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An Introductory Course in Theoretical English Grammar

Course Book

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ОСНОВЫ ТЕОРЕТИЧЕСКОЙ ГРАММАТИКИ АНГЛИЙСКОГО ЯЗЫКА

УЧЕБНОЕ ПОСОБИЕ

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Как можно одновременно помочь студентам усвоить основы теоретической грамматики английского языка, повторить практическую грамматику, ознакомиться с различными точками зрения на изученный материал и узнать что-то интересное из произведений различных писателей, затратив минимум усилий? Ответом на этот вопрос, по мнению автора, является данное учебное пособие, представляющее собой цикл лекций по теоретической грамматике английского языка, сопровождаемых цитатами из классической и современной литературы, высказываниями ученых. В пособии также использован материал, любезно предоставленный коллегами из различных учебных учреждений Великобритании и США. Пособие адресовано студентам педагогических университетов, углубленно изучающих английский язык, а также изучающим английский язык в рамках дополнительного образования.

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CONTENT

ВВЕДЕНИЕ

Никогда не следует исчерпывать предмет до того,
что уже ничего не остается на долю читателя.
Дело не в том, чтобы заставить его читать,
а в том, чтобы заставить его думать.

Ш.Л. Монтескье

Сегодня высшее образование является залогом успешного поиска высокооплачиваемой и престижной работы. Как правило, работодатель оценивает потенциальных сотрудников по профессиональным навыкам, уровню квалификации, дополнительному образованию.

В связи с быстрым расширением международных контактов в различных сферах деятельности особую важность приобретает подготовка различных специалистов со знанием иностранных языков. Социальная мобильность предусматривает перемещение индивида в многомерном социокультурном пространстве. Быть мобильным без знания иностранного языка невозможно, поскольку ориентироваться в современной ситуации без способности к взаимодействию с лицами, говорящими на других языках, сложно. Соответственно, иностранный язык современного специалиста – и орудие производства, и часть культуры, и средство гуманитарного образования.

Методическая проблема при этом заключается в выявлении путей, способов и приемов повышения эффективности обучения.

Учебное пособие «Основы теоретической грамматики английского языка» предназначено для студентов, обучающихся по направлению 44.03.05 Педагогическое

образование (с двумя профилями подготовки), и отражает представления, сложившиеся в результате осмысления грамматического строя английского языка его носителями. Предлагаемые в пособии темы посвящены наиболее проблемным аспектам описания морфологии и синтаксиса английского языка, содержат материалы разной степени теоретической сложности, что позволяет повысить базовую языковую подготовку студентов, а также развивать способность осуществлять анализ грамматических явлений в языке.

Из рассмотрения исключены темы, которые достаточно полно представлены в практических грамматиках и не требуют дополнительного теоретического осмысления.

Основная цель пособия – побудить студентов к диалогу, к научной рефлексии, к включению в процесс анализа и разрешения проблемных вопросов.

Композиционно пособие представляет собой тексты лекций, сопровождаемые вопросами и заданиями для самоконтроля. Непосредственно после лекции следуют выводы по теме.

Терминологический указатель содержит толковый терминологический аппарат курса на родном языке для более глубокого понимания и усвоения теории, а также глоссарий на английском языке.

Языковое образование представляет собой гармоничное единство познания, творчества, общения, в основе которого лежит любознательность и увлеченность свободным поиском пути к мастерству и постижению смысла жизни.

Always remember you are unique, just like everyone else (Actual Bumper Sticker).

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WHAT IS LANGUAGE? WHAT IS GRAMMAR? GRAMMAR IN THE SYSTEMIC CONCEPTION OF LANGUAGE. INTRODUCTION TO THEORETICAL GRAMMAR. THE SUBJECT MATTER OF GRAMMAR

**When we study human language
we are approaching what some might call
the "human essence",
the distinctive qualities of mind that are,
so far as we know, unique to man.**

N. Chomsky "Language and Mind"

**In a grammar there are parts that pertain
to all languages; these components form
what is called the general grammar. In addition to these general (universal) parts,
there are those that belong only to one
particular language; and these constitute
the particular grammars of each language**

Du Marsais, c.1750

What do we usually do when come together – whether we play, fight, have parties or repair a car? We *talk*. We talk to our friends, parents, colleagues, neighbors, and even our enemies. We talk to our pets and sometimes to ourselves. We talk face-to-face, over the telephone, and everyone responds with more talk. Television and radio further swell this torrent of words. Hardly a moment of our waking lives is free from words, and even in our dreams we talk and are talked to. We also talk when there is no one to answer. We live in a ***world of language***. Language is a ***source of human life and power.*** Language is a means of forming and keeping ideas as reflections of reality and exchanging them in the process

of human relations. Language is social by nature, it is connected with the people who are its creators and users. Language grows and develops together with the development of society. *Language is a city to the building of which every human being brought a stone (Ralf Waldo Emerson, Letters and Social Aims).*

We all know at least one language. "To know" language means, to be able to speak and be understood by others who know that language. This means you have the capacity to produce sounds that signify certain meanings to understand or interpret the sounds produced by others. This is the first constituent part of any language – *the phonological system*.

The phonological system determines the material (phonological) form of its significative units.

Knowing the sounds and sound patterns in a language constitutes only one part of our linguistic knowledge. Knowing a language is also to know that certain sound sequences signify certain concepts or *meanings.* Speakers of English know what *boy* means, and that it means something different from *girl* or *pterodactyl.* When you know language, you know words in that language, that is, the sound units that are related to specific meanings. Words and stable word groups are the second constituent part of a language – *the lexical system.*

The lexical system is the whole set of naming means of language.

Knowledge of a language enables you to combine words to form phrases, and phrases to form sentences. Knowing a language means being able to produce new sentences never spoken before and to understand sentences never heard before. This ability refers to the *creative aspect* of language use (N. Chomsky).

"What's one and one and one and one and one and one and one and one and one and one?" – "I don't know", - said Alice. – "I lost count". "She can't do Addition", - the Red Queen interrupted."(Lewis Carroll, Through the Looking-Glass).

Linguistic knowledge permits speakers to form longer and longer sentences by joining phrases and sentences together. But you should bear in mind that very long sentences are theoretically possible, but they are highly improbable. Evidently, there is a difference between having the knowledge necessary to produce sentences of a language, and applying this knowledge. It is a difference between what you know, which is your *linguistic competence,* and how you use this knowledge in actual speech production and comprehension, which is your *linguistic performance.*

When we speak, we generally wish to convey some message. In the act of producing speech we must organize our thoughts into strings of words. The sounds, words, structures, meanings, rules for putting them all together are the **grammatical system.**

The grammatical system presents the whole set of regularities determining the combination of nominative units in the formation of utterances.

The nature of this system is what this course is about.

WHAT IS GRAMMAR

I don't want to talk grammar. I want to talk like a lady.

G.B. Shaw, *Pygmalion*

To grammar even kings bow.

J.B. Moliere, *Les femmes savantes*

We use the term "grammar" with a systematic ambiguity. On the one hand, the term refers to the explicit theory constructed by the linguist and proposed as a description of the speaker's competence. On the other hand, it refers to this competence itself.

N. Chomsky and M. Halle, *The Sound Pattern of English*

The term "grammar" goes back to a Greek word that may be translated as the "art of writing". However, later this word acquired a much wider sense and came to embrace the whole study of language. Now it is often used as the synonym of **linguistics.**

The grammar of a language consists of the sounds and sound patterns, the basic units of meaning such as words, and the rules to combine all these to form sentences with the desired meaning. The grammar represents our linguistic competence. To understand the nature of language we must understand the nature of grammar.

Grammar – is the study of the structure of human language. A question comes immediately to mind: what does this study involve?

Grammar may be *practical* and *theoretical.* The aim of *practical grammar* is the description of grammar rules that are necessary to understand and formulate sentences. The aim of *theoretical grammar* is to offer explanation for these rules. Generally speaking, theoretical grammar deals with the language as a functional system.

As a science grammar traditionally consists of two parts **-** *morphology* (principles of word formation) and *syntax* (principles of sentence structure).

Morphology describes how words are structured and formed, how their components (morphemes) are classified and combined. The subject of morphology as a science of word formation is a *morphological structure of a word.* It is described in such terms as a root, prefix, inflexion, etc.

The object of grammar as a science about word changing is a *paradigm of a word.* *Paradigm* is a set of forms of a word. For instance, plurality with nouns: *table – tables;* tense forms with verbs: *walk – walked*; case of some classes of pronoun: *he – him* and so on.

Paradigm on a *lexical level* is set of primary and secondary nominations within a lexical meaning; on the *level of word building* it is a set of derivatives; on the *syntactic level* it is a set of transformations of kernel sentence.

Syntax studies the theory of phrase and theory of sentence. *Syntax* describes how words are arranged and combined into phrases and sentences, how these phrases and sentences are classified and combined into larger structures. The domain (sphere) of syntax is the syntagmatics of a word.

Syntagma is a linear sequence of elements (*He is a fine boy*).

In a paradigm words are in paradigmatic relations, they have paradigmatic meaning, they are constant, invariable, subject to no change. In a <u>syntagma</u> the paradigmatic meanings are complicated by syntagmatic meanings, which are variable, subject to contextual change.

E.g. Lovely spring flowers under British bleak skies.

In this syntagma the morpheme *–s* develops the meaning of plurality (paradigm meaning) and at the same time the morpheme acquires contextual (syntagmatic) meaning of emotiveness, expressiveness, intensiveness.

Summary

- Language is a source of human life and power.

- There are three constituent parts of language: the phonology, the lexics and the grammar.

- Linguistic competence is your knowledge of a language system.

- The grammar represents our linguistic competence.

- As a science grammar consists of morphology and syntax.

- Morphology describes how words are structured and formed, how morphemes are classified and combined.

- Syntax describes how words are arranged and combined into phrases and sentences, how these phrases and sentences are classified and combined into larger structures.

Tasks

1. An English speaker's knowledge includes the sound sequences of the language. When new products are put on the market, the manufacturers have to think up new names for them that conform to the allowable sound patterns. Suppose you were hired by a manufacturer of soap products to name three new products. What names might you come up with? List them.

2. We are interested in how the names in your list are pronounced. Describe in any way you can how to say the words from your list. For example, you named one detergent *Blick.* You could describe the sounds in any of the following ways: *bl* as in *blood, i* as in *pit, ck* as in *tick* **OR** *b* as in *boy,* **OR** *bli* as in *bliss.*

3. Consider the following sentences. Put a cross after those that do not seem to conform to the rules of your grammar, that are ungrammatical for you. Prove, if you can, why you think the sentence is ungrammatical.

a. Jack forced the police officer go.

b. Napoleon forced Josephine to go.

c. The devil made Faust go.

d. He passed by a large sum of money.

e. He came by a large sum of money.

f. He came a large sum of money by.

g. Did in a corner little Jack Horner sit?

h. The fact that you are late to class is surprising.

i. Myself bit John.

j. What did Alice eat the toadstool with?

k. What did Alice eat the toadstool and?

4. Consider these two statements: *I learned a new word today; I learned a new sentence today.* Do you think the two statements are equally probable, and if not, why not?

5. State some rule of grammar that you have learned is the correct way to say something, but that you do not generally use in speaking. For example, you may have heard that *It's me* is incorrect and that the correct form is *It's I.* Nevertheless you always use *me* in such sentences; and in fact, *It's I* sounds odd to you. Present arguments against someone who tells you that you are wrong.

MORPHOLOGY.
MORPHOLOGICAL STRUCTURE OF MODERN ENGLISH.
BASIC NOTIONS

> **Imagine the Lord talking French! Aside from a few odd words in Hebrew, I took it completely for granted that God had never spoken anything but the most dignified English.**
>
> **Clarence Day,** *Life with Father*

> **All the Oriental nations jam tongue and words together in the throat, like the Hebrews and Syrians. All the Mediterranean peoples push their enunciation forward to the palate, like the Greeks and the Asians. All the Occidentals break their words on the teeth, like the Italians and Spaniards...**
>
> **Isidore of Seville, seventh century C.E.**

The two most common questions asked of linguists are: "How many languages do you speak?" and "How many languages are there in the world?" Both are difficult to answer precisely. Most linguists have varying degrees of familiarity with several languages, and many are polyglots, persons who speak and understand several languages. The Holy Roman Emperor Charles V (1500–1558) was a polyglot, for he proclaimed: "I speak Spanish to God, Italian to women, French to men, and German to my horse".

As to the second question, it is hard to ascertain the number of languages in the world. *And the whole earth was of one language, and of one speech. Genesis 11:1.*

Linguists have attempted to classify languages according to their genetic relationships. The task is to identify the languages that constitute a family and the relationships that exist among them. This method would be like classifying people according to whether they were related by blood. Another way of classifying languages is by certain linguistic traits, regardless of family. With people, this method would be like classifying them according

to height and weight, or hair and eye color. *Any language is the supreme achievement of a uniquely human collective genius, as divine and unfathomable a mystery as a living organism. Michael Krauss.*

In order to define morphological structure of a language one must know what morphological type this language belongs to.

Type of a language is a set of structural and functional features characterizing a group of languages.

Scholars distinguish the following types of language:

- Isolated (root) languages
- Synthetic languages
- Analytical languages
- Incorporative (polysynthetic) languages
- Agglutinative languages

Isolation. In isolated languages grammatical relations are expressed without inflexions. Words are unchangeable in these languages. It means that word order in the sentence is quite strict because the position of this or that word actualizes its syntactic function and characteristic to a certain part of speech. The term "isolated languages" accentuates the property of a root or a stem of a word to use itself isolated, without inflexion. Isolated languages are contrasted to agglutinative, inflectional, and polysynthetic (incorporative) languages. One should keep in mind, nevertheless, that "pure" isolated languages do not exist. The languages closest to the type are ancient Chinese (and, to a lesser extent, modern Chinese – in Chinese grammar relations are expressed by musical tones), Vietnamese, Korean and some of the languages of West Africa, such as Ewe.

Do you think Modern English is typologically similar to these languages? We can say "yes" due to historic development of the language. Old English used to be a typical flexional-synthetic language with quite developed system of declensions and conjugations, had morphological inflections and free word order. Further development of the English language came to a break-up of a flexional system, set-up strict word order and evaluation of a syntactic structure of a word.

European languages are divided into these main groups: Slavic, Romanic and Germanic. They are also divided into **analytical** (Germanic and Romanic) and **synthetic** (Slavic) types. Strangely enough, Latin, from which the Romanic languages, and to a certain degree, Germanic, have descended, is a quintessential synthetic language.

Synthetic languages are these in which most of grammatical meanings and grammatical relations of words are expressed with the help of inflexions (Slavonic, Old English, German, Latin, Russian, Ukrainian, etc.). Grammatical meanings are presented by affixes, internal flexions, stresses, suppletion, that is by the forms of the words themselves. A large number of prefixes, suffixes and endings are added to the root of the word in order to express the nuances and subtleties of meanings, thus making the language rich and flexible. This is why the words in Russian, and other synthetic languages, are generally longer. Because of this, synthetic languages can afford to have a rather simple syntax and tense structure, as well as flexible sentence structure. Gender distinctions (masculine, feminine and neutral) also become very important. These are main characteristics of the Russian language as the most prominent representative of the Slavic group of languages and of the synthetic type of languages today.

The example of the crucial importance of the correct prefix usage in Russian is demonstrated by this hilarious and infamous moment in international relations. After being elected, President Obama started his heavily advertised "reset" policy with Russia (generally, a very good idea of course). To much fanfare, the US Secretary of State Hillary Clinton arrived in Russia with a "reset button display," which was especially constructed. She was to press symbolically the button together with the Russian Foreign Minister, Sergei Lavrov. The button was proudly shown to the cameras as the two dignitaries were about to press it. At that moment, Lavrov's eyes fell on the word written on the display in Russian. The word read **"peregruzka**." Lavrov raised his eyebrows, but being a quintessential diplomat, he pressed the button and accepted the display as a memento without flinching. However, he added that the word should have been **"perezagruzka**," not "**peregruzka.**" These two words sound pretty similar to an untrained foreign ear, but they have a distinctly different meaning in Russian. The root here is the same: **"gruz,"** which means **"load."** Alas, as always, the devil is in the detail, as the subtlety here makes or breaks the word. **"Pere-gruz-ka"** means **"overload,"** while **"pere-za-gruz-ka"** means **"reset"** or **"reload."**

As for Old English, it is frequently presented as a *synthetic* language, a language in which grammatical function of clause elements is primarily derived from inflections rather than from word order and prepositions. Old English has an extensive system of inflections concerning most word classes, and often it is perfectly possible to rely on these, rather than word order and prepositions, to denote grammatical function.

Though inflexions in Modern English are few we still distinguish inflexions within nouns verbs, adjectives. Inflexions can be homonymous and polysemantic, like in the following example: *This robot robots robots.*

An analytical language is any language where syntax and meaning are shaped more by use of particles and word order rather than by inflection. In analytical languages grammatical relations are expressed by means of auxiliaries and prepositions. *Auxiliaries* are word morphemes derived of lexical meaning (*will* do, go *out of* the room). The word transfers lexical meaning in these languages. As for grammatical meaning, it is transferred by word order, function words, intonation. Analytical languages often express abstract concepts using independent words, while synthetic languages tend to use ad positions, affixes and internal modifications of roots for the same purpose. Analytical languages have stricter and more elaborate syntactic rules. Since words are not marked by morphology showing their role in the sentence, word order tends to carry a lot of importance; for example, Chinese and English make use of word order to show subject–object relationship. Chinese also uses word order to show definiteness (where English uses definite article *the* and indefinite article *a),* topic–comment relationships, the role of adverbs (whether they are descriptive or contrastive), and so on.

Analytical languages tend to rely heavily on context and pragmatic considerations for the interpretation of sentences, since they do not specify as much as synthetic languages in terms of agreement and cross-reference between different parts of the sentence.

According to Baugh, Present Day English is an analytical language, a language in which grammatical function is derived from word order and prepositions. Taking this statement at face value would mean that word order would have to be fixed [Baugh, Albert C. & Thomas Cable, 2008, *The History of the English Language*, Oxon: Routledge].

French, Bulgarian, Vietnamese are analytical languages as well.

Agglutinative languages are those that use agglutination extensively: most words are formed by joining morphemes together. Wilhelm von Humboldt introduced the term in 1836

to classify languages from a morphological point of view. It was derived from the Latin verb *agglutinare,* which means "to glue together."

An agglutinative language is a form of synthetic language where each affix typically represents one unit of meaning (such as "diminutive," "past tense," "plural," etc.), and bound morphemes are expressed by affixes (and not by internal changes of the root of the word, or changes in stress or tone). Additionally, and most importantly, in an agglutinative language affixes do not become fused with others, and do not change form conditioned by others.

Agglutinative languages build the grammatical relations between words by means of unchangeable suffixes. Suffixes are monosemantic and glued to the root of the preceding element (like in Japanese). Suffixation is the typical grammatical process but mechanistic. That is, meaningful elements are appended to stems, as in *house-my ("my house"), go (in the past)-I ("I went"), house-from ("from the house"), go-in-while ("while going", "in the act of going").* In English one can see the process of agglutination in Old English suffix *–en: ox – ox**en.** Agglutination is unimportant for English. Examples of agglutinative languages include Georgian, the Altaic languages, Japanese, Korean, many Uralic languages (the largest are Hungarian, Finnish and Estonian), the Northeast, Northwest and South Caucasian languages, and some Mesoamerican and native North American languages.

Incorporative languages are those in which parts of a sentence are at the same time parts of a word. The main characteristic of this type of languages is ability to predication. To this type of languages one can refer those of the peoples of the Arctic, for example Chukchi, and numerous languages of North-American Indians. It stands to reason that such Indo-European language as English cannot be referred to incorporative ones. Still there are features of incorporative language in English. In Modern English you can see sentences with expanded syntactic structure characterized by predicative syntagma:

- there is an attributive chain (it looks like "group possessive") in the sentence: *There was a don't-touch-me-or-I-shall-kill-you expression on his face; I saw a make-it-yourself-kit on her table; The we-don't-care-about-anything attitude was spread at that time; The blonde-I-have-been-dancing-with's name was…; The boy-who-had-killed-the-rat's room was empty;*
- there is a second-predicative complex in the sentence: *I heard him enter the house; She saw him crossing the street.*

The first kind is quite rare, register-limited and stylistically marked. The second one is highly characteristic of oral and written speech, in all registers and styles. Generally speaking, Indo-European languages are classified into two structural types – **synthetic** and **analytic.** However, we cannot speak of languages as purely synthetic or analytic – the English language possesses analytical forms as prevailing, while in the Russian language synthetic devices are dominant. In the process of time English has become more analytical as compared to Old English. Analytical changes in Modern English (especially American) are still under way. Features of other types of languages are present in English. Therefore, *isolation* is quite important for English. It expresses itself on the syntactical level in word order and on the level of word building. In word order it is expressed in the model typical for major English sentences: **subject – predicate – object** (*Mother loves her child).* In word-building it is seen in the composite words: *seadeath, theatre-mad, He is a power-mad dictator.*

We can trace it in word-combinations built on the model **Noun-Noun (NN)** where noun modifies another noun without inflexions: *college education, computer specialist, city library.*

These manifestations of isolation in English are very frequent and progressive. **NN** words are numerous.

Incorporation is also progressing in Modern English. We encounter various structures: a phrase, a simple sentence, a compound sentence functioning as words: *with a baby-contest-winner smile, the do-nothing cops.*

Synthesis is extremely important in English. Synthetic Genitive becomes more and more popular, double and even triple Genitive is used very frequently in present-day English *(a friend of Maudie's; a neighbor of Alice's*; *a friend of ours* or *no fault of Jo's). Him, her* are also synthetical forms. Synthesis expresses itself also in vowel and consonant alternation: *wife-wives*; in suppletivity: *drive-drove-driven, go went-gone.*

The comparative scantiness of grammatical inflexions results in great proportion of zero morphemes: *boy-boys.*

Analytical languages are those in which the predicative line is expressed with the help of conjunctions, prepositions and word order. Analytical languages use specific grammatical words, or particles, rather than inflection, to express syntactic relations within sentences. An analytical language is commonly identified with an isolated language, since the two classes of language tend to coincide. Typical examples of analytical languages are Vietnamese and

Classical Chinese, which are analytical and isolated. The Old English was synthetic. It means that the predicative line was expressed with the help of changing the forms of the words in the sentence. The Modern English language is analytical. Analytical means of expressing grammatical categories dominate in all parts of the grammatical structure of English. The number of auxiliaries is constantly increasing (*get, go, come, want, stand*): *He went running (побежал), he came running (прибежал)*. Thanks to this auxiliaries English is twice as verbal as Russian. Owing to the scantiness of inflexions, there are a lot of prepositions: *I am proud **of** you. Looking **through** the album he came across some old pictures. She was surprised **at** having heard the news.*

Thus, English is primarily an analytical language with important features of synthesis and progressing isolation and incorporation.

For linguists, the many languages and language families provide essential data for the study of universal grammar. Although these languages are diverse in many ways, they are also remarkably similar in many ways (they may have similar sounds, similar phonological and syntactic rules, and similar semantic system).

Summary

- Type of a language is a set of structural and functional features characterizing a group of languages.
- Scholars distinguish Isolated (root), Synthetical, Analytical, Agglutinative and Incorporative languages.
- No languages can belong only to one particular type, most languages have some features of all types, though one type is prevalent.
- English is primarily an analytical language with important features of synthesis and progressing isolation and incorporation.

Tasks

- Some sentences taken from Old English, Middle English, and early Modern English texts, illustrating some changes that have occurred in the syntactic rules of English grammar, are given below. Underline the parts of each sentence that differ from Modern English. Rewrite the sentence in Modern English. State, if you can, what changes must have occurred.

Example: *It **not** belongs to you. (Shakespeare, Henry IV)*

Modern English: It **does not** belong to you.

Change: At one time, a negative form simply had a *not* before the verb. Today, the word *do* (auxiliary verb), in its proper morphological form, must appear before the *not*.

a. It nothing pleased his master.
b. I have a brother is condemned to die.
c. I bade them take away you.
d. Christ slept and his apostles.
e. I wish you was still more a Tartar.
f. Me was told.

MORPHOLOGICAL STRUCTURE OF THE WORD

> **Nothing, no doubt, would be more interesting than to know from historical documents the exact process by which the first man began to lisp his first words, and thus to be rid for ever of all the theories on the origin of speech.**
>
> **M. Muller, 1871**

> **A word is dead**
> **When it is said,**
> **Some say.**
> **I say it just**
> **Begins to live**
> **That day.**
>
> **Emily Dickinson *"A Word"***

According to the Bible "in the beginning was the Word". In fact, the word is considered to be the central (but not the only) linguistic unit of language. Words are important part of linguistic knowledge and constitute a component of our mental grammar. But one can learn thousands of words in a language and still not know the language. On the other hand, without words we wouldn't able to convey our thoughts through language.

What is a word? What do you know when you know a word?

I say "trinitrotoluene". Have you got the slightest idea what it means? If you don't know what the "explosive" is called, you don't know the word. Particular sounds must be united with a meaning and vice versa. Once you learn both the sounds and their related meaning, you know the word. It becomes an entry in your mental lexicon, part of your linguistic knowledge.

The word is the basic nominative unit. From the point of view of its nominative function, the word is an elementary indivisible constituent part of the lexicon. Thus, the word is the nominative unit of language built up by morphemes and indivisible into smaller segments as regards its nominative function. The morphological system of language reveals its properties through the morphemic structure of words. So, it is but natural that one of the essential tasks of morphology is to study the morphemic structure of the word.

MORPHEMES: THE MINIMAL UNITS OF MEANING

> **"They gave it me,- Humpty Dumpty continued,-**
> **For an un-birthday present." – "I beg your**
> **pardon?" – Alice said with a puzzled air.**
> **"I mean, what is an un-birthday present?" –**
> **"A present given when it isn't your birthday,**
> **of course."**
>
> **Lewis Carroll *"Through the Looking Glass"***

In this dialogue Humpty Dumpty is well aware that the prefix *un-* means "not". I guess you did understand the meaning of the word "un-birthday" even if it is a bit difficult to translate it adequately in one word.

Look at the following pairs of words:

happy	unhappy
likely	unlikely
believable	unbelievable
true	untrue

There are 2700 adjectives beginning with *un-* in **Webster's Third New International Dictionary.**

If we suppose that the most basic unit of meaning is the word, what do we say about parts of words like *un-,* which has a fixed meaning? In all the words of the second column *un-* means the same thing – "not". Unhappy means "not happy", unlikely means "not likely", and so on. All the words of this column consist of at least two meaningful units: *un+happy, un+believable* and so on.

Let's see other groups of words:

phone	phonology	phoneme
phonetic	phonologist	phonemic
phonetics	phonological	allophone
phonetician	telephone	euphonious
phonic	telephonic	symphony

Phon is a minimal form in all these words which can't be decomposed. *Ph* doesn't mean anything; *pho,* though it may be pronounced like *foe (недруг)* has no relation in meaning to it; *on* is not the preposition spelled *o-n.* Thus, *phon* in all the words has the identical meaning "pertaining to sound".

Words have internal structure, which is rule-governed. *Uninspired, uneaten, ungrammatical* are words in English, but *inspiredun, eatenun, grammaticalun* (to mean "not inspired", "not eaten", "not grammatical") are not, because we do not form a negative meaning of a word by **suffixing** *un* (i.e., by adding it to the end of the word), but by **prefixing** it (i.e., by adding it to the beginning).

When Samuel Goldwyn, the pioneer moviemaker, announced: "In two words: im-possible", he was reflecting the common view that words are the basic meaningful elements of a language. We have seen that this cannot be so, since some words contain several distinct units of meaning. The linguistic term for the most elemental unit of grammatical form is **morpheme** (from the Greek *morphe – "form").* Linguistically speaking, then, Goldwyn should have said: "In two morphemes: im – possible".

The study of the internal structure of words, and the rules by which words are formed, is **morphology.** This word itself consists of two morphemes: *morph + ology.* The suffix *–ology* means "science of" or "branch of knowledge concerning". Thus, the meaning of *morphology* is "the science of word forms".

Part of knowing a language is knowing its morphology. Like most linguistic knowledge, this is generally unconscious knowledge.

According to their morphological structure words are divided into:

- monomorphemic (articles, conjunctions, some prepositions);
- polymorphemic (comprising more than one morpheme).

Morphological structure of a word can be transparent and easily analyzable:

one morpheme	boy
	desire
two morphemes	boy + ish
	desire + able
three morphemes	boy + ish + ness
	desire + able + ity
four morphemes	un + desire + able + ity
more than four	un + gentle + man + li + ness

In traditional grammar there are two basic criteria to study morphemic structure of a word: **positional and semantic (functional).** The positional criterion presupposes the analysis of the location of the marginal morphemes in relation to the central ones:

- opening – **go**ing;
- closing – go**ing**;
- internal – un**gentleman**ly;
- external –**un**gentleman**ly;**
- central – un**gentleman**ly;
- marginal – **un**gentleman**ly**.

Semantic or functional criterion studies the contribution of the morpheme to the general meaning of the word.

BOUND AND FREE MORPHEMES

Prefixes and Suffixes

Our morphological knowledge has two components: knowledge of the individual morphemes and knowledge of the rules that combine them. One of the things we know about particular morphemes is whether they can stand alone or whether they must be attached to a host morpheme.

Some morphemes like *man, boy, desire, gentle* may constitute words by themselves. These are **free morphemes.** Other morphemes like *–ly, -ness, dis-,un-* are never words by themselves but are always parts of words. These affixes are **bound morphemes.** Thus, *un-pre-, bi-* are **prefixes** (*unreal, premeditate, bipolar).* They occur before other morphemes. Some morphemes occur only as **suffixes,** following other morphemes. English examples of suffix morphemes are:

- *-ing (sleeping, eating, running, climbing);*
- *-er (reader, singer, beautifier, performer);*
- *-ist (pianist, linguist, novelist, typist);*
- *-ly (friendly, manly, actually, spectacularly),* to mention only a few.

Morphemes are the minimal linguistic signs in all languages and many languages have prefixes and suffixes. But languages may differ in how they deploy their morphemes. A morpheme that is a prefix in one language may be a suffix in another and vice-versa.

Languages may also differ in what meaning they express through affixation. In English we do not add an affix to derive a noun from a verb. We have the verb *dance* as in "I like to dance" and we have the noun *dance* as in "The salsa is a Latin dance". The form is the same in both cases. In Turkish, you derive a noun from a verb with the suffix *–ak*:

Dur	"to stop"	dur + ak	"stopping place"
Bat	"to sink"	bat + ak	"sinking place"

In Russian the suffix – *shchik (-щик)* added to a noun is similar in meaning to the English suffix *-er* in words like *reader, teacher, teenager,* which may be affixed to words of different categories. The Russian suffix, however, is added to nouns only, as shown in the following examples:

atom	"atom"	atomshchick	"atom-warmonger"
baraban	"drum"	barabanshchick	"drummer
kalambur	"pun"	kalamburshchick	"punner"
beton	"concrete"	betonshchick	"concrete worker"

These examples from different languages illustrate free morphemes like *boy* in English, *dur* in Turkish, and *atom* in Russian.

INFIXES

Some languages also have **infixes,** morphemes that are inserted into other morphemes. Spoken in the Philippines Bontoc is such a language, as illustrated by the following:

Nouns / Adjectives		Verbs	
fikas	"strong"	fumikas	"to be strong"
kilad	"red"	kumilad	"to be red"
fusul	"enemy"	fumusul	"to be an enemy"

In this language, the infix *-um-* is inserted after the first consonant of the noun or adjective.

English infixing has been the subject of the Linguist List, a discussion group on the Internet. The interest in infixes in English is because one can only infix full word obscenities into another word, usually into adjectives or adverbs. The most common infix in America is well known and frequently used in movies as well as all the euphemisms for it, such as *freakin', flippin', etc,* as in *Kalama-flippin-zoo,* based on the city in Michigan. In Britain, a common infix is *bloody,* an obscene term in British English, and its euphemisms, such as *bloomin.* In the musical movie "My Fair Lady", *abso+ bloomin + lutely* occurs in one of the songs sung by Eliza Doolittle.

CIRCUMFIXES

Some languages have **circumfixes,** morphemes that are attached to another morpheme both initially and finally. These are sometimes called **discontinuous morphemes.** In Chickasaw, a Muskogean language spoken in Oklahoma, the negative is formed with both a prefix *ik-* and the suffix *-o.* The final vowel of the affirmative is deleted before the negative suffix is added. Look at the examples of the circumfixing:

Affirmative		Negative	
Chokma	"he is good"	ik+chokm+o	"he isn't good"
Lakna	"it is yellow"	ik+lakn+o	"it isn't yellow"
Palli	"it is hot"	ik+pall+o	"it isn't hot"

An example of a more familiar circumfixing language is German. The past participle of regular verbs is formed by adding the prefix *ge-* and the suffix *-t* to the verb root. For example, the verb *lieb "love"* produces *geliebt, "loved".*

ROOTS AND STEMS

Morphologically complex word consists of a **root** and one or more affixes. A root is a lexical content morpheme that cannot be analyzed into smaller parts. Some examples of English roots are *paint in painter, write in rewrite, ceive in conceive.* A root may or may not stand alone as a word (*paint* does, *ceive* does not).

When a root morpheme is combined with an affix, it forms a **stem,** which may or may not be a word (*painter* is both a word and a stem; *-ceive+er* is only a stem). Other affixes can be added to a stem to form a more complex stem, as shown in the following:

root	system	noun
stem	system+atic	noun+suffix
stem	un+system+atic	prefix+noun+suffix
stem	un+system+atic+al	prefix+noun+suffix+suffix
word	un+system+atic+al+ly	prefix+noun+suffix+suffix+suffix

As one adds each affix to a stem, a new stem and a new word are formed.

GRAMMATICAL MORPHEMES

> **"…and even… the patriotic archbishop of Canterbury found it advisable" – "Found what?" said the Duck. "Found it", the Mouse replied rather crossly, of course You know what "it" means". "I know what "it" means well enough, when I find a thing", said the Duck, "it's generally a frog or a worm. The question is, what did the archbishop find?"**
>
> **Lewis Carroll *"Alice's Adventures in Wonderland"***

There are morphemes that have "meaning" only in combination with other words in a sentence. For example, what is the meaning of "it" in the sentence "It's cold outside" or in another one: "I found it useless". Function word "**it**" has a strictly grammatical meaning (or function) in the sentence. This means that it doesn't have any clear lexical meaning or concept associated with it. It is in the sentence due to the rules of sentence formation – the syntax.

INFLECTIONAL MORPHEMES

As we could see in above examples, function word "it" is free morpheme. Bound morphemes may also have a strictly grammatical function. They mark such properties as tense, number, gender, case, and so on. Such bound morphemes are called *inflectional morphemes*. They never change the syntactic category of the words or morphemes to which they are attached. Consider the forms of the verb in the following sentences:

1. I speak English.
2. She speaks English.
3. He is speaking English.
4. My son spoke English at the age of five.
5. He has spoken English since his childhood.

In Sentence Two the *–s* signifies the subject of the third person singular and the verb is in the present tense. But it doesn't add lexical meaning. In the third sentence the suffix *–ing* is required when verbs are used with forms of "be".

At the present stage of Modern English there are a total of eight bound inflectional affixes:

- **s**	third person singular present	She wait-**s** at home.
- **ed**	past tense	She wait-**ed** at home.
- **ing**	progressive	She is wait-**ing** at home.
- **en**	past participle	She has eat-**en** the donuts.
- **s**	plural	She ate the donut-**s.**
-**'s**	possessive	Mary**'s** hair is short.
- **er**	comparative	Mary has short-**er** hair than Jane.
- **est**	superlative	Mary has the short-**est** hair.

Compared to many languages of the world, English has relatively little inflectional morphology.

Summary

- Knowing a language means knowing the words of that language. When you know a word you know both its *form (sound)* and its *meaning.*
- *Morphemes* are the most elemental grammatical units in a language. A morpheme is the minimal linguistic meaning or grammatical function.
- The study of word formation and the internal structure of words is called *morphology.*
- A word consists of one or more morphemes.
- There are two basic criteria to study morphemic structure of a word: positional and semantic (functional).
- Most morphemes are *free* some morphemes are *bound* (they must be joined to other morphemes).
- Languages differ in how they deploy *prefixes* and *suffixes.*
- Some languages have *infixes,* morphemes that are inserted into other morphemes.

- *Circumfixes* re morphemes that are attached to another morpheme both initially and finally.
- Lexical content morphemes that cannot be analyzed into smaller parts are called *root morphemes.*
- Root morpheme combined with affix forms a *stem (*or word).
- There are morphemes that have meaning only in combination with other words in a sentence, they are *grammatical morphemes.*
- *Inflectional morphemes* mark such properties as tense, number, gender, case.

  Tasks

1. Divide the following words by placing a **/** between their morphemes. Some of the words are monomorphemic and therefore indivisible.

  Example: replaces re / place / s

a. retroactive
b. befriended
c. televise
d. margin
e. psychology
f. morphemic
g. airsickness

2. Match each expression under **A** with the one statement under **B** that characterizes it.

A	**B**
a. noisy crow	1. compound noun
b. scarecrow	2. root morpheme plus derivational prefix
c. the crow	3. phrase consisting of adjective plus noun
d. crowlike	4. root morpheme plus inflectional affix
e. crows	5. root morpheme plus derivational suffix
	6. grammatical morpheme followed by Lexical morpheme

3. Write the one proper description from the list under **B** for the italicized part of each word in **A.**

A	**B**
a. terrori*zed*	1. free root
b. un*civil*ized	2. bound root
c. terror*ize*	3. inflectional suffix
d. *luke*warm	4. derivational suffix
e. *im*possible	5. inflectional prefix
	6. derivational prefix
	7. inflectional infix
	8. derivational infix

4. Some words followed by incorrect definitions are listed below. All these errors are taken from ***Amsel Greene's Pullet Surprises***. Give some possible reasons why the students made the guesses they did. Where you can exemplify by reference to other words or morphemes, giving their meanings, do so.

Word	**Student definition**
Stalemate	"husband or wife no longer interested"
Effusive	"able to be merged"
Tenet	"a group of ten singers"
Dermatology	"a study of derms"
Ingenious	"not very smart"
Finesse	"a female fish"

GRAMMATICAL MEANINGS, GRAMMATICAL FORMS, GRAMMATICAL CATEGORIES

> **"You seem very clever at explaining words, Sir",- said Alice.- "Would you kindly tell me the meaning of the poem "Jabberwocky'?" – "I can explain all the poems that ever were invented – and a good many that haven't been invented just yet".**
>
> **Lewis Carroll,** *Through the Looking Glass*

The word combines in its semantic structure two meanings – lexical and grammatical. **Lexical** meaning is the individual meaning of the word (e.g. *table)*. **Grammatical** meaning is the meaning of the whole class or a subclass. For example, the class of nouns has the grammatical meaning of *thingness.* If we take a noun *table,* we may say about its individual lexical meaning corresponding to a definite piece of furniture and the grammatical meaning of thingness (this is the meaning of the whole class). Besides, the noun *table* has the grammatical meaning of a subclass – countableness.

Grammatical meaning is abstract meaning of number, gender, aspect, case, tense, correlation which is expressed by grammatical forms. ***Grammatical form*** is a consecutive way of showing of grammatical meaning constant for a certain part of speech or a member of a sentence. Grammatical forms are *affixes, stress, analytical forms. For example, street-**s,** approach-**ed,** foot – **fee**t, find – **fou**nd, a present – to present, to wait – to have been waiting.*

The unity of grammatical form and grammatical meaning forms ***a grammatical category. Grammatical category*** includes at least two contrasted forms or more. Thus, there are three forms of Tense: Present, Past, future; two forms of Voice: Active and Passive; two forms of number: Singular and Plural, etc. Opposing within grammatical category is necessary but not necessary binary.

One and the same conceptual grammatical category can be expressed by different means in different language:

- in syntactical languages by inflexions
- in analytical languages by auxiliaries
- in isolated root languages it can be expressed non-inflexionally.

In English or French the category of futurity is expressed only analytically: *I will sing*, while in Russian it can be expressed both analytically: буду петь and synthetically: спою.

In Indo-European languages we have nearly the same range of grammatical categories as they are genetically and typologically cognate.

Grammatical category is continually *changing* in the language; it can disappear, die out or a new category can come to existence. The reduction of the noun paradigm caused the *decay of Old English cases* and disappearance *of gender distinctions.* The *category of Mood* (Subjunctive I, II) is gradually falling into disuse. Future tense is comparatively new as well as categories of voice and correlation.

Grammatical categories can be **implicit** and **explicit**. The **implicit** grammatical meaning is not expressed formally (e.g. the word *table* does not contain any hints in its form as to it being inanimate). Implicit categories can be revealed only transformationally. For example, the implicit category of mood and voice represented within the infinitive: *To look at his pictures you'd have never thought that he would become a distinguished painter = If you looked at his pictures*…(transformed into adverbial clause). *This is a house to let = This is a house which can be let* (transformed into a subordinate clause where implicit categories of voice and mood are represented).

Explicit categories are always marked morphologically, they are formalized, transparent and obvious. For example, in the word *cats* the grammatical meaning of plurality is shown in the form of the noun; *cat's* – here the grammatical meaning of possessivness is shown by the form of '*s*; *is asked* – shows the explicit grammatical meaning of passivness.

Summary

- Grammatical meaning is not confined to individual words but unite a whole class of words. Grammatical meaning is abstract meaning of number, gender, case, tense, correlation which is expressed by grammatical form.
- Grammatical form is a consecutive way of showing of grammatical meaning constant for a certain part of speech or member of a sentence. Grammatical forms are affixes, stress, analytical forms.
- Grammatical category is the unity of grammatical form and grammatical meaning.
- The implicit grammatical category is not expressed formally.
- Explicit categories are formalized, transparent and obvious.

Tasks

1. Determine the terminological sense of the word "meaning" modified by an adjective: *lexical meaning, grammatical meaning, lexico-grammatical meaning, explicit meaning, implicit meaning.*

2. Decide whether the arguments posed in the statements cited below are justifiable to the full or not. Be prepared to discuss this with examples to illustrate your standpoint: *Every grammatical category is the expression of some general idea – some logical category. Thus the grammatical category "plural" express "more-than-oneness', and therefore falls under the wider logical categories of "number" and "quantity", and the grammatical category "tense" corresponds to the logical category "time" (Henry Sweet, A New English Grammar, Part I, p.10).*

3. Arrange the words listed below in groups, taking into consideration their grammatical form: *will speak, went, sends, John's, ladies, were, rose, has come, is done, men, knives, built, are reading, cut, broke, looks, cost, geese, wanted, longer, biggest, worse, those, me, illustrated, sent.*

PARTS OF SPEECH. CLASSES OF WORDS.

> **Would a *fly* without wings be called a *walk?***
> **If nothing ever sticks to *Teflon,* how do they**
> **make *Teflon* stick to the pan?**
> **What do they call *a coffee break* at the Lipton**
> **Tea Company?**
> **Why is it called *lipstick* if you can still move**
> **your lips?**
>
> **Questions to Ponder**

Each word in your mental lexicon includes such information as whether it is a noun, a pronoun, a verb, an adjective, an adverb, a preposition or a conjunction. That is, its **grammatical category**, or **syntactic class,** is specified. You may not consciously know that a form like "love" is listed as both a verb and a noun, but a speaker can show the difference with the help of phrases: *I love my children* and *You are the love of my life.* If such information were not in the mental lexicon, we would not know how to form grammatical sentence.

The best way to describe the language is to describe its word classes. The words of language, depending on various formal and semantic features, are divided into grammatically relevant sets or classes. The traditional grammatical classes of words are called parts of speech. This name was introduced in the grammatical teaching in Ancient Greece, where the concept of the sentence was not yet explicitly identified in distinction to the general idea of speech, and where no strict differentiation was drawn between the word as a vocabulary unit and the word as a functional element of the sentence.

A part of speech is a class of words which is characterized by certain typical features which are typical of all the elements which constitute this class (or words or lexical units).

The problem of parts of speech has been a problem for centuries. The number of parts of speech, which specialists distinguish, varies from four to 13-14 or even 15. The problem

of word classification into parts of speech remains one of the most controversial problems in modern linguistics. The most debated question is the criterion of classifying words.

It is not an easy thing to describe, to give a full adequate definition of a part of speech. A word as belonging to a part of speech should be characterized from at least two different points/aspects. First of all every word even a function word is a unit in itself as such it has a certain phonetic structure, a certain lexical meaning or a certain word building structure. At the same time we do not speak in words we speak in utterances, in sentences, therefore a word should be regarded as a member of larger unit. If we consider a word as a unit in itself, we consider some properties, which characterize word as such: its lexical and morphological properties; and if we consider the word as a member of a larger unit, we should consider its syntactic characteristics.

There are different approaches in describing and classifying the parts of speech. In English grammar the theory of parts of speech begins in the period of prenormative and normative grammars.

There are four approaches to the problem:

1. Traditional / Classical or logical-inflectional, worked out by prescriptives.
2. Functional, worked out by descriptivists.
3. Distributional, worked out by structuraoists.
4. Complex

Classical or logical inflectional approach

The age of prescriptive grammar began in the second half of the 18th century. The most influential grammar at that period was R. Lowth's grammar, which was called "*Short introduction to English grammar"*. It was published in 1762, and its aim was to reduce the English language to rules and to set up a standard of correct usage. In his classification we have 8 parts of speech. Parts of speech were divided into *declinable* (nouns, adjectives, pronouns, verbs, participles) and *indeclinable* (prepositions, conjunctions, interjections). The underlying principle of this classification was the form, which was not only morphological but syntactic also, i.e. the English form must correspond to the Latin form. Prescriptive grammarians treated Latin as an ideal language, this is the reason they described English

in terms of Latin forms and Latin grammatical constraints: prescriptive grammar is concerned with norms of or rules for correct usage, similar to Latin, words in English were divided into declinable and indeclinable.

The number of parts of speech varied from author to author: in early grammars nouns and adjectives formed one part of speech; later they came to be treated as two different parts of speech. The same applies to participles, which were either a separate part of speech or part of the verb. The article was first classed with the adjective. Later it was given the status of a part of speech and toward the end of the 19-th century the article was integrated into the adjective. William Bullocar wrote the first published grammar of the English language, which appeared in 1586. He divided parts of speech into declinable and indeclinable (he already began to investigate the peculiarities of classes of words).

Ben Johnson distinguished changeable and unchangeable parts of speech but he called them "words with number" and "words without number".

Charles Butler distinguished between declinable and indeclinable parts of speech but he calls them "words with case and number" and "words without case and number".

Functional approach

Non-structural descriptive grammarians adopted the system of parts of speech worked out by prescriptivists and elaborated it further.

Henry Sweet introduced a new approach to the problem of parts of speech in the XIX century, 1982. He took into account the peculiarities of the English language. This approach may be defined as *functional.* He resorted to the functional features of words and singled out nominative units and particles. To *nominative* parts of speech belonged to *noun-words* (noun, noun-pronoun, noun-numeral, infinitive, gerund), *adjective-words* (adjective, adjective-pronoun, adjective-numeral, participles), *verb* (finite verb), *verbals* (gerund, infinitive, participles). To the group of ***particles*** belonged *adverb, preposition, conjunction and interjection.* However, though the criterion for classification was functional, Henry Sweet failed to break the tradition and classified words into those having morphological forms and lacking morphological forms.

Otto Jespersen, another noted descriptivist, also speaks of three principles of classification. In the basis of the three criteria, the scholar distinguishes the following parts of speech: substantives, adjectives, pronouns, verbs, and particles (adverbs, prepositions, conjunctions, interjections). Otto Jespersen's system is a further elaboration of Henry Sweet's system. Unlike Henry Sweet, Otto Jespersen separates nouns (which he calls substantives) from noun-words. It was Jespersen, who showed that it is impossible to approach a class of words from only one angle. He refers words to a certain class (hence to a certain meaning) through their distribution.

A ***distributional approach*** to the parts of speech can be illustrated by the classification introduced by Charles Fries (1956). He wanted to avoid the traditional terminology and establish the classification of words based on distributive analysis, that is, the ability of words to combine with other words of different types. Roughly speaking, the distribution of a word is the position of a word in the sentence. To classify the words of English, Charles Fries used three sentences called substitution frames. He thought that the positions, or the slots, in the sentences were sufficient for the purpose of the classification of all the words of the English language.

Frame A – *The concert was good.*

Frame B – *The clerk remembered the tax.*

Frame C – *The team went there.*

The position discussed first is that of the word *concert*. Words that can substitute for concert (e.g. *food, coffee, taste,* etc.) are **Class 1 words.** The same holds good for words that can substitute for *clerk*, *tax* and *team*- these are typical positions of **Class1 words**. The next important position is that of *was*, *remembered* and *went;* words that can substitute for them are called **Class 2 words**. The next position is that of *good*: words that can substitute for *good* are **Class 3 words.** The last position is that of *there*; words that can fill this position are called **Class 4 words**. According to the scholar, these four parts of speech contain about 67 per cent of the total instances of the vocabulary. He also distinguishes 15 groups of function words set up by the same process of substitution but on different patterns. It is obvious that in classifying words into word-classes Charles Fries in fact used the principle of function or combinability (the position of a word in these sentence is the syntactic function of word).

Thus, in Ch. Fries's classification, we find that he classifies words into 4 "form-classes", designated by numbers, and 15 groups of "function words", designated by letters. The 4 major parts of speech (Noun, Verb, Adjective, Adverb) set up by the process of substitution in Ch. Fries recorded material are thus given no names except numbers: class 1, class 2, class 3, class 4. Then come fifteen groups of so-called function-words which have certain characteristics in common (4 main classes +15 functional elements = 19 classes of words).

What is really valuable in Fries' classification is his investigation of 15 groups of function words (form-classes) because he was the first linguist to pay attention to some of their peculiarities.

At the same time, Charles Fries did not take into account the lexical meaning of words.

John Brightland featured a new approach. He completely abandoned the old classes and names and distinguished between four parts of speech: names (noun), qualities (adjective), affirmations (verb), particles (all the predicative parts of speech).

Complex approach

All classifications mentioned above appear to be one-sided because parts of speech are discriminated on the basis of only one aspect of the word: either its meaning or its form, or its function.

In modern linguistics parts of speech are discriminated according to three criteria: semantic, formal and functional. This approach may be defined as *complex.*

The *semantic* criterion presupposes the grammatical meaning of the whole class of words (general grammatical meaning). The *formal* criterion reveals paradigmatic properties: relevant grammatical categories, the form of the words, their specific inflectional and derivational features. The *functional* criterion concerns the syntactic function of words in the sentence and their combinability. Thus, characterizing any part of speech we are to describe its

- semantics
- morphological features
- syntactic peculiarities.

In accord with the three criteria words on the upper level of classification are divided into notional and functional, or changeable and unchangeable.

To the notional parts of speech of the English language belong the noun, the adjective, the numeral, the pronoun, the verb, the adverb

The features of the noun:

- the categorical meaning of substance;
- the changeable forms of number and case, the specific suffixal forms of derivation;
- the substantive functions in the sentence (subject, object, substantival predicative), prepositional connections, modification by an adjective.

The features of the adjective:

- the categorical meaning of property(qualitative and relative);
- the forms of degrees of comparison, the specific suffixal forms of derivation;
- adjectival functions in the sentence.

The features of the numeral:

- the categorical meaning of number (cardinal and ordinal);
- the narrow set of simple numerals, the specific forms of composition for compound numerals, the specific suffixal forms of derivation for ordinal numerals;
- the functions of numerical substantive and numerical attribute.

The features of the pronoun:

- the categorical meaning of indication;
- the narrow sets of various status with the corresponding formal properties of categorical changeability and word-building;
- the substantival and adjectival functions for different sets.

The features of the verb:

- the categorial meaning of process — finite and non-finite;
- the forms of verbal categories of person, number, tense, aspect, voice, mood, the opposition of the finite and non-finite forms;
- the function of the finite predicate for the finite verb, the mixed verbal-other than verbal functions for the non-finite verb.

The features of the adverb:

- the categorical meaning of the secondary property;
- the forms of the degree of comparison for qualitative adverbs, the specific suffixal forms of derivation;
- the functions of various adverbial modifiers.

The linguistic evidence drawn from our grammatical study makes an important distinction between two kinds of words – *notional (content)* and *function (grammatical)* words. Words with the corresponding references in the objective reality (those denoting things, objects, notions, qualities, etc.) are the *notional (content) words.* These words denote concepts such as objects, actions, attributes, ideas that we can think about like *parents, monarchy, lilac.* It is commonly recognized that the notional parts of speech are nouns, pronouns, numerals, verbs, adjectives, adverbs. Notional words are sometimes called *the open class.* That means we can add new words to these classes. And we do it regularly: a new word *perestroika* came to the language as a part of changing life of society, nouns *byte* and *e-mail* entered the language with computer development.

The *functional* parts of speech are articles, particles, prepositions, conjunctions and modal words. Although the number of function words is limited (there are only about 50 of them in Modern English) they are the most frequently used units because they have a grammatical function. For example, the articles indicate whether a noun is definite or indefinite – *a teacher* or *the teacher*. The preposition *of* in phrase *the book of yours* indicates possession but this word indicates many other kinds of relations too.

Function words are sometimes called ***closed class*** words. It is difficult to think new prepositions, conjunctions, pronouns, that have recently entered the language.

The difference between content words and function words is illustrated by the following test that circulated recently over the Internet: *Please count the numbers of **Fs** in the following text:* **Finished files are the**

> **Result of years of scientific**
> **Study combined with the**
> **Experience of years.**

Most people have the answer "three Fs". That answer is wrong. The correct one is six. Count again paying attention to the function word ***of.***

As you can see these two classes of words have different functions in language.

Notional words have semantic content (meaning). Function words play a grammatical role: they connect the notional words to the larger grammatical context in ways we will discuss in the lecture concerning syntax.

Summary

- The word is the basic nominative unit, an elementary indivisible constituent part of lexicon.
- There are four approaches to the criterion of classifying words: traditional, functional, distributional, complex.
- Traditionalists rely upon meaning. According to this classification all words are divided into declinable and indeclinable.
- Functional approach resorts to the functional features of words and singles out nominative units and particles.
- Distributional approach illustrates the ability of words to combine with other words of different types.
- Complex approach discriminates parts of speech according to three criteria: semantic, formal, functional.
- The notional parts of speech are nouns, pronouns, numerals, verbs, adjectives, adverbs.
- The functional parts of speech are articles, particles, prepositions, conjunctions, modal words.

- The division of language units into notional and function words reveals the interrelation of lexical and grammatical types of meaning.
- In notional words the lexical meaning is predominant.
- In function words the grammatical meaning dominates over the lexical one.

Tasks

1. Comment on the terms: *word-classes, notionals, function words, declinable/indeclinable parts of speech.*

2. Decide to what parts of speech the words italicized may be assigned. Pose arguments:

a) *After* the conversation he went back to the memory of the previous afternoon, *just* recalling fragments of friendless and *exactly* revealed solicitude (**Cronin**). b) Ten years *after* his famous experiment was performed (**Wilson**). c) "*Open* your mouth when we fire", he joked. "It's going to be good and loud" (**Heym**). d) At this moment the front broke *open*… (**Heym**). e) His *work* began at eight and he went *on* working till midnight. He went to bed *only when* he finished it up. *Too* tired to *work,* too dulled to talk and *simply* vaguely satisfied that he had *just* managed to complete the minimum (**Wilson**).

3. Read the following quotations. Comment on the ideas implied. Be ready to express your own opinion on the matter under consideration. Translate these extracts if it seems helpful:

The classification of the languages of the world is closely related to the assignment of words themselves to "parts of speech". Are the traditional parts orationis – noun, pronoun, adjective; verb, adverb; preposition, conjunction and interjection – still acceptable as valid categories applicable to all tongues? To this question the short answer is that these word-classes apply to Indo-European languages alone. (S. Potter,p. 98)

Unfortunately we cannot use as the startling point of our examination the traditional definitions of the parts of speech. […] All the instances of one part of speech are the "same" only in the sense that in the structural patterns of English each has the same functional significance. (Ch. Fries,pp. 67, 73)

We need to distinguish between a grammatical classification of a word that is, assigning it to a particular "part of speech" and a syntactical classification, that is, assigning it to a syntactical class. Linguists use the term "form class" to refer to nouns, pronouns, verbs, adjectives, and adverbs rather than the traditional "part of speech" in order to emphasize that the words are classified on the basis of form rather than meaning. Roughly what they mean by form is that there is some element in a given word that identifies it as a noun (or verb, adjective, adverb). (A. N. Nichols, p. 7)

THE NOUN

And out of the ground the Lord God formed every beast of the field, and every fowl of the air, and brought them unto Adam to see what he would call them; and whatsoever Adam called every living creature, that was the name thereof.

Genesis 2:19

General characteristics.

The noun is the central lexical unit of language. It is the main nominative unit of speech. As any other part of speech, the noun can be characterized by three criteria: *semantic* (the meaning), *morphological* (the form and grammatical categories), *syntactical* (functions, distribution).

Semantic features of the noun.

The noun possesses the grammatical meaning of thingness, substantiality. According to different principles of classification nouns fall into several subclasses:

1. **Proper** and **common** in accord with the type of nomination.
2. **Animate** and **inanimate** in accord with the form of existence. Animate nouns in their turn fall into **human** and **non-human.**
3. **Countable** and **uncountable** in accord with their quantitative structure.

   This set of subclasses cannot be put together into one table because of the different principles of classification.

Morphological features of the noun. According to the morphological structure of the stems all nouns can be classified into: **simple** (*student*), **derived** (stem + affix, affix + stem: *thingness*), **compound** (stem + stem: *chairman*) and **composite** (*the Hague*). The noun has morphological categories of number and case. Some scholars admit the existence of the category of gender.

Syntactic features of the noun. The noun can be used in the sentence in all syntactic functions but predicate. Speaking about noun combinability, we can say that it can go into right-hand and left-hand connections with practically all parts of speech. That is why practically all parts of speech but the verb can act as noun *determiners*. However, the most common noun determiners are considered to be articles, pronouns, numerals, adjectives and nouns themselves in common and genitive case.

THE CATEGORY OF NUMBER

Three kinds of people: those who can count and those who can't.

Actual Bumper Sticker,
Mottoes to Live By

The word *trousers* is an uncommon noun because it is singular at the top and plural at the bottom.

School Goofs,
Real Life Bloopers

The grammatical category of number is the linguistic representation of the objective category of quantity. It is expressed by the opposition of the plural form of the noun to the singular form. The strong member of this binary opposition is plural. Its productive formal mark is suffix -**s, -es**. The semantic content of the unmarked form enables grammarians to speak of the *zero suffix* of the singular. The other non- productive ways of expressing the number opposition are vowel interchange: *goose- geese*; correlation of individual singular and plural suffixes in some borrowed nouns. Sometimes the plural form can be homonymous

with singular form: *sheep-sheep.* In some cases the meaning of the plural form can differ from the meaning of the singular form *a potato (one item of the vegetables) and potatoes (food).* As the result of the comparison we conclude that the broader semantic mark of the plural should be described as the potentially dismembering reflection of the structure of the referent, while the semantic mark of the singular will be understood as the non-dismembering reflection of the structure of the referent, i.e. the presentation of the referent in its indivisible entireness.

It is sometimes stated that the plural form indiscriminately presents both multiplicity of separate objects ("discrete" plural, *e.g. three houses)* and multiplicity of units of measure for an indivisible object ("plural of measure", *e.g. three hours).* The difference here lies not in the content of the plural as such, but in the quality of the objects themselves. Actually, the singulars of the respective nouns differ from one another exactly on the same lines as the plurals do *(cf. one house – one hour).*

There are semantic varieties of the plural forms that differ from one another in the plural quality. They may express a define set of objects (*eyes* of the face), various types of the referent: *fruits, peoples, wines;* intensity of presentation of the idea: *years and years.*

The subclasses of uncountable nouns are referred to, respectively, as **singularia tantum** and **pluralia tantum.**

Since the grammatical form of the uncountable nouns of the **singularia tantum** subclass is not excluded from the category of number, it stands to reason to speak of it as the "absolute" singular, as different from the "correlative" or "common" singular of the countable nouns. The absolute singular excludes the use of the modifying numeral *one,* as well as the indefinite article.

The absolute singular is characteristic of the names of abstract notions *(peace, love,* etc.), the names of the branches of professional activity *(chemistry, architecture,* etc.), the names of mass-materials *(water, snow,* etc.), the names of collective inanimate objects *(foliage, fruit,* etc.). Some of these words can be used in the form of the common singular with the common plural counterpart, but in this case they come to mean either different sorts of materials, or separate concrete manifestations of the qualities denoted by abstract nouns, or concrete objects exhibiting the respective qualities. *(Joy is absolutely necessary for normal human life. — It was a joy to see her among us.)*

As one can see **singularia tantum** covers different groups of nouns: proper names, abstract nouns, material nouns, collective nouns.

In the sphere of the plural we must recognize the common plural form as the regular feature of the countability and the absolute plural form peculiar to the uncountable subclass of **pluralia tantum** nouns. The absolute plural is characteristic of the uncountable nouns which denote objects consisting of two halves *(trousers, scissors,* etc.); the nouns expressing some sort of collective meaning both concrete and abstract *(poultry, police);* the nouns denoting diseases as well as some abnormal states of the body and mind *(hysterics).*

The absolute plural, by the way of functional reduction, can be presented in countable nouns having the form of the singular, in uncountable nouns having the form of the plural, and in countable nouns having the form of the plural.

Pluralia tantum covers the names of objects consisting of several parts, names of sciences, names of games, diseases, etc.

THE CATEGORY OF CASE

> **Sweat is nature's way of showing you**
> **your muscles are crying.**
> **Everybody is somebody else's weirdo.**
>
> *Mottoes to Live By*

Case is the morphological category of the noun manifested in the forms of noun declension and showing the relations of the noun referent to other objects and phenomena.

Collins Dictionary gives the following definition: *case is a set of grammatical categories of nouns, pronouns, and adjectives, marked by inflection in some languages, indicating the relation of the noun, adjective, or pronoun to other words in the sentence.*

In terms of Theoretical Grammar there is no universal point of view as to the case system in English. Different scholars stick to a different number of cases:

1. **There are two cases:** *the Common Case and the Genitive One*;
2. **There are no cases at all:** the form `s is optional because the same relations may be expressed by the 'of-phrase': *the doctor's arrival – the arrival of the doctor*;

3. **There are three cases:** *the Nominative, the Genitive, the Objective* due to the existence of objective pronouns *me, him, whom*;

4. **Case Grammar**. Charles Fillmore introduced syntactic-semantic classification of cases. They show relations in the so-called deep structure of the sentence. According to Fillmore, verbs may stand to different relations to nouns. Charles Fillmore suggested such set of cases:

Agentive Case (A): *John opened the door;*

Instrumental case (I): *The key opened the door;* John used the key to open the door;

Dative Case (D): *John believed that he would win* (the case of the animate being affected by the state of action identified by the verb);

Factitive (Result) Case (F): *The key was damaged* (the result of the action or state identified by the verb);

Locative Case (L): *Chicago is windy;*

Objective case (O): *John stole the book;*

Source: *France produces wine;*

Patient: *I have a headache.*

Analyzing the sentence Fillmore distinguished proposition, predicate and argument. Arguments perform different semantic roles in the sentence, they are associated with cases. One and the same argument may express different roles: *The teacher explains the new rule* (the doer or the source).

Your knowledge in Practical grammar is based on the category of case, which correlates with the objective category of possession. This category is expressed in English by the opposition of the form in -**'s [-z, -s, -iz]**, usually called the "Possessive" case, or more traditionally, the "Genitive" case, to the unfeatured form of the noun, usually called the "Common" case. The apostrophized -*s* serves to distinguish in writing the singular noun in the Genitive case from the plural noun in the Common case*: the man's duty, the President's decision, Max's letter, the boy's ball, the clerk's promotion, the Empress's jewels.*

The genitive of the bulk of plural nouns remains phonetically unexpressed: the few exceptions concern only some of the irregular plurals. Thereby the apostrophe as the graphic sign of the genitive acquires the force of a sort of grammatical hieroglyph*: the carpenters' tools, the mates' skates, the actresses' dresses.*

Functionally, the forms of the English nouns designated as "case forms" relate to one another in an extremely peculiar way. The peculiarity is, that the common form is absolutely indefinite from the semantic point of view, whereas the genitive form in its productive uses is restricted to the functions which have a parallel expression by prepositional constructions. Thus, the common form is also capable of rendering the genitive semantics (namely, in contact and prepositional collocation), which makes the whole of the genitive case into a kind of subsidiary element in the grammatical system of the English noun. This feature stamps the English noun declension as something utterly different from every conceivable declension in principle.

There are four views on the problem of the Genitive case. **The first view** is the theory of *positional cases*, it is connected with the old grammatical tradition. Linguistic formulations of it may be found in the work of J.C. Nesfield, M. Bryant. According to the theory, the unchangeable forms of the noun are differentiated as different cases according to the functional positions occupied by the noun in the sentence. Thus, the English noun, like in Latin grammar would distinguish beside the Genitive case purely positional cases: Nominative, Vocative, Dative and Accusative. The misconception of the positional case theory is quite obvious. It substitutes the functional characteristics of the part of the sentence for the morphological features of the word class, since the case form is the variable morphological form of the noun. Case forms serve as means of expressing the functions of the noun in the sentence and not vice versa.

The second view is the theory of *prepositional cases*. According to it, combinations of nouns with prepositions should be understood as morphological case form. To these belong first of all the Dative case (*to + noun, for + noun*) and the Genitive case (*of + noun*). The prepositional cases are generally taken as coexisting with positional cases, together with the classical inflexional genitive completing the case system of the English noun. As is well known from noun-declensional languages, all their prepositions and not only some of them

do require definite cases of nouns. Any preposition by virtue of its functional nature stands in the same general grammatical relation to the noun. It should follow from this that all the other prepositional phrases in English must be regarded as analytical cases. As a result of it the total number of additional name of prepositional case will run into dozens upon dozens.

The third view of the English noun case recognizes a limited *inflexional system of two cases* in English. It was formulated by H. Sweet, R. Jesperson and developed by A.I. Smirnitsky and S.G. Barkhudarov.

The fourth view of the English noun cases approaches the English noun as having completely lost the category of case in the course of its historical development. All the noun cases are considered to be extinct. And what is called the Genitive case is in fact a combination of a noun with a postposition. Thus, this view advanced by Vorontsova, may be called the **postpositional theory**. The following two reasons should be considered as the main ones of the postpositional theory substantiating the positional theory:

1) the postpositional element *-s* is loosely connected with the noun and can be used with the whole word-groups (*Somebody else's daughter*);

2) parallelism of functions between the possessive postpositional constructions and the prepositional constructions.

The theory of possessive postposition fails to take into account achievements of the limited case theory. The latter has demonstrated that the noun form with *-s* is systemically contrasted against the unfeatured form of the noun which makes the correlation of the noun forms into a grammatical category. The solution of the problem is to be thought on the ground of a critical syntax of the positive statements of two theories. A two case declension of nouns should be recognized in English with its Common case as a direct case and its Genitive case as the only oblique case. The case system in English is founded on a particle expression. The particle nature of apostrophe *s* is evident from the fact that it is added in postposition both to individual nouns and to noun word-groupings. Thus, two subtypes of the Genitive in English are to be recognized:

1) the Word Genitive;

2) the Phrase Genitive.

Both of them are not inflexional but particle case forms.

The English Genitive expresses a wide range of relational meanings and the following basic semantic types of the Genitive can be pointed out:

1) **The Genitive of possessor**. Its constructional meaning will be defined as inorganic possession *(Peter's look).*

2) **The Genitive of integer.** The meaning of organic possession (*Ivan's voice).* Its subtype expresses a qualification received by the genitive referent through the head-word *(the computer reliability*).

3) **The Genitive of agent**. This form renders an activity or some broader processual relation with the referent *(Lisa's laugh).* This type of genitive expresses the recipient of the action or process denoted by the head noun. The subtype expresses the author of the referent of the head-noun *(Beethoven's sonatas*).

4) **The Genitive of patient** expresses the recipient of the action or process denoted by the head-noun (*the champion's sensational defeat).*

5) **The Genitive of adverbial** denotes adverbial factors relating to the referent of the head-noun, mostly the time and place of the event *(the evening's newspaper).*

6) **The Genitive of quantity** denotes the measure or quantity relating to the referent of the head-noun *(two months' time).*

As a result of the analysis, we have come to the conclusion that the inflexional case of nouns in English has ceased to exist. In its place a new, peculiar two case system has developed based on the particle expression of the Genitive falling into two segmental types: the Word Genitive and the Phrase Genitive.

THE PROBLEM OF GENDER IN ENGLISH

> **In the beginning, God created the earth and rested. Then God created man and rested. Then God created woman. Since then, neither God nor man has rested!**
>
> *Actual Bumper Sticker,*
> *Mottoes to Live by*
>
> **How to be annoying: Ask people what gender they are.**
>
> *Mottoes to Live By*

Some grammaticians spent a lot of time proving that this category does not exist others define the subcategorization of gender as purely lexical.

Merriam-Webster Dictionary gives the following definition: *gender is a subclass within a grammatical class (as noun, pronoun, adjective, or verb) of a language that is partly arbitrary but also partly based on distinguishable characteristics (as shape, social rank, manner of existence, or sex) and that determines agreement with and selection of other words or grammatical forms.*

In the grammar of English by comparison with its role in many other languages gender plays a relatively minor part. Thus, in Slavic languages this category is full fledged. It finds its expression in feminine, masculine and neutral and it is expressed by means of inflexions or their absence: *девочка, мальчик.* In German it is expressed by articles and suffixes, in French by articles.

Gender distinctions are not logical. Gender was a morphological category in Old English, but in present there are no grammatical means to express Gender in English. The reference of the pronouns *he, she, it* is very largely determined by what is sometimes referred to as 'natural' gender for English, it depends upon the classification of persons and objects as male, female or inanimate. Thus, the recognition of gender as a grammatical category is logically independent of any particular semantic association.

But still suffix -*ess* (*poetess, huntress),* word-building (*he*-cat, *she*-cat, *man*-servant, *lady*-driver), semantic oppositions (*king::queen)* make difference.

Gender divides the class of English nouns into:

- **human** (*male, husband, woman)/* **non-human** *(mountain);*
- **human** *(he is an artist; she is an artist)/***common** *(person, child, parent).*

But names of countries and cities are feminine: *San-Francisco lies on **her** seven hills.* Poets and writers are free to ascribe words to **any** gender: Moon, Sun are feminine; ocean is she.

According to some language analysts (B.Ilyish, F.Palmer, and E.Morokhovskaya), nouns have no category of gender in Modern English. Professor Ilyish states that not a single word in Modern English shows any peculiarities in its morphology due to its denoting male or female being. Thus, the words *husband* and *wife* do not show any difference in their forms due to peculiarities of their lexical meaning. The difference between such nouns as *actor* and *actress* is a purely lexical one. In other words, the category of sex should not be confused with the category of sex, because sex is an objective biological category. It correlates with gender only when sex differences of living beings are manifested in the language grammatically (e.g. *tiger – tigress*). Still, other scholars (M. Blokh, John Lyons) admit the existence of the category of gender. Professor Blokh states that the existence of the category of gender in Modern English can be proved by the correlation of nouns with personal pronouns of the third person (*he, she, it*). Accordingly, there are three genders in English: the neuter (non-person) gender, the masculine gender, the feminine gender.

To sum it up Gender is lexico-semantical category in English. But it tends to be grammaticalised by word-building; the suffix –*ess* seems to be on the way of turning into a regular grammatical inflexion. We can predict that Gender can acquire a new life as a new grammatical category.

Summary

- The noun is the central lexical unit of language. It is the main nominative unit of speech.

- The noun can be characterized by three criteria: *semantic* (the meaning), *morphological* (the form and grammatical categories), *syntactical* (functions, distribution).
- Semantic features of the noun. The noun possesses the grammatical meaning of thingness, substantiality.
- Morphological features of the noun. All nouns can be classified into: **simple**, **derived**, **compound** and **composite**. The noun has morphological categories of number and case. Some scholars admit the existence of the category of gender.
- Syntactic features of the noun. The noun can be used in the sentence in all syntactic functions but predicate.
- The grammatical category of number is the linguistic representation of the objective category of quantity. The number category is realized through the opposition of the plural form of the noun to its singular form.
- The category of case correlates with the objective category of possession. The case category in English is realized through the opposition: The Common Case :: The Possessive Case (*sister :: sister's*).
- Gender is lexico-semantical category in English. But it tends to be grammaticalised by word-building.

   Tasks

1. Comment on the terms: *common nouns, abstract nouns, concrete nouns, animate nouns, inanimate nouns, countable, uncountable, case, genitive case, possessive case, subjective genitive, objective genitive, number.*

2. Suggest names for the following genitives: *a mile's trip; a friend of Tom's; an hour's detention; the town's MP; the union's declaration; Britain's government; a week's holidays; the event's aim.*

3. Think of the meaning of the "s"-morpheme signifies in a particular case. Tell of each "s"–form whether it is an instance of plural-number form or the "s"-morpheme is a word-building suffix. Set up arguments: *air – airs; ash – ashes; custom – customs; spectacle – spectacles; ice – ices; art – arts; work – works.*

4. Read the following quotation. Comment on the ideas implied. Be ready to express your own opinion on the matter under consideration. Translate the extract if it seems helpful:

*Gender is another category which is quitw common in nouns. In English it is not richly developed. The gender of an English noun is defined solely in terms of the pronoun substitute, **he, she,** or **it,** which may be used in its place. Typically, gender involves not only substitution but also concord. Indeed, probably the best definition of gender is a set of syntactic subclasses of nouns primarily controlling concord. Languages which have gender as a grammatical category vary widely as to number of genders. [...]*

In European languages there is some correlation of gender with sex. This is reflected in our traditional labels, masculine, feminine and neuter. However, the correlation may be exceedingly loose. The names of many sexless objects are assigned to either masculine or feminine, even in those languages which have a neuter. [...] Gender is in large part a linguistic classification of nouns in arbitrary groups for syntactic purposes .Nevertheless it is not wholly arbitrary. [...]The content structure of the language seems together the number of disparate semantic categories together into three genders. It does so in a way that is in part arbitrary and in part systemic, at least two the extent that the native speaker can sense a proper place for a new word which will coincide with that selected by a fellow speaker.

*In many languages gender categories have nothing whatever to do with sex. A common type is that which distinguishes between **animate** and **inanimate.** [...]*

Many African languages have highly developed gender systems controlling concord. [...]

Genders are primarily syntactic categories, but they may also have inflectional significance. [...]

In nouns, gender is commonly an inherent feature of each stem. That is, nouns are not inflected for gender, but each noun has a characteristic gender. (H. Gleason, p.226-229)

THE VERB

Who climbs the Grammar-Tree distinctly knows
Where Noun and Verb and Participle grows.
John Dryden *"The Sixth Satyr of Juvenal".*

General characteristics

Grammatically the verb is the most complex part of speech. First of all it performs the central role in realizing predication - connection between situation in the utterance and reality. That is why the verb is of primary informative significance in an utterance. Besides, the verb possesses quite a lot of grammatical categories. Furthermore, within the class of verb various subclass divisions based on different principles of classification can be found.

Semantic features of the verb. The verb possesses the grammatical meaning of verbiality – the ability to denote a process developing in time. This meaning is inherent not only in the verbs denoting processes, but also in those denoting states, forms of existence, evaluations, etc.

Morphological features of the verb. The verb possesses the following grammatical categories: tense, aspect, voice, mood, person, number, finitude and phase. The common categories for finite and non-finite forms are voice, aspect, phase and finitude. The grammatical categories of the English verb find their expression in synthetical and analytical forms. The formative elements expressing these categories are *grammatical affixes, inner inflexion* and *function words.* Some categories have only synthetical forms *(person, number),* others - only analytical *(voice).* There are also categories expressed by both synthetical and analytical forms *(mood, tense, aspect).*

Syntactic features. The most universal syntactic feature of verbs is their ability to be modified by adverbs. The second important syntactic criterion is the ability of the verb to perform the syntactic function of the predicate. However, this criterion is not absolute because only finite forms can perform this function while non-finite forms can be used in any function but predicate. And finally, any verb in the form of the infinitive can be combined with a modal verb.

CLASSIFICATIONS OF ENGLISH VERBS

According to different principles of classification, it can be morphological, lexical-morphological, syntactical and functional.

Morphological classifications.

1. According to their stem-types all verbs fall into: simple *(to go),* sound-replacive *(food – to feed, blood – to bleed),* stress-replacive *(import – to im port, transport – to transport,* expanded (with the help of suffixes and prefixes): *cultivate, justify, overcome,* composite (correspond to composite nouns): *to blackmail),* phrasal: *to have a smoke, to give a smile* (they always have an ordinary verb as an equivalent).

2. According to the way of forming past tenses and Participle II verbs can be regular/standard and irregular / non-standard.

Lexical-morphological classification is based on the implicit grammatical meanings of the verb. According to the implicit grammatical meaning of transitivity/intransitivity verbs fall into *transitive* and *intransitive.* According to the implicit grammatical meaning of stativeness/non-stativeness verbs fall into *stative* and *dynamic.* According to the implicit grammatical meaning of terminativeness/non-terminativeness verbs fall into *terminative* and *durative.* This classification is closely connected with the categories of Aspect and Phase.

Syntactic classifications.

According to the nature of predication (primary and secondary) all verbs fall into *finite* and *non-finite.* According to syntagmatic properties (valency) verbs can be of *obligatory* and *optional* valency, and thus they may have some directionality or be devoid of any directionality. In this way, verbs fall into the verbs of *directed* (*to see, to take, etc.*) and *non-directed* action (*to arrive, to drizzle, etc.*).

Functional classification.

According to their functional significance verbs can be *notional*, *semi-notional*, *auxiliaries.* Notional verbs have full nominative value. This set of verbs is derivationally open and includes the bulk of lexicon. The set of semi-notional verbs is closed, includes limited subsets of verbs characterised by individual relation properties. Auxiliary verbs constitute grammatical elements of the categorical forms of the verb.

THE CATEGORY OF VOICE

But that to come
Shall all be done by the rule.

William Shakespeare *"Antony and*
Cleopatra"

This category is the subject of the widest discussion. The debated problems are:

- the nature of category
- the starting point of analysis
- the problem of transitivity
- the nature of the construction *be + Participle II*
- the number of voices
- the limits of the passive
- the meaning of the active and the passive voice

The form of the verb may show whether the agent expressed by the subject is the doer of the action or the recipient of the action *(John broke the vase - the vase was broken).* The objective relations between the action and the subject or object of the action find their expression in language as the grammatical category of voice. Therefore, the category of voice reflects the objective relations between the action itself and the subject or object of the action.

Relations of actions   The category of voice
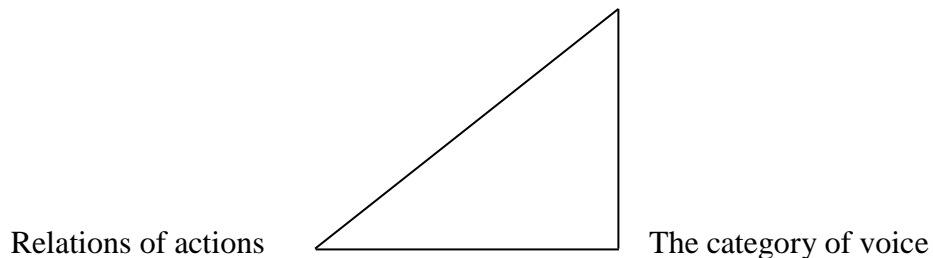
Thus, Voice is treated as:

- a syntactic category (as it denotes the relation of an action to its subject or object)

- a morphological category (as it has different forms)

- a morphological-syntactical category (as this relation of an action to its subject or object is expressed by a system of morphological forms).

The realization of the Voice category is restricted because of the implicit grammatical meaning of transitivity/intransitivity. Under transitivity we understand the capacity of a verb to demand an object. In accordance with this meaning, all English verbs should fall into transitive and intransitive. However, the classification turns out to be more complex and comprises 6 groups:

1. Verbs used only transitively: *to mark, to raise;*

2. Verbs with the main transitive meaning: *to see, to make, to build;*

3. Verbs of intransitive meaning and secondary transitive meaning. A lot of intransitive verbs may develop a secondary transitive meaning: *They laughed me into agreement; He danced the girl out of the room;*

4. Verbs of a double nature, neither of the meanings are the leading one, the verbs can be used both transitively and intransitively: *to drive home – to drive a car;*

5. Verbs that are never used in the Passive Voice: *to seem, to become;*

6. Verbs that realize their passive meaning only in special contexts: *to live, to sleep, to sit, to walk, to jump.*

So, the nature of transitivity is obscure and it is not clear whether it is grammatical or lexical category. In English there's no exact division of word into transitive and intransitive, as transitive verbs can be used intransitively and vice versa. *E.g. Why don't you walk me home? I'd like you to dance me. You danced me splendidly.*

The category of Voice is realized through the opposition **Active Voice::Passive Voice.** Along with the Active and Passive Voice, which are undebated, some scholars admit the existence of **Middle, Reflexive** and **Reciprocal** Voices.

Middle Voice (Mediopassive) – the verbs primarily transitive may develop an intransitive middle meaning: *That adds a lot; The door opened; The book sells easily; The dress washes well.*

It denotes the processes going on with the subject without affecting any object. Morphologically it resembles the active voice. We consider it to be a variety of an Active Voice.

Reflexive Voice: *He dressed; He washed* – the subject is both the agent and the recipient of the action at the same time. It is always possible to use a reflexive pronoun in this case: *He washed himself.* The Reflexive Voice should be expressed by some forms regularly to exist as an independent category. So it is not an independent category as it is not formally expressed, thus it should be studied by lexicology.

Reciprocal Voice: *They met; They kissed* – it is always possible to use a reciprocal pronoun here: *They kissed each other. They hate one another (one another* are not omittable). *They hugged each other (each other* can be omitted).

We cannot, however, speak of different voices, because all these meanings are not expressed morphologically.

These Voices fall under the heading of the Active Voice.

Passive has a different communicative organization as compared to Active structure and the semantic roles of its constituents are different. The Passive is the device which makes it possible for the semantic object to perform the thematic function and for the semantic subject to perform its rheumatic function: *The book was given to him by Jane* (*the book* is the semantic object; *Jane* – semantic subject).

Actives and Passives are not absolutely interchangeable, mutually convertible, as they have different communicative purposes. Actives rheumatize logical objects, Passives – logical subjects. That is not all Actives have their Passives: *John likes girls. Henry studies French.*

In structures *He was given to that kind to think; She has been taken ill; No love was lost between them* the subject is incapable if functioning as an object of a corresponding active construction.

THE CATEGORY OF TENSE

**Yesterday is the past, tomorrow is the future but today
is a gift. That's why it is called the present.**
Motto to Live by

The category of tense is a verbal category that reflects the objective category of time. The essential characteristic of the category of tense is that it relates the time of the action, event or state of affairs referred to in the sentence to the time of the utterance (the time of the utterance being 'now ' or the present moment). The tense category is realized through the oppositions. The binary principle of oppositions remains the basic one in the correlation of the forms that represent the grammatical category of tense. The present moment is the main temporal plane of verbal actions. Therefore, the temporal dichotomy may be illustrated by the following graphic representation (the arrows show the binary opposition):

Present ⟷ Past

Future I ⟷ Future II
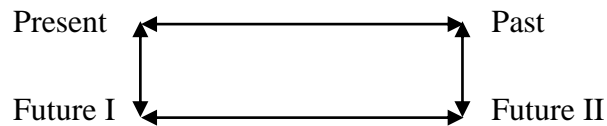
Generally speaking, the major tense-distinction in English is undoubtedly that which is traditionally described as an opposition of past::present. But this is best regarded as a contrast of past:: non-past. Quite a lot of scholars do not recognize the existence of future tenses, because what is described as the 'future' tense in English is realized by means of auxiliary verbs *will* and *shall.* Although it is undeniable that *will* and *shall* occur in many sentences that refer to the future, they also occur in sentences that do not. And they do not necessarily occur in sentences with a future time reference. That is why future tenses are often treated as partly modal.

THE CATEGORY OF ASPECT

The category of Aspect is a linguistic representation of the objective category of Manner of Action. It is realized through the opposition Continuous::Non-Continuous (Progressive::Non-Progressive). The realization of the category of aspect is closely connected with the lexical meaning of verbs.

There are some verbs in English that do not normally occur with progressive aspect, even in those contexts in which the majority of verbs necessarily take the progressive form. Among the so-called 'non-progressive' verbs are *think, understand, know, hate, love, see, taste, feel, possess, own,* etc. The most striking characteristic that they have in common is the fact that they are 'stative' – they refer to a state of affairs, rather than to an action, event or process. It should be observed, however, that all the 'non–progressive' verbs take the progressive aspect under particular circumstances. As the result of internal transposition verbs of non-progressive nature can be found in the Continuous form: *Now I'm knowing you.* Generally speaking the Continuous form has at least two semantic features – **duration** (the action is always in progress) and **definiteness** (the action is always limited to a definite point or period of time). In other words, the purpose of the Continuous form is to serve as a frame which makes the process of the action more concrete and isolated**.**

THE CATEGORY OF MOOD

The category of Mood shows the relation of the nominative content of the sentence towards reality. It expresses the attitude of a speaker towards a happening whether he finds the action real, unreal, desirable, hypothetical, necessary or imaginary.

None the less the category of Mood in the present English has given rise to many discussions. It seems hardly possible to arrive at more or less convincing and universally acceptable conclusion concerning it. The multiple opinions lie in the complexity of this category. Debated problems are:

- the nature of the category
- the starting point of analysis
- the number of moods

- the existence of the *Subjunctive*
- the nature of the forms *should/would + Infinitive*

Interpretations of this category vary from scholars to scholars reflecting grammatical, logical, semantic or psychological orientation of scholars.

Some distinguish three moods: Indicative, Imperative and Subjunctive.

The **Indicative Mood** is the most developed system including all grammatical categories of a verb and most objective of all Moods. Its form shows that what is said must be regarded as a fact. It may denote actions with different time-reference and different aspect characteristics. The Indicative Mood has a wide variety of tense and aspect forms in the Active and Passive Voice.

The **Imperative Mood** expresses a command or a request to perform an action addressed to somebody. It has no number, person, tense, aspect distinctions. **But** at times we encounter peculiar forms:

Have done by the time he comes (Perfect form of Imperative).

Be always searching (Continuous form of Imperative).

The Imperative Mood is the least developed morphologically, it resembles Subjunctive I and Infinitive.

The **Subjunctive Mood** is the most confusing. In Old English there was a fully inflective Subjunctive comparable with Latin and German. It denoted problematic, hypothetical and purely imaginary actions. In the course of time most of the inflections were lost and the difference between the forms of the Subjunctive and the Indicative Moods has almost disappeared. In Modern English there remain only two synthetic forms of the Subjunctive which differ from the forms of the Indicative.

Subjunctive I denotes a hypothetical action referring to the present or future. The form of the Subjunctive I coincides with the plain verb stem for all persons in both the singular and the plural. Only *be* is always distinct from the indicative forms and is therefore rather current.

*E.g. It's a pity you can't come tomorrow. I **would help** you* (action refers to the future).

*If he **were** free, he **would be** here* (action refers to the present).

Subjunctive II refers the hypothetical action to the present, future or past and shows that it contradicts reality. The non-factual past indefinite and past continuous are used to denote hypothetical actions in the present or future. The non-factual past perfect and past perfect continuous denote hypothetical actions in the past.

*E.g. If I **had** any free time now or tomorrow, I **should do** the work myself.*
*If I **had had** any free time yesterday, I **should have done** the work myself.*
*If he **were not** so tired, he **would go** with us.*

As you can see from the above examples analytical formations are built by means of the auxiliaries which developed from the modal verbs *should* and *would* plus any form of the infinitive. Analytical Subjunctive may be divided into two groups in accord with their use and function: *Conditional* and *Suppositional*.

The **Conditional Mood** is formed by means **would + infinitive** for all persons, both singular and plural. This form denotes an unreal action the unreality of which is due to the absence of necessary conditions. It may be used in simple and complex sentences.

The **Suppositional Mood** is formed by means of **should + infinitive** for all persons, both singular and plural. This mood represents the action as problematic but not contradicting reality. Suppositional Mood expresses necessity, suggestion, advice, supposition.

Summary

- The verb performs the central role in realizing predication – connection between situation in the utterance and reality. That is why the verb is of primary informative significance in an utterance.
- The verb possesses the grammatical meaning of verbiality – the ability to denote a process developing in time.
- The verb possesses the following grammatical categories: tense, aspect, voice, mood, person, number, finitude and phase.
- The most universal syntactic feature of verbs is their ability to be modified by adverbs. The second important syntactic criterion is the ability of the verb to perform the syntactic function of the predicate.
- According to different principles of classification, it can be morphological, lexical-morphological, syntactical and functional.
- The category of Voice reflects the objective relations between the action itself and the subject or object of the action.
- The category of Voice is realized through the opposition Active Voice::Passive Voice. Along with the Active and Passive Voice, which are undebated, some scholars admit the existence of Middle, Reflexive and Reciprocal Voices.

- The essential characteristic of the category of Tense is that it relates the time of the action, event or state of affairs referred to in the sentence to the time of the utterance (the time of the utterance being 'now ' or the present moment). The tense category is realized through the oppositions.
- The category of Aspect is a linguistic representation of the objective category of Manner of Action. It is realized through the opposition Continuous::Non-Continuous (Progressive::Non-Progressive). The realization of the category of Aspect is closely connected with the lexical meaning of verbs.
- The category of Mood shows the relation of the nominative content of the sentence towards reality. It expresses the attitude of a speaker towards a happening whether he finds the action real, unreal, desirable, hypothetical, necessary or imaginary.

NON- FINITE FORMS OF THE VERB

Non-finite forms of the verb are those which have features intermediary between the verb and non – processual parts of speech. Their mixed features are revealed in their meaning, structural marking, combinability, and syntactic functions. Non-finite forms do not denote pure process but present them as peculiar kinds of substances and properties. That is they have a mixed, verbal and non-verbal valency, so they perform mixed, verbal and non-verbal syntactic functions.

The English Non-Finites include the Infinitive, the Gerund, the Present Participle (Participle I), and the Past Participle (Participle II).

The **Infinitive** combines the properties of the verb with those of the noun, as a result it serves as the verbal name of a process. It is the head-form of the whole paradigm of the verb. The Infinitive has a dual: verb-type and noun-type valency. The Infinitive performs the syntactic functions of the subject, the object, the predicative, the attribute, and the adverbial modifier. It has three grammatical categories: the aspective category of development (Continuous::Non-Continuous), the aspective category of retrospective (обращенный к прошлому) coordination (Perfect::Non-Perfect), the category of Voice (Passive::Non-Passive).

The **Gerund,** like the infinitive, combines the properties of the verb with those of the noun and gives the process the verbal name. The combinability of the Gerund is dual: it has a mixed, verb-type and noun-type valency. Like the infinitive, the Gerund performs the syntactic functions of the subject, the object, the predicative, the attribute, and the adverbial modifier. The Gerund has two grammatical categories: the aspective category of retrospective coordination and the category of voice.

The **Present Participle** combines the properties of the verb with those of the adjective and adverb. It has two categories: the category of retrospective coordination and the category of voice. The triple nature of the Present Participle finds its expression in its mixed valency (verb-type, adjective-type, adverb-type) and its syntactic functions (those of the predicative, the attribute, and the adverbial modifier).

The **Past Participle** combines the properties of the verb with those of the adjective. The Past Participle is a single form, having no paradigm of its own. It conveys implicitly the categorical meanings of the perfect and the passive. Its valency is not specific; its syntactic functions are those of the attribute and the predicative.

Summary

- The English Non-Finites include the Infinitive, the Gerund, the Present Participle and the Past Participle
- Non-Finite forms of the verb have features intermediary between the verb and non-processual parts of speech
- The Infinitive combines verbal features with those of the noun
- Morphological features of the Infinitive are three grammatical categories: aspect (continuous in opposition), retrospect (perfect in opposition), voice (passive in opposition)
- The Infinitive possesses the verb combinability with nouns expressing the object of the action or the subject of the action, with modifying adverbs
- The Gerund is a non-finite form of the verb with some noun features. It serves as the verbal name of a process
- The Present Participle is the non-finite form of the verb which combines the properties of the verb with those of the adjective and adverb, serving as the qualifying-processual name
- The Past Participle is the non-finite form of the verb which combines the properties of the verb with those of the adjective, serving as the qualifying-processual name

1. Give general characteristics of the verb as a part of speech: semantic, morphological, syntactical.

2. Classify English verbs.

3. Speak on paradigmatic and syntagmatic characteristics of the verb.

Morphological categories of the verb and their realization in English.

THE STATIVE

Be alert! The world needs more *lerts*.

Actual Bumper Stickers,
Mottoes to Live By

Why does *cleave* mean both split apart and stick together?

Questions to Ponder

The stative describes a state or condition. The number of statives in English is limited and their position in. the system of parts of speech is still under discussion. We take the view that they constitute a special part of speech, which may be called "stative" and is characterized by the prefix *a- afraid, afloat, ablaze.* Semantically statives fall into five groups which describe various states or conditions of a person or an object:

- physical states of persons *alive, awake, aware* ;
- psychic states of persons *afraid, aghast, ashamed;*
- states of motion or activity of persons or objects *afoot, astir;*
- physical states of objects *aflame, afire, aglow;*
- states of objects in space *awry, askew, aslant.*

SYNTACTICAL FUNCTIONS

The main function of the statives is that of predicative and in this case they are preceded by a link verb, most usually the verb *be,* but occasionally also *fall, keep, feel.* Statives with the link verb *be* are very numerous and varied: *The child-was fast asleep. The whole house was astir. Something is afoot.* With the link verb *fall* we find the stative *asleep,* as in the sentence *He soon fell asleep.* The link verb *keep* is found with statives, e. g. in *...but in a crafty madness keeps aloof.* (SHAKESPEARE) The link verb *feel* is found in the sentence *He felt ashamed of himself....* (LINKLATER)

Statives are also occasionally found in the function of objective predicatives, particularly after the verb *find* or *have* and a noun or pronoun, as in the sentences *He found his sister alone.* (LINKLATER) *Then Skene spoke, and in a moment had his audience-afire.* (Idem)

The basically predicative quality of the statives is equally evident in all of these cases. It is somewhat weakened when a stative has the function of an attribute following its noun: *A man alive to social interests.* And the predicative quality of the stative-is further weakened when it precedes a noun as its attribute (this-is very rare indeed). The word *aloof* seems to have gone further than any other stative in this respect. Thus, we find such phrases as *his aloof attitude, an aloof manner,* etc. On the other hand, the word *asleep* can only be a prepositive attribute when it is preceded by the adverb *fast,* as in the phrase *a fast-asleep child.*

The phrase *"be* + stative" may sometimes be synonymous with the continuous form of the corresponding verb: *He is asleep* and *He is sleeping, He was asleep* and *He was sleeping.* We are therefore entitled to ask whether these two ways of expression are always interchangeable or whether a difference of some kind or other exists between them. This question has not been finally answered so far.

Thus, the undertaken semantic and functional analysis shows that statives, though forming a unified set of words, do not constitute a separate lexemic class existing in language on exactly the same footing as the noun, the verb, the adjective, the adverb; rather it should be looked upon as a subclass within the general class of adjectives. It is essentially an adjectival subclass, because, due to their peculiar features, statives are not directly opposed to the notional parts of speech taken together, but are quite particularly opposed to the rest of adjectives. It means that the general sub categorization of the class of adjectives should be effected on the two levels: on the upper level the class will be divided into the subclass

of stative adjectives and common adjectives; on the lower level the common adjectives fall into qualitative and relative. As we see, our final conclusion about the lexico-grammatical nature of statives appears to have returned them into the lexemic domain in which they were placed by traditional grammar and from which they were alienated in the course of subsequent linguistic investigations. A question then arises, whether these investigations, as well as the discussions accompanying them, have served any rational purpose at all.

Summary

- The Stative denotes a temporary state of a person or a non-person. The number of statives in English is limited

- Semantically statives fall into five groups describing various states of persons or non-persons

- All statives have a special marker – the prefix – *a*

- Statives have three functions in a sentence: predicative in a compound nominal or double predicate, objective predicative, attribute.

SYNTAX. BASIC SYNTACTIC NOTIONS

Syntax is all the money collected at the church from sinners.

School Goofs,
Real Life Bloopers

General Characteristics of Syntax.

The word "syntax" in its root sense means "arranging together". The –*tax* root is the same one as in *tactics*. *Syn* means "with" or "together". *Syntax* concerns the combining of words into phrases and sentences.

As syntax deals with the way words are combined, it is concerned with the external functions of words and their relationship to other words within the linearly ordered units – word-groups, sentences and texts. Syntax studies the way in which the units and their meanings are combined. It is also deals with peculiarities of syntactic units, their behavior in different contexts.

Syntactic units may be analyzed from different points of view, according to them different syntactic theories exist.

Kinds of Syntactic Theories

Traditional Syntax: it is primarily concerned with a sentence and grammatical organization. Sentential syntax is to be understood as a language component of our internal grammar, which allows us to generate, process and recognize grammatically correct sentences out of a limited storage of words without a moment hesitation. It is a study of our computer-like ability in transformational-generative terms to generate, process and recognize acceptable or non-acceptable structure of a type:

The field is frozen. The leaves are dry. The life consists of propositions about life. Colorless green ideas sleep furiously. There is no sense in the last sentence, but we still recognize it as an English sentence, though valency laws, lexico-semantical combinability of words is destroyed. It is recognizable as a poetic metaphor, the product of the XX-th century experimental verse.

Sentential syntax is a study of syntactical modeling, communicative dynamism (functional sentence perspective) of all kinds of sentences – simple and composite, compound and complex.

Sentential syntax takes advantage of basic achievements of traditionalists, structuralists, transformationalists, generativists, sophistication of the modern syntactic research, innovatory techniques and procedures of analysis and does not disregard of primary and secondary elements.

Communicative Syntax: it is primarily concerned with the analysis of utterances from the point of their communicative value and informative structure. It deals with the actual division of the utterance – the theme and rheme analysis. Both the theme and rheme constitute the informative structure of utterances. The **theme** is *something that is known already* while the **rheme** *represents some new information*. The theme is the starting point and the rheme is the goal.

Eg.: *I opened the door:* theme – *I,* rheme – *opened the door.*

We distinguish thematic word order: theme – transition – rheme. Eg.:*John has written a letter,* where *John* is a theme and *a letter* is a rheme.

Rhematic word order: rheme – transition – theme. Eg.: *A woman entered the room. "A woman"* is a signal of new information, but it is not emphasized.

Compare: *The woman came up to the window* (thematic subject). Depending on the contextual informative value any sentence element can act as the theme or the rheme: *Who is at home? – John is at home. Where is John? – John is at home.*

Transformational-Generative Syntax studies the relations between the surface and deep structures. It operates with transformational analysis and method of surface and deep structures.

The Transformational grammar was first suggested by American scholar Zelling Harris as a method of analyzying sentences and later was elaborated by another American scholar Noam Chomsky as a synthetic method of "generating" (constructing) sentences. The main point of the Transformational-Generative Grammar is that the endless variety of sentences in a language can be reduced to a finite number of kernels by means of syntactic process. Different language analysts recognize the existence of different number of kernels (from 3 to 39). The following 6 kernels are commonly associated with the English language:

1. NV – *John sings.*
2. NVAdj. – *John is happy.*
3. NVN – *John is a man.*
4. NVN – *John hit the man.*
5. NVNN – *John gave the man a book.*
6. NVPrep.*N – The book is on the table.*

It should be noted that "3" diggers from "4" because the former admits no passive transformation. Transformational method proves useful for analyzing sentences from the point of their deep structure: *Flying planes can be dangerous.*

This sentence is ambiguous, two senses can be distinguished:
a)   the action of flying planes can be dangerous;
b)   the planes that fly can be dangerous. Therefore it can be reduced to the following kernels:
a)   *Planes can be dangerous =X (people) fly planes.*
b)   *Planes can be dangerous = Planes fly.*

Constructional Syntax deals with the constructional significance/ insignificance of a part of the sentence for the whole syntactic unit. Constructional analysis of syntactic units was initiated by professor G. Pocheptsov in his book published in Kiev in 1971. The theory is based on the obligatory or optional environment of syntactic elements. For example, in the sentence *I saw him there yesterday* the element *him* is constructionally significant because it is impossible to omit it. At the same time the elements *there* and *yesterday* are constructionally insignificant – the can be omitted without destroying the whole structure.

Pragmatic approach to the study of syntactic units can briefly be described asa the study of the way language is used in particular contexts to achieve particular goals. **Speech Act Theory** was first introduced by John Austin. The notion of a speech act theory presupposes that an utterance can be said with different intentions or purposes and therefore can influence the speaker and situation in different ways: *It's cold here-*

- I just state the fact;
- I want you to do something about it (close the window);
- I'm threatening you;
- I'm seeking for an excuse for not doing something;
- I want you to feel guilty of it;
- Etc.

Accordingly, we can distinguish different speech acts.

Of special interest here is the problem of indirect speech acts: *Are you leaving already?* In our everyday activities we use indirect speech acts rather willingly because it is the best way to influence people, to get what we want and to be polite at the same time.

Pre-suppositional Syntax describes semantic implications; a sentence presupposes another sentence. For example, the sentence *Bill is tall but he cannot play basketball* implies that all tall guys can play basketball. Another example: *I rang him but he was out.* It implies that I came to phone, picked up the handset, dialed the number…

Text linguistics is a branch of linguistics that deals with *texts* as *communication systems*. Its original aims lay in uncovering and describing text grammars. The application of text linguistics has, however, evolved from this approach to a point in which text is viewed in much broader terms that go beyond a mere extension of traditional grammar towards an entire text.

Text linguistics as a sub-branch of Linguistics did not really develop until the early 1970s, until linguistics itself began to be less concerned with the *sentence* as the prime unit of analysis; or at least until it began to be felt that some special discipline should take care of potential units larger than a sentence, or of intra-sentence relations. One major concern is the definition of *textuality*; and also the classification or typology of texts according to their *genre* characteristics. Under the influence of pragmatics and psychology, more attention is being focused on the production or processing and reception of texts, and on their social function in society.

In some ways, notes David Crystal, text linguistics "overlaps considerably with… **discourse analysis**, and some linguists see very little difference between them" (David Crystal, *Dictionary of Linguistics and Phonetics*, 6th ed. Blackwell, 2008).

Discourse analysis focuses on the study of language use with reference to the social and psychological factors that influence communication. Discourse analysis has been described as an interdisciplinary study of discourse within linguistics, though it has also been adopted (and adapted) by researchers in numerous other fields in the social sciences. Theoretical perspectives and approaches used in discourse analysis include the following: *applied linguistics, conversation analysis, pragmatics, rhetoric, stylistics, and text linguistics*, among many others.

In Modern Linguistics there are as many syntactic theories as varieties of syntax. Syntactic theories ignore individual and stylistic differences, they ignore variations of types of discourses, syntactical variations at any historical period are also disregarded. They ignore that the stilted style of the scientific discourse differs greatly from complicated syntax of artistic discourses, written syntax differs from loosely organized oral syntax with greater redundancy, disregard artistic authorial syntax: for Hemingway parataxis are common, for Joys it is parcellation and headless clauses without connectives, one-member nominal and infinitival sentence for Galsworthy, Lawrence is known for detachment.

Basic Syntactic Notions.
The syntactic language level can be described with the help of special linguistic terms and notions: *syntactic unit, syntactic form, syntactic meaning, syntactic function, syntactic position, and syntactic relations.*

Syntactic unit is always a combination that has at least two constituents. The basic syntactic units are a word-group, a clause, a sentence, and a text. Their main features are:

a) they are hierarchical units – the units of a lower level serve the building material for the units of a higher level;

b) as all language units the syntactic units are of two fold nature: content side – syntactic meaning / expression side – syntactic form;

c) they are of communicative and non-communicative nature – word-groups and clauses are of non-communicative nature while sentences and texts are of communicative nature.

Syntactic meaning is the way in which separate word meanings are combined to produce meaningful word-groups and sentences. *Green ideas sleep furiously* – the sentence is quite correct grammatically. However it makes no sense as it lacks syntactic meaning.

Syntactic form may be described as the distributional formula of the unit (pattern): *John hit the ball – N1+V+N2.*

Syntactic function is the function of a unit on the basis of which it is included to a larger unit: in the word-group *a smart student* the word *smart* is in subordinate attributive relations to the head element. In traditional terms it is used to denote syntactic function of a unit within the sentence (subject, predicate, etc.)/

Syntactic position is the position of an element. The order of constituents in syntactic units is of principal importance in analytical languages. The syntactic position of an element may determine its relationship with the other elements of the same unit: *his broad **back**, a **back** district, to go **back**, to **back** somewhere.*

Syntactic relations are syntagmatic relations observed between syntactic units. They can be of three types:

- coordination;
- subordination;
- predication.

Coordination – syntagmatic relations of independence. It can be observed on the phrase, sentence and text levels. Coordination may be symmetric and asymmetric. Symmetric coordination is characterized by complete interchangeability of its elements – *pens and pencils.* Asymmetric coordination occurs when the position of elements is fixed: *ladies and gentlemen.*

Forms of connection within coordination may be copulative *you **and** me,* disjunctive *you **or** me,* adversative *strict **but** just,* and causative-consecutive (sentence and text level only).

Subordination – syntagmatic relations of dependence. They are established between the constituents of different linguistic rank. They are observed on the phrase and sentence level. Subordination may be of three different kinds – adverbial *to speak **slowly**,* objective *to see **a house*** and attributive ***a beautiful** flower.* Forms of subordination may also be different – agreement ***this** book – **these** books,* government *help **us**,* adjournment (the use of modifying particles *just, only, even, etc.)* and enclosure (the use of modal words and their equivalents *really, after all, etc.).*

Predication – syntagmatic relations of interdependence. Predication may be of two kinds – primary (sentence level and secondary (phrase level). Primary predication is observed between the subject and the predicate of the sentence while the secondary predication is observed between non-finite forms of the verb and nominal elements within the sentence. Secondary predication serves the basis for gerundial, infinitive, and participial word-groups (predicative complexes).

THE WORD-GROUP THEORY

> **Everyone who is master of the language he speaks…may form new…phrases, provided they coincide with the genius of the language.**
> **Michaelis,** *Dissertation (1769)*

Definition and general characteristics of the word-group.

There are a lot of definitions concerning the word-group. The most adequate one seems to be the following: the word-group is a combination of at least two notional words which do not constitute the sentence but are syntactically connected. According to some other scholars (the majority of Western scholars and professors B.Ilyish and V.Burlakova – in Russia), a combination of a notional word with a function word (*on the table*) may be treated as a word-group as well. The problem is disputable as the role of function words is to show some abstract relations and they are devoid of nominative power. On the other hand, such combinations are syntactically bound and they should belong somewhere.

General characteristics of the word-group are:

1) As a naming unit it differs from a compound word because the number of constituents in a word-group corresponds to the number of different denotes: *a black bird – чёрная птица (2), a blackbird – дрозд (1); a loud speaker – оратор, который говорит громко,(1), a loudspeaker – громковоритель(2).*

2) Each component of the word-group can undergo grammatical changes without destroying the identity of the whole unit: *to see a house - to see houses.*

3) A word-group is a dependent syntactic unit; it is not a communicative unit and has no intonation of its own.

Classification of word-groups.

Word-groups can be classified on the basis of several principles:

- According to the type of syntagmatic relations: **coordinate** (*you and me*), **subordinate** (*to see a house, a nice dress*), **predicative** (*him coming, for him to come*);

- According to the structure: **simple** (all elements are obligatory), **expanded** (*to read and translate the text* – expanded elements are equal in rank), **extended** (a word takes a dependent element and this dependent element becomes the head for another word: *a beautiful flower – a very beautiful flower*).

Subordinate word-groups.

Subordinate word-groups are based on the relations of dependence between the constituents. This presupposes the existence of a governing element which is called **the head** and the dependent element which is called **the adjunct** (in noun-phrases) or **the complement** (in verb-phrases).

According to the nature of their heads, subordinate word-groups fall into **noun-phrases** (NP) – *a cup of tea*, **verb-phrases** (VP) – *to run fast*, *to see a house*, **adjective phrases** (AP) – *good for you*, **adverbial phrases** (DP) – *so quickly*, **pronoun phrases** (IP) – *something strange, nothing to do*.

The formation of the subordinate word-group depends on the valency of its constituents. **Valency** is a potential ability of words to combine. Actual realization of valency in speech is called combinability.

The noun-phrase

Noun word-groups are widely spread in English. This may be explained by a potential ability of the noun to go into combinations with practically all parts of speech. The noun-phrase consists of a noun-head and an adjunct or adjuncts with relations of modification between them. Three types of modification are distinguished here:

- **Premodification** that comprises all the units placed before the head: *two smart hard-working students*. Adjuncts used in pre-head position are called **pre-posed** adjuncts.
- **Postmodification** that comprises all the units all the units placed after the head: *students from Boston*. Adjuncts used in post-head position are called **post-posed** adjuncts.
- **Mixed modification** that comprises all the units in both pre-head and post-head position: *two smart hard-working students from Boston.*

Noun-phrases with pre-posed adjuncts.

In noun-phrases with pre-posed modifiers we generally find adjectives, pronouns, numerals, participles, gerunds, nouns, nouns in the genitive case. According to their position all pre-posed adjuncts may be divided into **pre-adjectivals** and **adjectivals**. The position of adjectivals is usually right before the noun-head. Pre-adjectivals occupy the position before adjectivals. They fall into two groups:

a) **limiters** (to this group belong mostly particles): *just, only, even, etc.*

b) **determiners** (articles, possessive pronouns, quantifiers – *the first, the last*).

Premodification of nouns by nouns (N+N) is one of the most striking features about the grammatical organization of English. It is one of devices to make our speech both laconic and expressive at the same time. Noun-adjunct groups result from different kinds of transformational shifts. Noun-phrases with pre-posed adjuncts can signal a striking variety of meanings: *world peace – peace all over the world; silver box – a box made of silver; table lamp – lamp for tables; table legs – the legs of the table; river sand – sand from the river; school child – a child who goes to school.*

The grammatical relations observed in NPs with pre-posed adjuncts may convey the following meanings:

subject-predicate relations: *weather change*;

object relations: *health service, women hater;*

adverbial relations of:

a) time: *morning star,*

b) place: *world peace, country house,*

c) comparison: *button eyes,*

d) purpose: *tooth brush.*

It is important to remember that the noun-adjunct is usually marked by a stronger stress than the head.

Of special interest is a kind of 'grammatical idiom' where the modifier is reinterpreted into the head: *a devil of a man, an angel of a girl.*

Noun-phrases with post-posed adjuncts.

Noun-phrases with post-posed may be classified according to the way of connection into prepositionless and prepositional. The basic prepositionless NPs with post-posed adjuncts are: NAdj. – *tea strong*, NVen – *the shape unknown*, NVing – *the girl smiling*, ND – *the man downstairs*, NVinf – *a book to read*, NNum – *room ten*.

The pattern of basic prepositional NPs is N1 prep. N2. The most common preposition here is 'of' – *a cup of tea*, *a man of courage*. It may have quite different meanings: **qualitative** - *a woman of sense*, **predicative** – *the pleasure of the company*, **objective** – *the reading of the newspaper*, **partitive** –*the roof of the house.*

The verb-phrase

The verb-phrase is a definite kind of the subordinate phrase with the verb as the head. The verb is considered to be the semantic and structural centre not only of the verb-phrase but of the whole sentence as the verb plays an important role in making up primary predication that serves the basis for the sentence. Verb-prases are more complex than noun-phrases as there are a lot of ways in which verbs may be combined in actual usage. Valent properties of different verbs and their semantics make it possible to divide all the verbs into several groups depending on the nature of their complements.

Classification of verb-phrases.

Verb-phrases can be classified according to the nature of their complements – verb complements may be nominal (*to see a house*) and adverbial (*to behave well*). Consequently, we distinguish **nominal, adverbial** and **mixed** complementation.

Nominal complementation takes place when one or more nominal complements (nouns or pronouns) are obligatory for the realization of potential valency of the verb: *to give smth. to smb., to phone smb., to hear smth.(smb.), etc.*

Adverbial complementation occurs when the verb takes one or more adverbial elements obligatory for the realization of its potential valency: *He behaved well, I live in Chelyabinsk (here).*

Mixed complementation – both nominal and adverbial elements are obligatory: *He put his hat on the table* (nominal-adverbial).

According to the **structure** verb-phrases may be **basic** or **simple** (*to take a book)* – all elements are obligatory; **expanded** (*to read **and translate** the text, to read books **and** newspapers*) and **extended** (*to read an **English** book*).

Predicative word-groups.

Predicative word combinations are distinguished on the basis of secondary predication. Like sentences, predicative word-groups are binary in their structure but actually differ essentially in their organization. The sentence is an independent communicative unit based on primary predication while the predicative word-group is a dependent syntactic unit that makes up a part of the sentence. The predicative word-group consists of a nominal element (noun, pronoun) and a non-finite form of the verb: N + Vnon-fin. There are Gerundial, Infinitive and Participial word-groups (complexes) in the English language: *his reading*, *for me to know, the boy running, etc.*

Summary
- The word-group is a combination of at least two notional words which do not constitute the sentence but are syntactically connected
- General characteristics of the word-group are: it differs from a compound word, each component of the word-group can undergo grammatical changes without destroying the identity of the whole unit, a word-group is a dependent syntactic unit; it is not a communicative unit and has no intonation of its own
- Word-groups can be classified on the basis of several principles: according to the type of syntagmatic relations: coordinate, subordinate, predicative; according to the structure: simple, expanded, extended
- Subordinate word-groups are based on the relations of dependence between the constituents

- According to the nature of their heads, subordinate word-groups fall into noun-phrases, verb-phrases, adjective phrases, adverbial phrases, pronoun phrases
- The noun-phrase consists of a noun-head and an adjunct or adjuncts with relations of modification between them. Three types of modification are distinguished here: premodification, postmodification, mixed modification
- Verb-phrases can be classified according to the nature of their complements – verb complements may be nominal and adverbial
- According to the structure verb-phrases may be basic or simple; expanded and extended
- The predicative word-group consists of a nominal element (noun, pronoun) and a non-finite form of the verb. There are Gerundial, Infinitive and Participial word-groups (complexes) in the English language

Tasks

1. Read the following quotations. Comment on the ideas implied. Be ready to express your opinion on the matter under consideration. Translate these extracts if it seems helpful;

a) *Phrases are word-groups without predications: **poor fellow, a house to let, of course, as a matter of fact.** Clauses are word-groups containing their own subjects and predicates and, in Indo-European languages, performing the functions of nouns, adjectives, adverbs. [...] Inasmuch as **good men** is a phrase without predication, it is said to be an **endocentric construction.** As a unit **good men** has the same function as one or more of its constituents. It is a **subordinate** or **attributive construction** as opposed to such a phrase as **men and women** which is said to be **coordinate or serial.** Constituent forms of subordinate endocentric constructions are said hold **ranks.** In the phrase **good men** there are two ranks: **men** is the **head-word** or **primary** and **good** is the **attribute** or **secondary.**[...] In constructions of the co=ordinate or serial type the constituent substantives are manifestly of equal rank and they may be designated primary: **men** and **women.** (S. Potter, pp. 105, 114–115)*

b) *Traditionally the difference between the two (phrase and clause) was formulated something as follows: any group of words which is grammatically equivalent to a single word and which does not have its own subject and predicate is a phrase; on the other hand, a group of words with its own subject and predicate, if it is included into a larger sentence, is a clause. (J. Lyons, p. 171)*

THE SENTENCE AND THE UTTERANCE

Whenever the literary German dives into a sentence, that is the last you are going to see of him till the emerges on the other side of the Atlantic with his Verb in his mouth.

Mark Twain, *A Connecticut Yankee in King Arthur's Court*

The Sentence

Finish all your sentences with the words "in accordance with prophecy".

Mottoes to Live By

Knowledge of a language enables you to combine words to form phrases, and phrases to form sentences. You cannot buy a dictionary of any language with all its sentences, because no dictionary can list all the possible sentences. Knowing a language means being able to produce new sentences never spoken before and to understand sentences never heard before. Consider the following sentence: "*Daniel Boone decided to become a pioneer because he dreamed of pigeon-toed giraffes and cross-eyed elephants dancing in pink skirts and green berets on the wind-swept plains of the Midwest*". You may not believe the sentence; you may question its logic; but you can understand it, although you probably never heard or read it before now.

It is rather difficult to define the sentence as it is connected with many lingual and extra lingual aspects – logical, psychological and philosophical. We will just stick to one of them - according to academician G.Pocheptsov, the sentence is the central syntactic construction used as the minimal communicative unit that has its primary predication, actualises a definite structural scheme and possesses definite intonation characteristics. This definition works only in case we do not take into account the difference between the sentence and the utterance. The distinction between the sentence and the utterance is of fundamental importance because the sentence is an abstract theoretical entity defined within the theory of grammar while the utterance is the actual use of the sentence. In other words, the sentence is a unit of language while the utterance is a unit of speech.

The most essential features of the sentence as a linguistic unit are:

a) its **structural** characteristics – subject-predicate relations (primary predication);

b) its **semantic** characteristics – it refers to some fact in the objective reality. It is represented in the language through a conceptual reality.

We may define the proposition as the main predicative form of thought. Basic predicative meanings of the typical English sentence are expressed by the finite verb that is immediately connected with the subject of the sentence (primary predication).

To sum it up, the sentence is a syntactic level unit, it is a predicative language unit which is a lingual representation of predicative thought (proposition).

Different approaches to the study of the sentence.

Why is English teacher like a judge?
Both give people sentences.
Play on Words

Principal and secondary parts of the sentence.
Immediate constituents of the sentence. IC analysis.

To grasp the real structure of the English sentence, one must understand not only words that occur but also the principles of their arrangement. Each language has its own way of structural grouping. English has dichotomous phrase structure, which means that the phrase in English can always be divided into two elements (constituents) until we get down to the single word. All groups of words are arranged in levels. The name given by linguists to these different levels of relationship is **immediate constituents**.

Thus, one way of analyzing a sentence is to cut it to its immediate constituents, that is, to single out different levels of meaning:
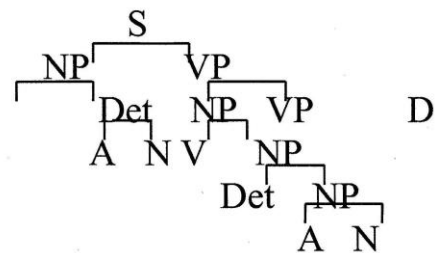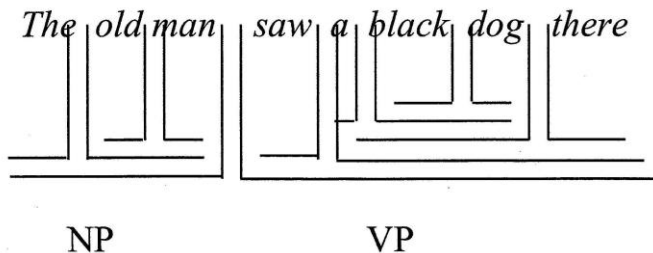
It is obvious that dividing a sentence into ICs does not provide much information. Nevertheless, it can sometimes prove useful if we want to account for the ambiguity of certain constructions. A classic example is the phrase *old men and women* which can be interpreted in two different ways. Ambiguity of this kind is referred to as syntactic ambiguity. By providing IC analysis we can make the two meanings clear:

old men and women   old men and women

Oppositional analysis.

The oppositional method in syntax means correlating different sentence types: they possess common features and differential features. Differential features serve the basis for analysis.

E.g. two member sentence :: one member sentence (John worked:: John! Work! Or: I speak English :: I don't speak English.

Constructional analysis.

According to the constructional approach, not only the subject and the predicate but also all the necessary constituents of primary predication constitute the main parts because they are constructionally significant. Therefore, the secondary parts of the sentence are sometimes as necessary and important as the main ones. If we omit the object and the adverbial modifier in the following sentences they will become grammatically and semantically unmarked: Bill closed the door; She behaved well.

The structural sentence types are formed on the basis of kernels (basic structures). Three main types of propositional kernels may be distinguished: N V, N is A, N is N. However, if we take into account the valent properties of the verbs (their obligatory valency) the group will become larger (8 kernels), e.g. N1 V N2 N3: *John gave Ann the book*, N1 V N2: *I see a house*.

The kernel sentences form the basis for syntactic derivation. Syntactic derivation lies in producing more complex sentences.

Syntactic processes may be **internal** and **external**. Internal syntactic processes involve no changes in the structure of the parts of the sentence. They occur within one and the same part of the sentence (subject, etc.). External syntactic processes are those that cause new relations within a syntactic unit and lead to appearance of a new part of the sentence.

The internal syntactic processes are:

Expansion: *The phone was ringing **and ringing**.*

Compression: *They **were laughing and singing**.*

Complication (a syntactic . unit becomes complicated): *I have seen it – I **could** have seen it.*

Contamination (two parts of the sentence are joined together – e.g. double predicate):

*The moon **rose red***

Replacement (the use of the words that have a generalized meaning): *one, do,* etc. *I'd like to take this **one**.*

Representation (a part of the syntactic unit represents the whole syntactic unit): *Would you like to come along? I'd love **to**.*

Ellipsis – *Where are you going? **To the movies**.*

The external syntactic processes are:

Extension - *a nice dress – a nice **cotton** dress.*

Ajoinment (the use of specifying words, most often particles): He did it – Only he did it.

Enclosure – inserting modal words and other discourse markers: *after all, anyway, naturally,* etc.

THE UTTERANCE. INFORMATIVE STRUCTURE OF THE UTTERANCE.

> **Language was born in the courting days of mankind; the first utterances of speech I fancy to myself like something between the nightly love lyrics of puss upon the tiles and the melodious love songs of the nightingale.**
>
> **Otto Jespersen,** *Language, Its Nature, Development and Origin*

The utterance as opposed to the sentence is the unit of speech. The main categories of the utterance from the point of view of its informative structure are considered to be **the theme** and **the rheme**. They are the main components of the Functional Sentence Perspective (FSP) – actual division of the sentence (most language analysts stick to the term "sentence" but actually they mean "utterance").

In English, there is a "standard" word order of Subject + Verb + Object: *The cat ate the rat* – here we have a standard structure (N1 + V + N2). However, there are numerous other ways in which the semantic content of the sentence can be expressed:

The rat was eaten by the cat.
It was the cat that ate the rat.
It was the rat that the cat ate.
What the cat did was ate the rat.
The cat, it ate the rat.

Which of these options is actually selected by the writer or the speaker will depend on the context in which the utterance occurs and the importance of the information. One important consideration is whether the information has already been introduced before or it is assumed to be known to the reader or listener. Such information is referred to as **given** information or **the theme**. It contrasts with information which is introduced for the first time and which is known as **new** information or **the rheme**.

Informative structure of the utterance is one of the topics that still attract the attention of language analysts nowadays. It is well recognized that the rheme marking devices are:

Position in the sentence. As a rule new information in English generally comes last: *The cat ate **the rat**.*

Intonation.

The use of the indefinite article. However, sometimes it is impossible (as in 1): *A gentleman is waiting for you*.

The use of 'there is', 'there are'. *There is **a cat** in the room.*

The use of special devices, like 'as for', 'but for', etc.: *As for **him**, I don't know.*

Inverted word order: *Here comes the sun.*

The use of emphatic constructions: *It was **the cat** that ate the rat.*

However, sometimes the most important information is not expressed formally: *The cat ate the rat after all.* The rheme here is 'the rat'. At the same time there is very important information which is hidden or implicit: the cat was not supposed to do it, or – it was hard for the cat to catch the rat, or – the cat is a vegetarian (this hidden information will depend on the context or situation). In other words, we may say that this sentence contains two informative centres, or two rhemes – explicit and implicit.

Functional typology of utterances.

Actional utterance: N + Vact. + Complement – actional predicate

Performative utterance: I + Vperf./Vsay – performative predicate

Characterizing utterance: N + Vbe + A/Q – characterizing predicate

(See the book by E.Morokhovskaya 'Fundamentals of Theoretical English Grammar', pp. 254–268)

COMMUNICATIVE TYPES OF SENTENCES

The sentence is a communicative unit, therefore the primary classification of sentences must be based on the communicative principle. This principle is formulated as the "purpose of communication" in traditional grammar.

In accord with the purpose of communication we distinguish the following types of sentences:

- **declarative:** *I have thought you are a Canadian;*
- **imperative:** *Go there and bring him!*
- **interrogative:** *Who has done this?*

A declarative sentence contains a statement which gives the reader or the listener some information about various events, activities or attitudes, thoughts and feelings. Statements form the bulk of monological speech, and the greater part of conversation. A statement may be affirmative or negative. Grammatically, statements are characterized by the subject-predicate structure with the direct word order. *"I think", he said, "that Mr. Desert should be asked to give us his reasons for publishing that poem." – "Hear, hear!" said the K.C. (J. Galsworthy). "We live very quietly here, indeed we do; my niece here will tell you the same." – "Oh, come, I'm not such a fool as that," answered the squire (D. du Maurier).* Statements usually have a falling tone. They are marked by a pause in speaking and by a full stop in writing. Declarative sentences are communicatively polyfunctional .

The imperative sentence expresses inducement, either affirmative or negative, commands which convey the desire of the speaker to make someone (generally the listener) perform or not perform a certain action. Besides command proper, imperative sentences may express prohibition, a request, an invitation, a warning, and persuasion, depending on the situation, context, or intonation. *"Let's go and sit down up there, Dinny." – "Very well" (J. Galsworthy). "Then marry me." – "Really, Alan, I never met anyone with so few ideas" (J. Galsworthy). "Send him back!" he said again.- "Nonsense, old chap" (J. Aldridge).*

The interrogative sentence expresses a question, i.e. a request for information wanted by the speaker from the listener. In accord with the purpose of communication the interrogative sentence is naturally connected with an answer, forming together with it a question-answer dialogue unity. *"What do you suggest I should, then?" said Mary helplessly. – "If I were you I should play a waiting game," he replied (D. du Maurier).* Naturally, in the process of actual communication the interrogative communicative purpose, like any other communicative task, may not be fulfilled. In case it is not fulfilled, the question-answer unity proves to be broken; instead of a needed answer the speaker is faced by silence on the part of the listener. *"Why can't you lay off?" I said to her. But she didn't even notice me (R.P. Warren).* The communicative function of interrogative sentences consists in asking for information. They belong to the sphere of conversation and only occasionally occur in monological speech.

The above communicative types of sentences are usually applied to simple sentences. In a complex sentence the communicative type depends upon that of the main clause. In a compound sentence coordinate clauses may as well belong to different communicative types.

SIMPLE SENTENCE: CONSTITUANT STRUCTURE

The structure of every sentence is a lesson in logic.
John Stuart Mill, *Inaugural address at St .Andres*

Structural Classification of Simple Sentence

In traditional linguistics sentences, according to their structure, are divided into simple and composite, the latter consisting of two or more clauses. The typical English simple sentence is built up by one "predicative line'" realized as the immediate connection between the subject and the predicate of the sentence.

Simple sentences are usually classified into one-member and two-member sentences. This distinction is based on the representation of the main parts of the sentence: sentences having the grammatical subject and the grammatical predicate are termed "two-member" sentences; if sentences have only one of these main parts they are termed "one-member" sentences.

Another structural classification of simple sentences is their classification into complete and elliptical. (*I'm glad to see you. Glad to see you*) The language status of the elliptical sentence is a disputable question; many linguists connect the functioning of elliptical sentences with the phenomena of representation and substitution.

SIMPLE SEINTEINCE: PARADIGMATIC STRUCTURE

Notion of Syntactic Derivation

Paradigmatic syntax studies the sentence from the point of view of its oppositional and derivational status. Paradigmatics finds its expression in a system of oppositions which make the corresponding meaningful (functional) categories. Syntactic oppositions are realized by correlated sentence patterns.

Paradigmatic principles of investigation allowed linguists to find the initial, basic element of syntactic derivation. This element is known under different names: "the basic syntactic pattern", "the structural sentence scheme", "the elementary sentence model", "the base sentence" and "the kernel sentence". The kernel sentence is a syntactic unit serving as a "sentence-root". (*The student writes* – in any tense) Syntactic derivation should be understood as paradigmatic production of more complex pattern-constructions out of kernel pattern-constructions as their structural bases.

Constructional Relations of the Kernel Sentence

**Most wonderful of all are…[sentences], and
how they make friends one with another.**

O.Henry, as modified by a syntactician

The derivational procedures applied to the kernel sentence can introduce it into such a type of derivational relations which is called "constructional" type. The constructional derivation affects the formation of more complex clausal constructions out of simpler ones; in other words, it is responsible for the expression of the nominative notional syntactic semantics of the sentence. As part of the constructional system of syntactic paradigmatics, kernel sentences undergo derivational changes into clauses and phrases. These transformational procedures are termed, correspondingly, "clausalization" (*He came. He gave me a good advice. - When he came, he gave me a good advice*), and "phrasalization" (*He came. He gave me a good advice. - He came to give me a good advice. – On coming he gave me a good advice*, etc.) Phrasalization resulting in a substantive phrase (noun-phrase) is called "nominalization".

Predicative Relations of the Kernel Sentence

The predicative derivation realizes the formation of predicatively different units without affecting the constructional volume of the sentence base; in other words, it is responsible for the expression of the predicative syntactic semantics of the sentence.

The predicative syntactic semantics of the sentence is very intricate, but being oppositional by nature, it can be described in terms of "lower" and "higher" predicative functions expressed by primary sentence patterns. The lower functions express the morphological categories of tenses and aspects and have the so-called "factual" semantics. The higher functions are "evaluative" because they immediately express the relationship of the nominative content of the sentence to reality.

The main predicative functions expressed by syntactic categorial oppositions can be described on the oppositional lines, e.g.: "question – statement", "unreality – reality", "phase of action – fact", etc.

COMPOSITE SENTENCE

Classification of Sentences According to the Number of Predicative Lines

According to the number of predicative lines sentences are classified into simple, composite and semi-composite. The simple sentence is built up by one predicative line, while the composite sentence is built up by two or more predicative lines.

COMPOUND SENTENCE

The compound sentence is based on parataxis (*паратаксис – предикативные группы ставятся друг после друга без обозначения связи между ними при помощи каких-либо соединительных слов)*, i.e. coordination. By coordination the clauses in the composite sentence are arranged as units of syntactically equal rank. The position of the coordinate clause is always rigidly (жестко, твердо) fixed and it serves as one of the differential features of coordination as such.

It is usual to single out the following types of semantic relations between coordinative clauses: copulative (соединительный), adversative (противительный), disjunctive, causal, and consequential.

Coordinating connectors are divided into proper (and, but, or, nor, for, either, neither, etc.) and semi-functional (then, yet, so, thus, consequently, etc.), the latter revealing adverbial features.

The type of connection is expressed not only by means of coordinating connectives, but also by the general meaning of clauses conveyed by their lexical and grammatical content.

Copulative coordination implies that the information conveyed by coordinate clauses is in some way similar. The connectors are the conjunctions *and, nor, neither…nor, as well as, not only…but (also)* and the conjunctive adverbs *then, besides, moreover.*

As for adversative coordination it joins clauses containing contrast, opposition or contradiction. The adversative conjunctions are *but, while, whereas,* conjunctive adverbs *yet, still, however, nevertheless,* and there is one conjunctive particle *only.*

Disjunctive coordination implies a choice between two mutually exclusive alternatives. The connectors are the conjunctions *or, either…or,* and the conjunctive adverbs *else, otherwise.*

Causal and consequential semantic relations between coordinative clauses can be combined into causative-consecutive coordination. This type of coordination shows that one of the clause contains a reason and the other a consequence. The second clause may contain the reason or the result of the event conveyed by the previous clause. There is only one causative coordination – the conjunction *for.*

COMPLEX SENTENCE

The complex sentence is based on hypotaxis *(гипотаксис — подчинительные связи),* i.e. subordination. By subordination the principal clause positionally dominates the subordinate clause making up with it a semantico-syntactic unity. The subordinate clause can be joined to the principal clause either by a subordinating connector, or, with some types of clauses, asyndetically.

Subordinating connectors link clauses and express the relation between them (*Everybody knows **who** he is; I don't know **where** Mom is; This is the person **whom** you are waiting for*).

Subordinate clauses can be classified on different principles: either functional, or categorial.

In accord with the functional principle, subordinate clauses are classified on the analogy of the positional parts of the simple sentence. As a result of this classification, subordinate clauses are classified into subject, predicative, object, attributive, and adverbial.

Nominal clauses (subject, predicative, object) have a function approximating to that of a noun or a nominal phrase. They fulfill the function of a basic part of the main clause: ***How the student passes his exam*** *depends on his level of knowledge.* In this example the subject clause functions as a subject of the main clause which hasn't got its own subject. A predicative clause functions as predicative to the link verb within the main clause (*That's **what he wants you to do***). An object clause refers to verbs in different forms and functions (to adjectives, statives and occasionally to nouns) and may be either obligatory or optional. E.g. *He didn't know **why he loved her so much.***

One should keep in mind that all nominal clauses are very closely connected with the main clause. That is if such a clause is removed, both **the structure** and **the meaning** of the sentence **are changed** or become **ungrammatical.**

Attributive clauses function is analogous to that of an attribute (*His pictures were an immediate success **which was nothing to wonder***). These clauses fall into three major classes:

- **descriptive** – they expose some characteristics of antecedent (*I returned to Rome, **where I remained for a month***);
- **restrictive** – they perform a purely identifying role (*This is the book **which I advised you to read***);
- **appositive** – they refer to some substantive antecedent of abstract semantics *(One suffers so much from the fact **that beautiful words don't always mean what they ought to mean***).

Adverbial clauses constitute a vast domain of syntax. According to a traditional classification adverbial clauses are divided into four groups:

1. Clauses of **time and place** *(I have grown a beard, **since I saw you last,** and fathered two fine boys).* Connectives: *while, as since, as soon as, no sooner than, whence, where, etc.*
2. Clauses of **manner and comparison** *(He could do it **as no one else could have done.** He had spoken **as if America was an antique***). Introducers: *as, as though, as…as, not so…as, etc.*
3. Clauses of **attendant event: condition, result, concession, purpose, reason, cause** (***If the weather is fine tomorrow,** we'll go to the country* – condition. *Light fell on her, **so that he could see her face*** – result. ***Though he couldn't hear the conversation below** he opened the window wide* – concession. *He opened the window wide **that he might hear the conversation below*** – purpose. ***As he wanted to hear the conversation below** he opened the window wide* – cause).
4. **Parenthetical (insertive) clauses** are joined to the principle clause on a looser basis than the other clauses. They distinguish two semantic subtypes:
- **introductory** which express different modal meanings: *Strickland was not, **I should say,** a man of great intention;*
- **deviational** which express commenting insertions: *He called twice, **if I am not mistaken.** Hope, **if it was hope,** didn't hear him.*

The categorial classification is aimed at revealing the inherent nominative properties of the subordinate clauses irrespective of its immediate position in the sentence. According to their integral features all subordinate clauses are divided into four generalized types: clauses of primary nominal positions (subject, predicative, object clauses), clauses of secondary nominal positions (attributive clauses), clauses of adverbial positions, and clauses of parenthetical positions.

SEMI-COMPOSITE SENTENCE AND ITS TYPES

Semi-composite sentences are sentences in which one predicative line is represented by a semi-predicative construction. Semi-composite sentences are divided into semi-complex and semi-compound according to the type of relations between the semi-clause and the main clause - subordinative and coordinative, respectively.

The semi-complex sentence is a semi-composite sentence built up on the principle of subordination.

The semi-complex sentences fall into a number of subtypes. Their basic division is dependent on the character of predicative fusion (слияние, объединение): this may be affected either by the process of position-sharing (word- sharing), or by the process of direct linear expansion (расширение, увеличение). The sentences based on position-sharing fall into those of subject-sharing (наложение двух предложений на общее подлежащее: *The man stood silent = The man stood. The man was silent*) and those of object-sharing (*I saw him crossing the street = I saw him. He was crossing the street*). The sentences based on semi-predicative linear expansion fall into those of attributive complication (*This is a letter received yesterday = This is a letter which was received yesterday*), adverbial complication (*The work being done, she left for home = The work was done. She left for home)* and nominal-phrase complication (*For me to do it was easy = I did it. It was easy* constructions with the infinitive and gerund).

The semi-compound sentence is a semi-composite sentence built up on the principle of coordination. According to the process of semi-compounding, coordinative fusion can be either syndetic or asyndetic. Thus, from the formal point of view, a sentence possessing

coordinated notional parts of immediately sentential reference (directly related to its predicative line) is to be treated as semi-compound. There are different structural types of syntactic coordination: coordinated subjects, predicates, objects, adverbial modifiers (с однородными членами предложения) (*They talked and laughed at the lecture*).

Summary

- The sentence is the central syntactic construction used as the minimal communicative unit that has its primary predication, actualises a definite structural scheme and possesses definite intonation characteristics
- The most essential features of the sentence as a linguistic unit are:

  a) its **structural** characteristics – subject-predicate relations (primary predication);

  b) its **semantic** characteristics – it refers to some fact in the objective reality. It is represented in the language through a conceptual reality
- The distinction between the sentence and the utterance is of fundamental importance because the sentence is an abstract theoretical entity defined within the theory of grammar while the utterance is the actual use of the sentence. In other words, the sentence is a unit of language while the utterance is a unit of speech
- The main categories of the utterance are the theme and the rheme
- Theme is given information, rheme is new one
- In traditional linguistics sentences, according to their structure, are divided into simple and composite, the latter consisting of two or more clause
- Simple sentences are usually classified into one-member and two-member sentences
- According to the number of predicative lines sentences are classified into simple, composite and semi-composite. The simple sentence is built up by one predicative line, while the composite sentence is built up by two or more predicative lines.
- The compound sentence is based on parataxis (coordination). By coordination the clauses in the composite sentence are arranged as units of syntactically equal rank.
- The complex sentence is based on hypotaxis (subordination). By subordination the principal clause positionally dominates the subordinate clause making up with it a semantico-syntactic unity

- Semi-composite sentences are sentences in which one predicative line is represented by a semi-predicative construction. Semi-composite sentences are divided into semi-complex and semi-compound according to the type of relations between the semi-clause and the main clause - subordinative and coordinative, respectively.

Tasks

1. Comment on the terms: *sentence, utterance, nucleus, theme, rheme, kernel.*

2. Comment on the terminological application of the following phrases. Indicate what syntactic phenomena are revealed in particular cases: *simple sentence, composite sentence, complex sentence, compound sentence, one-member sentence, two-member sentence.*

3. Comment on peculiarities of one-member sentences in English and Russian. Indicate predications. Speak on different kinds of one-member-sentences and their use in English. Translate the following: *Silence, slight but ominous.*

> *What a splendid sight!*
> *How very thin!*
> *Break! Break! Shouts and whistle.*
> *Break! Rest! The voice barked.*

4. Analyze the following sentences indicating "theme" and "rheme". Comment on the devices:

a) *It was ten o'clock exactly when he paused before the well-remembered house. (Galsworthy)*

b) *With his shuffling feet he kicked up the dust as he walked. (Maugham)*

c) *He got up and paid the bill and out they went into the street. (G. Green)*

d) *Secretly, after nightfall, he visited the home of the Prime Minister. (Leacock)*

5. Read the following. Point out different kinds of sentences. Comment on their structure and the nature of predication:

> *Silence again. There came a little rustle, a scurry, a hop. "A mouse", said Constantia. "It can't be a mouse because there aren't any crumbs", said Josephine. "But it doesn't know there aren't", said Constantia. A spasm of pity squeezed her heart. Poor thing! She wished she'd left a tiny piece of biscuit on the dressing-table. It was awful to think of it not finding anything. What would it do? "I can't think how they manage to live at all", she said slowly. "Who?" demanded Josephine. And Constantia said more loudly than she meant to, "Mice". Josephine was furious. "Oh, what nonsense, Con!" she said. "What have mice got to do with it? You are asleep." (Mansfield)*

MEMBERS OF THE SENTENCE

Twas brillig, and the slithy toves
Did gyre and gimble in the wabe
Lewis Carroll, *Jabberwocky*

Every sentence can be divided into certain components which are called members (or parts) of the sentence. Members of the sentence are usually classified into primary (or principal) and secondary. The primary parts of the sentence are the subject and the predicate. They constitute the nucleus of the sentence. The subject denotes something that is spoken about. The predicate denotes the action, state or property of the thing designated by the subject.

Principal parts are indispensable and mutually dependent. In Russian they agree formally, in English – logically.

The secondary parts of the sentence are the object, the attribute, the adverbial modifier. The secondary parts of the sentence modify the principal parts of each other. The object depends upon predicate. The attribute is a noun oriented part of a sentence. The adverbial modifier is verb and adverb oriented.

PRINCIPAL PARTS

SUBJECT

A sentence is organized as a hierarchy of dependencies. The subject and the predicate are both indispensable for the structure of the sentence. The subject is one of the two principal parts of the sentence. It can be expressed in different ways:

- a noun in the common case: ***The wind*** *blew softly;*
- a noun in the Genitive case: ***Cousin's*** *arrival surprised everybody;*
- a nominal phrase: *They sang **many of the Grateful Dead's** songs;*
- a personal pronoun in the nominative case: ***He*** *is waiting for you;*
- any other pronoun: ***Who*** *has done this?*

- a numeral: ***Three sixths*** *is difficult to pronounce;*
- an infinitive (as well as an infinitival phrase or an infinitive predicative complex): ***To keep*** *milk from turning sour is to keep it in the cow;*
- a gerund (as well as a gerundial phrase or a gerundial predicative complex): ***Reading*** *what people write on desks can teach you a lot;*
- quotations: *School Goofs* **" *The parts of speech are lungs and air"*** *and* ***"The four seasons are salt, pepper, mustard, and vinegar"*** *are real quotes taken from students paper by grade school teachers from around the USA;*
- a clause: ***The guy we met at the party next door*** *seems kind of cute.*

From the point of view of its grammatical value the subject may be notional or formal. The notional subject denotes a person or a non-person (various kinds of concrete things, substances, abstract notions or happening):

- personal: ***I*** *think that I shall never see a poem lovely as a tree;*
- non-personal: ***To handle yourself,*** *use your head;* ***to handle others,*** *use your heart.*

The formal subject doesn't denote any person or non-person. It is only a structural element of the sentence filling the position of the subject. There are two position-fillers in English: *it* and ***there.***

The formal subject expressed by *it* is found in two patterns of sentences:

- Impersonal it**:** ***It's Christmas!***
- Introductory it: ***It*** *was great to meet you here!*

The formal subject **it** is **impersonal** when it is used in sentences describing various states of nature, things in general, characteristics of the environment, or denoting time, distance, and other measurements.

When the formal subject **it** introduces the notional subject expressed by an infinitive, a gerund, an infinitive or gerundial phrase, a predicative complex or a clause, it is **introductory.**

Thus, the sentence contains two subjects: the formal (introductory) subject **it** and the notional subject, which follows the predicate.

The difference between these two structural types is as following: the pattern with the introductory subject accentuates the idea expressed by the notional subject, whereas the pattern without it accentuates the idea expressed in the predicate.

PREDICATE

The predicate is the second principal part of the sentence. It denotes an action, a state, a quality, or an attitude to some action or state ascribed to the subject. The predicate agrees with the subject logically.

From the structural point of view there are two main types of predicate: the simple predicate and the compound one. Simple predicate can be simple verbal and simple nominal. Simple verbal predicate is expressed by a verb: *She **wants** what a man **has.***

The simple nominal predicate shows the incompatibility of the idea expressed by the subject and that expressed by the predicate. The nature of the nominal predicate can be interpreted transformationally or by means of deep and surface structures.

The simple nominal predicate can be expressed in different ways:

- a noun: *He, a **general**?!*
- an adjective: *He **clever?***
- an infinitive: *Mr. Domby **to divorce** his wife?!*
- Participle I: *He **Lying!***
- Phraseological unit: *He was probably loosing his marbles* = going crazy
- reflexive pronoun: *I enjoyed **myself** in the park* (element :myself" cannot be omitted).

Sentences with the simple nominal predicate are always exclamatory owing to the implication of an evaluation or a negation. This kind of predicate is used in colloquial English.

The compound predicate may be:

- verbal aspect: *He **came running**; He **got going*** (phasal verbs indicate the beginning, duration, repetition or the conclusion of the action. The compound verbal aspect predicate consists of a phasal verb and Infinitive or Gerund);
- verbal modal: *You **must be** more polite; I think you **can do** it* (The compound verbal modal predicate denotes the attitude to the action of the person expressed by the subject or by the speaker);
- the predicate of double orientation*: He **is said to have done** it (*practical grammar analyses it as an expression of the nominative with the infinitive construction.

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According to this point of view, *He* is a subject, *is said to have done* is a predicate of double orientation. One part is oriented upon the subject – *to have done* – the other refers to the subject beyond the limits of the sentence – *is said*);

- nominal: *You **look sad***; *It **is time to tell the truth*** (The compound nominal predicate consists of a link verb and a predicative – nominal part. The number of the link verbs is great and it is still going larger: *to grow, to make, to taste, to feel, to smell, to remain, etc.* The predicative characterizes the person or non-person expressed by the subject. It may concern the properties of the person or non-person, the state, quality or quantity of it, the identity of the person or non-person.);

- double predicate: *He **married young**. She **returns a beautiful lady*** (the predicate consists of two parts which can be revealed transformationally).

SECONDARY PARTS

Is it possible to be totally partial?
Pointless Pondering

Secondary parts can be indispensable or facultative for the structural and semantic complicity of the sentence.

OBJECT

The object is a secondary part of the sentence which depends upon predicate. It is verb oriented. Logical relations between a verb and an object are various. The object is indispensable, obligatory when it is used after verbs of incomplete predication (*to be, to seem, to appear, to smell, to take*). Such verbs are insufficient by themselves and need either an object or an adverbial modifier: *They took **the boy to the theatre.***

By means of transformational procedure of deletion we can deprive the verb of its object and say whether it is complete or incomplete. E.g.: *They broke **the thing** gently =>they broke gently* – has no sense, the verb is structurally, communicatively, semantically incomplete. This procedure of deletion proves the incomplete character of the object.

The object can be expressed by:

- a noun in the common case: *Jill ate **cookies** and **ice-cream;***

- a pronoun: *Jill didn't eat **anything;***
- a gerund: *Mom insists on **washing up;***
- a substantivized adjective: *They are considered to be **the rich;***
- an infinitive: *I am glad **to meet** you;*
- a predicative complex: *Harry, I'd like **you to meet my sister Mary***;
- a clause: *It is difficult to understand **what she means.***
  Traditionally objects are classified into:
- direct *He created **drama;***
- indirect (either prepositional or non-prepositional) *He gave **me** a piece of advice**; He gave a piece of advice **to me;***
- cognate *He smiled a winner's **smile;** He lived a happy **life*** (verb and noun of the same root);
- complex (expressed by predicative construction with infinitive, participle or gerund) *I remember **my mother singing a song to me;** I saw **him cross the street;** I remember **him dancing;***
- formal (expressed by introductory *it* and infinitival phrase) *I find **it strange to go there*** .

According to semantic roles objects are divided into:
- the object of the object (дополнение объекта) *I read **the book;***
- the object of the addressee (дополнение адресата) *He gives it **to me;***
- the object of the subject (дополнение субъекта) *I was blackmailed **by him.***

The classification is not satisfactory.

ATTRIBUTE

The attribute is a noun oriented secondary or tertiary part of the sentence. It doesn't enter the structural scheme of the sentence. Very often the attribute is facultative and can be easily omitted: *A **(beautiful)** girl entered the **(spacious)** room.*

The attribute can be used in pre-position and post-position. Its position is determined by its semantics. Attributes giving more concrete character to a noun are placed nearer to it that those giving general assessment: ***An attractive small** girl.*

The attribute can be complex – expressed by predicative construction: *This is **a book for you to read.***

It is obvious, attributes decorate the sentence, but there are instances when without an attribute a noun is communicatively empty: *She has **blue eyes.***

Attributes can be expressed by different parts of speech:

* an adjective *I've never heard such a **nice** voice;*
* a pronoun *There were **some** strangers in the room;*
* a numeral *Read Text **Five,** Jack;*
* a noun in the common case *I always remember that **November** morning;*
* a noun in the genitive case *Whose book is this?- It's **mine,** it's **mine;***
* Participle I *I know the man **entering** the room;*
* Gerund *Do you mind of **my coming?***
* Infinitive *She hasn't got friends **to help** her.*

ADVERBIAL MODIFIER

The adverbial modifier is a secondary or tertiary part of the sentence. It is verb and adverb oriented. It is not determined by the semantic meaning of the verb, types of adverbial modifiers are determined by semantic varieties or semantic types of adverbs.

We distinguish adverbial modifiers of:

* manner *Irene sings lovely;*
* cause *Have you done it **out of spite?***
* time *Never put off **tomorrow** what you can do **today;***
* place *I was born in **Romania;***
* concession (real, unreal, problematic) *Somas loved her **with all her faults;***
* comparison (real, unreal) *Dandy Crocodile didn't look **like a New Yorker;***
* attendant circumstances *He lit his cigar **to calm down;***
* purpose *Jim told lies **to save you;***
* measure *Jean is **five foot seven;***
* exception *The road was empty **except for a few cars**;*
* degree *You are **extremely** beautiful;*
* condition ***But for Mark** she wouldn't go to the concert.*

The adverbial modifier can be facultative and indispensable: *He broke the thing **gently.** They took **the boy to the theatre.***

Adverbial modifiers can be expressed by different parts of speech:

- an adverb *You look **wonderful;***
- a noun *They married in **July;***
- a numeral *She died **at the age of 84 in 1999;***
- non-finites forms *Our house is not easy **to find;** I get furious **at being treated like that; Having finished** the essay he stood up to make up some coffee;*
- predicative constructions *He entered the room, **the dog following him*** (nominative absolute participial construction); *There was nothing **for them to discuss*** (for-to-infinitive).

The secondary parts are correlated to some extent with parts of speech though absolute parallelism is impossible. They are not involved into the predicative nucleus of the sentence.

Rats and Nelson find the given inventory of secondary parts of the sentence incomplete. It is inadequate to denominate syncretical and ambiguous elements of the sentence.

Ilyish finds the theory of the secondary parts of the sentence one of the least developed sections of linguistics. The characteristic features of the object, attribute and adverbial modifier are not clearly defined. Describing a word or a phrase as an object or adverbial modifier proves to be a matter of personal opinion.

Peshkovsky divides members of the sentence into those which are governed and those are not governed.

Some scholars (especially structuralists) discard the theory of the secondary parts altogether.

Otto Jespersen distinguishes secondary parts into secondaries and tertiaries.

Summary

- A sentence is organised as a hierarchy of dependencies
- We distinguish primaries – subject and predicate – and secondaries – object, attribute, adverbial modifier
- Principal parts are indispensable and mutually dependent. They constitute the nucleus of a sentence
- Secondary parts can be indispensable or facultative. They are not involved into the predicative nucleus of the sentence

Tasks

1. **Comment on the terms:** *principals, secondaries, adjuncts, coordinates, adverbials, adjectivals.*

2. Speak on the point *parts of the sentence – their types and kinds (as to their structure: simple, extended, expanded, complex; as to their functional significance in the sentence: main parts, secondary parts; as to their functions: subjects, predicates, objects, attributes, adverbial modifiers.*

EMINENT LINGUISTS AND THEIR CONTRIBUTIONS

Leonard Bloomfield, b. Chicago, Apr. 1, 1887, d. Apr. 18, 1949, was one of the most respected linguists of the first half of the 20th century. His book ***Language*** (1933) was for years the standard summary of the dominant approach being taken toward linguistics in North America.

After teaching at three universities—Illinois, Ohio State, and Chicago—Bloomfield served as professor of linguistics at Yale from 1940 until his death. His initial specialty was a comparative study of Indo-European languages, particularly Germanic languages. He undertook pioneering studies of the Austronesian languages, notably Tagalog; investigated American Indian languages, particularly those of the Algonquian family; and published articles and books in a broad spectrum of linguistics, including phonetics, historical linguistics, semantics, and the teaching of foreign languages.

Bloomfield believed that linguistics should be an autonomous, empirical science and that language should be studied in isolation from non-linguistic influences. Although he espoused behaviourist principles, he refused to subordinate the study of language to any set psychological premise. His descriptive method starts by identifying the smallest units of speech (phonemes) by minimal pairs. It then establishes a morphology, or system of word-forming elements, by which the relationship among the minimal meaningful linguistic units (morphemes) can be distinguished and classified. Finally, by distinguishing various construction types, it examines how syntax is effected.

Later linguists have argued that Bloomfield's approach is simply a taxonomic examination of surface structures and thus ignores the deep structures that may be universal in language. Despite the unresolved debate between Bloomfieldians and those who question his empirical approach, Bloomfield's studies have made a lasting impact upon linguistic study.

The noted Danish linguist Jens **Otto Jespersen**, b. July 16, 1860, d. Apr. 30, 1943, devoted the first part of his career to reforming his native language. In 1886 he founded a periodical to further the cause, and in 1901 he published a widely praised textbook on language teaching. During his tenure as professor of English at the University of Copenhagen from 1893 until his retirement in 1925, Jespersen produced a series of influential and highly original works on linguistics, notably *The Growth and Structure of the English Language* (1905), *A Modern English Grammar on Historical Principles* (7 vols., 1909–49), *Language: Its Nature and Development (1922), and The Philosophy of Grammar (1924).* He early advanced the view that a word's meaning can affect the development of its pronunciation.

The Swiss linguist **Ferdinand de Saussure**, b. Nov. 26, 1857, d. Feb. 22, 1913, is generally regarded as one of the formulators of structuralism. He viewed language as a system of signs that define one another through their relations rather than through their meanings. He distinguished sharply between the system of language (la langue) and its actual use (la parole), as well as between the historic study of language (diachronic) and its contemporary state (synchronic). After Saussure's death some of his students published their collated notes as his famous *Course in General Linguistics* (1916; Eng. Trans., 1966).

Avram Noam Chomsky, b. Philadelphia, Dec. 7, 1928, of the Massachusetts

Institute of Technology, is a prominent American linguist and political activist. His impact on the field of linguistics has been profound and lasting, changing the focus from a concern with methods of classification to a search for explanatory principles. The appearance of his *Syntactic Structures* (1957) initiated a fundamental shift in emphasis away from the limited perspectives of empiricism, which had dominated American linguistics and social science generally, to an investigation into language and universal grammar as a uniquely human mental faculty with its own biologically determined structure and principles.

Chomsky's major claims about language include the following. The ordinary use of language is creative (innovative and stimulus free). There is a fundamental distinction between knowledge and behaviour, and it is the former that is the proper focus of scientific study. An adequate description of a speaker's linguistic knowledge requires positing a set of abstract principles. The discovery of such a set of principles, acquired uniformly, in a relatively short time, on the basis of fragmentary evidence, suggests a biological component in language acquisition of some complexity. These principles of universal grammar are specific to the language faculty and contribute to a view of the mind as a set of mental organs, language being the one that is perhaps the best understood.

As social critic and political activist, Chomsky, a libertarian socialist, is acknowledged to be a persuasive critic of U.S. foreign policy. A fundamental aspect of his critique is the crucial role that U.S. academics and journalists play in the "manufacture of consent." His writings in this area include books on the Vietnam War (*American Power and the New Mandarins*, 1967), on the Middle East (*Peace in the Middle East*, 1974; *The Fateful Triangle*, 1983; and *Mobilizing Democracy*, 1991), and on terrorism (*The Culture of Terrorism*, 1988).

QUESTIONS TO DISCUSS AT SEMINARS

1. Grammar as a branch of linguistics.
2. Practical and theoretical grammar.
3. Syntagmatic and paradigmatic relations.
4.Types of languages. Morphological structure of Modern English.
5. Basic notions of morphology. Morphemes.
6. The notion of parts of speech.
7. The problem of notional and functional parts of speech.
8. Different classifications of parts of speech in English. Ch. Fries' classification (syntactico-distributional classification).
9. The noun as a part of speech.
10. The problem of the category of gender.
11. The category of number.
12. The category of case.
13. The verb as a part of speech.
14. The category of aspect.
15. The category of tense.
16. The category of mood.
17. The category of voice.
18. The verbals: the Infinitive, the Gerund, the Participle.
19. Word-group theory. General characteristics.
20. Classification of word-groups. Types of phrases.
21. Notion of the sentence. Basic properties of the sentence.
22. Classification of sentences. Types of sentences (communicative and structural).
23. Simple sentence.
24. Compound sentence.
25. Complex sentence.
26. Members of the sentence. Principal parts of the sentence.
27. Secondary parts of the sentence.

EXAMINATION QUESTIONS

1. Theoretical grammar as a branch of linguistics. Grammar and other branches, their interrelations.

2. Word as a main unit of morphology. Lexical and grammatical aspects of the word. Types of grammatical meanings.

3. Morphology and syntax as two main parts of grammar.

4. Language as a system and structure. Language levels. Linguistic units and their peculiarities.

5. The morpheme

6. Grammatical form, meaning, category.

7. Parts of speech. Different approaches to the classification of parts of speech.

8. Criteria for establishing parts of speech: semantic, formal and functional. Notional and functional parts of speech.

9. The noun as a part of speech. Morphological, semantic and syntactic properties of the noun.

10. The category of number. Formal and functional features of the number category. The problem of number in different subclasses of nouns.

11. The category of case. The evolution of theoretical interpretations of the category of case in English.

12. The problem of gender.

13. The verb as a part of speech. Grammatically relevant subclasses of verbs (transitive/intransitive, terminative/nonterminative).

14. The category of tense in English. Tense oppositions. Absolute and relative tense meanings of English tense-forms.

15. The category of aspect. Aspect opposition in English. Lexical aspect in English and its difference from its Russian counterpart.

16. The category of voice. Voice opposition. The number of voices in English. Peculiarities of English Passive voice as compared with Russian.

17. The category of mood. The problem of mood opposition. Mood and modality.

18. The nature of Perfect forms. Opposition within this category, its name and realization in finite and non-finite forms.

19. The Non-Finite forms of the verb.

20. Syntax as a part of grammar. Kinds of syntactic theories.

21. Basic syntactic notions: syntactic units, syntactic relations, syntactic connections.

22. The notion of the sentence. Structural and semantic characteristics of the sentence. Different approaches to the study of the sentence.

23. The structural types of sentences.

24. The simple sentence. Principal, secondary and detached parts of the sentence.

25. The utterance. Informative structure of the utterance. The theme and the rheme.

26. The utterance. Communicative and pragmatic types of utterances.

27. The complex sentence as a polypredicative construction. Types of subordinate clauses.

28. The composite sentence.

29. The semantic and structural organization of the text.

30. The problem of the text.

ЗАКЛЮЧЕНИЕ

WHY LEARN ENGLISH?

English belongs to the world.
But the world does not belong to English
Svetlana Ter-Minasova

Однажды Ксанф велел Эзопу купить кушанье, слаще которого нет на свете. Эзоп отправился на базар и купил язык. Философ был в восторге, отведав искусно приготовленное блюдо. Однако через день от него последовало новое распоряжение: достать такое кушанье, горше которого нет в мире! Эзоп отправился на базар и опять купил язык. «Я же велел купить самое дрянное, самое негодное на свете, а ты опять принес язык!» Эзоп ответил хозяину: «А есть ли что на свете лучше и прекраснее, чем язык? Разве не языком держится вся философия и вся ученость? Без языка ничего нельзя сделать – ни дать, ни взять, ни купить; порядок в государстве, законы, постановления – все это существует лишь благодаря языку. Всей нашей жизни основа – язык, нет ничего лучше на свете. Что же на свете хуже языка? Язык нам несет раздоры, заговоры, обманы, побоища, зависть, распри, войну; разве может быть что-то еще хуже, еще презреннее, чем язык?»

Итак, язык играет важнейшую роль в жизни человечества: он и объединяет, и разъединяет, и создает противоречия, и разрешает их. Знание иностранного языка престижно во всем мире, с ним связано продвижение по служебной лестнице, оно помогает сделать карьеру в самых разных сферах человеческой деятельности. Английский язык по вполне очевидным социально-историческим причинам стал главным языком международного общения и имеет все основания получить статус глобального, или всемирного языка. ***Общение правит миром, жизнью людей и определяет наше будущее (С.Г. Тер-Минасова).***

Прекрасное будущее английского языка: **стать стимулом для изучения других иностранных языков.**

Желаю успехов и радости в изучении иностранных языков!

ВОКАБУЛЯР К ЛЕКЦИОННОМУ КУРСУ

Ambiguity – двусмысленность, неопределенность, неясность

Analytical languages – языки, в которых грамматические отношения выражаются служебными словами, порядком слов, интонацией

Constituent – syn. – component – компонент

Creative aspect – способность продуцировать новые предложения, никогда ранее не звучавшие, и понимать предложения, ранее незнакомые

Declinable parts of speech – изменяемы части речи, грамматическая характеристика которых имеет флективное значение (существительные, прилагательные, глаголы – *русский яз.*)

Explicit – имеющий открытое выражение, маркированный

Functional parts of speech – служебные слова, грамматические слова, неспособные выступать самостоятельно в функции членов предложения и служащие для выражения разного рода семантико-синтаксических отношений между знаменательными словами

Grammar – раздел языкознания, изучающий формы словоизменения, формулы словосочетания и типы предложений

Grammatical category – одно из наиболее общих свойств лингвистических единиц вообще или некоторого их класса, получившее в языке грамматическое выражение (грамматическая категория падежа в русском яз.)

Grammatical form – способ выражения грамматического значения, способ построения словоформы. Соотношение данного грамматического содержания и грамматического способа в их единстве

Grammatical meaning – грамматическое (формальное) значение, т.е. значение отношения, выраженное не отдельным словом, а несамостоятельными элементами, дополнительными по отношению к основной части слова (мн. число имен существительных, форма глагола в 3 л., ед.ч. Present Simple)

Implicit – имплицитный, невыраженный

Incorporative languages – инкорпорирующие языки, полисинтетические

Indeclinable parts of speech – неизменяемые части речи, выделяемые только по признаку категориального значения и особенностям синтаксического функционирования

Isolation – isolated languages – языки изолирующие (тоже, что *аморфные*). Языки, не имеющие аффиксов, выражающие отношения между словами либо посредством соединения нескольких слов между собой по способу примыкания, либо посредством служебных слов

Kernel – ядро

Lexical meaning – лексическое значение, свойственное слову как виртуальной единице языка. Значение потенциального слова

Lexicon – словарь (слова и фразы языка)

Lexis – весь словарный запас языка

Linguistic competence – лингвистическая компетенция, в состав которой входят три компонента: лексическая компетенция (знание словарного состава языка, включающего лексические и грамматические элементы и способность использования их в речи), грамматическая компетенция (знание грамматических элементов языка и способность использовать их в речи), фонологическая компетенция (знание и умение воспринимать и воспроизводить звуковые единства языка и их варианты)

Linguistics – наука о языке

Morpheme – морфема, наименьшая (предельная, далее неделимая без потери данного качества) и регулярно воспроизводимая согласно моделям данного языка единица системы выражения

Morphology – раздел языкознания, изучающий разнообразные аспекты строения слова с точки зрения зависимости его значения от составляющих его морфем. Основным предметом морфологии является исследование системы морфологических противопоставлений, свойственных данному языку, т.е. системы его грамматических категорий и способов их выражения, включая учение о формообразовании

Notional (content) words – знаменательные слова (части речи) – слова, обладающие самостоятельным лексическим значением, способные функционировать в качестве членов предложения и не подверженные синтактико-фонетическим изменениям

Paradigm – парадигма, совокупность форм словоизменения данной лексической единицы

Parts of Speech – основные разряды, на которые распадается словарный состав языка вследствие наличия у них: а) некоторого общего (абстрактного, категориального значения, сопровождающего конкретное лексическое значение данного слова; б) системы грамматических категорий, специфических для данного разряда слов; в) особенностей синтаксического функционирования; г) особых типов формо- и словообразования.

Phonology – фонология, раздел языкознания, изучающий звуки речи как средство различения звуковых оболочек (звуковой стороны, выражения) слов и морфем

Syntagma – синтагма, речевое звено, словосочетание

Syntax – синтаксис, раздел языкознания, предметом которого является словосочетание, выступающее в качестве составляющего предложение, и предложение, выступающее в качестве основной единицы речи

Synthetical languages – синтетические языки, языки, в которых грамматические отношения выражаются в пределах словоформы (без помощи служебных слов, порядка слов

Type of language – тип языка. Обобщенное представление об основных разновидностях языковой структуры в типологической классификации языков

Word – предельная составляющая предложения, способная непосредственно соотноситься с предметом мысли как обобщенным отражением данного «кусочка» действительности и указывать на нее; вследствие этого слово приобретает определенные лексические, или вещественные свойства

ENGLISH-ENGLISH GLOSSARY

Adjective – the syntactic category, also lexical category, of words that function as the head of an **adjective phrase,** and that have the semantic effect of qualifying or describing the referents of nouns, e.g. *tall, bright, intelligent*

Adverb – the syntactic category, also lexical category, of words that qualify the verb such as manner adverbs like *quickly* and time adverbs like *soon.* The position of the adverb in the sentence depends on its semantic type, e.g. *John will soon eat lunch, John eats lunch quickly*

Affix – bound morpheme attached to a stem or root

Agent – the thematic role of the noun phrase whose referent does the action described by the verb, e.g. *George* in *George hugged Martha*

Agreement – the process by which one word in a sentence is altered depending on a property of another word in that sentence, such as gender or number, e.g., the addition of *s* to a regular verb when the subject is in third-person singular (in English)

Allomorph – alternative phonetic form of a morpheme; e.g. [-s], [-z], and [-iz] forms of the plural morphemes in *cats, dogs, and kisses*

Auxiliary verb – verbal elements, traditionally called "helping verbs", that co-occur with, and qualify, the main verb in a verb phrase with regard to such properties as tense, e.g. *have, be, will*

Bound morpheme – morpheme that must be attached to other morphemes, e.g. *-ly, -ed, non-*. Bound morphemes are **prefixes, suffixes, infixes, circumfixes**, and some **roots** such as *cran* in *cranberry*

Broadening – a semantic change in which the meaning of a word changes over time to become more encompassing, e.g. *dog* once meant a particular breed of *dog*

Case – a characteristic of nouns and pronouns, determined by the function in the sentence, and generally indicated by the morphological form of the word, e.g. *I* is in the Nominative case of the first person singular pronoun in English and functions as a subject; *me* is in the Accusative case and functions as an object

Case theory – the study of thematic roles and grammatical case in languages of the world

Cause/ causative – the thematic role of the noun phrase whose referent is a natural force that is responsible for a change, e.g. *the wind* in *The wind damaged the roof*

Circumfix – bound morpheme, parts of which occur in a word both before and after the root, e.g. *belov**ed***

Closed class a category, generally a **functional category,** that rarely has new words added to it, e.g. prepositions, conjunctions

Cognates – words in related languages that developed from the same ancestral root, such as English *man* and German *Mann*

Comparative linguistics – the branch of historical linguistics that explores language change by comparing related languages

Competence, linguistic – the knowledge of a language represented by the mental grammar that accounts for speakers' linguistic ability and creativity. For the most part, linguistic competence is unconscious knowledge

Compound – a word composed of two or more words, e.g. *childproof cap, washcloth*

Constituent – a syntactic unit in a **phrase structure tree,** e.g. *the girl* is a noun phrase constituent in the sentence *The boy loves the girl*

Constituent structure – the hierarchically arranged syntactic units such as noun phrase and verb phrase that underlie every sentence

Content words – the nouns, verbs, adjectives, and adverbs that constitute the major part of the vocabulary

Context – the discourse preceding an utterance together with the real-world knowledge of speakers and listeners

Coordinate structure – a syntactic structure in which two or more constituents of the same syntactic category are joined by a conjunction such as *and, or,* e.g. *bread and butter, the big dog or the small cat, huffing and puffing*

Count nouns – nouns that can be enumerated, e.g. *one potato, two potatoes*

Creativity of language, creative aspect of linguistic knowledge – speakers' ability to combine the finite number of linguistic units of their language to produce and understand an infinite range of novel sentences

Deep structure – any phrase structure tree generated by phrase structure rules of a transformational grammar. The basic syntactic structures of the grammar

Derivational morpheme – morpheme added to a stem or root to form a new stem or word, possibly, but not necessarily, resulting in a change in syntactic category, e.g.
-er added to a verb like *teach* to give the noun *teacher*

Descriptive grammar – a linguist's description or model of the mental grammar, including the units, structures, and rules. An explicit statement of what speakers know about their language

Direct object – the grammatical relation of a noun phrase when it appears immediately below the verb phrase and to the verb in deep structure; the noun phrase complement of a transitive verb, e.g. *the puppy* in *the boy found the puppy*

Discontinuous morpheme – a morpheme with multiple parts that occur in more than one place in a word or sentence, e.g. *be* and *ed* in English *beloved* (**circumfix**)

Discourse – a linguistic unit that comprises more than one sentence

Extension – the referential part of the meaning of an expression; the referent of a noun phrase

Form – phonological or gestural presentation of a morpheme or word

Free morpheme – a single morpheme that constitutes a word

Function word – a word that does not have clear lexical meaning but has a grammatical function; function words include **conjunctions, prepositions, articles, auxiliaries, pronouns and complementizers**

Goal – the thematic role of the noun phrase toward whose referent the action of the verb is directed, e.g. *the theater* in *The kids went to the theater*

Grammar – the mental representation of a speaker's linguistic competence; what a speaker knows about language, including its phonology, morphology, syntax, semantics, and lexicon. A linguistic description of a speaker's mental grammar

Grammatical categories – traditionally called "parts of speech", also called **syntactic categories;** expression of the same grammatical category can generally substitute for one another without loss of grammaticality, e.g. **noun phrase, verb phrase**

Grammatical morpheme – function word or bound morpheme required by the syntactic rules, e.g. *to* and *s* in *He wants **to** go*

Grammatical relation – any of several structural positions that a noun phrase may assume in a sentence (**subject, direct object**)

Hierarchical structure – the groupings and subgroupings of the parts of a sentence into syntactic categories, e.g. *the bird sang;* also the groupings and subgroupings of morphemes in a word, e.g. *unlikable.* Hierarchical structure is generally depicted in a **tree diagram**

Indo-European – the descriptive name given to the ancestor language of many modern language families, including Germanic, Slavic, and Romance. Also called **Proto-Indo-European**

Infinitive – an uninflected form of a verb, e.g. (*to) learn*

Infinitive sentence – an embedded sentence that does not have a tense and therefore is a "to" form, e.g. *sheepdogs to be fast readers* in the sentence *He believes sheepdogs to be fast readers*

Infix – a bound morpheme that is interested in the middle of a word or stem

Inflectional morpheme – bound grammatical morpheme that is affixed to a word according to rules of syntax, e.g. third-person singular verbal suffix -s

Intransitive verb – a verb that must not have a direct object complement, e.g. *sleep*

Lexical ambiguity – multiple meanings of sentences due to words that have multiple meanings, e.g. *He was lying on a stack of Bibles*

Lexical category – a general term for the word-level syntactic categories of noun, verb, adjective, and adverb. These are the categories of content words like *man, run, large, and rapidly,* as opposed to functional category words such as *the, and*

Lexicon – the component of the grammar containing speakers' knowledge about morphemes and words; a speaker's mental dictionary

Linguistic theory – a theory of the principles that characterize all human languages; the "laws of human language"; **Universal Grammar**

Main verb – the verb that functions as the head in the verb phrase, e.g. *save* in *Alex will always save money for travel*

Marked – the word that contains a derivational morpheme, e.g. *princess* is marked (suffix –*ess* belongs to feminine), the word derived from masculine *prince*

Meaning – the conceptual or semantic aspect of a sign or utterance that permits us to comprehend the message being conveyed. Expressions in language generally have both form – pronunciation or gesture – and meaning.

Mental grammar – the internalized grammar that a description grammar attempts to model:

Modal – an auxiliary verb other than *be, have,* and *do,* such as *can, must, should, ought to, etc.*

Monomorphemic word – a word that consists of one morpheme

Morpheme – smallest unit of linguistic meaning or function, e.g. *sheepdogs* contains three morphemes, *sheep, dog,* and the function morpheme for plural, *s*

Morphological rules – rules for combining morphemes to form stems and words

Morphology – the study of the structure of words; the component of the grammar that includes the rules of word formation

Noun – the syntactic category, also lexical category, of words that can function as the head of a noun phrase, such as *book, Jean, sincerity.* In many languages nouns have grammatical alternation for number, case, and gender and occur with determiners

Noun phrase – the syntactic category, also phrasal category, of expressions containing some form of a noun or pronoun as its head, and which functions as the subject or as various objects in a sentence

Open class – the class of lexical content words; a category of words that commonly adds new words, e.g. nouns, verbs

Participle – the form of a verb that occurs after the auxiliary verbs *be* and *have,* e.g. *kissing* in *John is kissing Mary* is presented Participle I; *kissed* in *John has kissed many girls,* is a Past Participle, or Participle II

Performance, linguistic – the *use* of linguistic competence in the production and comprehension of language; behavior as distinguished from linguistic knowledge

Phonology – the sound system of a language; the component of a grammar that includes the inventory of sounds (phonetic and phonemic units) and rules for their combination and pronunciation; the study of the sound systems of all languages

Prefix – an **affix** that is attached to the beginning of a morpheme or stem, e.g. *ir-* in *irregular*

Prescriptive grammar – rules of grammar brought about by grammarians' attempts to legislate what speakers' grammatical rules should be, rather than what they are

Reduplication – a morphological process that repeats or copies all or part of a word to produce a new word, e.g. *wishy-washy, teensy-weensy, hurly-burly*

Root – the morpheme that remains when all affixes are stripped from a complex word, e.g. *system* from *un-system-atic-ally*

Rules of syntax – principles of grammar that account for the grammatical of sentences, their hierarchical structure, their word order, whether there is structural ambiguity, etc.

Semantics – the study of the linguistic meaning or morphemes, words, phrases, and sentences

Sentence – a syntactic category of expressions consisting minimally of a **noun phrase,** followed by an **auxiliary,** followed by a **verb phrase** in deep structure

Speech act – the action or intent that a speaker accomplishes when using language in context, the meaning of which is inferred by hearers, e.g. *There is a snake behind you* may be intended as a warning in certain contexts, or may in other contexts merely be a statement of fact

Stem – the base to which one or more affixes are attached to create a more complex form that may be another stem or a word

Structural ambiguity – the phenomenon in which the same sequence of words has two or more meanings based on different phrase structure analyses, e.g. *He saw a boy with a telescope*

Subject – the grammatical relation of a noun phrase to a sentence when it appears immediately below that sentence in a phrase structure tree, e.g. *the zebra* in *The zebra has stripes*

Subject-verb agreement – the addition of an inflectional morpheme to the main verb depending on a property of the noun phrase subject, such as number or gender, e.g. *A greyhound runs fast* VS *Greyhounds run fast*

Suffix – an affix that is attached to the end of a morpheme or stem, e.g. *-er* in *Lew is taller than Bill*

Suppletive forms – refer to inflected morphemes in which the regular rules do not apply, e.g. *went* as the past tense of *go*

Surface structure – the structure that results from applying transformational rules to a deep structure. It is syntactically closest to actual utterances

Syntax – the rules of sentence formation; the component of the mental grammar that represents speakers' knowledge of the structure of phrases and sentences

Thematic role – the semantic relationship between the verb and the noun phrase of a sentence, such as **agent, theme, location, instrument, goal, source**

Theme – the thematic role of the noun phrase whose referent undergoes the action of the verb, e.g. *Martha* in *George hugged Martha*

Transitive verb – a verb that selects an obligatory noun-phrase complement, e.g. *find*

Tree diagram – a graphical representation of the linear and hierarchical structure of a phrase or sentence

Universal Grammar – the innate principles and properties that pertain to the grammars of all human languages

Verb – the syntactic category, also lexical category, of words that can be the head of a verb phrase. Verbs denote actions, sensations, and states, e.g. *climb, hear, understand*

Verb phrase – the syntactic category of expressions that contains a verb as its head along with its complements such as noun phrases and prepositional phrases, e.g. *gave the book to the child*

ГЛОССАРИЙ

Актуальное членение предложений – коммуникативное членение предложения на тему (данное, топик) и рему (новое, комментарий), являющиеся носителями соответственно известной, исходной информации и новой, актуальной информации

Алломорфа – вариант, альтернат, разновидность, данная конкретная манифестация морфемы

Высказывание – предложение, актуализованное в речи

Грамматика – а) грамматический строй языка; б) отрасль языкознания, изучающая этот строй. Различают описательные (дескриптивные), объяснительные, синхронные, исторические (диахронические) грамматики. Разделы грамматики: морфология, синтаксис, грамматика текста.

Грамматика текста – раздел грамматики, занимающейся анализом таких проблем, как способы связи между предложениями, закономерности структурирования предложения в зависимости от его лингвистического окружения, типология текста и др.

Грамматическая категория – обозначение конкретных содержательных параметров морфологии и синтаксиса. В этом смысле говорят о грамматических категориях рода, числа, падежа, вида, наклонения и т.д. Грамматически категории делятся на именные и глагольные, общие и частные, словоизменительные и классификационные, открытые и скрытые, морфологические и синтаксические

Грамматическое значение – содержательная сущность, объединяющая группы слов и типы предложений на основе реализации неких обобщенных семантических параметров, таких, как «предметность», «действие» и т.д.

Дискурс – понятие, перекликающееся с понятием текст, но не тождественное ему. В отличие от текста дискурс не сводится только к письменной формк речи, спонтанен, а значит, не идеален с точки зрения формы, структурно рыхл, стилистически шероховат. Дискурс есть вербальная реакция человека на ситуацию общения; он есть речь, «погруженная в жизнь», вид деятельности человека наряду с другими видами деятельности. Обладает рядом отличительных формальных признаков, например, наличием так называемой дискурсивной лексики

Дискурсивная лексика – вербальные элементы дискурса, адекватная интерпретация которых невозможна в изоляции, а возможна лишь при условии включенности их в структуру речи. К дискурсивной лексике грамматисты относят междометия (*oh, aha*), образования сентенционального типа (*you know, you see),* частицы (*even, only)* и некоторые другие

Единство сверхфразовое – сложное синтаксическое целое, основная единица текста, внутритекстовый блок, представляющий собой цепочки предложений, характеризуемые относительной структурной и смысловой завершенностью

Классификация языков (типология языков) – языки мира могут классифицироваться по трем признакам: 1) по происхождению (генетическая классификация); 2) по внутриструктурному устройству (морфологическая классификация); 3) по синтаксическому принципу

Модель предложения функциональная – опирается на понятие члена предложения и описывается в терминах «субъект», «предикат», «объект» и т.д.

Модель предложения категориальная – в отличие от функциональной модели предложения отражает частеречную природу слов, входящих в состав предложения, и описывается в терминах «существительное», «глагол», «прилагательное» и т.д.

Морфологическая структура слова – механика соединения морфем внутри слова, набор морфем внутри словоформы. Описывается в таких терминах, как «корень», «префикс», «флексия» и т.д.

Морфология – раздел науки о языке, изучающий, с одной стороны, словообразование, а с другой – словоизменение. Объектом морфологии как науки о словообразовании является морфологическая структура слова, описываемая в таких терминах, как «корень», «префикс», «флексия» и т.д. Объектом морфологии как науки о словоизменении является парадигматика слова, т.е. закономерности изменений его формы по имеющимся у него как у части речи словоизменительным категориям, например, по категории числа у существительных *table – tables,* по категории времени у глаголов *walk – walked,* по категории падежа у некоторых классов местоимений *he – him* и т.д.

Норма грамматическая – свод правил, которыми надлежит руководствоваться в речевой деятельности, которым специально и целенаправленно обучают и нарушение которых рассматривается как отклонение от общепринятого стандарта, а потому обычно корректируется

Оппозиция – формальное противопоставление определенного типа, в рамках которого реализуется грамматическая категория. Оппозиции различаются по количественному признаку (бинарные, тринарные и многочленные) и качественному признаку (эквиполентные, привативные и градуальные)

Парадигматика слова – закономерности изменений формы слова по имеющимся у него как у части речи словоизменительным категориям, например, по категории числа у существительных, категории времени у глаголов и т.д.

Предикат – то же, что сказуемое

Предикативность – способность предложения называть признак того, о чем в предложении идет речь. Свидетельством предикативности предложения является наличие предиката. Предложение языка реализует базовую модель суждения S(entence) есть P(redicate)

Предложение (законченное словосочетание, предикативное словосочетание, предикативная синтагма) – грамматически и интонационно оформленная по законам данного языка целостная единица речи, являющаяся главным средством формирования, выражения и сообщения мысли о некоторой действительности и отношения к ней говорящего

Предложение простое – содержит один предикативный центр, одну предикацию

Предложение сложное – содержит более, чем один предикативный центр, выражает более, чем одну предикацию

Синтаксис – раздел грамматики, изучающий 1) теорию словосочетания; 2) теорию предложения. Как теория словосочетания синтаксис рассматривает такие вопросы, как природа компонентов словосочетания, типы синтаксических связей, типы словосочетаний и др. как теория предложения синтаксис представляет собой учение о структурных и коммуникативных типах предложения, способах связи между компонентами сложного предложения, типах придаточных предложений в рамках сложноподчиненных и др.

Субституция – предполагает замену полнозначного элемента или элементов предшествующего контекста неполнозначным элементом или элементами в последующем контексте: *Who knows Mary? – I do*

Текст – единица высшего языкового уровня, обладающая собственными категориями и единицами, а также законами построения, т.е. особой специфической грамматикой (грамматикой текста). Текст есть образчик письменной речи, литературно, жанрово и стилистически обработанной, характеризующейся композиционной продуманностью, стилистической выверенностью, синтаксической правильностью и структурной завершенностью

Типология языков морфологическая – типологизация языков по морфологическому принципу, в соответствии с которым выделяют **языки флективного, агглютинативного, инкорпорирующего и изолирующего типов**

Языки агглютинативного типа – характеризуются особой системой формообразования, заключающейся в «приклеивании» энного количества аффиксов к корню и друг к другу. Сам термин «агглютинация» и означает «приклеивание»

Языки изолирующего типа – слова в языках изолирующего типа характеризуются отсутствием или крайней скудостью словоизменительных флексий, что ведет к резкому повышению роли порядка слов в предложении, так как именно позиция в предложении актуализирует частеречную принадлежность слова и его синтаксическую функцию

Языки инкорпорирующего типа – языки, основной чертой морфологии которых является наличие так называемых слов-предложений, т.е. комплексных многокомпонентных слов, характеризуемых способностью к предицированию

Языки флективного типа – основным признаком языков флективного типа является наличие так называемой внутренней флекции, т.е. грамматически значимого фонетического чередования в корне слова. При этом не исключено наличие и внешней флексии – т.е. грамматического форманта, присоединяемого к корню извне. Для языков данного типа обычным является нескольких склонений в классе имен и нескольких спряжений в классе глаголов. В зависимости от того, насколько бедно или богато представлена во флективных языках словоизменительная морфология, эти языки принято делить на два подтипа: аналитические и синтетические

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