the English article system. The key points highlighted during the lesson are the acquisition, frequency, and function of the English articles (which in this paper are limited to a, the, and the zero article, Ø), and then provides a framework for their presentation in the classroom. Students will know that the article in English is an invariable part of speech; they are among the most frequently occurring free morphemes in English; the zero article occurs most frequently with indefinite non-count (formless, continue) and plural count (limitless) nouns; functions of definite and indefinite articles.

Lesson aim and learning outcomes

The aim of the lesson is to give full information about the acquisition, frequency, and function of the English articles. We must consider that article errors rarely lead to miscomprehension, whether spoken or written, and this is one reason that learners devote so little effort to learning the system, but articles in English only function as determinatives of nouns/noun equivalents and are never used alone. Learning outcomes: to comprehend theoretical and practical knowledge about the problem of teaching of the English article system; to be able to apply in-depth cognitive and practical skills to analyze the main functions of articles; to be able to solve practical problems in the field of providing a number of interesting article tasks to encourage the comprehension and application of the article system.

Key Reading

1. <https://learnenglish.britishcouncil.org/grammar/english-grammar-reference/>
2. Amelia Leong Chiew Har. Strategies for Teaching the Articles a, an, the. *Advances in Language and Literary Studies*, Vol. 2, No. 2, July, 2011
3. Kharytonov I. K. *Theoretical grammar of the modern English language*. Vinnytsia, Nova knyha, 2008 – 352 p.

4. Alexeyeva I. Theoretical English Grammar. Vinnytsia, Nova knyha, 2007 – 328 p.

References Used in the Teaching Materials

1. <https://www.macrothink.org/journal/index.php/ijl/article/download/5998/4939>.
2. https://www.academia.edu/29147202/Teaching_the_English_Article_System
3. <https://journals.sagepub.com/doi/10.1177/1362168817739649>
4. <https://core.ac.uk/reader/228947440>
5. https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=3D6PYG_yiuA

Content of the lesson

Activity 1. Spark.

- A. Follow the link: https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=3D6PYG_yiuA and watch the video about 9 rules of articles: a, an, the or thee.
- B. Reflect on the question:
Point out the differences of articles pronunciation.

Input

Activity 2. Follow the link: <https://www.researchgate.net/publication/240920277> and read the article. Make sure to pay attention to the following points while reading:

1. Who describes a different kind of practice from the traditional explanation-production model?
2. What are articles?
3. What University found *the* to be the most frequent word in a corpus of 20 million words?
4. Which article is the most frequent word?
5. What did Palmer suggest over 50 years ago?
6. What are the first and the second functions according to Chesterman?
7. Is zero article (Ø) definite or indefinite?
8. What do you know about the general function of zeroarticle?
9. What did Hewson reflect?

10. What are the four types of overlapping contrast between Ø1 and *a* posits according to P. Master?
11. Is null article (Ø2) definite or indefinite?
12. What do you know about the general function of null article?
13. What examples contrasting Ø1 and *a* did Chesterman describe?
14. What do you know about the general function of indefinite article *a*?
15. What is the general function of *the*?
16. What model did VanPatten and Cadierno provide?
17. What article tasks did Berry provide?

Peter Master

Department of Linguistics
and Language Development,
San Jose State University,
CA 95192-0093, U.S.A

THE ENGLISH ARTICLE SYSTEM: ACQUISITION, FUNCTION AND PEDAGOGY

The teaching of the English article system is a somewhat controversial proposition. Some believe instruction in the article system will have no useful long-term effect and consequently devote little or no classroom time to explicating or practicing the system. Others feel that, while they cannot ignore student requests to address the article errors that have been noted on their compositions, there are usually more egregious errors that need attention. This raises two questions: How do we know that teaching the article system will have any effect? Why should valuable class time be devoted to such a minor aspect of English grammar?

The effect of formal instruction in communicative classrooms has become an issue of considerable interest in recent years. For example, Schwartz (1993), maintaining Krashen's distinction between unconscious acquisition and conscious learning, argues that formal instruction can only influence conscious learning, which she terms learned linguistic knowledge (LLK). However, she also claims that

interlanguage grammar is not the same as native-speaker competence and that "to achieve native like linguistic behaviour, LLK will need to be created to supplement (or even override) competence" and that the resulting changes in learned linguistic behaviour "may be all we are seeking". VanPatten and Cadierno (1993) describe a different kind of practice from the traditional explanation-production model in which they follow explanation with non-production activities such as interpreting the informational content of example sentences.... Other researchers (e.g. Harley, 1993) have pointed up the need for more explicitness in what is meant by form and instruction in further research. In summary, evidence is mounting that formal instruction does have a positive effect.

In answer to the second question, article errors rarely lead to miscomprehension, whether spoken or written, and this is one reason that learners devote so little effort to learning the system. Some learners may also feel that they have already learned the system even when clearly have not, as shown in the following student comment (Master, 1995).

Based on the argument that focus-on-form instruction is effective and that such instruction is necessary, this paper discusses the acquisition, frequency, and function of the English articles (which in this paper are limited to a, the, and the zero article, Ø), and then provides a framework for their presentation in the classroom.

THE ARTICLE

The definition of the article in English is very general and does not go beyond the following: "*articles are determinatives which serve to give precision to the nouns/noun equivalents to which they are attached. On the other hand, the definite article the is by far the commonest word in English, and with a and an makes up 8.5% of all text*" (Berry, 1993: V).

As articles in English can only function as determinatives of nouns/noun equivalents and are never used alone, some linguists argue that they should not even be considered an independent part of speech and never be treated as such but, for practical purposes, it is far easier and simpler to accept the old tradition of the article as a separate part of speech.

At the present stage of language development, the article in English is an invariable part of speech. As far as its position is concerned, be it definite or indefinite, it is proclitic, i.e. it is placed before the noun/noun equivalent it determines.

FREQUENCY AND FUNCTION

The articles are among the most frequently occurring free morphemes in English. The COBUILD (Collins Birmingham University International Language Database) (Sinclair, 1991) found *the* to be the most frequent word in a corpus of 20 million words, while *a* holds the fifth position (after *of*, *and*, and *to*).

The zero article

The fact that *the* is the most frequent word. The zero article is the most frequently occurring free morpheme in the English language.

... Over 50 years ago, Palmer (1939) suggested that there may be two forms of the zero article, one that occurs with non-count and plural nouns and the other that occurs with certain singular count and proper nouns. Following Chesterman (1991), I shall refer to the first function as the zero article (or Ø1) and the second function as the null article (or Ø2).

The zero article (Ø1)

The zero article (Ø1) is the most indefinite of the articles. Its general function is to remove the boundaries that make nouns discrete. Hewson (1972), reflecting the once common practice of calling Ø + NOUN a "bare noun", describes it as follows: The bare noun, calling into play as it does the great extensivity of notion belonging to the potential significate, presents the limitless, formless, continue entity...

The zero article thus occurs most frequently with indefinite non-count (formless, continue) and plural count (limitless) nouns. It is also the preferred means of describing generic or non-specific nouns (the potential significate), especially in the plural count form.

The zero article also occurs with singular count nouns in alternation with indefinite *a*. The effect of placing Ø1 before a singular count noun is to render it a

non-count, or mass, noun. Master (1992), posits four types of overlapping contrast between \emptyset 1 and *a*:

1. mass (\emptyset 1)-count (*a*)

Examples: The boys ate *chicken* (vs The boys ate a *chicken*)

The locals shot *boar* (vs The locals shot a *boar*). (Conrad, 1913, p. 55)

2. general (\emptyset 1)-particular (*a*)

Examples: Mice like *cheese* (vs This is a *cheese* of uncommon flavour).

"Analyses of molecules...of the... quagga demonstrated that the animal was more *zebra* than *horse*." (*Science News*, 1985, p. 401)

3. abstract (\emptyset)-concrete (*a*)

Examples: *Prison* dehumanizes people (vs A *prison* dehumanizes people).

They communicate by *radio* (vs They communicate by means of a *radio*).

"Says Leahy, 'He felt everyone should see him as *model husband*.'" (Gelman, 1989, p. 48)

4. "adjective" (\emptyset) -noun (*a*)

Examples: "He *was fool* [i.e. foolish] enough, at the outset, to protest against Major Milroy's conditions." (Collins, 1866, p. 44)

The null article (\emptyset 2)

The null article (\emptyset 2), on the other hand, is the most definite of the articles. Its general function is to name a one-member set (the members of a set comprise all the terms or entities associated with a word). For this reason, the null article occurs with singular count nouns in alternation with definite the and with singular proper nouns. The latter are usually excluded from treatments of the article system because the rules of application are different.

... In placing all uses of \emptyset with singular nouns under a single function, Chesterman (1991) describes the examples in the previous section contrasting \emptyset 1 and *a* as uses of the null article (\emptyset 2) rather than zero (\emptyset 1). However, I believe that the singular nouns in these examples require interpretation not as count but as non-count nouns.

Indefinite a

The general function of *a* is the opposite of \emptyset : it signifies a boundary (or creates one where there was none before) that makes a formless entity discrete and thereby countable. It thus occurs most frequently with singular count nouns and is the second most common way of describing a generic noun, i.e. as a representative of a class. However, it also frequently occurs with mass nouns in a specialist context. For example, we generally consider steel to be a non-count noun, but a specialist may speak of a high-grade steel. *A* thus serves to create a boundary, which we interpret to mean a kind or type of. Several instances of the use of *a* were provided earlier as contrasts to the use of \emptyset 1. This boundary-creating effect also explains the occurrence of *a* with evaluative modifiers before a non-count noun.

Definite the

The general function of *the* is to single out or identify, or to indicate that the speaker either presumes a noun to be singled out and identified for the hearer or instructs the hearer to do so. With proper nouns, it has the further effect of creating a boundary when such is absent or incomplete. *The* is not limited by countability or number, which may explain why it is learned first. Furthermore, *the* occurs primarily with non-generic nouns and is indeed always interpreted non-generically at first (e.g. Put the fax machine in my office). However, context may indicate that *the* is being used generically, which it does relatively rarely. When *the* is used generically, it must occur with a singular count noun, as generic *the* can only indicate a class of entities and not representatives of the class. When *the* occurs with plurals, it indicates non-generic usage, even though in some cases we know pragmatically that not every single member is meant.

Beginning proficiency

At the lowest proficiency levels, it is probably not worthwhile directing any sustained attention to rules of article usage.

...However, when words which commonly take articles are introduced in the classroom, it is probably wise to include an article when one is present. (see Allen, 1983, p. 15). The group or category nouns require explanation and should be taught in contrast to their countable representatives. Focus on *the* is best avoided, except

perhaps in the names of countries that consist of titles, such as The United States of America and The People's Republic of China, if they are relevant for the student.

Intermediate proficiency

Once students are at the intermediate level of proficiency, more cognitive methods of teaching the article system can be utilized such as Master's (1990) binary system, who found significant improvement on an article test in a controlled study after systematically teaching the article system to an experimental group in contrast to the simple marking of errors on compositions in a control group, suggests that successful learning is most likely to occur if sufficient time is spent on practicing a single distinction at a time until students feel relatively comfortable with it. Exercises with blanks are, of course, only one way to aid the learning of the article system. Berry (1991), who is critical of such exercises, provides a number of interesting article tasks to encourage the comprehension and application of the article system rather than simply the selection of the correct article. VanPatten and Cadierno (1993, p. 243) provide a model for exercises using their notion of input processing, which can also be utilized in teaching the article system.

System, Vol. 25, No. 2, pp. 215-232

All rights reserved. Printed in

Great Britain 0346-251X/97

Activity 3. Complete the following sentences:

1. Schwartz maintaining Krashen's distinction between
2. The articles are among the most frequently occurring
3. Over 50 years ago, Palmer (1939) suggested that there may be two forms of the zero article
4. Following Chesterman (1991), I shall refer to the first function as and the second function as
5. The zero article (\emptyset 1) is the most
6. The zero article thus occurs most frequently with indefinite ...
7. The null article (\emptyset 2) is the most

8. A general function of the null article is
9. In placing all uses of Ø with singular nouns under a single function, Chesterman (1991) describes the examples in the previous section contrasting Ø1 and a
10. The general function of a is ...
11. Several instances of the use of a were provided
12. The general function of the
13. However, context may indicate that the is being used ...
14. Berry (1991) provides a number of
15. VanPatten and Cadierno (1993, p. 243) provide a model for

Activity 4. Match the beginning of each sentence in the left-hand column with the endings in the right-hand column. Combine the sentences so that they make sense.

1) Article errors rarely lead to....	a) free morpheme in the English language.
2) At the present stage of language development, the article in English	b) to remove the boundaries that make nouns discrete.
3) The zero article is the most frequently occurring....	c) mass (Ø1)-count (<i>a</i>); general (Ø1)-particular (<i>a</i>) ; abstract (Ø)-concrete (<i>a</i>); adjective" (Ø) -noun (<i>a</i>)
4) Chesterman shall refer to the first function as ...	d) a boundary (or creates one where there was none before) that makes a formless entity discrete and thereby countable.
5) The general function of zero article (Ø1) is...	e) definite the and with singular proper nouns.
6) The zero article also occurs with...	f) to single out or identify, or to indicate that the speaker either presumes a noun to be singled out and identified for the hearer or instructs the hearer to do so.

7) Master (1992), posits four types of overlapping contrast between Ø1 and <i>a</i> : ...	g) miscomprehension, whether spoken or written no military action occurred.
8) The null article (Ø2), on the other hand, is ...	h) singular count nouns in alternation with indefinite <i>a</i> .
9) The null article occurs with singular count nouns in alternation with	i) is an invariable part of speech.
10) The general function of <i>a</i> is the opposite of Ø: it signifies	j) the zero article (or Ø1) and the second function as the null article (or Ø2).
11) Several instances of the use of <i>a</i> were provided earlier as ...	k) introduced in the classroom, it is probably wise to include an article when one is present
12) The general function of <i>the</i> is ...	l) the most definite of the articles.
13) However, when words which commonly take articles are ...	m) contrasts to the use of Ø1.

Activity 5. State whether the following statements are true or false. Correct the false ones.

- Articles are determinatives which serve to give precision to the pronouns equivalents to which they are attached.
- The articles are among the most frequently occurring free morphemes in English.
- The COBUILD (Collins Birmingham University International Language Database) frequency count found *a* to be the most frequent word in a corpus of 40 words, while *a* holds the fifth position (after of, and, and to).
- The zero article is not the most frequently occurring free morpheme in the English language.
- Hewson (1972), reflecting the once common practice of calling Ø + NOUN a "bare noun", describes it as follows: The bare noun, calling into play as it does the great

extensivity of notion belonging to the potential significate, presents the limitless, formless, continue entity.

6. The zero article thus occurs most frequently with definite count) and plural count nouns.

7. The effect of placing Ø1 before a singular count noun is to render it a non-count noun.

8. The general function of *a* is the opposite of Ø: it means a boundary (or creates one where there was none before) that makes a formless entity discrete and thereby countable.

9. The zero article (Ø1) with singular count nouns in alternation with definite *the* and with singular proper nouns.

10. The general function of *the* is to single out or to indicate that the speaker either presumes a noun to be singled out.

11. When *the* occurs with singular, it indicates generic usage, even though in some cases we know pragmatically that not every single member is meant.

12. Focus on *the* is best avoided, except perhaps in the names of book if they aren't relevant for the student.

13. Berry provides a number of interesting article tasks to encourage the comprehension and application of the article system.

Activity 6. Assessment. Prove the importance of articles in the English language.

Unit III. Notional words and function words in Modern English. Various interpretations.

Synopsis:

The lesson gives an overview of the interpretations of notional and function words in modern English. The key points highlighted during the lesson are: most traditional grammars assumed (and their descendants continue to assume) that the structure of sentences and phrases is determined mainly by lexical words; function words were regarded as mere additions to lexical phrases. Students will know the stages of researches, linguistic theories in the distinction between function and lexical words.

Lesson aim and learning outcomes

The aim of the lesson is to give full information about the words that are divided into two basic classes: lexical or open class words; function or closed class words. We must consider that grammatical meaning can be expressed in different ways. English uses independent auxiliaries to express present or past tense but also inflects the verb for the same purpose. Learning outcomes: to comprehend theoretical and practical knowledge about the problem of notional and functional words; to be able to apply in-depth cognitive and practical skills to analyze the distinction between function and lexical words; to be able to solve practical problems in the field of sentence structure which are divided into three functional domains.

Key Reading

1. https://www.academia.edu/9869132/4_Principles_of_classification_of_words_
2. Demidov D. V. Theoretical English Grammar: the manual for part-time students of higher educational institutions / Denys Valeriyovych Demidov; The State institution —Luhansk Taras Shevchenko National University. – Luhansk: Luhansk Taras Shevchenko National University, 2014. – 121 p
3. Iriskulov A.T. Theoretical Grammar of English. Tashkent 2006, 64 p.

3. Kharytonov I. K. Theoretical grammar of the modern English language. Vinnytsia, Nova knyha, 2008 – 352 p.
4. Alexeyeva I. Theoretical English Grammar. Vinnytsia, Nova knyha, 2007 – 328 p.

References Used in the Teaching Materials

1. https://lawbooks.news/grammatika_948/notional-and-form-53280.html
2. <https://www.thoughtco.com/function-word-grammar-1690876>
3. <https://webapps.towson.edu/ows/ptsspch.htm>
4. <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=qTwcpnAd18s>

Content of the lesson

Activity 1. Spark.

A. Follow the link: <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=qTwcpnAd18s> and watch the video about lexical and function words.

B. Reflect on the question:

What are the differences between Lexical (Content) words and Function (Grammatical) words?

Input

Activity 2. Follow the link: <https://studfile.net/preview/4534097/page:4/> and read the article. Make sure to pay attention to the following points while reading:

1. How many basic classes can be words divided into? What are they?
2. What parts of speech supply the bulk of the meaning in a sentence and belong to the lexical class?
3. Why are lexical parts of speech also called “open”?
4. What do English function words include?
5. Why are the words referred to as “functional” or “grammatical” words?
6. What type of words typically carry intonational emphasis or stress?
7. What kind of information do function words mainly add?
8. How were function words regarded?

9. What three functional domains could now sentence structure be divided into?
10. How could be differences between languages explained?
11. How can be grammatical meaning expressed?
12. What is the distinction between analytic and synthetic languages?
13. What type of words mainly determines the structure of sentences and phrases?

Elly van Gelderen

NOTIONAL WORDS AND FUNCTION WORDS IN MODERN ENGLISH. VARIOUS INTERPRETATIONS

Words can be divided into two basic classes: (1) lexical or open class words and (2) function or closed class words.

Nouns (e.g., *dog, house*), verbs (e.g., *to go, to see*), and adjectives (e.g., *green, nice*) supply the bulk of the meaning in a sentence and belong to the lexical class. This class is called “open” because languages can freely add new words to the set.

English function words, on the other hand, include determiners, such as *the* and *a(n)*; auxiliaries, such as *might, have,* and *be*; conjunctions, such as *and, that,* and *whether*; and degree adverbs, such as *very* and *too*. These words are referred to as “functional” or “grammatical” words because they carry little meaning (have no synonyms) and typically “help” another word. Determiners, for instance, add grammatical information about specificity and definiteness (*the dog* vs. *a dog*), but do not essentially alter the meaning. They are also called “closed class words,” since languages do not easily add new words to the set.

Lexical words typically carry intonational emphasis or stress, while function words are generally unstressed. Therefore, function words are prone to contraction, for example, the auxiliary *have* in *I've seen it*.

The distinction between function and lexical words has been very fruitful for linguistic description. It is also well known that languages rarely borrow function words from other languages or make up new ones (hence their status as closed class). Most recent innovations in the English vocabulary, such as *pizza, angst, fax, e-mail, phat, AIDS, website, browser, screenager, to surf, Nethead,* and *techno-*

babble are lexical rather than functional in nature (see, for example, the journal *American Speech* for lists of new words).

Function words add mainly grammatical information, which means that they are defined above all by their syntactic behavior. Most traditional grammars assumed (and their descendents continue to assume) that the structure of sentences and phrases is determined mainly by lexical words. Function words were regarded as mere additions to lexical phrases. Thus, the sentence *The rabbit will see the fox* was analyzed as a noun phrase *the rabbit*, followed by a verb phrase *will see the fox*. The determiner *the* was thus an addition to the noun phrase, and the auxiliary *will* was added to the verb phrase.

A shift in this thinking came in the 1980s within the framework of generative grammar. From then on, auxiliaries were attributed with an independent contribution to the sentence structure. However, function words still did not determine the categorial status of a phrase, for example, a phrase such as *the rabbit* continued to be regarded as a noun phrase containing a determiner.

This view changed radically by the mid-1980s, as function words were increasingly interpreted as the determinants of the categorial status of sentence elements. To use the technical terminology, function words were “projecting to a phrase” or “heading a phrase.” Determiners, for example, came to be regarded as the head of determiner phrases- that is, *the rabbit* was now interpreted as a determiner phrase *the . . .* containing the noun phrase *rabbit*. “Functional projections” were thus assigned a structure similar to “lexical phrases.”

Research in the late 1980s and 1990s revolved around the question of exactly which functional projections a sentence may contain. Each function word expressing a grammatical function was soon regarded as a main structural building block of the sentence. The increasing importance of function words in linguistic theories went hand-in-hand with an increasingly abstract description of sentence structure. This shift provided many empirical and theoretical advantages.

First, sentence structure could now be divided into three functional domains: (1) a lexical domain around the verb, which establishes semantic relations between

the main sentence elements; (2) a grammatical domain around the auxiliary, which establishes grammatical relations such as agreement (the auxiliary agrees in number and person with the subject: *I am/She is/They are leaving.*); (3) a discourse domain around the complementizer *that*, which links an embedded clause to a main clause (*I know that this is true or I wonder whether this is true*).

Second, differences between languages could be explained by how the function words, and the domains they define, were used. For instance, the so-called verb-second languages such as German, Middle English, Dutch, and Swedish move the verb to the complementizer domain, whereas languages such as English refrain from doing so.

Function words and lexical words are not sharply distinct categories but rather form a continuum. Certain classes of words can thus share features with both prototypical lexical words and prototypical function words. The English preposition is a case in point: some prepositions have lexical meaning, such as location (*behind*) and direction (*toward*); others have little meaning (*of* or *to*). Many are used to introduce sentences (*after, for, like*) and are therefore similar to prototypical function words, namely complementizers.

Grammatical meaning can be expressed in different ways. English uses independent auxiliaries to express present or past tense (*I am leaving* vs. *I was leaving*) but also inflects the verb for the same purpose (*I think* vs. *I thought*). Languages exhibit great variation along these lines: some languages express all grammatical meaning via independent function words and are called “analytic.” So-called synthetic languages, on the other hand, employ inflection and other markings on lexical words throughout.

This distinction between analytic and synthetic languages also represents a continuum, and languages can change in this respect over time. Old English made extensive use of grammatical markings on lexical words. English has lost much of this capability since then and introduced auxiliaries to fill the gap. In fact, the auxiliary *will* used to be a lexical verb in Old English, but it lost its meaning (“to want”) when it was recruited for expressing future tense. In modern theoretical

approaches, which tend to focus more on underlying differences rather than surface variation, the distinction between analytic and synthetic languages becomes negligible.

Bill Poser notes another point of view. It's the Big Four (noun, verb, adjective, adverb) and the Little Two or Three (preposition, conjunction, sometimes pronoun), plus an appendage (interjection). Everything has to fit in here somewhere, and since the parts of speech are defined semantically in this tradition, "the" just has to be an adjective, because it's a kind of modifier. What else could it be? (If you have pronoun as a part of speech, that would be a very clever answer, but you're going to have a lot of trouble convincing non-linguists of that.)

The deeper problem is the school tradition itself. It's a tradition, after all, a system devised in the past and treated as a kind of dogma in the present. The idea that you could discover what the parts of speech in some languages are, that this is (in principle) an empirical question, is foreign to this way of thinking. Even stranger is the idea that there could be a whole lot of them, some of them subtypes of others, and some of them overlapping. Still stranger is the idea that though the parts of speech of one language will usually correspond very roughly to those of another, there can be considerable differences. But linguists are here -- and have been for a very long time -- to tell you that you should take these ideas seriously.

*The Linguistic Cycle: Language
Change and the Language Faculty.
Oxford: Oxford University Press. 2011*

Activity 3. Complete the following sentences:

1. Words can be divided into two basic classes:
2. Nouns (e.g., *dog, house*), verbs (e.g., *to go, to see*), and adjectives (e.g., *green, nice*) supply the bulk of the meaning in a sentence and belong to the.....
3. English function words, on the other hand, include determiners,
4. Lexical words typically
5. Most traditional grammars assumed ...

6. This view changed radically by the mid-1980s
7. Research in the late 1980s and 1990s revolved around the question...
8. Certain classes of words can thus share features
9. Sentence structure could now be divided into three functional domains:.....
10. Old English made extensive use

Activity 4. State whether the following statements are true or false. Correct the false ones.

1. Words can be divided into two basic classes: (1) lexical or open class words and (2) function or closed class words.
2. Lexical words are typically unstressed.
3. The distinction between function and lexical words has been very fruitful for linguistic description.
4. Function words add mainly grammatical information, which means that they are defined above all by their syntactic behavior.
5. Each notional word expressing a grammatical function was soon regarded as a main structural building block of the sentence.
6. Differences between languages could be explained by how the function words, and the domains they define, were used.
7. English uses inflections to express present or past tense.

Activity 5. Self-assessment. Match the beginning of each sentence in the left-hand column with the endings in the right-hand columns. Combine the sentences so that they make sense.

1) Lexical words typically carry...	a) borrow function words from other languages or make up new ones.
2) Words can be divided into two basic classes:...	b) that they are defined above all by their syntactic behavior.
3) It is also well known that languages	c) not sharply distinct categories but

rarely...	rather form a continuum.
4) Function words add mainly grammatical information, which means...	d) (1) lexical or open class words and (2) function or closed class words.
5) Research in the late 1980s and 1990s revolved around ...	e) intonational emphasis or stress, while function words are generally unstressed.
6) Function words and lexical words are ...	f) devised in the past and treated as a kind of dogma in the present
7) It's a tradition, after all, a system ...	g) the question of exactly which functional projections a sentence may contain.

Activity 6. Assessment. Point out the main idea of this article and express your own opinion

Unit IV. Pronouns: male, female and undesignated

Synopsis:

The lesson gives an overview of the male, female or gender-neutral pronouns. The key points highlighted during the lesson are writers-or gender's-block; the "doers" of modern life come in both sexes, and it's about time that "modern" writers match their syntax with reality; there are benefits to using gender-neutral pronouns. Students will know a list of gender-neutral pronouns, the purpose of using them and that by using gender-neutral language, we are ensuring the sentences are inclusive for everyone.

Lesson aim and learning outcomes

The aim of the lesson is to give full information about pronouns: male, female and undesignated (gender-neutral). We must consider the differences of using these various pronouns in society. In such way we will be able to much adequately classify the words and communicate using gender-neutral pronouns. Learning outcomes: to comprehend theoretical and practical knowledge about the problem of male, female and undesignated (gender-neutral) pronouns; to be able to apply in-depth cognitive and practical skills to analyze the main features of using gender-neutral language for ensuring the sentences are inclusive for everyone; to be able to solve practical problems in the field new words, coined to describe new objects or concepts and new uses of syntax to reflect the fact of women's expanding roles in the world.

Key Reading

1. Iriskulov A.T. Theoretical Grammar of English. Tashkent 2006, 64 p.
2. Demidov D. V. Theoretical English Grammar: the manual for part-time students of higher educational institutions / Denys Valeriyovych Demidov; The State institution —Luhansk Taras Shevchenko National University. – Luhansk: Luhansk Taras Shevchenko National University, 2014. – 121 p
3. Kharytonov I. K. Theoretical grammar of the modern English language. Vinnytsia, Nova knyha, 2008 – 352 p.
4. Alexeyeva I. Theoretical English Grammar. Vinnytsia, Nova knyha, 2007 – 328 p.

References Used in the Teaching Materials

1. <https://blog.hubspot.com/marketing/gender-neutral-pronouns>
2. <https://www.npr.org/2021/06/02/996319297/gender-identity-pronouns-expression-guide-lgbtq>
3. <https://uwm.edu/lgbtrc/support/gender-pronouns/>
4. https://www.jstor.org/stable/42579471?seq=1#page_scan_tab_contents
5. <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=0eoKIA5IFro>

Content of the lesson

Activity 1. Spark.

A. Follow the link: <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=0eoKIA5IFro> and watch the video about the use of the plural pronouns THEY, THEM, and THEIR.

B. Reflect on the question:

Why do people sometimes use the plural pronouns THEY, THEM, and THEIR when talking about one person?

Do the quiz to test your understanding.

1. You can use THEY, THEM, and THEIR as a singular pronoun if you don't know the person's _____.

address name profession

gender nationality

2. You can use they as a singular pronoun instead of _____ if you don't know whether the person referred to is male or female.

he or she these or those

it or itself this or that

3. Which grammatical case does **them** belong to?

object/accusative possessive/genitive subject/nominative

4. Which grammatical case does **they** belong to?

object/accusative possessive/genitive subject/nominative

5. Which grammatical case does **their** belong to?
object/accusative/possessive/genitive/subject/nominative

6. – “Someone left a message for you.”

– “Oh really? What did ____ want?”

he his their

her it them

him she they

7. – “My friend has just had a book published.”

– “Oh really? Who is ____ publisher?”

he his their

her it them

him she they

8. – “My neighbour had to go into hospital.”

– “Oh really? Will you be visiting _____?”

he his their

her it them

him she they

9. – “Madonna starred in the film Evita in 1996.”

– “Oh really? Was _____ good?”

he his their

her it them

him she they

10. – “King Edward VIII abdicated in 1936.”

– “Oh really? Why did ____ do that?”

he his their

her it them
him she they

Input

Activity 2. Follow the

link: https://www.jstor.org/stable/42579471?seq=1#page_scan_tab_contents and read the article. Make sure to pay attention to the following points while reading:

1. What is the topic of the article?
2. When did the use of “he” start?
3. Why was the pronoun “he” used to designate both sexes in ancient times?
4. Why cannot the exclusionary male pronoun claim to reflect the status quo today?
5. What are the most awkward substitutes of “he” according to the author of the article?
6. What is the best way to substitute the pronoun “he” in order to designate both sexes in the modern world?
7. Why does today's writing invite the substitution of the personable "you" for the formal, exclusionary "he"?
8. Why can we say that language is not rigid?
9. What can be developed to reflect the fact of women's expanding roles in the world.
10. Does the author of the article support the idea of usage “he” for designating both sexes?

Shannon Bryony

PRONOUNS: MALE, FEMALE AND UNDERSIGNATED

WHY IS IT THAT SO MANY of today's writers can't adapt their syntax to include more than half the human race? Purportedly creative people, these writers suddenly develop blocks when asked to find ways to refer to sexually undesignated individuals as other than "he" or "him" They sometimes insert mini editorials into their work, defending the arbitrary use of the masculine pronoun. Women ought to know that "she" is implied, they argue. "He or she" or the abbreviated "she" is too

imprecise, they say. "He or she" and "s/he" are "awkward" and disrupt the sanctified flow of syntax, they use of "he" for any individual is a literary and linguistic tradition.

It harks back to the days when supposedly the only human "doers" were males, when the only actions supposedly meriting discussion were performed by males, when females were spoken of only in relation to their sexual, reproductive and domestic roles.

"A fool's mouth is his destruction", the Bible says. "No physician," wrote Plato, "considers his own good in what he prescribes" "A great pilot can sail even when his canvas is rent," said Seneca. "A prophet," according to Jesus, "is not without honor, save in his own country". Fool or physician, pilot or prophet, the individual of the species always been a "he" earlier times, when women's activities were limited to whoredom, wifedom or household drudgery, when anatomy was destiny, there may justification arbitrary "he", as it was upon hierarchy.

Today, however, as women integrate themselves into every activity life offers, the exclusionary male pronoun no longer can claim to reflect the status quo. The "doers" of modern life come in both sexes, and it's about time that "modern" writers match their syntax with reality. There's no more reason that "he" should stand for either sex than that "she" should. There's no reason that women should "know"- or accept - that the female is denoted by the male. For the purists of precision, what could be more imprecise than to refer to more than 2 1/2 billion people with the wrong pronoun?

That leaves the "awkwardness" of the substitutes that have been offered, "he" or "she" and "s/he". "In a seven-or eight-line sentence", a syndicate editor recently complained, "repeated use of 'he or she' becomes unwieldy". Almost any sentence that runs for seven or eight lines is already unwieldy, and "he or she" is hardly the guilty party.

The real culprit is our stubborn insistence on writing in the third-person singular. Like the use of the male pronoun, use of the singular to make a statement about the general is a hoary tradition. The single-minded use of the singular noun

requires the use of the singular pronoun, despite the good-hearted attempts of those who have resorted to "everyone...they".

Alternate, everyday forms are readily available, however, but it is almost embarrassing to suggest them because they should be obvious. For the benefit of those with writers-or gender's-block, though, here they are: Second-person "you" and third-person plural "they".

Today's writing is becoming increasingly direct and informal, which invites the substitution of the personable "you" for the formal, exclusionary "he" particularly in instructional material. Is it more effective to say, for example, "The applicant must submit his application by the deadline" or, "Submit your application by the deadline"? Madison Avenues, who generally should not be imitated for any reason, offer one useful lesson in regard to gender - they omit it. They aren't about to risk offending potential customers by using an inappropriate pronoun. They don't expect a woman buyer to know that "he" refers to her. Use of the plural is just as easy and sensible. There's no reason, usually, that it can't work just as well as the singular.

Euripides wrote, "Talk sense to a fool and he calls you foolish", but he could just as easily have written, "Talk sense to fools and they call you foolish". The meaning of the statement emerges unscathed by the replacement of the singular with the plural. A rule of thumb should be that when the sense remains unchanged, a plural can be used.

No one advocates rewriting the classics, despite the dire predictions of the Old Guard "he" men. The point is simply that modern writers need not cling to the narrow, singular-masculine tradition of literature.

Those who complain of "tampering" with language for social purposes referred to the sudden departure of words like "nigger" and "greaser" from common use. They never were justified, and they are no longer with us, for the most part. Nor should "he" continue to be with us when other forms, like "you" and "they", are just as useful.

Unless writers are referring to an individual whose ideas and actions are unique, meaning that they never have been and never will be duplicated by another

living soul, there is no excuse for favoring the singular over the plural. "He" should be restricted to only those individuals who are identifiably male, just as "she" now refers only to those who are identifiably female. Language is not rigid. It expands, changes, and accommodates itself to the needs of those who use it. Old words are discarded or change in definition. New words are coined to describe new objects or concepts. New uses of syntax can be developed to reflect the fact of women's expanding roles in the world.

Gender-neutral pronouns are words that don't specify whether the subject of the sentence is female or male. 'They', for instance, is a third-person pronoun that is gender neutral. Other gender-neutral pronouns include 'them', 'this person', 'everyone', 'Ze', or 'Hir'. If you're not sure which pronoun to use, you can also use that person's name.

Since gender-neutral pronouns have only recently become more commonplace, it's likely you aren't sure how to use them, or even what they are. Here, we've provided you with a list of gender-neutral pronouns and examples of how to use them, so you can begin creating a more inclusive workplace.

There are a few benefits to using gender-neutral pronouns. First, in the English language, "He" has often been used as an automatic fill-in for generic individuals. By using gender-neutral language, you're ensuring your sentences are inclusive for everyone.

Second, "he and she" are two extreme binaries that don't leave room for other gender identities.

This can be hurtful for individuals, such as trans gender or gender queer communities, who don't identify with "he" or "she".

Ultimately,

you don't want to make incorrect or hurtful assumptions about someone's gender.

Just because someone appears feminine or masculine doesn't mean they are a man or woman -- they could be agender, nonbinary, or uncomfortable identifying with "he" or "she".

Here is a list of gender-neutral pronouns:

- **He/She**-- Zie, Sie, Ey, Ve, Tey, E
- **Him/Her**-- Zim, Sie, Em, Ver, Ter, Em

- **His/Her**-- Zir, Hir, Eir, Vis, Tem, Eir
- **His/Hers**-- Zis, Hirs, Eirs, Vers, Ters, Eirs
- **Himself/Herself**-- Zieself, Hirsself, Eirself, Verself, Terself, Emself

Typically, you won't use one of these gender-neutral pronouns unless a colleague asks you to identify them as such.

However, there are more traditional gender-neutral pronouns you can introduce into your everyday conversation, regardless of the individual. These include "**Them**", "**They**", "**Their**", "**Everyone**", and "**That Person**".

When in doubt, refer to someone by their name, rather than "him" or "her".

"They" is one of the more common gender-neutral pronouns, and it's easy to incorporate into your daily conversations.

Here are some examples of how to use it:

- "I spoke to the marketing director and they said they'd get back to me."
- "I think someone left their laptop behind."
- "Who's in charge of that campaign? I'll email them."

You probably use "they", "them", and "their" often in your everyday language, even when you know someone identifies as "he" or "she". It's a natural substitute, but can go a long way towards creating a more inclusive office culture.

Finally, when addressing people in a meeting, it's best to say, "Hello, everyone," or "Hey, team." You'll want to avoid "Hey, guys", or similar phrases, since "guys" is typically masculine.

When you first meet someone, you don't want to ask about their pronouns. This could make them feel like you're asking them to out themselves as transgender, agender, or nonbinary, which they might not want to do, particularly if you work in a conservative office.

Instead, introduce yourself with *your* pronouns: "Hi, I'm Caroline, and my pronouns are she/her." By sharing your own pronouns, you're allowing the other person to share theirs, but not forcing them to.

Additionally, avoid saying "preferred" pronouns. Despite the popularity of the term, it's incorrect, since "preferred" implies someone's gender is a preference.

Ultimately, using gender-neutral pronouns doesn't require too much effort on your part, but it could make a huge difference in creating a warmer, more inclusive workplace environment for everyone.

Activity 3. State whether the following statements are true or false. Correct the false ones.

1. Use of "he" for any individual is a literary and linguistic tradition.
2. The tradition of using "he" for any individual dates back to the days when there were only males, who performed everything in the world.
3. Fool or physician, pilot or prophet, the individual of the animal species has always been "he"
4. In earlier times the usage of "he" was mostly predetermined by social hierarchy.
5. Today the male pronoun can still claim to reflect the status quo.
6. The substitutes of "he" such as "he or she" and "s/he" sound unwieldy today.
7. One of the culprits for using "he" is a stubborn insistence of the editors.
8. There are still no alternatives available for substituting "he", "he and she" or "s/he"?
9. The use of the plural is not very easy and sensible.
10. The use of singular male or female pronoun is justified in case if an individual the writer refers to is unique or is distinguished by unique ideas?

Activity 4. Complete the following sentences:

1. It harks back to the days when ...
2. In earlier times, when women's activities were limited to ...
3. The "doers" of modern life come in both sexes, and ...
4. There's no more reason that "he" should stand for either sex ...
5. Today's writing is becoming increasingly ...
6. Madison Avenuers, who ...

7. A rule of thumb should be that
8. Unless writers are referring to an individual whose ideas and actions are unique, meaning that they never have been and never will be duplicated by another living soul, ...
9. "He" should be restricted to only those individuals who ...
10. New uses of syntax can be developed to reflect the fact of ...

Activity 5. Match the beginning of each sentence in the left-hand column with the endings in the right-hand columns. Combine the sentences so that they make sense.

1) Purportedly creative people, these writers suddenly develop blocks...	a) said Seneca.
2) A fool's mouth is his destruction, ...	b) just as easy and sensible.
3) No one advocates rewriting the classics, despite...	c) "Talk sense to a fool and he calls you foolish".
4) Alternate, everyday forms are readily available, however, ...	d) in definition.
5) Language is...	e) the sudden departure of words like "nigger" and "greaser" from common use.
6) Old words are discarded or change...	f) when asked to find ways to refer to sexually undesignated individuals as other than "he" or "him".
7) Euripides wrote,	g) not rigid.
8) Use of the plural is ...	h) the Bible says.
9) Those who complain of "tampering" with language for social purposes are referred to ...	i) the dire predictions of the Old Guard "he" men.
10) "A great pilot can sail even when his canvas is rent", ...	j) but it is almost embarrassing to suggest them because they should be obvious.

Activity 6. Self-assessment. Choose the correct variant.

1. Today's writers say that:
 - a) women should know that "he" is implied
 - b) "he or she" or the abbreviated "s/he" is too imprecise.
 - c) "he or she" and "s/he" are awkward.
2. The words "a prophet is not without honor, save in his own country" belong to
 - a) Plato
 - b) Shannon Bryony
 - c) Jesus
3. The "doers" of modern life come in both sexes, and it's about time that
 - a) modern editors match their syntax with reality
 - b) modern writers match their syntax with female pronouns
 - c) modern writers match their syntax with reality
4. There is no reason that women should "know" – or accept – that
 - a) the male is denoted by the male
 - b) the female is denoted by male
 - c) the male is denoted by female
5. Like the use of the male pronoun, use of the singular to make a statement about the general is
 - a) old-world tradition
 - b) literary tradition
 - c) conservative tradition
6. Nowadays "he" should be restricted to only those individuals who
 - a) are identifiably male
 - b) are identifiably female
 - c) belong to both sexes

Activity 7. Assessment. Point out the main idea of this article and express your own opinion.

Unit V. Pronouns

Synopsis:

The lesson gives an overview of the classification of the uses of pronouns. The key points highlighted during the lesson are: there are three categories of the uses of pronouns; the fourth "E-type pronouns", distinguished by the author; the semantics of bound pronouns (or of bound variables). Students will know: pronouns used to make a reference to an object (or objects) present in the shared perceptual environment, or rendered salient in some other way; pronouns intended to be understood as being coreferential with a referring expression occurring elsewhere in the sentence; pronouns which have quantifier expressions as antecedents, and are used in such a way as to be strictly analogous to the bound variables of the logician; "E-type pronouns", that have quantifier expressions as antecedents, but they are not bound by those quantifiers.

Lesson aim and learning outcomes

The aim of the lesson is to give full information about preliminary classification of the uses of pronouns that include the three categories; the fourth "E-type pronouns", distinguished by the author; the semantics of bound pronouns (or of bound variables). We must consider the linguists points of view: Lasnik's approach to pronouns, Chomsky's notions and Fregean explanations of the uses of pronouns. Learning outcomes: to comprehend theoretical and practical knowledge about the problem of the semantics of pronouns; to be able to apply in-depth cognitive and practical skills to analyze the main features of the uses of pronouns; to be able to solve practical problems in the field of classifying of the uses of pronouns into four categories.

Key Reading

1. Iriskulov A.T. Theoretical Grammar of English. Tashkent 2006, 64 p.
2. Demidov D. V. Theoretical English Grammar: the manual for part-time students of higher educational institutions / Denys Valeriyovych Demidov; The State institution

—Luhansk Taras Shevchenko National University. – Luhansk: Luhansk Taras Shevchenko National University, 2014. – 121 p

3. Kharytonov I. K. Theoretical grammar of the modern English language. Vinnytsia, Nova knyha, 2008 – 352 p.

4. Alexeyeva I. Theoretical English Grammar. Vinnytsia, Nova knyha, 2007 – 328 p.

References Used in the Teaching Materials

1. [https://semanticsarchive.net/Archive/DM3ODk0N/Rullmann2003\(WECOL\).pdf](https://semanticsarchive.net/Archive/DM3ODk0N/Rullmann2003(WECOL).pdf)

2. http://www.sfu.ca/~hedberg/802_11_3_Chapter_8.pdf

3. <https://linguistics.stackexchange.com/questions/30253/type-of-pronouns-bound-free>

4. <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=-zz4tdUrr4s>

Content of the lesson

Activity 1. Spark.

A. Follow the link: <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=-zz4tdUrr4s> and watch the video about the distribution of pronouns.

B. Reflect on the question:

What are bound and free pronouns?

Input

Activity 2. Follow the link:

<https://semantics.uchicago.edu/workshops/spl/anaphora/evans80.pdf> and read the article. Make sure to pay attention to the following points while reading:

1. What categories does the preliminary classification of the uses of pronouns offered by Gareth Evans include?

2. Does the author of the article include the fourth category into the classification of the pronouns' uses?

3. How can you explain the notion “bound pronouns”?

4. What are E-Type pronouns?

5. How can we check whether a pronoun is bound by an antecedent quantifier?
6. How can we distinguish the bound pronouns from E-type ones?
7. Are there any arguments which explain that a pronoun is not bound?
8. How can you explain the notion “scope argument”?
9. Is there is any class of pronouns which have a unitary explanation?
10. What fundamental points should be taken into account in order to treat bound pronouns properly?
11. Can you point out the essence of the Frege's approach to bound pronouns?
12. Is Lasnik’s theory connected with the relationship between pronouns in categories (ii) and (iii)?
13. What is the difference between of Chomsky`s and Lasnik`s theories as to the rules of the language and pragmatic factors?
14. What difficulties in the Pragmatic Theory of Coreference does the author of the article determine?
15. What is “strict ungrammaticality”?
16. Can you single out the main problems which are discussed in the article?

Gareth Evans

PRONOUNS

A very natural, preliminary classification of the uses of pronouns would include the following three categories:

(i) Pronouns used to make a reference to an object (or objects) present in the shared perceptual environment, or rendered salient in some other way ...

(ii) Pronouns intended to be understood as being coreferential with a referring expression occurring elsewhere in the sentence. One of the readings of the sentence...

(iii) Pronouns which have quantifier expressions as antecedents, and are used in such a way as to be strictly analogous to the bound variables of the logician ...

I have two main points which I want to make about pronouns. First, there is a fourth category, which I call "E-type pronouns", the members of which are very frequently confused with the members of category (iii), but which in fact are semantically quite

different. E-type pronouns also have quantifier expressions as antecedents, but they are not bound by those quantifiers.

My second main point concerns the semantics of pronouns in category (iii)-"bound pronouns", as I shall call them. Linguists tend to regard the semantics of bound pronouns (or of bound variables) as a mystery clearly understood by logicians, and to leave matters there. But we cannot afford to be so incurious. It is a very striking fact about pronouns in natural languages that they have this use, in addition to their other uses, and we must wonder whether this is an accident, or whether there is some underlying semantic principle which accounts for these apparently disparate uses in a unified way. In fact, there is this very striking connection between pronouns in categories (ii) and (iii): whenever we substitute a singular term for a quantifier binding a pronoun, we arrive at a sentence in which the pronoun can be interpreted as coreferential with that singular term. This surely suggests that some common principle underlies the use of pronouns in categories (ii) and (iii) ... If we look at matters in this way, we see that the relationship between pronouns in categories (ii) and (iii) is a version of a problem which is frequently encountered in semantics, for there are many devices which occur, apparently univocally, in both singular and quantified sentences. The semantic problem posed by those dual occurrences can be solved quite generally if we provide a semantic account of quantified sentences which proceeds by way of a semantic account of their singular instances. If we adopt such an account, which is motivated quite independently of any consideration of pronouns, we have only to explain the semantic significance of pronouns in category (ii) and nothing whatever has to be said, in addition, about pronouns in category (iii)-they simply look after themselves ...

The ideas which I shall advance ... place me in direct opposition to an approach to pronouns originally advanced by Lasnik (Lasnik (1976)) and received with favor by some other linguists. One way of explaining Lasnik's main idea is to say that he proposes an incorporation of pronouns in category (ii) into category (i). If we regard an object's having been mentioned in a previous conversation, or having been mentioned previously in the conversation, as a way of its being salient for

purposes of reference, as we must, why should we not regard being mentioned elsewhere in the same sentence as a limiting case of this mode of salience? If we do so, there is no good reason for distinguishing pronouns in category (ii) from those in category (i). (Since the reference of pronouns in category (i) is determined by what may loosely be called "pragmatic" factors, I shall call Lasnik's theory "the pragmatic theory of coreference".) At first sight, Lasnik's proposal has the appeal of simplicity, but on further reflection, we can see that its price is too high. For to assimilate pronouns in category (ii) to those in category (i) is to preclude the recognition of any connection whatever between pronouns in the unified category (i) + (ii) and those in category (iii)-that is, it forces us to regard as a complete accident ... I shall attempt to explain this point, and the distinction between pragmatics and grammar which it forces upon us, in section 4. In the remaining section I shall advance some other criticisms of Lasnik's approach to pronouns ...

.... what is the importance of the distinction between bound and E-type pronouns-of the addition of another category of pronouns to the list? Not, it must be admitted, very great. Pronouns are often used as referring expressions, and it is not particularly surprising that some of them should have their reference fixed by a description recoverable from the antecedent, quantifier-containing, clause. The point only assumes importance in the context of certain current views. Certain logically-minded philosophers have been so impressed by the undoubted analogies which exist between some pronouns and the bound variables of quantification theory that they have enthusiastically adopted the hypothesis that all natural language pronouns with quantifier antecedents are bound by those antecedents. Other researchers, concentrating upon sentences containing E-type pronouns, have naturally been impressed by the idea that such pronouns are referring expressions, and have, in a contrary excess of enthusiasm, attempted to regard bound pronouns as referring expressions, but without any success. There has therefore arisen the idea that there are two approaches to the unified subject of "anaphora"-the bound variable, and the referential-between which we have to choose. The one merit of taking seriously the argument of this section is that this profitless debate should end. There is not a single

class of pronouns for which we must find a unitary explanation. There are two kinds of pronouns, which are sharply distinguished by their grammatical position, and which function in quite different ways

With E-type pronouns out of the way, we can raise the question of the proper treatment of bound pronouns. Putting these points together, we are confronted with the following problem: we must provide an account which is adequate to deal with pronouns in both our categories (ii) and (iii), but we cannot directly apply the most obvious account of pronouns in category (ii) to pronouns in category (iii).

This may seem to be an insoluble problem, but in fact it is a version of a problem with which the semantics of quantified sentences make us very familiar. For there are many devices which appear in both singular and quantified sentences in such a way that, though the two uses are clearly connected, the most obvious account of their occurrence in singular sentences does not immediately apply to their occurrence in quantified sentences ...

One very natural, though not the only, way of doing this was adopted by Frege. Frege's approach involves no modification whatever of the truth-functional account of the role of the connectives; this is left to stand as the single account of their semantic contribution. The novelty comes in the account which Frege offered of the notion of satisfaction. When a predicate is complex, a Fregean explains the notion of an object's satisfying it in terms of the truth of a sentence which results when a singular term referring to that object is substituted in, or coupled with, the predicate.

Thus, a Fregean does not define the conditions under which an object satisfies the predicate ... directly, in terms of the satisfaction conditions of the two parts,..... If we adopt this Fregean explanation of what it is for an object to satisfy a complex predicate, we have only to explain the significance of a device as it occurs in singular sentences, and its occurrence in quantified sentences simply takes care of itself. In particular, this observation applies to pronouns; if we adopt a Fregean account of satisfaction, we have only to give an account of the pronoun-antecedent construction as it occurs in singular sentences-no further explanation need be given of pronouns with quantifier antecedents.

As we have seen, a natural explanation of the role of pronouns with singular antecedents is in terms of *coreference*-the pronoun refers to whatever the antecedent refers to. This account will secure the result that there is a reading of the sentence *John loves hismother* on which the reference of *his* is the same as that of *John*, and hence that the whole sentence is true if John loves John's mother. If we put this obvious account together with the general Fregean explanation of satisfaction-an explanation which is independently needed to provide a unification of the roles of other devices which occur in both singular and quantified sentences-then we have an explanation of the role of the bound pronoun in ...

This explanation of the functioning of bound pronouns presupposes the following: that whenever we replace a quantifier which binds a pronoun with a singular term, in order to form a relevant substitution instance, the resulting sentence will be one which admits of a reading on which the pronoun is coreferential with that singular term. (I am ignoring the problem of number-agreement.) But this is exactly what we find. We remarked earlier that a quantifier can bind a pronoun only if it precedes and c-commands that pronoun, and it is sufficient (though not necessary) for a pronoun to be interpretable as coreferential with a singular antecedent that it be preceded and c-commanded by that antecedent. The fact that this is so constitutes a powerful argument, not for the need to unify the two roles, which I take to be indisputable, but for a unification along Fregean lines. The fact that there is this correspondence between sentences containing bound pronouns and singular sentences containing pronouns admitting of a coreferential interpretation can no more be regarded as an accident than the fact that pronouns are used in both singular and quantified sentences in the first place ...

To summarize: while it is quite correct to observe that one cannot deal with bound pronouns by directly applying a coreference rule, this point should not lead us to the desperate conclusion that pronouns with singular and quantified antecedents are semantically unrelated. If we employ a Fregean explanation of the notion of satisfaction of a complex predicate (and some such explanation is independently needed to deal with other devices which show up in both singular and quantified

sentences), we find that a coreferential explanation of pronouns is all the explanation we need.

With these considerations in mind, let us look at the main ideas behind a theory of pronouns which is currently popular among linguists. I think that we can show that it is incompatible with this, or any other, attempt to see a unitary semantical phenomenon in pronouns with singular and quantified antecedents, and hence, must be wrong ...

Lasnik begins his (1976) article by taking account of the existence of pronouns in category (i), and then goes on to question whether any additional account needs to be given of pronouns in the supposed category (ii). Pronouns in category (i) involve a reference to an object which is salient in some way. Since one of the ways in which an object can be salient is by having been mentioned in a previous conversation, it would appear to be possible to regard reference to an object mentioned elsewhere in the same sentence or clause as a limiting case of the exploitation of this kind of salience

Lasnik's main thesis is that "even sentence-internal cases of coreference are not produced by any rule". According to Lasnik, the only rule of the language which concerns the interpretation of pronouns is a rule of *Non-coreference*

Implicit in this statement of Lasnik's position, and throughout his paper, is the distinction between those facts about the interpretation of an utterance which are explained by reference to *the rules of the language*, and those facts which are explained by "pragmatic" factors. Although the distinction is difficult to make precise, it is impossible to deny, since one must admit that there are facts about the interpretation of a sentence which are in no way determined by a linguistic rule. For example, there is no linguistic rule which determines that a *he* or a *that* man refers to x rather than y in the vicinity, or that it refers to someone who has just left rather than someone who has recently been mentioned.

Chomsky has built this distinction into his current framework.

Let us say that the grammar contains a system of rules that associate a derivation with a representation of LF (read 'logical form' but for the present without

assuming additional properties of this concept.) I will understand LF to incorporate whatever features of sentence structure (1) enter directly into the semantic interpretation of sentences and (2) are strictly determined by properties of sentence grammar. The extension of this concept remains to be determined. Assume further that there is a system of rules that associates logical form and the products of other cognitive faculties with another system of representation SR (read 'semantic representation'). Representations in SR, which may involve beliefs, expectations and so on, in addition to properties of LF determined by grammatical rule, should suffice to determine role in inference, conditions of appropriate use etc. (Some would argue that LF alone should suffice, but I leave that an open empirical question).

For his part, Chomsky has stated elsewhere his viewpoint on this empirical issue. Given the logical forms generated by sentence grammar, further rules may apply. Pronouns not yet assigned antecedents may be taken to refer to entities designated elsewhere in the sentence, though this is never necessary, and is not permitted under certain conditions... These further rules of reference determination may involve discourse properties as well, in some manner; and they interact with considerations relating to situation, communicative intention and the like.

One important, and traditional, constraint upon the domain of grammar proper is that it should deal only with matters that are "sentence-internal". Chomsky considers the discourse ... and argues, using this constraint: "The rule assigning an interpretation to the others however is not a rule of sentence grammar at all, as indicates". He continues: "Returning to the basic theory outlined earlier, the rule of reciprocal interpretation, and DR [Chomsky's rule of Disjoint Reference/GE] relate derivations... to LF, while the rule assigning an interpretation to the others belongs to an entirely different component of the system of cognitive structures relating LF and other factors to a full semantic representation. It might be quite appropriate to assign this rule to a theory of performance (pragmatics) rather than to the theory of grammar"...

Others have reiterated this point, arguing that it undermines the theory outlined. But my observation was simply an error. The rule of anaphora involved in

the (normal but not obligatory) interpretation ... should in principle be exempt from the conditions of sentence-grammar, since it is no rule of sentence grammar at all. Cf. Lasnik.

Chomsky's notion of *rule of sentence grammar* comprises both syntactic and semantic (or interpretive) rules, and it is clear from his paper that when Lasnik maintains that "even sentence internal cases of coreference are not produced by any rule", he is using "rule" in pretty much this sense. As his criticism of Jackendoff's interpretive rule of coreference makes clear, Lasnik's thesis is not simply that there is no *syntactic* rule (e.g. a pronominalization transformation) underlying cases of coreference. I stress this, because I do not wish to be taken to be committed to the existence of a pronominalization transformation by opposing Lasnik's basic thesis.

Although some line must be drawn between matters belonging to grammar (widely understood) and matters belonging to pragmatics, it is not at all clear where the line should be regarded as falling. For example, while it may be clear that *syntactic* processes are "sentence-internal", it is not at all clear to me why *semantic* rules (rules mapping surface structures onto their logical forms, in Chomsky's current framework) can concern only single sentences taken one by one, rather than sequences of such sentences. The thesis that semantic rules are sentence-internal constitutes a substantial empirical hypothesis for which empirical reasons should be given. In the light of these and other similar questions, one might despair of being able to assess Lasnik's treatment of pronouns without a tremendous amount of preliminary, and fundamental, work. However, the argument I wish to advance against Lasnik's position will exploit only the most unchallengeable property of the distinction between what belongs to grammar and what belongs to pragmatics. For it seems indisputable that if certain truth-relevant features of the interpretation of any utterance of a sentence type are held to depend upon the context in which that utterance is made, then it will not make any sense to enquire into the truth value of the sentence type, considered independently of a particular context of utterance ...

Lasnik himself makes no attempt to explain the connection between the pronouns in his unified category (i)+(ii) and bound pronouns; he reserves bound

pronouns for an appendix to the main article in which he states that "the relationship [between antecedent quantifier and bound pronoun/GE] should be characterized as that holding between a quantifier and the variable it binds" (1976, 18), and he leaves matters there. It should now be clear that this feature of Lasnik's treatment is not an accidental defect of the presentation of his ideas, but an immediate consequence of those ideas themselves. Strictly, I have only considered the unavailability of the Fregean way of discerning a connection to one who holds a pragmatic theory of coreference, but the point holds quite generally, since the alternative (Tarskian) mode of discerning the connection between devices in singular and quantified sentences is even less compatible with Lasnik's views. The point should be obvious. For it seems clear that there is no common semantic principle explaining the behavior of pronouns in categories (i) and (iii), and this is obviously unaffected by the inclusion of members of category (ii) in category (i).

It is the price of being able to recognize the obvious semantic connection between pronouns with singular and quantified antecedents that we distinguish semantically between pronouns used as devices of coreference, and pronouns whose reference is secured in some other way, e.g. deictically. But this is not a complication of the same kind as we have just pointed to in Lasnik's treatment, and which therefore must be thrown into the balance and weighed against it. In Lasnik's case, the complexity results from a failure to discern a connection between two obviously connected capacities. The connection can be shown empirically by demonstrating the speakers' capacity to understand new sentences-those which contain, as bound pronouns, expressions which had not explicitly figured in that role before-a capacity which presumably relies upon their familiarity with sentences in which the expression has a singular term as antecedent. But to distinguish between the functioning of pronouns in categories (i) and (ii) is not to bifurcate a single capacity in the same way. Let us agree that to understand a pronoun as referring to an object mentioned in a previous conversation is to interpret the pronoun in a way which is not specifically secured by any rule of the language-it is simply a manifestation of one speaker's general capacity *to make sense of* the acts (including the linguistic acts) of others...

Lasnik's thesis is that the grammar of English does not oblige us to draw any distinction between the uses of pronouns in categories (i) and (ii). Clearly, we can make the objection to such a thesis that there appear to be quite delicate syntactic restrictions upon when a pronoun can be used with the intention that it be understood to be coreferential with a given singular term—restrictions which have no parallel in the case of pronouns which are intended to be understood as making an independent reference. The restrictions concern the case in which the pronoun precedes the term with which it is intended to be coreferential; in general, such a use is felicitous only if the pronoun does not c-command the term ...

So far, I have been concerned to show that Lasnik's grammar, which combines a pragmatic theory of the reference of all pronouns with a Noncoreference rule, is not adequate. I have not yet examined the main argument he offers for his position ...

We have already seen considerable deficiency in Lasnik's claim that a Noncoreference rule *suffices* to account for the grammatical sentences, but we are now in a position to see what is wrong with the argument that is supposed to establish the *need* for a Noncoreference rule ...

I have discussed Lasnik's argument in order to illustrate the importance of keeping in mind the difference between the three notions of *coreference* that we have distinguished

(Linguistic Inquiry Volume 11 Number 2 (Spring, 1980) pg.337-362)

Activity 3. Choose the correct variant.

1. How many categories does the preliminary classification of the uses of pronouns include: ...
 - a) four
 - b) three
 - c) five
2. Who has offered the category of E-type pronouns: ...
 - a) Howard Lasnik
 - b) Peter Geach

c) Gareth Evans

3. How one can check whether or not a pronoun is bound by an antecedent quantifier:...

a) replace the antecedent with the quantifier expression *No*

b) replace the antecedent with the quantifier expression *every*

c) replace the antecedent with the quantifier expression *any*

4. Dealing with E-type pronouns, the precede and c-command configuration determines: ...

a) the difference between bound and E-type pronouns in the case of the complex existential quantifiers

b) the difference between simple and E-type pronouns in the case of the complex existential quantifiers

c) the difference between bound and E-type pronouns in the case of the simple existential quantifiers

5. What are two quantifiers in English which are almost always given wide scope concerning the difference between E-type pronouns and bound ones?

a) certain and any

b) certain and every

c) any and every

6. Where does a clear difference between wide and narrow scope interpretations of the existential quantifiers show up?

a) in conjunctive clauses

b) in conditional clauses

c) in object clauses

7. The author of the article distinguishes two kinds of pronouns, which are characterized by different: ...

a) grammatical position and functions

b) usage in certain clauses

c) by combining with different parts of speech

8. Frege within his theory offered the notion of

- a) coherence
- b) satisfaction
- c) cohesion

9. Gareth Evans claims that a natural explanation of the role of pronouns with singular antecedents is in terms of ...

- a) cohesion
- b) coherence
- c) coreference

10. The explanation of the functioning of bound pronouns presupposes the following:..

- a) whenever we replace a quantifier which binds a pronoun with a singular term, the resulting sentence will include the pronoun, which is coreferential with that singular term
- b) whenever we replace a quantifier which binds a pronoun with a singular term, the pronoun in the resulting sentence will not be coreferential with that singular term
- c) whenever we replace a quantifier which binds a pronoun with a singular term, the resulting sentence will include the pronoun, which substitutes that singular term

11. The author summarizes the following: ...

- a) pronouns with singular and quantified antecedents are semantically unrelated;
- b) that pronouns with singular and quantified antecedents are semantically related
- c) that pronouns with singular and quantified antecedents are semantically and syntactically related

12. Lasnik states that: ...

- a) the pronouns can be interpreted only within a rule of Non-coreference
- b) there is no rule for the interpretation of pronouns
- c) the pronouns can be interpreted within his rule of Disjoint Reference

13. Who of the scientists below analyzes Pragmatic Theory of Coreference mostly within the domain of grammar
- a) Peter Geach
 - b) Gareth Evans
 - c) Noam Chomsky
14. Who of the scientists below analyzes Pragmatic Theory of Coreference within the domain of pragmatics ...
- a) Peter Geach
 - b) Howard Lasnik
 - c) Noam Chomsky
15. Choose the correct word to complete the sentence: “The _____ of the language obliges us to distinguish between pronouns in categories (i) and (ii)”
- a) grammar
 - b) pragmatics
 - c) phonetic system
16. According to Lasnik’s theory analyzed in section 5, the notion of coreference should be replaced with that of ...
- a) ungrammatical coreference
 - b) intended coreference
 - c) pronominal coreference
17. The general coreference rule is the following: ...
- a) A term can be referentially dependent upon an NP if it does not precede and c-command that NP
 - b) A term can be referentially dependent upon an NP if it precedes and c-commands that NP
 - c) A term can be referentially dependent upon an NP if it substitutes that NP
18. At the end of his article Gareth Evans makes the conclusion that ...
- a) the problem with the notion of referential dependence can be resolved
 - b) the problem with the notion of referential dependence does not exist
 - c) there is no referential dependence between pronouns in any sentence

Activity 4. Self-assessment. Match the theoretical ideas with their authors:

1. Noam Chomsky	a) “Strict ungrammaticality is produced when and only when the pronoun is intended to be referentially dependent upon that occurrence of the name which it precedes and c-commands”
2. Howard Lasnik	b) “the failure of two NP's to be related anaphorically does not entail that they have distinct referents”
3. Gareth Evans	c) “Pronouns not yet assigned antecedents may be taken to refer to entities designated elsewhere in the sentence, though this is never necessary, and is not permitted under certain conditions”
4. Thomas Wasow	d) “the relationship [between antecedent quantifier and bound pronoun/GE] should be characterized as that holding between a quantifier and the variable it binds”

Activity 5 Assessment. Write down the main issues about pronouns analyzed in the article by Gareth Evans.

Unit VI. Semantic classification of adverbs

Synopsis:

The lesson gives an overview of the adverb grammatical functions. The key points highlighted during the lesson are: semantic roles for conjuncts that Greenbaum and Quirk suggested; reformulatory and replacive adverbs; positions for adverbs that Huddleston and Pullum distinguished; traditional classification of adverbs. Students will know the classification, grammatical functions and semantic roles of adverbs.

Lesson aim and learning outcomes

The aim of the lesson is to give full information that adverbs can have four different grammatical functions: as adjuncts, subjuncts, disjuncts, and conjuncts. We must consider different suggestions of the researches to the classification of adverbs and definition of the semantic roles. In such way we will be able to understand that some studies change the semantic role of particular adverbs. This is not surprising as to establish all possible semantic roles of all adverbs is an enormously difficult task due to the semantic complexity of each and every adverb. Learning outcomes: to comprehend theoretical and practical knowledge about the classification, grammatical functions and semantic roles of adverbs; to be able to apply in-depth cognitive and practical skills to analyze the grammatical functions of adverbs; to be able to solve practical problems in the field of traditional classifications including modal, evaluative, and speech-act-related adjuncts.

Key Reading

1. Blokh M. Ya. Theoretical Grammar of English. M.; 1983 – 384 p.
2. Iriskulov A. T. Theoretical Grammar of English. Tashkent 2006, 64 p.
3. Kharytonov I. K. Theoretical grammar of the modern English language. Vinnytsia, Nova knyha, 2008 – 352 p.
4. Alexeyeva I. Theoretical English Grammar. Vinnytsia, Nova knyha, 2007 – 328 p.

References Used in the Teaching Materials

1. <http://www.ilc.cnr.it/EAGLES96/rep2/node14.html>
2. <https://coggle.it/diagram/Wu9XB4jjYRH4Ts5d/t/semantic-classification-of-adverbial-clauses>
3. <http://elib.bsu.by/bitstream/123456789/159088/1/74-80.pdf>
4. <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=qO3qGc1oOQU>

Content of the lesson

Activity 1. Spark.

A. Follow the link: <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=qO3qGc1oOQU> and watch the video about syntax and semantics of adverbs.

B. Reflect on the question:

What semantic properties may the adverbs have?

Input

Activity 2. Follow the link: <http://elib.bsu.by/bitstream/123456789/159088/1/74-80.pdf> and read the article. Make sure to pay attention to the following points while reading:

1. How many grammatical functions do adverbs have according to Quirk?
2. Does the adverb “anyway” refer to an example of conjunct according to Quirk?
3. What do Greenbaum and Quirk believe?
4. What possible semantic roles for conjuncts do Greenbaum and Quirk suggest?
5. What do reformulatory and replacive adverbs suggest?
6. How many possible positions for adverbs did Huddleston and Pullum distinguish?
7. What did Huddleston and Pullum add to traditional classification of adverbs?
8. What does the Huddleston and Pullum’s classification show?
9. What do Quirk, Greenbaum and Quirk the divided the study of adverbs into?
10. Why is it an enormously difficult task to establish all possible semantic roles of all adverbs?

SEMANTIC CLASSIFICATION OF ADVERBS

There have been various attempts to classify adverbs semantically. According to Quirk [1985], adverbs can have four different grammatical functions: as adjuncts, subjuncts, disjuncts, and conjuncts. On the one hand, adjuncts and subjuncts are integrated within the structure of the clause, as can be observed in the following examples:

(1) He talked *slowly*. ADJUNCT

(2) He has not eaten *yet*. SUBJUNCT

As we can see, both adverbs here seem to be modifying the verb or the whole verb phrase. In (1), the adjunct refers to the pace of the action of talking, therefore modifying the semantics of the verb. On the other hand, the adverb in (2) modifies the whole verb phrase by stating that the event of eating has not happened so far, but that there is a strong chance (or an intention) that it will happen in the future. This is done through the use of the adverb *yet*.

On the other hand, disjuncts express an evaluation of what is being said as far as the form of the communication or its meaning is concerned. An example is *happily* as in (3). On the other hand, conjuncts express the speaker's assessment of the relation of two segments (see (4) and (5)):

(3) Mary will *happily* understand everything.

(4) He admits it was very rude of him. *However*, he won't apologize.

(5) I didn't invite her. She wouldn't have come *anyway*. [Quirk et al., 1985, 441]

Example (3) is a typical example of a disjunct. *Happily* expresses an evaluation of what is being said. In (3), the adverb adds a probability to the fact that Mary will understand everything. It is not directly related to the event per se according to Quirk et al. (4) is a clear example of a conjunct.

In the example, the speaker believes that there are two utterances in contrast, therefore s/he uses *however* to link them both.

Anyway in (5) is another example of conjunct according to Quirk et al. As pointed out by the author, *anyway* cannot be either an adjunct or a subjunct since

these are believed to be syntactically integrated within the structure of a clause (at least in its discourse marker use). It appears that *anyway* is a conjunct since it expresses the speaker's assessment of the relation between the two segments; it is an evaluation of this relation between the segments.

Greenbaum and Quirk [1990] believe that conjuncts can conjoin two utterances and they can be used as initiators. The authors offer the following list of possible semantic roles for conjuncts:

Listing adverbs list a number of utterances or topics. They are subdivided into the following categories:

1. Enumerative adverbs, as the name explains, number the list aforementioned, e.g. *next, for one thing, secondly, etc.*

2. Additive adverbs add a new topic to an ongoing list, e.g. *furthermore, above all, moreover, what is more, similarly, in addition, on top of that, etc.*

- Summative adverbs introduce a summary of ideas, for example: *all in all, altogether, overall, therefore, in sum, to sum up, etc.*

- Appositive adverbs precede exemplifications or rephrasings of ideas, e.g. *namely, that is (to say), i.e., for example, in other words, specifically, e.g., etc.*

- Resultive adverbs indicate that the following utterances offer some kind of result or consequence denied in previous discourse, for example: *therefore, so, as a result, accordingly, in consequence, of course, etc.*

- Inferential adverbs denote that previous discourse has helped toward inferring a result shown in the utterance following the adverb, for instance: *in that case, so, then, otherwise, else, etc.*

- Contrastive adverbs display contrast of ideas and they are subclassified as follows:

1. Reformulatory and replacive adverbs suggest that the following utterance is expressed in other words, or information is made more concise in respect to the previous discourse. This is the case of the following: *rather, better, more accurately, in other words, alias, worse, etc.*

2. Antithetic adverbs contrast opposed ideas, for instance: *instead, on the contrary, by contrast, on the other hand, then, etc.*

3. Concessive adverbs imply acknowledgment of previous discourse, e.g. *still, however, nevertheless, yet, all the same, of course, that said, anyhow, anyway, still and all, only, though, etc.*

Transitional adverbs suggest some kind of change of progression in the following terms:

1. Discoursal adverbs indicate a transition of topics, for instance: *by the way, incidentally, now, etc.*

2. Temporal adverbs indicate a transition in terms of time, e.g. *meanwhile, originally, subsequently, eventually, etc.*

Greenbaum and Quirk offer a thorough classification of semantic roles for conjuncts, however, their classification might not appear to be very neat since there are a few overlaps, for example, *therefore* appears with two different semantic roles: as a summative and a resultive adverb. However, as we will see, this type of adverbs do often have several related meanings.

Greenbaum and Quirk claim that conjuncts can conjoin two sentences. This would explain the discourse connectivity effect of the adverbial use of *anyway*. As far as the discourse marker use, we argue that the connectivity is not directed to the previous utterance, rather *anyway* as a discourse marker is used to mark an end to a digression or a topic.

Greenbaum and Quirk subclassify *anyway* and its variants as having a contrastive-concessive meaning. Even though we will claim that the contrastive effect that *anyway* is marginal and secondary to its meaning, it is present in some occasions. For this reason and due to the nature of Greenbaum and Quirk study, we consider that their classification partially fits with our analysis, though it fails to explain the effects created by *anyway* fully. It is an acceptable classification even if it is not a sufficient explanation of the meaning of *anyway* and its variants: *anyhow, at any rate, etc.*

More recently, Huddleston and Pullum [2002] relate the semantic roles with the positions that an adverb can take in a sentence. There are three possible positions for

adverbs: front, end (after the verb), and central (between the subject and the verb). The positioning of any adverb depends on the following classification according to [Huddleston and Pullum, 2002, 576]:

VP-Oriented Adjuncts

1. Manner adverbs are gradable and they modify a verb phrase. Examples: *carefully, hastily, badly, etc.*
2. Means or Instruments are typically prepositional phrases indicating either the means or the instrument use to perform an action, e.g. *by bus, with a spanner, etc.*
3. Act-Related adverbs can be considered manner adverbs in some occasions. The former appear preceding the sentence, so they can be paraphrased *as the act of V* (V being the verb modified by the adverb). Manner adverbs, on the other hand can be paraphrased as doing V in a particular way. Examples of act-related adverbs are: *rudely, foolishly, etc.*
4. Degree adverbs have a central or final position in the sentence and they introduce some kind of quantification, e.g. *almost, enormously, etc.*
5. Temporal Location adverbs introduce some type of time constraint on the verb, for instance: *subsequently, earlier, etc.*
6. Duration adverbs indicate the time duration of the verb as temporarily does.
7. Aspectuality adverbs are polarity sensitive and give information on the aspect of the verb as the following adverbs do: *already, still, etc.*
8. Frequency adverbs describe the frequency of the occurrence described by the verb, e.g. *often.*
9. Serial Order introduces an order regarding events, e.g. *next, last, etc.*

Clause-Oriented Adjuncts

1. Domain adverbs restrict the domain of the clause, e.g. *politically, officially, etc.*
2. Modality adverbs add modal meaning to the clause, for example: *necessarily, probably, surely, etc.*
3. Evaluation adverbs start off the clause by offering a subjective evaluation of it, e.g. *fortunately, ironically, sadly, etc.*

4. Speech Act-Related adverbs always appear at the start of a sentence and make reference to the speech act of the clause, e.g. *frankly, briefly, confidentially, etc.*

5. Connective adjuncts connect utterances or chunks of discourse, for instance: *moreover, alternatively, on the other hand, etc.*

The generalization adopted by the authors is that VP-oriented adjuncts are closely associated with the VP constituents and this is the reason why they are more likely to appear closer or adjacent to the VP. On the other hand, clause-oriented adjuncts are less closely related to the VP and, in turn, they are less likely to be closer or adjacent to the VP.

VP-oriented adjuncts appear preferably in end position where prosodic detachment is not normal unless it indicates an afterthought. However, an intersentential position is an alternative to this end position. Front position is very unusual for this type of adjuncts. On the other hand, clause-oriented adjuncts appear preferably in front position where prosodic detachment is common. And while end position is strongly disfavored, central position is an alternative.

Huddleston and Pullum's study of adverbs is in line with traditional grammarians, though they add a little more to traditional classifications including modal, evaluative, and speech-act-related adjuncts.

The classification that Huddleston and Pullum offer shows a syntactic behavior potentially applicable to the different functions that anyway has.

This difference in syntactic behavior highlights the differences in its semantic role. *Anyway* occurs in two different positions, and it has different functions in the discourse which are marked by its syntactic behavior and a very distinctive prosody. *Anyway* can appear at the end of the sentence (and very rarely in mid-sentence position) and it is integrated in the prosody of the sentence. Huddleston and Pullum would argue that it is a VP-oriented level of the syntactic tree. On the other hand, *anyway* can appear at the start of the sentence with a clearly distinct prosody, and in this case it is a clause-oriented adverb.

This position and prosody indicate a slightly different function in discourse.

There are some slight differences between all adverb classifications. Quirk [1985] and Greenbaum and Quirk [1990] divided the study of adverbs into adjuncts, subjuncts, conjuncts, and subjuncts. On the other hand, Huddleston and Pullum [2002] categorize all adverbs as adjuncts. Some of the semantic roles appear in all these studies. However, in some studies there are differences in classification and definition of the semantic roles. This possibly means that some studies change the semantic role of particular adverbs. This is not surprising as to establish all possible semantic roles of all adverbs is an enormously difficult task due to the semantic complexity of each and every adverb.

Activity 3. State whether the following statements are true or false. Correct the false ones.

1. Disjuncts express an evaluation of what is being said as for as form of the communication or its meaning is concerned.
2. Conjuncts express the listener's assessment of the relation of two segments.
3. Antithetic adverbs contrast opposed ideas.
4. Temporal adverbs indicate a transition in terms of time.
5. Manner adverbs are gradable and they modify a verb phrase.
6. Domain adverbs add modal meaning to the clause.
7. Huddleston and Pullum categorize all adverbs as adjuncts.
8. Speech Act-Related adverbs always appear at the end of a sentence.
9. Degree adverbs introduce some kind of quantification.
10. Serial order introduces an order regarding events.

Activity 4. Fill in the correct words:

1. ... adverbs introduced a summary of ideas.
2. ... adverbs imply acknowledgment of previous discourse.
3. ... adverbs display contrast of ideas.
4. ... adverbs introduce some type of time constraint on the verb.
5. ... adjuncts connect utterances or chunks of discourse.

6. ... adjuncts appear preferably in end position where prosodic detachment is not normal unless it indicated an afterthought.
7. ... make reference to the speech act of the clause.
8. ... adverbs modify a verb phrase.
9. ... adverbs restrict the domain of the clause.
10. ... adverbs contrast opposed ideas.

(Antithetic adverbs Connective adjuncts VP – oriented adjuncts Concessive adverbs Contrastive adverbs Speech Act-Related adverbs Manner adverb Domain adverbs Summative adverb Temporal location)

Activity 5. Assessment. Summarize the main issues of the article.

Unit VII. The category of mood: problems and solutions.

Synopsis:

The lesson gives an overview of the Moods in the English language. The key points highlighted during the lesson are the definitions of "mood" and the observation of different views of the researchers on forms and classification of mood. Students will know the main features of forms and classification of mood and the concrete usage of the given forms in varied functional types of texts.

Lesson aim and learning outcomes

The aim of the lesson is to give full information about the category of Mood in English: a great number of definitions of "mood"; the number of moods in English. We must consider that it is one of the most controversial issues in grammar and the number of moods in English is also a matter of argument. In such way we will be able to distinguish the forms and classification of mood, observing different views of the researchers. Learning outcomes: to comprehend theoretical and practical knowledge about the problem of category of mood in English; to be able to apply in-depth cognitive and practical skills to analyze the main features of forms and classification of mood; to be able to solve practical problems in the field of approaches to the analyses of the problem: the functional (semantic) or the formal (categoric).

Key Reading

1. Alexeyeva I. Theoretical English Grammar. Vinnytsia, Nova knyha, 2007 – 328 p.
2. Blokh M. Ya. Theoretical Grammar of English. M.; 1983 – 384 p.
3. Demidov D. V. Theoretical English Grammar: the manual for part-time students of higher educational institutions / Denys Valeriyovych Demidov; The State institution —Luhansk Taras Shevchenko National University. – Luhansk: Luhansk Taras Shevchenko National University, 2014. – 121 p

4. Kharytonov I. K. Theoretical grammar of the modern English language. Vinnytsia, Nova knyha, 2008 – 352 p.

References Used in the Teaching Materials

1. <https://www.cliffsnotes.com/study-guides/english/verb/moods-of-the-verb>
2. <https://osuwritingcenter.okstate.edu/blog/2020/11/6/the-five-grammatical-moods>
3. <https://examplanning.com/verb-moods-types-and-examples/>
4. <http://dspace.onu.edu.ua:8080/handle/123456789/2055>
5. <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=dM0ZsC7PQbo>

Content of the lesson

Activity 1. Spark.

A. Follow the link: <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=dM0ZsC7PQbo> and watch the video about the three moods of verbs: the indicative, the imperative, and the subjunctive.

B. Reflect on the question:

What is Mood used to denote?

Do the quiz “Moods of the Verb” to check understanding.

1. Complete this sentence: The mood of a verb indicates _____

- the subject is active.
- the attitude of the speaker.
- the speaker is the subject.

2. Complete this sentence: The indicative mood of a verb is used _____

- in most statements and questions.
- in a direct command.
- to indicate the future tense.

3. Complete this sentence: The imperative mood of a verb is used to _____

- show the indirect object is being acted upon.

- ask a question.
- indicate a request or command.

4. Complete this sentence: The subjunctive mood of a verb is most commonly used

-
- when the subject is acting upon an object.
 - in a direct question or a command.
 - in contrary-to-fact or hypothetical statements.

5. Which sentence shows the INDICATIVE mood?

- Sit down and be quiet.
- She walks her two dogs every day.
- Why did he insist on driving to the mall?

6. Which sentence shows the IMPERATIVE mood?

- Turn in your ID badge before leaving the building.
- We should turn in our ID badges before leaving the building.
- Should we turn in our ID badges before leaving the building?

7. Which sentence shows the SUBJUNCTIVE mood?

- If he were the chief financial officer, the company would make a profit.
- Is he the chief financial officer of this profitable company?
- He is the chief financial officer of a profitable company.

Input

Activity 2. Follow the link: <http://dspace.onu.edu.ua:8080/handle/123456789/2055>

and read the article. Make sure to pay attention to the following points while reading:

1. What fact confirms the great and constant attention of linguists to the problem of mood?

2. How does G. O. Curm define mood?

3. What does the Russian academician V. V. Vinogradov stress?
4. What conclusion have linguists come to about the role of paradigmatic forms of the verb?
5. What is also a matter of argument in English?
6. What approaches to the analyses of Subjunctive Mood do you know?
7. What is the function of the Subjunctive Mood according to O. G. Curm?
8. How does G. Sweet subdivide "Thought-mood"?
9. What was really a great progress of G. Sweet?
10. What forms does O. Jespersen call "imaginative tenses or tenses of imagination"?
11. What forms of the Subjunctive doesn't O. Jespersen mention?
12. What scholars studied the problem of the Subjunctive?
13. What actions do Subjunctive I and Suppositional express?
14. What actions do Subjunctive II and Conditional represent?
15. What types of the Subjunctive Mood does I. B. Hlebnikova highlight?
16. What general meanings of category of Mood does B. A. Ilyish distinguish?
17. What does the analyses of different theories and conceptions to the problem of the Subjunctive mood confirm?

T.Kovalchuk

THE CATEGORY OF MOOD: PROBLEMS AND SOLUTIONS

The category of Mood, being one of the most controversial ones, remains "in the state of making and change" and it "continues to be a tremendously interesting field of analytical observation", M. Y. Blokh a leading linguist stated.

First of all, the fact of existence of a great number of definitions of "mood" confirms the great and constant attention of linguists to the problem. And the definitions of the category of Mood given by different authors show the evolution of understanding of its essence:

The category of Mood is treated by R. W. Pence as the quality of the verb which shows how the verb forms are considered.

G. O. Curm defines mood as "the changes in the form of the verb to show the various ways in which the action or state is thought by the speaker".

H. Sweet regards the mood of the verb as "grammatical forms expressing different relations between subject and predicate".

Opposing H. Sweet's view, O. Jespersen argues that mood expresses "certain attitudes of mind of the speaker towards the contents of the sentence" rather than different relations between subject and predicate, as H. Sweet says.

H. Whitehall suggests the following definition: "Mood establishes the speaker's or writer's mood about the actuality of a happening".

The academician V. V. Vinogradov [11:472] also, connecting the category of Mood with morphological characteristics of the verb, stresses that it is a grammatical category in the system of the verb which shows the modality of the action, i. e. it denotes the attitude of the action towards the reality as established by the speaker.

The above-mentioned definitions of the category of Mood show that starting with a narrow, restricted consideration of only paradigmatic forms of the verb through comprehension of the meaning, which these forms have in the sentence, linguistics has come to realization of the role of these forms for expressing modality.

The number of moods in English is also a matter of argument. Distinguished by different theoreticians, it varies from two (H. Sweet, L. S. Barkhudarov, D. A. Shteling) to sixteen (M. Deutschbein).

What is the Subjunctive Mood? What are its forms and classification?

The answers of different researchers to these questions greatly depend on their approaches to the analyses of the problem: the functional (semantic) or the formal (categoric).

Thus, O. G. Curm writes: "The function of the subjunctive is to present something not as an actual reality, but as formed in the mind of the speaker as a desire, wish, volition, plan, conception, thought, sometimes with more or less hope of realization, or, in the case of a statement, with more or less belief; sometimes with little or no hope or faith". The author speaks of two entirely different forms of the Subjunctive: the old simple forms and the new ones (the combination of the modal

verbs with the infinitive). O. G. Curm divides the Subjunctive into “Optative” to express a desired, demanded or required action and “Potential” to express, on the one hand, a mere conception of the mind that may be a reality and, on the other hand, something that is contrary to reality. Thus, the researcher considers the forms of the Indicative as well as combinations of different modal verbs with the infinitive to be the Subjunctive.

G. Sweet subdivides «Thought-mood» into «Conditional Mood» (should/would + infinitive), «Permissive Mood» (may/might + infinitive) and «Compulsive Mood» (the combination of the verb to be with the supine). The distinction of synthetic and analytic forms by G. Sweet was really a great progress but the forms coinciding with these of Past Perfect were not included in his classification.

O. Jespersen includes only the old synthetic forms into the sphere of the Subjunctive. The author calls the forms of the Indicative with the meaning of unreality, impossibility “imaginative tenses or tenses of imagination”.

Thus, the scientist doesn't mention the analytical forms of the Subjunctive.

R. W. Zandvoort subdivides the Subjunctive into “Optative” to express wish, “Potential” - possibility and “Irrealis” - unreality. The forms should/would/might + infinitive, called “Modal Preterit”, are included into his classification.

There's a great diversity of opinion as to the problem of the Subjunctive among native scholars.

A. I. Smirnitskiy distinguishes Subjunctive I (actions that are problematic but not contradicting reality), Subjunctive II (actions that are contrary to reality), Suppositional (should/ would + infinitive with any subject) and Conditional (analytical forms should / would in the main clause of the conditional sentence). M. Ganshina and N. Vasilevskaya also follow this classification.

As we see, Subjunctive I and Suppositional both express problematic actions but not contradicting reality, and Subjunctive II and Conditional represent actions as contrary to reality. The form of Subjunctive I differs from Suppositional only as a synthetic form from an analytic one. The same is true of Subjunctive II and Conditional. To say differently, they have different forms but express one and the

same meaning. Thus, according to this classification, there are four moods expressing only two shades of the same modal meaning of supposition, but the forms expressing the same meaning can belong to only one grammatical category. Thus, we should not speak of different moods but about different forms of one and the same mood.

The author emphasizes that they both are the varieties of one and the same category and they are not opposed to each other but “сополагаются в единой микросхеме”.

B. A. Ilyish tries to analyze the category of mood from the point of view of its semantic and formal features. He distinguishes four general meanings: inducement, possibility, unreal condition and consequence of unreal condition. Thus, either three moods can be counted (if the meanings of unreal condition and consequence of unreal condition are united into one) or only two ones (if the latter three meanings are joined under one general title “unreal action”). But if the ways of expression are taken into account we shall find as many as six moods (including Imperative) which proves B. A. Ilyish doesn't suggest any definite classification. L. S. Barkhudarov and D. A. Shteling's is an outermost position in the attempt to solve the problem of English mood. They distinguish only two moods: Indicative and Subjunctive. The latter of which is subdivided into Subjunctive I and Subjunctive II. The Imperative and the Conjunctive are treated as forms outside the category of mood. The analyses of different theories and conceptions as to the problem of the Subjunctive mood in English undertaken by native and foreign linguists confirms, on the one hand, the complexity and the variety of the phenomenon itself and, on the other hand, show that there is no unanimity in the treatment of this category as a whole and its individual manifestations. Thus, the constant and firm interest of scholars to the Subjunctive Mood can be explained by the urge “to remove” the existent contradictions. And one of the possible ways of learning and studying this many-sided phenomenon is seen in the solution of the following concrete aims:

- make up a complete list of forms which are referred to the category of the Subjunctive Mood.

- study the concrete usage of the given forms in varied functional types of texts.

- reveal typical features and models the semantic-syntactic structures of utterances referred to as the Subjunctive Mood.

- define the essential grammatical content of the structures and the forms of the Subjunctive Mood, and determine the interdependence between each of the forms and their content.

Activity 3. Complete the following sentences:

1. The category of Mood, being one of the most controversial ones...
2. The fact of existence of a great...
3. The answers of different researchers to these questions greatly depend on their approaches to the analyses of the problem:...
4. The distinction of synthetic and analytic forms by G. Sweet was really...
5. Distinguished by different theoreticians, the number of mood varies ...
6. There's a great diversity of opinion...
7. The form of Subjunctive I differs from...
9. L. S. Barkhudarov and D. A. Shteling's treats...
10. According to I.Ilysh three moods can be counted (if the meanings of unreal condition and consequence of unreal condition are united into one) or...

Activity 4. Choose the correct variant:

1. O. G. Curm divides the Subjunctive into "Optative" and
 - a) "Potential";
 - b) "Permissive";
 - c) "Compulsive";
 - d) "Partial".
2. O. Jespersen includes only the old ... forms into the sphere of the Subjunctive.
 - a) analytical;
 - b) synthetic;

c) compulsive;

d) imaginative.

3. The form of Subjunctive I differs from ... only as a synthetic form from an analytic one.

a) Imperative mood;

b) Subjunctive II;

c) Conditional;

d) Suppositional.

4. B. A. Ilyish tries to analyze the category of mood from the point of view of its semantic and ... features.

a) imaginative;

b) analytical;

c) formal;

d) synthetic;

5. The number of moods in English is varies from ...

a) 2 to 16;

b) 2 to 6;

c) 4 to 22;

d) 4 to 16.

6. The constant and firm interest of scholars to the Subjunctive Mood can be explained by the urge ... the existent contradictions.

a) "to form";

b) "to delete";

c) "to collect";

d) "to remove".

7. L. S. Barkhudarov and D. A. Shteling's distinguish only two moods: Indicative and ...

a) Conditional;

b) Imperative;

c) Suppositional;

d) Subjunctive.

8. Subjunctive II and Conditional represent actions ...

a) as contrary to reality;

b) as not contrary to reality;

c) as possible if they are desired in reality;

b) as possible under the several conditions in reality.

9. ... and Suppositional both express problematic actions but not contradicting reality.

a) Subjunctive I;

b) Subjunctive II;

c) Suppositional;

d) Conditional.

10. «Permissive Mood» according to G. Sweet means ...+ infinitive.

a) can/could;

b) should/would;

c) may/might;

d) need.

Activity 5. Self-assessment. Match the beginning of each sentence in the left-hand column with the endings in the right-hand column. Combine the sentences so that they make sense.

1) R. W. Zandwoort....	a) treats the category of Mood as the quality of the verb which shows how the verb forms are considered.
2) R. W. Pence...	b) defines mood as "the changes in the form of the verb to show the various ways in which the action or state is thought by the speaker".
3) V.V. Vinogradov...	c) regards the mood of the verb as

	"grammatical forms expressing different relations between subject and predicate".
H. Whitehall	d) argues that mood expresses "certain attitudes of mind of the speaker towards the contents of the sentence".
4) H. Sweet...	e) suggests the following definition: "Mood establishes the speaker's or writer's mood about the actuality of a happening".
5) G. O. Curm...	f) stresses that it is a grammatical category in the system of the verb which shows the modality of the action.
6) O. Jespersen...	g) subdivides the Subjunctive into "Optative" to express wish, "Potential" - possibility and "Irrealis" - unreality.
7) B. A. Ilyish...	h) distinguishes Subjunctive, Subjunctive II, Suppositional and Conditional.
8) A. I. Smirnitskiy...	i) distinguishes four general meanings: inducement, possibility, unreal condition and consequence of unreal condition.

Activity 6. Assessment. Whose approach to the category of Moods do you like most of all? Why? Express your own opinion. Find additional information about this theory.

Unit VIII. Modality and the English modals

Synopsis:

The lesson gives an overview of the modality and the English modals. The key points highlighted during the lesson are the general nature of modality, the formal system in English and the meanings associated with that category in English. Students will know that possibility and necessity are central to modality in English, and that they provide the main link between epistemic and deontic modality.

Lesson aim and learning outcomes

The aim of the lesson is to give full information about the definition of modality, the most fundamental kinds of modality, the modal verbs and their meaning. We must consider although there are six modal verbs that must certainly be included, there are two that are more marginal; moreover, some of the meanings of these verbs are 'more modal' than others. In such way we will be able to see the whole range of verbs with modality. Learning outcomes: to comprehend theoretical and practical knowledge about the problem of modality and modal verbs; to be able to apply in-depth cognitive and practical skills to analyze the modal verbs included in the formal system; to be able to solve practical problems in the field of classifying modal verbs according to their meaning.

Key Reading

1. Alexeyeva I. Theoretical English Grammar. Vinnytsia, Nova knyha, 2007 – 328 p.
2. Blokh M. Ya. Theoretical Grammar of English. M.; 1983 – 384 p.
3. Demidov D. V. Theoretical English Grammar: the manual for part-time students of higher educational institutions / Denys Valeriyovych Demidov; The State institution —Luhansk Taras Shevchenko National University. – Luhansk: Luhansk Taras Shevchenko National University, 2014. – 121 p
4. Kharytonov I. K. Theoretical grammar of the modern English language. Vinnytsia, Nova knyha, 2008 – 352 p.

References Used in the Teaching Materials

1. <https://dictionary.cambridge.org/grammar/british-grammar/modal-verbs-and-modality>
2. <https://www.grammarly.com/blog/modal-verbs/>
3. <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=RaySLVPa560>
4. <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=5VSCmOFBGHA>
5. <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=4C3INNWyIYQ>

Content of the lesson

Activity 1. Spark.

A. Follow the links: <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=RaySLVPa560>, <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=5VSCmOFBGHA>, <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=4C3INNWyIYQ> and watch the videos on modality in language and how to use modal verbs effectively.

B. Reflect on the question:

What are the types of modality and the senses in which the various categories of modality may be understood?

Input

Activity 2. Follow the link:

https://www.researchgate.net/publication/248669970_F_R_Palmer_Mood_and_modality and read the article. Make sure to pay attention to the following points while reading:

1. Why does the situation with modality differ from the situation with other semantic-grammatical features?
2. What are the most fundamental kinds of modality?
3. What is the most interesting thing about an investigation of modality?
4. How many modal verbs must certainly be included in the formal system?
5. What are the modal verbs of varying status?
6. How many modes are distinguished by von Wright? What are they?

7. What modal auxiliaries refer to the term 'epistemic'?
8. What do modal verbs express according to the deontic modality?
9. In what sense is the word 'can' used?
10. How can be epistemic and deontic modalities paraphrased?

F.R. Palmer

MODALITY AND THE ENGLISH MODALS

Modals and modality. Basically there are three issues to be discussed: the general nature of modality, the formal system in English and the meanings associated with that category in English.

Modality. Modality is one of a number of semantic-grammatical features that, as Jespersen, says, 'Janus-like face both ways, towards form, and towards notion'. Thus tense in English is concerned with the distinctions found in *like/liked*, *take/took* etc. and the notion of time, while grammatical number is concerned with the distinctions in *cat/cats*, *mouse/mice* etc. and the notion of enumeration. It is possible, moreover, to discuss such categories typologically, *ie* across languages. This involves first the identification of formal grammatical categories in different languages, and secondly the identification of them as being the same in terms of their shared meanings. (The terms 'meaning', 'semantic' and 'semantics' are used throughout this book in a general sense, to include what might also be included under 'notions', 'use' and 'function', except where a specific distinction is drawn.)

The situation with modality is rather different, because there is no simple, clearly definable, semantic category, such as time and enumeration. Nevertheless, something like Lyons' suggestion that modality is concerned with the 'opinion and attitude' of the speaker seems a fairly helpful preliminary definition. It is certainly the case that investigation has shown that there are very different formal systems, such as the modal verbs in English, the subjunctive mood in both modern and classical languages of Europe and the system of clitics or particles in Australian and American

Indian languages that have much in common in terms of the meanings that they express.

The meanings expressed by the modal verbs in English represent, to a large degree, those that are to be included in a typological account of modality, though, as will be seen shortly, the two most semantically fundamental kinds of modality (epistemic and deontic - 1.1.3) are in one important sense very different from each other, so that it is necessary to find a justification for including them within a single category. Moreover, it will be seen that some of the meanings of the modal verbs, particularly the use of CAN to refer to ability and of WILL to refer to volition and to the future, do not seem to be strictly matters of modality at all; for ability and volition refer to characteristics of the subject of the sentence rather than the speaker, while future would seem to be a matter of tense. Yet it can be shown that they have something in common with the more strictly 'modal' meanings of the verbs, if a third kind of modality ('dynamic') is admitted, and if one way of referring to the future can be considered to be modal. For English, and indeed for other languages, it is necessary to distinguish the more central modal meanings and those that are more peripheral. In any language, of course, a grammatical system can be described as modal only if it expresses part of the central set of modal meanings, but one of the most interesting things about an investigation of modality is that other modal systems often express meanings that are not associated with modality in English, yet can be shown to be closely related in some way or other to these more central notions. But the closeness of this relationship is essentially a matter of degree; as a result, it is by no means easy to delimit the semantic range of the more widely defined category of modality.

Just as it is not easy to define precisely the semantic range, so it is not always clear precisely what is to be included in the formal system. Indeed the vagueness and indeterminacy of the semantic system seems to lead to some lack of clear determination in the formal system, and gives the investigator no very clear guidelines concerning where to set the limits. Thus in English, although there are six modal verbs that must certainly be included (WILL, SHALL, MAY, CAN, MUST

and OUGHT TO), there are two (DARE and NEED) that are more marginal; moreover, some of the meanings of these verbs are 'more modal' than others. Then there are several others of varying status: USED TO is formally within the system, but semantically has virtually nothing in common with the others, and will not be considered in this book, HAVE TO, BE ABLE TO, BE WILLING TO, BE BOUND TO and BE GOING TO are closely related semantically (though with some significant differences), but formally outside the system, while is TO is problematic.

Nevertheless, there is a fairly easily established category in English, more so than in the other European languages that appear to have a system of modal verbs: similar verbs of German and the other Germanic languages have fewer formal markers and lack one quite important characteristic of the English modals, while their counterparts in the Romance languages are, in varying degrees, difficult to define formally, even though they have meanings very similar to those of English.

Epistemic and deontic. It is easy to show, especially with MAY and MUST, that there are potentially two very different uses of the modals. Consider:

John may be there now.

John must be there now.

John may come in now.

John must come in now.

On the most likely interpretation the first two make judgments about the probability of the truth of the proposition ('what is being said') that John is there now, while the second two in some way influence the action of John's coming in, by giving him permission and by imposing an obligation on him to do so. (There is, in fact, potential ambiguity between the two meanings in all four cases, but this is usually resolved by the context, and there are ways of avoiding it, e.g. by using CAN for permission instead of MAY - and, indeed, CAN is far more likely anyway in any but the most formal style.)

These two uses of the modals are distinguished as 'epistemic' and 'deontic' respectively, one of them essentially making a judgment about the truth of the proposition, the other being concerned with influencing actions, states or events and

expressing what Searle calls 'directives' (though the term is a little inappropriate since giving permission can hardly be described as 'directing').

Epistemic and deontic are two of the four 'modes' that are distinguished by von Wright in a pioneering work on modal logic; other philosophers have suggested other modes or modalities (eg Rescher). Von Wright's four modes are:

- [i] The alethic modes or modes of truth.
- [ii] The epistemic modes or modes of knowing.
- [iii] The deontic modes or modes of obligation,
- [vi] The existential modes or modes of existence.

Von Wright admits that the last, which belongs to quantification theory, is often not regarded as a branch of modal logic, but adds that there are essential similarities between it and the other modes.

These are, however, essentially a logician's set of categories and von Wright's purpose in setting them up is, openly, to investigate their formal structure in terms of truth tables etc., as for quantification theory. In contrast, the aim of the linguist must be simply to investigate the kind of modalities that are clearly recognizable in language and the systems which they exhibit.

Alethic modality has been the main concern of logicians, but it has little place in ordinary language. It is true that **MUST** may be used to indicate alethic necessity as in: *John is a bachelor, so he must be unmarried.*

Yet it would be no less natural not to use **MUST** and to say *so he is unmarried*, and it seems likely that no clear distinction is recognized by native speakers between this alethic use and the epistemic use of **MUST**.

Linguists have used the term 'epistemic' to refer to the use of the modal auxiliaries **MAY** and **MUST**, as in *He may be there, He must be there*. Von Wright notes that the word *possible* is used in ordinary language in an epistemic sense, yet in this system 'possible' belongs to the alethic mode, and the term in the epistemic mode is 'undecided'. This is related to the fact that epistemic modality in language is usually, perhaps always, what Lyons calls 'subjective' in that it relates to an inference by the speaker, and is not simply concerned with 'objective' verifiability in the light

of knowledge. Epistemic necessity, indicated by MUST, is thus not to be paraphrased as 'In the light of what is known it is necessarily the case that . . .', but by something like 'From what I know the only conclusion I can draw is . . .'.

Deontic modality, too, has a place in ordinary language. The modal verbs are used to express what is obligatory, permitted, or forbidden. But like epistemic modality, it is usually subjective in that the speaker is the one who obliges, permits, or forbids. Von Wright's modality is 'absolute', but he recognizes that it can be 'relative', *ieto* some moral code or some person. Deontic modals are, thus, usually performative in the sense of Austin.

The existential mode is, as von Wright says, a matter of quantificational logic and is more concerned in ordinary language with *some, any, all* than the expressions of modality. But it is of interest for two reasons. First, CAN is used in an existential sense to mean 'some' (though more commonly 'sometimes') *eg Lionscan be dangerous* . Secondly, the rules for logical equivalence with negation in existential modality are closely paralleled in the other modalities, especially the epistemic.

In a footnote von Wright also recognizes dynamic modality, which is concerned with ability and disposition as in *Jones can speak German*. There would seem to be a place, then, for the modality expressed by CAN in the sense of ability (and also for WILL in the sense of volition). However, whereas both epistemic and deontic modality appear to relate to the speaker, dynamic modality is concerned with the ability and volition of the subject of the sentence, and is not, perhaps, strictly modality at all.

It is both interesting and significant that the kind of distinction made in epistemic and deontic modality is found elsewhere in English. This can be seen in the following pairs of sentences:

I suggest that you went to London.

I suggest that you go to London.

I insist that you went to London.

I insist that you go to London.

The first of each pair is concerned with affirming the truth of the proposition, the second with getting the action performed. Sweetser (1982) considers this to be a matter of a 'conceptual' and a 'real' world, the conceptual world being derived from, and based on, the real world. If this is reasonable, it is not surprising that the epistemic/deontic distinction is found in many other languages, often with the same, or very similar, forms being used for both (see Palmer 1986).

Many scholars (including Sweetser) make a binary distinction between epistemic and non-epistemic modality, the latter being termed 'Root' modality. Although this is both formally and semantically the clearest distinction in the English modals, other distinctions, particularly that of dynamic modality, seem perfectly valid.

Finally, on a small terminological point, it is both convenient and usual to talk about 'epistemic and deontic modals'; this is strictly inaccurate since most of the modals are used in both senses, and are not themselves either epistemic or deontic. But this terminology is simpler than talking about 'modals used epistemically/deontically', and is not likely to lead to confusion.

Possibility and necessity. In the previous section it was seen that the notions of possibility and necessity were relevant to epistemic modality as well as to von Wright's alethic. They can also be used to describe deontic modality, since to give permission is to make an action possible and to lay an obligation is to make it necessary. Indeed, the difference between MAY and MUST as both epistemic and deontic can be explained in terms of possibility and necessity; epistemic modality can be paraphrased as 'possible/necessary that . . .', deontic modality as 'possible/necessary for . . .'. Strictly speaking, *necessary* is not used to express epistemic modality (**// is necessary that he is there now*), but this is a fact about the word *necessary* in ordinary speech and should not preclude the more technical and perfectly transparent use of the term in linguistic description.

Although natural language does not usually follow very strict rules of logic, some of the relationships between the modals, particularly MAY and MUST and negation follow along fairly logical lines. Using the paraphrases suggested above, it

can be shown that there are two possible ways of negating epistemic and deontic possibility and necessity. Consider epistemic possibility:

It is possible that John is here.

It is not possible that John is here.

It is possible that John is not here.

The distinction is easily characterized as 'not possible' and 'possible not'; similarly, for necessity there is 'not necessary' and 'necessary not'. Similar distinctions are valid for deontic modality.

The actual forms used are rather surprising. For epistemic modality they are:

John may be there now.

John can't be there now (not poss.)

John may not be there now. (poss. not)

There are no negative necessity forms using MUST, but MUST can be negated by using the MAY/CAN forms in the opposite order:

John must be there now.

John may not be there now. (not nec.)

John can't be there now. (nec. not)

It has sometimes been said that *can't* is the negative of *must*, but this is misleading. The situation is that there are logical equivalences between possibility and necessity in terms of negation:

Possible not = Not necessary

Necessary not = Not possible

These equivalences are exploited by English in that it does not require the negative necessity forms. For, instead of using the 'not necessary' form, it is possible to use the 'possible not' form (*may not*), and instead of 'necessary not', the 'not possible' form (*can't*). There are similar features with the deontic modals, though with them it is a possibility form that is missing.

It seems clear from this that possibility and necessity are central to modality in English, and that they provide the main link between epistemic and deontic modality. This is also true of many other languages.

(Palmer F. R. *Modality and the English Modals*)

Activity 3. Choose the correct variant:

1. Modality is concerned with the ... of the speaker.
 - a) opinion and attitude
 - b) thought and action
 - c) idea and behavior
2. The meanings expressed by the modal verbs are to be included in a typological account of... .
 - a) aspect
 - b) mood
 - c) modality
3. What are the most semantically fundamental kinds of modality?
 - a) epistemic and deontic
 - b) epistemic and dynamic
 - c) epistemic and alethic
4. The use of the modal verb 'can' refers to
 - a) volition
 - b) ability
 - c) necessity
5. What verb is formally within the system of modal verbs?
 - a) ought to
 - b) used to
 - c) have to
6. There are potentially ... very different uses of the modals.
 - a) four
 - b) three
 - c) two
7. What four 'modes' are distinguished by von Wright?
 - a) alethic, epistemic, deontic, existential
 - b) alethic, epistemic, dynamic, existential
 - c) alethic, epistemic, deontic, dynamic

8. ... modality has been the main concern of logicians.
- a) deontic
 - b) alethic
 - c) epistemic
9. Linguists have used the term 'epistemic' to refer to the use of the modal auxiliaries..
- a) can and may
 - b) should and would
 - c) may and must
10. The verb 'can' is used in an existential sense to mean
- a) 'a lot'
 - b) 'a part'
 - c) 'some'

Activity 4. State whether the following statements are true or false. Correct the false ones.

1. The situation with modality is rather different, because there is simple, clearly definable, semantic category, such as time and enumeration.
2. In any language, of course, a grammatical system can be described as modal only if it expresses part of the central set of modal meanings.
3. In English there are six modal verbs that must certainly be included in the formal system (WILL, SHALL, MAY, CAN, MUST and USED TO).
4. HAVE TO, BE ABLE TO, BE WILLING TO, BE BOUND TO and BE GOING TO are closely related semantically and must be included in the system.
5. Von Wright notes that the word possible is used in ordinary language in an epistemic sense.
6. CAN is used in an existential sense to mean 'some'.
7. In a footnote von Wright also recognizes dynamic modality, which is concerned with ability and disposition.
8. There are five 'modes' distinguished by von Wright.
9. Epistemic modality can be paraphrased as 'possible/necessary that . . .', deontic modality as 'possible/necessary for . . .'.

10. There are negative necessity forms using MUST.

Activity 5. Complete the following sentences:

1. Modality is concerned with ...
2. It will be seen that some of the meanings of the modal verbs, particularly the use of CAN to refer to ability and of WILL to refer to volition and to the future...
3. One of the most interesting things about an investigation of modality is ...
4. There are two verbs ... that are more marginal.
5. It is easy to show, especially with MAY and MUST, that ...
6. Epistemic and deontic are two of the four 'modes' ...
7. Alethic modality has been the main concern of logicians, ...
8. It is true that MUST may be used ...
9. Dynamic modality is concerned with ...
10. Possibility and necessity are central to modality in English, and that ...

Activity 6. Assessment. Point out the main idea of this article and express your own opinion.

Unit IX. Mood and Modality

Synopsis:

The lesson gives an overview of the Mood as a grammatical category in the English language. The key points highlighted during the lesson are the criteria of classification proposed by Jonathan Marks. Students will know what criteria English Mood can be classified by; moods that are traditionally distinguished in Modern English; the main features of English Mood classification proposed by Jonathan Marks; the problem of grammatical form to convey different grammatical meanings.

Lesson aim and learning outcomes

The aim of the lesson is to give full information about the Mood category in English that is complicated and controversial, and results in many interpretations. We must consider the peculiarities of English Mood in sophisticated correlation between formal and semantic features of verb forms. In such way we will be able to much adequately classify English Mood and Modality and continue research for development of scientific idea in grammar. Learning outcomes: to comprehend theoretical and practical knowledge about the problem of the criteria of the Mood classification; to be able to apply in-depth cognitive and practical skills to analyze the main features of classification; to be able to solve practical problems in the field of English Mood classification, for the purpose of grammatical description and analysis.

Key Reading

1. Demidov D. V. Theoretical English Grammar: the manual for part-time students of higher educational institutions / Denys Valeriyovych Demidov; The State institution —Luhansk Taras Shevchenko National University. – Luhansk: Luhansk Taras Shevchenko National University, 2014. – 121 p
2. Kharytonov I. K. Theoretical grammar of the modern English language. Vinnytsia, Nova knyha, 2008 – 352 p.
3. Alexeyeva I. Theoretical English Grammar. Vinnytsia, Nova knyha, 2007 – 328 p.

4. Palmer, F. R. (1994). Mood and modality. Cambridge Univ. Press. Second edition 2001.

References Used in the Teaching Materials

1. <https://www.academia.edu/search?q=english%20mood%20and%20modality>
2. <https://www.thoughtco.com/modality-grammar-and-semantics-1691396>
3. <https://education.nsw.gov.au/teaching-and-learning/student-assessment/smart-teaching-strategies/literacy/writing/stage-3/sentence-structure/identifying-and-using-modality>
4. <https://www.academypublication.com/issues2/jltr/vol10/04/28.pdf>
5. <https://www.bing.com/videos/search?q=mood+and+modality+video&view=detail&mid=D7D2F55D39FABA12F134D7D2F55D39FABA12F134&FORM=VIRE>

Content of the lesson

Activity 1. Spark.

A. Follow the

link:<https://www.bing.com/videos/search?q=mood+and+modality+video&view=detail&mid=D7D2F55D39FABA12F134D7D2F55D39FABA12F134&FORM=VIRE> and watch the video about the function of the verb – Mood and Modality.

B. Reflect on the question:

What are the main features of English Mood classification?

Input

Activity 2.

Follow

the

link:

<https://www.academypublication.com/issues2/jltr/vol10/04/28.pdf> and read the article.

Make sure to pay attention to the following points while reading:

1. What does the term “modality” mean?
2. What types modality is basically divided into?
3. What grammatical categories are used to show modality?
4. What are the main features of classification proposed by Jespersen?

5. What classification of modality system was made by Rescher?
6. What is the main difference between epistemic modality and deontic modality, according to Von Wright?
7. What are the core concepts of modality?
8. What are the main careers to show modality?

Jonathan Marks

MOOD AND MODALITY

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

It is obvious that the Mood category in English is complicated and controversial, which results in many interpretations. Criteria of classifications may be either meaning or form. One of the peculiarities of English Mood lies in sophisticated correlation between formal and semantic features of verb forms. On the one hand, several verb forms may be parallel in their use while expressing one grammatical meaning. On the other hand, one grammatical form may be used to convey different grammatical meanings.

In Modern English we distinguish three moods: THE INDICATIVE MOOD, THE IMPERATIVE MOOD, THE SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

The Indicative Mood shows that the action or state expressed by the verb is presented as a fact.

e.g. He *went* home early in the evening.

It is also used to express a real condition, i.e. a condition the realization of which is considered possible.

e.g. If it *rains*, I *shall stay* at home.

The Imperative Mood expresses a command or a request. The imperative mood differs from all other moods in several important points. It has no person, number, tense, or aspect distinctions, and, which is the main thing, it is limited in its use to one type of sentence only – imperative sentences. In Modern English the

Imperative Mood has only one form which coincides with the infinitive without the particle 'to'.

e.g. Please *put* the papers on the table by the bed.

In forming the negative the auxiliary verb 'to do' is always used even with the verb 'to be'.

e.g. *Don't make* a noise! *Don't be* angry!

A command addressed to the third person singular and plural is usually expressed with the help of the verb "to let".

e.g. *Let* the child *go* home at once.

With the first person plural the verb "to let" is used to express an exhortation to a joint action.

e.g. *Let's go* and *have* some fresh coffee.

The Subjunctive Mood shows that the action or state expressed by the verb is presented as a non-fact, as something imaginary or desired. The Subjunctive Mood is also used to express an emotional attitude of the speaker to real facts. In Modern English the Subjunctive Mood has synthetic and analytical forms.

Subjunctive mood forms

1) synthetic forms: **the present subjunctive** and **the past subjunctive**.

I. **The present subjunctive** coincides with the plain verb stem (be, go, see) for all persons in both the singular and the plural. It denotes a hypothetical action referring to the present or future.

I, he, she, it, we, you, they + be, take, resent, etc.

e.g. He required that all be kept secret.

The present subjunctive forms are confined mainly to formal style and formulaic expressions – prayers, wishes, which should be memorized as wholes.

e.g. It is natural enough the enemy resent it.

Heaven forbid! The devil take him!

Long live freedom! God save the king!

II. **The past subjunctive** is even more restricted in its usage; it exists in Modern English only in:

- *the form were*, which is used for all persons both in the singular and plural. It refers the hypothetical action to the present or future and shows that it contradicts reality.

e.g. If I were you!

If you were there!

If it were true!

- *non-factual forms: non-factual past indefinite and past continuous, non-factual past perfect and past perfect continuous.*

The non-factual past indefinite and past continuous are used to denote hypothetical actions in the present or future; the non-factual past perfect and past perfect continuous denote hypothetical actions in the past.

e.g. If I had ..., If only I had known ..., If he came ...

He smiled as if he were enjoying the situation.

3) analytical forms: *should / would + infinitive, may / might + infinitive*

e.g. However much you may argue, he will do as he pleases (expresses possibility).

I wish I could help you (expresses ability).

If you would agree to visit my uncle, ... (expresses wish).

The subjunctive mood and the tense category

Referring to the Present or Future

I fear lest he *should* escape.

He *would* phone you.

I suppose he *should be* working in the library.

Referring to the Present or Future

If I *knew*.

I wish I *were* warned when the timetable is changed.

Referring to the Past

I fear lest he *should have* escaped.

He *would have* phoned you.

I suppose he *should have been* working in the library.

Referring to the Past

If I *had known*.

I wish I *had been* warned.

The Conditional Mood, like Subjunctive II, represents an action as contradicting reality. The difference between the two moods is in their form and in their usage.

There are four types of conditional sentences:

- sentences with real condition: If I have offended you, I'm very sorry.
- sentences containing unreal condition: You wouldn't be talking that way unless you were offended.
- sentences of split condition: If we hadn't been such fools we should all still be together.
- sentences / clauses of implied condition: But for luck he would be still at home.

Sentences with real condition

1. express real condition;
2. Indicative Mood is used;
3. condition may refer to the past, present, future.

e.g. You may go away, if it bothers you.

If I had laughed about it before, I wasn't laughing now.

Sentences contain unreal condition

1. The Subjunctive Mood is used both in the principal and conditional clauses.
2. The action expressed in the principle clause depends on the unreal condition.

Sentences of split condition

Actions in the principal and subordinate clauses have different time-reference: the unreal clause may refer to the past the consequence – to the present / future; the condition may refer to no particular time, consequence may refer to the past.

e.g. She wouldn't have told me her story if she disliked me.

Sentences of implied condition

Implied condition is not openly stated in a clause but is suggested by an adverbial part of the sentence or context: adverbial modifier of condition (but for, except for) + should / would + infinitive.

e.g. But for me you would be still talking to him.

All mentioned above shows that the category of mood in the present English verb has given rise to so many discussions, and has been treated in so many different ways, that it seems hardly possible to arrive at any more or less convincing and universally acceptable conclusion concerning it. Scientists distinguish from 2 to 16 moods in Modern English. The reasons for the diversion of views are the following:

1. There is no direct correspondence between the meaning and form: the same meaning can be expressed by different forms:

e.g. I wish you didn't speak so loudly. I wish you would not speak so lowly. Be it so! I wish it were like this.

2. One form can express different meanings.

e.g. Be it so! It's necessary that he be here.

3. Very often it is difficult to distinguish between mood auxiliaries and modal verbs.

e.g. If it were necessary I might go.

4. In English the same forms are found in Indicative and in Subjunctive mood: were, went, had gone etc.

Activity 3. Answer the following questions:

1. What does the term "mood" mean?
2. How many moods are there in Modern English?
3. What does one of the peculiarities of English Mood lie in?
4. What does the indicative mood express?
5. What differs the imperative mood from all other moods?
6. What forms does subjunctive mood have?
7. What do the non-functional past indefinite and past continuous forms denote?
8. How many types do the conditional sentences have?
9. What characteristic features do the sentences of split condition have?
10. What are the main reasons for the diversion of moods in Modern English?

Activity 4. Complete the following sentences:

1. On the one hand, several verb forms may be parallel in ...
2. In Modern English we distinguish three moods...
3. The indicative mood is also used to express a real condition ...
4. has no person, number, tense, or aspect distinctions, and, which is the main thing, ... is limited in its use to one type of sentence only – imperative sentences.
5. In Modern English has only one form which coincides with the infinitive without the particle ‘to’.
6. The subjunctive mood shows that the action or state expressed by the verb is presented as ...
7. The present subjunctive forms are confined mainly to ...
8. The Conditional Mood, like Subjunctive II ...
9. Actions in the principal and subordinate clauses have different time-reference ...
- 10.... is not openly stated in a clause, but is suggested by an adverbial part of the sentence or context.

Activity 5. State whether the following statements are true or false. Correct the false ones.

1. Mood is a grammatical category which doesn't indicate the attitude of the speaker towards the action expressed by the verb from the point of view of its reality.
2. One of the peculiarities of English Mood lies in sophisticated correlation between morphological and syntactic features of verb forms.
3. In Modern English we distinguish three moods: the indicative mood, the imperative mood, the subjunctive mood.
4. The subjunctive mood shows that the action or state expressed by the verb is presented as a fact.
5. The imperative mood is used to express an emotional attitude of the speaker to real facts.
6. The present subjunctive coincides with the plain verb stem (be, go, see) for all persons in both the singular and the plural.

7. The non-factual past perfect and past perfect continuous forms denote hypothetical actions in the past.

8. There are six types of the conditional sentences.

9. Implied condition is not openly stated in a clause, but is suggested by an adverbial part of the sentence or context: adverbial modifier of condition (but for, except for) + should / would + infinitive.

10. The reason for the diversion of views is that there is no direct correspondence between the meaning and form: the same meaning can be expressed by different forms.

Activity 6. Choose the correct variant:

1. One of the peculiarities ... lies in sophisticated correlation between formal and semantic features of verb forms.

English grammar;

English mood;

Category of case.

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

case;

mood;

aspect.

3. In Modern English we distinguish ... moods.

a) 3;

b) 7;

c) 4.

4. ... is also used to express a real condition, i.e. a condition the realization of which is considered possible.

a) The imperative mood;

b) The indicative mood;

c) The Subjunctive mood.

5. Imperative mood has no ... , and, which is the main thing, it is limited in its use to

one type of sentence only – imperative sentences.

- a) tense, person and voice;
- b) person, number, tense, or aspect distinctions;
- c) person and number.

6. In imperative mood a command addressed to the third person singular and plural is usually expressed with the help of the verb ...

- a) to do;
- b) to be;
- c) to let.

7. In Modern English the Subjunctive mood has ... and ... forms.

- a) active, passive;
- b) non-finite, finite;
- c) synthetic, analytical.

8. The past subjunctive is even more restricted in its usage; it exists in Modern English only in:

- a) the form were, which is used for all persons both in the singular and plural;
- b) factual forms: factual past indefinite and past continuous, factual past perfect and past perfect continuous
- c) both variants are right.

9. The action expressed in the principle clause depends on the ... condition.

- a) real;
- b) unreal;
- c) split.

10. The reasons for the diversion of views are the following:

- a) one form can express different meanings;
- b) the scholars don't know all aspects of mood;
- c) very often it is difficult to distinguish between mood auxiliaries and gerung.

Activity 7. Self-assessment. Match the beginning of each sentence in the left-hand column with the endings in the right-hand column. Combine the sentences so that they make sense.

1) The Mood category in English is ...	a) that the action or state expressed by the verb is presented as a non-fact, as something imaginary or desired.
2) The present subjunctive coincides...	b) represents an action as contradicting reality.
3) Implied condition is not openly stated in a clause, ...	c) and has been treated in so many different ways, that it seems hardly possible to arrive at any more or less convincing and universally acceptable conclusion concerning it.
4) In Modern English the Imperative Mood has only one form ...	d) that the action or state expressed by the verb is presented as a fact.
5) The Conditional Mood, like Subjunctive II, ...	e) complicated and controversial, which results in many interpretations.
6) The present subjunctive forms are confined mainly to formal style and formulaic expressions ...	f) and, which is the main thing, it is limited in its use to one type of sentence only – imperative sentences.
7) The Subjunctive mood shows ...	g) prayers, wishes, which should be memorized as wholes.
8) The category of mood in the present English verb has given rise to so many discussions ...	h) but is suggested by an adverbial part of the sentence or context: adverbial modifier of condition (but for, except for) + should / would + infinitive.
9) The Imperative Mood has no person, number, tense, or aspect distinctions ...	i) which coincides with the infinitive without the particle ‘to’.
10) The Indicative mood shows ...	j) with the plain verb stem (be, go, see) for all persons in both the singular and the plural.

Activity 7. Assessment. Find other information about one of the moods in Modern English and describe its peculiarities.

Unit X. The category of aspect: continuous forms

Synopsis:

The lesson gives an overview of aspect as a grammatical category of continuity in the English language. The key points highlighted during the lesson are the defining 'aspect' as a logical or grammatical category; classification of aspect as a logical and as a grammatical category; the pragmatic meaning of the continuous form interpreted as duration or limited duration by Jespersen, simultaneity by Vorontsova, continuity within certain time limits by Ilyish, development by Blokh. Students will know what criteria can aspect be classified by; the paradigmatic meaning of the continuous form according to Jespersen; the paradigmatic meaning of the continuous form according to Vorontsova; the paradigmatic meaning of the continuous form according to Ilyish; the problem of penetrating the category of aspect into other verbal categories.

Lesson aim and learning outcomes

The aim of the lesson is to give full information about aspect as a logical and a grammatical category in English. We must consider the category of aspect penetrates other verbal categories. The categories of tense and aspect are blended, they are inseparable and should be treated jointly. In such way we will be able to much adequately classify aspect and continue research for development of scientific idea in grammar. Learning outcomes: to comprehend theoretical and practical knowledge about the problem of penetrating the category of aspect into other verbal categories; to be able to apply in-depth cognitive and practical skills to analyze the main criteria of classification; to be able to solve practical problems in the field of paradigmatic meaning of the continuous form, for the purpose of grammatical description and analysis.

Key Reading

1. Demidov D. V. Theoretical English Grammar: the manual for part-time students of higher educational institutions / Denys Valeriyovych Demidov; The State institution

—Luhansk Taras Shevchenko National University. – Luhansk: Luhansk Taras Shevchenko National University, 2014. – 121 p

2. Kharytonov I. K. Theoretical grammar of the modern English language. Vinnytsia, Nova knyha, 2008 – 352 p.

3. Alexeyeva I. Theoretical English Grammar. Vinnytsia, Nova knyha, 2007 – 328 p.

References Used in the Teaching Materials

1. https://www.academia.edu/4137014/THE_CATEGORY_OF_ASPECT_IN_ENGLISH_THE_PROGRESSIVE

2. <https://helpiks.org/2-38587.html>

3. https://www.researchgate.net/publication/290672811_Progressive_and_Continuous_Aspect

4. <http://www.grammaticalfeatures.net/features/aspect.html>

5. https://www.researchgate.net/publication/364630850_Continuous_Forms_of_the_English_Verb_Origin_Stages_of_Development

Content of the lesson

Activity 1. Spark.

A. Follow the link: <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=ixMkyRi9hUU> and watch the video about the Continuous aspect.

B. Reflect on the question:

How many aspects are distinguished in English?

What does the Continuous aspect focus on?

Input

Activity 2. Follow the

link: https://www.researchgate.net/publication/290672811_Progressive_and_Continuous_Aspect and read the article. Make sure to pay attention to the following points while reading:

1. What is aspect?

2. How the continuous and perfect forms are treated by some scholars?
3. How many aspects do the scholars distinguish and who treats aspect as a logical category?
4. What is the the ingressive aspect?
5. What is the durative aspect?
6. What does the terminative aspect represent?
7. What does the effective aspect denote?
8. What aspect denotes repeated actions?
9. How many aspects do those who recognize aspect as a grammatical category distinguish? Name them.
10. What is the paradigmatic meaning of the continuous form according to Jespersen?
11. What is the paradigmatic meaning of the continuous form according to Vorontsova?
12. What is the paradigmatic meaning of the continuous form according to Ilyish?
13. What is the paradigmatic meaning of the continuous form according to Blokh?
14. Who states that tense and aspect are two distinct categories, tense showing the time of an action and aspect showing the development of an action?
15. On what opposition is the aspectual category of development according to M.Y. Blokh based?
16. Does semantic content of continuous forms come to be rather complex or simple?
17. Who uses the continuous forms more frequently?
18. Is there a psychological explanation of the growing usage of continuous forms?
19. In creation of what effect do continuous forms participate?

THE CATEGORY OF ASPECT: CONTINUOUS FORMS

Under aspect scholars understand a mode (a phase) of an action, that is, continuity, progressiveness, completion, resultativity, instantaneousness, etc.).

The following problems are open to discussion here:

1. Some scholars don't recognize the existence of this category in English. They hold that aspectual relations of completeness/incompleteness, continuity, resultativity are expressed contextually by lexico-grammatical means. The continuous and perfect forms are treated as tenses.

2. Those who recognize it find it either a logical or a grammatical category.

3. Scholars who treat aspect as a logical category distinguish 5 aspects. The ingressive aspect denotes the initial phase of an action (*He went running. He started reading.*). The durative aspect denotes a progressive action (*He is eating*). The terminative aspect represents an action as a finished whole (*It hit the target*). The effective aspect denotes the final point of an action (*He has done it. He came running*). The iterative aspect denotes repeated actions (*He often gets sick. He would come here every day last month*).

Those who recognize aspect as a grammatical category distinguish either 3 aspects {the imperfect aspect (*He was doing it*); the perfect aspect (*He has done it*); the indefinite aspect (*He did it*)} or 2 aspects (the common and the continuous).

4. Debated is the paradigmatic meaning of the continuous form. It is interpreted as duration or limited duration (Jespersen), simultaneity (Vorontsova), continuity within certain time limits (Ilyish), development (Blok).

5. The category of aspect penetrates other verbal categories. The categories of tense and aspect are blended, they are inseparable and should be treated jointly. This view was advanced by professors Vorontsova and Ivanova. According to professors Barkhudarov, Smirnitsky, Ilyish tense and aspect are two distinct categories, tense showing the time of an action and aspect showing the development of an action.

Professors Smirnitsky, Barkhudarov, Ilyish, Khlebnikova find aspect to be a grammatical category based on the binary privative opposition of two forms *read: am reading, reads: is reading, has read: has been reading, etc.*, which represent the

common aspect and the continuous aspect. M.Y. Blokh distinguished the aspectual category of development which is based on the opposition of the continuous and the noncontinuous forms. The distinction between the continuous and the noncontinuous forms can be neutralized (*You are always complaining = you always complain*). So, semantically, continuous forms are redundant. But stylistically, they are of extreme importance, as they actively participate in the creation of sentential and textual emotiveness, expressiveness, intensiveness and evaluation (positive and negative).

The semantic content of continuous forms comes to be rather complex. We can distinguish in it the paradigmatic invariant seme of continuity and the syntagmatic semes of permanence, timelessness, futurity, emotiveness, intensiveness, expressiveness, evaluation.

There are some factors in modern English which occasion the frequent usage of continuous forms. Important are artistic considerations, as continuous forms are more emphatic than noncontinuous forms. There is psychological explanation of the growing usage of continuous forms. The British are becoming more impulsive, forgetting about their traditional reticence (suffice it to remember about the aggressiveness of British football fans). Continuous forms are more frequent in the speech of females. As a result of semantic disagreement between the non-dynamic meaning of the verb and the dynamic meaning of a continuous form a grammatical metaphor is being born which makes discourse more dynamic, emotive, evaluatory (*I'm not listening, I'm not seeing, I'm not feeling. I'm falling in love with you again*). In artistic texts authors most often impart dynamism to normally undynamic verbs (*Now he was remembering everything. Is she stillliking England? Loving it*). Continuous forms participate in the creation of an ironic effect, which is based upon contrasts and contradictions (*You are being very charitable today*). A person, normally, cannot be charitable for a very limited period of time.

Activity 3. Complete the following sentences:

1. Some scholars don't recognize the existence of this category in English. They hold that...

2. The continuous and perfect forms are treated ...
3. Debated is the paradigmatic meaning of the continuous form. It is interpreted as...
4. The categories of tense and aspect are blended, they are inseparable and should be treated jointly. This view was advanced by...
5. Professors Smirnitsky, Barkhudarov, Ilyish, Khlebnikova find aspect to be a grammatical category based on the binary privative opposition of two forms *read: am reading, reads: is reading, has read: has been reading, etc.*, which represent...
6. The distinction between the continuous and the noncontinuous forms...
7. So, semantically, continuous forms are redundant. But, stylistically ...
8. There are some factors in modern English which occasion...
9. As a result of semantic disagreement between the non-dynamic meaning of the verb and the dynamic meaning of a continuous form a grammatical metaphor is...
10. A person, normally, cannot be ...

Activity 4. Choose the correct variant:

1. Under aspect scholars understand a
 - a) mode
 - b) mood
 - c) duration
2. Those who recognize the existence of the category of aspect find it either ...
 - a) some unnecessary for studying
 - b) logical or a grammatical category
 - c) no correct variant
3. Scholars who treat aspect as a logical category distinguish ...
 - a) 3 aspects
 - b) 6 aspects
 - c) 5 aspects

4. The durative aspect denotes ...
 - a) the final point of an action
 - b) the initial phase of an action
 - c) a progressive action
5. The categories of tense and aspect are ...
 - a) separated
 - b) blended
 - c) similar
6. Professors Smirnitsky, Barkhudarov, Ilyish, Khlebnikova find aspect to be ...
 - a) grammatical category
 - b) linguistic matter
 - c) very important for English learners
7. Semantically, continuous forms are ...
 - a) rare
 - b) opposite
 - c) redundant
8. The semantic content of continuous forms comes to be rather ...
 - a) simple
 - b) understandable for every student
 - c) complex
9. The semantic content of continuous forms comes to be rather complex. We can distinguish in it the paradigmatic invariant seme of continuity and the syntagmatic semes ...
 - a) of permanence, timelessness, futurity, emotiveness, intensiveness, expressiveness, evaluation
 - b) of permanence, timelessness, futurity
 - c) of permanence, timelessness, expressiveness, evaluation
10. Continuous forms participate in the creation of an ironic effect, which is based upon ...
 - a) it's similarity

- b) contrasts and contradictions
- c) the blending

Activity 5. Self-assessment. Match the beginning of the statement in the left-hand column with the end of statement in the right-hand column.

1. Some scholars don't recognize the existence of this category in English. They hold that aspectual	they are inseparable and should be treated jointly.
2. Those who recognize aspect as a grammatical category distinguish either 3 aspects:	relations of completeness/incompleteness, continuity, resultativity are expressed contextually by lexicogrammatical means.
3. The categories of tense and aspect are blended,	can be neutralized (<i>You <u>are</u> always <u>complaining</u> = you always <u>complain</u></i>).
4. Professors Smirnitsky, Barkhudarov, Ilyish, Khlebnikova find aspect to be a grammatical category based on the binary	the growing usage of continuous forms.
5. The distinction between the continuous and the noncontinuous forms	the imperfect aspect; the perfect aspect; the indefinite aspect or 2 aspects (the common and the continuous).
6. Semantically, continuous forms are redundant. But, stylistically, they are of extreme importance, as they actively participate in the creation of	privative opposition of two forms <i>read: am reading, reads: is reading, has read: has been reading, etc.</i> , which represent the common aspect and the continuous aspect

7. There is psychological explanation of	continuous form a grammatical metaphor is being born which makes discourse more dynamic, emotive, evaluatory.
8. As a result of semantic disagreement between the non-dynamic meaning of the verb and the dynamic meaning of a	sentential and textual emotiveness, expressiveness, intensiveness and evaluation (positive and negative).

Activity 6. State whether the following statements are true or false. Correct the false ones.

1. Some scholars don't recognize the existence of this category in English.
2. Debated is the paradigmatic meaning of the continuous form. It is interpreted as duration or limited duration (Jespersen), simultaneity (Blokh), continuity within certain time limits (Ilyish), development (Vorontsova).
3. The categories of tense and aspect are complicated, they are inseparable and should be treated separately.
4. Professors Smirnitsky, Barkhudarov, Ilyish, Khlebnikova find aspect to be a grammatical category based on the binary privative opposition of two forms which represent the common aspect and the continuous aspect.
5. The distinction between the continuous and the noncontinuous forms can be obvious.
6. The content of continuous forms comes to be rather complex.
7. There are some factors in modern English which occasion the frequent usage of continuous forms. Important are stylistic considerations, as continuous forms are more emphatic than noncontinuous forms.
8. There is no psychological explanation of the growing usage of continuous forms.
9. Continuous forms are more frequent in the speech of females.
10. Continuous forms participate in the creation of an ironic effect, which is based upon contrasts and contradictions.

Activity 7. Assessment. Find other information about one of the aspects in English and describe its peculiarities.

Unit XI. Controversial aspects of the English verb

Synopsis:

The lesson gives an overview of controversial aspects of English verb. The key points highlighted during the lesson are the defining the basic problems with the interpretation of verbal forms; the extinction of the most inflectional verbal forms; the appearance of new analytical forms, reduction of and confusion in verbal paradigms in the history of English. Students will know what categories of the verb are there in English and what are the most controversial; the fusion of temporal and aspectual semantics and the blend in their formal expression; the temporal interpretation of the grammatical meaning of the continuous treated as a tense form developed by H. Sweet, O. Jespersen; the category of aspect as a system of two sub-categories according to professor Blokh's approach; the paradigmatic meaning of the continuous form according to Ilyish; oppositional presentation as functional explanation for various cases of contextual use of tense and aspect forms in terms of oppositional reduction.

Lesson aim and learning outcomes

The aim of the lesson is to give full information about the most controversial aspects of the English verb such as tense and aspect. We must consider the basic problems with the interpretation of verbal forms are caused by typological restructuring of the English language, which has led to the extinction of most inflectional verbal forms, the appearance of new analytical forms, reduction of and confusion in verbal paradigms in the history of English. The most controversial are the categories of tense and aspect. The major problem is the fusion of temporal and aspectual semantics and the blend in their formal expression; that is why in practical grammar they are traditionally treated not as separate verbal forms but as specific tense-aspect forms. In such way we will be able to much adequately classify tense and aspect and continue research for development of scientific idea in grammar. Learning outcomes: to comprehend theoretical and practical knowledge about the

problem of the categories of tense and aspect; to be able to apply in-depth cognitive and practical skills to analyze functional explanation for various cases of contextual use of tense and aspect forms in terms of oppositional reduction; to be able to solve practical problems in the field of paradigmatic meaning of the continuous form, for the purpose of grammatical description and analysis.

Key Reading

1. Demidov D. V. Theoretical English Grammar: the manual for part-time students of higher educational institutions / Denys Valeriyovych Demidov; The State institution —Luhansk Taras Shevchenko National University. – Luhansk: Luhansk Taras Shevchenko National University, 2014. – 121 p
2. Kharytonov I. K. Theoretical grammar of the modern English language. Vinnytsia, Nova knyha, 2008 – 352 p.
3. Alexeyeva I. Theoretical English Grammar. Vinnytsia, Nova knyha, 2007 – 328 p.

References Used in the Teaching Materials

1. https://www.academia.edu/4137014/THE_CATEGORY_OF_ASPECT_IN_ENGLISH_THE_PROGRESSIVE
2. <https://lingvist.com/blog/understand-verb-moods-aspects-and-tenses/>
3. <https://www.brighthubeducation.com/english-homework-help/39260-the-english-verb-system-for-esl-students/>
4. <https://thewordcounter.com/what-is-verb-aspect/>
5. https://www.researchgate.net/publication/364630850_Continuous_Forms_of_the_English_Verb_Origin_Stages_of_Development

Content of the lesson

Activity 1. Spark.

- A. Follow the link: <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=QTRoVAFWhfc> and watch the video about Grammatical categories.
- B. Reflect on the question:

What is grammatical category?

What are the major grammatical categories?

Input

Activity 2. Follow the link:

[https://www.academia.edu/12530042/Meaning_and_the_English_Verb_by_Geoffrey](https://www.academia.edu/12530042/Meaning_and_the_English_Verb_by_Geoffrey_Leech)
Leech **and read the article.** Make sure to pay attention to the following points

while reading:

1. What categories of the verb are there in the English language?
2. What categories are the most controversial?
3. What is the major problem?
4. What problem is connected with the category of tense?
5. Why has the category of aspect always been a highly controversial area of English linguistics?
6. What interpretation was developed by H. Sweet, O. Jespersen?
7. How did I. P. Ivanova treat the continuous tense?
8. Whose point of view is supported by the majority of linguists today?
9. What interpretation is developed by H. Sweet, G. Curme?
10. Who states that the status of the perfect-continuous form in connection with the logical controversy already mentioned?
11. In what way can this contradiction be solved according to professor Blokh's approach?
12. What is the category of retrospective coordination?
13. What is the category of development?
14. What helps provide oppositional presentation?
15. What do the cases of the tense category reduction include?

CONTROVERSIAL ASPECTS OF THE ENGLISH VERB

(Continuous forms)

The verb in English distinguishes the following categories: the category of person and number, tense, aspect, voice and mood. The basic problems with the interpretation of verbal forms are caused by typological restructuring of the English language, which has led to the extinction of most inflectional verbal forms, the appearance of new analytical forms, reduction of and confusion in verbal paradigms in the history of English.

The most controversial are the categories of tense and aspect. The major problem is the fusion of temporal and aspectual semantics and the blend in their formal expression; that is why in practical grammar they are traditionally treated not as separate verbal forms but as specific *tense-aspect forms*, Cf.: the present continuous - *I am working*; the past perfect continuous - *I had been working*; the future indefinite - *I will work*, Etc.

In theoretical grammar the two categories are treated separately, but still, there is a lot of dispute among linguists. As for the category of tense, the problem is that there are not just three tense forms of the verb like in Russian - the past, the present and the future, but four forms - the past, the present, the future and the future-in-the-past (*ate - eat - will eat - would eat*). The future-in-the-past is particularly controversial from the point of view of its theoretical interpretation, because, logically speaking, one and the same category can not be expressed twice in one and the same grammatical form; the members of one paradigm should be mutually exclusive. Some linguists, O. Jespersen and L. S. Barkhudarov among them, go as far as to state the there is no future tense in English at all. They claim that the verbs *shall / will* and *should / would* are not auxiliary verbs, but modal verbs denoting intention, command, request, promise, etc. in a weakened form, e.g.: *I'll go there by train* means *I intend (want, plan) to go there by train*.

As for the aspect, the analysis of this category has always been a highly controversial area of English linguistics: the four aspective forms of the verb - the indefinite, the continuous, the perfect, and the perfect continuous - have been treated

by different scholars as tense forms, as aspect forms, as forms of mixed tense-aspect status, and as neither tense nor aspect forms, but as forms of a separate grammatical category.

The grammatical meaning of the continuous was originally treated as a tense form, denoting a process going on simultaneously with another process; this temporal interpretation was developed by H. Sweet, O. Jespersen and others. I. P. Ivanova treated the continuous as rendering a blend of temporal and aspective semantics, denoting an action in progress, simultaneous with another action or time point. The majority of linguists today support the point of view developed by A. I. Smirnitsky, B. A. Ilyish, L. S. Barkhudarov, and others, that the meaning of the continuous is purely aspective, denoting "*action in progress*", or "*developing action*". The fact is, simultaneity is rendered by either the syntactic construction or the broader semantic context, since it is quite natural for the developing action to be connected with a certain time point. Actually, simultaneous actions can be shown with or without the help of the continuous verbal forms, cf.: *While I worked, they were speaking with each other.* - *While I worked, they spoke with each other.*

The traditional treatment of the perfect was also primarily as the tense form denoting the priority of one action in relation to another; the so-called "perfect tense" interpretation was developed by H. Sweet, G. Curme, and others. M. Deutchbein, G. N. Vorontsova and other linguists consider the perfect to be a purely aspective form, laying the main emphasis on the fact that the perfect forms denote some result, some transmission of the pre-event to the post-event. I. P. Ivanova treats the perfect, as well as the continuous, as the verbal form expressing temporal and aspective functions in a blend. A. I. Smirnitsky was the first to put forward the idea that the perfect forms its own category, which is neither a tense category, nor an aspect category; he suggested the name "*the category of time correlation*". One of Smirnitsky's arguments was the status of the perfect-continuous form in connection with the logical controversy already mentioned: one and the same category can not be expressed twice in one grammatical form.

According to professor Blokh's approach, this contradiction can be solved in exactly the same way that was employed with the tense category: the category of aspect, just like the category of tense, is not a unique grammatical category in English, but a *system of two sub-categories*. The first sub-category is realized through the paradigmatic opposition of *the continuous (progressive) forms* and *the non-continuous (indefinite, simple) forms* of the verb; this category can be called *the category of development*. The second aspective sub-category is formed by the opposition of *the perfect* and *the non-perfect forms* of the verb; this category can be called "*the category of retrospective coordination*". This sub-category is semantically intermediate between aspective and temporal, because the perfect combines the meanings of *priority* (Relative time) and *coordination, transmission, or result* (Aspective meaning).

Oppositional presentation helps provide functional explanation for various cases of contextual use of tense and aspect forms in terms of oppositional reduction - either neutralization of the opposition or transposition.

The cases of the tense category reduction include the cases of the present tense form of the verb used to describe past events in order to create a vivid picture of the past, e.g. *:I stopped to greet him and what do you think he does? He pretends he does not know me!* This type of transposition is known as "*historic present*" (Or, "*preterite present*"). The transposition of the past tense forms into the context of the present is used to express various degrees of politeness, e.g.: *Could you help me, please?* These cases are known as "*preterite of modesty*", or "*attitudinal past*". Oppositional treatment can explain other cases of contextual use of tense and aspect verbal forms too.

Activity 3. Complete the following sentences:

1. The verb in English distinguishes the following categories...
2. The basic problems with the interpretation of verbal forms are caused by ...
3. The most controversial are the categories of...
4. The major problem is the fusion of temporal...

5. In theoretical grammar the two categories are treated separately, but still...
6. As for the category of tense, the problem is that there are not just three tense forms of the verb like in Russian...
7. The future-in-the-past is particularly controversial from the point of view of...
8. Some linguists, O. Jespersen and L. S. Barkhudarov among them, go as far as to state...
9. As for the aspect, the analysis of this category has always been...
10. The grammatical meaning of the continuous was originally treated as a tense form, denoting...
11. I. P. Ivanova treated the continuous as rendering a blend of temporal...
12. The majority of linguists today support the point of view developed by A. I. Smirnitsky, B. A. Ilyish, L. S. Barkhudarov, and others, that the...
13. Actually, simultaneous actions can be shown with or without the help of...
14. The traditional treatment of the perfect was also primarily as the tense form denoting...
15. I. P. Ivanova treats the perfect, as well as the continuous, as the...
16. One of Smirnitsky's arguments was the status of the perfect-continuous form in connection...
17. According to professor Blokh's approach, this contradiction can be solved in exactly the same way that...
18. Oppositional presentation helps provide functional explanation for...
19. The cases of the tense category reduction include...
20. Oppositional treatment can explain...

Activity 4. Match the beginning of the statement in the left-hand column with the end of statement in the right-hand column.

1. The basic problems with the interpretation of verbal forms are caused by typological restructuring of	tense, the problem is that there are not just three tense forms of the verb like in Russian.
--	--

the English language,	
2. The major problem is the fusion of temporal and aspectual semantics and the blend in their formal expression; that is why in practical grammar they are	a highly controversial area of English linguistics.
3. In theoretical grammar the two categories are treated separately, but still, there is a lot of dispute among linguists. As for the category of	traditionally treated not as separate verbal forms but as specific <i>tense-aspect forms</i> , Cf.: the present continuous - <i>I am working</i> ; the past perfect continuous - <i>I had been working</i> ; the future indefinite - <i>I will work</i> , etc.
4. As for the aspect, the analysis of this category has always been	in terms of oppositional reduction - either neutralization of the opposition or transposition.
5. The grammatical meaning of the continuous was originally treated as a tense form, denoting	which has led to the extinction of most inflectional verbal forms, the appearance of new analytical forms, reduction of and confusion in verbal paradigms in the history of English.
6. I. P. Ivanova treated the continuous as rendering a blend of temporal and aspective	with the logical controversy already mentioned: one and the same category can not be expressed twice in one grammatical form.
7. One of Smirnitsky's arguments was the status of the perfect-continuous form in connection	semantics, denoting an action in progress, simultaneous with another action or time point.

8. Oppositional presentation helps provide functional explanation for various cases of contextual use of tense and aspect forms	a process going on simultaneously with another process; this temporal interpretation was developed by H. Sweet, O. Jespersen and others.

Activity 5. State whether the following statements are true or false. Correct the false ones.

1. The verb in English distinguishes the following categories: the category of person and number, aspect, voice and mood.
2. The most controversial are the categories of mood and voice.
3. As for the category of tense, the problem is that there are not just three tense forms of the verb like in Russian - the past, the present and the future, but four forms - the past, the present, the future and the future- in-the-past (*ate - eat - will eat - would eat*).
4. . Some linguists, B.Kharkovsky and L. S. Petrov among them, go as far as to state the there is no future tense in English at all.
5. The minority of linguists today support the point of view developed by A. I. Smirnitsky, B. A. Ilyish, L. S. Barkhudarov, and others, that the meaning of the continuous is purely aspective, denoting "*action in progress* ", or "*developing action*".
6. According to professor Blokh's approach, this contradiction can be solved in exactly the same way that was employed with the tense category: the category of aspect, just like the category of tense, is not a unique grammatical category in English, but *a system of two sub-categories*.
7. One of Smirnitsky's arguments was the status of the perfect-continuous form in connection with the logical controversy already mentioned: one and the same category can not be expressed twice in one grammatical form.

8. Oppositional presentation helps provide functional explanation for various cases of contextual use of tense and aspect forms in terms of oppositional reduction.
9. The cases of the voice category reduction include the cases of the present tense form of the verb used to describe past events in order to create a vivid picture of the past.
10. The transposition of the future tense forms into the context of the present is used to express various degrees of politeness.

Activity 6. Self-assessment. Create a table with the names of mentioned in both articles professors and their interpretations of the continuous forms.

Activity 7. Assessment. Write down your own opinion about the continuous forms: which interpretation is right (and why).

Unit XII. The polysemy of the perfect

Synopsis:

The lesson gives an overview of the polysemy of the perfect discussed in the linguistic literature. The key points highlighted during the lesson are semantic and structural distinction of existential meanings of the perfect in English; the differentiation between perspective time and speech time. Students will know that the usage of the perfect can't be reduced to a unitary meaning, such as "current relevance". The key to understanding the polysemy of the perfect lies in accepting the fact that the types of the perfect differ in how they relate the event structure to the temporal structure.

Lesson aim and learning outcomes

The aim of the lesson is to give full information about the polysemy of the perfect in the English language. Learning outcomes: to comprehend theoretical and practical knowledge about the problem of the perfect in the English language; to be able to apply in-depth cognitive and practical skills to analyze the types of perfect according to the temporal parameters; to be able to solve practical problems in the field of differentiation the types of perfect, for the purpose of grammatical description.

Key Reading

1. Demidov D. V. Theoretical English Grammar: the manual for part-time students of higher educational institutions / Denys Valeriyovych Demidov; The State institution —Luhansk TarasShevchenkoNationalUniversity. — Luhansk: LuhanskTarasShevchenkoNationalUniversity, 2014. – 121 p
2. Kharytonov I. K. Theoretical grammar of the modern English language. Vinnytsia, Nova knyha, 2008 – 352 p.
3. Alexeyeva I. Theoretical English Grammar. Vinnytsia, Nova knyha, 2007 – 328 p.

References Used in the Teaching Materials

1. <https://web.stanford.edu/~kiparsky/Papers/semanticsfest.pdf>
2. <https://www.thoughtco.com/polysemy-words-and-meanings-1691642>
3. https://www.academia.edu/en/5045648/Polysemy_of_the_Perfect_the_case_of_Swedish_term_paper_do_not_cite_
4. https://www.researchgate.net/publication/272740167_Polysemy_Current_perspectives_and_approaches

Content of the lesson

Activity 1. Spark.

A. Follow the link:

<https://www.bing.com/videos/search?q=polysemy+in+english+video&view=detail&mid=4CDBB61A0ECA6D63B2794CDBB61A0ECA6D63B279&FORM=VIRE>

and watch the video about polysemy.

B. Reflect on the question:

What is polysemy in English?

Input

Activity 2. Follow the link:

<https://web.stanford.edu/~kiparsky/Papers/semanticsfest.pdf>

Read the article. Make sure to pay attention to the following points while reading:

1. How many readings of perfect exist are illustrated by Paul Kiparsky?
2. According to the article in what language can predicate be used to denote result state?
3. What fact gives us evidence that perfect is truly polysemous?
4. What are the main goals of the article?
5. According to the article what do the letters E, R and P mean?
6. What is the difference between perspective time and speech time (P and S)?
7. What does this distinction make it possible to deal with flashbacks?
8. According to the article what is the existential reading?
9. What are the atelic and telic verbs?

10. According to the article what is the universal reading?
11. What does the universal reading require?
12. According to the article what is the resultative reading?
13. According to the article what is the recent past (or "hot news") reading?
14. What is the present state reading? Does it have temporal parameters?
15. In what ancient language was the present reading illustrated?

Event Structure and the Perfect

Paul Kiparsky

THE POLYSEMY OF THE PERFECT

The English perfect has as many as five readings, illustrated by the most salient interpretations of the sentences in [1a-e].

- [1] a. **Existential:** Fred has visited Paris several times.
 b. **Universal:** I have known him since 1960.
 c. **Resultative:** The police have probably caught the suspect by now.
 d. **Recent Past:** Archduke Ferdinand has been assassinated in Sarajevo. ["hot news" June 28, 1914]
 e. **Stative Present:** I've got (=I have) something to tell you.

In English, [1e] occurs only in *have got*, but it is included here because of its importance in other languages. In Vedic Sanskrit and ancient Greek, for example, the perfect of many achievement predicates can be used to denote the result state. A good semantics of the perfect should therefore have something to say about it.

Opinions differ on whether the readings in [1] are semantically distinct or are pragmatic interpretations of a basic perfect meaning. The popular Reichenbachian theory of tense and aspect (Reichenbach 1947; important later studies include Comrie 1976, 1985, Dowty 1982, Partee 1984, Binnick 1991, Hornstein 1990, Kamp & Reyle 1993, Klein 1994) seems to force the latter view, for it provides an undifferentiated category of "perfect" whose meaning is that event time (E) precedes reference time (R). Notable attempts to reconcile this basic meaning of the perfect with the varied

usage seen in [1] through appeals to pragmatics include McCoard 1978, Matthews 1989, Declerck 1991, and Klein 1992, 1998. (1)

In two influential articles, McCawley (1971, 1981) argued on the contrary that there are several *semantically* distinct kinds of perfect and developed a generative semantics-style structural analysis of them. From a different perspective, true polysemy for the perfect has been claimed in two studies that I will be drawing on heavily here: Mittwoch 1988, in a model theoretic semantic analysis, and Michaelis 1994, who treats the resultative reading as a conventionalized construction, or “formal idiom”, whose properties cannot be derived from the semantics of the perfect. Of course, this does not mean that *all* of the perfect's readings must be irreducibly distinct, and these authors do not claim that they are.

Telling cross-linguistic evidence for the view that the perfect is truly polysemous is the fact that languages can distinguish morphologically among of the readings in [1], grouping them in different ways into tense/aspect inflections. For example, in Vedic Sanskrit the resultative and recent past readings are marked by the Aorist, and the universal, existential, and stative present readings are marked by the Perfect (Kiparsky 1998). Several languages have a special existential perfect form, e.g. the Hungarian “indefinite tense” (Pinon 1996) and the *gid* or *ǧid* form of Najdi Arabic (Ingham 1994:104).

The first goal of this paper is to establish that the resultative and existential/universal meanings of the perfect are semantically and structurally distinct in English. I will present three arguments, based on sequence of tense, on the present perfect with time adverbials, and on the perfect in Wh-questions.

My second goal is to reconcile this polysemy of the perfect with the unified category of perfect posited in Reichenbachian theory, so as to remove the principal empirical objection to what is otherwise a very attractive approach to tense. Rejecting the pragmatic approach in favor of a semantic one, I propose to unify the perfect's distinct meanings by enriching the tense semantics to allow a verbal predicate's event structure to be mapped in different ways into the parameters that define temporal relations. The types of perfect in [1] correspond to the possible assignments of event

structure to the perfect's temporal parameters, and each type's distinctive properties can be structurally explained.

The minimal assumption about event structure that we will need is that state and activity predicates denote simple events, and that telic predicates (achievements and accomplishments) denote complex events consisting of an activity leading to a change of state (Rappaport Hovav and Levin 1998). All verbal predicates take an event argument ϵ , and the event argument of achievements and accomplishments is a complex event consisting of two simple events, an activity e and a state argument r corresponding to the result(2). The event argument of verbs is assigned to three temporal parameters E, R, P, specified by tense and aspect features. [2]

- a. E (event time, the time during which the event unfolds)
- b. R (reference time, the time to which adverbs refer)
- c. P (perspective time, the "now" of temporal deixis)

The values of E, R, P are intervals, with points as the degenerate case. Following Kamp and Reyle 1993 I distinguish perspective time P (the origin of temporal deixis) from speech time S (the moment of actual utterance), which I take to be a point. This distinction makes it possible to deal with flashbacks, historical presents, and other rhetorical complexities of tense usage (more on these in Kiparsky 1998). In the present essay I only consider the simple case where P includes S. Temporal relations are specified by precedence (A-B, read "A precedes B") and temporal inclusion ($A \subset B$, read "A is included in B"). The default temporal relations for verbs unmarked for tense and aspect are the following inclusion relations: [3]

- a. $P \subset R$
- b. $E \subset R$

This implies, among other things, that present is the unmarked tense. The function of morphologically marked tenses and aspects is to defeat these defaults. Tense defeats [3a] by specifying a precedence relation between R and P (R-P = past tense, P-R = future tense). Aspect defeats [3b] by specifying a precedence relation between E

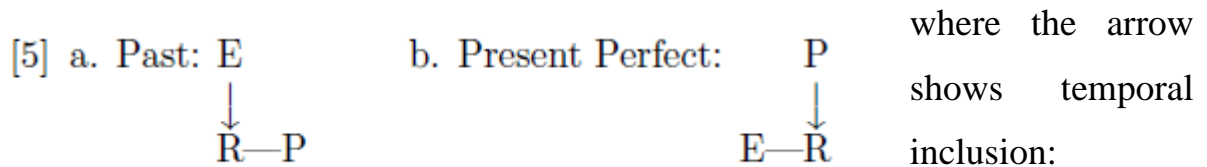
[4]

	Present	Past	Pres.Perfect	Past Perfect
Defining property		R—P	E—R	E—R—P
Default by [3]	$E \subset R, P \subset R$	$E \subset R, R—P$	E—R, $P \subset R$	E—R—P

and R (E-R = perfect, R-E = prospective). Thus, I adopt Comrie's important insight (1985, see also Hornstein 1990) that E is not linked to P (traditionally S) directly, but only via R.

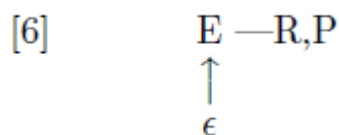
For example, the English tense/aspect categories are as follows:

For clarity I will often use the more perspicuous but space-consuming notation in [5],



The types of perfect differ in how they relate the event structure to the temporal structure E-R denoted by perfect aspect. In particular, let ϵ be the temporal trace of the event denoted by a verbal predicate, e the temporal trace of the activity leading up to the change of state, and r the temporal trace of the result state. Then the readings of the perfect can be distinguished as follows.

a. The **existential** reading, also known as the experiential reading, is obtained when the event denoted by an atelic or an iterative telic verbal predicate (a state or process) is contained in the interval E.



A sentence with an existential perfect asserts that one or more events of that type occurred during the interval E. The event does not have to extend throughout the entire interval E to the beginning of R (as in the universal reading), and the implicature is that it does not. For example, [1a] asserts that Fred has visited Paris on one or more occasions during a period E extending from some past time up to time R, and implicates that he is not currently visiting Paris.

The existential reading is associated with the presupposition that a recurrence of the event type in question is possible (McCawley 1981, Piñon 1996). In particular, the referents of the NP arguments must exist at P time, and the event must be of a repeatable type. [1a] thus implies that Fred might visit Paris again, therefore in

particular that Fred is alive, and that Paris exists. In contrast, [7a] is incongruous because Nazi Germany no longer exists, and [7b] is incongruous because one can only be born once.(3)

[7] a. #Fred has visited Nazi Germany. [Uttered in 2000.]

b. #Fred has been born in Paris.

The other readings of the perfect are not subject to this constraint:

[8] Fred has just eaten the last doughnut.

b. The **universal** reading (or continuing reading) arises when the event denoted by an atelic or an iterative telic verbal predicate is coextensive with the interval E.

[9] E — R,P
 |
 €

(I use an arrowless vertical line to mark this relationship). For a sentence with a perfect to be true in the universal reading, the state or process must last for the entire duration of the period terminating at R. For example, [1b] means that the knowing extends through the entire time from 1960 up to R, which in this case is the present.

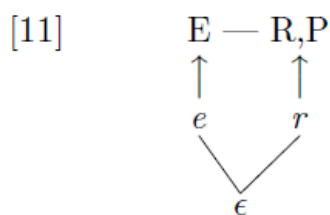
The universal reading requires an adverb specifying a duration (such as *always*, *since 1960* or *for two years*) and so it is tempting to derive it as a special case of the existential reading, resulting from cancellation, by the adverb, of the existential reading's implicature that the event does not obtain throughout E. Such a unification of the universal and existential readings would have to overcome at least three prima facie objections. First, the boundaries that define the duration are understood in an exclusive way in the existential reading but in an inclusive way in the universal reading (Mittwoch 1988).

[10] I have been in Hyderabad since 1977.

The sentence is false on the existential reading if I last was in Hyderabad in 1977 or if I have just landed on my first visit there; it is the intervening time that counts (exclusive boundaries). For the universal reading of [10] to be true I must have been there in 1977 and I must be there now (inclusive boundaries). This difference between the universal and existential readings constitutes a bar to the proposed

unification, unless of course it could be shown to be a general property of existential versus universal quantification. The second objection is that some languages disprefer the universal reading of the perfect or disallow it altogether (4). Any claim that the universal reading is derived from the existential perfect would then have to be complemented with an explanation for why the derivation fails in those languages. The third and weightiest objection is that there are, conversely, languages with a special perfect that is restricted just to the existential reading, such as Hungarian and Najdi Arabic, as mentioned above. At least those existential perfects cannot be just implicatures of the universal perfect.

c. The **resultative** reading, also called the state reading, is confined to accomplishment and achievement predicates, which are characterized by a change of state component in their lexical semantic form (Vendler 1957, Dowty 1979, Foley and van Valin 1984, Rappaport Hovav and Levin 1996). An accomplishment predicate, such as *catch* or *hide*, denotes an event ϵ consisting of an activity leading to a change of state. An achievement predicate, such as *die*, *arrive*, denotes an event consisting of a change of state. The resultative reading of the perfect arises when the change of state corresponding to an accomplishment or achievement predicate is temporally located between time E and time R in the perfect's temporal schema.



In the case of accomplishment predicates, the change of state is temporally located at the onset of R time, and hence the activity leading up to it must immediately precede R. For example, in [1c] *catch the suspect*, the activity of pursuing the suspect is located at E, i.e. it extends from some time prior to R up to R, the change of state is located between E and R, and the result state begins at that point. Because $P \subset R$, the sentence entails (or at least implicates) that the suspect is currently in custody - the so-called “current relevance” property of the resultative reading. In the case of

achievement predicates, the change of state is again temporally located at the onset of R time, with the same “current relevance” implication, but no activity is entailed to be located at E.

The resultative reading of the present perfect admits deictic adverbs that specify a point included in P ([12a]). It excludes adverbs that denote a point anterior to P ([12b]), and those that denote an interval ([12c,d]).

[12] a. The convict has escaped now (already, at this point).

[*Now* specifies a point included in P; R-reading OK.]

b. #The convict has escaped three hours ago (yesterday, last year).

[*Three hours ago* specifies a point that precedes P; no acceptable reading (5.)]

c. #The convict has escaped nowadays (currently, these days).

[*Nowadays* specifies an interval that includes P; no acceptable reading.]

d. The convict has escaped often recently (in the past, in her previous prison terms).

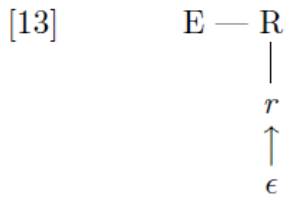
[*In the past* specifies an interval that precedes P; existential reading only.]

The reason adverbials denoting a point of time anterior to R are incompatible with the meaning of the perfect, is obviously that temporal adverbs relate to R time, and the R time of the present perfect includes P (“now”) time. It is not so obvious why adverbs denoting an interval are excluded. I suppose that temporal adverbs in the R-reading specify the edge between E and R, the point at which the change of state is located, which is incompatible with adverbials denoting an interval (6).

d. The **recent past** or “hot news” reading is illustrated by [1d], which could only have been uttered felicitously a few days after the event. That this is an independent reading is doubtful. There have been two proposals for reducing it to one of the other readings. McCoard 1978 and McCawley 1981 claim that it is a variant of the existential perfect. This is problematic because the recent past perfect is not subject to the abovementioned constraint on the existential perfect that the re-occurrence of the event type should be possible. Moreover, the existential perfects of Hungarian and Arabic have no recent past reading. The second proposal, due to Michaelis (1994:127, fn. 4), and which I will adopt, is that the recent past reading is a

special case of the resultative reading. It is plausible because the resultative reading situates an event at a time which verges on P time and locates the result state at P time. In support of this view, note that the distinction between [1c] and [1d] goes away when the adverbs are removed, which is not the case for the other examples. Resultative and recent past functions co-occur cross-linguistically, as in the Vedic Sanskrit Aorist (Kiparsky 1998). Therefore, in the rest of this paper I consider the recent past and resultative readings as special cases of a single reading, here referred to as the R-reading.

e. In the **present state** reading, the reference interval is included in the result state corresponding to the verbal predicate. The change of state is not assigned to any temporal parameter but remains implicit. It is thus not part of this reading of the perfect, though it may be pragmatically inferred. This yields a purely stative interpretation, and strictly present time reference (7).



In Vedic Sanskrit, this reading is illustrated by such perfects as *veda*, *ciketa* “knows” (from *vid*, *cit* “find out”), *jujoṣa* “enjoys”, *cakāna* “likes”, *bibhāya* “fears”, *taṣṭhau* “stands”, *śiśrāya* “rest on”, *dadhāra* “holds”, *ānaśa* “has”, *babhūva* “is”.

CONCLUSION

1. The structuralist literature, for its own theoretical reasons, also tended to claim that the uses of the perfect can be reduced to a unitary meaning, such as “current relevance” (Joos 1964).
2. Piñon 1995 argues that these are Theta-roles.
3. However, [7a] seems better than [7b] for some reason that I do not understand.
4. For example, German prefers the present in sentences like [1b], and (modern) Greek apparently requires it.

5. Such sentences can be amnestied under rather special conditions (Meyer 1992, Ch. 8, Declerck 1991:333). E.g. [12b] is OK if the adverb is read as a separate intonational phrase.
6. Non-deictic adverbs also seem to be excluded or are at least somewhat peculiar: #*The convict has escaped on July 4, 2000* is odd even if uttered on that date. This is probably not special to the perfect, but a general property of reference to any time that includes P time. E.g. *on Friday* means last Friday or next Friday, not the current day, even if it happens to be a Friday.
7. There is an analogy between the present state reading and the middle (such as *this wood cuts easily*). Just as in the present state perfect, the event component of an achievement predicate is suppressed, leaving only the result, so in the middle, the causal component of an accomplishment predicate is suppressed, leaving only the change of state. In each case, the highest predicate in the semantic decomposition is suppressed. Could this be the rationale behind the probable historical identity of the Indo-European perfect and middle?

Activity 3. Complete the following sentences:

1. _____, foreexample, the perfect of many achievement predicates can be used to denote the result state.
2. The popular _____ theory of tense and aspect seems to force the latter view, for it provides an undifferentiated category of “perfect” whose meaning is that event time precedes reference time.
3. The event argument of verbs is assigned to three _____ E, R, P, specified by tense and aspect features.
4. The distinction between _____ and _____ makes it possible to deal with flashbacks, historical presents, and other rhetorical complexities of tense usage.
5. The types of perfect differ in how they relate _____ to the temporal structure E-R denoted by perfect aspect.

6. The existential reading, also known as the experiential reading, is obtained when the event denoted by _____ or an iterative _____ verbal predicate (a state or process) is contained in the interval E.
7. A sentence with _____ perfect asserts that one or more events of that type occurred during the interval E.
8. The _____ reading requires _____ specifying a duration (such as always, since 1960 or for two years).
9. _____, also called the state reading, is confined to accomplishment and achievement predicates, which are characterized by a change of state component in their lexical semantic form.
10. _____ of the present perfect admits deictic adverbs that specify a point included in P.
11. The recent past _____ reading is illustrated by [1d], which could only have been uttered felicitously a few days after the event.
12. _____ situates an event at a time which verges on P time, and locates the result state at P time.
13. In the _____ reading, the reference interval is included in the result state corresponding to the verbal predicate.
14. The change of state is not assigned to _____, but remains implicit. It is thus not part of this reading of the perfect, though it may be pragmatically inferred.
15. _____, this reading is illustrated by such perfects as *veda*, *ciketa* “knows” (from *vid*, *cit* “find out”), *jujoṣa* “enjoys”, *cakāna* “likes”, *bibhāya* “fears”, *taṣṭhau* “stands”, *śiśrāya* “rest on”, *dadhāra* “holds”, *ānaśa* “has”, *babhūva* “is”.

Activity 4. Self-assessment. Find out the opinion of H. Reichenbach, H. Sweet, O. Jespersen and G. Vorontsova about time-correlation and various interpretations of the Perfect form in English.

Activity 5. Assessment. Prepare presentation on various interpretations of the Perfect form in English.

Unit XIII. The number of voices in Modern English. The passive in English

Synopsis:

The lesson gives an overview of voice phenomena discussed in the linguistic literature. The key points highlighted during the lesson are the differentiation between Passive and Active Voices and the usage of Passive Voice in the English language. Students will know what the Passive voice most emphatically is not, what the term and its antonym, active voice, actually mean, and provide some guidelines on when to use both. The key to understanding passive voice lies in accepting the fact that it's strictly a grammatical term which relates to how sentences are constructed. Most of the time it is used in technical, scientific, or academic writing.

Lesson aim and learning outcomes

The aim of the lesson is to give full information about number of voices in modern English. Learning outcomes: to comprehend theoretical and practical knowledge about the problem of voices in the English language; to be able to apply in-depth cognitive and practical skills to analyze the main features of voices; to be able to solve practical problems in the field of classifying voices, for the purpose of grammatical description.

Key Reading

1. Demidov D. V. Theoretical English Grammar: the manual for part-time students of higher educational institutions / Denys Valeriyovych Demidov; The State institution —Luhansk TarasShevchenkoNationalUniversity. — Luhansk: LuhanskTarasShevchenkoNationalUniversity, 2014. – 121 p
2. Kharytonov I. K. Theoretical grammar of the modern English language. Vinnytsia, Nova knyha, 2008 – 352 p.
3. Alexeyeva I. Theoretical English Grammar. Vinnytsia, Nova knyha, 2007 – 328 p.

References Used in the Teaching Materials

1. <https://www.cambridge.org/core/journals/journal-of-linguistics/article/abs/syntactic-construction-of-two-nonactive-voices-passive-and-middle1/B3A474D1455C108529654BBB0218E3>
2. <https://www.aje.com/arc/writing-with-active-or-passive-voice/>
3. https://www.google.com/search?q=VOICE+in+grammar+video&biw=1366&bih=612&sxsrf=AJOqlzVy2ogp6MUXtjRK_pUn2HzkHmR7A%3A1677756660782&ei=9IgA
4. <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=HfKArXZtbXI>
5. <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=C6pHfjH0Efg>
6. <https://www.thoughtco.com/passive-voice-in-english-grammar-1211144>
7. <https://www.onestopenglish.com/support-for-teaching-grammar/differences-in-american-and-british-english-grammar-tips-and-activities/152821.article>

Content of the lesson

Activity 1. Spark.

A. Follow the link:

<https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=HfKArXZtbXI> and watch the video about the Passive Voice.

B. Reflect on the question:

When is it necessary to use Passive Voice?

How is Passive Voice used?

What are the reasons to avoid Passive Voice?

Input

Activity 2. Follow the link:

http://www.tesol-spain.org/uploaded_files/files/Lindsay-Clandfield.pdf

<https://www.onestopenglish.com/support-for-teaching-grammar/differences-in-american-and-british-english-grammar-tips-and-activities/152821.article>

Read the articles. Make sure to pay attention to the following points while reading:

1. What is the origin of the term *voice*?

2. What does the term *voice* denote according to its origin?
3. According to the article, *what kinds* of a tripartite morphological voice contrast did in Classical Greek exist?
4. What voice alternations, which do not reduce valence, can you name?
5. What kind of the voice alternation is similar to the passive and does not modify valence?
6. What are the aspects, which differ the middle voice from the passive voice?

Kerry Maxwell, Lindsay Clandfield

THE NUMBER OF VOICES IN MODERN ENGLISH

THE PASSIVE IN ENGLISH

Introduction

Actions described by verbs in English typically involve two people or things: the person or thing that performs the action (sometimes referred to as the agent), and the person or thing that is affected or produced by the action of the verb.

In English the agent is often put at the beginning of a sentence or clause, in subject position. The person or thing affected or produced then forms the object of the verb. This is what we refer to as an active sentence, as illustrated below, where My uncle is the agent (subject) and this house is the object:

- My uncle built this house twenty years ago.

In an active sentence, the focus is on the agent, the person or thing that performs the action (my uncle), placed at the beginning of the sentence. If however we want to change the emphasis so that the sentence focuses on the person or thing affected or produced by the action, i.e: the object in the sentence above (this house), we use a passive form to bring that element of the sentence to the beginning, so that the sentence becomes:

- This house was built by my uncle twenty years ago.

In the sentence above the passive form of the verb is underlined. It consists of a form of the verb be (i.e: was, in passive structures, be is always in the same tense as the equivalent active form of the verb) with the past participle of the verb (built).

In this passive version, the focus is on this house which is now at the beginning of the sentence in subject position. The agent, the person or thing that performs the action, is now later introduced by the preposition by.

It is therefore possible to talk about the same event in two different ways, depending on whether you want to focus on the person or thing that performs the action (the agent), or the person or thing affected or produced by the action. These two ways of formulating a sentence are often referred to as the active voice and the passive voice.

Using the passive voice also allows us the possibility of not mentioning the agent at all, so that the focus is purely on the person or thing affected or produced by the action of the verb, e.g.:

- This house was built twenty years ago.

There are various reasons why we may want to do this, often because the agent is unimportant or not even known, as in e.g.:

- Juan's bike was stolen from the back garden.

Such examples are often referred to as agentless passive structures.

Agentless passives are sometimes used as a way of referring to 'people in general' as the agents, e.g.:

- The house can be visited between 9am and 5pm.

Or they are sometimes used because the agent has already been mentioned, e.g.:

- My uncle employed a team of builders, and the house was built in three months.

Passive forms of verbs with two objects

Some verbs such as give, offer, tell and show can occur with two objects, both a direct object and an indirect object, e.g.:

- The class gave Mrs Richardson a lovely bunch of flowers.

In these cases it is possible to make two passive sentences, depending on whether we want to focus on the direct object of the active sentence (a lovely bunch of flowers) or the indirect object (Mrs Richardson), e.g.:

- A lovely bunch of flowers was given to Mrs Richardson (by the class).

- Mrs Richardson was given a lovely bunch of flowers (by the class).

Note:

If as in the first example we choose to make the direct object of an active sentence the subject of a passive sentence, then we introduce the indirect object (Mrs Richardson) after the passive verb (was given) with the preposition to.

Beginning the passive sentence by focusing on the person (the indirect object of the active sentence) is perhaps the more common of the two options. However, there are certain occasions where the indirect object can be left out altogether. Compare:

- The three injections were given to the children at the same time.
- The three injections were given at the same time.

Passive forms of reporting verbs

There are two special structures for forming the passive of reporting verbs like say. If we take a sentence such as:

- They say that Ken is really good at Chinese cooking.

where they means 'people generally', then one passive version is:-

- Ken is said to be really good at Chinese cooking.

Here we form the passive of the reporting verb say which is then followed by a to-infinitive (to be...).

However we can also create an alternative passive form by using an impersonal 'it' structure, e.g.:

- It is said that Ken is really good at Chinese cooking.

In this example, the passive reporting verb occurs in the 'it' structure which is then followed by a finite clause (Ken is really good at Chinese cooking).

Other typical reporting verbs used in this way are allege, expect and believe. These structures are particularly common in the impersonal style of news reports, e.g.:

- Interest rates are expected to rise sharply next month.
- It is expected that interest rates will rise sharply next month.
- Two of the men were alleged to have taken part in the robbery.
- It was alleged that two of the men had taken part in the robbery.

Passive forms of phrasal verbs

Phrasal verbs consisting of a transitive verb (a verb which takes a direct object) and an adverb or preposition can be used in the passive. Note that the adverb or preposition always comes after the past participle, e.g.:

Water and electricity supplies were cut off.

You'll have to wait until this problem has been dealt with.

In the same way three-part phrasal verbs consisting of a transitive verb with an adverb and a preposition can be used in the passive, e.g.:

- These stupid regulations should have been done away with years ago.

Passive forms with modal verbs

The passive can be used with modal verbs like can, must, etc and expressions like have to or used to. The pattern used is:

modal verb + (be or have been) + past participle, e.g.

- Two tablets must be taken twice a day.
- The house can be visited between 9am and 5pm.
- The train might have been delayed by bad weather.
- The room used to be cleaned every day.
- The sheets had to be changed.

Verbs which are not used in the passive

Intransitive verbs (verbs which do not occur with a direct object) can never be passive. There is therefore no passive version of sentences like:

Jamie arrived early.

A dreadful thing happened yesterday.

The wall fell down.

Reflexive verbs, whose object is a reflexive pronoun referring back to the subject (the agent of the action), can never be made passive. Therefore a sentence such as:

- She blames herself for what happened.

would never be reformulated as a passive such as

- Herself was blamed (by her) for what happened.

Some important state verbs cannot be passive, e.g: be, exist, have (when it means 'own'), lack, seem. There is therefore no passive version of sentences like:

- The room seemed small.
- Tom has a new computer.

Note however that there are some verbs referring to states which can be made passive, possibly because they more straightforwardly refer to the thing or person affected (the object of an active sentence), e.g:

- A millionaire businessman owned the land.
- The land was owned by a millionaire businessman.
- A high fence surrounded the garden.
- The garden was surrounded by a high fence.

Activity 3. Overview of passive and active verb forms

	Active	Passive
Present simple	They play music	Music is played
Present continuous	They're playing music	Music is being played
Present perfect	They have played music	Music has been played
Past simple	They played music	Music was played
Past continuous	They were playing music	Music was being played
Future	They will play music	Music will be played
	They are going to play music	Music is going to be played
Future perfect	They will have played music	Music will have been played

Activity 4. Self-assessment. Choose the right answer:

- In active voice,
 - a) the subject receives the action expressed in the verb.
 - b) the subject does the action expressed in the verb.
 - c) the verb must show motion (e.g., run, walk, throw).
- In passive voice,
 - a) the subject receives the action expressed in the verb.

b) the subject does the action expressed in the verb.

c) the verb does not express any action.

3. Which sentence is in active voice?

a) We were jolted by the news.

b) The cat slept peacefully on the couch.

c) The boat was tossed about by the waves.

4. Which sentence is in passive voice?

a) Ilse was tired after her long hike.

b) Do you think it is time for the pets to be fed?

c) Eric has been offered a leading role in the play.

5. Which statement is the most correct?

a) Active voice is always better than passive.

b) Passive voice may sometimes be better than active.

c) Passive voice should be used only in legal writing.

6. Which answer is the best?

a) Active voice puts ideas into logical order.

b) Active voice gives the same ideas in fewer words than passive voice.

c) Both (a) and (b) are true.

7. Passive voice is useful ...

a) when you want your message to be direct.

b) when you want your message to be objective.

c) when you want your message to be tactful.

Activity 5. Find in text below verbs in passive voice:

When the American, Mr Otis, bought Canterville Castle, everyone told him that this was very foolish, as the place was haunted. But Mr Otis answered, "I come from a modern country, where we have everything that money can buy. And if there were such a thing as a ghost in Europe, we would have it at home in one of our museums."

A few weeks later, on a lovely July evening, Mr Otis, his wife and their children, Washington, Virginia and the twins, went down to their new home. When

they entered the avenue of Canterville Castle, the sky suddenly became dark and a spooky stillness was in the air.

MrsUmney, the housekeeper, led them into the library of the castle, where they sat down and began to look around. Suddenly, Mrs Otis saw a red stain on the floor just by the fireplace and said to MrsUmney, “I am afraid something has been spilt there.”

“Yes, madam,” said the old housekeeper in a low voice, “blood has been spilt on that spot.”

“How terrible,” said Mrs Otis; “I don't want any blood-stains in my sitting-room. It must be removed at once.”

The old woman smiled and answered, “It is the blood of Lady Eleanore de Canterville, who was murdered on that spot by her husband, Sir Simon de Canterville, in 1575. Sir Simon disappeared seven years later. His body has never been found, but his ghost still haunts the Castle. The blood-stain is a tourist attraction now and it cannot be removed.”

“That is all nonsense,” said Washington, the eldest son of the Otis family, “stain remover will clean it up in no time,” and he took a bottle of stain remover out of his pocket and cleaned the spot. But as soon as the blood-stain had disappeared, a terrible flash of lightning lit up the room and a fearful peal of thunder made the whole building shake.

Activity 6. Assessment. Find some other research article about Passive Voice.

Unit XIV. Active and Passive Voice

Synopsis:

The lesson gives an overview of voice phenomena discussed in the linguistic literature. The key points highlighted during the lesson are the differentiation between Passive and Active Voices and the usage of Passive and Active Voice in the English language. Students will know what the Passive voice most emphatically is not, what the term and its antonym, active voice, actually mean, and provide some guidelines on when to use both. The key to understanding passive voice lies in accepting the fact that it's strictly a grammatical term which relates to how sentences are constructed. Most of the time it is used in technical, scientific, or academic writing.

Lesson aim and learning outcomes

The aim of the lesson is to give full information about Passive and Active Voice in the English language. Learning outcomes: to comprehend theoretical and practical knowledge about the problem of voices in the English language; to be able to apply in-depth cognitive and practical skills to analyze the main features of voices; to be able to solve practical problems in the field of classifying voices, for the purpose of grammatical description.

Key Reading

1. Demidov D. V. Theoretical English Grammar: the manual for part-time students of higher educational institutions / Denys Valeriyovych Demidov; The State institution —Luhansk TarasShevchenkoNationalUniversity. — Luhansk: LuhanskTarasShevchenkoNationalUniversity, 2014. – 121 p
2. Kharytonov I. K. Theoretical grammar of the modern English language. Vinnytsia, Nova knyha, 2008 – 352 p.
3. Alexeyeva I. Theoretical English Grammar. Vinnytsia, Nova knyha, 2007 – 328 p.

References Used in the Teaching Materials

1. <https://www.cambridge.org/core/journals/journal-of-linguistics/article/abs/syntactic-construction-of-two-nonactive-voices-passive-and-middle1/B3A474D1455C108529654BBB0218E3>
2. <https://www.aje.com/arc/writing-with-active-or-passive-voice/>
3. https://www.google.com/search?q=VOICE+in+grammar+video&biw=1366&bih=612&sxsrf=AJOqlzVy2ogp6MUXtjRK_pUn2HzkHmR7A%3A1677756660782&ei=9IgA

Content of the lesson

Activity 1. Spark.

A. Follow the link:

https://www.google.com/search?q=VOICE+in+grammar+video&biw=1366&bih=612&sxsrf=AJOqlzVy2ogp6MUXtjRK_pUn2HzkHmR7A%3A1677756660782&ei=9IgA and watch the video about the Passive Voice.

B. Reflect on the question:

When is it necessary to use Passive Voice?

Input

Activity 2. Follow the link:

<https://www.aje.com/arc/writing-with-active-or-passive-voice/> and <https://www.cambridge.org/core/journals/journal-of-linguistics/article/abs/syntactic-construction-of-two-nonactive-voices-passive-and-middle1/B3A474D1455C108529654BBB0218E3>

Read the articles. Make sure to pay attention to the following points while reading:

1. What is the origin of the term *voice*?
2. What does the term *voice* denote according to its origin?
3. According to the article, *what kinds* of a tripartite morphological voice contrast did in Classical Greek exist?
4. What voice alternations, which do not reduce valence, can you name?

5. What kind of the voice alternation is similar to the passive and does not modify valence?
6. What are the aspects, which differ the middle voice from the passive voice?
7. What are the aspects, which differ the mediopassive from the passive?
8. If both passive and middle are values of the voice dimension, why are they so different in their productivity?
9. What analysis did Kemmer do in 1993?
10. What is Kemmer's 1993, 1994 achievement?
11. What may assign the middle Voice?

Mariel Wolfson, PhD
PhD, History of Science
HarvardUniversity

Active vs. Passive Voice: What's the Difference? What Should I Use?

Why Does It Matter?

The use of active or passive voice is a fundamental distinction in English - and one that causes trouble for many writers, including native English speakers.

Growing up in American schools, students are often taught that they should avoid the passive voice because it is “weak.” However, the choice between active and passive is actually quite nuanced.

Depending on the ideas you are trying to express and the conventions of the discipline/journal in which you are writing, a sentence in the passive voice can be an appropriate, sophisticated, and even preferable choice over the active voice. Nevertheless, the active voice is sometimes a far better choice. You may use both in the same article depending on the context and content of your sentences and the section of the paper you are writing.

The following guidelines and examples should help choose between using active and passive voice in a sentence.

The basic difference

Active

At the most basic level, the active voice emphasizes the person or agent who performs an action, the “actor.” In other words, the subject performs the action.

Passive

The passive voice emphasizes the recipient of the action or sometimes the action itself.

Now that we’ve clarified the basic distinction between active and passive voice, let’s look at some more realistic, complex examples from academic writing.

When to use passive voice

Emphasizing the object

Example 1

- **Passive:** The interviews were conducted by two people who had no relationship with New York City.
- **Active:** Two people who had no relationship with New York City conducted the interviews [or, Two people, neither of whom had a relationship with New York City, conducted the interviews].

Both sentences are portraying the same idea. In this case, the authors want to emphasize the interviews – and how they were conducted – as an element of their research methodology. Therefore, the passive voice is an appropriate choice, although the active voice would not be incorrect.

Example 2

- **Passive:** This research was approved by the ethics committee of the Institute of Gerontology.
- **Active:** The ethics committee of the Institute of Gerontology approved this research.

Again, in this case, the authors are emphasizing that their research was approved. This is an important piece of information, arguably more important than the entity that did the approving. Thus, the passive voice is justified.

Avoiding first and third person

- **Passive:** Atlas.ti software was used for qualitative data analysis.
- **Active option 1:** We used Atlas.ti software for qualitative data analysis.
- **Active option 2:** The researchers used Atlas.ti software for qualitative data analysis.

In this case, the active options may be problematic for different reasons.

The first option is grammatically correct, but some researchers/writers and journals prefer to avoid the use of the first person. (Learn more about which person to use when writing.) Choosing the passive voice is an easy way to avoid having to make a decision about using the sometimes-questionable word “we.”

Active option 2, which uses the third person (“the researchers”), is grammatically correct but sounds a bit awkward. Again, as in Example 1, the authors of this article are emphasizing aspects of their methodology, one of which is their software choice. Thus, the passive voice sentence is acceptable and appropriate.

Passive and auxiliary verbs

You’ll notice something about the passive examples above: Both use a form of the verb “to be” – in this case, the past form “was” (“was used,” “was approved”).

This is called a “helping” or “auxiliary” verb because it helps to complete the sentence (you can’t say “My car was stolen on Sunday night”). These verbs are not needed in active sentence constructions, which is one main reason why many people say that active sentences are stronger and more concise.

When to use active voice

Strong, short sentences

Example 1

- **Active:** This comparison of recycling standards in the EU, Australia, and the U.S. demonstrates that a country’s recycling performance can change significantly depending on which standard is applied.
- **Passive:** In this comparison of recycling standards in the EU, Australia, and the U.S., it is demonstrated that a country’s recycling performance can change significantly depending on which standard is applied.

In this case, the active voice sentence is the stronger, preferable choice. It is cleaner, clearer, and more concise. It clearly states what the authors have contributed in their article. The passive sentence is unnecessarily wordy and clunky.

Example 2

- **Active:** “The dog chased the ball.”
- **Passive:** “The ball was chased by the dog.”

In this very simple sentence, the active voice is the better choice. It is more concise (shorter), more direct, and stronger. The passive voice, in this case, is unnecessarily wordy and clunky.

An exception

However, there are many examples where we either cannot or do not want to emphasize the actor, particularly if there is an element of mystery involved:

- **Passive:** “My car was stolen on Sunday night.”

In this case, the speaker may not/does not know who stole her car, and this use of the passive is perfectly appropriate.

The active alternative would be “Someone stole my car on Sunday night.” But this is a case where the speaker probably wants to emphasize the action itself rather than the perpetrator. She wants to emphasize that something bad happened to her.

Emphasize the subject

- **Active:** Choudhary proposed the methods and principles by which each process in product synthesis could be analyzed.
- **Passive:** The methods and principles by which each process in product synthesis could be analyzed were proposed by Choudhary.

Unlike the examples we have considered so far, in this case, the active voice is the better choice. The literature review section of a paper often seeks to delineate the most important contributions in the field, which makes actors/agents/authors important. In the example above, the active sentence reads much more clearly and concisely.

Thus, your use of the active vs. passive voice may depend on which section of your article you are writing. Each section has a different goal and set of emphases, and you

can adjust your use of active vs. passive voice accordingly. You might choose to use the active voice in your conclusion if you want to emphasize the contributions, results, or accomplishments of your research.

Final Thoughts

In summary, both the active and passive voices can be appropriate choices in scientific/academic writing. It is important to consider what you are trying to emphasize in a particular sentence or section of your paper.

It is easy to default to the passive voice in academic writing, and sometimes it really is the better choice. If you are undecided, try rephrasing the sentence in the active voice and asking yourself whether it changes the meaning of your sentence or simply makes your writing clearer or more concise.

Edit Doron

VOICE

The term *voice* is a traditional term (akin to the Greek term *diathesis*) which originates in the grammars of the classical Indo-European languages, where it denotes particular alternations in the assignments of grammatical functions to the verb's arguments. Voice alternations are typically marked as part of the verb's morphology, and accordingly, voice is considered a morpho-syntactic category of the verb. In Classical Greek, for example, there was, in some tenses of the verb, a tripartite morphological voice contrast:

AtticGreek

<u>activevoice</u>	<u>passivevoice</u>	<u>middlevoice</u>
lousō	lousomai	louθēsomai
'I will wash [somebody]'	'I willbewashed'	'I willwashmyself'

Voice alternations traditionally subsume processes where there is reduction of the number of *arguments of the verb*, i.e. participants in the event denoted by the verb. Some theoretical frameworks of contemporary linguistics, such as functionalist and cognitivist frameworks, expand the application of the

term *voice* also to processes where there is increase in the number of arguments of the verb, as in causative and applicative constructions. In these theories, the term *voice* is used for any alternation of the the number of arguments of the verb (Croft 1994, Dixon and Aikhenvald 1997, Shibatani 2006). Other theoretical frameworks restrict the term *voice* to the activepassive contrast, where there is no change in the number of arguments but only their grammatical function, and a different term, *valence alternation*, is used to denote alternation, either decrease or increase, in the number of arguments. Such restrictive approaches are found in typological frameworks (e.g. Haspelmath and Müller-Bardey 2005) and in large parts of generative grammar (explicitly expressed, for example, in Levin and Rappaport 1995, Reinhart and Sioni 2005).

The present discussion endorses an intermediate position, perhaps closest in spirit to the traditional concept, which is also found in formal semantics (Kratzer 1996) and in distributed morphology (Embick 1997). Here *voice* denotes changes in the grammatical function of the so-called *external argument* (typically the subject of the active verb), including the reduction of this argument.

1. Descriptive coverage of voice phenomena

This section lists and illustrates voice phenomena discussed in the linguistic literature. They are classified by whether they change the grammatical function of the external argument without reducing valence, or whether they also reduce valence. In most cases, the enumerated phenomena clearly fall within the boundaries of the notion of *voice* adopted here, and its subclasses. But there are cases which are not clear-cut, and these will be discussed as such. In the case of *inversion* (section 1.1.4), it is not clear whether there is change in the grammatical function of the subject or not. In the case of the *dispositional middle* (section 1.2.3) and the *mediopassive* (section 1.2.5), it is not clear whether or not there is valence reduction.

Voice alternations which do not reduce valence

1.1.1. Passive

Passive voice morphology marks a change in grammatical function of the verb's external argument without reducing it. The external argument is subject of the active verb and is suppressed in the case of the passive verb; it is either unexpressed or expressed obliquely. But the suppressed external argument is still the (implicit) external argument of the passive verb.

In (2) below, the external argument of the transitive verb *write* is the subject of the active-voice verb in (2a). In (2b), the external argument is suppressed, but is still an implicit argument: (2b) entails that someone wrote the letter just as much as the active (2a) does. The external argument may be expressed obliquely by means of an optional prepositional adjunct, as in (2c). In (2b-c), the verb's *internal argument* assumes the grammatical function of subject.

- a. John wrote the letter
- b. The letter was written
- c. The letter was written by John

In some languages, the obliquely expressed external argument of a passive verb is assigned the same thematic role which it is assigned in the active voice. In other languages, passive voice assigns the oblique argument the fixed default role of Agent, even in cases where the verb in the active voice assigns it a different role, e.g. Cause, Experiencer, Goal etc. A language of the former type is English, where the passive verb can introduce a variety of thematic roles: (Marantz 1984: 129)

- a. The porcupine cage was welded by Elmer (agent)
- d. Elmer was moved by the porcupine's reaction (cause)
- e. The porcupine crate was received by Elmer's firm (goal/recipient)
- f. Elmer was seen by everyone who entered (experiencer)
- g. The intersection was approached by five cars at once (theme)

Languages of the second type are Greek, Hebrew, Icelandic, where a verb marked by passive morphology assigns only the Agent thematic role to its external argument (cf. Doron 2003 for Hebrew, Jónsson 2003 for Icelandic, and Zombolou 2004, Alexiadou et al 2006 for Greek). The following examples are from Hebrew:

Hebrew

- a. ha-kluvru^tax (al-yedey^lelmer) The cage weld/passive/
by Elmer The cage was welded by Elmer. (agent)
- b. * elmerrugaš (al-yedey^tguvat ha-kipod) Elmer
move/passive/ by reaction (of) the-porcupine 'Elmer was
moved by the porcupine's reaction. (cause)
- c. * teyvat ha-kipodqubla (al-yedey ha-xevra) crate (of)
the porcupine receive/passive/ by the-firm The porcupine
crate was received by the firm. (goal/recipient)

Thematic roles other than the Agent role are compatible with the *middle voice* (which will be discussed in section 1.2 below) but not with the passive voice. Grammatical variants can be constructed of (4b) and (4c) with the middle-voice form of the same verbs, as in (5a) and (5b). (5c) is an example with an experiencer argument:

- a. Elmer move/*middle*/ from reaction (of) the-porcupine
Elmer was moved by the porcupine's reaction.(cause)
- b. crate (of) the porcupine receive/*middle*/ by the-firm The porcupine crate was
received by the firm. (goal/recipient)
- c. Elmer see/*middle*/ by each who that enter/*middle*/ Elmer was seen by everyone who
entered. (experiencer)

In many languages, only transitive verbs can passivize, but in other languages, it is possible to passivize intransitive verbs as well, e.g. in English: (Bolinger 1977, Bresnan 1982, Alsina 2009)

- a. The bed was slept in by George Washington.
- b. The bed has been thoroughly rolled around on.

1.1.2 Impersonal Passive

In some languages where intransitive verbs passivize, the passive construction is impersonal, i.e. no argument is assigned the grammatical function of subject. Some languages require a pleonastic element in subject position in such cases, like the French *il* 'it' in (7a). Others, like German, only require an overt pleonastic element in particular positions, such as the preverbal position in (7b), where the sentence would otherwise be verb-initial. Arabic does not have an overt pleonastic element, but marks the verb in (7c) with default 3MS inflection:

French Il a été parlé de vos frères hier soir

'It was spoken of your brothers last night.'

German Es wird hier getanzt / Hier wird (*es) getanzt
it AUX here danced

'People are dancing here.' Lit: There is dancing here.'

(Steinbach 2002: 28 (17a))

Some languages, like German and Dutch, allow *by*-phrases in impersonal passive constructions:

German Es wurde gestern von uns getanzt

'There was dancing by us yesterday.' (Siewierska 1984: 97 (7c))

Dutch Er wordt door de jongens gefloten.

'There was whistling by the boys.' (Kirsner 1976: 387 (3b))

This is a marked option, not allowed in Icelandic for example (Sigurðsson 1989). Languages which allow *by*-phrases in impersonal passives also allow them in personal passives (Siewierska 1984).

It was suggested by Perlmutter 1978 and Perlmutter and Postal 1984 that an intransitive verb which has an external argument, an *unergative* verb, can undergo impersonal passive, whereas a verb without an external argument, an *unaccusative* verb, cannot. This is illustrated by the passivizability contrast in Dutch between the unergative verb *run* and the unaccusative verb *fall*:

Dutch Er werd (door de jongens) gelopen

that of the external argument in passive: it either remains implicit, or is expressed obliquely, as shown in (11b):

Dyirbal (Dixon 1994: 149)

- a. biya Jani-ŋgugunyja.n
 beer.ABS John-ERG drink.NFUT
 'John is drinking beer.' active
- b. Jani gunyjal-ŋa-nyu (biya-gu)
 John.ABSdrink-ANTIP-NFUTbeer-
 DAT
 'John is drinking (beer).' antipassive

Antipassive is similar to the passive in that it does not modify valence. As in the passive, the change in grammatical function of the subject results in the detransitivization of the verb. Yet semantically the antipassive, like the passive, retains both arguments of the active verb: any event of drinking, irrespective of the voice of the verb, involves both the ingesting agent and the ingested liquid. At the level of discourse, the argument which is demoted from nominative to oblique is often less topical, both in the passive and the antipassive. Another semantic characteristic of the antipassive, reminiscent of the impersonal passive, is the aspectual classification of antipassive clauses as atelic (Cooreman 1994, Beach 2003).

Antipassive analyses can be found in the literature for many ergative languages, e.g. Australian languages (such as Dyirbal (Dixon 1972) and Warrungu (Tsunoda 1988)), Inuit languages (Kalmár 1979, Fortescue 1984, Bok-Bennema 1991, Johns 2001), Mayan languages (England 1988), Chukchee (Kozinsky et al. 1988), Nez Perce (Rude 1988, Deal 2007). An antipassive analysis has also been proposed for one of the values of the Austronesian voice system (Aldridge 2004, Sells 1995, 1999).

1.1.4 Inversion

The term *inversion* originates in Algonquian linguistics and has been extended to other languages as well. In the words of Thompson 1994, "an inverse construction indicates a deviation from the normal degree of relative topicality between agent and non-agent". In functionalist theories (e.g. Klaiman 1991, Givón 1994a, Shibatani 2006) inverse morphology is considered to mark voice alternation. There may be reasons not to accept the characterization of inversion as voice, in Algonquian languages (cf. Dahlstrom 1991, Woolfart 1991), Athabaskan languages and others (cf. many of the articles in Givón 1994b). The major reason is that inverse clauses are transitive, unlike typical clauses with non-active voice. Yet it is not clear whether the external argument is still in subject position, since, as argued by Ritter and Rosen 2005, Algonquian languages lack any A-positions at all.

Inverse morphology expresses markedness in the proximate-obviate dimension, which grammatically encodes topicality, including a person ranking, where first and second person, which are speech-act participants, are viewed as proximate, and third person as relatively obviate. In direct clauses, the external argument is proximate, and the internal argument is obviate. In inverse clauses, this is reversed. In Algonquian and many other inverse systems, this results in **obligatory** inverse marking of clauses where a third person agent acts on a first or second person patient. This is different from non-active voice, which is normally optional.

The following example is from the Algonquian Plains Cree language (Dahlstrom 1991), where both direct and inverse morphology is obligatorily marked. In (12a), the direct marker -DIR- indicates that the external argument is a speech-act participant (first person in this example) whereas the internal argument is third person. In (12b), the inverse marker -INV- indicates deviation from topicality – the external argument is third person whereas the internal argument is a speech-act participant/

There actually is some optionality in inversion as well, but it is mostly restricted. For example, inversion is optional in Algonquian when both

arguments are third person. The following examples are from the Algonquian East-Cree language (Junker 2004: (3)-(5)). Both options (13a) and (13b) are grammatical. In (13a), the direct marker DIR- indicates a third person object which is obviate relative to the proximate third person subject. In (13b), the inverse marker -INV- indicates that the third person object is proximate relative to the obviate third person subject/

Both clauses in each of (12) and (13) are transitive, i.e. encode two arguments, in comparison with the intransitive passive clause in (14), where agreement to a single argument is marked/

The salience of topicality in the description of inversion does not contradict subsuming inversion under voice, since topicality interacts with voice as well. Usually, it is hard to passivize a clause with a topical agent (Bresnan et al. 2001):

* Fries are eaten by me (Riddle and Sheintuch 1983: (110))

Nevertheless, it remains an open question whether inversion should be analysed as a value of the voice dimension.

Voice alternation which reduce valence: the Middle Voice

Languages with the middle voice morphologically mark this voice on the verb in various ways. Some languages use reduced forms of the reflexive clitic (Russian, Timberlake 2004; French, Labelle 2008; Spanish, Mendikoetxea 2012; German, Steinbach 2002). Others have designated middle voice morphology (Icelandic, Sigurðsson 1989; Hebrew and other Semitic languages, Doron 2003; Greek, Alexiadou and Anagnostopoulou 2004; Albanian, Kallulli 2006; Georgian, Holisky 1981, Salish, Beck 1997).

Greek and Albanian middle morphology (which shows syncretism with passive morphology) is referred to as Non Active (NACT). In other languages, the middlevoice form of the verb is different from the passive voice. The following example is from Icelandic (Sigurðsson 1989: 268)/

the dog.NOM killed.MID	by the police
‘The dog got killed.’	middle voice

The middle voice differs in several respects from the passive voice. The external argument of the active verb is not only suppressed in the middle voice, as it is in the passive, but typically altogether absent from the clause, as shown by the contrast between (16b) and (16c) above. Moreover, unlike the passive voice, the middle is independent of the active voice. Middle-voice verbs exist for which there are no corresponding active-voice verbs (Kaufmann 2007):

Russian *ostat'-sja* **ostatbojat-sja* **bojat'* *nadejat-sja* **nadejat'*

remain-REFL fear-REFL hope-REFL

Hebrew *notar* **yatarhitxaret* **xerethit'aqeš* **iqeš* remain.MID

regret.MID insist.MID

1.2.1 Anticausative

The middle voice derives a verb which does not have an external argument. In the simplest case, this has the effect of an anticausative form which alternates with a transitive active verb.

1.2.2 Reflexive / Reciprocal

Some verbs require an agent participant as a lexical property. In the active voice, the agent role is assigned to the external argument. In the middle voice, the agent role is sometimes assigned to the internal argument, **in addition** to the original role of the internal argument. This assignment of two roles to a single argument gives rise to the reflexive and reciprocal (roughly, group reflexive) reading. The examples in (21)-(22) and the examples in (23)-(24) are familiar examples of reflexive and reciprocal verbs.

1.2.3 Dispositional Middle

Some verbs in the middle voice denote a dispositional property of the internal argument/

There is an ongoing controversy in the linguistics literature concerning the question of whether or not the dispositional middle is reduced in valence relative to the active verb. The question is whether the external argument of the active verb should be considered an argument of the dispositional middle verb (Keyser and Roeper 1984, Hale and Keyser 1987, Condoravdi 1989, Stroik

1992, Lekakou 2004, Bhatt and Pancheva 2005, Schäfer 2007, Kallulli 2007). An indication of the implicit presence of the external argument is the possibility of expressing it obliquely, similarly to the passive. Several languages allow a by-phrase with dispositional middles:

English (Ackema and Schoorlemmer 1994)

Walls paint easily (*by anyone)

Yet even languages which permit a by-phrase only allow a very restricted subset denoting human arguments, which are also typical experiencers, and thus may actually be the arguments of the obligatory adverbs found in this construction. Accordingly, the agent may be present in the construction, but not as argument of the middle verb. Middle morphology assigns the verb's internal argument some kind of agentive role, similarly to the reflexive alternation (cf. Kemmer 1993). Under this view, the middle voice attributes to the internal argument the agent-like characteristic of being responsible, because of its inherent properties, for the dispositional property denoted by the verb. The dispositional middle may thus be viewed as a modalized reflexive middle.

A different type of dispositional middle which can also be analysed as a modalized reflexive is found in the Slavic languages. In (29) and (30) below, the verb has two internal arguments, a theme and a goal. The theme is additionally assigned the agent role in the middle voice, and constitutes the argument which the dispositional property is predicated of. The implicit goal is a human argument.

1.2.4 Impersonal Middle

Impersonal middles are dispositional middles constructed from intransitive verbs. Parallel to the impersonal passive, this construction features expletive subjects. But there are curious differences between the subjects of the impersonal middle and the impersonal passive. In German, the expletive subject is obligatory in the impersonal middle, as in (31a), whereas in the impersonal passive it is unacceptable in subject position, other than in the

position preceding the verb sentence-initially (cf. (7b) above). In Dutch, e.g. the expletive *het* used in impersonal middles is different from the expletive *er* used in impersonal passives (cf. (8b) above). These differences correlate with the structural difference between impersonal passives and impersonal middles. In the passive voice, the verb's null external argument occupies an argument position, whereas the external argument is not part of the structure in the middle construction, which instead features a true expletive subject.

1.2.5 Mediopassive

Mediopassive is a form of the verb which has the morphology of the middle voice, but is nevertheless similar to the passive in that it allows the participation of the external argument. Yet unlike the passive, where the external argument is required in the representation of the verb, the mediopassive allows this argument but does not require it. Mediopassives thus also share properties with middle anticausatives, where the external argument is not included in the derivation. The mediopassive is compatible both with interpretations under which something happens on its own and with interpretations where it is brought about by an external argument. It is thus underdetermined for the passive/ anticausative distinction (cf. Tsimpli 2006).

In some languages, the mediopassive interpretation of the middle voice depends on the lack of dedicated passive voice morphology, either in the language in general, as in Greek, or at least for particular verbs, as in Hebrew:

a. Greek (Alexiadou et al. 2006) ο jianisdolofonithike apo tin mariathe
Janis murder.NACT by the Mary 'John was murdered by Mary.'

b. Hebrew dani nircax al-yedey dina

Dani murder.MID by Dina 'Dani was murdered by Dina.'

Yet in both languages, the mediopassive interpretation of the middle voice is limited to particular verbs, and is not general.

In a limited number of cases, a middle voice verb is interpreted as mediopassive despite the existence of a corresponding passive verb. Interestingly, in the perfective aspect, the same limited class of verbs is found

to have this property in French (ZribiHertz 1982). The examples below illustrate this class of verbs: (restrictions in the perfective aspect are also noted for Spanish by Mendikoetxea 1999)

In the imperfective, middle voice verbs can be generally interpreted as mediopassive/

The mediopassive differs from the passive in several respects. In Hebrew, it often allows the adjunct *by itself*, and non agentive external arguments, as shown in (38) below, in contrast to the agentive nature of passive external arguments (cf. (4) above). A similar argument is made for Greek by Alexiadou and Anagnostopoulou 2004. Moreover, mediopassives are derived independently of related active verbs, like middle verbs in general (cf. (17)-(18) above), whereas the passive is typically only derived for a corresponding active. The active verbs *anaš 'punish' and *šalam 'complete' corresponding to the mediopassive forms in (39) are not currently in use in Hebrew, and have been replaced by the related causative verbs *he'eniš* 'punish. CAUS ', *hišlim.CAUS* 'complete'. Nevertheless, the mediopassive forms of the non-existing verbs are commonly used:

There are therefore arguments for classifying the mediopassive, as well as the dispositional middle of section 1.2.3, as subclasses of the middle voice. Yet this is by no means a settled issue, and these classes are sometimes referred to in the literature as "passive" and "dispositional passive" instead. One way of settling the controversy is by giving up the characterization of the middle voice as maximally contrastive to the passive voice, i.e. as a voice alternation which *reduces* valence. Instead, it could be characterized as a voice alternation which *optionally reduces* valence, while the passive does not reduce valence.

1.2.6 Impersonal mediopassive

There indeed is a middle construction where valence reduction seems not to take place at all, as indicated by the fact that the verb retains accusative case. This is a middle construction with an expletive subject, but, unlike the impersonal middle discussed in section 1.2.4 above, this construction is neither

dispositional nor intransitive. Rather, the verb here is eventive and transitive, though the impersonal (human) agent is not explicitly expressed:

General/theoretical discussion of voice

Many general questions are raised by voice. Here is a simple one: If both passive and middle are values of the voice dimension, why are they so different in their productivity? In languages of the world, passive is normally productive. In those languages with passive morphology, passive applies to practically all transitive verbs. But the middle, in languages that have it, is lexically restricted. Does this indicate that the two constructions are of a different character, and that we should not classify both as voice? The answer is probably no, passive is productive because it constitutes a less radical departure from the active voice, as it is not valence changing. The middle voice is valence changing, at least potentially, and may thus clash with the lexical requirements of certain verbs for particular arguments.

Other general and theoretical questions have been raised in the course of the study of issues related to voice. Here are several approaches found in the recent literature which have offered generalizations concerning these issues.

A typological analysis of anticausatives (Haspelmath 1993)

It is natural to expect language to be structurally iconic, i.e. to expect that in general, a complex linguistic form should represent a complex concept. Haspelmath poses an interesting challenge from the subject-matter of voice to the view that language is iconic: "If the semantic properties of a word are only the objective semantic features discovered by semantic decomposition, then causatives are always semantically more complex than inchoatives and the existence of or even preference for anticausatives is a mystery."(ibid: 106). In other words, since causative events are complex, how is it possible that they are sometimes expressed by unmarked active verbs, while their simpler components are expressed by complex middle-voice anticausative verbs? In his article, Haspelmath demonstrates how iconicity can nevertheless be defended, which allows him to conclude that "the challenge to iconicity coming from

cases of apparent reverse word-formation could be answered at least for inchoative/ causative alternations. The existence of anticausatives is not a problem because the semantic markedness relationship which iconically corresponds to the formal basic-derived relationship cannot be equated with a basic-derived relationship in the real world. Semantics is conceptual, and our conceptualization of the world reflects it in a way that is profoundly influenced by our conceptual capacities. Only extensive typological comparison has made this conclusion possible." Thus, the complexity of verb forms does not directly represent the complexity of events, but that of their conceptualization. Humans conceptualize some events as being likely to be brought about by an outside force, and other as being likely to happen spontaneously. Unmarked causative verbs are iconic in the case of verbs which denote events that are likely to be brought about by an outside force: *externally caused*. For such verbs, it is less likely that the event will occur spontaneously, and this is expressed by a marked, middle-voice, form of the verb. For such events, the causative is the most probable and expected, whereas the anticausative is marked because it is unexpected. On the other hand, verbs that denote events which normally happen spontaneously will be unmarked in the intransitive form, and marked by causative morphology when they denote the less likely events which include an outside causing force. This does not mean that all languages will categorize each particular type of event in the same way. For example, the verb *finish* encodes an externally caused event in Hebrew, i.e. it has an unmarked transitive *gamar* 'finish tr.' and a marked middle-voice intransitive *nigmar* 'finish.MID' alternant; this is reversed in Turkish, which has an unmarked intransitive *bit* 'finish intr.' and a causative marked transitive *bit-ir*'finish-CAUS'. The verb *freeze*, on the other hand, has an unmarked intransitive form in Hebrew *qafa*'freeze intr.' and a causative marked transitive alternant *hiqpi*'freeze.CAUS'; this is reversed in Spanish, where the intransitive is marked by the middle voice: *congelar-se* 'freeze-REFL' whereas the transitive is unmarked *congelar*'freeze trans.'. Yet Haspelmath shows that these

alternations are not arbitrary or completely language dependent after all. A pattern can be detected when one systematically observes different languages. A universal ranking of predicates emerges: ... P_i ... P_j ... (according to “spontaneity of the event”) such that in every natural language, if P_i is expressed as an unmarked intransitive verb, then so is P_j, and if P_j is expressed as an unmarked transitive verb, then so is P_i. A section of this ranking is shown here:

...	<i>open</i>	...	<i>finish</i>	...	<i>freeze</i>	...	<i>boil</i>	...
	<i>intrans/trans</i>		<i>intrans/trans</i>		<i>intrans/trans</i>		<i>intrans/trans</i>	
<i>Spanish:</i>	abrir-se/abrir		terminar-se/terminar		congelar-se/congelar		hervir/hacer	
<i>Hebrew:</i>	ni-ftax/	pataxni-gmar/	gamarqafa/	hi-qpiratax/	hi-	rtiax		
<i>Turkish:</i>	aç-il/	aç bit/	bit-ir	don/	don-dur	pis/	pis-ir	

Languages differ in the precise point at which they switch the conceptualization of events from externally caused to spontaneous. Spanish views *open*, *finish* and *freeze* as describing externally caused events, and thus their intransitive variants are marked by the middle voice. But once it switches to viewing the intransitive verb as unmarked, it will keep on doing so for events which are more and more spontaneous (presumably such as *jump*, *laugh* etc). This is corroborated by Hebrew and Turkish, which switch to unmarked intransitives earlier than Spanish, and do not switch back.

A functionalist analysis of the middle voice (Kemmer 1993)

Kemmer's 1993, 1994 achievement is in demonstrating that it is the same verbs which systematically appear with middle morphology across a large number of unrelated languages. Moreover, she shows that these verbs can be classified into a relatively small number of semantically coherent classes:

- a. verbs of grooming or body care: dress, wash, shave
- b. nontranslational motion: stretch, turn, bow
- c. change of body posture: sit down, kneel, get up, lie down
- d. translational motion: climb up, go away, stroll, fly
- e. naturally reciprocal events: embrace, wrestle, converse, speak together

- f. indirect middle: acquire, ask, request, take for oneself, desire, crave
- g. emotional middle: become frightened, become angry, grieve, mourn
- h. emotivespeechactions: complain, lament
- i. cognition middle: cogitate, reflect, consider, ponder, meditate, believe
- j. spontaneous events: sprout, stop, vanish, recover, originate, occur
- k. facilitative situations: dispositional middles and mediopassives

Kemmer concludes that there is a conceptual basis which underlies not only the anticausative (as shown by Haspelmath), but the middle voice as a whole. Kemmer views the distinction between transitive and intransitive clauses as expressing the edges of a continuum (following Hopper and Thompson 1980) between two- and oneparticipant events. She proposes to "add the middle to the event space defined by these situation types and to the parameter along which they differ, namely the degree of discernibility of the participants... Two-participant events have maximal distinguishability of participants in that the participants are completely separate entities. The reflexive and middle have progressively lower distinguishability, which means that the Initiator (controller or conceived source of action) and Endpoint (affected participant) are not separate, but necessarily the same entity." (Kemmer 1994: 209). Kemmer shows that her proposal subsumes Benveniste 1950, Gonda 1960, Klaiman 1991, who view subject-affectedness as the defining characteristic of the Indo-European middle. In Kemmer's framework, the subject of a middle-voice verb is affected since it is not distinguished from the affected participant.

A syntactic analysis of the passive voice (Baker, Johnson and Roberts 1989)

Baker, Johnson and Roberts 1989 establish the status of the passive as a voice which does not alter the number of arguments of the verb. Though arguments had been previously adduced, Baker et al. provide the decisive argument. We first present earlier arguments due to e.g. Manzini 1983, Keyser and Roeper 1984, Roeper 1987. First, passive clauses allow an overt *by*-phrase

licensed by the implicit subject, (42a), whereas unmarked anticausative clauses do not, :

- a. The ship was sunk by Bill.
- b. * The ship sank by Bill.

Second, subject-oriented adverbs may modify the implicit subject of the passive, (43a), though this is not so in the case of the anticausative, (43b):

- a. The ship was sunk deliberately.
- b. # The ship sank deliberately.

Third, the missing subjects of rationale clauses may be controlled by the implicit subject of the passive, (44a), though this is not so in the case of the anticausative, (44b):

- a. The ship was sunk to collect the insurance
- b. * The ship sank to collect the insurance

The novel argument provided by Baker et al. (based in part on Williams 1987) which establishes that the passive argument is syntactically active, is that there is a restriction on the interpretation of the understood passive subject. The passive subject is known to be interpreted as existentially quantified, e.g. (45a) is understood as "Someone/ something killed him.":

- a. He was killed
- b. He was seen

What Baker et al. noticed is that passives cannot be interpreted in such a way that the understood subject is coreferential with the surface subject, ie (45) cannot mean (46):

- a. He committed suicide
- b. He saw himself

Baker et al. further note that non-coreferentiality cannot be attributed to a pragmatic effect due to the absence in the structure of the passive argument. Other types of structures with missing arguments do not prevent coreference of an expressed argument with a missing argument. For example, in adjectival passives, such as (47a), the missing subject can be understood as coreferential

to the surface subject, i.e. John could have shaved himself. Similarly in (47b), whether it is understood dispositionally or not, there is no ban against John being the one doing the shaving:

a. John is freshly shaved

b. John shaves easily

2.4. A Distributed Morphology analysis of voice (Doron 2003; Alexiadou, Anagnostopoulou and Schäfer 2006)

Within a constructional approach to morphology (the Distributed Morphology framework of Halle and Marantz 1993, and the framework of Kratzer 1996, 2002), where words are not constructed in the lexicon but as part of the syntactic derivation of the clause, several proposals have converged to an account of voice (Embick 1997, 2004; Doron 2003; Alexiadou and Anagnostopoulou 2004; Alexiadou, Anagnostopoulou and Schäfer 2006; Kallulli 2006; Labelle, 2008). Roughly, all these accounts include in their syntax a functional head: *Voice*, which regulates the insertion of the external argument required by the verb's root. The values of *Voice* discussed in these approaches are Active, Middle and Passive. The non-active (NACT) morphology found in Greek and Albanian is viewed as syncretizing Middle and Passive (but see Embick 1997, Alexiadou and Doron 2012 for a different view of Greek non-active morphology).

The active *Voice* does not interfere with the cooccurrence restrictions of the root. For example, the English root *destroy* requires an external argument (with the thematic role of cause assigned by the appropriate functional head *v*), whereas the root *arrive* does not cooccur with an external argument. The roots *dry* and *whiten* allow an external argument, but do not require one:

Even in languages with middle-voice morphology, there are active anticausatives constructed as in (48a), eghilbin 'whiten' in Hebrew, and *stegnosan* 'dry' in Greek, which are active verbs.

The passive Voice, following Baker et al. 1989, introduces an external argument in the environment of exactly the same roots as in the active, and is thus impossible in passive.

Similarly, to Baker et al., it is the head v itself which is the external argument of the passive. In Hebrew and Greek, the argument of the passive Voice is an agent, thus accounting for the fact that the Hebrew *hulban* whiten.

The middle Voice head does not cooccur with v , i.e. it does not have an external argument. Yet in the environment of some roots, it assigns the agent thematic role to the argument x of the root, such as in e.g. (52b). Since it alters the thematic role of the internal argument, the middle Voice is merged with the root in (52). This is different from the passive voice, which alters the thematic role of the external argument, and thus merges above the internal argument in (49) above. The different level of attachment accounts for the lower productivity of the middle in comparison to the passive, and also for the fact that passive forms are only derived for corresponding active forms, whereas middle verbs are derived independently of related active verbs.

Some verbs in Greek require *afto* when the roots appear in the (52b) rather than the (52a) structure. In Hebrew this is sometimes indicated by the contrast between the two middle forms, the simple middle (MID.SIMPL) which tends to be medio-passive, vs. the intensive middle (MID.INTNS) which tends to be agentive.

In conclusion, there is a kernel concept of *voice* compatible with the different points of view of various linguistic approaches, which denotes alternation in the assignment of grammatical functions to the verb's arguments, often marked by verbal morphology, and driven by change/ reduction of the expression of the verb's external argument.

Activity 3. Complete the following sentences:

1. _____ are typically marked as part of the verb's morphology, and accordingly, voice is considered a morpho-syntactic category of the verb.
2. _____, for example, there was, in some tenses of the verb, a tripartite morphological voice contrast.
3. Other theoretical frameworks restrict the term voice to the_____.
4. This section lists and illustrates voice phenomena discussed in the _____.
5. _____ morphology marks a change in grammatical function of the verb's external argument without reducing it.
6. Thematic roles other than the Agent role are compatible with the _____ but not with the _____.
7. _____ has also been proposed for one of the values of the Austronesian voice system.
8. The term _____ originates in Algonquian linguistics and has been extended to other languages as well.
9. _____ are dispositional middles constructed from intransitive verbs.
10. It is natural to expect language to be _____ c, i.e. to expect that in general, a complex linguistic form should represent a complex concept.
11. Causative verbs are _____ in the case of verbs which denote events that are likely to be brought about by an outside force: externally caused.
12. Baker, Johnson and Roberts 1989 establish the status of _____, which does not alter the number of arguments of the verb.
13. _____ does not interfere with the co-occurrence restrictions of the root.

14. _____ does not co-occur with v, i.e. it does not have an external argument.
15. According to this analysis, in the case of _____ (middle-voice verbs which may have two internal arguments), the additional internal argument, e.g. a beneficiary, is introduced by an applicative head.

Activity 4. Self-assessment. Choose the correct answer.

1. What Greek term describes the origin of the modern term voice?
- a) diathesis;
 - b) anthem;
 - c) metalinguistic;
 - d) lexis.
2. What voice alternations do traditionally subsume?
- a) function of the word
 - b) speech;
 - c) process;
 - d) argument.
3. What languages allow the usage of by-phrases in impersonal passive constructions?
- a) Italian and French;
 - b) German and Dutch;
 - c) English and Latin;
 - d) Ukrainian and Spanish.
4. What is the form of the verb, which has the morphology of the middle voice?
- a) anticausative;
 - b) dispositional Middle;
 - c) impersonal Middle;
 - d) mediopassive.

5. According to the article, who classified the same verbs, which systematically appear with middle morphology across a large number of unrelated languages into a relatively small number of semantically coherent classes?

- a) Baker;
- b) Roberts;
- c) Haspelmath;
- d) Kemmer.

6. What was the innovation (analysis) in modern English linguistics?

- a) a typological analysis of anticausatives;
- b) the analysis of active voice;
- c) the analysis of voice alternation;
- d) the analysis of middle voice.

7. What does Haspelmath claim?

- a) the language is iconic;
- b) the language is a complex phenomenon;
- c) The existence of anticausatives is a problem;
- d) the complexity verb forms directly represents the complexity of events.

8. What languages do really use reduced forms of the reflexive clitic?

- a) Russian, French, Spanish, German;
- b) Russian, Chinese, Japanese;
- c) Hebrew, Albanian, Serbian;
- d) Greek, English, German, Italian.

9. What languages have designated middle voice morphology?

- a) Russian, French, Greek, German;
- b) Korean, Chinese, Japanese;
- c) Hebrew, Albanian, English;
- d) Icelandic, Hebrew, Greek, Albanian, Georgian, Salish.

10. What voice derives a verb, which does not have an external argument?

- a) the passive voice;
- b) the middle voice;
- c) the active voice;
- d) the antipassive.

Activity 5. The sentences below are written in the passive voice. Decide whether they should remain that way or be rewritten in the active voice as suggested.

1. The game was won by the Senators with a two-point lead.
 - a) The Senators won the game with a two-point lead.
 - b) Passive voice is better here.
2. I only bought the car because I was given bad advice.
 - a) I only bought the car because my uncle gave me bad advice.
 - b) Passive voice is better here.
3. The birthday was celebrated by the family at a fine Italian restaurant.
 - a) The family celebrated the birthday at a fine Italian restaurant.
 - b) Passive voice is better here.
4. The lights were dimmed just in time for the surprise.
 - a) Someone dimmed the lights just in time for the surprise.
 - b) Passive voice is better here.
5. Thomas King's *MedicineRiver* was published in 1989.
 - a) Viking Canada published Thomas King's *MedicineRiver* in 1989.
 - b) Passive voice is better here.
6. Your greens must be eaten.
 - a) You must eat your greens.
 - b) Passive voice is better here.
7. Carbon dioxide—the topic of my lecture—is produced by all living organisms.
 - a) All living organisms produce carbon dioxide, the topic of my lecture.
 - b) Passive voice is better here.
8. A four-course meal was showcased on the table d'hôte menu.
 - a) The table d'hôte menu showcased a four-course meal.
 - b) Passive voice is better here.

Activity 6. Choose the correct passive forms:

1. The project of form 8 _____
 - a) is said to fail.

- b) is said to be failed.
- c) is said to have failed.

2. The manager _____ about the problem.

- a) should be told.
- b) should has been told.
- c) should have been told.

3. She _____ to Jack's birthday party.

- a) are invited.
- b) has been invited.
- c) have been invited.

4. The homework _____ by tomorrow.

- a. must be done.
- b. was done.
- c. will be done.

5. Yesterday a boy _____ in an accident in High Street.

- a. has been injured.
- b. was injured.
- c. will be injured.

6. The first computer _____ in the 1940's.

- a. is invented.
- b. was invented.
- c. will be invented.

Activity 7. Assessment. Prepare presentation on the middle voice, that is also called “the mediopassive.”

Unit XV. Verbal Gerunds

Synopsis:

The lesson gives an overview of English verbal gerunds. The key points highlighted during the lesson are a mix of nominal and verbal properties of verbal gerund phrases, the difference between verbal gerund and present participle form of the verb, the similarities of verbal gerund phrases to other English phrase types. The verbal gerund differs syntactically from the participle in two ways: it is of category gerund and it subcategorizes for both a specifier and a subject. Students will get acquainted with analysis of verbal gerunds in English and various approaches that have been proposed to get around the problem.

Lesson aim and learning outcomes

The aim of the lesson is to give full information about English verbal gerunds as a hybrid category that inherits some properties of nouns and some properties of verbs. Learning outcomes: to comprehend theoretical and practical knowledge about the problem of verbal gerunds; to be able to apply in-depth cognitive and practical skills to analyze the main features of verbal gerunds; to be able to solve practical problems for the purpose of grammatical description.

Key Reading

1. Demidov D. V. Theoretical English Grammar: the manual for part-time students of higher educational institutions / Denys Valeriyovych Demidov; The State institution —Luhansk TarasShevchenkoNationalUniversity. — Luhansk: LuhanskTarasShevchenkoNationalUniversity, 2014. – 121 p
2. Kharytonov I. K. Theoretical grammar of the modern English language. Vinnytsia, Nova knyha, 2008 – 352 p.
3. Alexeyeva I. Theoretical English Grammar. Vinnytsia, Nova knyha, 2007 – 328 p.

References Used in the Teaching Materials

1. https://www.researchgate.net/publication/244954539_A_Constructional_Approach_to_English_Verbal_Gerunds

2. https://www.researchgate.net/publication/244954539_A_Constructional_Approach_to_English_Verbal_Gerunds

Content of the lesson

Activity 1. Spark.

A. Follow the link: <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=ft9ltWHZiv8>

B. Reflect on the question:

What is the difference between gerunds, infinitives, and participles?

Input

Activity 2. Follow the link:

https://www.researchgate.net/publication/244954539_A_Constructional_Approach_to_English_Verbal_Gerunds

Read the articles. Make sure to pay attention to the following points while reading:

1. What do verbal gerund phrases display?
2. What does verbal gerund inherit as a hybrid category?
3. What is the strongest evidence for the nominal nature of verbal gerunds come from?
4. In what subclass do verbal gerunds fall according to the 4th pattern?
5. What is the difference between verbal gerunds and nouns as for the particle “not”?
6. What are some of the verb-like properties of gerunds shared by?
7. What is the most obvious difference among the three types of verbal gerunds?
8. What can an ideal analysis of verbal gerunds to do in English?
9. What has considerable work in HPSG focused on?

10. Who has investigated applying the same methods of hierarchical classification to types of phrasal signs?
11. As what is the grammar of a language represented in HPSG?
12. As what can the HPSG Head Feature Principle be represented?
13. What does the categorial information projected from the lexical head determine?
14. What are we able to do by exploiting HPSG's hierarchical classification of category types and its inventory of elaborated phrase structure rules?
15. What does the analysis described in the article allow to capture?

Robert Malouf
Stanford University

A CONSTRUCTIONAL APPROACH TO ENGLISH VERBAL GERUNDS

English verbal gerunds have long been of interest to syntacticians. Verbal gerund phrases display a mix of nominal and verbal properties which provide a challenge to any syntactic framework that assumes a strict version of X-bar theory. Various approaches have been proposed to get around these problems, but they all involve abandoning a fundamentally desirable theoretic assumption or adopting a highly abstract structure for which independent motivation is difficult to find, or both. An ideal analysis of verbal gerunds in English would be able to account for their mixed verbal and nominal properties without the addition of otherwise unmotivated mechanisms. In this paper, I will propose an analysis based on recent work in Construction Grammar and Head-driven Phrase Structure Grammar that treats verbal gerunds as a hybrid category that inherits some properties of nouns and some properties of verbs.

1. Properties of verbal gerunds

The strongest evidence for the nominal nature of verbal gerunds comes from the external distribution of verbal gerund phrases (VGerPs). VGerPs appear in contexts where otherwise only noun phrases can occur. For one, clauses, unlike NPs, are generally prohibited from occurring sentence internally, as shown in (1).

- (1) a. *I believe that Pat took a leave of absence bothers you.
 b. *Why does that Pat took a leave of absence bother you?

However, VGerPs are subject to no such constraint:

- (2) a. I believe that Pat's/Pat taking a leave of absence bothers you.
 b. Why does Pat's/Pat taking a leave of absence bother you?

This is a point about which there has been some disagreement in the literature. Reuland (1983), for instance, claims that accusative subject VGerPs cannot appear clause internally. However, consider the following examples:

- (3) a. *Did that Pat got arrested bother you?
 b. *Did for Pat to get arrested bother you?
 c. *Did to get arrested bother you?
 d. ?Did Pat getting arrested bother you?
 e. Did getting arrested bother you?
 f. Did Pat's getting arrested bother you? g. Did Pat's arrest bother you?

While (3d) may be somewhat awkward, there is a clear difference in acceptability between (3a–c) on the one hand and (3d–g) on the other. Therefore, I think it is reasonable to conclude that with respect to the prohibition against sentence-internal clausal arguments, VGerPs behave like NPs and not like Ss.

One thing worth observing here is that verbal gerund phrases do not have the full distribution of NPs. In particular, as we see in (4), verbal gerunds cannot be possessive specifiers.

- (4) a. Pat's leave of absence's bothering you surprises me.
 b. *Pat's/Pat taking a leave of absence's bothering you surprises me.

But, as Zwicky and Pullum (1996) observe, only a restricted subclass of what are otherwise clearly NPs can show up as possessives. So, (4) suggests that verbal gerunds, like of the other cases they describe, fall into a “functionally restricted” subclass of nouns that cannot head possessive phrases.

On the other side of things, there are contexts which admit verbal gerunds but not regular NPs. Jørgensen (1981) and Quirk et al. (1985:1230) discuss a class of

predicative adjectives which select for an expletive subject and a verbal gerund complement, as in (5).

(5) There's no use (you/your) telling him anything.

The fact that the complement's subject can appear in the possessive shows that the complement really is a verbal gerund phrase and that this is not a case of subject-to-object raising. Examples such as this provide suggestive evidence that verbal gerunds form a subcategory of noun.

While the external syntax of verbal gerunds is much like that of NPs, their internal structure is more like that of VPs. For one, VGers take accusative NP complements, while the nominal gerund in (6b) can only take a PP complement:

(6) a. (Pat's/Pat) loudly calling (*of) the roll started each day.

b. The loud calling *(of) the roll started each day

Another verb property of verbal gerunds is that verbal gerunds take adverbial modifiers. In contrast, common nouns take adjectival modifiers:

(7) a. Pat financed (me/my) carefully restoring the painting.

b. The careful/*carefully restoration of the painting took six months.

Similarly, verbal gerunds, unlike nouns, can be negated with the particle "not":

(8) a. Pat's not having bathed for a week disturbed the other diners.

b. *The not processing of the election results created a scandal.

These facts have been used to motivate the claim that verbal gerunds must be verbs at some level. However, none of the behavior exhibited in (6)–(8) is unique to verbs. Some of the verb-like properties of gerunds, such as licensing adverbial modifiers, are also shared by determiners, prepositions, and adjectives:

(9) a. Sandy is awakened early almost every morning.

b. Sandy lives directly beneath a dance studio.

c. Sandy's apartment has an insufficiently thick ceiling.

Similarly, "not" can be used in some circumstances to negate adverbs, adjectives, PPs, and determiners:

(10) a. Not surprisingly, the defendant took the Fifth.

b. The conference will be held in Saarbrücken, not far from the French border.

c. Not many people who have gone over Niagara Falls live to tell about it.

These facts about modification and negation do not show that verbal gerunds are verbs. What they show is that verbal gerunds, unlike common nouns, are part of a larger class of expressions which includes verbs.

The complementation facts also do not constitute a strong argument that verbal gerunds must be verbs. Like verbs and verbal gerunds, prepositions also can take NP complements. On the other hand, some verbs only take PP complements:

(11) The strike extended *two weeks/through the summer.

The fact that some verbal gerunds take accusative objects is therefore not especially striking. What is important is that a verbal gerund, unlike a nominal gerund, takes the same complements as the verb from which it is derived:

(12) a. Chris casually put the roast in the oven.

b. Chris's/Chris casually putting the roast in the oven appalled the visiting vegetarians.

c. Chris's casual putting of the roast in the oven appalled the visiting vegetarians.

So, what we can say is that a VGerP headed by the -ing form of a verb has the same internal syntax as a VP headed by a finite form of that same verb.

To summarize, VGerPs have four basic properties that need to be accounted for. These are given in (13).

(13) a. A verbal gerund takes the same complements as the verb from which it is derived.

b. Verbal gerunds are modified by adverbs and not by adjectives.

c. The entire verbal gerund phrase has the external distribution of an NP.

d. The subject of the gerund is optional and, if present, can be either a genitive or an accusative NP.

The properties in (13) are shared by accusative subject (acc-ing), genitive subject (poss-ing), and subjectless (pro-ing) verbal gerund phrases and are not shared

by any other English constructions. The three types of verbal gerunds seem to be subtypes of a single common construction type, and any analysis of verbal gerunds ought to be able account for their similarities in a systematic way.

It is important to note, however, that there are differences among the three types which also must be accounted for (Reuland 1983, Abney 1987). Of course, the most obvious difference is the definitional one, namely the case of the subject. In that respect, poss-ings are more like NPs, while acc-ings are more like Ss. Another difference can be found in their agreement behavior when conjoined:

- (14) a. That Pat came and that Chris left bothers/??bother me.
b. Pat coming (so often) and Chris leaving (so often) bothers/??bother me.
c. Coming (so often) and leaving (so often) bothers/??bother me.
d. Pat's coming and Chris's leaving ??bothers/bother me.
e. Pat and Chris *bothers/bother me.

Conjoined acc-ing or pro-ingVGerPs, like conjoined Ss, prefer singular (or default) number agreement on the verb. Conjoined poss-ingVGerPs, like conjoined nouns, prefer plural agreement. Furthermore, the two types of verbal gerunds cannot be comfortably conjoined:

- (15) a. *Pat's coming and Chris leaving bothers/bother me.
b. *Pat coming and Chris's leaving bothers/bother me.

The patterns of compatibility in (14) and (15) follow naturally from the assumption that acc-ing and poss-ingVGerPs are of different semantic types. Poss-ingVGerPs, like NPs, have nominal semantics, with an index specified for person, number, and gender. In contrast, acc-ingVGerPs, like Ss, have propositional semantics.

Another difference between the two types of VGerPs pointed out by Abney (1987) is that poss-ing but not acc-ingVGerPs with wh subjects can front under ' pied piping':

- (16) This is the reporter whose/*who(m) winning the Pulitzer Prize surprised Sandy.

Again, the same contrast can be seen between NPs and Ss:

(17) a. This is the reporter whose success surprised Sandy.

b. *This is the reporter for whom to win the Pulitzer Prize surprised Sandy.

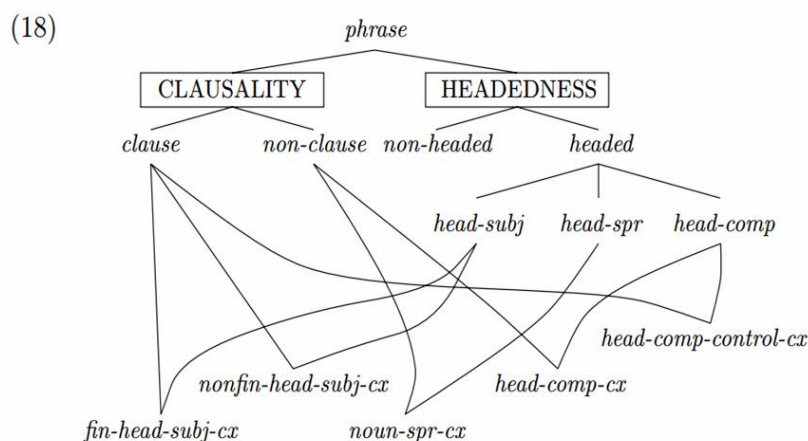
Here again is an instance where *poss-ingVGerPs* pattern more like NPs while *acc-ingVGerPs* pattern like Ss. However, it is hard to see how this difference can be attributed to a difference in the semantics of the two types of gerund phrases. Instead, what this evidence shows is that at some purely syntactic level *poss-ingVGerPs* have something in common with NPs while *acc-ingVGerPs* have something in common with Ss.

2. HPSG preliminaries

An ideal analysis of verbal gerunds in English would be able to account for their mixed verbal/nominal properties without the addition of otherwise unmotivated mechanisms. Recent work in Construction Grammar (Fillmore and Kay to appear) and Head-driven Phrase Structure Grammar (Pollard and Sag 1994) provide the foundation for such an analysis. Sag (to appear) proposes an elaboration of the HPSG X-bar theory to include hierarchically classified phrase structure rules. Under this view, the internal structure of a phrase is determined by both the lexical properties of the head and by the construction type of which the phrase is an instance. In this section, I will present a brief overview of the relevant features of Sag's (to appear) hierarchy of phrase types.

In HPSG, words and phrases are taken to be types of signs, "structured complexes of phonological, syntactic, semantic, discourse, and phrase structural information" (Pollard and Sag 1994:15). Signs are represented by typed feature structures, and the grammar of a language is represented as a set of constraints on types of signs. These sign types are further organized into a multiple-inheritance hierarchy to allow linguistic generalizations to be precisely stated.

Considerable work in HPSG has focused on examining the hierarchical structure of the lexicon. More recently, Sag (to appear) has investigated applying the same methods of hierarchical classification to types of phrasal signs. A small part of the phrase type hierarchy is given in (18).



Phrases can be divided into two types: endocentric headed phrases and exocentric non-headed phrases. Since syntactic constraints are stated as constraints on particular types of signs, the HPSG Head Feature Principle can be represented as a constraint on all signs of the type headed. Headed phrases can be further subdivided according to the kind of subcategorization dependency they discharge: subject, specifier, or complement. In addition, constructions inherit constraints from the cross-cutting classification of phrases into either clauses or non-clauses. Among other things, clauses have a constraint on the type of their semantic content. A clause’s content must be a parameterized state of affairs (psoa), something that roughly corresponds to a proposition.

These two hierarchical classifications define a set of constraints on phrasal signs. A construction is a phrasal sign type that inherits from both the phrase hierarchy and the clause hierarchy. Since a construction licenses a type of complex sign, it must include information about how both the form and the meaning are assembled from the form and the meaning of its component parts. A construction may inherit some aspects of its meaning from its supertypes, and in contrast to the strictly head-driven view of semantics presented by Pollard and Sag (1994), a construction may also have idiosyncratic meaning associated with it.

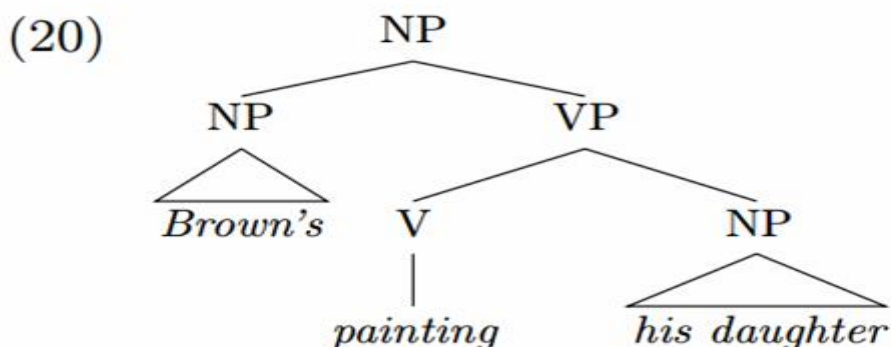
The *fin-head-subj-cx* and the *nonfin-head-subj-cx* constructions combine a subcategorized-for subject with a finite and non-finite head, respectively. The finite version, for normal English sentences like “They walk” requires a nominative subject. The non-finite version, for ‘minor’ sentence types like absolutes, requires an accusative subject. The *noun-poss-cx* construction combines a noun head with a

possessive specifier to form a phrase with a nom-obj (i.e., an index bearing unit) as the content value. To be more precise, the construction type noun-poss-cx is subject to the following constraint:

$$(19) \left[\begin{array}{l} \textit{noun-poss-cx} \\ \text{SYNSEM|LOCAL} \left[\begin{array}{l} \text{CAT|HEAD } \textit{noun} \\ \text{CONT } \textit{nom-obj} \end{array} \right] \\ \text{SPR-DTR|SYNSEM|LOCAL|CAT|HEAD} \left[\begin{array}{l} \textit{noun} \\ \text{CASE } \textit{gen} \end{array} \right] \end{array} \right]$$

3. A new analysis

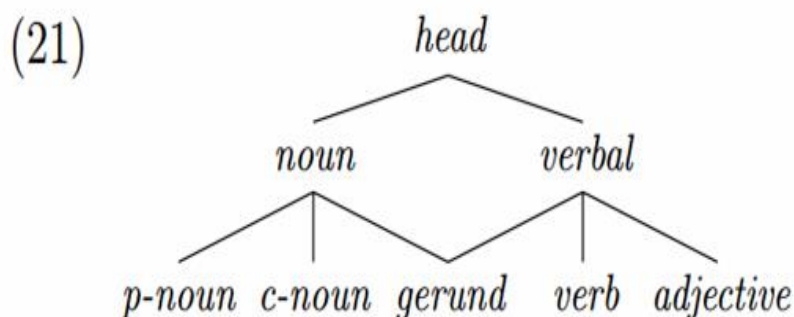
As we saw in section 1, verbal gerunds display a mix of nominal and verbal properties that seems puzzling given many assumptions about syntactic structure. Various approaches have been proposed to get around these problems. Abney (1987) argues for a highly abstract phrase structure involving phonologically null heads and syntactic word formation. Pullum (1991) suggests allowing a V to project an NP under certain circumstances, but his analysis crucially depends on the default nature of the GPSG Head Feature Convention, something which has itself raised serious formal problems (Shieber 1986, Bouma 1993). Lapointe (1993) proposes a more conservative modification to standard notions of endocentricity by introducing dual lexical categories like hN|Vi, a V which projects a VP dominated by an NP. Wescoat (1994), on the other hand, proposes to preserve phrasal endocentricity by allowing a single word to project two different unordered lexical categories and therefore two different maximal phrases. While these analyses differ greatly in their technical details, they all assign VGerPs some variation of the following structure:



This reflects the traditional description of VGerPs as ‘verbal inside, nominal outside’ quite literally by giving VGerPs a VP node dominated by an NP node. However, since (20) is quite unlike the structures one typically finds in English, each of these analyses requires abandoning a fundamentally desirable theoretic assumption or adopting a highly abstract structure for which independent motivation is difficult to find.

The factorization of syntactic information in the HPSG lexicon allows an analysis which requires no such move. Words in HPSG select for arguments of a particular category. Therefore, categorial information projected from the lexical head determines the external distribution of a phrase. Selectional information, from a lexical head’s valence features, determines what kinds of other phrases can occur in construction with that head. Constructional information, represented as constraints on particular constructions, controls the combination of syntactic units. Within each of these three domains, VGerPs show fairly consistent behavior. What is unusual about verbal gerunds is their combination of noun-like categorial properties with verb-like selectional properties.

Within HPSG, the categorial properties of verbal gerunds are determined by their lexically specified head value. Like all other linguistic objects, types of head values can be arranged into a multiple inheritance type hierarchy expressing generalizations across categories. The distribution of VGerPs can be accounted for by the (partial) hierarchy of head values in (21).



Since gerund is a subtype of noun, a phrase projected by a gerund will be able to occur anywhere an NP is selected for. Thus, VGerPs will have the external distribution of NPs. Adverbs modify objects of category verbal, which include verbs,

accusative NP subject, or a noun-poss-cx, which combines a head with a genitive NP specifier. Since the subject and specifier are identified with each other, no verbal gerund will be able to combine with both a subject and a specifier. Genitive subject VGerPs will inherit all the constraints that apply to possessive constructions in general, for example, restrictions on the specifier NP and on pied piping. The differences in agreement found between verbal gerunds with accusative subjects and those with genitive specifiers follow from the differences between the two constructions: the noun-poss-cx construction licenses a phrase with nominal semantics while the nonfin-head-subj-cx construction licenses a phrase with propositional semantics.

To see how these constraints interact to account for the syntax of verbal gerunds, it will be useful to consider an example of each type. First, consider the (partial) lexical entry for the present participle of the verb *paint*, in Figure 1. This entry states that there is a word (pronounced /peyntIN/) which is the present participle form of a verb. It selects for two arguments, a subject and a complement, which fill the *artiste* and *model* roles of the verb's meaning. Most of the information in a lexical entry like Figure 1 is inherited from higher lexical types. In general, only the phonology, semantics, and perhaps subcategorization frame need to be stipulated for each lexical entry. From the entry in Figure 1, the lexical rule in (22) produces a matching entry that differs only in the shaded values. The output of the lexical rule is of category *gerund*, rather than *verb*, and the gerund selects for both a subject and a specifier. All other information about the verbs gets carried over from the input to the lexical rule.

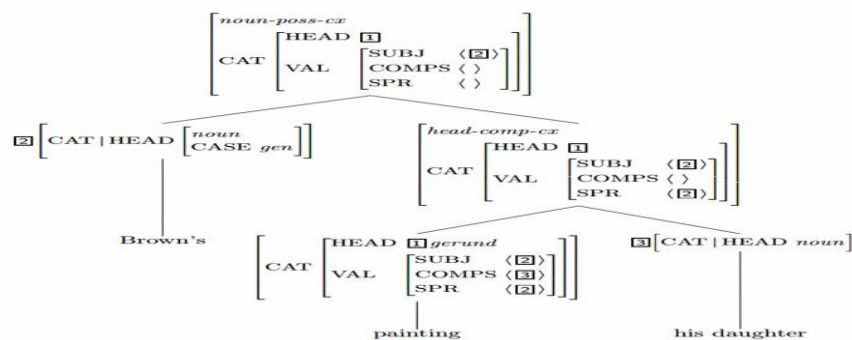


Figure 2: *Brown's painting his daughter*

Now we turn to the constructions which a verbal gerund is eligible to head. There are two cases, poss-ingVGerPs and acc-ingVGerPs. First, we will look at the structure of the VGerP *Brown's painting his daughter*, shown in Figure 2. The head of this phrase, *painting*, is a verbal gerund formed by the lexical rule in (22). It combines with its complement NP (marked 3) via the head-comp-cx construction. It then combines with a genitive specifier to form a noun-poss-cx construction.

Note that the resulting verbal gerund phrase still has an unsatisfied SUBJ requirement, which is token-identical to the specifier *Brown's*. Since the two head/subject constructions require a nominative or accusative subject, the verbal gerund phrase will not be able to head a head/subject construction and the subject requirement will never be discharged. This presents no difficulty for the analysis, as no constraint requires that NPs have an empty subj list. In fact, it is crucial to Borsley's (to appear) analysis of predicative constructions described in Pollard and Sag (1994) that there be no such requirement. Since the entire phrase is an instance of noun-poss-cx, its content is a nom-obj by the constraint in (19). Since nom-obj's have an index with person, number, and gender features, conjoined phrases with nom-obj semantics trigger plural agreement.

An equivalent example with an accusative subject would be "*Brown painting his daughter*". This example differs from the previous example only in the way the subject combines with the head. The nonfin-head-subj-cx construction combines a non-finite head with an accusative subject. As before, the lingering spr value will not create a problem, as no head-specifier construction allows an accusative specifier. The semantic content of the entire phrase will be an object of the type psoa, which has no index and therefore no person, number, or gender features. So, conjoined psoa objects trigger singular verb agreement.

As these examples show, the constructions that combine a verbal gerund with its complements and its subject or specifier are the same constructions used for building NPs, VPs, and Ss. This reflects the traditional view that VGerPs are built out of pieces of syntax 'reused' from other parts of the grammar. In one sense, under this analysis a verbal gerund together with its complements really is like V0 . Both are

instances of the same construction type, and both are subject to any constraints associated with that construction. In the same way, a verbal gerund plus an accusative subject really do form an S, while a verbal gerund plus a genitive subject really do form an NP. So, these two types of verbal gerund phrases inherit the constraints on semantic type and pied piping associated with the construction type of which they are an instance. However, in a more important sense, a verbal gerund plus its complements forms a VGer0, which combines with an accusative or genitive subject to form a VGerP. The analysis presented here allows this similarity to be captured without weakening HPSG's strong notion of endocentricity

4. Conclusion

By exploiting HPSG's hierarchical classification of category types and its inventory of elaborated phrase structure rules, we are able to account for the mixed behavior of English verbal gerunds without adding any additional theoretical mechanisms or weakening any basic assumptions. The analysis presented here does not require syntactic word formation and thus preserves lexical integrity. It also does not require any phonologically null elements or abstract structure, and it allows us to maintain the strong notion of endocentricity embodied by the HPSG Head Feature Principle. Finally, by making crucial reference to syntactic constructions, this analysis allows us to capture on the one hand the similarities among the sub-types of verbal gerund phrases and on the other their similarities to other English phrase types.

Activity 3. Complete the following sentences:

1. Various approaches have been proposed to get around these problems, but...
2. VGerPs appear in contexts where...
3. Verbal gerund phrases do not have...
4. There are contexts which admit verbal gerunds but...
5. While the external syntax of verbal gerunds is much like that of NPs, their internal structure...
6. Similarly, "not" can be used in some circumstances...

7. Like verbs and verbal gerunds, prepositions...
8. What is important is that a verbal gerund, unlike a nominal gerund,...
9. Signs are represented by..., and the grammar of a language is represented as....
10. Phrases can be divided into two types:...
11. A construction is a phrasal sign type that inherits...
12. Since a construction licenses a type of complex sign, it must include...
13. Verbal gerunds display a mix of nominal and verbal properties that seems...
14. Selectional information, from a lexical head's valence features, determines...
15. A verbal gerund plus its complements forms a VGer0, which...

Activity 4. State whether the following statements are true or false.

Correct the false ones:

1. Verbal gerund phrases display a mix of nominal and verbal properties.
2. An ideal analysis of nominal gerunds in English would be able to account for their mixed verbal and nominal properties without the addition of otherwise unmotivated mechanisms.
3. The strongest evidence for the nominal nature of verbal gerunds comes from the external distribution of infinitive phrases.
4. The complementation facts also !!! constitute a strong argument that verbal gerunds must be adverbs.
5. Considerable work in HPSG has focused on examining the hierarchical structure of the lexicon.
6. The finite version, for normal English sentences like "They walk" requires a nominative case.
7. One approach has been proposed to get around these problems.

8. The differences in agreement found between verbal gerunds with accusative subjects and those with genitive specifiers follow from the differences between the four constructions.
9. The verbal gerund differs syntactically from the participle in two ways: it is of category gerund and it subcategorizes for both a specifier and a subject.
10. By exploiting HPSG's hierarchical classification of category types and its inventory of elaborated phrase structure rules, we are able to account for the individual behavior of English verbal gerunds with adding any additional theoretical mechanisms or weakening any basic assumptions.

Activity 5. Match each date in the left-hand column with the appropriate personalities who were carrying out their grammatical investigations in these years in the right-hand column:

a) 1981	1. Pullum
b) 1983	2. Jorgensen
c) 1986	3. Zwicky
d) 1987	4. Shieber
e) 1993	5. Bouma
f) 1994	6. Abney
g) 1996	7. Reuland

Activity 6. Self-assessment. Choose the correct variant:

1. This article is devoted to:
 - a) infinitives;
 - b) gerunds;
 - c) participles.
2. What properties does gerund possess?
 - a) verbal;
 - b) nominal;

c) verbal and nominal.

3. Reuland claimed, that accusative subject VGerPs cannot appear clause internally, in:

a) 1983;

b) 1996;

c) 1960.

4. The two types of verbal gerund phrases were pointed out in 1987 by:

a) Sag;

b) Abney;

c) Quirk.

5. The categorial properties of _____ are determined by their lexically specified head value:

a) verbal gerunds;

b) verbs;

c) verbal gerund phrases.

6. According to the ____ pattern verbal gerunds cannot be possessive specifiers:

a) fourth;

b) first;

c) third.

7. The factorization of syntactic information in the HPSG lexicon allows an analysis which requires:

a) move;

b) intensive move;

c) no such move.

8. Gerund is a subtype of:

a) noun;

b) adjective;

c) adverb.

9. Adverbs modify objects of category verbal, which include _____, adjectives, and verbal gerunds, among other things:

- a) nouns;
- b) adverbs:
- c) verbs.

10. Who proposed to preserve phrasal endocentricity by allowing a single word to project two different unordered lexical categories and therefore two different maximal phrases in 1994?

- a) Sag;
- b) Wescoat;
- c) Zwicky.

Activity 7. Assessment. Prepare presentation on the verbal gerunds suggesting your own examples to patterns given in the article.

Unit XVI. Classification of Secondary Parts of the Sentence.

Synopsis:

The lesson gives an overview of the object as a sentence member discussed in the linguistic literature. The complexity of the object as a sentence member makes difficult to work out an adequate approach to describing this phenomenon. Different classifications of objects have been proposed by linguists. The key points highlighted during the lesson are the differentiation between types of the object and their place in the English sentence. Students will know what classification of the object distinguished by J. D. Morell and other linguists and get some guidelines on their usage. The key to understanding the object lies in accepting the fact that it's strictly a grammatical phenomenon which relates to how sentences are constructed.

Lesson aim and learning outcomes

The aim of the lesson is to give full information about the complexity of the object as grammatical phenomenon. Learning outcomes: to comprehend theoretical and practical knowledge about the functions of the secondary parts in the English sentence; to be able to apply in-depth cognitive and practical skills to analyze the main functions of the object; to be able to solve practical problems in the field of classifying the object, for the purpose of grammatical description.

Key Reading

1. Demidov D. V. Theoretical English Grammar: the manual for part-time students of higher educational institutions / Denys Valeriyovych Demidov; The State institution —Luhansk TarasShevchenkoNationalUniversity. — Luhansk: LuhanskTarasShevchenkoNationalUniversity, 2014. – 121 p
2. Kharytonov I. K. Theoretical grammar of the modern English language. Vinnytsia, Nova knyha, 2008 – 352 p.
3. Alexeyeva I. Theoretical English Grammar. Vinnytsia, Nova knyha, 2007 – 328 p.

References Used in the Teaching Materials

1. <https://www.goodreads.com/book/show/18262144-a-grammar-of-the-english-language-together-with-an-exposition-of-the-ana>
2. <https://www.noor-book.com/en/ebooks-John-Daniel-Morell-pdf>
3. https://studopedia.net/15_77499_The-Secondary-Parts-of-the-Sentence.html
4. <https://ell.stackexchange.com/questions/157596/what-part-of-speech-is-difficult>
5. <https://www.wyzant.com/resources/answers/709726/is-it-difficult-to-understand-sentence-structure>
6. <https://www.abebbooks.com/book-search/title/analysis-sentences-explained-systematised/author/morell-john/>

Content of the lesson

Activity 1. Spark.

A. Follow the link:

<https://www.bing.com/videos/search?q=object+in+the+sentence+video&docid=603516383415439208&mid=5B517ECB198380548EB95B517ECB198380548EB9&view=detail&FORM=VIRE> and watch the object.

B. Reflect on the question:

What are the functions of the object in the English sentence?

Input

Activity 2. Follow the link: https://studopedia.net/15_77499_The-Secondary-Parts-of-the-Sentence.html. Read the article. Make sure to pay attention to the following points while reading:

1. Who is the author of the book?
2. What types of Objects are defined by the author of the book?
3. What is the direct object?
4. What is the indirect object?
5. The indirect Object may consist of another noun or pronoun. In what case?
6. How many types of Adjuncts are differentiated by the author of the book?
7. What types of Adjuncts are differentiated?

8. What is the most important idea of the several other shades of meaning, which need not to be distinctly specified?

John Daniel Morell

SECONDARY PARTS OF THE SENTENCE. DIFFICULTY OF THEIR CLASSIFICATION

The direct Object is a word or phrase, standing in the objective case, and answering to the question *whom?* or *what?* as — *Whom* do you call? I call *my brother*.

The direct Object can be expressed by precisely the same forms of speech as the subject, namely: —

1. By a noun. The ox draw *the plough*.
2. By a pronoun. He draws *it* easily.
3. By an adjective used as a noun. We honor *the good*.
5. By an infinitive phrase. John loves *to read books*.
6. By a participial phrase. He loves *walking in the fields*.

The indirect Object is a secondary completion which must be added to certain classes of verbs, in order to express adequately the whole sense of the Predicate.

It may consist of another noun or pronoun in the objective case as:

The People made Edward *King*. She made him *her heir*.

1. This is called the *factitive Object* from the verb *facio* (to make), which is regarded as the type of all the verbs that take this construction.

2. Sometimes the *factitive adjective* is used in place of the second noun; as —
Alfred rendered his kingdom *secure*.

The indirect may consist of a noun or pronoun *with a preposition*, as —

Ex. 1. The prince gave a large dowry *to his daughter*. This is called the dative or personal Object.

Ex. 2. Brutus accused Caesar *of ambition*.

Napoleon was capable *of great exertion*.

This is called the genitive object.

The indirect Object when it implies action is often expressed by an infinitive, or a participial *phrase*, as —

The general forced him *to serve*.

We heard the thunder *roll*.

We saw him *struggling with the waves*.

They accused Jugurtha *of bribing the senate*.

There is one form in which the object is expressed by means of the *nominative case*; and that is when the factitive *notion* is expressed by means of a neuter or passive verb; as —

Harold became *King*.

The circumstances which determine more accurately the meaning of the Predicate may be classified under four heads: —

1. Those relating to time.
2. Those relating to place.
3. Those relating to manner.
4. Those relating to cause and effect.

Adjuncts of time attached to the Predicate, are used to specify one of the following conditions: —

a. Some particular point or period of time answering to the question, When? He came yesterday. I get up at sunrise. He wakes early.

b. Duration of time answering to the question, How long? He suffered for many years.

Remark. In this instance the preposition may be left out, and the noun used alone in the objective case.

c. Repetition, answering to the question, How often? The sea ebbs and flows twice a day. He comes very often.

Adjuncts of place attached to the Predicate are also used to specify three different relations.

- a. Rest in a place answering to the question, Where?

He lives in London.

- b. Motion to a place, answering to the question, Whither?

The ship sails to-morrow for London.

Civilization travels westwards.

- c. Motion from a place, answering to the question, Whence?

Learning came /ram the East.

Adjuncts of mode or manner attached to the Predicate are used to specify the following particulars: —

a. Manner, properly so called — Birds fly quickly. Just starting from the corn, she cheerily sings. Now, in contiguous drops, the flood comes down.

b. Degree — I am exceedingly sorry. Wellington's army was almost exhausted.

c. Instrument — William Rufus was shot by an arrow.

d. Accompanying circumstances — They consult with closed doors. Hannibal crossed the Alps with a large army. Kempcnfeldt went down with twice four hundred men.

Adjuncts of cause and effect, attached to the Predicate, are used to specify the following particulars: —

a. The ground or reason of an action — He perished from hunger.

b. Conditions of an action — With diligence and study he can master his lesson.

With perseverance all things are possible.

c. The final cause or purpose of an action — Colleges were founded for the encouragement of learning. The eye was made for seeing. For your sake we are killed all day long.

d. The motive of an action — He acts from jealousy. e. The material of which a thing is made — Cloth is made of wool. This is called in Logic the material cause.

Remark. There are several other shades of meaning coming under the two last heads, which need not to be distinctly specified. The most important is the adversative idea of causality: as — Columbus set sail, notwithstanding the tempest.

Activity 3. Complete the following sentences:

1. The direct Object is a word or phrase, standing in the case.

2. The indirect Object is a secondary completion which must be added to certain classes of
3. The *factitive Object* is called from the verb (to make), which is regarded as the type of all the verbs that take this construction.
4. Sometimes the factitive *adjective* is used in place of the noun;
5. The circumstances which determine more accurately the meaning of the Predicate may be classified under four heads : —those relating to time; those relating to place; those relating to manner;
6. Adjuncts of cause and effect, attached to the Predicate, are used to specify the following particulars: —a. The ground or reason of an action; b. Conditions of an action; c. The final cause or purpose of an action;

Activity 4. Choose the correct variant:

1. The title of the book: The analysis of explained and systematize.
 - a) parts of speech;
 - b) parts of the sentence;
 - c) sentence;
 - d) syntax.
2. The direct Object is a word or phrase, standing in the case.
 - a) objective;
 - b) subjective ;
 - c) possessive.
3. The direct Object can be expressed by precisely the same forms of speech as the subject, namely:
 - a) by a noun/ a pronoun;
 - b) by a pronoun/ a proposition;
 - c) by an adjective used as a noun;
 - d) by a verb.

4. There is one form in which the object is expressed by means of the nominative case ; and that is when the factitive notion is expressed by means of a neuter or verb.

- a) active;
- b) passive.

5. Adjuncts of mode or manner attached to the Predicate are used to specify the following particulars :

- a) manner, degree;
- b) manner, degree, accompanying circumstances;
- c) manner, degree, purpose;
- d) manner, purpose, place.

6. There are several other shades of meaning coming under the two last heads, which need not to be distinctly specified. The most important is the adversative idea of

- a) reason;
- b) purpose;
- c) causality;
- d) accompanying circumstances.

Activity 5. State whether the following statements are true or false. Correct the false ones:

1. The indirect Object is a secondary completion which must be added to certain classes of verbs, in order to express adequately the whole sense of the Predicate.
2. The indirect may consist of a noun or pronoun with a preposition.
3. The indirect Object when it implies action is often expressed by a gerund, or a participial word.
4. Adjuncts of place attached to the Predicate are also used to specify five different relations.

5. Adjuncts of cause and effect, attached to the Predicate, are used to specify the following particulars: a. manner, properly so; b. degree; d. accompanying circumstances.
6. Adjuncts of cause and effect, attached to the Predicate, are used to specify the following particulars: a. the ground or reason of an action; b. conditions of an action; c. the final cause or purpose of an action; d. the motive of an action.
7. The most important is the adversative idea of manner.
8. The author of the book is O.Potebnja.

Activity 6. Match the beginning of each sentence in the left-hand column with the endings in the right-hand column. Combine the sentences so that they make sense.

1. The direct Object is	1. precisely the same forms of speech as the subject.
2. The direct Object can be expressed by	2. an infinitive, or a participial <i>phrase</i> .
3. The indirect Object is a secondary completion which must be added to certain classes of verbs,	3. the factitive <i>notion</i> is expressed by means of a neuter or passive verb.
4. This is called the <i>factitive Object</i>	4. a word or phrase, standing in the objective case, and answering to the question whom? or what?
5. The indirect Object when it implies action is often expressed by	5. a. The ground or reason of an action; b. Conditions of an action; c. The final cause or purpose of an action d. The motive of an action.
6. There is one form in which the object is expressed by means of the <i>nominative</i> case; and that is when	6. in order to express adequately the whole sense of the Predicate.
7. Adjuncts of place attached to the	7. from the verb <i>facio</i> (to make), which is

Predicate are also used to specify three different relations:	regarded as the type of all the verbs that take this construction.
8. Adjuncts of cause and effect, attached to the Predicate, are used to specify the following particulars:	8. a. Rest in a place answering to the question, Where? b. Motion to a place, answering to the question, Whither? c. Motion from a place, answering to the question, Whence?

Activity 7. Solve the crossword.

Across: 2. The indirect object may consist of a noun or pronoun with _____

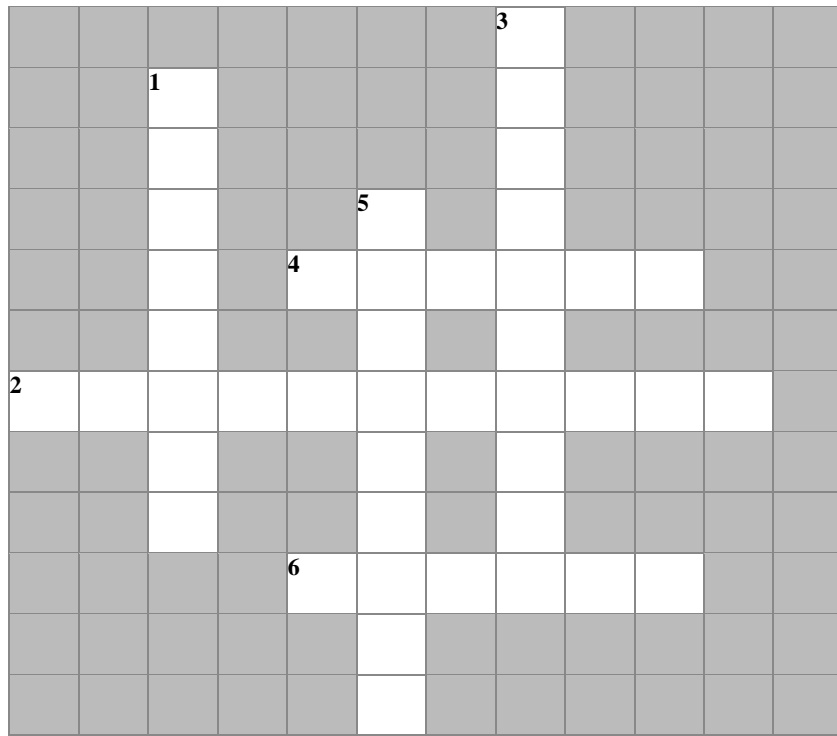
4. The circumstances which determine more accurately the meaning of the Predicate may be classified under four heads: those relating to time; those relating to place; those relating to cause and effect; those relating to _____

6. What type of Object is considered as a word or phrase, standing in the objective case, and answering to the question whom? or what?

Down: 1. The _____ Object is a secondary completion which must be added to certain classes of verbs, in order to express adequately the whole sense of the Predicate.

3. The indirect Object when it implies action is often expressed by an _____

5. The most important is the adversative idea of _____



Activity 8. Supply the information from the text corresponding to each phenomenon:

1. The direct Object;
2. The indirect Object;
3. Adjuncts of time;
4. Adjuncts of place;
5. Adjuncts of mode or manner;
6. Adjuncts of cause and effect.

Activity 9. Self-assessment. Pick up your own examples (sentences) for each of the above-mentioned secondary part of the sentence.

Activity 10. Assessment. Find some other research article about secondary parts of the sentence.

ENGLISH GRAMMAR TERMS

1. Units of meaning

Document-A document is a written, or sometimes oral, presentation of facts, fiction, ideas or opinions. It is or can be considered as complete and comprehensible in its own right.

Paragraph- Paragraphs are the principal sub-divisions of documents. In standard descriptive or declarative documents, a paragraph is a group of sentences with the same theme. Though there is no rule, grammarians tend to agree that a paragraph will normally have between two and eight sentences, with an optimal length of 3 to 5 sentences. Longer documents may be divided into larger subdivisions such as chapters or sections or even books.

Sentence- A sentence is the basic unit that constitutes a declarative or interrogative statement. With the exception of single-word imperatives or interrogations (such as *Look!* or *What?*) or single-word answers (such as *Me*), a sentence contains at least two words and consists of a subject and **apredicate**. A simple sentence contains a single clause. A compound sentence contains more than one clause.

Clause- A clause is a group of words that contains a subject and **apredicate**. We can distinguish **main clauses**, which can stand as sentences in their own right, and **subordinate clauses** which cannot.

Phrase- A phrase is a group of words which form a single unit of meaning.

Word- a word is the smallest complete free-standing unit of meaning in a language. Words come into several different categories which we call "**parts of speech**". These are detailed below. The shortest English words are *I* or *a*; the longest English word is...?

Morpheme- a morpheme is the smallest unit of meaning in language. A word may be made up of a single lexical morpheme.

2. Parts of speech or grammatical categories.

These descriptions are deliberately brief. Each of these parts of speech is defined and described in greater detail, with more examples, on its own page. Follow the links.

Adjective— is a word that describes or modifies a noun, or occasionally a pronoun.

Adverb- is a word that describes or modifies a verb, an adjective, another adverb, or occasionally a whole sentence.

Article- is a type of determiner which comes before a noun. In English we distinguish two sorts of articles, the definite article *the*, and the indefinite articles *a* and *an*. Some grammar-books also include the word *some* as an indefinite article.

Conjunction- is a word that is used to link sentences, clauses, phrases or words. The main examples: *and / but / or / yet*.

Noun- is a word that describes an entity (person, item, substance etc) or a process. It is usually preceded by a determiner (article or other determiner) and may be qualified or modified by one or more adjectives, by prepositional phrases, or by another noun.

Preposition- is a short functional word that serves to relate two other words in terms of space, time, manner or other relation. Prepositions are essentially used to introduce a prepositional phrase (like *in the beginning*), or to inflect the meaning of a verb (like *to come in*). Examples: *in / on / under / against / after / with / by*

Pronoun- is a (usually) short word that allows a speaker or writer to refer back to an already-mentioned (or implied) noun, or to a statement, without repeating it.

Verb- is a word that describes an action or a state of being. The verb is the key word in a sentence, and no sentence can exist without one.

3. Structural elements of a sentence

Subject: The subject is the main actor or the main topic of a sentence. In a basic declarative sentence, the subject comes before the verb. The subject may be just a single pronoun or noun, such as *He* or *The cat*; but in many sentences it is may be quite a bit more, including adjectives, prepositional phrases, relative clauses or more.

Predicate: Everything in a sentence that is not the subject. The predicate includes the verb, or verbs, plus any other elements that may be present, notably objects or adverb phrases.

Direct Object: The **direct object** is the entity (person, thing, process) that is directly concerned by the action expressed through the verb, or is the entity that explains the

action or process. It is the complement of a **transitive verb**. It can be a pronoun, a noun, a noun phrase, or more than one of these.

Indirect object: The **indirect object** is the person or entity that is the recipient of the action, or for whom the action is done. When the indirect object follows the direct object, it is introduced with the preposition *to*; but if it precedes the direct object, *to* is omitted.

Main clause. The main clause is the principal clause in a sentence. There can be one main clause or more in a sentence; if this is the case, the main clauses will be separated by a semi-colon (;), or by a coordinating conjunction such as *and*, *but* or *yet*.

Subordinate clause: A **subordinate or dependent clause** cannot exist without a main clause. It is normally introduced by a subordinating **conjunction**, such as *since*, *if*, *because* or *as*, or by a **relative pronoun** such as *who* or *that*.

4. Other grammatical terms A-Z.

Active: In English, most statements are made using the **active voice**. In an active statement, the **subject** is the doer of the action expressed by means of the **verb**.

Apposition: Normally a direct sequence of two nouns, with no intervening preposition, which both refer to the same entity: Examples: *Prince William / The car, a Jaguar, .. The painting, a work by Rembrandt,....* In English, except in titles (such as *Doctor Jekyll*), the second or "apposed" noun requires a determiner, normally an article. Apposition should not be confused with compound nouns, in which two nouns placed next to each other refer to different things; for example *The shop window*.

Aspect: In English, **verbs** can be expressed in two aspects, the **simple aspect** (such as *I drink*) or the **progressive aspect** (such as *I am drinking*).

Attributive: An **adjective** that is **attributive** is one that is placed in front of the noun it qualifies (as in *A good book*). Contrast with adjectives following a copular verb such as *be*, which are called predicative adjectives (as in *This book is good*).

Auxiliary: A verb that comes before a main verb to designate a tense, a modality or the passive voice. The basic auxiliaries are *be* and *have*: modal auxiliaries are *will, shall, may, might, must, can, be able to* and their other forms.

Catenative verbs or consecutive verbs. Verbs that can be followed directly by a second verb, with no intervening noun or pronoun (as in *I like playing football*).

Communication: the object of speech or writing. Communication cannot be successful unless the **producer** (speaker, writer) and the **receiver** (listener, reader) are using the same language **code**. The code consists of two elements: vocabulary (words) and grammar (how those words are organised).

Comparative: a particular meaning that is given to an **adjective** or **adverb** either by adding *-er* to the end of an adjective, or by adding *more* before an adjective or adverb.

Complement: the main element of the predicate after the verb.

Conjunctive adverb: A type of **connector**, a type of *sentence adverb* used to express a particular relationship between a first clause and a second clause that follows. Examples: *Therefore, however, similarly*.

Connector: a word that links two similar items (words, phrases, clauses). Connectors are either conjunctions or conjunctive adverbs.

Coordination: linking two or more elements with similar status in the sentence.

Copular verb: a verb whose **complement** is not an object, but a description of the subject. Examples: *The car is red, I feel sick, The children became very excited*.

Declarative: A declarative sentence is a normal sentence, which is neither an interrogative sentence (question), nor an exclamation, nor an imperative. A declarative sentence can be affirmative or negative. Examples: *The man is sitting on a chair*, and *The man is not sitting on a chair* are both declarative statements.

Determiner: **Determiners** are used at the start of an **noun phrase**. The most common determiners are **articles**; but determiners also include **demonstratives, numerals, or possessive determiners**. All nouns or noun phrases require a determiner unless they are used as generalisations. Examples: *The man is eating his dinner*, and *That man is eating chips*. No determiner is required before *chips*, which is used as a generalisation.

Ellipsis: a statement that is reduced to a minimum number of words, by the elimination of words whose meaning can be implied or inferred. For example, the "*the man in the garden*" can be understood as an ellipsis of "*the man who is in the garden*". Or the simple expression "*London*" can exist as an elliptical sentence in reply to the question "*Where do you live?*" –the elliptical sentence implying the meaning "*I live in London*".

Endings: Also called suffixes, endings are grammatical or functional **morphemes** that are added to the end of word to inflect or change its meaning. Compared to many languages, English has relatively few endings. There are actually only three common endings in English that are used to make inflected forms of a word, without changing its category. These are *-ing*, *-ed*, and *-s* for verbs, and *-s* for nouns. Other endings are used to change the grammatical category of a word, for example *-ness* or *-ity* that form nouns from adjectives, or *-ful* or *-less* that form adjectives from nouns.

Finite verb: a finite verb is a verb that is dependent on a subject, and is, after the subject, the other essential element of any clause or sentence. Finite verbs have tense, number (singular or plural) and person (1st, 2nd or 3rd). They are different to non-finite verbs, notably participles and infinitives, which cannot be the main verb of a clause or sentence.

Gerund: a Gerund is a type of *-ing word*.

Gradable: adjectives are called **gradable** if they can be modified by an **intensifier** such as *very*, *quite* or *extremely*. Most adjectives are gradable, but some are not. For example, we can say *A rather expensive car* or *The children became very excited*, but we cannot say *John has a very electric car*. A car is electric, or it is not electric. It cannot be *very electric*, or *quite electric*. Sometimes people use intensifiers to modify adjectives that are in theory ungradable: this is usually done for emphasis. In theory one cannot grade the adjective *impossible*. Something is either *impossible*, or it is not *impossible*; yet people often qualify the adjective *impossible* with adverbs such as *quite*, *absolutely* or *really*.

Grammar: The corpus of rules and principles that describe how a language is used or should be used. Grammar can be **prescriptive** (telling people what is correct and

what is not), or **descriptive** (describing what how people actually use language). Grammar is constantly evolving, but it does so more slowly than vocabulary. As well as traditional grammar, linguists have developed other types of grammar to better analyse language, such as transformational grammar, as theorised by Noam Chomsky, or generative grammar.

Imperative: the form of the verb that we use when we give an order or a command.

Indicative: In English, almost all verbs are used in the indicative mood. The subjunctive, the other principal mood, is rare.

Intensifier: a type of adverb that is used to give extra force to the meaning of an adjective. Examples: *very / extremely / most / highly*

Metalinguage: in linguistics, the words and expressions used to describe language itself. The expressions explained on this page are the essential terms used to describe language in English.

Modal verb: Modal verbs, or modal auxiliaries, such as *can* or *must*, are used to express possibility, obligation, probability or futurity.

Modify: in grammar, the word *modify* most commonly means to give a specific meaning to a noun or verb. Modifiers include adjectives, adverbs and prepositional phrases.

Mood: In English there are two moods, the indicative and the subjunctive. The subjunctive is very rarely used.

Passive: A passive sentence is one in which the subject is the topic of the action, not the actor or agent. Example: *The tree was blown over by the wind.* In this example, the actor or agent of the action is *the wind*.

Predicate: one of the two essential constituents of a sentence, the other one being the **subject**. The predicate is made up of everything in the sentence that is not contained in the subject. In a normal affirmative sentence, it follows the subject. It must contain a verb.

Punctuation: an aspect of syntax, punctuation consists of a small number of symbols that are used to delimit, when necessary, words, phrases or sentences.

Quantifier: A quantifier is a type of **determiner** that expresses an imprecise or undefined quantity; it can be contrasted with a number that expresses a precise quantity. Quantifiers include words such as *some, many, a few, several*.

Relative: A **relative clause** is a clause introduced by a **relative pronoun** such as *who, which, whose* etc.

Subject: the actor or topic of a sentence. In a simple sentence, the subject comes first, before the **predicate**.

Suffix: a morpheme (element of meaning) added to the end of a word.

Style: the manner in which ideas are expressed as words. Style can be anything from formal to informal, or oral to written.

Superlative: the highest degree of an adjective or adverb. Superlatives are formed either by adding *-est* to an **adjective**, or by adding the word *most* before an adjective or an **adverb**.

Syllable: in phonetics, a unit of sound. Some words are monosyllables, with just one unit of sound, for example *I, egg, boy, this, stand*; other words are made up of two or more syllables, for example *nation, basket, given, complicated*.

Syntax: an aspect of grammar, syntax deals with the way in which words are organised and ordered. It includes word order and punctuation.

Tense: tenses are specific forms of verbs which are used to situate an action in time. According to the current convention in modern linguistics, English just has two tenses, the present tense and the past tense; but this is just one way of classifying tenses in English, and not necessarily the most logical way. For purposes of simplicity and clarity, many books and language teachers use the word tense in a much broader sense, to describe each of the different forms of a verb used to denote a different time frame – as is accepted practice for languages like French Spanish or Ukrainian. It is important to understand that there is no absolute truth. Saying that there are two tenses in English is not any more accurate, nor more exact, than saying there are six tenses, or even twelve tenses. It depends on the criteria used to define the notion of "tense". English verbs come in different forms and different aspects, so for example in the *two-tense model*, the English present **tense** is a single tense with

four **forms**, the present simple and the present progressive, the present perfect simple and the present perfect progressive. In the *six-tense model*, these are six different tenses, each with two aspects; and in the *twelve-tense model*, there are twelve tenses.

Transitive: Verbs are either **transitive** or **intransitive**. Some verbs are always one or the other, some verbs can be either depending on their use. A transitive verb is a verb that must have a direct object. Example: *The dog was barking / The dog was eating a bone*. In the first example, *barking* is intransitive. It cannot take an object. In the second example, *eating* is used transitively, because there is an object *bone*. The verb *eat* can also be used intransitively, i.e. with no object, as in: *The dog was eating*.

Voice: A key factor describing the way in which a verb is used. There are two voices, the **active** and the **passive**.

REFERENCES

- 1) Abney, S. P. 1987. The English Noun Phrase in its Sentential Aspect. PhD thesis, Massachusetts Institute of Technology, Cambridge, Ma.
- 2) Allen, V.F. (1983) Techniques in teaching vocabulary. Oxford University Press, Oxford.
- 3) Belcher and G. Braine, pp. 183-204. Ablex, Norwood, NJ.
- 4) Berry, R. (1991) Re-articulating the articles. *ELTJournal* 145(3), 252-259.
- 5) Berry, Roger, 1993. English Guides, Articles, Harper-Collins Publishers, Birmingham
- 6) Bonami O., Godard D., Kampers-Manhe B. Controversial Adverb classification [Электроний ресурс – Режим доступа: <http://citeseerx.ist.psu.edu/viewdo/download?doi=10.1.1.2.4045&rep=rep1&type=pdf>]
- 7) Borsley, R. to appear. Subjects, complements, and specifiers in HPSG. In R. D. Levine and G. Green (Eds.), *Readings in Head-Driven Phrase Structure Grammar*. Stanford: CSLI Publications.
- 8) Bouma, G. 1993. *Nonmonotonicity and Categorical Unification Grammar*. PhD thesis, Rijksuniversiteit Groningen.
- 9) Bryony Sh. Pronouns[^] Male, Female and Undersigned [Электроний ресурс – Режим доступа: https://www.jstor.org/stable/42579471?seq=1#page_scan_tab_contents]
- 10) Chesterman, A. (1991) *On definiteness: A study with special reference to English and Finnish*. Cambridge University Press, Cambridge, UK.
- 11) Collins, W. (1977) (orig. pub 1864 -1866) *Armada*&. Dover Publications, Inc., New York.
- 12) Conrad, J. (1913) *Chance*. Bantam Books, New York.
- 13) Elly van Gelderen *The Linguistic Cycle: Language Change and the Language Faculty*. Oxford: Oxford University Press. 2011: xx and 439 pages.
- 14) Evans G. *Linguistic Inquiry* Volume 11 Number 2 (Spring, 1980) 337-362

- 15) Fillmore, C. and P. Kay. to appear. *Construction Grammar*. Stanford: CSLI Publications.
- 16) Harley, B. (1993) *Instructional strategies and SLA in early French immersion*. *SSLA* 15(2), 245-259.
- 17) Hewson, J. (1972) *Article and noun in English*. Mouton, The Hague.
- 18) InchaurrealdeBesga C. *Modals and Modality in English* [Электроний ресурс – Режим доступу: <http://www.miscelaneajournal.net/images/stories/articulos/vol16/inchaurrealde16.pdf>]
- 19) Jørgensen, E. 1981. Gerund and to-infinitives after ‘it is (of) no use’, ‘it is no good’, and ‘it is useless’. *English Studies* 62:156–163.
- 20) Kovalchuk T. *The category of moods: problems and solutions* [Электроний ресурс – Режим доступу: <http://dspace.onu.edu.ua:8080/handle/123456789/2055>]
- 21) KudratovaSh.R. *The category of modality in text interpretation* [Электроний ресурс – Режим доступу: <http://moluch.ru/archive/118/32835/>]
- 22) Lapointe, S. G. 1993. Dual lexical categories and the syntax of mixed category phrases. In A. Kathol and M. Bernstein (Eds.), *Proceedings of the Eastern States Conference of Linguistics*, 199–210.
- 23) Lavrentev S. *Semantic classification of adverbs* [Электроний ресурс – Режим доступу: <http://elib.bsu.by/bitstream/123456789/159088/1/74-80.pdf>]
- 24) Marks J. *Moods and Modality* [Электроний ресурс – Режим доступу: <http://www.onestopenglish.com/methodology/teaching-tips/ask-the-experts/grammar-questions/grammar-mood-and-modality-1/153931.article>]
- 25) Master, P. (1990) *Teaching the English articles as a binary system*. *TESOL Quarterly* 24(2), 461-478.
- 26) Master, P. (1992) *The zero article in English*. Paper presented at the CATESOL State Conference, Sacramento, California, April 3, 1992.

- 27) Master. P. (1995) Consciousness raising and article pedagogy. In Academic writing in a second language, ed. D.
- 28) Morell J.D. The analysis of sentences explained and systematize. with an exposition on the fundamental laws of syntax.
- 29) Palmer F. R. Modality and the English Modals / Palmer., 1990. – (Taylor & Francis). – (Second Edition).
- 30) Pollard, C. and I. A. Sag. 1994. Head-Driven Phrase Structure Grammar. Stanford: University of Chicago Press and CSLI Publications.
- 31) Pullum, G. K. 1991. English nominal gerund phrases as noun phrases with verb-phrase heads. *Linguistics* 29:763–799.
- 32) Quirk, R., S. Greenbaum, G. Leech, and J. Svartvik. 1985. A Comprehensive Grammar of the English Language. London: Longman.
- 33) Reuland, E. 1983. Governing -ing. *Linguistic Inquiry* 14:101–136.
- 34) Rodríguez-Navarro L. Q. Henry Sweet and American Structuralism: a brief comparision [Электроний ресурс – Режим доступу: Rodríguez-Navarro L. Q. Henry Sweet and American Structuralism: a brief comparision //Para, por y sobre Luis Quereda. – Universidad de Granada, 2010. – С. 273-288.]
- 35) Sag, I. A. to appear. English relative clause constructions. *Journal of Linguistics*.
- 36) Science news of the year: Biology (1985) *Science News* 128:26, 27:420.
- 37) Shieber, S. M. 1986. A simple reconstruction of GPSG. In Proceedings of the Eleventh International Conference on Computational Linguistics (COLING-86), 211–215, Bonn, Germany.
- 38) Sinclair, J. M. (ed.) (1991) *Corpus, concordance, collocation*. Oxford University Press, Oxford, UK.
- 39) Tagawa H. Traditional Word-Classification With Special Reference to Sweet's Scheme of Classification [Электроний ресурс – Режим доступу: Tagawa H. Traditional Word-Classification With Special Reference to

- Sweet's Scheme of Classification //金城学院大学論集. 英米文学特集. – 1976. – Т. 18. – С. 127-138.]
- 40) Tagawa H. Jespersen's Scheme of Word-Classification [Электроний ресурс – Режим доступа: Tagawa H. Jespersen's Scheme of Word-Classification //金城学院大学論集. 英米文学編. – 1978. – Т. 19. – С. 123-136.]
- 41) VanPatten, B. and Cadierno, T. (1993) Explicit instruction and input processing. *SSLA* 15(2), 225-243.
- 42) Wescoat, M. T. 1994. Phrase structure, lexical sharing, partial ordering, and the English gerund. In S. Gahl, A. Dolbey, and C. Johnson (Eds.), *Proceedings of the Berkeley Linguistics Society*, Vol. 20, 587–598.
- 43) Westney, P. (1994) Rules and pedagogical grammar. In *Perspectives in pedagogical grammar*, ed. T. Odlin, pp. 72-96. Cambridge University Press, Cambridge, UK.
- 44) Zwicky, A. M., and G. K. Pullum. 1996. Functional restriction: English possessives. Paper presented at 1996 LSA meeting.
- 45) <https://web.stanford.edu/~kiparsky/Papers/semanticsfest.pdf>
- 46) <https://web.stanford.edu/~kiparsky>
- 47) <https://www.quora.com/What-is-the-difference-between-telic-and-atelic-verbs>
- 48) <http://www.utoronto.ca/~binnick/old%20tense/Reich.html>
- 49) <http://www.onestopenglish.com>
- 50) <http://www.scribophile.com/academy/passive-and-active-voice>
- 51) <https://pdfs.semanticscholar.org>
- 52) <http://studopedia.org/index.php?vol=1&post=13673>

Навчальне видання

БАРКАСІ В. В.
МОРОЗ Т. О.
НІКІФОРЧУК С. С.

**ТЕОРЕТИЧНА ГРАМАТИКА
АНГЛІЙСЬКОЇ МОВИ**

*Навчально-методичний посібник
для змішаної форми навчання*

*Формат 60x84¹/₁₆. Умовн. друк. арк. 12,5.
Тираж 100 пр. Зам. № 729-134.*

ВИГОТОВЛЮВАЧ
Поліграфічне підприємство СПД Румянцева Г. В.
54038, м. Миколаїв, вул. Бузника, 5/1.
Свідоцтво МК № 11 від 26.01.2007 р.