

Сумський державний педагогічний університет ім. А.С. Макаренка

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# **ТЕОРЕТИЧНІ ОСНОВИ ГРАМАТИКИ СУЧАСНОЇ АНГЛІЙСЬКОЇ МОВИ**

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**К56 Теоретичні основи граматики сучасної англійської мови.** Навчальний посібник для студентів факультетів іноземних мов педагогічних вузів (англійською мовою). - Суми: СумДПУ ім. А.С. Макаренка, 2003. - 148 с.

У посібнику викладено загальні положення сучасної граматичної теорії, розглядаються основні поняття морфології, синтаксису, прагматики, теорії мовленнєвих актів, а також аналізу дискурсу.

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## GRAMMAR IN THE SYSTEMATIC CONCEPTION OF LANGUAGE

1. Basic Approaches to Language.
  - a) Main Assumptions of the External Analysis of Language.
  - b) Basic Assumptions of Internal Analysis of Language.
2. The Language and Speech Planes.
3. Types and Kinds of Systemic Relations.

There are two main directions in the systemic approach to language: *external* and *internal*.

When viewed externally human language is characterized as a functional system which is used intentionally by the humans with quite particular functional design.

Human language is a functional system of semiotic nature. It is a semiotic system, i.e. a system of informative signs. Despite the fact that human language is a semiotic system it differs essentially from artificial semiotic systems which are codes. The use of codes is situationally conditioned. Semiotic signs are artificial. They are mere indications or marks of extra-lingual phenomena.

Linguistic signs are not artificial, though they are arbitrary to some extent. Linguistic signs are denotators of extra-lingual phenomena. It follows that linguistic signs possess denotative ability, they can denote extra-lingual phenomena.

Opinions differ as to the number of functions of language but the two main functions of human language are commonly recognized, the *communicative* function and the *expressive* or *representative* (cognitive or thought forming). These are not independent functions of language because the expressive function is realized in the process of communication and cognition. The communicative function of language is in fact the synthesis of all other functions of language. The functions of language are realized under quite definite condition and their realization is predetermined by particular extra-lingual and intra-lingual facts.

The expressive function of language is realized through the interrelation of language and thought. Human language is the representation or explication of some conceptual content and it is verbalized in the process of verbal thinking. There are two different ways in which the expressive function of language can be realized: nomination and signification.

*Nomination* is the function of linguistic nominators, i.e. of linguistic nominative units, which possess denotative power and nominative ability. They



represent conceptual content by way of nomination, i.e. they give names to what they denote. The function of denotation is a complex function of the nominative units of language. It includes: reflection, designation or nomination.

The nominative units of language can be of different linguistic status, they can be words, word groups and even sentences. The core of the nominative system of language is represented by the notional words which function as denotators, nominators and designators of their extra-lingual reference.

*Signification* is the function of linguistic signs which can be defined as grammatical devices. This function is performed by the so-called signifiers which are devoid of denotative ability. They do not denote anything but signify some conceptual content.

The whole system of the nominative and significative devices makes up the so-called lexico-grammatical field which comprises lexical and grammatical linguistic means of expression. This or that conceptual content can be expressed lexically or grammatically. When it is expressed lexically it is denoted or nominated by the notional lexical units.

The main communicative function is realized under the conditions of the so-called communicative context. There are two types of communicative context which regulate and condition the effectiveness of speech communication.

*The macro communicative context* is the social and cultural background which cannot but influence the realization of the communicative function of language.

*The micro or the immediate context* is nothing but the objective speech situation in which the act of speech communication takes place. The speech situation can be conventionally subdivided into three spheres with particular central components in each of them:

1. *The sphere of speaking.* The speaker himself is the centre of the sphere. This central component has several parameters which characterize the speaker as the main communicant. It is possible to distinguish the following aspects of speaking. First of all the communicative intention of the speaker. When speaking we realize our communicative intention. It means we say what we want. The communicative intention of the speaker is the main factor which predetermines the process of speaking and the formation of the utterance. Some other aspects of speaking should be taken into consideration as well, e.g. the state of mind of the speaker, his psychological state, his emotions, etc.

2. *The sphere of hearing with the addressee in its center* is isomorphic with the sphere of speaking. In other words the process of hearing and speaking are converse but alike.

3. *The sphere of the product of speech* is the sphere of the utterance or of the text. It is important that all of the parameters of the speech situation are reflected in the text this way or another.

The systemic approach to language leads to the recognition of the systemic nature of human language. The systemic characteristics are found in the internal organization of language and in the lingual objects themselves. The two notions *system* and *structure* are commonly used for the internal analysis of language. The system is a synthesizing notion which implies the consideration of a complex object as a whole consisting of separate parts.

*Language is a system.* It is characterized as an orderly arrangement of cognate elements interrelated in the whole. The elements of a system are identified as components of a multitude which is systemically ordered. The elements of the system of language possess the so-called systemic value as the members of the given system. Their systemic value reveals itself through the systemic relations in which the elements of the system stand. The system of language itself displays systemic features in the mode of its organization. Any system is a nuclear arrangement. It means that it has the nucleus or the core and the peripheral elements. The core of the language system is represented by the stock of nominative units. The system of language is segmented into several subsystems, such as: *lexicon* or *vocabulary*, *grammar* and *phonetics*. From this point of view the grammar of a language is a system of grammatical means of expression which are used in a given language for the derivation of linguistic units, for the formation of linguistic constructions, for the establishment and marking the relations between linguistic elements.

*Language is considered to be the structure.* The notion of structure implies the hierarchical organization of linguistic units. The elements of the structure are identified as the constituents of the whole. Language as a structure is a perfect hierarchical organization which is built up of the linguistic units of different linguistic status. There are no gaps in the structure of language. It is a spiral organization in which lower units build the upper units.

Language units are divided into segmental and supra-segmental. Segmental units consist of phonemes, they form phonemic strings of various status (morphemes, words, phrases, sentences, texts). Supra-segmental units do not exist by themselves, but are realized together with the segmental units. They express

different modificational meanings of segmental units. To the supra-segmental units belong intonation, pauses, accent, patterns of word-order.

There are three levels which are commonly recognized in the structure of language. But there are some intermediate cases as well. Every structural level of language is represented by the corresponding level unit which embodies the distinguishing features of the elements of the level.

1. *The phonological level* is the lowest language level. It is represented by the phoneme which is the phonological level unit. It possesses its own distinguishing features. Namely, phonemes are the distinctive units of language. They are not meaningful. Therefore they are not signs (e.g. sheep - ship).

2. *The morphological level* of language has two sub-levels: the sub-level of the morpheme and that of the word. In fact the main morphological unit is the word itself because morphemes exist only as the meaningful parts of the word. So the morpheme is the lowest meaningful unit and the word is the main nominative unit of language.

3. *The syntactic level* of language is the highest structural level. It is the level of the communicative units of language. That is why the syntactic level unit should possess communicative value. At the same time the syntactic level is segmented in two different sub-levels: the sub-level of the phrase or word-group and sub-level of the sentence. Accordingly there are two types of syntactic studies: the minor syntax which studies the word-group, and major syntax which studies the sentence.

The so-called supra syntactic level is sometimes distinguished in the range of structural levels of language. This level is assumed to be the highest structural level, the units of which possess their own features of predicative, structural and modal character (see Table 1).

Thus, there are six levels of language, each identified by its own functional type of segmental units. The level stratification of the language structure shows that language is a highly complex constitution incorporating interrelated and interdependent units

Table 1

### The hierarchy of language

Level	Unit of the level	Nature of the unit	Peculiarities of the unit
phonemic	phoneme	distinctive	- the phoneme has no meaning; - it only differentiates morphemes and words; - it is not a sign
morphemic	morpheme	meaningful	- the morpheme is the elementary meaningful part of a word; - it expresses abstract meanings which are used for the formation of more concrete nominative meanings
lexemic	word	nominative	- the word is a direct name of things; - it consists of morphemes
phrasemic	phrase	polynominative	- the phrase is a combination of two or more notional words; - it represents the referent as a complicated phenomenon
proposemic	sentence	predicative, communicative	- the sentence expresses predication, i.e. shows the relation of the denoted event to reality; - it is a concrete situationally bound utterance
supra-proposemic	text	supra-communicative	- text is the highest language unit; - the textual unity is a combination of separate sentences

### The Language and Speech Planes

The principle of sphericity which is common in modern linguistics is used nowadays for the differentiation of the two planes of the human language matter. The problem of language and speech is of philosophical significance. The ontological status of lingual phenomena is established when they are regarded as the matters pertaining either to the plane of “language” or to the plane of “speech”.

The differentiation of the language and speech planes is justified because the nature of language is revealed through the correlation and opposition of its parts as

real versus ideal, actual versus potential. The elements of the sphere of language are abstract and general. They are constructs which cannot be described in physical terms of concrete sounds, concrete word-forms or utterances. They exist only if actualized and manifested by their speech counterparts. The elements of the speech plane are actual and absolutely real. They occur as the actualizations and manifestations of the phenomena of the sphere of language. In other words the elements of language are actualized by their speech manifestations, by their concrete speech variants. Modern linguistics worked out special terminology for the designation of the elements and phenomena pertaining to the sphere of language or to that of speech. The elements of language are commonly called -eme-units because their names are usually derived with the help of the suffix -eme: phoneme, morpheme, lexeme, opposeme, texteme. The elements of the sphere of speech are called -allo-units: allophones, allomorphs, etc. Besides, the pairs of terms should be used accurately for the differentiation of the matters of language and of speech.

Compare:

word	word-form
sentence	utterance
texteme	text

The first of these terms are the names of the elements of the sphere of language, the rest of them are the designations of the speech phenomena.

Language is a system of means of expression, while speech should be understood as the manifestation of the system of language in the process of intercourse.

The system of language includes the body of material units (phonemes, morphemes, etc.) and the regularities of their usage in speaking. Speech comprises both the act of producing utterances and the utterances themselves, i.e. the text.

Grammar being an integral part of language macrosystem connects language with speech, because it determines the process of utterance production. E.g.:

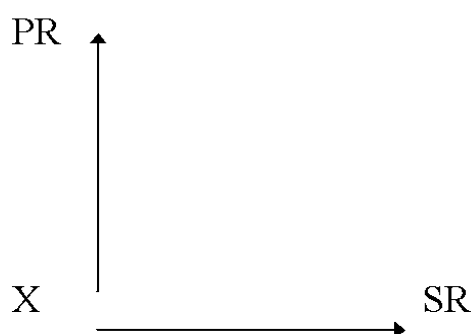
In the grammatical system of English on the phrasemic level there is a pattern:  $D + A + N$ . This is a language fact. But in building concrete phrases of the same pattern: a very pale girl, an extremely interesting film, a very quiet rain. The speaker fills this pattern with the words expressing his thoughts and feelings. This is a fact of speech.

Thus, language is a system of signs, while speech is the use of signs. The unit in the system of language has only a potential meaning. In speech the potential meaning of the sign is actualized, i.e. it is made situationally significant.

Language and Speech as two planes of a dialectical unity are correlative notions. It means that there is nothing in speech that is not given in language and there is nothing in language that is not realized in speech.

### **Types and Kinds of Systemic Relations**

Language is a system in which the elements are interrelated. Their interrelations reveal their systemic value. Linguistic elements have no value apart from the system. Their systemic value can be conceived only through their systemic relations. It is assumed that linguistic elements exist always as the members of certain classes and as the elements of certain sequences. Thus, the two types of systemic relations should be distinguished: *paradigmatic* (PR) and *syntagmatic* (SR). It means that any element of language stands in two relations of the type, in paradigmatic relations as a member of a class, and syntagmatic relations as an element of a sequence.



### **Paradigmatic Relations (PR)**

PR are the systemic relations because the systemic value of linguistic elements is realized through the establishment of such relations. They exist between the members of a class. Thus, they reveal the class membership of a linguistic unit. The principles on which the classes of linguistic units can be formed are different. Accordingly, the PR are different in nature because they reflect the character of linguistic classes. The PR are based on the relative substitutionability of linguistic elements because the elements which stand in these relations can not occur in speech at a time. They can substitute one for another. The PR are associative in nature because the classes of linguistic units are usually formed on the principle of association. The principle of association presupposes the existence of the invariant feature, characteristic of all the elements of a class. The element which displays this invariant feature is commonly defined as a dominant of the class. The rest elements

of the class can have some specific distinguishing features. They are said to be marked formally or semantically. There are several kinds of PR.

**PR1 (*semantic*)**. These are the relations which exist between the members of semantic groupings (synonyms, antonyms, topical connections): e.g. *beautiful, pretty, handsome; bed, chair, table, bookcase*. The elements which stand in these relations are combined into lexical or lexico-grammatical classes. These relations are based on semantic similarity.

**PR2 (*formal*)**. These relations are the relations between the members of formal classes, i.e. between the elements whose association into class is based on their formal features. Such PR are found between the members of a paradigm. Traditionally the paradigm is defined as the set of grammatical forms of one and the same word. In modern grammar the notion of the paradigm is extended to syntax and word-building. The members of the paradigm that is the paradigmatic forms have the paradigmatic markers, characteristic of each of the paradigmatic forms. In fact, the paradigm is made up of the paradigm markers themselves. E.g.:

a) categorial paradigm:

<i>boy</i>	<i>clever</i>	<i>go</i>
<i>boy's</i>	<i>cleverer</i>	<i>went</i>
<i>boys</i>	<i>cleverest</i>	<i>shall/will go</i>
<i>boys'</i>		

b) word-building paradigm:

*worker*  
*teacher*  
*reader*

c) syntactic paradigm:

*They live in London.*  
*They do live in London.*  
*Do they live in London?*  
*They don't live in London.*

**PR3 (*functional*)**. These are the relations of functional character. They exist between the members of functional classes. They are based on the similarity of functional design of the members of the class. The nominative and other grammatical characteristics of the member of the class are not taken into consideration. There is a class of function words which have quite definite functional design. They are used for the determination of a class membership of linguistic units and are called determiners. The class of noun determiners in English

comprises articles and article-like elements: possessive pronouns, demonstrative pronouns, indefinite, etc.

<i>a</i> <i>the</i> <i>this</i> <i>that</i> <i>all</i> <i>some</i>	         	book (s)	all these elements have the identical functional feature. They are noun determiners. Thus, they stand to one another in PR <sub>3</sub> .
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**PR<sub>4</sub> (*functional* and *semantic*).** They are observed in the form-classes, elements of which are characterized by functional and semantic similarity.

*The boy is here.*

*He is here.*

*All are here.*

*Three are here.*

*The boy, he, all, three* belong to the same lexico-syntactical grouping which is called noun-like elements. They are characterized by the identical syntactical and semantic properties of the noun.

### **Syntagmatic Relations (SR)**

SR are systemic relations because the systemic value of a linguistic element is realized through such relations. SR exist between the elements linearly ordered. That is why linearity in displaying the linguistic elements is the main factor,

which regulates the establishment of SR. Syntagmatic relations are not cognate. They can be of different status. The SR are found both in the sphere of language and in the speech. There are different types of SR which are distinguished on the logical grounds. The three of them are distinguished primarily:

1. *SR of independence;*
2. *SR of dependence;*
3. *SR of interdependence.*

These relations are revealed at different language levels because different units of language units can get into such relations: phonemes, morphemes, words, phrases, clauses, sentences and even paragraphs.

*The SR of independence* are established as a result of conjoining or conjunction of elements. The elements which are conjoined are homogeneous, equal in rank and relatively independent. SR of independence are found at different levels:



a) at the morphemic level: *flop - flop*;

b) at the phrasemic level: *boys and girls*;

c) at the proposemic level: *The girls decorated the hall and the boys illuminated it*. In syntax the process of conjunction is called coordination.

*The SR of dependence* are established as the result of syntagmatic process of adjunction. The adjunction implies the adjoinment of a dependent element to the governing one. The governing element is usually identified in syntax as the head. The dependent element on the contrary is identified as the adjunct. Elements that stand in SR of dependence are not equal in rank, one depends on the other. SR of dependence are represented in syntax by subordination. These relations are also found at different levels:

a) at the morphemic level: *teach-er*. Derivative words are in fact adjunctive words because the derivational affix is a dependent morpheme whereas the root or the stem is the independent part of morphological construction.

b) at the phrasemic level: *to teach English; an interesting report; to come home; to go quickly; the text to analyze*.

c) at the proposemic level: *She said that she would come the next day. When she saw me, she came up quickly*.

*SR of interdependence* are found between the constituents of predicative constructions in syntax. Elements which stand in SR of interdependence are interdependent in the whole. E. g.: *I want you to go there*.

(*I - want*) - primary predication.

(*you - to go*) - secondary predication.

## BASIC GRAMMATICAL NOTIONS

1. Grammatical Meaning and its Types.
2. Grammatical Form.
3. The Notion of Grammatical Opposition.
4. Grammatical Categories.

The basic grammatical notions are: grammatical category, grammatical meaning, grammatical form, grammatical opposition.

Grammatical category is a unity of grammatical meaning and grammatical form. That is why it seems reasonable to begin the study of basic grammatical notions with the components of the grammatical category. The grammatical category is an integral notion in relation to grammatical meaning, form and opposition.

### Grammatical Meaning

Peculiarities of grammatical meaning are more evident if we compare them with the peculiar features of the lexical meaning.

The lexical meaning of the word is the real content of a notional word which reflects a certain object or phenomenon of the objective extralinguistic world. E.g.:

*The student is writing a letter.*

In the cited sentence all notional elements have their own lexical meaning:

*the student* is a man who studies at the Institute or University;

*to write* is a certain action;

*a letter* is a definite object of reality.

Thus, the lexical meaning is characterized as:

- concrete, because it reflects a certain object of reality;
- individual as each notional word has its own meaning different from the meaning of other words;
- having no special markers of expression.

The lexical meaning is expressed by the root of the word: move-ment.

The grammatical meaning is a generalized rather abstract meaning which unites large groups of words and is always expressed by special formal markers or in opposition by the absence of markers. E.g.:

substantivity is the grammatical meaning of the noun;

verbiability (action, process) is the grammatical meaning of the verb.

The important property of the grammatical meaning is the fact that is not named in the word. It is revealed through the formal signals when they are joined to the stems of notional words. E.g.:

-s- morpheme being combined with noun stems expresses the grammatical meaning of plurality;

-er- morpheme in combination with adjective stems renders the grammatical meaning of the comparative degree.

A notional word may have several grammatical meanings. E.g.: *the student* alongside of the lexical meaning expresses the grammatical meaning of substantivity, number (singular), case (common). Thus, the grammatical meaning coexists in a word with the lexical meaning. But it doesn't mean that the grammatical meaning is dependent on the lexical one. Grammatical meanings may be characterized as independent of lexical ones, as not determined by the lexical meaning.

The peculiar features of the grammatical meaning are:

- 1) It is abstract because grammatical meaning expresses general notions.
- 2) It is general as it reflects the quality pertaining to the whole class of words.
- 3) It is abstracted from the lexical meaning.
- 4) It is closely connected with the lexical meaning but is independent of it.
- 5) It is formally expressed (by special markers in their combination with stems of notional words).

Grammatical meanings may be classified according to the two basic criteria: 1) the way (form) of its expression; 2) the relation of the grammatical meaning to the objective reality.

In accord with the form of expression grammatical meanings may be subdivided into: *explicit* and *implicit*.

*Explicit* grammatical meaning has the form of its own, it is grammatically expressed or morphologically marked by special markers or in the opposition by the absence of signals. The explicit grammatical meaning is always categorial because it is reproduced regularly in a certain grammatical category, e.g.: *boy - boys*. The meaning of the singular and plural number is explicit because it is morphologically marked: in the first case by the zero number morpheme, in the second - by the positive number morpheme -s.

The explicit grammatical meaning can be either synthetically (plurality of nouns, the genitive case of nouns) or analytically (passive voice, continuous aspect, perfect correlation) expressed.

*Implicit* grammatical meaning does not have a special form of its expression. It is inherent in a word but it is not grammatically or morphologically marked. The implicit grammatical meanings may be of two kinds.

The implicit general meaning is the part of speech meaning. This meaning is characterized by such fundamental feature as being the quality of the whole class of words (substantivity, verbiality, adverbiality).

The implicit dependent meaning as well as the implicit general one has no special form of its constant representation. It is revealed through systematic interaction with a grammatical category the realization of which it favours or restricts, e.g.:

Animateness / Unanimateness. These meanings are:

- 1) grammatical, because they are typical not of individual words but of certain subclasses (groups) of words;
- 2) implicit as they have no special formal markers of their expression;
- 3) dependent, because their expression depends on the interrelation with the grammatical category of case;
- 4) they influence the realization of the grammatical category of case.

Thus, the implicit dependent meaning is of great grammatical value as it influences the realization of the grammatical category. The implicit grammatical meaning is the meaning not of the whole class of words but of a subclass of a given part of speech.

According to the relation of the grammatical meanings to the objective reality they are classified into: extralingual and intralingual.

Extralingual meaning is the grammatical meaning which is conditioned by situational factors and extralingually motivated. In this case the choice of grammatical forms representing this or that grammatical meaning is free, e.g.:

*Give me a book.*

*Give me the book.*

The articles serve to express the grammatical meaning of definiteness / indefiniteness. This meaning is extralingual because the use of the grammatical means expressing this meaning is conditioned either by the situation (to present an object as a familiar one, or as unknown) or by the speaker's intention (extralingually).

Intralingual meaning is the grammatical meaning which is grammatically conditioned and intralingually motivated. The choice of grammatical forms expressing this meaning is bound. The intralingual meaning can be observed in the following cases:

1) When there is only one word-form for the realization of the grammatical meaning: *The news is alarming.*

2) When the grammatical meaning is conditioned by a syntactic construction. The choice of the grammatical form is syntactically predetermined: *I saw him* (the meaning of the objective case of the personal pronoun *he* is conditioned by the syntactic structure *V + Pr.*).

3) When the choice of the form correlates with the lexical meaning of the word and the grammatical form is predetermined by it: *Yesterday I saw him in the theatre*. The grammatical meaning of the tense of the predicate is conditioned by the lexical meaning of the word *yesterday* which can be associated only with the past tense.

### **The Grammatical Form**

The grammatical form is a means of expressing the grammatical meaning. The grammatical meaning may be expressed only by the grammatical form (word-form). The grammatical form is the combination of the stem of a word with the word changing morpheme (inflectional). It follows from the definition that the grammatical form is a word having in its morphological composition the word changing morpheme which sometimes may be a zero morpheme, e.g.: *speak, speaks, spoke, speaking*. These are grammatical forms of the lexeme *speak*, because each of the words has the stem (which expresses the lexical meaning) and the word changing morpheme (which is the bearer of the grammatical meaning). On the other hand, such words as *there, always, because* are not grammatical forms because they are devoid of word changing morphemes in their structural composition.

In modern English grammatical forms can be made synthetically and analytically. Synthetic grammatical forms are built up by means of:

inflection (external: *street - streets*; internal: *foot - feet*);

monoinflection (*Mary's room*);

suppletivity (combining different roots: *good - better - best*).

Analytical grammatical forms consist of at least two words: one of them is notional (having full lexical meaning), the second is auxiliary: *is writing, has been written, shall / will go*.

### **The Grammatical Opposition**

The grammatical opposition is a generalized correlation of grammatical forms by means of which a certain grammatical category is expressed. The correlated elements (members) of the opposition are called opposeemes. Opposeemes possess two types of features: common and differential.

Common features serve as the basis of contrast, while differential features immediately express the category.

The oppositional theory was originally formulated as a phonological theory. The main qualitative types of oppositions were established in phonology: *private, gradual, equipollent*.

By the number of members contrasted, oppositions are divided into binary and more than binary.

The most important type of opposition in morphology is the *binary private* opposition. The private morphological opposition is based on a morphological differential feature which is present in its strong (marked, positive) member and is absent in its weak (unmarked, negative) member. E.g.: *love - loved* is based on a private opposition the differential feature of which is *-ed*. This suffix rendering the meaning of the past tense marks the past form positively and the present form negatively.

*Equipollent* oppositions in the system of English morphology constitute a minor type and are mostly confined to formal relations only. An example of such an opposition can be seen in the correlation of the person forms of the verb *to be*: *am - are - is*.

*Gradual* oppositions in morphology are not generally recognized, in principle they can be identified as a minor type on the semantic level only. An example of the gradual morphological opposition can be seen in the category of degrees of comparison: *strong - stronger - the strongest*.

### **The Grammatical Category**

The grammatical category is the opposition between mutually exclusive grammatical forms expressing general grammatical meaning: *table - tables; boy - boys*. The opposition of these two grammatical forms having different word changing morphemes (zero and positive *-s*) expresses the grammatical category of number in English nouns. It follows from the above given definition that:

1) The grammatical category is a set of grammatical forms standing in opposition. There is no grammatical category outside the grammatical opposition.

2) The grammatical category is represented by mutually exclusive grammatical forms. One and the same word-form (grammatical form) can't express different private grammatical meanings within the same grammatical category. There is no grammatical form of nouns that can be at the same time the singular number form and the plural number form (*sheep, put - are* grammatical homonyms).

3) One and the same grammatical form can constitute different grammatical oppositions with other forms:

*writes - wrote* (the category of tense)

*writes - write* (the category of person)

*writes - has written* (the category of correlation)

*writes - is writing* (the category of aspect)

*writes - is written* (the category of voice)

## BASIC MORPHOLOGICAL NOTIONS

1. The Notion of Morph. Its Types.
2. The Notion of Morpheme. Its Types.
3. Allomorph. Its Types.
4. Grammatical Homonymy.

### The Notion of Morph. Its Types

Morph is the shortest meaningful succession of phonemes which can not be divided into any other meaningful units and which regularly occurs in different utterances. E.g.:

*clear*

*clearly*

*clearness*

*clears*

*unclear*

In all these words we observe regularly repeated succession of phonemes [kli ] which carries some meaning. [kli ] is the minimum meaningful succession of phonemes, since the group of phonemes [kl] has no meaning. So [kli ] is a morph, while [kl] is not.

After separating the morph [kli ] in the form *clearly* there is the succession of phonemes [li] which is observed in other similar words: *greatly, strongly, strangely*. It also conveys some meaning though more abstract than the morph [kli ], which can be referred to as the grammatical meaning. So [li] is a morph.

The similar segmentation takes place in other words:

clear - ness (*greatness, goodness, blackness*);

clear - ed (*joined, called, changed*);

clear - s (*calls, knows, sees*);

un - clear (*unknown, unfair, uncooked*).

Some morphs can be used separately as words without the connection with other words. Such morphs are called **free morphs**, e.g.: *housewife* (*house, wife*).

Such morphs as *-ly, -ness, -ed, -(e)s, un-* can't be used separately: they enter the word structure together with other morphs. Morphs that can't constitute words are **bound morphs**, e.g.: *signify* [sign], [fai].

The morph was defined as a meaningful succession of phonemes. But meaning is not an absolute property of the morph and the reliable criterion of the morph, e.g.:

*receive*

*conceive*

*perceive*

*deceive*

In all these words there is a regularly repeated succession of phonemes *-ceive*. It is difficult to define what meaning it renders, nevertheless it is a morph, because after separating this morph the succession of phonemes [ri], [k n], [p ], [di] also regularly occur in different environments, e.g.:

*receive, retain, recur, reflect*

*conceive, contain, concur*

*deceive, detain, deflect*

The regular occurrence of these groups of phonemes in different segments of speech enables us to regard them as morphs, though their meaning is rather vague.

Thus, the systematic regular usage of the succession of phonemes in speech is more relevant for morphs than their meaningful character.

On the other hand not each regularly occurred succession of phonemes can be qualified as a morph, e.g.:

*stop*

*stoop*

*step*

*strike*

*steam*

In these words the regularly used group of phonemes [st] is not a morph, because it doesn't express any meaning and after separating *st-* from the words the succession of phonemes *-op*, *-oop*, *-ep*, *-rike*, *-eam* are not characterized by regular occurrence and therefore are not morphs.

Thus, we may come to the two principle conclusions:

a) any phoneme or succession of phonemes is a part of the morph;

b) if one part of a word is a morph, the other part must also be a morph.

In many cases a phoneme is a part of one morph though there are some instances when one and the same phoneme can enter two connected morphs, e.g.: *really*. In the chain of words *real - really - realize* we distinguish the morph [ri l]. Comparing this word with the similar words *obviously, truly, strangely* one can single out the morph [li]. But in pronunciation there is only one phoneme [l]. That's



why we can guess that [l] is a part of two morphs [riəl] + [li]. The morphs that have in their composition common phonemes are called *fused morphs*, while the morphological phenomenon is known as fusion.

### The Notion of Morpheme. Its Types

The morpheme can be approached and defined in two ways:

- *externally* as a separate language unit representing a special level in the language hierarchy;

- *internally* from the point of view of its inner structure.

According to the external approach the morpheme is generally defined as:

the smallest meaningful unit into which a word form may be divided (Ilyish);

the basic meaningful unit of language and speech (Khaimovich);

the minimum language unit having content side and expression side (Smirnitsky).

From the point of view of its structure the morpheme is defined as a set of the morphs having the same meaning and being in the state of complementary distribution to one another (Barkhudarov).

Complementary distribution is such a relationship between the linguistic units when one of them occurs in the environment in which the other linguistic unit does not occur. In other words linguistic units are in the state of complementary distribution if they occur in mutually exclusive environments or contexts.

Let's regard the following examples:

<i>clear</i>	<i>please</i>	<i>invisible</i>
<i>clearly</i>	<i>pleasing</i>	<i>impossible</i>
<i>clearness</i>	<i>pleased</i>	<i>illegal</i>
<i>clarity</i>	<i>pleasant</i>	<i>irregular</i>
<i>clarify</i>	<i>pleasure</i>	<i>unofficial</i>

The morphs *clear-* [kliə] and *clar-*[kiar] have the same meaning but each of them occurs in such distribution in which the other does not occur. The morph *clear-* is used as an independent word and it is also found before the morphs *-ly*, *-ness*, *-ed*, *-s* while the morph *clar-* always as a bound morph before the morphs *-ity*, *-ify*.

Thus, we see that the morphs *clear-* and *clar-* have the same meaning and are used in the state of complementary distribution. That's why they should be regarded as the morphs representing the same morpheme.

The morphs [pli:z], [ple ], [plez] also have identical meaning and occur in mutually exclusive environments. Thus, they are morphs expressing one and the same morpheme.

The morphs *in-*, *im-*, *il-*, *ir-*, *un-* are also united by the same meaning of negation but are found in different environments. Thus, the four morphs represent the same morpheme of negation.

Thus, the morpheme is a generalized sign of the morphs representing this morpheme.

There are different classifications of morphemes.

1. According to the form of expression morphemes are subdivided into **zero** and **positive**, e.g.: *change* ∅ - *changed*.

Positive morpheme has a positive explicit form of expression, e.g.: *books*, *changed*, *plays*. In all these grammatical forms a certain grammatical meaning (of plural number, past tense, 3-rd person) is expressed by positive morpheme, i.e. by some segment linearly singled out in the word-form.

Zero morpheme conveys a certain grammatical meaning but has no positive explicit form of its expression, e.g.: *book*, *change*, *play*. In these word-forms grammatical meanings of singular number, non-past tense, non-3-rd person are not expressed by some linear segment of the grammatical form. Zero morpheme is characterized by the following features:

- a) it has no explicit material (phonetic) form of expression;
- b) it is not a segment of a word, that's why it is not a linear element;
- c) it expresses a certain grammatical meaning, that's why the absence of the positive morphological element in the zero morpheme is meaningful. The zero morpheme singles grammatical meanings which can't be expressed otherwise but by means of the zero morpheme.

2. According to the role morphemes play in the word they fall into: **free**, **bound** and **semibound**.

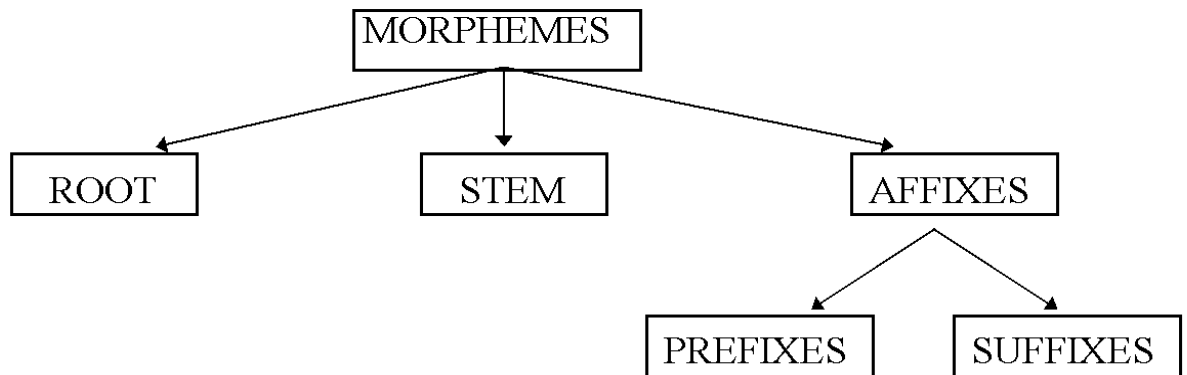
*Free* morpheme (or word-morpheme) is a morpheme that has lexical meaning and can be used without other morphemes as a separate word, e.g.: *book*, *girl*, *pen*.

*Bound* morpheme expresses grammatical meaning and can't be used as a separate word. Bound morpheme always serves as a part of a word, e.g.: *-s*, *-ed*, *-ly*. (There are two morphemes in the word *books*. The first one is free (*book*) and the second is bound (*s*).

*Semibound* morpheme is a word that may discharge the function of the grammatical morpheme (derivational or inflectional). Semibound morphemes are

of double nature. On the one hand, they are morphemes with derivational or inflectional meaning, on the other hand, they are separate words, e.g.: *sportsman*, *salesman*, *statesman*. The word *man* has full lexical meaning, may perform certain syntactical functions in the sentence, is characterized by certain distribution and possesses other properties of the word as a language unit. At the same time in some cases it may perform the function of a derivational morpheme. Thus, *man* is a semibound morpheme.

3. According to the position in the word morphemes are subdivided into:



*The root* is the lexical morpheme of the word. In other words, the root is the common lexical element of words within a word family, e.g.: *heart*, *heartless*, *heartful*, *heartness*, *sweet-heart*. In these words the root morpheme is *heart*. The general rule is that roots are free morphemes, but there are exceptions. In words: *detain*, *obtain*, *contain*, *pertain* *-tain* is a bound root.

*The stem* is a word without its grammatical morphemes. The stem may consist of the root alone, e.g.: *boy*, *room*, *change*, or be more complicated, when it consists not only of the root but also of stem-building affixes: *yellowish*, *indiscreet*, *movement*.

*Affixes* are grammatical morphemes that are always used with the root of the word and can't be used separately.

Affixes which stand before the root are called *prefixes*.

Affixes which are used after the root are called *suffixes*.

Position is not the only difference between prefixes and suffixes. Suffixes play a much greater role in the grammatical structure of the language performing the function of *derivational* and *inflectional* grammatical morphemes, while prefixes are only *derivational* morphemes of the language.

Derivational morphemes are the morphemes which are used as a means of word-building and don't indicate grammatical relations between words, so their

function is to build up words, e.g.: *to work - worker, to move - movement, beauty - beautiful*.

Derivation even is possible within the same lexico-grammatical class without changing the part of speech to which the word belongs, e.g.: *red - reddish*.

Inflectional morphemes have no lexical meaning. The main function of inflectional morphemes is to express grammatical relations between words, e.g.:

*My friend livesz in London.*

In some special cases inflectional morphemes can acquire the lexical meaning: *colour - colours*. These are the cases of lexicalization.

The difference between derivational and inflectional morphemes:

1. Inflectional morphemes influence the syntactical function and connection of words: *this boy - these boys*. Derivational morphemes do not effect the syntactical use of the words.

2. The number of derivational morphemes in the word theoretically is not limited: *friend-ly, un-friend-li-ness*.

3. The number of inflectional morphemes in English is rather limited. They are:

-s - the morpheme of the plural;

-s - the morpheme of the 3-rd person;

- 's - the morpheme of the genitive case;

-ed - the morpheme of the past tense;

-ing - the morpheme of Participle I, gerund;

-er - the morpheme of the comparative degree;

-est - the morpheme of the superlative degree;

-en - the morpheme of Participle II.

### **Allomorph. Its Types**

It was pointed out that the morpheme is represented by its morphs and their speech correlates - allomorphs.

*Allomorphs* are the morphs representing a certain morpheme:

*boy - boys* [z];

*cat - cats* [s];

*box - boxes* [iz];

*ox - oxen* [ən];

*man - men* [e].

The morphs [z], [s], [ɪz], [n] have the same meaning of plurality and stand in the state of complementary distribution. Thus, these morphs represent the same morpheme of plurality and that's why they are allomorphs.

The allomorphs are called *phonemically conditioned* if their use is determined by phonetic conditions.

On the other hand, the use of the allomorph [n] is conditioned not by phonetic surrounding but by morphological conditions: *-en* is used only after definite morphemes - *ox*, *child*. They are called *morphemically conditioned*.

Phonemically conditioned allomorphs are productive, i.e. they are actively used for forming new words. Morphemically conditioned allomorphs are not productive.

### Grammatical Homonymy

English is an analytical language and that's why it is characterized by the scarcity of morphological means of expressing grammatical meanings and relations. This accounts for the fact that there are many homonymous forms of inflectional morphemes in English.

Homonymous morphs are the morphs identical in pronunciation but different in representing morphemes. One and the same morph may express different morphemes in different word-forms, e.g.:

*writer*

*longer*

The morphemes *er1* and *er2* are homonymous:

-*er1* indicates the doer of the action;

-*er2* denotes the comparative degree of adjectives.

Thus, these two morphemes have the same plane of expression but different planes of content.

Speaking about the homonymy of inflectional morphemes there should be a strict distinction between:

- lexical homonymy of forms within the different parts of speech;
- grammatical homonymy of words within the same part of speech.

The case of lexical homonymy may be demonstrated by the following example:

- *drinks* (3-rd person of the verb): *He drinks*.

- *drinks* (plural form of the noun): *Drinks were served*.

Grammatical homonymy is found out in the forms belonging to the same part of speech:

*horses* (plural form of the noun);

*horse's* (genitive case form of the noun).

Grammatical homonymy is especially widely spread in the system of English verbs. The morpheme *-ed* represents:

past tense of the verb - *asked*<sub>1</sub>;

Participle II of the verb - *asked*<sub>2</sub>;

subjunctive II mood form - *asked*<sub>3</sub>.

A special case of grammatical homonymy is observed in the following example:

*I saw a sheep. The sheep was there.*

*I saw many sheep. The sheep were there.*

*Sheep*<sub>1</sub> and *sheep*<sub>2</sub> are homonymous forms of singular and plural.

The form building with the help of homonymous morphemes is widely spread in Modern English.

-S:

1. plural of nouns: *horses*;

2. genitive case of nouns: *John's*;

3. plural of demonstrative pronouns: *these*, *those*;

4. absolute form of possessive pronouns: *ours*, *hers*;

5. 3<sup>rd</sup> person singular of the verb: *reads*, *writes*.

-(E)N:

plural of nouns: *oxen*;

absolute form of possessive pronoun: *mine*;

Participle II of irregular verbs: *spoken*, *written*.

## **PARTS OF SPEECH THEORY**

1. The Notion of Grammatical Classes of Words.
2. The Problem of Grammatical Classes of Words Classification. Different Classifications.
3. The Comprehensive Approach to the Classification of Grammatical Classes of Words.
4. The Problem of Notional and Formal Parts of Speech in English.

### **The Notion of Grammatical Classes of Words**

The words of the language depending on various formal and semantic features are divided into grammatically relevant sets of classes. Traditionally they are called parts of speech. Since parts of speech are distinguished not only by grammatical but also by semantic properties, some scholars refer to parts of speech as lexico-grammatical classes or categories.

The term ‘parts of speech’ is purely traditional and conventional. This term was introduced in the grammatical teaching of ancient Greece and it is still kept alive by tradition though it can’t be taken as a defining or explanatory term.

What is meant by a part of speech is a type of word differing from other types in some grammatical point or points. As the grammatical aspect is dominant in parts of speech discrimination it seems reasonable to refer to parts of speech as grammatical classes of words.

The system of parts of speech is historically variable. New grammatical classes come into being in the course of the language progress. Old English did not know statives, modal words, articles as separate classes of words, though they are recognizable in Modern English.

But no matter how many grammatical classes are found in the language the idea is that the vocabulary of any language is not a chaotic mass of separate words. Grammar organizes them into a comparatively small number of grammatical classes. Every new lexeme that appears in the vocabulary joins one of the existing classes and shares the features of other lexemes of that class.

The theory of grammatical classes is very problematic both in general linguistics and in the analysis of separate languages. Great controversies cater for the criteria in assigning words to grammatical classes, the number of grammatical classes in the particular language and the qualitative division of grammatical classes in accord with different criteria employed.

## The Problem of Grammatical Classes of Words Classification

### Different Classifications

There are two different approaches to parts of speech classification:

- a) the classification should be based on a single common principle;
- b) the classification must be based on a complex of criteria.

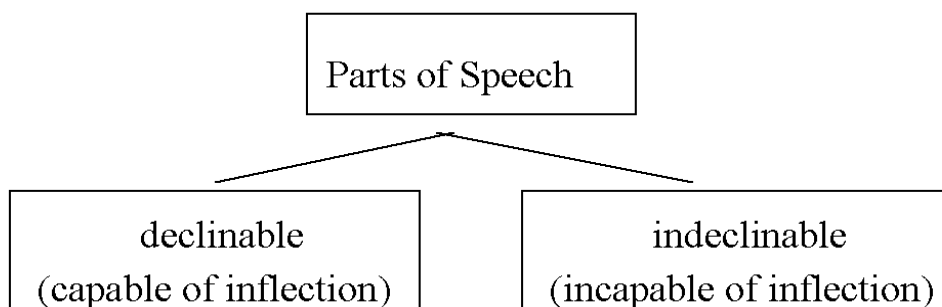
The traditional classification is logical in its nature as it is based exclusively on the *semantic* properties of words. According to this classification nouns are defined as words expressing substance, verbs as words revealing verbiality, adjectives as words expressing qualities or properties of substances and so on.

The strong point of the traditional parts of speech classification is the fact that language notions of nouns, adjectives, verbs and so on are connected with logical notions of substance, quality, verbiality and so on. It is one of the examples of general correlation of language with objective reality by means of thought.

But taken separately, the semantic criterion can't provide a fully satisfactory basis for parts of speech classification. In some cases it is difficult to discriminate the part of speech meaning of a word: a) *whiteness, stupidity*; b) *flight, action*. It is not clear what meaning is expressed by these words: substance or quality, substance or actions. According to the meaning the words *whiteness, stupidity* are more adjectives than nouns, while the words *flight, action* are rather verbs than nouns. What unites all these words into one class is not their meaning but their formal properties.

Thus, the meaning can't be an absolute criterion for parts of speech classification as well as the traditional classification which is based primarily on this criterion can't be taken as a fully adequate discrimination of word classes.

**H. Sweet**, the author of the first scientific grammar of English, took the *morphological* properties of words as an absolute criterion for assigning words to different classes.



Declinable parts of speech:



Noun words (noun, noun-pronoun, noun-numeral, infinitive/gerund);

Adjective-words (adjective, adjective-pronoun, adjective-numeral, participle);

Verb (finites, verbals).

Noun-pronoun: *I, they*;

Adjective-pronoun: *my, that*;

Noun-numeral: *three of us*;

Adjective-numeral: *three man*.

Indeclinable parts of speech: adverb, preposition, conjunction, interjection.

The first classification of parts of speech into declinable / indeclinable is pure morphological. It is inconsistent for such analytical languages as English because:

English with its analytical grammatical structure is characterized by the scarcity of inflections. So inflection can't be a marker of a part of speech reference of a word.

Not all lexemes of declinable parts of speech are capable of taking inflections. It is true, that noun as a part of speech has its own paradigm.

But such abstract nouns as *information* is incapable of inflection and has no paradigm. The same may be applied to other abstract nouns or names of material as *bread, milk*. According to the principle of H. Sweet such words should be referred to indeclinables.

In the sphere of adjectives one can find similar things: only qualitative adjectives are capable of inflections showing the grammatical category of degrees of comparison. So, the rest of the lexemes of this class refer to indeclinables.

On the other hand, some adverbs derived from qualitative adjectives are capable of inflections having the grammatical category of degrees of comparison.

The inconsistency of the classification is also proved by the disharmonious mixture of two different criteria employed in it. The division of noun-words into noun, noun-pronoun, noun-numeral, infinitive, gerund is based not on the morphological properties of words but on syntactic functioning of them. At the same time the subdivision of verbs into finite and non-finite forms reveals the pure morphological principle of classification.

Thus, in Sweet's classification words that are lexically and morphologically identical belong to different classes according to their syntactic functioning. On the other hand, one group of words unites lexemes that are semantically and morphologically different.

**O. Jespersen** analyses words from the point of view of their *function* (position) in the units larger than a word: phrases, sentences. According to his

opinion a word may be *primary*, i.e. to function as the head of the phrase or the subject in the sentence; *secondary*, i.e. the adjunct of the phrase immediately modifying the primary word in the phrase or in the sentence; *tertiary*, i.e. the adjunct to the secondary word in the phrase or the sentence, e.g.:

<i>a furiously</i>	<i>barking</i>	<i>dog</i>
tertiary	secondary	primary

This is the so-called the *theory of three ranks*. This classification occupies intermediate position between morphology and syntax, though the principle of this classification more tends to syntax than to morphology. The theory of three ranks is a consistent distinction between words according to their position in the sentence and phrase. But this is not the classification of words but the discrimination of syntactical elements: the position of primary, secondary, tertiary word may be occupied by lexemes belonging to different classes and consequently having heterogeneous semantic and morphological properties.

The ***distributional*** classification of words is based on their combinability with each other in the sentence. This classification is worked out by **Ch. Fries** in his book “The Structure of English”.

Ch. Fries denies the traditional classification and makes an attempt to formulate his own system of classes based on the position of a word in the sentence.

Ch. Fries starts from the assumption that a part of speech in English is a functioning pattern. All words of one part of speech are the ‘same’ only in the sense that in the structural patterns of English each has the same functioning significance.

Due to this Ch. Fries follows the principle that all words that occupy the same set of positions in the patterns of English free utterances must belong to the same part of speech. Ch. Fries uses method of test frames for qualifying class reference of words. By means of test frames Ch. Fries singles out four classes of words traditionally called nouns (class 1), verbs (class 2), adjectives (class 3), adverbs (class 4). He started with the minimum free utterance: *The concert was good* and found in his material all the words that could be substituted for the word *concert* with no change of structural meaning. The words of this list he called *class 1 words*.

Words of class 1, 2, 3, 4.  
*The concert was good always*  
 Cl. 1            Cl. 2   Cl. 3   Cl. 4

The four parts of speech contain approximately 67% of the total instances of the vocabulary items. Utterances consist primarily of arrangements of these parts of speech.

Alongside of four classes Ch. Fries singles out 15 groups of function words which approximately correspond to the traditional formal parts of speech.

Thus, group A includes all the words that can occupy the position of *the* (*the, their, your, both, few, much, John's*).

As one can see from the list of group A, this group consists of words with different morphological, semantic and syntactic properties. This is the weak point of the distributional classification.

The function words are divided into three main sets:

1. Specifiers of notional words. Here belong: determiners of nouns; modal verbs (serving as specifiers of notional verbs); functional modifiers and intensifiers of adjectives and adverbs.

2. The words that play the role of interpositional elements determining the relations of notional words to one another. Here belong: prepositions, conjunctions.

3. The words that refer to the sentence as a whole. Here belong:

question words (*what, how, etc.*);

inducement words (*let's, please, etc.*);

attention-getting words (*interjections*);

words of affirmation and negation;

sentence introducers (*it, there*);

and some others.

It follows from what was said above that the attempt of Ch. Fries to classify words is interesting in its idea but doesn't hit the mark: it is the classification of syntactic positions and distributions of words but not of words themselves.

One should understand the following weak points of the distributional classification of words:

1) this classification completely neglects the morphological properties of words;

2) modal verbs and notional verbs refer to different classes;

3) the classification doesn't take into consideration the syntactic functions of words, e.g.: group A includes words that in different utterances may be in the position of class 1: *both, few, four*;

4) the classes and groups singled out by Ch. Fries are overlapping. One and the same word can refer to different classes or groups.

**Gleason** put forward the classification which is based on two formal criteria: *morphological form* and *word-order*.

According to these principles Gleason divides the vocabulary of English into two groups:

1. Words having inflections. Here belong: nouns, adjectives, verbs, adverbs (inflectional classes).

But such adjectives that have no paradigm as *beautiful* are excluded from the class of adjectives as they have no forms *beautifuler, beautifulst*.

2. Words having no inflections. Here belong wide classes of nominals, pronominals, adjectivals, adverbials (constituent classes). The words that are included into these classes are characterized by the identical position.

Gleason's classification is not devoid of weak points:

- a) he doesn't give the definition of the inflectional and constituent classes;
- b) this classification doesn't regard the formal words (prepositions, conjunctions, articles, etc.) and it is not clear to what group of classes to refer them;
- c) this classification doesn't follow logically the principle of discriminating words.

Thus, the class of adjectivals includes adjectives having no synthetic form of degrees of comparison, relative adjectives having no paradigm at all and words of other classes that can occupy the position of adjectives in forms larger than words: *my, your, all, both, first, four*.

Thus, some words of the class are united on morphological criterion (adjectives), the other words of the same class are grouped on the positional principle.

That's why the classification of Gleason is not systematized and logical.

### **The Comprehensive Approach to the Classification of Grammatical Classes of Words**

The complex approach to the problem of parts of speech classification was introduced by academician **Scherba**, who proposed to discriminate parts of speech on the basis of three criteria: *semantic, formal* and *functional*.

The *semantic* criterion presupposes the general grammatical meaning which is characteristic of all words constituting a given part of speech. This meaning is understood as the categorial meaning of a part of speech.

The general grammatical meaning of nouns is substance, of verbs - verbiality (the ability to express actions, processes or states), of adjectives - qualitiveness

(the ability to express qualities or properties of substances), of adverbs - adverbiality (the ability to express qualities or properties of actions, processes or states), of prepositions - relations and so on. E.g.: *a table, a bird, a man* alongside of their individual concrete lexical meaning all these words denote general meaning of substances (animate and inanimate).

But taken separately, this criterion can't be sufficient for word classes discrimination.

There are lexemes of a part of speech which acquire the general meaning of the other part of speech, e.g.:

*action* expresses verbiality;

*sleep* expresses process;

*blackness* expresses quality.

Thus, the general grammatical meaning is important for parts of speech classification. It is the intrinsic property of a part of speech and it predetermines some outward properties of its lexemes. But it can't play the role of an absolute criterion for words classification.

The *formal* criterion provides for the exposition of the specific inflectional and derivational (word-building) features of words of a part of speech.

In other words formal criterion deals with morphological properties of words which include:

1) the system of inflectional morphemes of words typical of a certain part of speech, i.e. grammatical categories;

2) the system of derivational (lexico-grammatical) morphemes characteristic of a part of speech.

Each part of speech is characterized by its grammatical categories manifested in the paradigms of its lexemes, e.g.:

nouns have the categories of number and case;

adjectives - the category of degrees of comparison;

verbs - the categories of mood, tense, aspect, voice, correlation, person, number.

That's why the paradigms of words belonging to different parts of speech are different:

N	A	V
<i>boy</i>	<i>large</i>	<i>write</i>
<i>boys</i>	<i>larger</i>	<i>is writing</i>
<i>boy's</i>	<i>largest</i>	<i>is written</i>
<i>boys'</i>		<i>has written</i>

*should write*

The paradigm of a word shows to what part of speech the word belongs. One finds no difficulty in identifying the word with 's as a noun, the word with the morpheme *-est* as an adjective even if he doesn't know its meaning.

No matter how helpful this criterion for parts of speech discrimination is, it is not sufficient, not absolute, because not all the words of a part of speech have the same paradigm, e.g.:

boy	book	information
boys	books	-
boy's	-	-
boys'	-	-

The word *information* is outside the grammatical categories, it has no opposeemes and we can't judge the part of speech reference of this word by its paradigmatic forms.

Words of different grammatical classes are also characterized by a specific derivational (word- or stem-building) morphemes, e.g.:

N - (*-er, -ist, -ness, -ship, -hood, -dom, -ment, -ism, -ess, -tion*);

V - (prefixes: *be-, re-, mis-, en-, dis-*; suffixes: *-ize, -ify, -en*);

A - (*-ful, -less, -ish, -ous, -ive*).

The presence of a certain lexico-grammatical morpheme in the word signals its part of speech reference. Many of these derivational morphemes are regularly used to form the words of a part of speech, e.g.: *-ness* in nouns, *-en* in verbs.

Other stem-building elements are of little significance as distinctive features of parts of speech because they are not systematic and may be found within separate lexemes of a class, e.g.:

*food - feed;*

*blood - bleed;*

*full - fill.*

Thus, the morphological composition (or stem structure) is one of the criteria employed for parts of speech classification but it can't function separately in order to classify words. It is accounted for the fact that many English words of different classes consist only of roots and have no derivational morphemes in their structures.

The *functional* criterion concerns the syntactic properties of words of a part of speech which are of two basic kinds: combinability and syntactic functions in the sentence.

The combinability is the ability of words of a given part of speech to form combinations of definite patterns with words of other classes. In other words, the combinability is the ability of words of a given part of speech to be in syntactic connection with other words in the sentence. It should be noted that a word has numerous and qualitatively different syntactic connections in the sentence.

The connections are not equally significant for parts of speech reference of the word. Let's regard the sentence:

*This difficult job is very important.*

The word *job* is in the immediate syntactic connection with two lexemes: *difficult* and *is*. But the connection of the noun with the finite verb is less significant than its connection with the adjective in preposition. It is proved by the fact that finites may be combined not only with nouns but with different parts of speech capable of occupying the same syntactic position of the noun, e.g.:

*It is important.*

*To proceed is important.*

*Swimming is important.*

*The first is important.*

On the other hand, the combinability with the prepositive adjective is typical of nouns but not of other classes.

Thus, we may say that the noun as a part of speech is characterized by the lexico-grammatical combinability with the adjective.

Owing to the lexico-grammatical meanings of nouns (substance) and prepositions (relation of substances), these two parts of speech often form up word combinations.

The article is characterized by unilateral combinability with the noun.

Particles are also characterized by unilateral right-hand connections with different classes of words.

Thus, the combinability of a word, its connections in speech help to show to what part of speech it belongs.

Parts of speech perform certain syntactical functions in the sentence. Nouns are mostly used as *subjects* and *objects*, verbs function as *predicates*, adjectives as *attributes*, etc. This is true to some extent. There is some connection between parts of speech and parts of the sentence, but it never assumes the nature of obligatory correspondence, because the subject may be expressed not only by nouns but by other parts of speech. On the other hand, the noun as a part of speech is capable of performing practically all syntactic functions in the sentence. E.g.:

The ways of expressing the subject:

Noun: *The book is good.*  
Pronoun: *It is good.*  
Numeral: *The first is good.*  
Ving: *Swimming is good.*  
Vinf.: *To swim is good.*  
Adj. (substantivized): *The poor can't go.*  
NP: *Most of them went.*  
Syntactic functions of the noun:  
Subject: *The girl came.*  
Object: *I saw the film.*  
Predicative: *She is a student.*  
Attribute: *The grammar class is interesting.*  
Adverbials: *She ran to the door.*

Due to the little significance of the syntactic function of a word in identifying its class reference, this criterion is not recognized as such. We'll consider it as one of the criteria for parts of speech classification with the reservation that it is the least significant and helpful criterion.

None of the above mentioned criteria is sufficient to be an absolute principle of words discrimination. Only all of them taken together give a fully satisfactory basis for parts of speech classification.

Thus, the part of speech is a set of words characterized by the identical:

- 1) general grammatical meaning;
- 2) lexico-grammatical morphemes (derivational or stem-building elements);
- 3) grammatical categories;
- 4) combinability;
- 5) functions in the sentence.

As can be seen from the definition the dominant criteria in parts of speech classification are grammatical. That's why it is reasonable to refer to word classes traditionally called parts of speech as grammatical word classes.

### **The Problem of Notional and Formal Parts of Speech in English**

In accord with the described criteria, words on the upper level of classification are divided into *notional* and *functional*. Many linguists point out the difference between such parts of speech as nouns, verbs on the one hand, prepositions and conjunctions on the other.



Comparing different classifications of words, one cannot but see the similarity of their general scheme: the opposition of notional and functional words though the distinction between these two groups was termed differently:

the opposition of declinable / indeclinable parts of speech (Sweet);

the opposition of form-classes / function groups (Fries);

the opposition of inflectional / positional parts of speech (Gleason).

All grammarians dealing with the problem of parts of speech recognize the division of language vocabulary into two large groups though the methods they use to identify these groups, the number of parts of speech they refer to them and the distribution of parts of speech among them are different.

There are parts of speech that arise no difficulty of their interpretations. Such parts of speech as nouns, adjectives, verbs, adverbs are unanimously recognized as notional separate classes as well as prepositions, conjunctions are referred to functional parts of speech without any doubt. These classes are inherited from the past and are characterized by identical interpretation by all scholars.

Things are different with the parts of speech that are recognizable as such only in Modern English. There are different approaches to the problem of the following parts of speech: articles, statives, particles, modal words and interjections, modal verbs and auxiliary verbs.

Some grammarians do not single out the article as a separate part of speech. By professor Ilyish it is regarded as a special kind of pronouns. That's why the article is not represented in 12 parts of speech proposed by this grammarian.

The article is a separate functional class but not a kind of pronouns. The difference between the article and the pronoun is in their grammatical properties. The pronoun is capable of self-independent syntactical function in the sentence, while the article is not, e.g.: *This is correct*; \* *The is correct*.

The statives are not recognized by many linguists (Blokh, Fries). These words are treated as a subgroup of adjectives.

The stative is a separate notional part of speech which is characterized by the lexico-grammatical meaning, morphological properties, combinability and syntactic functions different from those of the adjective.

The particle according to the opinion of some linguists (Ilyish) should not be referred to functional parts of speech as prepositions and conjunctions because particles as distinct from prepositions and conjunctions have nothing to do with connecting words or building phrases or sentences.

The particle is a special functional class of words. It differs from the prepositions and conjunctions in its role in the sentence but has much in common

with them in the lexico-grammatical meaning, morphological properties and combinability.

Modal words and interjections are referred by some scholars (Blokh) to functional parts of speech though the majority of linguists recognize the status of notional parts of speech of these words.

Modal words and interjections should be referred neither to notional nor to functional parts of speech. Due to their particulars in meaning, form and function, they constitute the third fundamental group of parts of speech, the so-called *independent* parts of speech.

Some scholars (Barkhudarov, Rayevskaya) separate modal verbs and auxiliary verbs from the class of verbs and single out two separate functional classes.

It doesn't seem reasonable to separate modal verbs and auxiliary verbs from the notional class of verbs as these kinds of verbs possess many features of the class of the verb (grammatical categories, combinability).

Thus, we start from the assumption that there are 14 parts of speech in English: *Nouns, Adjectives, Pronouns, Numerals, Verbs, Adverbs, Statives, Modal Words, Prepositions, Conjunctions, Particles, Articles, Interjections, Response Words*.

These parts of speech are divided into three fundamental groups: ***Notional***, ***Functional*** and ***Independent***.

*Notional* parts of speech include denotators (nouns, adjectives, verbs, adverbs, numerals, statives) and indicators (pronouns), *functional* parts of speech - connectors (prepositions and conjunctions), determiners (articles), specifiers (particles). To *independent* parts of speech refer modal words, interjections and response words (yes, no).

Notional parts of speech are characterized first of all as autosemantic or fully lexical classes of words because they are capable of making direct reference to objective reality and carry the burden of referential information. In other words, notional parts of speech mostly are denotators as they express substances, qualities, actions, states of reality. Pronouns don't denote but indicate things, actions, properties, they receive their full lexical reference only in the context.

Notional parts of speech unite the words of complete nominative meaning.

From the syntactic point of view notional classes of words are characterized by their ability to perform the function of the head of the phrase or the part of the sentence. These functions are performed by notional words either in the combination with function words or without them.

*I looked at the picture.*

*He has seen an interesting film.*

*She saw him immediately.*

Notional parts of speech are inflectional, as they have grammatical categories and form up their own paradigms. Not all notional parts of speech are inflectional: the statives are outside any grammatical category. Within inflectional classes there are lexemes that have no paradigms of the class:

nouns like *information*;

adjectives like *wooden*;

verbs like *to receive* (no category of aspect).

From the communicative point of view notional words are the bearers of the semantic information of the sentence and they can be logically stressed. Logical stress depends on the situation and the speaker's intention:

*Pete left for Moscow yesterday.*

Each notional word of the sentence may be communicatively singled out.

*Functional* parts of speech are synsemantic, they have no full lexical meaning and provide only functional information which is necessary for making up utterances out of notional words. They are the words of incomplete nominative meaning.

Functional words express grammatical meanings of relation or connection (prepositions and conjunctions), determination (articles), specification (particles). They do not perform the functions of parts of the sentence, their role in the syntactical structures is to express syntactic connection between the constituents of phrases and sentences:

*My friend lives in London.*

The syntactic connection between the words *lives* and *London* is expressed by the preposition *in*.

Thus, function words are the words that perform the grammatical functions in the grammatical structure of the language.

Functional parts of speech are devoid of grammatical categories, that's why they are not inflectional.

It follows from the above mentioned peculiarities of functional parts of speech that they can't be used separately without notional words. It is clear because functional parts of speech express nothing but the relations between notional parts of speech. The sentence can't consist only of function words.

*Independent* parts of speech constitute a separate group of word-classes as they possess features different either from the notional parts of speech or functional ones.

From the semantic point of view modal words, interjections and response words coincide with notional parts of speech as they are fully lexical words expressing:

- the speaker's attitude to the information of the sentence;
- feelings and emotions;
- affirmation or negation.

This enables some grammarians to refer them to notional parts of speech. But it was pointed out that semantics can't be used as an absolute criterion for parts of speech reference and other criteria should be taken into account, first of all grammatical and formal ones.

From the morphological point of view independent parts of speech are not inflectional.

From the syntactic point of view they do not perform any syntactic functions. Moreover, these classes of words are called independent, because they are not the constituents of the sentence structure. They have no syntactic connection with the sentence elements, they usually refer to the whole sentence. As distinct from the functional parts of speech modal words, interjections and response words are used separately and may constitute sentences:

*Certainly!*

*Oh?*

*Yes.*

Thus, the general system of parts of speech in English is represented by three fundamental groups with the further distribution of parts of speech among them.

## REALIZATION OF THE NOUNAL CATEGORIES

The Noun as a Part of Speech.

The Category of Number and its Peculiarities in English.

The Category of Case.

The Problem of Gender in English.

The Adjective as a Part of Speech.

### The Noun as a Part of Speech

The Noun is the notional part of speech which has the categorial meaning of substance. The meaning of substance is typical not only of such nouns as *boy*, *table* (which are connected with substance due to their lexical meaning) but also of nouns like *brightness*, *walk* (that denote not a thing but a quality, action or process).

The categorial meaning of substance in such nouns is proved by the fact that they have the same grammatical (formal) properties as *boy*, *table*.

The noun is the main nominative part of speech effecting nomination of the fullest value.

The noun is characterized by a set of morphological properties which are two in number:

- 1) a group of inflectional morphemes representing grammatical categories;
- 2) a set of word-building devices.

In Modern English nouns possess the inflectional morphemes of

a) singular and plural:

*boy - boys*

*man - men*

*ox - oxen*

representing the grammatical category of number. It is true that not all nouns have the singular and plural number forms. Some nouns are represented only in the singular or plural form, e.g.: *weather*, *advice*, *scissors*, *trousers*.

b) common and genitive case:

*boy - boy's*

The case paradigm of some nouns consists only of the common case form, e.g.: *table*, *window*.

Modern English nouns have not got the grammatical category of gender. It is considered to be the lexical category of nouns.

## **Noun Classifications**

### ***Morphological Classification***

Morphological classification is based on the morphological structure of the noun-stem which may be:

- a) simple (*boy, desk book*);
- b) derivative - consisting of stem plus affix (*movement, kingdom, length*);
- c) compound - consisting of two stems (*blackboard, playground*);
- d) composite - consisting of two or more separate words combined together to express one idea (*onlooker, outlook*).

### ***Lexico-Morphological Classification***

Lexico-morphological classification is based on the implicit grammatical meanings which are of great grammatical relevance as they influence the realization of the morphological categories of number and case. Accordingly English nouns are classified into:

- nouns having reference to countability (count nouns) versus nouns with the grammatical implicit meaning of uncountableness (non-count nouns);

- nouns with the implicit dependent grammatical meaning of animateness (animate nouns) versus nouns with the meaning of inanimateness (inanimate nouns). Animate nouns have the form of common and genitive case, thus, they are declinable, inanimate nouns may be used only in the common case, they are indeclinable.

### ***Lexico-Syntactical Classification***

This classification is based on the syntagmatic peculiarities of nouns which are revealed in the functional significance of nouns within phrases. In accord with the function of nouns in phrases they are divided into heads and adjuncts. Nouns used as governing elements are called heads. Noun-heads predetermine their syntactical extension in accord with the peculiarities of lexico-grammatical valency. Nouns used as subordinate elements of phrases are called adjuncts.

A cotton	dress
<i>adjunct</i>	<i>head</i>

### ***Semantic Classification***

Semantic classification is based on the semantic properties of nouns. According to the way of nomination nouns fall into: proper nouns and common nouns.

Proper nouns are geographical names (*New York, the Thames, Asia, the Alps*), names of individual persons (*John, Byron, Brown*), names of months and the days of the week (*January, Sunday*), names of planets (*the Moon, the Sun, the*

*Earth*), names of ships, hotels, clubs (*Shepherd's Hotel*), of buildings, streets, parks, bridges (*Buckingham Palace, Trafalgar Square, Regent Street, Hyde Park, Waterloo Bridge*), of institutions, organizations, magazines and newspapers (*the United Nations, Newsweek, the Guardian*). So proper nouns have no generalized conceptional meaning, they name individual human beings and objects.

Common nouns can be classified into nouns denoting objects that can be counted and those that cannot. So there are count and non-count common nouns. The former are inflected for number whereas the latter are not. Further distinction is into *concrete nouns, abstract nouns* and *nouns of material*.

Concrete nouns semantically fall into three subclasses.

1. Nouns denoting living beings: persons and animals: *boy, girl, dog, cat*.
2. Nouns denoting inanimate objects: *table, chair, book*. Both the first and the second group are class nouns.
3. Collective nouns denoting a number or collection of similar individuals or things as a single unit: *foliage, family, crowd*. These may be further subdivided into:

- a) collective nouns proper denoting both a group consisting of separate individuals and at the same time considered as a single body:

*The family were on friendly but guarded terms.*

*Our family is small.*

*The crowd have already accepted the decision.*

*The crowd has parted down the middle like a black curtain.*

- b) nouns of multitude which are always associated with the idea of plurality though they are singular in form. They denote a group of separate individuals: *police, cattle, poultry, clergy, people*.

*The cattle are grazing.*

*The police here are efficient.*

*Are there any people in the hall?*

Nouns of material denote material: *iron, gold, paper, tea*. They are non-counts and generally are used without any article. But sometimes a noun of material may be used as a count noun, so it undergoes a semantic change to denote kind of, type of, different sorts: *He found her drinking **Chinese tea**, which she didn't like - but what could one do, **other teas** were common.*

Abstract nouns denote some quality of state, action or idea: *kindness, sadness, fight, worry, fun, music*. They may be counts and non-counts. Abstract nouns may change their meaning and become concrete (class nouns):

*beauty is to be admired                      she was a beauty.*

## The Category of Number and its Peculiarities in English

The category of number is one of the two grammatical categories of the noun. The category of number correlates with the logical category of quantity and thus it expresses the grammatical meaning of oneness and more than oneness.

Note 1. The number category of nouns is the grammatical means of expressing the objective category of quantity. Alongside with it there are lexical devices of representing quantity:

numerals: *one, ten, twenty*;

nouns: *couple, score, pair, pack*;

word-phrases: *a lot of, a number of*.

The number category is morphologically expressed (i.e. by means of word-forms) as it is realized through the opposition of two categorial forms:

the singular number form / the plural number form

boy	boys
cat	cats
ox	oxen
man	men

Thus, the category of number in nouns is the grammatical category expressed by the system of number opposemes revealing the grammatical meaning of oneness and more than oneness.

The number category is universal as quantity universal possession for all objects of reality. Each noun can't but enter at least one of the categorial forms of number which are identified as singular and plural.

The morpheme of the singular number is represented in most forms by the zero allomorph and thus the categorial form of singular is unmarked.

The morpheme of the plural number is represented by the set of allomorphs but the productive allomorphs are phonetically conditioned [s, z, iz]. This is the productive model of plural, it may be called an 'open model' as new nouns form their plural number with the help of these allomorphs.

Alongside with this open model there is a set of closed groups the constituents of which form plural with the help of unproductive devices which function only within a certain groups of nouns:

*wife - wives*;

*ox - oxen*;

*crisis - crises* (suffixes of Greek origin);



*antenna - antennae* (suffixes of Latin origin);

*mouse - mice* (morphemic interchange);

*sheep - sheep* (zero allomorph).

A special place in the system of number forms is occupied by lexemes:

*weather, knowledge, information, news* - the number opposition is represented by one form - singular form (Singularia Tantum);

*scissors, outskirts, oats, clothes, police* - the only number opposeme is plural number form (Pluralia Tantum).

It is traditionally established that the grammatical meaning of singular is oneness. It holds good for many cases as singular is often employed to denote individual, separate objects. In this case the noun may be modified by the quantifiers: *one, each, every, either, ordinal numerals*.

But in some cases the meaning conveyed by singular number form is far from oneness, e.g.: *Language is a means of communication*.

In the example we drift away from the original meaning of singular as the noun in the singular form doesn't express oneness but denotes object as a whole.

e.g.: *Silence hung over the valley*. - The noun expresses indiscreteness. Thus, the singular number form renders different meanings which may be formulated as: oneness (*a boy, a table*); generalization (*The telephone was invented by Bell*); indiscreteness (*Information is important*).

Professor Vorontsova gives more detailed classification of meanings conveyed by singular form. In accord with her point of view it expresses:

separate objects, notions, phenomena;

a class generalized meaning;

unique things;

material, substance;

things of non-material world;

feelings, emotions, qualities;

incomplete substantivity.

The existence of several meanings in the singular number form of which oneness is only one, makes it reasonable to call the unmarked number opposeme non-plural number form.

The plural number form is also polyfunctional. There is some difference between: *three hours - three houses*.

Whereas *three houses* denote separate objects, *three hours* are a continuous period of time measured by a certain agreed unit of duration. If we turn to such examples as *the waters of the Atlantic, a daughter of the snows* we are drifting

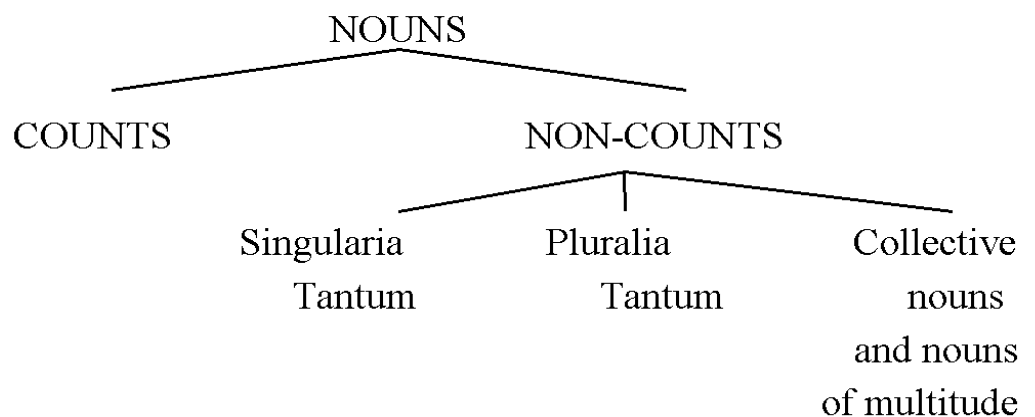
further away from original meaning of plural. In these cases the plural form serves to denote a vast stretch of water or ground covered by snow, the so-called space plurality.

The difference of the forms of plural can be proved syntactically by means of different types of combinability. It is impossible to say *\*three waters*, *\*three snows*.

There are some other semantic varieties of the plural forms that differ from one another in their plural quality as such. Here belong cases where the plural form expresses a definite set of objects: *eyes of the face*, *wheels of the vehicle*; various types of referent: *wines*, *steels*; intensity of the presentation of the idea: *years and years*, *thousands upon thousands*.

The plural number form also renders different meanings: existence of separate objects, discreteness of objects, multiplicity of units of measure, distance.

According to the category of number of noun all vocabulary is divided into: countables and non-countables. Counts are nouns denoting discrete and separate objects, phenomena, feelings. The subclass of non-counts is rather heterogeneous. The full classification of nouns based on the dependent implicit grammatical meaning of countability / uncountability may be represented by the following scheme:



Singularia tantum means that nouns have only one number form - singular. Since the grammatical form of the singularia tantum is not excluded from the category of number, it stands to reason to speak of the absolute singular as different from the correlative or common singular of counts. The absolute singular excludes the use of the modifying numeral one, as well as the indefinite article. The absolute singular is characteristic of:

- a) whole groups made up of similar items: *baggage, clothing, equipment, food, fruit, furniture, jewelry, junk, machinery, mail, money, scenery, traffic, etc.*;
- b) fluids: *water, coffee, tea, milk, oil, blood, etc.*;
- c) solids: *ice, bread, butter, cheese, meat, gold, iron, glass, paper, wood, etc.*;
- d) gases: *steam, air, oxygen, nitrogen, smoke, smog, pollution, etc.*;
- e) particles: *rice, chalk, corn, dirt, dust, flour, grass, hair, pepper, salt, etc.*;
- f) abstractions:
  - *beauty, courage, education, fun, happiness, health, help, intelligence, knowledge, music, peace, recreation, truth, wealth, etc.*;
  - *advice, information, news, evidence, proof, etc.*;
  - *time, space, energy, etc.*;
  - *homework, work, etc.*;
  - *grammar, slang, vocabulary, etc.*;
- g) languages: *Arabic, Chinese, English, Spanish, etc.*
- h) fields of study: *chemistry, engineering, history, literature, mathematics, etc.*;
- i) recreation: *baseball, soccer, tennis, chess, bridge, poker, etc.*;
- j) activities: *driving, studying, swimming, walking, etc.*;
- k) natural phenomena: *weather, dew, fog, hail, heat, humidity, lightning, rain, sleet, snow, thunder, wind, fire, gravity, etc.*

Some of these nouns can be used in the form of common singular with the common plural counterpart, but in this case they come to mean:

- different sorts of material: *wines, steels, teas*;
- objects made of the material: *glass - glasses*;
- separate concrete manifestations of the qualities denoted by abstract nouns:

*Joy is necessary for normal human life. It was a joy to see her among us.*

Common number with singularia tantum nouns can also be expressed by means of combining them with words showing discreteness such as *piece, item, sort, bit*: *two items of news, one more bit of information, three pieces of furniture.*

In singularia tantum nouns like *optics, physics, measles*, the *-s* suffix does not function as a grammatical morpheme, it gets lexicalized and develops into an inseparable part of the stem.

Pluralia tantum means that nouns of the subclass have no singular counterpart. In the sphere of plural likewise we must recognize the common plural

of counts and the absolute plural form of the uncountable subclass of pluralia tantum nouns.

The absolute plural, as different from common plural, cannot directly be combined with numerals and only occasionally with discrete quantifiers (*few, many*).

The absolute plural is characteristic of:

a) objects consisting of two halves: *binoculars, handcuffs, jeans, pants, scissors, tongs, scales, etc.*;

b) nouns expressing some sort of collective meaning, i.e. rendering the idea of indefinite plurality, both concrete and abstract: *tidings, earnings, politics, contents, goods, wages, etc.*;

c) nouns denoting some diseases and some abnormal states of the body and mind: *creeps*.

Collective nouns denote a certain set of objects as a whole. It is reasonable to divide collective nouns according to the collective quality they convey into the following groups:

1. Nouns of uniting collective meaning. These collective nouns don't differ from counts: *army - armies, crowd - crowds*.

2. Nouns of discrete collective meaning. Nouns of this subclass have the form only of singular and combine with the verb-predicate in plural: *the peasantry, the cavalry, the gentry*.

3. Nouns of uniting discrete meaning. This type of collective nouns are capable of expressing uniting and discrete collective meaning, and depending on the kind of collective meaning may be combined with verb-predicate in singular and plural: *The jury consists. The jury are*.

### **The Category of Case**

The problem of case in Modern English nouns is one of the most vexed problems in English Grammar. This can be seen from the fact that views on the essence of the case category, the number of cases in English and the scope of their meanings differ widely.

Special views advanced at various times by different scholars should be considered as successive stages in the analysis of the case category. In English there are different theories concerning this category.

The first point of view may be called the *theory of positional cases*. In accord with this theory the unchangeable forms of the noun are differentiated as

different cases by virtue of the functional positions occupied by the noun in the sentence.

Thus, the English noun, on the analogy of classical Latin grammar, would distinguish, besides the inflectional genitive case, also the non-inflectional, i.e. purely positional cases:

Nominative - *Rain falls;*

Vocative - *Are you coming, my friend?*

Dative - *I gave John a penny.*

Accusative - *I saw a girl.*

This theory substitutes the functional characteristics of the part of the sentence for the morphological form of the noun. In reality the case forms serve as means of expressing the functions of the noun in the sentence and not vice versa. This theory nevertheless rightly illustrates the fact that the functional meanings rendered by cases can be expressed in the language by other grammatical means, in particular, by word-order.

The second view may be called the ***theory of prepositional cases***. It was advanced as a logical supplement to the positional view of the case.

According to this theory, combinations of nouns with prepositions in certain object and attributive collocations should be understood as morphological case forms. To this belong first of all:

the dative case - *to (for) + N;*

the genitive case - *of + N;*

This theory can hardly pass a serious linguistic trial. In noun declensional languages all the prepositions require definite cases of nouns. This shows that any preposition by virtue of its functional nature stands in certain grammatical relations to the nouns.

Thus, all the prepositional phrases in English must be regarded as 'analytical cases' and the number of the said cases in Modern English would become indefinitely large.

The third point of view advanced by prof. Vorontsova may be called the ***theory of the possessive postposition***. This view approaches the English noun as having completely lost the category of case in the course of its historical development. All the nounal cases are considered as extinct and the lingual unit that is named the *genitive case* by force of tradition, would be in reality a combination of a noun with a postposition.

Prof. Vorontsova puts forward various reasons substantiating the postpositional theory:

1) The use of the 's morpheme is optional. The meanings and the relations expressed by the 's form of the word may be rendered by other means, i.e. prepositional phrases: *Mary's book - a book of Mary*.

2) The use of the 's is restricted to animate nouns: *a girl's frock*. Outside the group of animate nouns the use of 's is rare and usually stylistically marked.

3) The same morpheme 's is used with nouns in singular and plural: *man - man's; men - men's*.

4) In plural the use of the 's is limited to several nouns with the irregular way of building the plural number form (suppletive way): *women - women's*.

5) 's is loosely connected with the noun which finds its expression in its use not only with single nouns but also with whole word-groups of various status: *somebody else's daughter, yesterday's flowers*.

Due to this prof. Vorontsova doesn't recognize the 's as a case morpheme and treats it as a postposition, a purely syntactical element resembling a preposition which serves to make syntactical relations of dependence.

The difference between preposition and 's consists in the fact that preposition stands at the head of possessive construction while 's closes it, that's why it should be termed as postposition.

For all that, however, the theory of the possessive postposition fails to give an adequate interpretation of the noun form in 's.

The basic arguments for the recognition of the genitive case are as follows:

1) Not all genitive case forms may be transformed into the prepositional phrases expressing the meaning and relation those of the genitive case forms. In the following examples the genitive case forms have no parallel prepositional phrases: *a day's wait - \*a wait of the day; a mile's walk - \*a walk of a mile*.

2) In recent years the 's genitive has come into common use with nouns which are replaceable in the singular by it, i.e. with inanimate nouns: *war's nature, book's page, church's roof, monument's history*. This speaks for the fact that the use of 's with animate nouns has relative but not absolute character.

3) The 's morpheme is mostly used with single nouns not with noun groups. According to the data obtained by Khaimovich and Rogovskaya the 's sign is attached to the individual nouns in as many as 96% of its total occurrences.

4) The 's sign differs from the preposition because:

- the use of the first is restricted while the use of the preposition is unlimited.

Thus, semantically 's is far a more bound element than a preposition;

- the 's sign is strictly postpositional unlike the preposition which may have bilateral connections N<sub>1</sub> Vprep N<sub>2</sub>;

- the 's sign is a morpheme-like element by its phonetical properties. All prepositions have a vowel as their form constituents: *on, up, with,*

- the 's sign is devoid of lexical meaning while the preposition has the meaning of its own: *of the student, to the student, by the student,*

- the 's sign can't be separated from the noun while the preposition is characterized by relative positional independence.

Thus, the 's morpheme is a peculiar case inflection.

The fourth view on the English noun case recognizes a limited inflectional system of two cases in English. This view may be called ***the limited case theory*** (Smirnitsky, Barkhudarov).

This theory starts from the assumption that case is the immanent morphological category of the noun which reflects the relation of a word to other words in a word-combination or a sentence.

The category is expressed by the opposition of the common case form and genitive case form: *boy - boy's.*

The common case opposeme is an unmarked member of the case opposition, it is represented by zero morpheme. The common case form is semantically extensive as it has no positive semantic meaning, it is absolutely indefinite from the semantic point of view. Nouns in the common case form may be used in all practically syntactical functions. They are frequently used in speech, common case forms constitute 98% of the total number of case forms in textual occurrence. Thus, the common case form is morphologically unmarked, semantically indefinite, functionally has no limitation.

Things are different with the genitive case form. It is morphologically marked, semantically definite, functionally limited.

The genitive case form is marked by the morpheme 's with three phonetically conditioned allomorphs [*s, z, iz*]. Speaking of the 's morpheme one should state its peculiar status among the other inflectional morphemes of English:

1) it is the only positive inflectional morpheme which can be preceded by another inflectional morpheme, the morpheme of number;

2) the 's sign may be attached not to a single noun but to the phrases and even sentences: *the king of England's daughter; The man I saw yesterday's son.*

The following ***basic semantic types of the genitive case*** can be pointed out:

1. Possessive Genitive. Its meaning is inorganic possession:

*John's car - John has a car.*

2. The Genitive of integer. Its meaning is organic possession, i.e. a broad possessional relation of a whole to its part: *John's face (face as a part of a person).*

3. The Genitive of agent (Subjective Genitive). The general meaning of this genitive is an activity or some broader processual relation with the referent of the genitive as its subject:

*the doctor's advice - The doctor advised;*

*the husband's arrival - The husband arrived.*

It is worthy of note that it is sometimes difficult to differentiate between 'genitive of possessor' and 'genitive of agent':

*John's courage*

*John has courage*  
genitive of possessor

*John is courageous*  
genitive of agent

*Mary's dream*

*Mary has a dream*

*Mary dreams*

4. A subtype of the agent genitive expresses the author or more broadly considered the producer of the referent of the head noun. Hence it receives the name of the genitive of author: *the writer's novel; John's article - The writer created the novel; John wrote the article.*

5. The Genitive of patient expresses the recipient of the action or process denoted by the head noun: *the champion's defeat - the champion is defeated.*

6. The Genitive of dispensed qualification expresses some characteristic or qualification given by the genitive noun to the referent of the head noun: *a girl's voice.*

7. The subtype of this genitive is the genitive of comparison. The comparison as different from a general qualification is supposed to be of a vivid, descriptive nature: *the cock's self-confidence.*

8. The Genitive of destination denotes the destination or function of the referent to the head noun: *children's toys - toys for children; women's hats - hats for women.*

9. The Genitive of adverbial denotes adverbial factors relating to the referent of the head noun, mostly the time and the place of the event: *yesterday's newspaper; Moscow's talks.*

10. The Genitive of quantity denotes the measure or quantity related to the referent of the head noun. For the most part the quantitative meaning concerns units of distance, time, weight: *three miles' distance; an hour's delay.*



11. The Objective Genitive. It denotes an object to the referent of the head noun. This genitive phrase may be transformed into the kernel sentence in which genitive noun stands in object relation to the head:

*John's surprise*

*John was surprised*

*X (smb.) surprised John.*

The given survey of the semantics of the genitive shows that the genitive case form is rather polysemantic. It is difficult to say which of the meanings is the main one. Recently it has been considered that the possessive meaning was the most important, hence, the name of the 's form was the possessive case.

In the light of the semantics of the 's form of which the possession is only one of the meanings rendered by this form, the term genitive case is much more preferable.

### **The Problem of Gender In English**

The noun in the majority of Indo-European languages is characterized by the grammatical or lexico-grammatical category of gender.

As far as the noun of English is concerned, it should be admitted that in Old English the noun had the grammatical category of gender which revealed itself in a certain type of declension. In the course of time the inflections of the grammatical genders have been lost. The absence of the grammatical markers of gender resulted in the gradual loss of the grammatical status of the gender category. Nevertheless scholars are still at issue on the category of gender in English nouns.

Different views have been expressed concerning the grammatical or non-grammatical nature of gender. Some grammarians (they are in absolute minority) think of gender as a grammatical category. This point of view was propounded by such scholars as Curme, Poutsma. Their opinion is based on the assumption that the category of gender is expressed in English by the obligatory correlation of nouns with personal pronouns of the 3-d person which denote biological genus or animateness / inanimateness.

Similar point of view is expressed by Gleason. He states that gender is the category which is quite common in English nouns. The gender of the English noun is defined solely in terms of the pronoun substitute *he, she, it* which may be used in its place. This point of view is supported by Blokh. He thinks that personal pronouns serve as specific gender classifiers of nouns.

The large group of linguists stick to the conception that there is no grammatical category of gender in English nouns as there are no grammatical devices of its representation in the language. The substitution of pronouns can't prove the existence of the gender category in nouns because:

1) It appears impossible to mix the properties of two separate lexico-grammatical classes of words-nouns and pronouns. Each of these two parts of speech is characterized by the formal, lexical and grammatical properties of its own.

2) The gender distinctions in pronouns are not grammatical as well. Pronouns *he*, *she*, *it* are not variable forms of the same pronoun, they represent different lexemes.

3) The choice of the pronoun with which the noun correlates is determined absolutely by the semantics of the noun: nouns denoting inanimate things correlate with *it*; nouns expressing living beings are substituted in speech by *he*, *she* depending on the sex.

Thus, it is correct to say that gender distinctions in English involve not the nouns as they are, but their referents, i.e. extralinguistic objects they denote.

The fact that gender classification of nouns in English is based not on the grammatical properties but on the semantic properties accounts for the relative mobility of gender. Due to a certain mobility of gender one and the same noun may be replaced by different pronouns.

Thus, the concept of gender has no grammatical function in Modern English. It is a lexical category. It is possible, however, to group words into three classes according to whether they can be replaced by the pronouns *he*, *she*, *it* respectively. In all but a few cases these words correspond to the ideas of 'male', 'female' and 'inanimate'. Consequently, there are three genders: masculine, feminine, neuter.

There are three different ways of showing gender:

Lexically - by use of different words in accordance with natural sex:

masculine	feminine	masculine	feminine
<i>boar</i>	<i>sow</i>	<i>husband</i>	<i>wife</i>
<i>boy</i>	<i>girl</i>	<i>king</i>	<i>queen</i>
<i>brother</i>	<i>sister</i>	<i>man</i>	<i>woman</i>
<i>bull</i>	<i>cow</i>	<i>monk</i>	<i>nun</i>
<i>cock</i>	<i>hen</i>	<i>nephew</i>	<i>niece</i>

By adding the lexico-grammatical morpheme (suffix) to masculines:

masculine	feminine	masculine	feminine
<i>actor</i>	<i>actress</i>	<i>negro</i>	<i>negress</i>

<i>author</i>	<i>authoress</i>	<i>prince</i>	<i>princess</i>
<i>god</i>	<i>goddess</i>	<i>tiger</i>	<i>tigress</i>

In words of common gender (cousin, friend, doctor, etc.) distinction of sex may be shown by forming a compound word the first element of which denotes sex:

masculine	feminine	masculine	feminine
<i>boy-friend</i>	<i>girl-friend</i>	<i>man-servant</i>	<i>maid-servant</i>
<i>cock-sparrow</i>	<i>hen-sparrow</i>	<i>he-wolf</i>	<i>she-wolf</i>
<i>male-elephant</i>	<i>female-elephant</i>	<i>billy-goat</i>	<i>nanny-goat</i>

Note the feminine forms of some foreign nouns:

masculine	feminine
<i>beau</i>	<i>belle</i>
<i>tsar</i>	<i>tsarina</i>
<i>signor</i>	<i>signora</i>
<i>sultan</i>	<i>sultana</i>
<i>don</i>	<i>donna</i>
<i>hero</i>	<i>heroine</i>
<i>executor</i>	<i>executrix</i>

There are some traditional associations with gender distinctions:

- moon, earth* - feminine; *sun* - masculine;
- the names of vessels (*ship, boat, steamer* - feminine);
- the names of vehicles (*car, carriage, coach* - feminine);
- the names of countries - feminine (if the country is not considered as a mere geographical territory).

### Adjective as a Part of Speech

The lexico-grammatical meaning of adjectives is property of substances, i.e. their material, size, colour, form, quality.

Adjectives in Modern English are invariable. Some adjectives form degrees of comparison (*long - longer - the longest*). Adjectives combine with nouns both preceding and occasionally following them (*large room; times immemorial*). They also combine with a preceding adverb (*very large*). Adjectives can be followed by the phrase 'preposition + noun' (*free from danger*). Occasionally adjectives combine with a preceding verb (*married young*). In the sentence an adjective can be either an attribute (*large room*) or a predicative (*is large*). It can also be an objective predicative (*painted the door green*).

From the semantic point of view all the adjectives can be divided into two classes: relative and qualitative. Qualitative adjectives denote qualities of size, form, colour, age. They may be used in different degrees. Relative adjectives denote qualities which characterize an object or substance through their relations to another objects. They can't be used in different degrees except for the cases of metaphorical use of them: *wooden face (Her face grew still more wooden)*.

From the morphological point of view all the adjectives are divided into:

comparable                      non-comparable

relative                          qualitative

Non-comparable qualitative adjectives.

There are four groups of adjectives which have no degrees of comparison:

1. Adjectives which express the highest degree of quality: *perfect, excellent, extreme, supreme*.
2. Adjectives with the suffix - *ish* which express the insufficient degree of quality: *reddish, yellowish*.
3. Adjectives whose qualities cannot be compared from the semantic point of view because they express the full degree of quality: *deaf, dumb, blind, lame, wrong, equal*.
4. Some adjectives which are used only in the form of the comparative degree: *upper, major, minor, superior, inferior*.

### **Realization of Adjectival Categories**

The form-derivation system of English adjectives, i.e. their paradigm is very poor, it is even more poor than that of nouns. In the history of the English language development the morphology of English adjectives underwent great changes which were caused by the crucial changes in all the classes of nouns. The reduction of the paradigm led to the obliteration of case, number and gender distinctions in the forms of English adjectives.

The Category of Degree of English adjectives is restricted in its realization by the implicit meaning of qualitiveness / non-qualitiveness inherent in adjectives, the latter being classed accordingly into qualitative and non-qualitative adjectives.

Only qualitative adjectives due to their meaning are associated with graduality. The quality denoted by such adjectives is conceived as being gradual. That's why qualitative adjectives in English are inflected for degree. The paradigm

of adjectives in Modern English is very much reduced and consists of the three categorial forms through which the category of degree is realized.

The comparative and superlative degree categorial forms can be marked synthetically by the inflections as in *longer, longest; easier, easiest* and by suppletivity as in *better, best; less, least*. The question whether the degree categorial forms of English adjectives can or cannot be derived analytically remains open because the combinations like *more interesting* or *most doubtful* are not unanimously recognized as analytical adjectival forms. Some scholars are inclined to treat them as lexico-syntactical devices of expressing the conceptual category of graduality. Such a view is probably justified because, by strict definition, analytical markers are binary units consisting of the auxiliary element, what is extremely important, of the particular unchangeable form of the notional word as in: *Vbe + Ving (the Continuous markers), Vhave + Ven (The Perfect markers)*. So far as above combinations like *more interesting* or *most doubtful* are concerned, they do not satisfy the requirements for analytical formations. They are likely to be lexico-syntactical combinations of words.

The positive degree conveys the idea of the norm of some quality. The positive degree is always an unmarked member of opposition, that's why it is always expressed by zero morpheme.

The comparative degree is a marked member of the opposition. It has three allomorphs - inflection *er*; - the suppletivity and word morpheme *more*.

The superlative degree is expressed by three allomorphs - the inflection *est*, the suppletivity and word morpheme - *the most*.

The comparative degree indicates that the doer of the action has more quality than the other person: *John is cleverer than Nick*.

The superlative degree indicates the highest quality which the doer of the action has: *John is the cleverest boy in the class*. But there are some cases when superlative degree doesn't indicate the highest degree of comparison but only a very high degree of quality: *I read English books with greatest pleasure*.

## REALIZATION OF THE VERBAL CATEGORIES

1. The Verb as a Part of Speech.
2. Different Classifications of the Verb.
3. The Category of Number and Person.
4. The Category of Tense.
5. The Category of Aspect.
6. The Category of Voice.
7. The Category of Mood.
8. The Category of Correlation.

### The Verb as a Part of Speech

Grammatically the verb is the most complex part of speech. This is due to the central role it performs in the expression of the predicative functions of the sentence, i.e. the functions establishing the connection between the situation named in the utterance and reality. The complexity of the verb is also in its various subclass divisions as well as in its falling into two sets of forms profoundly different from each other - the finite and non-finite.

The general categorial meaning of the verb is process presented dynamically, i.e. developing in time. This meaning is inherent in the semantics of all the verbs including those that denote states, forms of existence, types of attitude rather than actions. And this holds true not only about the finite verb, but also about the non-finite verb. The semantic meaning of process of the verbal lexeme even in the non-finite form is proved by the fact that in all its forms it is modified by the adverb with the intransitive verb, it takes a direct object: *His receiving the visitor was unusual*. In the sentence the finite verb invariably performs the function of the verb-predicate expressing the processual (categorial) features of predication, i.e. time, aspect, mood, voice, etc.

The non-finite verb performs different functions according to its intermediary nature (those of the syntactic subject, object, adverbial modifier, attribute) but its non-processual functions are always actualized in close combination with its processual semantic features.

From the point of view of their outward structure verbs are characterized by specific forms of word-building, as well as by the formal features expressing the corresponding grammatical categories. So the verbs may be simple, sound-replacive, stress-replacive, phrasal, etc.

The original simple verb stems are not numerous. But conversion as a means of derivation, especially conversion of the ‘noun - verb’ type, greatly enlarges the simple stem set of verbs since it is one of the most productive ways of forming verb lexemes in Modern English: *a cloud - to cloud*.

The sound replacive type of derivation and the stress replacive type of derivation are unproductive: *food - feed; blood - bleed; import - to import*.

The phrasal verb-stems occupy an intermediary position between analytical forms of the verb and syntactic word-combinations. Among such stems two specific constructions should be mentioned. The first is a combination of the head-verb (*have, give, take*) with a noun. The combination has as its equivalent an ordinary verb: *to have a smoke - to smoke; to give a smile - to smile*. The second is a combination of a head-verb with a verbal postposition that has a specificational value: *to stand up, to go on, to give in, to get along*.

The grammatical categories which find formal expression in the outward structure of the verb and which will be analyzed further are, first, the category of finitude dividing the verb into finite and non-finite forms; second, the categories of number, person, tense, aspect, voice, mood, correlation whose complete set is revealed in every word-form of the notional finite verb.

The class of verbs falls into a number of subclasses distinguished by different semantic and lexico-grammatical features.

On the upper level of division two unequal sets are identified:

- a) the set of verbs of full nominative value (notional verbs) and
- b) the set of verbs of partial nominative value (semi-notional and functional verbs).

The first set is derivationally open, it includes the bulk of the verbal lexicon.

The second set is derivationally closed, it includes limited subsets of verbs characterized by individual properties.

Semi-notional and functional verbs serve as markers of predication in the proper sense, since they show the connection between the nominative content of the sentence and reality in a strictly specialized way. These ‘predicators’ include auxiliary verbs, semi-notional verbid introducer verbs and link verbs.

Auxiliary verbs constitute grammatical elements of the categorial forms of the verb. These are the verbs: *be, have, do, shall, will, should, would*.

Modal verbs are used with the infinitive as predicative markers expressing relational meanings of the subject attitude type, i.e. ability, obligation, permission, advisability. They are defective in forms.

Semi-notional verbid introducer verbs are distributed among the verbal sets of discriminatory relational semantics: *seem, happen, turn*; of subject-action relational semantics: *try, fail*; of phasal semantics: *begin, continue, stop*.

Link verbs introduce the nominal part of the predicate which is commonly expressed by a noun, adjective, numeral, gerund, pronoun, etc.

Notional verbs undergo the following grammatical categorization based on:

- a) the relation of the subject of the verb to the process denoted by the verb;
- b) the aspective characteristics of the process denoted by the verb, i.e. on the inner properties of the process as reflected in the verbal meaning.

On the basis of the subject-process relation all the notional verbs can be divided into actional and statal.

Actional verbs express the action performed by the subject as an active doer: *do, act, perform, make, read, learn, discover*.

Statal verbs denote the state of their subject. They either give the subject the characteristic of the inactive recipient of some activity or express the mode of its existence: *be, live, survive, worry, suffer, stand, know*.

## **Different Classifications of the Verb**

### ***Morphological Classification I***

This classification is based on the morphological structure of the verb. All the verbs fall into:

- a) simple: *go*;
- b) derivative: *to intensify*;
- c) compound: *to blackmail*;
- d) composite: *to cry out*;
- e) phrase groups: *to have a smoke*.

### ***Morphological Classification II***

This classification is based on the way of building the Past Indefinite Tense form: regular (*stop - stopped*) and irregular (vowel gradation: *speak - spoke*; suppletivity: *go - went*; inner conversion: *put - put*).

### **Lexico-Morphological Classification**

It is based on implicit dependent grammatical meaning. According to this classification verbs are divided into: terminative and non-terminative; transitive and non-transitive.

Terminative verbs express actions having limit. Verbs of non-terminative character denote actions having no limit. They denote actions as given in process.



Intransitive verbs are the verbs which are characterized by negative combinability with the direct object. These verbs express complete primary predication with a combination with subject (*to laugh*). Transitive verbs are characterized by obligatory combinability with direct object. These verbs express primary predication in connection not only with subject but with a direct object as well. Many intransitive verbs may be used in transitive meaning: *To nod an agreement; He danced her to the door.*

Thus, this classification based on the implicit dependent grammatical meaning of transitivity / intransitivity influences the realization of the category of voice. Transitive verbs may be used both in passive and non-passive voice forms, while intransitive verbs may be used only in non-passive voice forms.

### ***Lexico-Syntactical Classification I***

This classification is based on the nature of predication expressed by verbs. So, the verbs are divided into: complete (subjective verbs) - Subjective + Predicate: *She is laughing*; and incomplete (objective verbs) - Subject + Predicate + Object: *He gave a book to me.*

### ***Lexico-Syntactical Classification II***

This classification is based on functional significance of verbs. The verbs are divided into:

1. Notional verbs. These verbs have full lexical meaning, perform the function of the predicate, may be substituted by the verb *to do*: *I knew it. - So did I.*

2. Semi-notional verbs. These verbs have weakened lexical meaning, can't perform the function of predicate separately and can't be substituted by the verb *to do*: *He is a teacher.* Their function is of a part of a compound nominal predicate.

3. Auxiliary verbs. These verbs have no lexical meaning. They are characterized by obligatory combinability with notional parts of predicates and do not function separately.

### ***Syntagmatic Classification***

All notional verbs are primarily classified as verbs of non-directed action and verbs of directed action. The former have zero obligatory environment, the latter do have some sort of obligatory environment.

Verbs of non-directed action are numerous. In particular:

V - personal - *He sniffed.*

V - impersonal - *It rains.*

V - reflexive - *She dressed.*

V - reciprocal - *They met.*

V - passive - *The book sells.*

The functional nature of obligatory environment serves as a basis for the subcategorization of verbs of directed action. First of all we distinguish objective, addressee, adverbial directionality. There also may be mixed type directionality.

***Syntagmatic types of verbs of objective, objective-addressee and addressee directionality***

V	obligatory environment	example
V2	direct object	<i>She shook her hand</i>
V3	direct object, addressee object	<i>She gave me her hand</i>
V4	two direct objects	<i>I'll teach her a lesson</i>
V5	prepositional object	<i>I inquired about Tom</i>
V6	prepositional object, addressee object	<i>She reminded him of his remark</i>
V7	two prepositional objects	<i>You agree with me in that</i>
V8	direct and prepositional object	<i>I asked him about General</i>
V9	direct, prepositional, addressee objects	<i>She told me all about her class</i>
V10	addressee object	<i>He telephoned me</i>

***Syntagmatic types of verbs of adverbial directionality***

V	obligatory environment	example
V11	adverbial of place	<i>He went to his room</i>
V12	adverbial of time	<i>I won't be long</i>
V13	adverbial of manner	<i>John behaved badly</i>
V14	adverbial of purpose	<i>I come to fury Caesar</i>
V15	adverbial of place, adverbial of time	<i>She had been there for 5 years</i>

***Syntagmatic types of verbs of objective-adverbial, objective-addressee-adverbial and addressee-adverbial directionality***

V	obligatory environment	example
V16	direct object, adverbial of place	<i>He put his hat on the table</i>
V17	direct object, adverbial of place, addressee object	<i>Bring me my things to the Mews</i>
V18	adverbial of place, prepositional object	<i>She fished in her bag for money</i>
V19	direct object, adverbial of time	<i>I won't keep you long</i>
V20	direct object, adverbial of time, adverbial of place	<i>They won't keep you long here</i>
V21	direct object, adverbial of manner	<i>I have treated you badly</i>
V22	prepositional object, adverbial of manner	<i>He felt kindly toward the editor</i>
V23	direct object, adverbial of purpose	<i>He used his report to laud the Government</i>
V24	addressee object, adverbial of manner	<i>The rains have done us well</i>

The French scholar Tennier was the first to put forward classification of words according to their *combinability*. The classification includes the following types of verbs:

*Avalent* verbs: *It rains*. Avalent verbs are the verbs which have no connection with the notional part of the sentence, expressed by notional words.

*Monovalent* verbs (subjective verbs): *John laughed*. *He smiles*. These are verbs which are associated only with the subject and not with other parts of the sentence.

*Divalent* verbs. They are characterized by two-sided connection with the sentence structure - with the subject of the sentence and with secondary parts of the sentence (object, adverbial modifier): *He took a book*. *He left for Moscow*.

*Polyvalent* verbs. These verbs have more than two-sided connection in the sentence: *He gave me a book yesterday*.

### ***Semantic Classification***

This classification is based on invariant lexico-semantic meaning of a group of verbs. Thus, all the English verbs fall into the verbs denoting:

- a) motion (*walk, go, move*);
- b) end, beginning, duration, final state (*keep, stay, remain, stop*);
- c) state and external position in space (*sit, lie, stand*);
- d) physical activity (*see, hear*);
- e) communication (*say, talk, speak*);
- f) creation and destruction (*create, produce, destruct*);
- g) mental activity (*think, imagine, consider*);
- h) feelings (*shame, joy, sorrow*);
- i) explication of feelings (*smile, agree*);
- j) social activity (*work, elect, participate*);
- k) different kinds of human activity (*live, eat, drink*).

### **The Category of Person and Number**

The category of person and number are closely connected with each other, since in languages of Indo-European family they are expressed simultaneously, i.e. a morpheme expressing person, also expresses number.

The immediate connection of the categories of person and number is conditioned by the fact that they refer the process denoted by the verb to the subject

of the situation which exists in inseparable unity of ‘quality’ reflected in personal denotation and ‘quantity’ reflected in numerical denotation.

### The Category of Person

The category of person serves to present an action as associated by the speaker with himself, the person(s) addressed and the person(s) or thing(s) not participating in the process of speech.

In Russian it is represented the three member opposition:

*читаю*      *читаешь*      *читает*  
*читаем*      *читаете*      *читают*

The same oppositions of persons may be applied to other languages, German, for example:

*gehe*      *gehst*      *geht*  
*gehen*      *geht*      *gehen*

But this scheme of person opposition can’t be applied to Modern English. The expression of the category of person is essentially confined to the singular form of the verb in the present tense of the indicative mood and, besides, is very singularly presented in the future tense. In the past tense, imperative mood and the plural number of the indicative mood there is no personal distinction.

In the present tense the expression of the category of person is divided into three peculiar subsystems:

1. The subsystem of modal verbs that have no personal distinction: *can, may, must, shall, will, ought to, need, dare*.
2. The second subsystem is made up by the unique verb *to be*. This verb has three different suppletive forms:

*am*    1st person;  
*is*    3rd person;  
*are*    neither 1st nor 3rd person.

3. The third subsystem presents the regular normal expression of person with the remaining majority of the English verbs. The category of person is revealed there in the two member opposition: *play - plays*. The opposeme expressing the second person singular *speakest* is not used colloquially. It occurs in Modern English only in poetry.

In the future tense the person finds another mode of expression. The future tense person conjugation is different from that in the present tense due to the following features:

- a) it marks not the third person, but the first person expressed by *shall(should)* as opposed to the non-first person expressed by the forms with *will(would)*;
- b) it includes in its sphere the plural;
- c) it is presented not only by the morphemic inflexion but by person identifying auxiliaries *shall / will*.

### **The Category of Number**

The category of number expresses the quantity of the subjects (one or more than one). This category differs from the semantics of number in nouns, because it expresses not the meaning of oneness or more than oneness of processes denoted by verbs but the number of subclasses expressed by noun-subjects.

The category of number alongside of the category of person in English verbs reflects the corresponding categories of the noun in the function of subjects.

It gives the ground to state that the nature of the categories of number and person in verbs is purely reflective and syntactically predetermined by the grammatical meanings of person and number of subjects.

The exposition of the verbal categories of person and number helps explain some special cases of subject-predicative relations:

- a) combinations of the finite verb with collective nouns;
- b) predicative constructions whose subject is made plural by a numerical attribute (either singular or plural form of the verb): *Three years have passed since we saw him last. Three years is a long time.*
- c) constructions whose subject is expressed by a coordinative group of nouns, the verb-predicate is treated either as a plural or as a singular.

It is the subject that induces the verb through its inflexion to help express the substantial meaning not represented in the immediate substantial form.

There are three different types of agreement between the number forms of the subject and the verb-predicate:

- a) the formal agreement:  
*The wheat is ripe.*  
*The oats are ripe.*
- b) the formal and semantic agreement:  
*The book is interesting.*  
*The books are interesting.*
- c) the semantic agreement:  
*My family are good swimmers.*

*Twenty dollars is not enough.*

Thus, the categories of person and number in English verbs have intermixed character which answers in general the mixed character of the expression of person and number by the subject. It means that the personal and numerical meanings of the finite verb are expressed simultaneously in the verb form. These categories are reflective in their nature and syntactically conditioned by the form of the subject.

### The Category of Tense

Time relations in Modern English are expressed by different devices:

1. Tense-forms - morphological device:

*He **worked** at a factory.*

*He **will leave** for Moscow.*

2. Non-finite forms of the verb (expressing current relevance of action: simultaneity, posteriority) - morphologo-syntactic device:

***Reading** the book he was taking notes.*

***Having done** with his work, he rang me up.*

3. Conjunctive words (*while, after, till, etc.*) - lexico-syntactic device:

*I shan't ring you up **till** I know the truth.*

4. Correlative words (*no sooner...than; hardly...when, etc.*) - lexico syntactic device:

**No sooner** had I entered the room when the rain began.

5. Adverbs of time (*then, yesterday, etc.*).

6. Nouns expressing time (*winter, August, etc.*).

7. Adjectives (*former teacher, future wife*).

8. Affixes (ex-; post-; pre-): *ex-minister, post-war, pre-war*.

lexical devices

9. Syntactically - by means of the sequence of tenses.

The grammatical category of tense is represented by the grammatical opposition. Different views have been expressed concerning the number of tense opposeemes:

1. The category of tense is revealed in a three-member opposition.

2. There are two tense-opposeemes in Modern English.

3. There are more than three tense-opposeemes in the system of the English verb.

Some grammarians recognize more than three tense-forms in English verbs. Professor Ivanova singles out tense forms in the past - present - future in the four

paradigmatic types: Indefinite, Continuous, Perfect, Perfect-Continuous. The above mentioned tense-forms are based on the confusion of the three different grammatical categories of tense, aspect and correlation. It is a common knowledge that the three cited grammatical categories of the verb are closely connected with each other, overlapped in a single form: it means that any form of the finite verb represents the category of tense and aspect at the same time.

The interaction of the categories of tense and aspect in a single form enables some scholars to speak not of tense and aspect separately but of tense-aspect forms and correspondingly of the tense-aspect category.

The basis of such approach can't be regarded logical, because the form of the finite verb is an indicator of all its grammatical categories. It seems perfectly reasonable to admit that in the case of such complicated forms of the finite verb as *has been writing* one should distinguish the three grammatical categories:

- present tense form;
- perfect correlation form;
- continuous aspect form.

In linguistics there were made the attempts to prove the existence of two tense-opposemes in English: non-past - past. There are the following arguments for this:

- a) the rejection of the existence of a future categorial form of the verb;
- b) the arrangement of the tense system of the English verb in terms of temporal centers;
- c) the recognition of two temporal categories in English.

Some scholars don't recognize the existence of a future tense in English. In Jespersen's view the verbs *shall / will* preserve some of their original meaning (shall - obligation, will - volition) and thus, English has no way of expressing pure futurity free from modal shades of meaning, i.e. it has no form standing at the same grammatical level as the forms of the past and present tenses.

Professor Barkhudarov is very persistent in denying the future as a categorial tense form. His arguments are:

1. *Shall/will* are modal verbs alongside of *can, may, must*. The combinations of *shall/will* + Infinitive don't differ from *may* + Infinitive neither in form nor in meaning as the verbs *shall/will* always reserve their modal semantics to this or that extent.

2. The constructions *shall/will* + Infinitive do not always convey the future meaning as well as the meaning of future may be expressed by some other forms:

*The train is leaving in 5 minutes.*

*I am going to help you.*

*He can do it tomorrow.*

3. The construction *should/would* + Infinitive representing the so-called future-in-the past shows that the verbs *shall/will* may take the morpheme of the past. This testifies to the rejection of the categorial tense-form of future as the constituents of forms of the grammatical category are always mutually exclusive, i.e. one and the same form can't belong simultaneously to different categorial forms within one and the same category.

It is true to some extent that the future form differs from other categorial tense forms of the past and present because:

a) the future is an analytical form while the past and the present are synthetic;

b) the difference is much more sufficient in the semantic sphere. The future tense-form represents something which is not realized yet and, due to this, is connected with modality. But this modality should not be exaggerated.

But all this reasoning put forward in favor of the rejection of a future tense is not convincing. Though *shall/will* may in some contexts preserve their original meaning of obligation and volition, as a rule they are free from these shades of meaning and express mere futurity.

*I am sure the train will come in time.*

modality      pure futurity

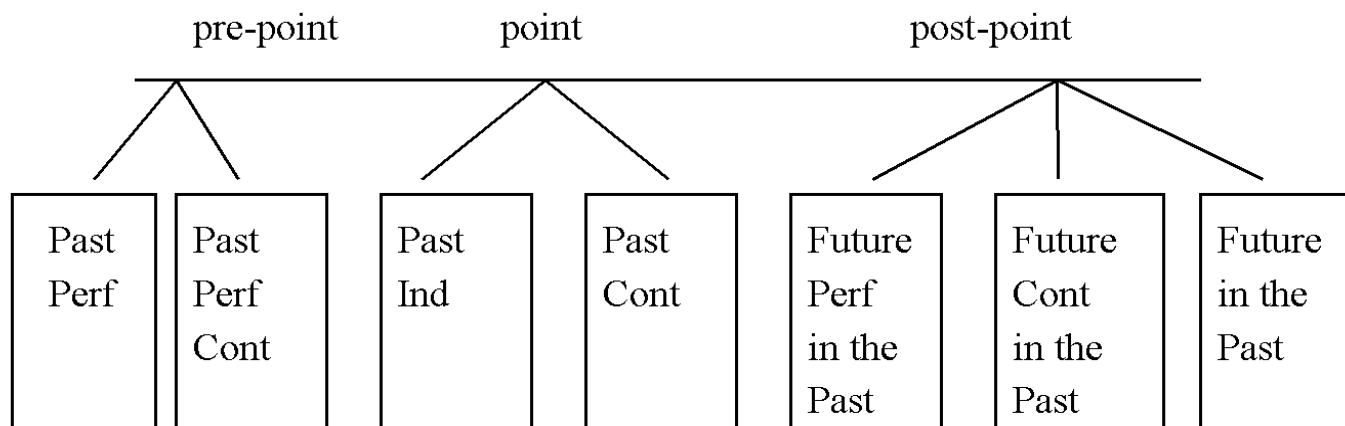
Some scholars speak of two tense-forms in English on the basis of the arrangement of tense-forms round two temporal centres. The idea of temporal centres was proposed by professor Ivanova and further developed by professor Irtenyeva. She finds two halves of the tense system in English: that of tenses centering in the present and that of tenses centering in the past (the present-point time and the past-point time respectively).

These centres comprise the tense forms of the English verb. Thus, we have two temporal lines in the past and in the present consisting of three parts: pre-point, point and post-point. Each item of the temporal line groups certain tense-forms. This view has the advantage of reducing the traditional threefold division of tenses (present - past - future) to a twofold opposition (past - present) with each of the two future tenses (future and future-in-the past) included into the past or the present system respectively.

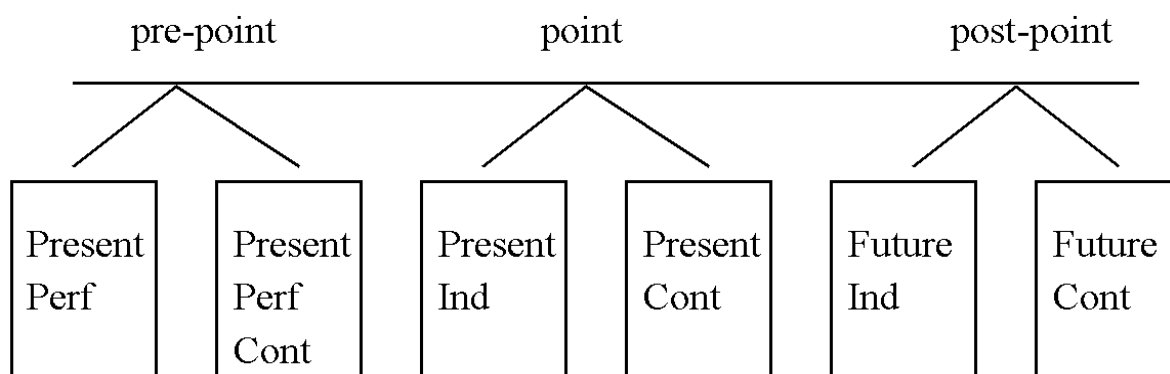
The two centre-system of the English tense may be shown graphically:



## Past-Point Time



## Present-Point Time



To professor Blokh's opinion tense is effected in two correlated stages. At the first stage the process receives an absolute time characteristic by means of opposing the past tense to the present tense.

At the second stage the process receives a non-absolute relative time characteristic by means of opposing the forms of the future to the forms of no future marking. In this connection it stands to reason to recognize in the system of the English verb not one but two temporal categories.

The category of primary time which provides the absolute expression of the time, i.e. it gives its evaluation in the reference to the moment of speech.

The category of prospective time. It is also a temporal category as it is immediately connected with the expression of time. The prospective time is purely relative, it means that the future form of the verb only shows that the process is prospected as an after-action relative to some other action or process.

The traditional division of the tense opposemes into the past - present - future proves to be the most reasonable.

## The Present Tense

The present tense is often characterized negatively, i.e. as the form used when there is no positive reason for the use of the past and future or any other complex conjugational form. As the unmarked tense opposeme, it is called the neutral or non-past of the verb.

It explains a very wide range of its meanings exceeding the “moment” of speech which is considered to be the zero tense point. In many cases the present tense-form denotes the process which takes place in the moment of speech: *I see the man in the street*. But it doesn't hold good in such cases as: *I work at the Institute*. *I like folk music*.

These examples are illustrative of the meaning which may be called as limitless period of time but not meaning of the moment of speech. There are other examples which contradict the traditionally distinguished categorial meaning of the present tense as the time of the process which coincides with the moment of speech. Thus, according to the meanings expressed by the present tense, it may be: inclusive present, neutral present, exclusive present and imperative modality.

Inclusive and neutral present constitute the primary denotative meaning of the present tense form.

Inclusive present may include: a) actual present which denotes a process occurring at the moment of speech: *I see a flower*. *I love you*; b) stage remarks, comments in the newspapers, authors' words: *Bell rings*. *Goes behind the screen*.

Neutral present may be generalizing present, iterative present and qualitative present. Generalizing present denotes something that is always true: *The sun rises in the east*. Iterative present represents process permanently characterizing the subject: *I always go there*. Iterative present also refers to the process repeated at intervals, the repetition being usually indicated by adverbials: *every day*, *always*, *usually*. Qualitative present denotes ability to do something: *She speaks three languages*. *He plays tennis*.

Exclusive present has the meanings of past-time reference and future time reference. Past time reference is one of the syntagmatic (secondary) meanings of the present tense form: *And then she appears*. The transpositional use of the present tense-form with past time reference aims at creating the stylistic purpose known as ‘historic present’.

The present tense-form is used with future time reference in the following cases:

- a) when there is the indication of the time of the supposed action: *He leaves on Sunday*. *We start tomorrow*.

- b) in the subordinate clauses of time and condition: *When the term begins, we'll discuss our plans.*
- c) in the object subordinate clauses: *What happens when I speak to him.*
- d) imperative modality: *You go and see him.*

### **The Past Tense**

The past tense represents a process which precedes the moment of speech and excludes it. It refers the process to the past without any connection with the present moment. It is primarily the tense of narration. The past tense may denote:

1. A succession of processes in the past: *I went up and had a bath, and dressed, and stood at my window.*

2. Simultaneity in action or process: *He paid no attention when a young man raised his hat.*

3. Repeated actions or processes in the past. It may also denote a permanent characteristic of a person or thing spoken about: *She played tennis with innate grace.*

4. The anteriority of actions. The opposition between perfect forms and the past tense forms in such clauses is neutralized. The signals of 'earlier time' is expressed by the words 'after' and 'before': *After he left house, he recollected that he had not locked the door.*

5. The past tense form is also used to denote what has been true and will also remain so: *Men were deceivers ever* (Shakespeare).

6. The past tense is used to denote an action which is supposed to take place in the future (i.e. with the meaning of the future time reference). The future in such cases is viewed from the past: *We had very little time that evening as we started the next day.* The same holds true with the subordinate clauses of time and condition: *He said he would read the book if he had time.*

### **The Future Tense**

The future tense is used to denote:

1. Future actions and processes: *I shall come to help you.*

2. Timeless, general truths: *Oil will float on water.*

3. Various shades of hypothetical meaning ranging from a mere supposition to a strong presumption combined with the meaning of futurity: *He will already be asleep, don't disturb him. Mother will be wondering where we are.*

## The Category of Aspect

The grammatical meaning of this category is to express different manners of action. This category expresses an action viewed either as a process or as a fact. The aspect category is constituted by the opposition:

non-continuous form	continuous form
<i>to ask</i>	<i>am (is, are) asking.</i>

It is also found in the non-finite forms of the verb:

<i>to ask</i>	<i>to be asking.</i>
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Thus, the opposition shows whether the process is taken in its progress, in its development or it is simply stated as a fact being unspecified.

The grammatical meaning of this category may be defined as:

the character of the action (Nida);

the type, the aspect of the action (Curme);

the inherent mode of the realization of the process irrespective of its timing (Blokh). So, it discloses the nature of development of the action.

The non-continuous aspect form is the unmarked member of the opposition. The meaning of the non-continuous aspect form as the meaning of all unmarked members of the opposition is extensive. The main components of the semantics of the non-continuous aspect form are:

- a) momentary actions: *He fell down*;
- b) repeated actions: *I always go to the office at 8 o'clock*;
- c) actions which occupy a long period of time: *He lives in London*;
- d) actions of unlimited duration: *The earth rotates round the sun*.

The marked member of the aspect opposition is the continuous form which is built up by the auxiliary *be* + *Present Participle* of the verb (BE +Ving). The categorial meaning of the continuous aspect form is an action in progress. This form is semantically intensive. The main components of the semantics of the continuous aspect form are:

- a) duration - an action is expressed in progress: *He is writing*;
- b) definiteness - an action is limited to a definite period of time: *He has been writing for two hours*;
- c) future action: *He is leaving for London tomorrow*;
- d) continual process: *John is living in London*;
- e) repeated action: *She is jumping (up and down)*;
- f) action simultaneous with another action: *When John came Marry was cooking dinner*;

g) action of unlimited duration: *The people are fighting for peace.*

The realization of the aspect category is closely connected with the lexical meaning of verbs. Since the grammatical meaning of continuous aspect form is that of action in progress, terminative verbs can't be used in the continuous aspect form due to their semantics.

Sometimes the paradigmatic meaning of terminativeness is neutralized and terminative verbs may be used in continuous form having changed its meaning, e.g. *to bring* (terminative verb). We can't put this verb into the continuous form generally, but in the example: *He is bringing me flowers* the lexical meaning is changed. *I was bringing the flowers* (but something happened and I did not bring them).

The category of aspect shouldn't be confused with the category of tense. It is true that each aspect form combines with the tense form, but aspect form can't be regarded as tense form due to the following facts:

- a) aspect category has its own morphological way of expression:
- b) the infinitive has no tense distinctions but it possesses aspect distinctions:  
*to write - to be writing.*

### **The Category of Voice**

The category of voice establishes relations between three components of the predication:

- 1) the doer of the action;
- 2) the action itself;
- 3) the object of the action.

The voice category is represented by the grammatical opposition of:  
*non-passive voice form - passive voice form.*

The unmarked opposeme of this opposition is non-passive voice form. It is reasonable to speak of non-passive but not active form because this form renders several meanings.

***The active action meaning.*** The action is performed by the doer of the action which is a grammatical subject of the sentence: *He sleeps well.*

***The meaning of the middle voice:*** *This book reads (sells) well.* There are different opinions on the problem of the middle voice in English. Let's take the following examples:

1. *I opened the door.*
2. *The door opened.*

The difference between these two examples is in the syntactical environment of the forms. Open (1) is connected with the object, while open (2) is characterized by negative syntactical connection. This gives the ground for some grammarians to consider open (1) and open (2) as the forms of two different voices - active and middle. This point of view is not convincing because the difference is not grammatically expressed or morphologically marked.

Open (1) and open (2) are the forms of one and the same non-passive voice because syntactical context is not sufficient for voice distinction in this case. That's why we speak not of the middle voice here, but of the meaning of the middle voice.

**The meaning of the reflexive voice:** *He hurt himself badly.* The verbs with reflexive meaning denote an action which the doer of the action performs itself. Such verbs are accompanied by reflexive pronouns (*myself, himself, herself, themselves, etc.*). The meaning of the reflexive voice should not be confused with the meaning of the pure active voice: *He helped himself and everybody else.* -Self pronoun in this case is of the same relation to the verb as any other noun or pronoun denoting the object of the action. So, it is treated as a separate part of the sentence (object).

Let's take another example: *He found himself in the park.* -Self pronoun in this sentence is a part of the predicate (found). So, -self can't be treated as a separate part of the sentence. It is an auxiliary word serving to express the meaning of the reflexive voice.

Markers of difference between -self pronoun as a part of a predicate and as a separate part of the sentence are the following:

1. As a separate part of the sentence -self pronoun can be separated from the verb.
2. -Self pronoun may function in the pattern: *self + and + noun (pronoun)- (object): He washed himself and the child.*

English grammarian Henry Poutsma singles out transitive reflexive and intransitive reflexive voice.

Transitive reflexive are associated with transitive verbs, which have the full significance of the object: *He covered himself up warmly* (himself is a separate part of the sentence, i.e. object).

When -self pronoun is associated with intransitive verbs and is deprived of semantic significance of object, we speak of intransitive reflexive. In this case the -self pronoun performs the function of the part of predicate: *He enjoyed himself at the party.*

***The meaning of the reciprocal voice.*** The verbs with this meaning denote an action which requires more than one doer of the action: *They greeted each other.* The subject here can't be in the singular form. We speak of the meaning of the reciprocal voice but not of the separate voice because *each other, one another* are not grammatical signals of the reciprocal voice. They may stand in the same relation to the verb as other nouns or pronouns in the function of an object.

***The meaning of the causative voice:*** *He marched his soldiers.* The subject in this sentence expresses the causative meaning and thus, we speak of the non-passive voice form with the meanings of the causative voice.

The passive voice form is the marked member of the opposition and it is used in cases when the doer of the action is either unknown or irrelevant. Passive voice constructions may be two-member and three-member. Two-member passive constructions express the relations between the subject of the action and the action itself: *The letter is written.* Three-member passive constructions establishes the relations between the doer of the action, the action itself and the object: *The letter is written by John.*

Passive voice forms are considered by some grammarians to be mere transforms of corresponding non-passive constructions. But it should be noted that there are cases when passive constructions can't be transformed into active ones:

*English is spoken here.*

*It is hoped so.*

The above cited sentences have no parallel counterparts. On the other hand not all active constructions have passive counterparts. The passive forms are not used with verbs with implicit meanings of activeness: *to suffer, to bear, to stand.*

The problem of voice is closely connected with the implicit dependent grammatical meaning of transitivity/intransitivity. Intransitive verbs have no passive voice forms as they are characterized by the meaning of activeness. They denote the relations between the doer of the action and the action but not between the doer, the action and the object.

### **The Category of Mood**

The category of mood is a grammatical category which expresses the character of connection between the process denoted by the verb and the actual reality, either presenting the process as a fact that really happened, happens or will happen or treating it as an imaginary phenomenon. So, this grammatical category

serves to express modality. Modality is the relation of the speaker to objective reality. There are different ways of expressing modality:

1. The Category of Mood (Indicative, Imperative, Oblique).

2. Functional transpositions of verb-forms:

*You will sit still. - Sit still!*

3. Modal phrases, expressing certainty, uncertainty, supposition, etc.:

*He may have come.*

4. Pseudo-sub-clauses type:

a) *That he should have come so late!*

b) *Oh, if I were in London!*

5. Modal words (certainly, surely, probably, perhaps, all right, etc.).

*He will come, all right.*

6. Infinitival sentences:

*To have taken that risk!*

7. Interjections (on earth, goodness gracious, well, I never!):

*What on earth could I do?*

There are the following moods in English: the direct moods (the Indicative and the Imperative) and the oblique moods (Subjunctive I, Subjunctive II, the Suppositional (modal phrase) and the Conditional).

### **The Indicative Mood**

All the grammarians recognize it. It denotes a real action or planned action as a fact of reality. Real actions develop in time in the present, past and future. That's why the Indicative mood is closely connected with the category of tense and other grammatical categories: *He is making notes of the lecture now.* In the cited sentence the simple verbal predicate is expressed by the verb *to make* in: present tense form; indicative mood form; continuous aspect form; non-passive voice form; non-perfect correlation form; 3rd person singular number form.

In some cases the indicative mood may represent the action problematic, probable or doubtful. This happens in the following cases:

a) due to the lexical meaning of the verb:

*I doubt that he is present. I am not sure that he is ill.*

b) due to the modal verbs:

*He may come to the lecture. She might have fallen ill.*

c) due to the syntactic construction:

*Is she really present at the lecture? If he comes, I'll inform you.*



The Indicative mood is an unmarked member of the opposition expressed morphologically by a zero morpheme.

### **The Imperative Mood**

This mood is distinguished by most of the linguists. In 1965 professor Barkhudarov didn't include the imperative mood in his system of verbs. But after ten years he found the imperative mood judging by the facts:

1. The forms of the imperative mood coincide with the forms of the indicative mood in the second person:

*Give me this book.*

*You give me this book.*

The exception is the verb *to be*: *Be careful; You are careful.*

2. The forms of the imperative mood coincide with the forms of the unmarked infinitive (without the particle *to*), but their negative forms are different: *Ask me... Don't ask me...* That's why the forms of the imperative mood can't be considered the forms of the infinitive.

The imperative mood serves to express the action as the command, order, invitation, urging addressed to the person. The modal meaning of the imperative mood is very strong and distinct and is supported by the context.

Morphologically the imperative mood is represented by the verb *to be*. The forms of other verbs are homonymous with the indicative mood or with the infinitive.

The imperative mood possesses the implicit meaning of the second person because the utterance with the verb in the imperative mood is always addressed to the interlocutor, but the grammatical subject as a rule is not indicated except the emphatic speech:

*Sit still.*

*You sit still.*

The imperative mood is characterized by the notion of number. The meaning of number is expressed in the reflexive and reciprocal pronouns:

*Behave yourself. Behave yourselves.*

*Kiss each other. Kiss one another.*

Some grammarians say that the imperative mood is characterized by the category of aspect and voice: *Be writing. Be warmed.* But these cases are occasional.

Some grammarians consider that there are analytical forms of the imperative mood: *Let us go for a walk* (let is devoid of lexical meaning). The pronoun *us* in the

objective case may be considered as grammatical subject because it denotes the doer of the action.

The imperative mood may convey the following meanings:

- a) a categorial command: *Come up to the blackboard.*
- b) a less categorial command: *Come up to the blackboard, please.*
- c) a request: *Will you come to the blackboard?*
- d) an invitation: *Won't you come to the blackboard?*
- e) a polite request: *Would you come to the blackboard?*

### **The Oblique Moods**

The function of the oblique moods is to represent something in the speaker's mind not as a real fact, but as a wish, purpose, supposition, doubt or condition problematic or contrary to fact. There are four oblique moods in Modern English, of which two are synthetical and two analytical. The synthetical moods are - Subjunctive I and Subjunctive II. The analytical moods are - The Conditional and the Suppositional.

The problem of oblique moods in English is considered to be one of the most complicated problems in linguistics. The main difficulties of this problem are:

1. The homonymy of word forms which are used for the indicative and subjunctive forms:

*I knew him* (Indicative Mood).

*I wish I knew him* (Subjunctive II Present).

2. There is no definite decision on the nature of the verbs *should, would, can, may, could, might*. The problem is whether they are auxiliaries or the modal verbs combined with the infinitive.

There is no unity among grammarians concerning the oblique moods because they treat this problem from different points of view. They take into consideration either meaning or form, or both.

Professor Barkhudarov denies at all the existence of oblique moods because he takes into consideration only the form.

Professor Vorontsova distinguishes three oblique moods taking into consideration the meaning: optative (imperative, desirative, subjunctive), speculative (dubitative, irreal), presumptive.

Some foreign linguists point out 16 oblique moods in English.

The representatives of the Leningrad school (Ilyish, Kaushanskaya) point only one oblique mood - subjunctive with two its forms - the conditional form and the subjunctive form.

Nowadays four oblique moods are singled out: subjunctive I, subjunctive II, the conditional mood and the modal phrase. The modal phrase has got two forms: present and past. The present modal phrase is formed by means of the modal verbs which are semi-auxiliary and semi-modal and the simple form of the infinitive. The past modal phrase is formed with the combination of modal verbs *should, can, could, may, might* and the perfect form of the infinitive.

### **The Category of Correlation (Perfect)**

The Perfect forms in English do not make up a systemic grouping. In fact, there is no invariant characteristics of the perfect as it is. The Present perfect stands apart from the other Perfect forms. The past perfect form is neither tense nor aspect form, it does not signify any time distinction and it does not express any manner of action. This form signifies precedence of an action. So, the form is relative and its use is usually conditioned by the context of the composite sentence with the predicates correlating in temporal sequence. E.g.:

*David had already pulled back the throttle and mixture until the wind kept bumping the plain down and up as it went into its long power glide* (Aldridge).

*He had promised to join her (his wife) before the summer, but he knew he would never do it ...* (Aldridge).

The actual meaning of the Past Perfect is revealed to the full in the indirect speech. Moreover, the form is used regularly as a special device for forming up oblique utterances in indicating the time orientation of the predicates according to the rules of the so-called sequence of tenses.

The Future Perfect form is rarely used. Its features can be outlined in view of the isomorphism in the organization of the temporal spheres. The Future Perfect resembles the Past Perfect as a relative verb-form signifying precedence or priority of actions.

The Present Perfect form is not, in fact, a relative verb-form. It does not signify time correlation in the way the other Perfect forms do. The Present Perfect possesses much of an aspective verb-form. It represents Aspectuality in its quite definite parameter, namely, the Present Perfect can signify either Perfectiveness or Resultativeness. Hence, the Present Perfect form can be regarded in the line with aspective verb-forms. E.g.:

*It is a relief to know that the governor has acted at last* (Maugham).

*“Have you heard him?” he asked Mr. Bartell D’Arcy* (Joyce).

The Present Perfect form can render temporal meaning characteristic of all the verb form pertaining to the group of Present verb-forms. It specifies the meaning of some present-time signals: *this year, this month, to-day, etc.* These time-signals can be used with different Present verb-forms and the verb-form provides orientation in reference to the present moment or the moment of speaking. E.g.:

*She works out a new plan to-day.*

*She is working out a new plan to-day.*

*She has worked out a new plan to-day.*

*She has been working out a new plan to-day.*

In these examples the Present-time distinction is signalled lexically by *to-day*. The Present verb-forms are designed to signify particular parameters of this Present time distinction.

The actualization of the tense-forms in English does not differ much from their realization. It follows that when actualized the tense-forms render their regular tense-meanings. Such forms are not apt to transposition. The verb-forms in indirect speech should not be mistaken for the tense-forms. They are relative verb-forms which are homonymous with the tense-forms, although they go back to the tense-forms etymologically:

*She worked out a new plan.*

*She said that she worked out a new plan.*

## BASIC SYNTACTICAL NOTIONS

1. The Subject Matter of Syntax.
2. Different Approaches to Syntactic Level Units.
3. Syntactical Theories in Modern English.
4. Syntactic Level Units.
5. Syntactic Relations, Connections, Processes.

### The Subject Matter of Syntax

Syntax deals with the rules and regularities of making up speech utterances. There are three different approaches to the definition of the subject-matter of syntax.

*Word-centric approach.* This approach is based on the assumption that the word is the main language unit which is used for making up speech utterances. Phrases and sentences should be treated as the extension of words. It is not reasonable, as this approach does not concern the inner paradigmatic properties of syntactic units. It neglects the communicative, functional and logical properties of phrases and sentences.

*Sentence-centric approach.* According to this approach the subject matter of syntax is considered to be a sentence. The phrases are treated as mere constituents of the sentence. It is not reasonable, as the paradigmatic properties of the phrase are neglected here. This approach doesn't pay due attention to the inner paradigmatic properties of the phrase: its structure, the relations between the components of the phrase, the nominative and semantic aspect of the phrase. These properties of the phrase are not predetermined by the sentence structure, they may be studied outside it.

*The third approach.* It is reasonable to recognize that syntax is that part of grammar which studies syntactic level units (phrase and sentence) in their paradigmatic and syntagmatic properties. But sentence, taken separately, doesn't serve the purpose of communication. Sentence can express a certain idea, but it is unable to express a communicative sense. This communicative sense is expressed by thematically connected sentences which constitute the text as a super syntactic and the highest communicative unit.

Thus, syntax should be regarded in modern linguistics as a part of grammar investigating phrases, sentences and texts in their paradigmatic and syntagmatic properties.

## Different Approaches to Syntactic Level Units

Syntactic level units are complicated in their structure. Professor Gak points out three approaches to syntactic level units: structural, logical and semantic.

*Structural* approach deals with syntactic level units as mere structures. According to this approach sentence is regarded as a predicative structure consisting of subject and predicate. Subject is treated as a nominal element expressed by a noun or pronoun or some other nominal element occupying pre-predicate position irrespective of their semantic and logical properties.

*Logical* approach starts from the assumption that the most essential feature of the sentence is to express a certain proposition (thought) according to the cognitive function of the language.

The sentence is qualified as a language means of expressing propositions. The sentence structure should reveal the thought structure. The structure of the thought consists of SUBJECT<sub>logical</sub> + PREDICATE<sub>logical</sub>. Subject logical is something spoken of, an object of thought. Predicate logical is something stated about the subject logical. They stand in relation of:

existence: *John lives here.*

specification: *John is a good boy.*

identity: *John is a student.*

*Semantic* approach compares syntactic units with the segments of reality depicted in them. In accord with this approach components of syntactic units express different elements of the situation expressed in the sentence. The sentence parts are regarded as semantic roles or arguments: *They sat at the table.* In the given sentence *they*, the doer of the action, is agent of the action; *sat* is a predicative argument (something stated about the subject); *at the table* (the place of the action) is a spacial argument.

## Syntactical Theories in Modern English

Traditional approach to syntax is that syntax should study and describe syntactical properties of words, i.e. their functions in the sentence and their role in building sentences.

But modern linguistics indicates that the task of syntax is to study syntagmatic properties of words, word-groups or phrases, sentences and paragraphs (texts). Besides, syntax does not neglect the paradigmatic properties of syntactic units.

According to different approaches to syntactic units grammarians study different aspects of syntactical phenomena. There are different theories.

*Categorial syntax* studies ways and types of parts of speech combination. For example the categorial property of a noun is known for its ability to combine with articles, pronouns, adjectives, etc.

*Structural syntax* studies the inner structural peculiarities of syntactical units.

The further development of structural syntax is known as *constructive syntax*. The notional constructive value is the basic one in constructive syntax. According to this theory some syntactical elements, previously thought of as optional, nowadays are treated as obligatory in order to build a structurally completed sentence.

*Functional syntax* studies the functional aspect of syntactic units. The basic theory of functional syntax is the theory of functional sentence perspective.

*Communicative and pragmatic syntax*. These theories study the communicative intention of separate sentences. It is generally accepted that the traditional classification of sentences into declarative, imperative, interrogative and exclamatory is not full. The theory proposes to distinguish some pragmatic types of sentences according to their role in communication.

*Generative or transformational syntax* reveals mechanism of sentence generation. This theory was developed by the linguists Harris and Chomsky. Chomsky proposed to use transformation as an instrument for investigation of syntax. By transforms we mean syntactic patterns that closely resemble other syntactic patterns, from which they are reasonably considered to derive.

Transformational syntax approaches with the same criteria all types of sentences putting forth the two fundamental problems:

- a) the establishment of the domain of the kernel sentences and
- b) the establishment of the set of transformation rules for deriving all the other sentences as their transforms.

*Paradigmatic syntax* is a part of grammatical theory which has to deal with such phenomena as:

*My friend has come.*

*My friend has not come.*

*Has my friend come?*

*My friend will come.*

*My friend will not come.*

*Will my friend come?*

*My friends have come.*

All these are considered as variations of one and the same sentence.

### **Syntactic Level Units**

Syntactic units are level units. It means that they belong to the particular language level and represent the level in the distinguishing features of its elements. It became common to regard syntactic units as the highest level units of the language stratification which close up the hierarchy of language units. But in the light of text linguistics this seems not fully justified because the texteme, i.e. the structural and predicative body of the text, possesses all the features which allow it to be placed at the top of the structural hierarchy of language units.

The texteme possesses some features in common with the syntactic units of predicative and communicative nature but it is of higher rank and differs from such units in some features. On this ground the texteme is identified as a supersyntactic unit.

The syntactic level units have quite definite relationships with the morphological level units, the latter being intergrants of the higher language units.

By common tradition word-groups and sentences are said to be built of words. But in fact, it is not the word itself as the denotative unit that serves as constructive material for the formation of syntactic units. It is the word with its grammatical properties, because the word is turned to grammar by its grammatical aspect. The distinguishing feature of the grammatical aspect of the word is the grammatical nature of its content and expression. It is the grammatical word-form that represents the upper stage of the morphological level and is transposed into syntax acquiring the status of the elementary syntactic unit.

Syntactic units are hierarchically arranged at the level itself. There are six of them in a stratification.

The hierarchy of syntactic units begins with the elementary syntactic unit which is a kind of “brick” in the basement of the syntactic level units proper (word-form). The word-form is not a syntactic unit proper. It is identified as such only due to its integrative property word-groups.

There are two sublevels in syntax, the sublevels of communicative and non-communicative units. The sentence is the main syntactic unit of communicative design. The sublevel of non-communicative units is represented by the word-group. Clausal units are intermediate between word-groups and sentences. On the one hand, clauses enter into the class of predicative units and are similar, in most respects, to predicative word-groups. On the other hand, they are of finite



predication and their finiteness makes them resemble sentential units. But clauses are dependent non-communicative units of finite predication whereas sentences are communicative units.

The differentiation between word-groups and sentences has always been crucial because they differ qualitatively, each possessing its own traits. Correspondingly, they make the subject of the two main syntaxes: the minor and the major.

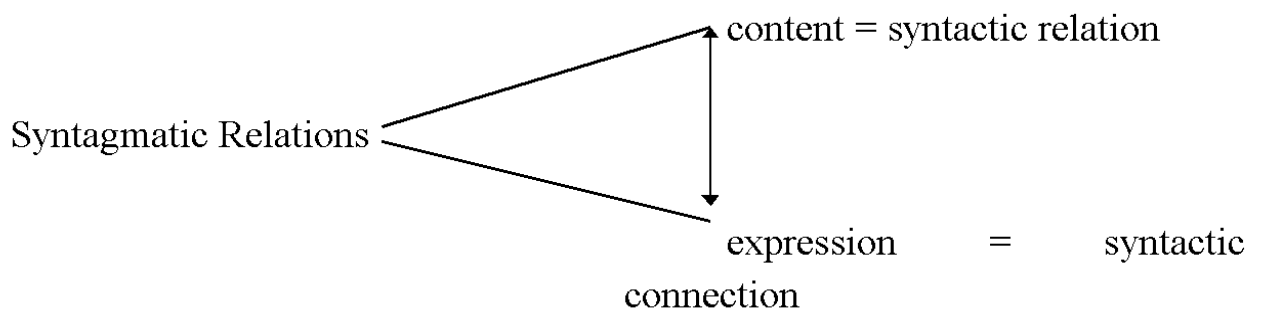
Syntactic units can be grouped and at the same time opposed on another principle, namely, they can be subdivided into predicative and non-predicative units. The class predicative units includes most of the syntactic level units: predicative word-groups, clauses, sentences and supersyntactic units, i.e. textemes.

Syntactic units are syntagmemes. They are binominal linear arrangements of related elements. Their qualitative value is the inherent syntagmatic relation between the elements of an arrangement which are identified as constituents. A constituent is not any element occurring in a construction, it is a notional element which possesses constructive value predetermining its functioning in a particular construction-type.

### Syntactic Relations and Syntactic Connections

Syntagmatic relations in syntax can be defined as syntactic relations. They exist between the constituents syntactic relational units (syntagmemes) of different constructional types.

Syntactic relations are considered to be the matters of content which are formalized by syntactic connections.



It has become common to distinguish three main types of syntactic relations: coordination, subordination, predication.

**Coordination.** The number of constituents is not limited. They may be words, phrases, clauses and sentences. Coordination is based on syntagmatic relations the type of which is independence.

**Subordination.** This type of relation is based on syntagmatic relations of dependence. It is a relation between a syntactically leading and syntactically dependent constituents. The leading constituent is called the head, the dependent constituent is called adjunct. This type of relation exists words, phrases and between clauses in the complex sentence, i.e. between the main clause and the subordinate clause. There are four types of connection within the subordinate phrase:

a) agreement or concord; b) government; c) adjoinment; d) enclosure.

*Agreement.* By agreement we mean a method of expressing a syntactic relationship which consists in making the subordinate word take a form similar to that of the word to which it is subordinated. In Modern English this can refer only to the category of number: a subordinate word agrees in number with its head word. This is practically found in two words only, the pronouns *this* and *that*, which agree in number with their head word:

*this student*            *these students;*  
*that student*           *those students.*

Some grammarians call the connection between the subject and the predicate as agreement but other grammarians and professor Barkhudarov among them consider that the phrases of the **NV** type are treated as sentences but not phrases. Besides, we cannot say that the subject or the predicate is the head of the word. Professor Barkhudarov calls the connection between the subject and the predicate correspondence.

*Government.* By government we understand the use of a certain form of the subordinate word required by its head word, but not coinciding with the form of the head word itself - that is the difference between agreement and government. The only thing that may be termed government in Modern English is the use of the objective case of personal pronouns and of the pronoun *who* when they are subordinate to a verb or follow a preposition: *to see him; to love him.*

*Adjoinment.* No exact definition of this notion is given. Its characteristic feature is usually described in a negative way, as absence both of agreement and of government. The most usual example of this type of connection is the relation between an adverb and its head word, whether this is an adjective or a verb or another adverb. An adverb is subordinated to its head word, without either agreeing with or being governed by it: *to run quickly.*

*Enclosure.* The essence of enclosure is that some element of a phrase is enclosed between two parts of another element. The most widely known case of

enclosure is the putting of a word between an article and the noun to which the article belongs:

*an interesting book;*  
*the then government.*

Some more examples of enclosure: *to take the hat off* (between the verb and its posposition), *I have never known him.*

**Predication.** Predication is based on the syntagmatic relation of interdependence. We may find it between the subject and the predicate. There are two types of predication: a) primary and b) secondary.

Primary predication is found between the subject and the predicate of the sentence: *He goes to the Institute.*

Secondary predication is found between the constituents of the predicative construction: *I saw him going to the Institute.*

### Devices of Syntactic Connection

There are several formal devices which are used as means of syntactic connection in Modern English.

**Inflection.** In synthetic languages inflections, case inflections in particular, are primarily employed as markers of syntactic connections. Such forms of subordination as agreement and government are the main ones in Ukrainian and Russian. They are marked by case inflections: *тяжкими шляхами; займатися перекладом; розглядати картину.*

Inflectional devices are used in Modern English though the sphere of their occurrence is highly limited. They are in fact exceptional:

*these conclusions;*  
*those implications;*  
*saw him in the garden;*  
*gave them a new assignment.*

**Function Words.** Special function words are widely used in Modern English as means of syntactic connection. They may be subdivided into two groups in accordance with their specialization.

Some of them function as connectors. Their connecting function prevails over the function of a syntactical marker. This group comprises conjunctions and conjunctive and relative words. They form up a linkage of elements in a syntactic formation. They fall into the two groups accordingly: coordinators: *and, or, but, yet* and subordinators: *that, when, as if, though*. Connectors are relation-words because they indicate and mark syntagmatic relations between words, clauses, sentences and

even paragraphs. Conjunctive and relative words are not pure connectors and their linking function is not always primary. It is revealed in parallel with their function of the clause constituent.

**Word Order.** It is an analytical device marking such forms of subordinate connection as adjoinment and enclosure. These forms of subordination displaced agreement and government:

*asked him* - case government which is marked by the case form;

*asked a student* - adjoinment marked by the word order;

*these letters* - agreement marked by number forms;

*private letters* - adjoinment marked the word order;

*the chief's letters* - case government marked by case inflection.

### Syntactic Processes

The kernel sentence (in which all the sentence parts are obligatory and the omission of any is impossible) is considered to be an unextended one. (See syntagmatic classification of the verb). The number of kernel sentences in Modern English is rather limited, all the other sentences are mere transforms of the kernel sentences. The transformation of kernel sentences is achieved by means of certain syntactic processes.

#### Internal

expansion: addition specification	<i>The excited voices grew louder and <u>louder</u>.</i> <i>We'll meet tomorrow morning <u>at nine o'clock</u>.</i>
complication	<i>They drive in the park at 5. → They <u>may drive</u> in the park at 5.</i>
replacement	<i>I like coffee. - So <u>do</u> I.</i>
representation	<i>Would you like to come along? - I'd love <u>to</u>.</i>
ellipsis	<i>You look tired. - I <u>am a little</u>.</i>
contamination	<i>John left. He was angry. → John <u>left angry</u>.</i>

#### External

extension	<i>She bought a carpet. → She bought a <u>thick</u> carpet.</i>
adjoinment	<i>His brother was <u>just</u> the same.</i>
enclosure	<i>It was nice, <u>really</u>.</i>

# THE WORD-GROUP THEORY

## General Characteristics

The word-group is a binary formation of the two linearly ordered constituents which stand in syntagmatic relations. It is a combination of words linked together on the basis of a definite type of syntactic connection which is characterized by nominative function and is incapable of forming a sentence.

*Word-group versus sentence.* The word-group as such has no peculiar intonation, while intonation is one of the most important features of the sentence.

The word-group and the sentence belong to different types of naming units. Word-groups name separate objects or phenomena of the objective reality. Sentence is a means of 'propositional' naming because it expresses not separate phenomena but the whole propositions. The word-group is a syntactical but not communicative unit while the sentence is characterized both as main syntactical and communicative unit. Each component of the word-group can undergo grammatical changes in accordance with its grammatical categories without destroying the identity of the word-group, e.g.:

*to read book;*

*to read a book;*

*has read a book;*

*is reading books;*

*has been reading a book.*

The sentence is a unit with every word having its definite form. A change in the form of one or more words would produce a new sentence or destroy the sentence.

*Word-group versus word.* The word-group and the word belong to the same type of naming units. They reflect separate objects and phenomena of reality, thus fulfilling the identical nominative function. The only difference is that, that the word-group is a more extended naming unit. It doesn't only name the object or phenomena of the reality but also gives a certain characteristic to it, e.g.:

*a book*

*a new book;*

*a book for Peter;*

*a book to read;*

*a book for Peter to read.*

*Word-group versus compound word.* There is no separation of the parts of the compound word. But we may insert any word between the components of the word-group, e.g.:

*That ugly blackbird* (compound word);

*That black ugly bird* (word-group).

*Word-group versus analytical word-form.* The word-group is opposed to the analytical word-form due to the fact that the word-group is a grammatical unit constituted by two or more notional elements, while not all the elements of the analytical word-form are notional, e.g.:

*to read a book* (word-group);

*has been reading* (analytical word-form).

### **Types of Word-Groups**

The word-group is a complicated phenomenon of the syntactical level of the language which can be viewed of different angles. So, there are different classifications of word-groups.

*According to the structure* (the number of components) simple (unextended, kernel) consisting of two notional words: *a large window* and complex (extended) comprising more than two notional words: *a very good book*. Complex word groups may be of three types:

a) with an expanded head: *very fond of reading*;

b) with an expanded adjunct: *fond of reading books*;

c) with an expanded head and adjunct: *very fond of reading books*.

*According to the coincidence of the function of the whole phrase with that of one of its constituents.* According to this criterion all the word-groups are subdivided into endocentric, i.e. containing a head word or center and exocentric, i.e. non-headed. This classification is suggested by L. Bloomfield.

The endocentric group has the same function as one of its members and exocentric group has a distribution different from either of its members. In terms of substitution the head word of the endocentric group functions in the same way as the whole phrase, whereas the members of exocentric phrases cannot be used in the function of either of its members.

In endocentric constructions the subordinate and coordinate word-groups are distinguished. In subordinate word-groups the head stands for the whole construction. The function of the head coincides with that of the whole construction. The adjunct may be dropped without changing the meaning of the whole word-group, e.g.:

*Poor John ran away. - John ran away.*

In coordinate endocentric phrases any component may stand for the whole phrase, e.g.:

*Tom and Marry are students.*

*Tom is a student. Mary is a student.*

Exocentric constructions are of two types predicative (*John ran*) and prepositional (*beside John*). Neither of the constituents can be dropped without destroying the meaning of the whole phrase.

According to the type of syntactic relation between the components of the word-group, they may be classified into:

coordinate (based on syntagmatic relations of independence): *black and white*;

subordinate (based on syntagmatic relations of dependence): *a large window*;

predicative (based on syntagmatic relations of interdependence): *for him to read*.

According to the morphological classes of the head word-groups may be:

noun phrases (the head is expressed by the noun): *cold water*;

verb phrases (the head is expressed by the verb): *to read a book*;

adjective phrases (the head is expressed by the adjective): *strangely solemn*;

adverb phrases (the head is expressed by the adverb): *very quickly*.

According to the syntactical function performed by the phrases word groups may be:

subjective: *Young John studies in Oxford.*

objective: *Yesterday I saw young John.*

predicative: *It was young John.*

adverbial: *Young John lives in a fashionable mansion.*

## **Subordinate Word-Groups**

### **The Noun Phrase**

The noun phrase /NP/ is a kind of the subordinate type of phrases distinguished on the basis of its head. The noun phrase is constituted out of a noun-head /N/ and an adjunct/adjuncts /A/ with relations of modification between them. Noun phrases are widely spread in English because of the potential ability of the noun to go into combinations with practically all parts of speech (even with the adverb, e.g. *the then situation*) and by the fact that the noun phrase may function in the sentence as subject, object, predicative and adverbial modifier.

There is a number of possible ways to construct a noun phrase which means that the noun phrase is a productive area of English grammar. The problem of

scope of modification is essentially a problem of the structure of the noun phrase. The three types of modification is distinguished in a noun phrase.

*The premodification*, which comprises all the units placed before the head: **A...AN**. Adjuncts used in pre-head position are called pre-posed adjuncts, e.g.:

*The diligent boys.*

*Some diligent college boys.*

*The postmodification*, comprising all the items placed after the head - notably prepositional phrases, non-finite forms of the verb and relative clauses: **N...A**. Adjuncts used in post-head position are called post-posed adjuncts, e.g.:

*Students present at the meeting are my friends.*

*The student at the blackboard is my friend.*

*The student who is standing at the blackboard is my friend.*

*The pre- and postmodification (mutual modification)* comprising all the units in pre-head and post-head position e.g.: *A very young physics student from Moscow made a very interesting report yesterday.*

### **Noun Phrases with Pre-Posed Adjuncts**

Noun phrases with pre-posed adjuncts may be subclassified in accordance with:

1. The nature of adjuncts (phrases containing pro-adjectivals and adjectivals).
2. The functional significance of adjuncts, i.e. their design, specification and distribution (specifiers, pre-determiners, determiners, quantifiers, qualifiers, appositives).
3. The structure (basic or simple, extended, phrases of a mixed type).
4. The way, form and means of connection. According to the way of connection noun phrases are subordinate phrases. Subordination in the noun phrase may be formalized through adjoinment (**AN, NA**), government (**N's N1 N prep. N1**), enclosure (**d /A A/ N**). The means of subordination may be synthetic (inflectional **N's N**) and analytical (word-order, form words **N2 prep N1**).

The potential ability of the noun to go into combination with other parts of speech, i.e. its valency influences the nature of its adjuncts. Thus pre-posed adjuncts may be represented by different parts of speech. It is reasonable to divide all the pre-posed adjuncts into pre-adjectivals and adjectivals.

Pre-adjectivals (limiters, pre-determiners, determiners, quantifiers) can be set off from adjectivals by virtue of the fact that they differ from regular adjectivals (adjectives, noun-adjuncts, participles, gerunds) both in quantity and quality. All pre-adjectivals are limited in number and thus have the final description, i.e. they



may be enumerated, while the number of adjectivals is infinite because any adjective and practically any noun may function as a pre-posed adjunct.

Most pre-adjectivals are underived words (with the exception of derivatives from some, any, no: *somebody, anything, nobody*). Adjectivals may be both simple and derived words (*a dancing boy, medical students, resistance movement*).

Adjectivals may be used both in pre- and post-head position, while the only possible position for pre-adjectivals is pre-head position. The chief difference between pre-adjectivals (limiters, pre-determiners, determiners, quantifiers) on the one hand, and adjectivals (noun-adjuncts, adjectives, participles) on the other hand is that only the latter classes allow of class-recurrence, that is theoretically any number of insertions of the same class may be made, what is impossible with pre-adjectivals, e.g.:

*A wily, handsome, deft Haverford Road bakery truck driver*  
 d Adj3      Adj2   Adj1   N5    N4    N3    N2    N1-head  
*\*five ten children*

The same may be said about member reduplication: adjectivals allow of member reduplication - *happy, happy children*, pre-adjectivals do not allow of it - *\*my, my book, the, the books*.

The addition of adjectival doesn't make the noun phrase a closed one: *tree roots, exposed tree roots, spiky exposed tree roots, black, spike, exposed tree roots*, but the addition of a pre-adjectival makes it a closed one: *the black, spiky, exposed tree roots*.

Adjectivals may occur in more or less loose order, while the order of pre-adjectivals is fixed.

### The Functional Significance of Pre-Adjectivals

*LIMITERS (SPECIFIERS)* are a kind of pre-adjectivals designed to limit, to emphasize the meaning of the words they refer to. The position of limiters in a noun phrase is fixed, anticipatory. They usually precede the whole noun phrase, e.g.: *merely all these fifteen fine cotton dresses*. Limiters alone of all pre-adjectivals can occur with the subject and the predicate, e.g.:

<i>just</i>		<i>they came</i>
<i>only</i>		
<i>merely</i>		
<i>usually</i>		
<i>frequently</i>		

*PREDETERMINERS* are a kind of pre-adjectivals designed to predetermine, to mark the use of a noun phrase. Pre-determiners (*all, both* and *half*) have a unique feature: they can be separated from the regular determiners by the preposition *of*, e.g.:

*all of the students, most of my pupils, each of our students, the first of those newcomers.* They do not occur with indefinite determiners *every, (n)either, each, some, any, no.*

*DETERMINERS* are a kind of pre-adjectivals designed to mark nouns they pattern with to introduce a noun phrase. Both the definite and indefinite determiners are reciprocally exclusive: the determiners from the same subgroup cannot co-occur:

*\*a, any; \*the, this.*

Determiners are not parts of the sentence, they are parts of the noun phrase.

*POST-DETERMINERS* follow determiners but precede adjectivals in premodification structure. They include definite quantifiers (ordinal and cardinal numerals) and indefinite quantifiers (*many, few, much, little, more, several*). Post-determiners modify the noun-head in respect to its quantity, order, measure and size. Post-determiners may co-occur but only in the order indicated: ordinal numerals - cardinal numerals: *my first five pupils.*

### **Basic Noun Phrases**

**Adj.** *N* is the most widely spread kind of basic phrases, in which attributive relations of subordination have the form of adjoinment and word order is the means of connection: *handsome man*. The possible transformation of the phrase may be with a relative clause: *an angry man - a man who is angry*. Adjective in this kind of phrases may be reduplicated: *strong, strong tea*.

*N<sub>2</sub>N<sub>1</sub>* There is no unanimity as to the nature of N-adjunct. Some scholars (A.I.Smirmitsky and O.S.Akhmanova among them) regard N-adjunct in phrases like *stone wall, speech sound* as the noun-stem or the adjective-stem derived from the noun-stem by conversion. By stating this, the scholars deny the possibility of the use of the noun as an adjunct.

According to another approach to the problem the components '*stone*' and '*speech*' in phrases of this type are used in the function of an attribute, i.e. they are adjuncts.

As to formal criteria for distinguishing compounds from phrases, the most relevant one, in view of many modern grammarians, is that compound words normally have the primary stress on the first constituent (the noun stem) and the

secondary stress on the second stem (*headmaster, gunfire*), whereas corresponding syntactic groups have the loud stress on both constituent nouns (*London newspaper, stone wall*). From a morpho-phonemic point of view, such groups are therefore of the same structure as subordinate groups of the type Adj. N (*a large house, a red flower*). This accounts for the fact that elements like 'stone' and 'speech' in constructions like 'stone wall' are nouns used as attributes.

The adjectival character of the first component in N<sub>2</sub>N<sub>1</sub> constructions may, however, be proved by a number of syntactic phenomena:

1) the first component in some phrases may be coordinated with real adjectives in which case a conjunction or a comma, indication pause may or may not be present (*intimate and bosom friends; brisk, business tones; a specimen American mind*) and in which case also the noun may even precede the adjective (*evening and weekly papers; household quiet work*);

2) the first components in the N-phrases may be followed by the function word 'one' (*the Sunday one; a Tory one*);

3) they may be modified by an adverb (*a purely family gathering; a very makeshift manner*).

Thus, the morpho-phonemic and syntactic criteria confirm the view that the first constituent in the construction of the type 'stone wall' is the noun used attributively and the whole construction is a syntactic group and not a compound word.

Premodification of nouns by nouns can render a great variety of meanings. The relations of the units in the underlying constructions are retained by the nominalised transform of the noun phrase. These relations may be:

a) subject-predicate relations: *weather change - weather changes*. Very closely to such phrases are formations like *lady doctor, girl singer, etc.*, where relations between the two nouns are essentially different. The two elements are of the same importance, syntactically equal. The transformation can be applied: N<sub>1</sub> Vlink N<sub>2</sub> *The lady is a doctor. The girl is a singer.*

b) appositive relations: *doctor Snowdown*.

c) object relations: T → Vinf N<sub>2</sub>:

*car owners to own cars;*

*carpet sweeper to sweep carpet;*

*package delivery to deliver package.*

d) instrumental relations: T → Vinf with N<sub>2</sub>:

*oil painting to paint with oil;*

e) qualitative relations: *child psychology, science degree;*

- f) adverbial relations of:
- time: *evening party, summer season;*
  - place: *country air, London theatre;*
  - comparison: *iron nerves, button eyes;*
  - purpose: *coffee cups.*

**N's N** This phrase may render different meanings which can best be shown by sentential or phrasal analogues such as we present below:

- a) the relations of possession:

<i>my brother's bicycle</i>	<i>my brother has a bicycle;</i>
<i>the hunter's dog</i>	<i>the hunter has a dog;</i>

- b) subject-predicate relations:

<i>my sister's arrival</i>	<i>my sister arrived;</i>
<i>the doctor's advice</i>	<i>the doctor advised;</i>

- c) objective relations:

<i>criminal's arrest</i>	<i>somebody arrested the criminal;</i>
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- d) the relations of authorship:

<i>the writer's novel</i>	<i>the writer has written the novel;</i>
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- e) qualitative relations:

<i>a child's language</i>	<i>the language of a child;</i>
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- f) adverbial relations:

<i>an hour's delay</i>	<i>a delay for an hour.</i>
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The form of subordination in this phrase is the case government and the means of subordination is the case inflection (synthetic).

**Num. N** The adjuncts in this kind of noun phrases may be both cardinal and ordinal: *ten pencils, the fifth pupil.*

**Ven N** When pre-posed past participles are used in preposition they are felt to be more adjectival and less verbal than when they are used predicatively: *mingled feelings, a broken cup.*

**Ving N** When the adjunct is the present participle it is felt to be more verbal and less adjectival than when the adjunct is the gerund: *a sleeping boy, weeping people, a smiling girl, drinking cups, a dancing hall.* The possible transformations for them are different. For present participle:

<i>a sleeping boy</i>	<i>a boy is sleeping or a boy who is sleeping;</i>
<i>a smiling girl</i>	<i>a girl is smiling or a girl who is smiling;</i>

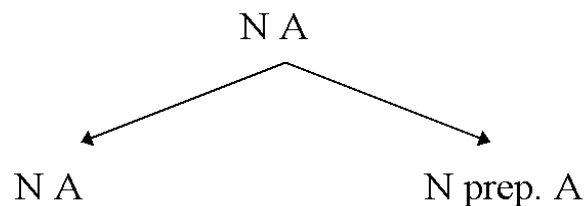
The gerund is paraphrasable in this way: N prep. Ving:

<i>drinking cups</i>	<i>cups for drinking;</i>
<i>a dancing hall</i>	<i>a hall for dancing.</i>

Subordination in these phrases is formalized through adjoinment. The means of connection is word order.

### Noun Phrases with Postposed Adjuncts

Noun phrase structure with the forms of postmodification varies considerably. According to the means of connection these phrases may be subdivided into prepositionless and prepositional.



### Prepositionless Postmodification

In structures of postmodification the use of separate words is rather limited. Postmodification is obligatory for a few adjectives, which have a different sense when they occur in pre-head position or predicatively. The most common adjectives are probably '*elect*' (soon to take office) and '*proper*' (as strict defined), as in: *the president elect; the paradigm proper*. In some combinations (mostly legal) the adjective is postposed: *attorney general, body politic, court martial*.

Postposition (in preference to preposition) is usual for a few statives and for the words *absent, present, concerned, involved, etc.* and for the words which normally do not occur in pre-head position in the relevant sense:

*The house ablaze is next door to mine.*

*The people involved were found.*

Postmodification is usual for adjectives in *-ible* and *-able*: *the evening information available*. But postmodification is also possible for other words.

The basic noun forms with postposed adjuncts are:

- N Adj.      *the tea strong;*
- N Ven      *the shape desired, destination unknown;*
- N Ving     *the girl serving;*
- N D        *the man downstairs, the people behind;*
- N Vinf     *the time to arrive;*
- N Num     *Peter the first, room ten.*

## Postmodification by Prepositional Phrases

Postmodification by prepositional phrases is by far the commonest type of postmodification in English: it is three or four times more frequent than prepositionless postmodification. The full range of prepositions is involved: *of, to, by, beyond, before, after, from, with, for, etc.*: *the roof of the house, the road to Kiev, two years before the war, a tree by a stream, a man from the village, the house beyond the club, this book on grammar.*

### The pattern of basic prepositional noun phrase is N<sub>1</sub> prep N<sub>2</sub>

N<sub>1</sub> *of* N<sub>2</sub> is the commonest prepositional postmodification of all is the of-phrase. This noun phrase may have different meanings:

- a) qualitative: *a man of self-possession; a woman of sense.* It may be paraphrased into a sentence with 'have': *a man of courage - the man has courage.*
- b) predicative: *the pleasure of the company - the company is a pleasure.*
- c) objective: *the reading of the newspaper - to read a newspaper.*
- d) partitive: *the centre of the room.*

The pattern of the basic noun phrase with reciprocal modification is A N A.

The implication of unexpectedness is present when adjectives are post-posed and correlate with pre-adjectivals like *only, few*: *the only house vacant.*

This structural type of phrases is characterized by the usage of certain pre-adjectivals in preposition (*only, all, few, every, any, no*) and adjuncts in postposition (adjectives of French origin and those ending in *-able, -ible, etc.*): *the only road passable, all persons loyal, the few man disloyal.*

## Noun Phrases with Multiple Modification

Theoretically nominal phrases may be extremely long and complex. We can keep adding adjuncts to a basic noun phrase indefinitely, e.g.: *medical students - Kiev medical students - entering Kiev medical students - inexperienced entering Kiev medical students, etc.*

But judging from common usage there seems to be an upper limit of 7 +/- 2 adjuncts and most noun phrases contain only two or three pre-posed adjuncts.

When adjuncts modify the head separately the syntactic process of *additive expansion* is observed. Additive relations exist between adjuncts of the same rank and stage of dependence and between the heads (*Ukrainian men, women and children*). The structures of the expanded adjuncts are:

- |            |                                                              |
|------------|--------------------------------------------------------------|
| Adj, Adj N | <i>a slender, fair girl; our great and splendid capital.</i> |
| Adj, Ven N | <i>a low, choked voice.</i>                                  |

Adj, Adj and Ven N      *a sudden, violent and unprovoked attack.*

*Specificatory expansion* is observed when some adjuncts seem to modify not only the head but the collocation of one or more subsequent adjuncts and the head, e.g.: *countless (musical instruments); well-known (linguistic magazines).*

Specification exists between the adjuncts of different stage of dependence within one and the same phrase, e.g.: *a large stone mansion.* The word 'large' refers not only to the head but to the head with its adjunct (*stone mansion*).

In premodification both kinds of expansion (addition and specification) are observed, whereas prepositionless postmodification addition is the only possible kind of expansion, e.g.:

N A and Ven              *a gaze expressionless and fixed;*

N Ving, Ving and Adj    *the mist penetrating, enveloping and silent.*

Expansion involves no change in the structure of the adjunct as the part of the sentence and phrase while *extension* causes new relations within the sentence and the phrase and results in the usage of a new component. Extension causes new syntactic relations of subsubordination when an adjunct in its turn becomes the head, e.g.:

*He is a capable student.*

*He is an extremely capable student.*

Extension is always observed in endocentric constructions.

The positional problem arises when a string of adjectivals function as preposed adjuncts to one and the same head in the noun phrase. The problem involved in the ordering of a string of adjectivals before a noun is not simply a syntactic one. It is more a matter of idiom usage, involving also subtleties of rhetoric and emphasis. A native speaker of English will not have to stop to think about the order of two or three adjectives; he will order them aright instinctively:

*a nice new carpet;*

*a fine old house;*

*a pretty yellow flower.*

If the adjectives are both equally important, we put the shorter first (the structural factor):

*a quiet intelligent boy;*

*a long interesting book.*

Certain types of adjectives usually come immediately before the word they describe, e.g.:

(colours)                      *a big red book;*

(styles)                        *a tall gothic building;*

(nationality) *a clever French girl;*

(nouns used attributively) *a paper bag.*

We should have to note that when a noun is modified by another noun (N<sub>2</sub>N<sub>1</sub>) or by a gerund the modifying word immediately precedes the head, and that if there is an adjective that denotes colour, this precedes the modifying noun or gerund. Adjectives that denote a quantity usually precede those that denote size, length, shape.

There are phrases of a mixed type in which more than one type of relations is involved:

addition and specification may co-occur in a noun phrase: Adj, Adj (Adj N):

*a huge, bulky black sweater;*

expansion and extension may co-occur in a noun phrase: (D Ven), Adj N:

*a softly diffused, unutterable beauty.*

### Verb Word-Groups

Verb word-groups are numerous and possess different structures due to the fact that the verb plays a very important role in making up a syntactic structure of the sentence. When describing verb word-groups, it seems reasonable to accept as starting point functional, semantic and grammatical classifications of the English verbs.

To the first group of verb phrases belong such phrases in which link verbs are heads. Adjuncts in these word-groups are always post-posed and grammatically fixed and they are called predicative complements. The predicative complement can be expressed by the following morphological classes of words:

N in common case *She is an actress.*

Adj *She is so beautiful.*

Pron.<sub>poss.</sub> *This is yours.*

V<sub>inf.</sub> *He seemed to be surprized.*

V<sub>ing.</sub> *This was rather annoying (Participle I).*

*Seeing is believing (Gerund).*

Prepositional N-phrase *It is of interest.*

Num *He was the first to help me.*

Stative *She was not alone.*

The verb *to be* in its copulative function may be used with all kinds of complements. The verb *to become* may be used with any kind of complement except the infinitive and gerund: *to become famous, to become interested, to become worthy of smth.*



The copulative use of such verbs as *to appear, to sound, to smell, to taste* is more limited. The copulative verbs *to come, to go, to fall, to keep, to turn* are fairly common in patterns with adjectives. The verbs *to get* and *to grow* functioning as copula verbs are most common with adjectives and participles: *to get surprized; to get younger; to grow old; to grow young, to get excited*.

The heads of the second group of verb phrases are constituted by transitive verbs. Adjuncts of these phrases are mainly nouns or pronouns, sometimes gerunds and infinitives which perform the function of a direct object. The very syntactic position of the adjuncts is determined by the lexical meaning of the transitive verbs:

$V_{tr.} + N = V_{phrase}$       *take a book;*

$V_{tr.} + V_{ing} = V_{phrase}$       *needs washing.*

A number of transitive verbs may require two adjuncts:

*Give John a piece of advice;*

*Hand the pen to Mary.*

Sometimes adjuncts may express not object of the action but:

a manner of the action: *to live a happy life;*

a place of the action: *to walk streets;*

an instrument of the action: *to bow one's head.*

Since objects make the meaning of the verb complete they may be referred to as object complements.

Intransitive verbs are the heads of the third group of verb phrases. The adjuncts of this group are expressed by different word classes and they function as adverbial complements:

$V \text{ prep. } N$       *leave for Moscow;*

$V D$       *was staying there;*

$V V_{ing}$       *stood smiling;*

$V V_{inf.}$       *came to dine;*

$V \text{ conj. } V_{en}$       *looked as if startled;*

$V \text{ absolute construction}$       *said his voice trembling.*

### **Adjective Word-Groups**

Adjective word-groups may be with premodification when the units are placed before the head, i.e. word-groups with pre-posed adjuncts and word-groups with postmodification, when the units are placed after the head, i.e. word-groups with post-posed adjuncts.

In adjective word-groups with pre-posed adjuncts the dependent element is expressed by:

intensifiers	<i><u>very</u> nice;</i>
adverbs	<i><u>perfectly</u> simple;</i>
nouns	<i><u>ice</u> cold.</i>

In adjective word-groups with post-posed adjuncts the dependent element is expressed by:

infinitive	<i>easy <u>to understand</u>; happy <u>to help</u>;</i>
prepositional phrase	<i>fond <u>of music</u>; indifferent <u>to danger</u>;</i>
adverb	<i>new <u>enough</u>.</i>

### **Adverb Word-Groups**

Usually adverb word-groups are structures with pre-posed adjuncts. The dependent element is expressed either by intensifier or adverb. The most typical structures among adverb word-groups are the following: *very carefully; very suddenly; fairly easily; extremely angrily.*

Not all the adverbs are capable of forming kernel structures with intensifiers and adverbs. It is typical for qualitative adverbs, for adverbs of place: *far away; farther north.*

Adverb word-groups may consist of more than two elements, so they may be expanded: *so very easily; almost too late; far too long; very much farther west.*

There is one type of adverb word-group with post-posed adjunct which is expressed by adverb *enough*: *well enough; readily enough.*

### **The problem of Prepositional Word-Groups**

As has been stressed, the word-group is made up by at least two notional words.

Professor Ilyish proposed to regard combinations like '*near the house*' as prepositional word-group. But this group *prep. + N* doesn't act as a separate syntactic unit because the preposition is devoid of concrete lexical meaning, thus serving to connect this group to the real head-word.

### **Coordinate Word-Groups**

In a coordinate phrase all the component parts are identical in their syntactic value. The number of its immediate constituents is naturally not limited. In terms of their grammatical organization phrases of this type may be subdivided into two groups: syndetic and asyndetic.

In syndetic coordinate phrases the components are joined by function words, i.e. conjunctive words or coordinators: *black and white*. The following should be distinguished among them:

- 1) *and, but, nor, not, or*;
- 2) *as well as, rather than, together with, along with*;
- 3) *both ...and; not only ... but also; either ... or; neither ... nor*.

Asyndetic coordinate phrases consist of two or more syntactically equivalent units. Among asyndetic coordinate phrases we often find structures with more than two constituents: *The spidery, dirty, ridiculous business*.

Closely related to coordinate phrases are the so-called appositives: *Professor Brown; the Republic of France; Soames, the man of property*.

### **Predicative Word-Groups**

The majority of linguists treat predicative phrases as consisting of verbals and their adjuncts, so the head word in these phrases is the non-finite form of the word. Predicative word-groups fall into infinitival, gerundial and participial.

There are different opinions on the word-group **N + V**: 1) it is a sentence; 2) it is a word-group. This pattern may be analyzed on different levels: on the sentence level and on the phrase level.

On the phrase level such patterns are characterized by their own paradigm:

*a man writes*

*men write*

*men have written*

*men will write*

*men are writing*.

On a sentence level such patterns are characterized by:

- 1) fixed order of definite word-forms;
- 2) communicative force;
- 3) intonation.

Combinations like *Birds fly* generally are not treated as predicative word-groups because they are the only type of a phrase which may constitute a sentence. But these word-groups are not sentences because they are deprived of intonation and communicative force.

## THE SENTENCE

The sentence is the main syntactic unit. It has close reference to language and speech.

L	sentence	(general types, patterns of sentence structure)
S	utterance	(materialized communicative units of speech)

Our thinking is realized through sentences and communication, that's why the study of the sentence predetermines the analysis of its connections with thinking and its material manifestations. Hence the sentence is a two fold unit of language: meaningful unit (having the content side) and structural unit (having expression side).

There are extralinguistic and linguistic aspects in the general characterization of the sentence.

*The external approach* to the definition of the sentence makes linguists concentrate their attention on the relatedness of the unit extralingual phenomena and on its functional design.

*The internal approach* to the definition of the sentence presupposes its linguistic characterization with regard to its linguistic status and to its internal structural and semantic properties.

In keeping with these directions the following main points should be borne in mind when the general characterization of the sentence is aimed at:

1. The sentence is identified as a syntactical level unit.
2. The sentence is a predicative unit.
3. The sentence is the main syntactic unit and the highest linguistic form.
4. The sentence is the main communicative unit of the human language.

The main peculiarity of the sentence is its correlation with modal-predicative unit - proposition (which is a corresponding logical unit). Language and speech - manifesting propositions - are the forms and means of communication and thinking.

### Sentence and Proposition

Language is the means of building up the form of existence of thought. The main logical units of thinking are notions and propositions. Proposition is a logical unit reflecting the objective relations of things and their properties. It is always two member, i.e. is characterized by its logical subject and logical predicate (subject-predicate structure), which is its predicative centre. Logical predicativity is the relations between the subject and the predicate of a proposition. Proposition is correlated with a manifested in speech through the language unit - the sentence.

The proposition is a logical unit and the sentence is a language unit. Proposition is the meaningful centre of the sentence. The structure of the logical proposition “actor - action - goal” is inherent to all people irrespective of the language they speak.

Logical formulae “S - P” is manifested through multiple language means (one-member and two-member sentences).

### **The Essential Features of the Sentence**

The sentence as a language unit is assigned with some characteristic features. The differential and immanent feature of the sentence is *predicativity*. It is a grammatical category (semantico-syntactical) stressing the reference of the sentence meaning to reality through the modal-tense aspects of the sentence. Predicativity is the most important property of the content side of the sentence. It is correlated with the two member predicative structure of the proposition, its linguistic grammatical expression may be one-headed and two-headed. This fact accounts for general subdivision of sentence structure into one-member and two-member sentences.

The grammatical centre, where predicativity is realized is “subject-predicate structure” of the sentence (S - P relations). Predication manifested through subject-predicate relations is called primary. The verbal element which realizes primary predication is characterized by the property of *finiteness*, expressed through tense and mood. Hence, tense and mood are the distinctive features of the predicate, the sentence, its predication.

So, predicativity is a quality of the sentence that makes a group of words express a complete thought (*The doctor's arrival. The doctor arrived*). Predicativity is the correlation of the syntactic unit with the objective reality. It may be expressed:

- a) through relation between the subject and predicate (primary predication);
- b) through predicate alone;
- c) through intonation.

*Finiteness* is the feature of the predicate. The principle difference between finiteness and predication lies in their reference to two different language levels. Finiteness is a syntactical category, while predication is a logico-grammatical category. Predication is what makes a sentence. Finiteness is present only in those types of sentences where predicate is expressed as a syntactical member of the sentence, but it is absent in one-member nominal sentences.

*Modality* is a semantic category defining the subjective-objective relations of the content side of the sentence to the real world from the viewpoint of its existence. Modality is closely connected with predicativity, as it serves to express the attitude of the speaker to the facts stated in the sentence.

Every sentence manifests two types of modality - objective and subjective.

Subjective modality expresses the personal attitude of the speaker to the facts. It indicates its irreality or reality.

*Tomorrow it will rain* (zero morpheme of assurance).

*It will surely rain tomorrow* (explicit modality of assurance).

*It may rain tomorrow* (explicit modality of supposition).

Objective modality indicates the reference of the content side of the sentence to reality irrespective of the speaker's attitude. It reflects possibility, reality, necessity. It is realized through the grammatical category of mood, though modality is wider, being expressed not only through mood but lexically, syntactically, intonationally. Objective modality is the obligatory immanent semantico-syntactical feature of the sentence.

The sentence is characterized by specific *intonation contour* dependent on the communicative intention and structural pattern of the sentence.

*Nucleus-headed structure*. Each sentence possesses one or two basic elements that make it up as a whole and the omission of which is impossible. These elements are nucleus. All other sentence parts are the extension of the nucleus.

The nucleus may be constituted by:

- a) the Subject and Predicate (*It rains*).
- b) S + P + O (direct) (*I put on a coat*).
- c) S + P + O (direct) + O (addressee) (*He gave the book to John*).
- d) S + P + D time (*The meeting lasted 4 hours*).
- e) by S (in the nominative one-member sentences) (*A vast stretch of dry land*).
- f) predicate (imperative sentences) one-number (*Come! Go on!*).

*Communicative Aspect*. The sentence is a unit of communication conveying a certain information. The approach to the sentence from the point of view of information it conveys is called *functional sentence perspective*. A valuable contribution to this study has been made by Czech linguists Mathesius, Firbas.

The starting point of the sentence is termed *the theme* and the new information is called *the rheme*. In order to define which is which the sentence should be regarded as a part of a bigger context.

1) The universal means of introducing theme and rheme is *word-order*. Normally the theme is placed at the beginning of the sentence, rheme is placed after the theme.

2) By means of the construction “*there is*”.

3) With the help of articles. The indefinite article serves to express the rheme. The definite article introduces the theme: *In a few minutes a man appeared at a distance*.

4) By particles.

5) The construction “*it is + who (where, which, when)*”.

The fact that FSP has no particular grammatical means of its expression raises doubts whether FSP is a syntactic phenomenon or not. Professor Barkhudarov stresses the fact that it is not syntactical. According to the morphological point of view FSP is not a pure grammatical phenomenon. But nevertheless it should be studied by grammar and syntax because it reflects the way the information is conveyed and how it influences the communicative and syntactical structure of the sentence.

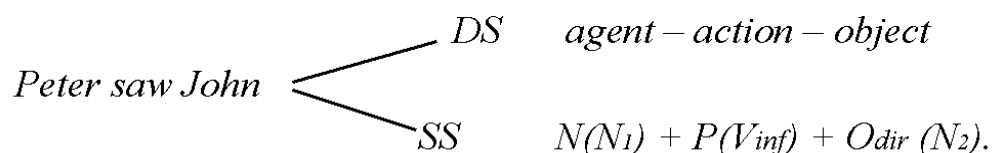
*Nominative Aspect*. Deep and surface structure. Sentence may be treated as a reflection of nomination. From the nominative viewpoint the sentence may express *existence, presence or qualification*.

*It was a cold dark night.* = *existence*

*There were many people in the hall.* = *presence*

*His son is young* = *qualification*.

Nominative Aspect of the sentence expressing situation found in reality is closely connected with semantic interpretation of the sentence. The meaning of the sentence, its semantic information is termed in Modern linguistics as the *deep structure*. The actual arrangement of syntactic unit of a sentence is referred to as *surface structure*.



The deep structure is constituted by certain elements called *arguments* which express such semantic categories as:

- 1) the agent of the action = agentive
- 2) action itself = predicative
- 3) object of the action = objective

- 4) instrument
- 5) goal of action

The most important argument is that of predicative because it determines the presence of other arguments. The arguments making up the deep structures are universal for many languages. DS is not influenced by communicative factors such as FSP, it is not stylistically marked.

### Classification of English Sentences

The Constructive Syntax theory suggests the revision of the traditional interpretation of such notions as: complete-incomplete, extended-unextended. (*She saw. She saw a film*).

1) traditionally the sentence is complete, modern view – incomplete because it lacks the complement;

2) traditionally it is regarded as extended, according to the constructive syntax theory is unextended.

1. The classification of sentences according to the *quantity of their parts*: elementary (non-extended) – extended



Extended sentences are more common in actual speech.

2. According to the *communicative-syntactic type*:

<i>declarative</i>	<i>exclamatory</i>	<i>interrogative</i>	<i>imperative</i>
1) direct and non-direct W.O.	1) is not marked morphologically but lexically	1) use of auxiliaries	1) morphologically imperative mood
2) peculiar intonation (falling tone)	2) only emphatic intonation	2) inverted general/question (rising tone)	2) the absence of subject
3) may include modal words		3) peculiar intonation (falling tone)	3) peculiar intonation (falling tone in commands; rising tone in requests)
		4) the use of modal words is limited	4) lexically by the use of special markers of request will/would



3. The classification according to *information presented* (affirmative - negative).

Negation may be expressed either through predication or lexically.

*He saw nothing.*

4. According to the number of predication and constituents of predication. Predication is predicativity expressed by the relation of subject and predicate in the sentence:

a) as to the number of predication sentences fall into *simple* (consisting of one predication) and *composite* (consisting of more than one predication);

b) as to the number of constituents of predication (subject and predicate) sentences may be divided into *one-member* and *two-member, three-member* (SPC).

5. According to the presence of parts of sentences they fall into *full (non-elliptical)* and *elliptical*. The elliptical parts may be restored syntagmatically – by means of analysing the context, the previous sentences and their parts.

e.g. *The two men's eyes met. In Dorian's there was infinite pity.*

Paradigmatically – by means of analysing non-elliptical sentence units having similar meaning.

*Ridiculous! / It is ridiculous!*

6. According to the character of the subject personal, indefinite-personal, impersonal.

3 more types of sentences are:

a) sentence-words (*Yes. No*).

b) sentences constituted by modal words (*Sure*).

c) sentences-exclamations constituted by interjection (*Oh!*).

## Simple Sentence

### **General Characteristics.**

All the aspects discussed above characterize simple sentence as well. The structure of simple sentences consists of *subject, predicate, complement* (objects, adverbials) and the *extention* (adverbial character). Thus, we have several patterns of the simple sentence:

1) S + P

2) S + P + Comp (obj., adv., attr.)

3) S + P + Extention (obj., adv., attr.)

4) S + P + Comp. + Ext.

Subject and Predicate expressing predication are considered to be primary parts of the sentence. The secondary sentence parts include: *complements* and *extensions*. The difference between them is the following: *complements* are obligatory secondary elements structurally relevant that cannot be omitted without destroying the grammatical body of the sentence; *extensions* are optional secondary parts of the sentence (modifying subject, predicate, complement). Some grammarians single out *attributes* as a separate group of secondary parts of the sentence. It is not reasonable because attributes have the syntactical function as well as objects while complements and extensions show functional and structural significance. To include attributes in the row with complements and extensions means to break the homogeneous character of the constituents of the row. Attributes as other parts of the sentence may belong to complements or extensions according to the structural value.

e.g. *A young man appeared in the room.* – Extension.

*She has blue eyes.* - Complement.

1. The relationship of the subject and predicate is a controversial problem. Subject is an independent principal part of the sentence. This point of view is based on the fact that the grammatical forms of the subject have no markers of subordination to any other sentence parts.

It's not the subject but the predicate that has the grammatical form predicted by the subject. From the point of view of grammatical dependence the subject is an independent sentence part whereas the predicate is dependent.

2. The opponents of this approach consider the predicate the principal sentence part because the predicate predetermines the position of other sentence parts. It may be viewed as a *compression* of a whole sentence.



*John borrowed \$5 from Peter for a week.*

The lexical meaning of the verb determines the position of other sentence parts. This approach was maintained by Peshkovsky, Martine, Raspopov.

It's sound to stress the double character of the relationship between the subject and the predicate. Predicate appears to possess a double character.

It has the grammatical categories of number and person in order to establish syntactic connection with the subject in the form of agreement, a syntagmatic dependence of predicate, e.g.: *He to speak* → *He speaks.*

The predicate depends on the subject from syntagmatic point of view.

On the other hand it is the predicate that accounts for the syntactic structure of the sentence and it also selects the subclass of the N (in the function of the subject).

*to rain* } *It rains.*  
*to pass* } *He passed me the salt.*

The Predicate is also important from the communicative point of view. Statistic data testify to the fact that V as a rule the predicate or its complements are the bearers of the new information – rheme, and information conveyed by the subject is equal to zero.

Modality very often is confined in the predicate. The predicate constitutes the syntactic structure and is a bearer of new information and modality. With regard to English it is wrong to say that the subject is the principal part of the sentence. Both subject and predicate are principal sentence parts because they both constitute the sentence.

The subject provides for syntactic connection that makes up the kernel of the sentence and the predicate constitutes the structure of the sentence.

### **Kernel and Derived Sentences**

Transformational grammar starts on the assumption that the system of any language contains a rather small number of *kernels* and other linguistic forms which are derived (or generated) from these kernels by certain derivational (transformational) rules.

Harris introduced 7 kernels, professor Pocheptsov describes 39 kernels.

The number of kernels may be quite different but the idea is that there are a limited number of kernels and unlimited number of transforms (derived sentences).

*The kernel* is the sentence, which consists of obligatory sentence parts predetermined by the valency of the verb. The structure of kernels is S + P + Compl (obj; adv).

*Derived* sentences consist not only of obligatory sentence parts but of optional (additional) parts as well. The structure of derived sentences may be represented as:

S + P + Extension (obj., adv.), S + P + Complement + Extension.

The kernel sentence is constituted by the sentence parts expressing predication. Sometimes predication is expressed by subject + predicate. But in many cases the verb has obligatory parts which also express predication (complement). Complements are significant constituents which are included in the structure body of the sentence.

e.g. *He has run.*  
*He has run quickly.*  
*He has run quickly to the door.*  
*to the open door.*  
*door with a sister.*

### **Transition from Simple to Composite Sentences**

Though simple and composite sentences stand apart, the former having one predication expressed by the subject and predicate, the latter having two or more predications, there are some transition cases:

a) sentences with extended homogeneous parts;

b) sentences with secondary predication are considered transition cases between simple and complex sentences because the secondary part containing secondary predication may be transformed into sentences with primary predication;

c) sentences with a dependent appendix.

*This girl is prettier than the other one.*

*She stood motionless as if preparing to hear the worst news.*

Secondary parts are appended to the kernel sentences, they are connected with the sentence. They are also intermediate between a secondary part and a sentence because they may be transformed into clauses.

### **The Compound Sentence**

Compound sentence is made up by two or more clauses which are capable of standing alone. They are in coordinate relation. The relation of clauses in compound sentences is also termed *parataxis*. The classification of composite sentences is based on the means of connection between its clauses. The clauses of compound sentences may be joined together *syndetically* or *asyndetically*. Conjunctions or their equivalents in syndetic compound sentences are of several types:

a) *copulative* (the second clause adds some information to the first one);

b) *disjunctive* (conveys information which excludes the meaning of the first clause);

c) *adversative* (the meaning of the second clause is contrasted to the first one);

d) *illative* (so, then, hence) which introduce a clause containing conclusion or result;

e) *explanatory* (that is, such as, for example, let us say). They introduce a clause with an explanation.

Though sentences which make up a compound syndetical sentence may stand alone they are not quite equal. The first clause is more independent and the second (when, introduced by illative, explanatory or disjunctive conjunctions) can't stay alone.

The meaning of the conjunction in compound syndetic sentence is very important.

Some grammarians (Fries) think that the compound sentence is a mere sum of simple sentences, but this point of view is misleading:

1. Sometimes the structure of the second clause is predetermined by the structure of the first clause.

2. The order of clauses within a compound sentence is sometimes rigid. It may be more strict than in complex sentences: *My sister came and we had dinner together*. The place of coordinate clauses can't be changed without impairing the meaning of the sentence.

The connection is especially close in sentences with substitute *one* in one of the clauses: *He expected the answer and was disappointed with a poor one*.

The relations of clauses linked asyndetically within the compound sentence are of different nature though, for the most part, they are of copulative, illative or explanatory character.

3. In asyndetic compound sentences clauses are more independent sometimes, however, the second clause can't be replaced by the first and this fact shows the implicit dependence of the second clause.

By way of conclusion we may say that in a compound sentence clauses may be grammatically independent and stand alone but they are dependent semantically.

The problem of the Compound Sentence is rather controversial. Some scholars after Fries don't recognize a compound sentence at all. They consider it to be primarily a matter of punctuation of a written text. Professor Iofik: considers the compound sentence to be not a syntactic unit but a string of independent coordinate sentences.

This independence is shown by the complete interchangeable ability of the clauses within a compound sentence.

But there are clearly many cases when the clauses in the compound sentence are characterized by the non-interchangeability. It is especially evident with such connectors as (but, or).

Thus, the existence of the compound sentence can hardly be denied.

## The Complex Sentence

### General Remarks

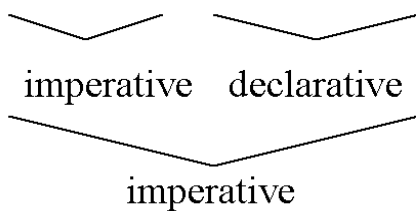
The complex sentence is made up by two unequal clauses and only one of them in most cases is capable of standing alone. The relationship of clauses in the complex sentence is based on subordination and this relationship is sometimes termed *hypotaxis*.

The fact that the subordinate clause is dependent on the principal clause may be proved by the following consideration:

a) the subordinate clause is incapable of standing alone

b) it is the principle clause not the subordinate clause that determines the communicative type of a complex sentence.

*Don't mind how old she is*



c) the so-called sequence of tenses also testifies to the fact that the subordinate clause is dependant. The sequence of tenses is a morphological means of displaying the dependent character of subordinate clause, because the tense form of the verb predicate in the subordinate clause (object or conditional subordinate clauses) is predetermined by the tense form of the verb in the function of predicate in the principal clause.

*Carry said that she was leaving for London.*

d) the mood form of the predicative verb in the principal clause also determines the mood form in the subordinate clause which is also a testimony of its dependant character.

*If she were at home, she would call upon me.*

The presence of the subjunctive mood in the subordinate clause may be predicted by the lexical meaning of words denoting modality: verbs, nouns that express suggestion, wish, order, recommendation.

*He wished that she were present.*

The principal and subordinate clauses that constitute a complex sentence possess peculiar traits of their own:

a) The formal marker of the principle clause is the presence of the predicative verb or its part in the finite form.

*What she told his mother was unbelievable.*

b) It is an exaggeration to assume absolute independence of the principal clause and its ability of standing alone. With this regard complex sentences may be subdivided into one- and two-member complex sentences.

In two-member complex sentences the subordinate clause is optional from the constructive point of view and the principal clause expresses a more or less complete thought. The main parts of the principal clause are always present in it.

*Before he could answer the driver suddenly stopped.*

The optional character of the subordinate clause and its loose connection with the principal clause is exemplified by the free position of the subordinate clause and by the possibility of its reduction. In one-member complex sentence subordinate clause is obligatory, besides this type of complex sentence is marked by the absence of the subject, predicative complement, object complement and adverbial complement in the principal clause. The function of the missing sentence-parts is performed by the subordinate clause.

*Why she left him // is a mystery.*

subject clause    principle clause

***One-member sentence is characterised:***

1. The omission of a subordinate clause in one-member complex sentence is impossible.

2. The position of a subordinate clause is firmly fixed. Besides the principal clause contains correlative words, these are words whose meaning must be explained in the subordinate clause. This fact is another evidence of a very close relationship of the principal and the subordinate clause.

*Then came out one of those men who nearly drove him mad.*

*So happy he felt that he had almost forgotten about his trouble.*

3. There is a close connection between principal and subordinate clauses.

The division of complex sentences into one-member and two-member represents *semantic* classification of complex sentences. This classification is based upon the general character of connection between parts of a complex sentence. According to this *semantic* classification complex sentences fall into:

1) *discrete* two-member sentences in which a subordinate clause refers to the whole principal clause and may be omitted without destroying the structure and meaning of a complex sentence;

2) *indiscrete* one-member sentences in which a subordinate clause refers not to the principal clause but only to a certain part of a principle clause and can't be excluded from the sentence.

Apart from the semantic classification there are some other classifications:

1. *Morphological*;
2. *Formal*
3. *Functional*

**Morphological** classification takes into account a part of speech of the word to which a subclause refers. In accordance with the classification two main types of subclauses are singled out:

1. Nominal.
2. Verbal.

*Nominal* are those subordinate clauses which are attached to the part of the principal clause expressed by noun, pronoun, adjectives.

*Verbal* subclauses refer to the verb-predicate of a principle clause.

*I know what he has done.* = verbal

*I didn't recognize the man that accompanied Aunt Ann yesterday.* = nominal

Another variant of morphological classification is based on the correlation of subordinate clauses with the parts of speech. According to this criterion subordinate clauses are likened to some part of speech with similar *combinability* and thus are divided into:

1) noun-clauses – a subordinate clause is characterized by Noun-like combinability;

2) adjective-clauses – a subordinate clause is characterized by Adjective-like combinability;

3) adverb-clauses – a subordinate clause is characterized by Adverb-like combinability.

*I remember what you promised.*

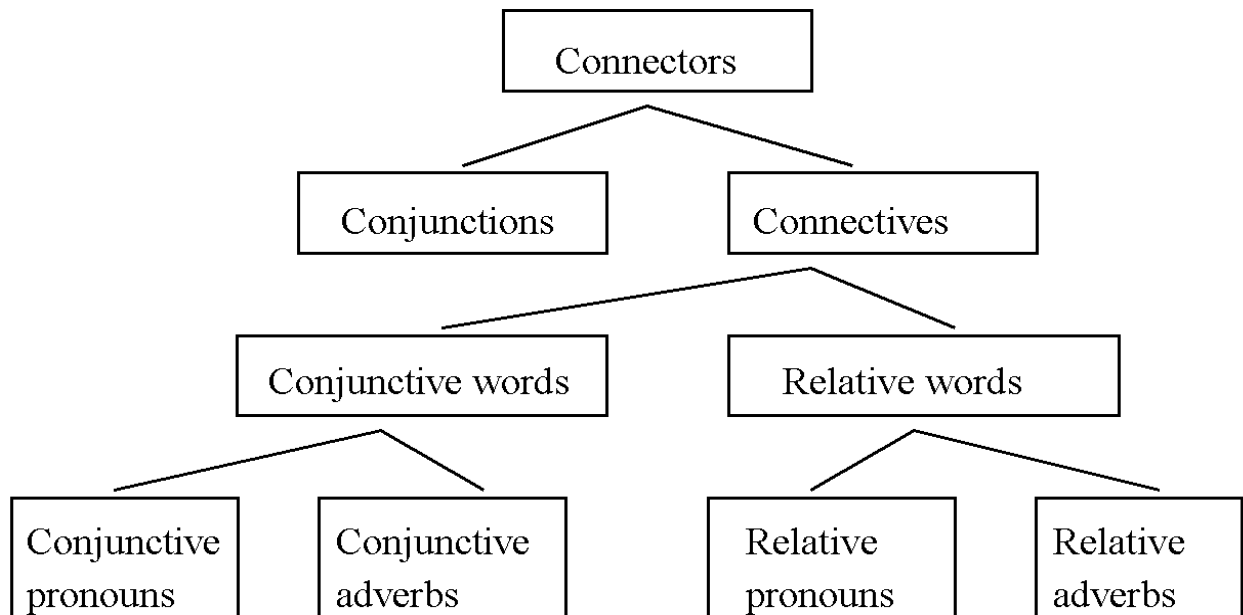
*What you promised is of no consequence.*

In these sentences the combinability of the subordinate clause resembles that of a noun.

**Formal** classification of complex sentences is based on the means of syntactic connection between clauses. Due to the formal classification complex sentences are divided into: syndetic – asyndetic.



## Formal Indicators of Subordination (Connectors)



Conjunctions are formal devices the only function of which is to link clauses and express the relation between them. They usually stand at the beginning of a joined clause. Conjunctions may be one word-form (*that, because, though, etc.*), phrasal (*in order that, so far as, etc.*), or paired (*as ... as, such ... as*).

Connectives combine two functions - that of linking clauses and that of a part in the subordinate clause. Connectives are subdivided into conjunctive words (conjunctive pronouns: *who, what, which* and conjunctive adverbs: *when, where, how, why*) and relative words (relative pronouns: *who, whose, whom, what, which, that, as* and relative adverbs: *when, where, whence, wherein*).

Conjunctive words are used to join subject, predicative and object clauses, while relative words are used to join attributive clauses.

**Functional classification.** The criterion of this classification is the syntactic function of the subordinate clause in its relation to a principle clause. Within functional classification subordinate clauses are likened to parts of simple sentence. Thus, the following types of the subordinate clauses are distinguished: *subject, predicative, object, adverbial, attributive*.

This classification which is based on the assumption that subordinate clauses perform within a complex sentence the same function as parts of the simple sentence has proved to be most fruitful.

## SENTENCE ANALYSIS

### GENERAL CHARACTERISTICS OF THE SIMPLE SENTENCE

1. The communicative syntactic type of the simple sentence according to the aim of communication (declarative, interrogative, imperative);
2. The type of the simple sentence in accord with the quantity of the sentence parts (elementary / non-extended, extended);
3. The type of the simple sentence according to the information presented in it (affirmative, negative);
4. The type of the simple sentence in accord with the constituents of predication (one-member, two-member);
5. The type of the simple sentence as to the presence of the sentence parts (full (non-elliptical), elliptical);
6. The type of the simple sentence according to the character of the subject (personal (personal-proper, indefinite-personal, generalized), impersonal);
7. The pragmatic type of the simple sentence as to the communicative intention of the speaker (constative, promissive, menasive, performative, directive (requestive, injunctive), quesitive).

### THE PARTS OF THE SENTENCE MODEL

The constituents of the primary predication.

#### THE SUBJECT:

- a) the type of the subject according to its meaning (notional, formal);
- b) the structural type of the subject (simple, complex, compound);
- c) the type of the subject in accordance with its character (personal (personal proper, indefinite personal, generalized personal), impersonal);
- d) the way of expression (... expressed by a simple (derivative, compound, composite) noun, which is a class (collective, expressing multitude, name of material, abstract, proper) noun, in the common (genitive case form), singular (plural) number form).

#### THE PREDICATE:

- a) the type of the predicate according to its meaning (verbal, nominal, mixed);
- b) the structural type of the predicate (simple, compound);
- c) the way of expression of the simple verbal predicate (synthetic or analytical form of the verb with the following grammatical (categorical) meanings:

Tense Form (Present, Past, Future), Mood Form (Indicative, Imperative, Subjunctive, Suppositional, Conditional), Aspect Form (Continuous, Non-Continuous), Voice Form (Passive, Non-Passive), Phase Form (Perfect, Non-Perfect), Person Form (1, 2, 3), Number Form (Singular, Plural).

In case of compound predicate it is necessary to indicate the structural (grammatical) center of the predicate (link or modal verb) and semantic one (represented by the predicative complement). The grammatical centre undergoes the same analysis as the verbal predicate.

### **THE OBJECT:**

- a) the type of the object according to its meaning (pure object, addressee or some special kind of object–cognate);
- b) the type as to the form of syntactic connection with predicate (the object with prepositional or non-prepositional government);
- c) the structural type (simple, phrasal, complex);
- d) the type of the object as to the functional and structural significance (complement, extension);
- e) the way of expression (See Subject).

### **THE ATTRIBUTE:**

- a) the type according to the syntactical function of the head-word: (subjective, objective, predicative, appositive, adverbial);
- b) the type in accord with the syntactical position of it to the head word (prepositive, postpositive);
- c) the structural type (simple, phrasal, complex);
- d) the way of expression.

### **THE ADVERBIAL MODIFIER:**

- a) the type according to its meaning (qualitative (manner and comparison), quantitative (measure, degree, frequency), circumstantial (time, place, purpose, condition, attendant circumstances, concession);
- b) the structural type (simple, phrasal, complex);
- c) the way of expression.

### **COMPOUND SENTENCE:**

- 1) The type as to the means of syntactic connection (syndetic, asyndetic). In case of syndetic, point out the concrete formal signal of syntactic connection (conjunctions, connective pronouns or adverbs);
- 2) The type of the compound sentence according to the semantic kind of coordination (copulative, disjunctive, adversative, causative-consecutive (or causal, resultative));
- 3) The constituents of the compound sentence (the leading and sequential clauses);
- 4) The leading clause (See “General Characteristics of the Simple Sentence” and “The Parts of the Sentence Model”);
- 5) The Sequential Clauses (See “General Characteristics of the Simple Sentence” and “The Parts of the Sentence Model”).

### **COMPLEX SENTENCE:**

- 1) The type of the complex sentence according to the means of syntactic connection between the clauses (syndetic, asyndetic);
- 2) The constituents of the complex sentence (the main clause, subordinate clause). (If there are several subordinate clauses point out syntactic relations between them, degrees of subordination);
- 3) Communicative type of the complex sentence according to the corresponding type of the main clause;
- 4) The pragmatic type of the complex sentence based on the corresponding type of the main clause;
- 5) The morphological type of subordinate clause in the complex sentence (nominal, verbal);
- 6) The functional type of subordinate clause in the complex sentence (subject, object, predicative, attributive, adverbial, parenthetical);
- 7) The semantic type of the complex sentence (one-member, two-member);
- 8) The Main Clause:
  - a) General characteristics of the main clause (See Simple Sentence);
  - b) The parts of the sentence model;
- 9) The Subordinate Clause:
  - a) General characteristics of the clause (See Simple Sentence);
  - b) The parts of the sentence model;
- 10) Structural pattern of the complex sentence should be drawn.

## METHODS OF GRAMMATICAL INVESTIGATION

1. General Notions.
2. Parts of the Sentence Model.
3. Constructive Model of Sentence Structure.
4. Distributional Model.
5. The Immediate Constituents Model.
6. Transformational Model.
7. The Theme-Rheme Model.

### General Notions

Investigation of language and each of its unit implies first of all the construction of a certain model of language or language unit.

Model is a theoretical construction, a certain abstract scheme which is a more or less adequate approximation of real facts.

Thus, theoretical study of sentence structure means the construction of sentence model, i.e. abstract theoretical scheme which more or less exactly reflects the real sentence structure of a language.

The traditional grammar has only one model: *the parts of the sentence model*.

The structural grammar worked out 3 models:

- *the distributional model*;
- *the immediate constituents model*;
- *the constructive model*.

The generative grammar has *the transformational model*.

In modern linguistics there appeared one more model of sentence analysis – the *Functional Sentence Perspective* or theme-rheme model. This model is closely connected with the functional and semantic approach to language typical of modern language science.

### The Parts of the Sentence Model

In accord with this model there are two stages of sentence analysis:

- 1) the sentence is analyzed in terms of primary and secondary parts of the sentence;
- 2) the morphological representation of each sentence part undergoes the analysis.

*The old man saw a black dog.*

The sentence is decomposed into:

**subject** – *the man*

**predicate** – *saw*

**object** – *a dog*

**attribute to the subject** – *old*

**attribute to the object** – *black*

**The subject** is expressed by a class noun in the singular number form, common case form, and masculine gender form.

This model has a long established tradition and possesses advantages that can't be disputed.

The strong points of the parts of the sentence model are in its functional and logical nature.

The functional principle of this model adequately reflects the functional essence of the sentence in which every element performs a certain role (function), e.g.:

the subject is the nominal element of the sentence predication expressing the doer of the action;

the object is the thing affected by the action;

the attribute is the bearer of additional information about the subject or object.

The logical principle of the model establishes the correlation between the sentence and the proposition, between the parts of the sentence and the elements of thought.

According to this correlation the sentence is regarded as the language reflection of a certain proposition, sentence parts – as representations of elements of this proposition.

*A boy came in.*

*The rain stops.*

*The dog barks.*

*The teacher lectures on Physics.*

All these sentences reflect the same proposition structure, i.e. something is stated about the doer of the action.

Thus, Proposition = Subject log. + Predicate log.

Correspondingly the sentence structure should be analyzed as follows:

Sentence = Subject gr. + Predicate gr.

The grammatical subject is the sentence part representing the logical subject.

The predicate part is the sentence part expressing the logical predicate and so on.

In spite of these advantages the parts of the sentence model is subjected to criticism.

a) The term part of the sentence is not strictly defined. Due to this it is difficult sometimes to distinguish between different sentence parts:

*I want to know.*

*He likes to go.*

The syntactical function of the infinitive is rather vague, i.e. it is impossible to define it as a part of the predicate or the object.

b) The criteria for secondary parts of the sentence differentiation are not yet stable and definite. That's why the identical constructions undergo different interpretation, e.g.: *a cup of tea*. There are two possible interpretations of the construction:

- postpositive attribute;

- prepositional object;

E.g. *from the spectators there came a muffled cry*:

- prepositional object;

- adverbial of place.

The absence of strict and definite criteria results in the existence of numerous intermediate or syncretic units as:

adverbial object;

adverbial attribute;

predicative attribute;

secondary predicate, etc.

These drawbacks of the parts of the sentence model bring some scholars to the conclusion that the above mentioned syntactical model is absolutely inadequate for the sentence analysis.

Such opinion is rather categorial. It is true to some extent that the parts of the sentence model is not absolute and the only syntactical model for the sentence analysis. But on the other hand, it can't be denied that it should be regarded as the initial stage of the sentence analysis.

## **The Constructive Model of Sentence Structure**

The constructive model is a further fruitful development of the traditional parts of the sentence model. It has been worked out by the American linguist Harris and by our scholar Pocheptsov.

The Constructive model proceeds from the assumption that elements of the syntactical constructions are characterized by different structural value. In accord with this, sentence parts are subdivided into obligatory and optional.

Obligatory sentence parts constitute a kernel sentence and can't be omitted without destroying the grammatical structure of the sentence, e.g.:

*Pete has left for Moscow.*

*She behaved decently.*

All parts of the above given sentences are obligatory as they form complete unextended sentences (kernels).

Optional sentence parts aren't obligatory from the constructive point of view, they constitute the extension of the sentence and may be omitted without destroying the grammaticalness of the sentence. E.g.: *I found him sitting in a soft arm-chair.* The underlined words represent the optional sentence parts.

## **The Distributional Model**

Structural grammar put forward new methods of structure investigation one of which is the distributional model.

This model was worked out by the American linguist Ch. Fries in his famous book "*The Structure of English*".

According to the methods of structural grammar (distributional analysis and substitution) Ch. Fries dispensed with the usual parts of speech.

He classifies words into 4 form classes designated by numbers and 15 groups of function words designated by letters.

The form classes correspond roughly to what most grammarians call

nouns and pronouns       = Cl 1

verbs                        = Cl 2

adjectives                 = Cl 3

adverbs                    = Cl 4

The group of function-words contains not only prepositions and conjunctions but also certain specific words that traditional grammarians would class as a particular kind of pronouns adverbs and verbs.

In this classification Ch. Fries starts from the assumption that all words which can occupy the same set of positions in the patterns of English free utterances must belong to the same part of speech.



<i>I</i>	<i>saw</i>	<i>a</i>	<i>film.</i>
the boy		the	
all		each	
both		both	
every		this	
Cl <sub>1</sub>	Cl <sub>2</sub>	D	Cl <sub>1</sub>

Thus, according to the distributional model the sentence is represented by a certain sequence of words belonging to different form-classes and function groups and being used in definite forms.

In other words the model of Ch. Fries schemes the sentence structure from the point of view of the distribution of word-forms towards each other in the syntagmatic chain.

The distribution model is more exact than the parts of the sentence model but in many cases it is inadequate for the sentence analysis because:

a) the sentence is presented as a mere sequence of words belonging to different parts of speech. Due to this the distributional model shows the syntactic position of word-forms but it doesn't reveal syntactic relations and syntactic connection of words in the sentence. That's why in terms of the distributional model one can't distinguish sometimes between constructions having the same formula but being not identical from the point of view of the syntactic relations.

E.g.:

<i>The</i>	<i>police</i>	<i>shot</i>	<i>the</i>	<i>man</i>	<i>in</i>	<i>the</i>	<i>red</i>	<i>cap</i>
<i>D</i>	<i>Cl<sub>1</sub></i>	<i>Cl<sub>2</sub></i>	<i>D</i>	<i>Cl<sub>1</sub></i>	<i>Pr</i>	<i>D</i>	<i>Cl<sub>3</sub></i>	<i>Cl<sub>1</sub></i>
<i>The</i>	<i>police</i>	<i>shot</i>	<i>the</i>	<i>man</i>	<i>in</i>	<i>the</i>	<i>right</i>	<i>arm</i>
<i>D</i>	<i>Cl<sub>1</sub></i>	<i>Cl<sub>2</sub></i>	<i>D</i>	<i>Cl<sub>1</sub></i>	<i>Pr</i>	<i>D</i>	<i>Cl<sub>3</sub></i>	<i>Cl<sub>1</sub></i>

Thus, both sentences possess the same formula in forms of the distributional model but the real syntactic relations within them is quite different.

*in the red cap* – the attribute to the noun *man*;

*in the right arm* – adverbial of place to the verb *shot*.

b) Ch. Fries ignores morphological properties of words. As a result of this - words with different morphological characteristics belong to the same part of speech:

pronouns	}	belong to the same Cl <sub>1</sub> though their structural, paradigmatic properties are different.
numerals		
nouns		

- words of one part of speech refer to different form-classes and function groups:

All  $\left[ \begin{array}{l} \text{Cl}_1 \text{ may be either form class;} \\ \text{D or determiner (function word).} \end{array} \right.$

### The Immediate Constituents (IC) Model

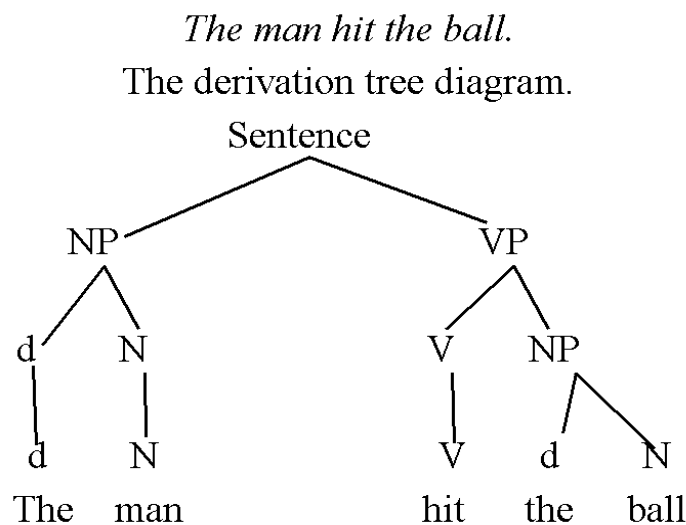
The IC grammar schemes the sentence structure not as a sequence of its elements but as a hierarchy of segmentation levels.

The IC grammar says that each linguistic form is divided into maximum segments which in their turn undergo further subdivision. These segments are called immediate constituents.

At each stage of segmentation two IC are usually singled out as the IC must be maximum according to their length.

The first and the most important cutting is between the group of subject and the group of predicate. Further decomposition of the sentence involves its phrasal constituents. Sentence segmentation is being finished when the minimum indecomposable elements are singled out.

In terms of IC the sentence structure is expressed in sentence tree or in the set rewriting rules.



The Set of rewriting rules

- (1) S – NP +VP
- (2) NP – d +N
- (3) VP – V+ NP
- (4) d – the
- (5) N – man
- (6) V – hit

(7) NP – d + N

(8) d – the

(9) N – ball

Using this set of rules one can generate a number of sentences changing only lexemes: the N, the V in accord with the situation of speech.

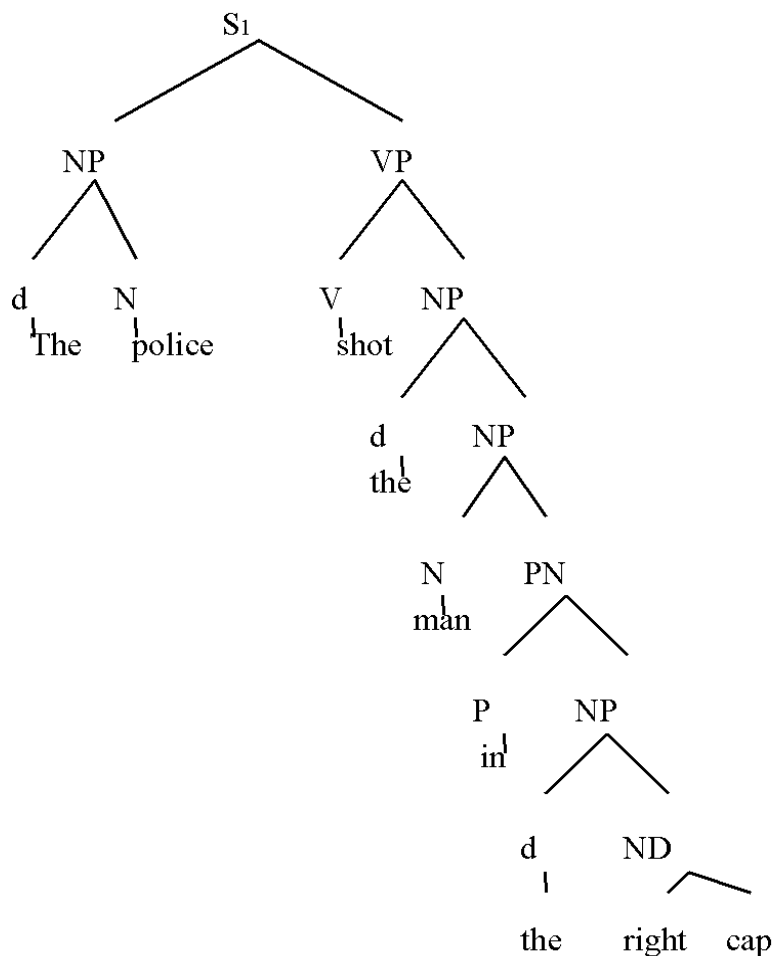
As we see the IC model includes the distributional model because it represents the sentence as a certain sequence of words but at the same time this model establishes definite syntactic relations between the words in the hierarchy of sentence segmentation.

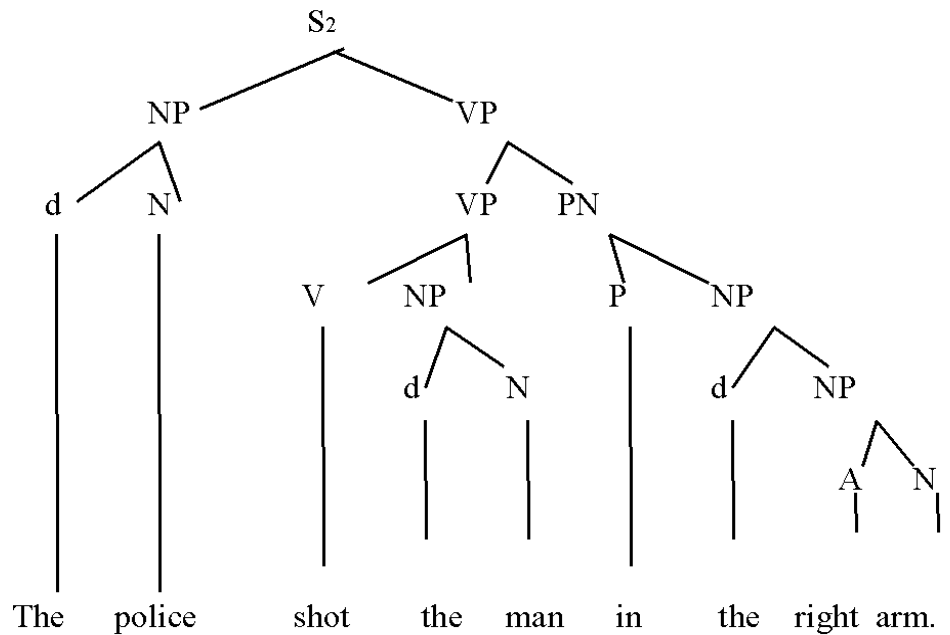
Thus, the IC model is more powerful than the linear model and the distributional model because it indicates the groupings of the IC and it shows the order in which the generating of a sentence must proceed.

The IC model differentiates the constructions that can't be distinguished in the framework of the distributional model.

(1) *The police shot the man in the red cap.*

(2) *The police shot the man in the right arm.*

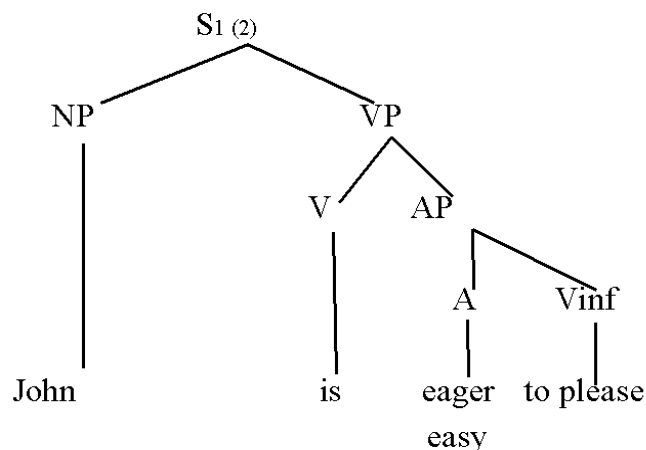




The IC model has certain advantages as a generating model. But in spite of certain merits it is open to criticism.

- 1) If the sentence is expanded, then the rewriting rules are too numerous to hold.
- 2) The interrogative and passive sentence structures must have different set of rules which are difficult if not impossible to work out.
- 3) The IC model sometimes fails to reveal the syntactic relations between words in externally identical but structurally different constructions:

- (1) *John is easy to please.*
- (2) *John is eager to please.*



Both sentences have the same derivation tree while there is an evident difference of the relations of their elements.

- John<sub>1</sub>* is object of the verb *to please*;
- John<sub>2</sub>* is subject of the verb *to please*.

The following transformations will prove it:

*We can easily please John.*

*John can please people.*

The critical review of the linear and the IC theories proves that the IC grammar is more fit, and the kernel sentences must be generated on this model. But kernel sentences are not many in number. All the other kinds of sentences are their transforms and are to be studied to generate sentences by means of a still more powerful model, the transformational model.

## **The Transformational Model**

The Transformational Model establishes the definite relations between the derivation trees of such sentences when one of them is derived from the other.

In other words, the transformational model makes fundamental distinction between two kinds of sentences: kernel sentences (structures) and their transforms.

Kernel sentences are the basic elementary sentences of the language from which all else are made.

Transforms are the constructions which are derived from the basic ones by certain grammatical rules.

Transformations can change and expand the kernel in many ways to form the great variety of sentences possible in a given language.

Thus, the two fundamental problems of the transformational model are:

- a) the establishment of the set of kernel or basic structures;
- b) the establishment of the set of transformation rules for deriving all the other sentences as their transforms.

A transformation rule is a rule which requires or allows us to perform certain changes in the kernel sentences: rearrangement of linguistic elements.

The system of any language contains a rather small number of basic structures and an unlimited number of their transforms.

Harris gives the following list of kernel sentences of the English language:

NV	<i>The boy came.</i>
NV prep N	<i>John looked at Mary.</i>
NVN	<i>John saw a film.</i>
N is N	<i>John is a doctor.</i>
N is prep N	<i>John is in bed.</i>
N is A	<i>John is angry.</i>
N is D	<i>John is there.</i>

G.G. Pocheptsov singles out 24 syntagmatic types of the verb in the kernel sentence and correspondingly 24 basic structures in English.

Thus, there may be different estimations of the kernel set in English but it should be born in mind that the final number of basic structures is limited and it is predetermined by the obligatory lexico-grammatical valence of the verb-predicate.

From the kernel sentences by means of transformation rules the great variety of other linguistic structures is generated.

Transformations of the simple sentence can be divided into two types: *obligatory* and *optional*.

*Obligatory* transformations are transformations on the morphemic level, whose application is indispensable for building up a sentence.

They generate intramodel transforms within one and the same model. These transformations involve the following changes of the finite V:

- 1) the choice of the tense;
- 2) the choice of number and person;
- 3) the choice of modality;
- 4) the choice of aspect;
- 5) the choice of phase.

*Optional* transformations are transformations on the syntactic or word-class level. An optional transformation depends on the speaker's intention and the purpose of communication. An optional transformation results in a transform which is not a kernel sentence any longer.

These transformations are:

1) T – A. The transformation of affirmation. In consists in introducing the functional word 'do', in the kernel if it is verbal, 'be' (with auxiliaries or link), have (do), e.g. *And I did have fun.*

2) T – Not. Transformation of negation, e.g. *She did not see him.*

There are some other ways of constructing negative transforms:

*Somebody saw that. – Nobody saw that.*

*You can tell. – You never can tell.*

3) T – Q. The transformation of interrogation: it transforms an affirmative sentence into a question, e.g. *I love summer. – Do you love summer?*

4) T – W. Transformation into a special question, e.g. *What are you doing?*

5) T – Ex. Transformation into exclamatory sentence, e.g. *The girl is pretty. – How pretty the girl is!*

6) T – Passive. The passive transformation, e.g. *We must teach the children. – The children must be taught.*

This transformation can be applied only to sentence structures containing certain subclasses of V (look type, take, give, put type).

The transformational model is more powerful than the IC model because it shows the difference between the constructions which the IC model fails to distinguish.

Thus, *John is eager to please.*

*John is easy to please.*

have the same structure in terms of the IC model, but they are different in structure from the point of view of the transformational model:

<i>John is eager to please.</i>		<i>John is eager to please X.</i>
<i>John pleases X.</i>		

While the second sentence is derived from other kernel structures:

<i>It is easy.</i>		<i>It is easy for X to please John.</i>
<i>X pleases John.</i>		<i>John is easy to please.</i>

The explanatory power of the transformational model is accounted by the fact that it regards the sentence structure in its relation to other sentence structures. This enables it to make difference between externally identical but structurally heterogeneous constructions.

### **The Theme / Rheme Model** **(the functional sentence perspective)**

Alongside with the nominative division (grammatical or syntactical) of the sentence, the functional sentence perspective has been put forward.

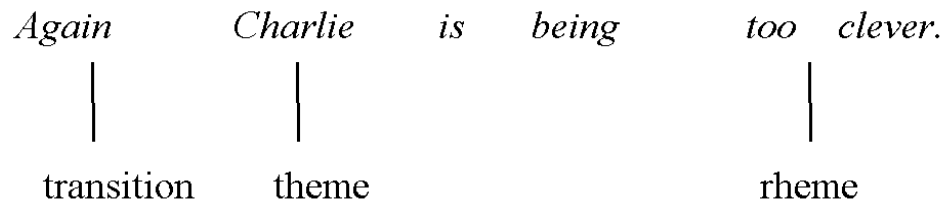
The purpose of the functional sentence perspective is to reveal the correlative significance of the sentence parts from the point of view of their actual informative role in an utterance, i.e. from the point of view of the immediate semantic contribution they make to the total information conveyed by the sentence in the context of connected speech. In other words, it in fact exposes its informative perspective.

The main components of the functional sentence perspective are the theme and the rheme.

The theme expresses the starting point of the communication, i.e. it denotes an object or phenomenon about which something is reported.

The rheme expresses the basic informative part of the communication, its contextually relevant centre.

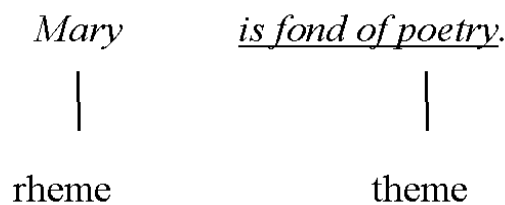
Between the theme and the rheme are positioned intermediary, transitional parts of various degrees of informative value (these parts are sometimes called transition), e.g.



There are two kinds of the functional sentence perspective:

Direct – when the theme coincides with the subject of the sentence and the rheme is expressed by the predicate.

Inverted – when the subject will turn into the exposé of the rheme while the predicate – into exposé of the theme.



The functional sentence perspective is a part of the structural system of language because the correlative informative significance of utterance components are rendered by quite definite grammatical means.

Among the formal means of expressing the distinction between the theme and the rheme scholars name such structural elements of language as:

1) word-order patterns:

*The boy stood on the platform in the middle of the hall. –*

*On the platform in the middle of the hall stood the boy.*

In the first sentence theme precedes the rheme. It corresponds to the natural development of thought: from the starting point to the semantic centre of the communication.

In the second sentence the rheme is positioned before the theme to stress the new information. It is connected with emphatic speech.

2) constructions with introducers:

*There* pattern provides for the rhematic identification of the subject.

*Tall birches surrounded the lake* (theme).

*There were tall birches surrounding the lake* (rheme).

3) Constructions with anticipatory it:

*It was he who attended the girl* (rheme).

4) Syntactic patterns of contrastive complexes.



They are used to make explicative the inner contrast inherent in the actual division by virtue of its functional nature:

*This book is not for your sister, but for you.*

5) Construction with articles or other determiners.

Determiners, among them the articles, are used as means of forming certain patterns of functional sentence perspective. The definite determiners serve as identifiers of the theme, while the indefinite determiners serve as identifiers of the rheme:

*The man walked up and down the hall* (theme).

*A man walked up and down the hall* (rheme).

5) Constructions with intensifying particles.

They impart emotional colouring to the whole of the utterance:

*Only then did he sit down.*

6) Intonation serves as the theme/rheme identifier. Intonation is a universal means of the actual division in all types and varieties of lingual contexts.

The functional sentence perspective makes up part of syntactic predication, because it strictly meets the functional purpose of predication as such, which is to relate the nominative content of the sentence to reality.

## PRAGMATICS

The term ‘pragmatics’ was first introduced by Charles Morris, who contrasted pragmatics with syntax and semantics, and defined it as “the study of the relation of signs to interpreters”. Today, in a less technical, more communication-oriented terminology, one would perhaps use words such as ‘message’ and ‘language user’, rather than ‘sign’ and ‘interpreter’. In any case, pragmatics is the science of language inasmuch as that science focuses on the language-using *human*; this distinguishes pragmatics from the classical linguistic disciplines, which first and foremost concentrate on the results of the language users’ activity: the structures that the grammar (the language system) allows them to produce. Or, in a different terminology: pragmatics is interested in the process of producing language and in its producers, not just in the end-product, language.

One could imagine that the proper domain of pragmatics would be what Chomsky has called *performance*, that is to say, the way the individual user went about using his or her language in everyday life. The practice of performance would then be defined in contrast to the user’s abstract *competence*, understood as his or her knowledge of the language and its rules (as e.g. described in a generative-transformational grammar).

People who accept this opposition as a valid one simply divide the study of language into two independent parts: one is a description of its structure (as dealt with in the classical descriptions or grammars), the other, a description of its use (to be taken care of by pragmatics).

When we use language, we characteristically do three things: 1) we say something; 2) we indicate how we intend the hearer to take what we said, and 3) we have definite effects on the hearer as a result. Usually we expect to do all three things at once.

*Pragmatics* is the theory of linguistic communication.

First, when talking about linguistic communication, we refer to the case in which the speaker is attempting to communicate to the hearer by relying on the semantic interpretation of the linguistic form uttered.

Second, linguistic communication succeeds only when the speaker has an attitude which he *intends* to convey to the hearer in using language, and the hearer recognizes this attitude.

Finally, there is the theory of communication (communicative competence).

*Pragmatics* is about relationships between language and its users. It is a part of linguistics which is still very much subject to debate and development, but it is

clear that it includes roughly the following topics: the interpersonal and social acts that speakers perform by speaking and writing; thus, the structure not only of conversation but also of all other sorts of linguistic communication as interaction; the diverse relationships between language use and its different types of context; particularly the relationships with social contexts and their historical development; and, fundamentally, the systems of shared knowledge within communities, and between speakers, which make communication possible - this is where pragmatics and semantics overlap.

*Pragmatics* is the study of speaker meaning and attitude.

*Pragmatics* is the study of contextual meaning.

*Pragmatics* is the study of how more gets communicated than is said.

*Pragmatics* is the study of how we communicate verbally and non-verbally.

*Pragmalinguistics* is the study of the relationships between verbal and/or non-verbal signs and the users of those signs.

## SPEECH ACT THEORY

The main developers of ‘speech act theory’ were the British philosopher John L. Austin (whose posthumous *How to Do Things with Words* (1962) had an enormous impact on linguistic philosophy, and thereby on linguistics, especially in its pragmatic variant), and the American John R. Searle, who had studied under Austin at Oxford in the fifties, and who became the main proponent and defender of the former’s ideas in the United States, and subsequently world-wide.

Many linguistic theories take their premises in some rather simple-minded assumptions about human language: that it is nothing but a combination of ‘sound and meaning’ (thus in most descriptive grammars), or that language can be defined as a set of correct sentences (thus in most generative-transformational thinking). The basic flaw in these theoreticians’ conceptualizations is their disregard of language as *action*, an action which produces ‘speech acts’, as they have come to be called with a somewhat infelicitous but by now well-entrenched terminology (infelicitous, because ‘speech’ connotes the oral medium of language production – by no means the only medium in which ‘speech acts’ may occur).

The unit of linguistic communication is not, as has generally been supposed, the symbol, word or sentence, or even the token [the occurrence] of the symbol, word or sentence, but rather the production or issuance of the symbol or word or sentence in the performance of the speech act (Searle).

Furthermore, the speech act is not performed in the solitary philosopher’s think-tank, but in actual situations of language use.

To take the token as a message is to take it as a produced or issued token. Speech acts are the basic or minimal units of linguistic communication (Searle).

Finally, one has to recall that this ‘production’ presupposes a ‘producer’ and a ‘consumer’, human agents, whose intentions are relevant and indispensable to the correct understanding and description of their utterances.

### The Structure of the Speech Act

Speech act theory reveals how a difference in use also entails a difference in meaning. The distinction which J.L. Austin makes between *locutionary*, *illocutionary*, and *perlocutionary acts* illustrates this point very well. Austin writes:

We first distinguished a group of things we do in saying something, which together we summed up by saying we perform a *locutionary act*, such which is roughly equivalent to uttering a certain sentence with a certain sense and reference, which again is roughly equivalent to ‘meaning’ in the traditional sense. Second, we

said that we also perform *illocutionary acts* such as informing, ordering, warning, undertaking, etc., i.e. utterances which have a certain conventional force. Thirdly, we may also perform *perlocutionary acts*: what we bring about or achieve by saying something, such as convincing, persuading, deterring, and even, say, surprising or misleading. Here we have three, if not more, different senses or dimensions of the ‘use of a sentence’ or of ‘the use of language’ (Austin).

Here Austin restricts ‘meaning’ to the sense and reference of a locution. He then goes on to locate the force of an illocutionary act in the conventional usage of an expression which thereby determines the kind of act which the speaker is performing.

In general, it seems fair to say that the ‘meaning’ of a word for Austin is a matter of definition as specified by the object, action, or state of affairs that one is using the word to refer to. Defining meaning in terms of sense and reference alone, however, is somewhat misleading as Searle points out.

One of the original scholars of pragmatics, Searle, identifies four basic categories of speech acts as: *utterances*, *propositional utterances*, *illocutionary utterances* and *perlocutionary utterances*. These are not separate and independent of one another. Rather, they are similar to building blocks - humans make utterances, some of which are propositional, some of which are illocutionary, and some of which are perlocutionary.

*Utterance*. An utterance is a spoken word or string of spoken words. At the simplest level, to utter is simply to say a word with no particular forethought or intention to communicate a meaning. For example, if you put your hand on the hood of a car that has been sitting out in the hot sun, you might quickly pull it back while uttering the word, ‘*Oh!*’ In this case, you don’t *intend* to communicate meaning by this - it is simply a reflex action brought by surprise. (Someone who hears you might take it mean something, but you did not plan on it).

Examples of ‘pure’ utterances include such as sing-song rhymes while jumping rope or making choices (as, for example, ‘one potato, two potato, three potato, four ...’), singing ‘scales’ for practice, and other similar meaningless expressions.

*Propositional Utterance*. A more meaningful type of utterance makes reference to or describes a real or imaginary object. In the act of making a propositional utterance the speaker gains the opportunity to interact. If speaker and listener are using the same code (i.e., if they speak the same language), and if both recognize the object to which the speaker is referring, then it becomes possible for them to share meanings. Propositional utterances need not be sentences, and they

do not have to intend anything. Any phrase that identifies or specifies something is a propositional utterance. It is important to see that utterances and propositions are not separate categories - a propositional utterance is a particular kind of utterance.

*Illocutionary Utterances.* An illocutionary utterance is spoken with the intention of making contact with a listener. Illocutionary utterances are usually sentences that contain propositional utterances, i.e., they refer to things in the world - but it is their intentional nature that is of the most importance. Once it becomes clear that the speaker's intention is important to the meaning of an utterance, it can be seen that the same set of words might have different meanings depending on the speaker's intention. This leads scholars to further categorize illocutionary utterances in terms of how they communicate such intent.

For example, consider the sentence *I'm tired*. Depending on the intention of the speaker, this utterance could mean any of the following:

***I'm tired.***

CONTEXT	INTENTION	MEANING	TYPE OF ACT
A friend has just asked how I feel	To answer the question	I feel fatigued	Statement
Someone I'm trying to avoid has asked me if I'd like to go dancing tonight	To politely avoid her	I'd rather not	Statement
My husband and I are watching a football game on television	That we do something else	Could we turn this off?	Question or Request
It's late and my small children are asking if we can go to the movies	To put them to bed	No, go to bed	Command

Thus, depending upon the context and the speaker's intention, a given utterance might become a statement, a command, a question, a request, a promise, and so on.

## THE UTTERANCE

Propositional base  
(referential meaning)

Pragmatic component  
(pragmatic meaning)

*This coffee is really cold!*

statement  
explanation  
complaint  
excuse  
menace

*Perlocutionary Utterances.* Illocutionary speech acts may be intended to provide information, solicit answers to questions, give praise, and so on, but they don't necessarily require that the listener change his or her behaviour. Perlocutionary utterances, on the other hand, *do* attempt to effect a change. As with the others, perlocutionary speech acts are utterances; they include propositions, and they intend interaction with the receiver. Thus, Searle's model consists of a series of levels, each of which forms as the foundation for the levels that rest upon it.

### Classifications of Speech Acts

J. Austin's classification is based on a taxonomy of performative verbs (by pronouncing performative utterances the speaker performs the action and changes the world):

- 1) *verdictives* - typified by the giving of a verdict by jury (to acquit, to grade, to estimate, to disapprove, to value, etc.);
- 2) *exercitives* which are the exercising of powers, rights, influence (to appoint, to command, to order, to warn, etc.);
- 3) *commissives* which commit the speaker to doing something (to promise, to guarantee, to bet, to intend, etc.);
- 4) *behabitives* - a group concerned with attitudes, social behaviour (to criticize, to bless, to apologize, to be sorry, to thank, etc.);
- 5) *expositives* which clarify how utterances fit into ongoing discourse (to affirm, to argue, to conclude, to deny, to remark, etc.).

J. Searle's classification of speech acts is based on felicity conditions. Felicity conditions are the appropriate conditions for a special act to be recognized as intended (*propositional content condition*, *preparatory condition*, *sincerity condition* and *essential condition*). He proposes that there are five basic kinds of

action that one can perform in speaking, by means of the following five types of utterance:

- 1) *representatives*, which commit the speaker to the truth of the expressed proposition (asserting, concluding);
- 2) *directives*, which are attempts by the speaker to get the addressee to carry out some action (requesting, questioning);
- 3) *commissives*, which commit the speaker to some future course of action (promising, threatening, offering);
- 4) *expressives*, which indicate a psychological state or mental attitude (thanking, apologizing, welcoming, congratulating);
- 5) *declarations*, which effect immediate changes in the institutional state of affairs and which tend to rely on elaborate extra-linguistic institutions (declaring war, naming, blessing, arresting, firing from employment).

G.G. Pocheptsov's classification of speech acts is based on the linguistic principles. He puts the emphasis on the pragmatic component and the lexical-grammatical peculiarities:

- 1) constatives (*The earth rotates*);
- 2) promissives (*I'll call you*);
- 3) menacives (*I'll be back!*);
- 4) performatives (*I congratulate you*);
- 5) directives (requestives and injunctives - *Come here (please)*);
- 6) quesitives (*What's the time?*).

### **Indirect Speech Acts**

It was J. Searle who first introduced the theory of indirect speech acts.

Whenever there is a direct relationship between a structure and a pragmatic function, we have a direct speech act. Whenever there is an indirect relationship between a structure and a function, we have an indirect speech act. E.g.: *Can you reach the salt?* This kind of acts obtains the following features:

- there is no direct correlation between the form and the content;
- the utterance has two or more illocutionary forces;
- the dominating illocutionary force causes the transposition of one speech act type to another;
- they are generally associated with greater politeness in English than direct speech acts.



## DISCOURSE ANALYSIS

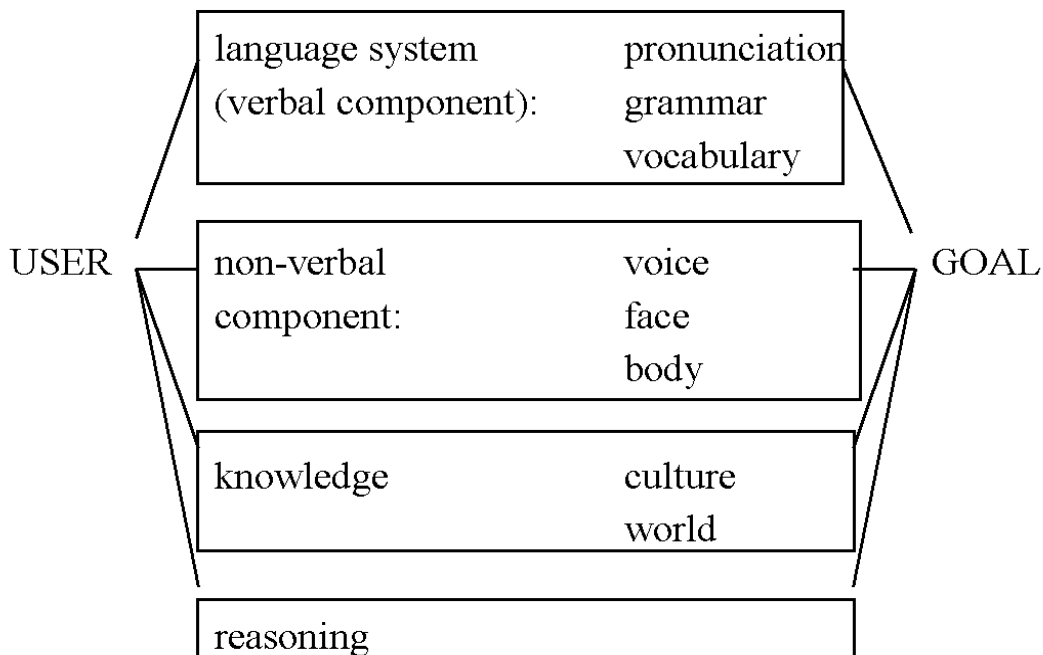
Discourse is the use of the language in speech and writing to achieve pragmatic meaning. Out of context, a sentence has a kind of time-free and place-free meaning. Used as an utterance in context it may have many meanings, which, although they are connected to the context-free sentence meaning, may be extremely varied. The function of the sentence of utterances must be established pragmatically.

Discourse analysis is the study of language use with reference to the social and psychological factors that influence communication.

Discourse analysis is aimed at the investigation of the following topics:

- the repertoire of speech acts;
- the typology of speech events;
- the ways of expressing the communicative competence;
- types and components of communicative behaviours;
- pragmatic processes;
- conversational analysis;
- discourse strategies, etc.

The scheme of the user's discourse may be presented as in the figure:



By *pragmatic processes* we mean the processes used to bridge up the gap between the semantic representations of utterances and their interpretation in context. E.g.: A: *Can you take me to Hawaii?*

B: *Am I a millionaire?*

### **Speech Event**

*Speech event* is a set of circumstances in which people interact in some conventional way to arrive at some outcome.

Speech events are the largest units for which one can discover linguistic structure and are not necessarily conterminous with the situation; several speech events can occur successively or even simultaneously in the same situation, as for instance with distinct conversations at a party.

The relationship between *speech events* and *speech acts* is hierarchical: an event may consist of a single speech act, but often comprises several. Every speech event comprises structure, setting, participants, purpose, key, topic, channel (spoken, written, whistled, drummed) and message form.

*Setting.* All speech events occur of necessity in time and space - sometimes it is one of the defining criteria of an event that it occurs at a specific time or in specific place.

*Participants.* Traditionally speech has been described in terms of two participants, a speaker (addresser) who transmits a message and a listener (addressee) who receives it.

*Purpose.* All speech events and speech acts have a purpose, even if occasionally it is only phatic. Sometimes several events share the same style and are distinguished only by purpose and participants or setting.

*Key* corresponds to the tone, manner or spirit in which an act or event is performed. Acts identical in setting, participants, message form, etc., may differ in key as between mock and serious, perfunctory and painstaking.

*Channel.* Under channel the description concerns itself with the choice of oral, written, telegraphic, semaphore, or other mediums of transmission of speech.

*Message content.* Content enters analysis first of all as a question of topic, and change of topic. For many events and acts topic is fully predetermined and invariable, though for others, particularly conversation, topic is relatively unconstrained.

*Message form.* Obviously the starting and finishing point of studies of speech events is the form of individual utterances. It is a general principle that all rules of

speaking involve message form, if not by affecting its shape, then by governing its interpretation.

### **Communicative Competence**

Communicative competence is composed of four areas of knowledge and skill: *grammatical*, *sociolinguistic*, *discourse* and *strategic* competences.

*Grammatical* competence is concerned with the knowledge and skill required to understand and express the literal meaning of utterances and as such is the traditional concern of grammatical syllabuses.

*Sociolinguistic* competence is concerned with appropriateness - both appropriateness of meaning and appropriateness of form - and this includes not simply rules of address and questions of politeness but also selection and formulation of topic and the social significance of indirect speech acts.

*Discourse* competence is concerned with cohesion and coherence in the structure of texts; it therefore includes knowledge about the organization of different speech events and the interpretive rules for relating form to function.

Finally, *strategic* competence is composed of verbal and non-verbal communication strategies which enable speakers to handle breakdowns in communication and their own lexico-grammatical inadequacies and to enhance the effectiveness of their message.

Discourse analyses make it possible to generate inferences which are defined as *conversational implicatures* and *conventional implicatures*. *Conversational implicatures* are such components of an utterance that are not expressed semantically but are understood by communicants in the process of communication. The second type of implicatures, *conventional implicatures*, are derived from a definite lexical or grammatical structure of an utterance.

A *presupposition* is something the speaker assumes to be the case prior to making an utterance. Speakers, not sentences, have presuppositions, e.g.:

*He stopped smoking* (>> *He used to smoke*).

*Where did you buy the bike?* (>> *You bought the bike*).

### **Discourse Factors**

A linguistic interaction is necessarily a social interaction (Yule).

In order to make sense of what is said in an interaction we have to look at various factors which relate to social interaction. These factors have an influence

not only on what we say but also how we are to interpret it. These are *discourse factors* which fall into two groups: external and internal. They are interrelated and interdependent.

*External factors* involve the relative status of the communicants based on social values, psychological features, biological features (age, sex, etc.). Much of what we say and a great deal of what we communicate is determined by our social relationships.

*Internal factors* operate inside the conversation. These factors are as follows: a type of conversational style (aggressive, assertive, non-assertive), a kind of communicative intention, kind of positive/negative attitudes towards a topic of conversation or a partner.

External and internal factors when combined cause *discourse strategies*: positive politeness strategy, negative politeness strategy, silence, evaluation, approval, disapproval, etc. According to social closeness and distance discourse strategies fall into solidarity strategies and deference strategies.

### **The Cooperative Principle**

The idea that conversation proceeds in accord to a principle known and applied by all human beings was first introduced by H.P. Grice. In his work "*Logic and Conversation*" (1975) he puts forward the idea of cooperative principle. Grice attempted to explain how by means of shared rules and conventions people understand one another.

The Cooperative Principle is a set of guidelines necessary for the efficient conversation. It presupposes that conversation is governed by four basic rules of maxims:

1. The Maxim of Quality (= be true):  
Do not say what you believe to be false.  
Do not say for what you lack adequate evidence.
2. The Maxim of Quantity (= be brief):  
Make your contribution as informative as required.  
Do not make your contribution more informative than is required.
3. The Maxim of Relation (= be relevant):  
Be relevant.  
Be to the point.
4. The Maxim of Manner (= be clear):  
Avoid ambiguity.  
Be orderly and brief.

E.g. *There's a cat stuck under the gate, at number 45.*

When people talk they obey the cooperative principles unconsciously. They obey as if they know the rules. But in many cases people flout the maxims of cooperative principle. If some maxim is flouted we can have different meaning derived from violations: metaphor, irony, sarcasm, hyperbole. Flouting the cooperative principle may lead to misunderstanding and humorous effect. E.g.: *His car breaks down every 5 minutes.*

### **The Politeness Principle**

It is possible to treat politeness as a polite social behaviour within a culture. Politeness is a wider notion than that of a etiquette. We can specify a number of general rules for being polite in social interaction. Some of these may include being tactful, generous, modest, sympathetic.

Like the cooperative principle the politeness principle may be formulated as a set of maxims. G. Leech in "*Principles of Pragmatics*" introduced the politeness principle. According to Leech the politeness principle is as valid as the cooperative principle because it helps explain why people do not always observe maxims of the cooperative principle.

R. Lakoff has formulated the maxims of the politeness principle:

Don't impose.

Give options.

Make your receiver feel good.

E.g.: *I wonder if I could have a coffee, please.*

*Face.* Face is the public self-image of a person in situations of social distance or closeness. According to face wants there are two kinds of face: a person's negative face and a person's positive face.

A person's negative face is the need to be independent, to have freedom in actions. He doesn't want to show awareness of other person's face.

A person's positive face is the need to be accepted, even liked, to be treated as a member of the same group.

A negative face performs negative politeness, a positive face performs positive politeness.

### **Non-Verbal Communication**

Human beings communicate a great deal of information to each other without any words. For this communication we use our faces, bodies, voices and

our sense of personal space. The discovery of the pragmatic and cultural values of non-verbal areas has transformed the study of discourse analysis. One study in the USA showed that in communication of attitude and emotions 93% is transmitted by the tone of the voice and face expression. Only 7% is represented by words. Universal emotions: fear, happiness, sadness are expressed in a similar non-verbal way throughout the world.

Non-verbal communication comprises three main areas of study: the use of the body (*kinesics*), the use of the space in communication (*proxemics*), and the use of the voice (*paralanguage*).

Non-verbal signs appear to operate at three levels:

1. They define and condition the communication system.
2. They help to regulate the communication system signaling reference, status, indicating who is to speak next.
3. Finally, they communicate contents, emotions and intentions.

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