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ТЕОРЕТИЧНА ГРАМАТИКА АНГЛІЙСЬКОЇ МОВИ
Курс лекцій для студентів IV курсу напряму підготовки 6.020303. Філологія.
Мова та література (англійська).

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Теоретична граматика англійської мови. Курс лекцій для студентів IV курсу напряму підготовки 6.020303. Філологія. Мова та література (англійська) денної, заочної та екстернатної форм навчання.

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Дані лекції розраховані на студентів IV курсу напряму підготовки 6.020303. Філологія. Мова та література (англійська). Їхня мета – надати студентам системні знання з теоретичної граматики англійської мови, ознайомити з різними напрямками теоретичних граматичних досліджень, розширити їхній загальний кругозір та мовленнєву компетенцію щодо наукової термінології, навчити аналізувати граматичні явища англійської мови, розумітися на проблемних питаннях її морфологічної та синтаксичної будови.

Лекційний курс укладено у відповідності до кредитно-модульної системи за наступними темами: III змістовий модуль «Морфологічна система сучасної сучасної англійської мови», IV змістовий модуль «Синтаксична система сучасної сучасної англійської мови».

Module 1. Morphology
Lecture 1. Introduction to the course of theoretical grammar

1. Stages of the history of grammar studies.

2. Theoretical grammar vs. practical grammar. Morphology and syntax as two parts of linguistic description. Models of linguistic description.

3. Language as a semiotic system. Classification of lingual units into unilateral and bilateral, segmental and suprasegmental. Segmental language levels. Isomorphism in organization of lingual units.

4. Language as a system and a structure. Systemic and structural approaches to language.

5. Language and speech. Paradigmatic and syntagmatic relations between lingual units.

1. The term "grammar" goes back to a Greek word that may be translated as the "art of writing". Macmillan English Dictionary defines grammar as "the set of rules that describe the structure of language and control the way that sentences are formed." In some linguistic schools the term is often used as the synonym of linguistics.

The **history of grammatical studies** can be roughly divided into two periods: the age of the prescriptive grammar (from the sixteenth century to the end of the nineteenth century) and the age of scientific grammar. From the late nineteenth century to the 1940s there were two types of grammars in use – the prescriptive and the classical scientific grammars. In the 1940s there were introduced two new types of grammar studies – first structural grammar and later transformational generative grammar.

Flourishing of **prescriptive grammar** begins in the XVIII century, the age of Enlightenment. The most influential grammar of the period was R. Lowth's *Short Introduction to English Grammar* (1762). The aim of prescriptive grammar was **to reduce the English language to rules and set up a standard of correct usage**. The grammarians settled disputable points by appealing to reason or to logic. However, in the nineteenth century, with the development of historical-comparative linguistics, linguists began to realize the diversity of human language, and to question fundamental assumptions about the relationship between language and logic. It became apparent that there was not such a thing as the most natural way to express a thought, and therefore logic could no longer be relied upon as a basis for studying the structure of language. As Otto Jespersen said, "In many cases what gives itself out as logic, is not logic at all, but Latin grammar disguised". Thus, in Latin, the predicative and the subject must have the form of the nominative case, so the English sentence *It is me* was one of those which were considered incorrect ("ungrammatical") by many authors of prescriptive grammars up to the twentieth century.

In spite of certain shortcomings, prescriptive grammars were tremendously useful as they gave **a detailed description of English morphology and syntax**. They introduced many new notions, such as attribute and adverbial modifier. The objects were classified into direct, indirect and prepositional. Such new concepts as completion, expansion, enlargement, and extension began to be used to denote the

syntactic processes of adding various elements into the subject-predicate skeleton of the sentence. Sentences were divided into simple, compound, and complex.

By the end of the nineteenth century the description of the grammatical system had been completed. There was a need for a grammar which would give a scientific explanation of different grammatical phenomena. The publication of Henry Sweet's *New English Grammar, Logical and Historical* (1891) heralded the foundation of **classical scientific grammar**. H. Sweet stated the difference in purpose between scientific and prescriptive grammars: "As my explanation claims to be scientific, I confine myself to the statement and explanation of facts, without attempting to settle the relative correctness of divergent uses. If an "ungrammatical" expression such as *it is me* is in general use, I accept it as such…"

Classical scientific grammar was understood as **a combination of both descriptive and explanatory grammars**. The grammarians investigated the main grammatical phenomena, defined some general grammatical concepts, grammatical categories, inflexions, form words, logical and grammatical relations between words. H. Sweet specified three main features characterizing parts of speech: meaning, form, and function. He had a purely synchronic approach to the description of phenomena of modern languages and insisted on the priority of oral speech over written speech.

O.Jespersen, another important representative of classical scientific grammar, was among the first to question the adequacy of the traditional system of parts of speech. Besides, he elaborated the concept of ranks in syntactic relations, introduced symbols for parts of speech and parts of the sentence: S for subject, V for verb, v for auxiliary verb, O for object, I for infinitive, etc. As for the technique of linguistic description, his book, *Analytical Syntax*, is a forerunner of structural grammar, which makes use of such denotations. Like Sweet, Jespersen worked out such general concepts of grammatical theory as the correspondence of grammatical and logical categories and the definition and delimitation of morphology and syntax. However, his conclusions as to the grammatical structure of modern English are somewhat reactionary: he tried to prove that English as a language of analytical type has reached a higher stage of development in comparison with other European languages.

Structural grammar started with criticism of traditional grammar, without making difference between prescriptive and scientific grammars. Charles Fries stated that pupils should begin their study of grammar after ridding their minds of all previously obtained notions concerning language. Due to application of newly developed techniques, such as the distributional analysis and substitution, structuralists tried to dispense with the traditional eight parts of speech and traditional terms.

The method developed by N. Chomsky became known as **transformational generative grammar**. The aim of this grammar was to define "kernel sentences" and procedures of generating "transform sentences" from underlying "deep structures".

2. Normally, in education, grammar is classified in practical and theoretical. The aim of **practical** (school or prescriptive) grammar is the description of grammar rules that are necessary to understand and formulate sentences. The aim of **theoretical** (scientific) grammar is to offer explanation for these rules. Generally speaking, theoretical grammar deals with the language as a functional system. Unlike practical

grammar, which prescribes some definite rules of usage, theoretical grammar analyses language facts without giving any prescriptions. It often does not offer ready-made solutions, and there are grammatical phenomena that are interpreted in different ways by different scholars. The reason for this is, on the one hand, the existence of different schools in linguistics with their distinct methods of analysis and, consequently, with their own treatment of the material. On the other hand, many language facts are too complicated, so there can be proposed some possible, but not final ways of solving them.

In theoretical grammar there are distinguished three **models of linguistic description – semantic, syntactic and pragmatic** – which are related to three types of relations that lingual units (or linguistic signs) can go into:

–The relation between a lingual unit and an object of extralingual reality, e.g. between the word 'table' and a definite piece of furniture. This type of meaning is called **referential** and it is studied by **semantics**.

–The relation between lingual units themselves: no lingual unit can be used independently; it serves as an element in the system of other units. This kind of meaning is called **syntactic** (or **formal**) and it is studied by **syntax**.

–The relation between a unit and a person who uses it. People use language as an instrument for their purpose, and one and the same word or sentence may acquire different meanings in communication. This type of meaning is called **pragmatic (or functional)** and it is studied by **pragmatics**.

The first part of the twentieth century was characterized by a formal approach to language study. Only syntactic relations between linguistic units served as the basis for linguistic analysis while the reference of words to the objective reality (referential meaning) and language users (pragmatic meaning) were not considered. Later, semantic and pragmatic analyses came into use. Naturally, in order to get a broad description of the language, all the three approaches must be combined.

3. Any human language has two main functions: the communicative function and the expressive (or representative) function: human language is the living form of thought. These two functions are closely interrelated as the expressive function of language is realized in the process of speech communication.

The expressive function of language is performed by means of linguistic signs and that is why we say that language is a **semiotic** system. It means that linguistic signs are **informative** and **meaningful**. Besides language, there are other examples of semiotic systems, such as traffic lights, Code Morse, Brighton Alphabet, computer languages, etc. The difference between language as a semiotic system and other semiotic systems consists in the following: language is universal, natural, and used by all members of society while any other sign systems are artificial, depend on the sphere of usage and are much simpler (e.g. traffic lights use a system of colours to instruct drivers and people to go or to stop).

Any lingual unit is a double entity: it **unites a concept and a sound image**. Accordingly, we distinguish **plane of content** (or the meaning) and **the plane of expression** (or the form). The plane of content comprises the purely semantic elements of lingual units, while the plane of expression comprises the material lingual units taken by themselves, apart from the meanings rendered by them. The

forms of linguistic units bear no natural resemblance to their meaning. The link between them is a matter of convention, and conventions differ radically across languages.

Language units are divided into unilateral and bilateral depending on the realization of the plane of content and the plane of expression in them. Most language units have two planes to them. They are **bilateral** units: the morpheme, the word, the word-group, the sentence. Traditionally the phoneme is understood as a **unilateral** unit, which has form but does not have meaning, though phonosemantics studies the meanings of phonemes (e.g. small/large, pleasant/unpleasant, etc).

On the basis of segmental presentation, lingual units are subdivided into segmental and suprasegmental. **Segmental language units** are phonemic strings of various statuses: syllables, morphemes, words, word-groups, etc. **Suprasegmental units** do not exist by themselves, but are realized together with segmental units, conveying different modificational meanings. Suprasegmental units comprise intonation patterns, stresses, pauses, and patterns of word order.

Language units are hierarchically organized into **segmental language levels** which are represented by the corresponding level units:

–**phonemic** level, formed by phonemes, minimal unilateral units having constituting and differentiating functions (e.g. *bag – back*);

–**morphemic** level, formed by morphemes, minimal bilateral units whose meaning, however, is more abstract than that of words;

–**lexemic** level, which is organized by words, major nominative units (units of mono-nomination);

–**phrasemic** level, which is formed by word-groups (or phrases), units of polynomination;

–**proposemic** level, which is constituted by sentences, major syntactic and communicative units;

–**supra**-**proposemic** level, which is organized by superphrasal unities, or super-sentential constructions, i.e. sentence complexes which may or may not coincide with the paragraph, and the whole text.

Segmental lingual units are built up in the same way and that is why the units of a lower level serve as the building material for the units of a higher level. This similarity of organization of lingual units is called **isomorphism**. Thus a small number of elements at one level can enter into thousands of different combinations to form units at a higher level.

4. The hierarchical organization of language levels shows that language is a structure. **Structure** means hierarchical layering of parts in constituting the whole as, for example, in organizing segmental language levels.

Each language level has its own system. **System** implies the characterization of a complex object as made up of separate parts (e.g. the system of sounds). Language is regarded as a system of elements (or signs, units) that depend on each other and exist only in a system. The first scientists to speak about language as a system were Beaudouin de Courtenay and Ferdinand de Saussure.

Saussure's most celebrated book became *The Course of Linguistic Theory* composed posthumously by his pupils on the basis of his lectures of 1906-11. The major of Saussure's ideas concerning language comprise the following:

(1) Language is a system of interrelated and interdependent signs.

(2) Language as a system of signals can be compared with other systems of signals (alphabet for the deaf and dumb, military signals, symbolic rituals, etc.).

(3) Language has two sides to it: system of language or language proper (*langue*) and speech (*parole*).

(4) The language sign is a bilateral unit comprising form and meaning.

(5) The language sign is absolutely arbitrary or relatively motivated: the same phenomena have different nominations in different languages and there is different segmentation in "the picture of the world", e.g. *arrow –shoot; стріла –стріляти.*

(6) Language should be studied in its synchrony.

(7) The language system should be studied by means of opposition of concrete language units obtained as a result of segmentation of a speech sequence and by means of comparison of isolated language elements.

In spite of differences between different linguistic schools, modern linguistics generally views language both as **a structure and a system**.

5. As has been said before, distinction between language and speech was made explicit by Ferdinand de Saussure, the Swiss scholar usually credited with establishing principles of modern linguistics.

Language is known to all the members of a given language community due to which people understand one another. Is a collective body of knowledge, a set of basic elements, but these elements can form an infinite variety of combinations. The system of language includes, on the one hand, the body of material units –sounds, morphemes, words; on the other hand, the rules of their usage.

Speech is closely connected with language, as it is the result of using the language, the result of a definite act of speaking. Speech is individual, personal while language is common for all individuals. To illustrate the difference between language and speech let us compare a definite game of chess and a set of rules how to play chess.

The language system comprises means of expression (phonological, lexical and grammatical), while speech is the manifestation of the system of language in the process of intercourse. Speech is both the act of producing utterances and the utterances themselves, i.e. the text. Speech is a unity of all utterances and texts in the given language. Language is opposed to speech and accordingly language units are opposed to speech units. The language unit *phoneme* is opposed to the speech unit – *sound*; the *sentence* is opposed to the *utterance;* the *text* is opposed to the *discourse*.

A lingual unit can enter into relations of two different kinds. It enters into **paradigmatic relations** with all the units that can also occur in the same environment. Paradigmatic relations are associated with the sphere of language. Paradigmatic relations are not actually observed in utterances being "relations in the absence". They are based on association, opposition and substitution between members of a paradigm, e.g. the relations between different number, case, gender or article forms of the noun; different person, number, tense, aspect, voice and mood

forms of the verb; different sentence patterns, etc. For instance, in the word-group *a pint of milk* the word *pint* is in paradigmatic relations with the words *bottle, cup,* etc. The article *a* can enter into paradigmatic relations with the units *the, this, one, same,* etc.

According to different principles of similarity paradigmatic relations can be of three types: semantic, formal and functional.

Semantic paradigmatic relations are based on the similarity of meaning: *a book to read = a book for reading. He <u>used to</u> practice English every day – He <u>would</u> practice English every day.*

Formal paradigmatic relations are based on the similarity of forms. Such relations exist between the members of a paradigm: *man – men; play – played – will play – is playing.*

Functional paradigmatic relations are based on the similarity of function. They are established between the elements that can occur in the same position. For instance, noun determiners: *a, the, this, his, Ann's, some, each,* etc.

Syntagmatic relations are found in speech. A linguistic unit enters into syntagmatic relations with other units of the same level it occurs with. Syntagmatic relations are **immediate linear relations** between lingual elements **in a segmental sequence**, a syntagma. Being actually observed, they are "relations in the presence".

Syntagmatic relations exist at every language level. E.g. in the word-group *a pint of milk* the word *pint* contrasts with *a, of, milk*; within the word *pint – p, i, n* and *t* are in syntagmatic relations.

Syntagmatic relations can be of three different types: coordinate, subordinate and predicative.

Coordinate syntagmatic relations exist between the homogeneous linguistic units that are equal in rank, that is, they are the relations of independence: <u>*you and me*</u>; *They were <u>tired but happy</u>*.

Subordinate syntagmatic relations are the relations of dependence when one linguistic unit depends on the other: *teach + er* – morphological level; *a smart student* – word-group level; predicative and subordinate clauses – sentence level. On the word-group level subordinate syntagmatic relations are further classified into objective (P+O), attributive (N+Attr.), and adverbial (V+Adv. mod.).

Predicative syntagmatic relations are the relations of interdependence and are found in structures of primary and secondary predication, e.g. <u>*John has come*</u>. *I saw <u>him entering</u> the house*.

Lecture 2. Morphemic structure of the word

1. Morphology and syntax as two major divisions of grammar. The problem of defining the word.
2. Notion of the morpheme and its interpretation by different linguistic schools.
3. Traditional classification of morphemes.
4. Alloemic theory. Distributional analysis. Types of distributions.
5. Distributional classification of morphemes.

1. As **the word** is the main unit of traditional grammatical theory, it serves the basis of the distinction which is frequently drawn between morphology and syntax. **Morphology** deals with the internal structure of words, peculiarities of their grammatical categories and their semantics while traditional **syntax** deals with the rules governing combination of words in sentences (and texts in modern linguistics). We can therefore say that the word is the main unit of morphology.

However, there is no definition of the **word** which could be applied to typologically different languages. The word is defined on the basis of formal, functional or mixed criteria as a minimal positionally independent language unit, a minimal language unit capable of syntactic functioning, a minimal nominative language unit, a minimal potential sentence, a minimal free linguistic form, an elementary component of the sentence, a meaningful grammatically arranged combination of sounds, an uninterrupted string of morphemes, etc.

The **difficulty of defining the word** is caused by its content and formal diversity. **The content diversity** arises from division of words into notional and functional, the former possessing complete nominative value, the latter being partially desemantised. **The formal diversity** of words in modern English is manifested, for example, by compound nouns which can be written together, through a hyphen, or separately, though in traditional definitions, indivisibility is considered to be one of the most important characteristics of the word.

Because of the difficulties of its definition, structural linguistics theories attempt to make a description of language without taking into account the notion of the word. Thus representatives of Descriptive Linguistics recognize not the word but the morpheme and the phoneme as the basic units of linguistic description due to their elemental segmental character. Nevertheless, the structure of the word is one of the most important typological characteristics of a language: the morphological system of a given language reveals its properties through the morphemic structure of words.

2. The **morpheme** is a lower unit of morphological analysis of a language and a unit of lower level in the hierarchy of segmental language levels. It is one of the central notions of grammar.

The concept of the morpheme as a **generalized linear component of the word** was first used by Beaudouin de Courtenay. It is also defined as the **minimal meaningful language unit**. However, different linguistic schools have used the term in different ways. For American descriptivists, the morpheme is any form of expressing grammatical relations (e.g. functional words, word order). For linguists of the Prague school the morpheme is the grammatical content of a relation expressed by a certain formant (e.g. the element –ом in the Russian word "лесом" is understood as containing three morphemes: those of case, number, and gender). Some other scholars regard intonation and stress as morphemes.

3. In traditional grammar morphemes are differentiated on the basis of two criteria: positional (the place of marginal morphemes in relation to the central ones) and semantic or functional (the correlative contribution of morphemes to the general meaning of the word). The combination of these criteria results in the so-called **rational classification of morphemes**. Morphemes are first divided into roots and affixes. According to V.N. Yartseva, a root morpheme is the identical part in words

belonging to different lexico-grammatical classes (*black*, *blacken*). Affixes, according to their position, fall into suffixes, prefixes, inflexions, and infixes. A root morpheme is an indispensable part of the word, while affixes are optional. Roots express the concrete part of the meaning of the word; affixes, the specificational part of the meaning of the word. Roots, suffixes and prefixes perform word-building functions and form the stem of the word. Inflexions perform word-changing functions and render different morphological categories of the word. Suffixes and prefixes are derivational affixes, while inflexions are grammatical affixes. The same morpheme – depending on its position –can be a root, a suffix or a prefix. M.Y.Blokh exemplifies it with the following words: *over*, *overall*, *overly*, *pull-over*).The meaningful absence of explicit expression of a grammatical function is called the zero morpheme. According to A.I. Smirnitsky, the word *teacher* has three morphemes: root+suffix+zero inflection: *teacher* can be opposed to *teachers* having the inflexion *–s*. The notion of the zero morpheme remains controversial. Thus I.P. Ivanova points out the discrepancy between the definition pf the morpheme as a bilateral lingual unit and the zero morpheme which has content but has no expression.

4. The correlation between the formal and functional aspects of morphemes can be further studied in the light of the **"allo-emic" theory** which was proposed by Descriptive Linguistics and is broadly used by other linguistic schools. Lingual units are described by all-terms and eme-terms. Eme-terms are the generalized, invariant language units: phonemes, morphemes. Allo-terms are concrete manifestations, or variants, of the generalized units dependent on the lingual context: allophones and allomorphs.

The allo-emic identification of lingual elements is achieved by means of the **distributional analysis**. The distribution of a unit is the total of all its environments. The environment may be right or left. In the distributional analysis at the morphemic level the analysed text is first divided into linguistically relevant segments called "morphs": *He/ had/ never/tak/en/ more/ than/ a/ fort/night/'s / holi/day/ in /the/ year /for /a quart/er/ of /a /century*. At the second stage, the environmental features of the morphs are established and the distributional identification is realized.

There are three **types of distribution**: contrastive, non-contrastive and complementary. The morphs are in contrastive distribution if their meanings (functions) are different; they constitute different morphemes (*-ed* and *–ing* in *return* and *returning*). The morphs are in non-contrastive distribution if their meaning (function) is the same; they constitute free variants of the same morpheme (*-ed* and *–t* in *leaned* and *learnt*). The morphs are in complementary distribution if they have the same meaning and the difference in their form is explained by different environments. In this case they are the allomorphs of the same morpheme (e.g. depending on the right-hand environment the suffix *–s* may be pronounced */s/*, */z/* or */iz/*: *books*, *toys* or *roses*).

6. **Distributional classification** of morphemes was worked out on the basis of distributional analysis and serves as a supplement to the traditional classification. A. On the basis of the **degree of self-dependence** morphemes fall into free and bound. Free morphemes can build up words by themselves (e.g. *beauty-*). Bound morphemes

can only function as part of a word (e.g. *–full*). B. On the basis of **formal presentation** overt and covert morphemes are distinguished (e.g. the morpheme –s and the zero morpheme in the contrastive pair of words: *books – book*). C. On the basis of **segmental relation** morphemes are divided into segmental (linear segments of words) and suprasegmental (intonation contours, stresses, pauses). D. On the basis of **grammatical alternation** additive and replacive morphemes are distinguished. Additive morphemes are outer grammatical suffixes (*read+s*). Replacive morphemes are root phonemes of grammatical interchange (*take –took, man –men*). E. On the basis of the **linear characteristic** morphemes may be continuous (*change+d*) or discontinuous (*is ... ing*).

Lecture 3. Categorial structure of the word
1. Grammatical meaning vs. lexical meaning. Types of grammatical meanings.
2. Grammatical form and its types. Gradation of analytical forms.
3. Relativity of division of grammar into morphology and syntax. Correlative role of synthetic and analytical forms in modern English and the typology of the language.
4. Grammatical category.
5. Oppositional basis of the grammatical category. Types of oppositions.
6. Oppositional reduction of grammatical forms in intercourse.

1. The word combines in its semantic structure two meanings – lexical and grammatical. **Lexical** meaning is the individual meaning of a word. **Grammatical** meaning is the meaning of the whole class or a subclass of words. For example, the class of nouns has the grammatical meaning of substance (or thingness). If we take a noun (*table*) we may say that it possesses its individual lexical meaning ("a piece of furniture that contains a flat surface held above the floor, usually by legs") and a grammatical meaning of substance. Besides, the noun *table* has the grammatical meaning of a subclass – countableness. Likewise any verb combines its individual lexical meaning with the grammatical meaning of action or process. An adjective combines its individual lexical meaning with the grammatical meaning of the whole class of adjectives – property or quality of an object. Adverbs possess the grammatical meaning of "secondary property": property of a process (if it modifies a verb) or property of another property (if it modifies an adjective).

There are some classes of words that are devoid of any lexical meaning and possess a grammatical meaning only. This can be explained by the fact that they have no referents in the objective reality. All function words belong to this group – articles, particles, prepositions, etc.

Grammatical meaning may be explicit and implicit. The **explicit** grammatical meaning is always marked morphologically. In the word *cats* the grammatical meaning of plurality is shown in the form of the noun with the help of the inflexion -s; in the word *cat's* the grammatical meaning of possessiveness is shown by the inflexion *'s*; the explicit grammatical meaning of passiveness in the verbal form *is asked* is shown through the combination of the auxiliary verb *to be* with the past participle of the notional verb.

The **implicit** grammatical meaning is not expressed formally (e.g. the word *table* does not contain any hints in its form as to its being inanimate or singular). The implicit grammatical meaning may be of two types – general and dependent. The **general** grammatical meaning is the meaning of a part of speech (e.g. nouns have the general grammatical meaning of substance). The **dependent** grammatical meaning is the meaning of a subclass within the same part of speech. For instance, any verb possesses the dependent grammatical meaning of transitivity/intransitivity, terminativeness/non-terminativeness, stativeness/non-stativeness; nouns have the dependent grammatical meaning of contableness/uncountableness and animateness/inanimateness. The most important thing about the dependent grammatical meaning is that it influences the realization of grammatical categories restricting them to a subclass. Thus the dependent grammatical meaning of countableness/uncountableness influences the realization of the grammatical category of number as the number category is realized only within the subclass of countable nouns; the grammatical meaning of animateness/inanimateness influences the realization of the grammatical category of case, the grammatical meaning of teminativeness/non-terminativeness affects the realization of the category of aspect.

2. The grammatical meaning of a word is revealed through its **grammatical form**: the combination of the stem of the word with a grammatical formant, e.g. *knows*, *knew*, *will know*. The total of grammatical forms of a word comprises its **paradigm**. The most general meanings expressed by systemic correlations of word-forms are **categorial grammatical meanings**, e.g. the word forms *reads*, *wants*, *snatches* have the categorial grammatical meanings of the third person, singular number.

In modern English grammatical forms are of two formal types: synthetic and analytical. **Synthetic grammatical forms** are realized by the inner morphemic composition of the word. They can be based on outer inflection, inner inflexion, and suppletivity. **Outer inflexion** means adding a grammatical formant to the stem: *apple +-s*, *look = -ed*. **Inner inflexion** is a vowel interchange, which is found in some basic words, such as irregular verbs (*sing –sang –sung*), some nouns (*man – men*) or adjectives (*far –further*). **Suppletivity** is based on correlation of different roots and is found in the forms of the verbs *be* and *go*, in irregular forms of adjectives and adverbs (*good/well – better*), in personal pronouns (*I –me*).

Analytical grammatical forms are built up by a combination of at least two words: a grammatical auxiliary and a notional part: *have done*, *will have been working*. (In the second example the number of grammatical auxiliaries is three.) Analytical forms may or may not be "grammatically idiomatic", e.g. *have read* is considered to be an idiomatic form, in which the total meaning does not result from the meanings of the constituents; while *more challenging* is not an idiomatic formation and the constituents preserve their individual meanings. Some scholars think it necessary to exclude non-idiomatic formations from analytical grammatical forms. On the other hand, M.Y. Blokh proposes a gradation of idiomatic features in analytical forms: alongside with the classical analytical forms of the verbal perfect or continuous, there should be discriminated the analytical forms of comparison of

adjectives and adverbs, the analytical infinitive (*to* + verb), the analytical verbal person (personal pronoun + verb), the analytical noun (article + noun), etc.

3. Analytical grammatical forms in modern English give rise to the revision of the traditional division of grammar into morphology and syntax. Morphology is traditionally defined as the branch of grammar that studies word-forms. Syntax, on the other hand, is the branch of grammar, which studies word-groups and sentences. To show the relativity of such a strict division of grammar, B. Ilyish considers *has been found*. It is obviously a word-group since it consists of three words, but at the same time it is a form of the verb *to find*. Such formations are obviously the subject matter of both morphology and syntax.

Unlike Ukrainian or Russian which are inflectional languages, modern English is tending to isolating languages. The chief features of isolating languages are as follows: (1) predominance of root words; (2) a fixed word order; (3) a wide use of prepositions to denote relations between objects and to connect words in the sentence; (4) comparatively few grammatical inflexions (viz., case and number inflexions in nouns, degree inflexions in adjectives and adverbs, person and tense inflexions in verbs); (5) predominance of analytical forms.

Inner inflexion and suppletivity are not productive in modern English, and are only found in some of its basic, most ancient forms. The only productive means of building up synthetic forms is outer inflexion. However, in modern English outer inflexions are few but polysemantic. For this reason the total number of synthetic forms in modern English is not so small as it is commonly believed, e.g. *–s* can serve as the expression of the 3rd person singular of the verb, of the genitive case or the plural number of the noun. Polysemy is also found in the inflexions **-*ed***, **-*ing***, **-*er***.

4. **Grammatical categories** are made up by the unity of identical grammatical meanings that have the same form (e.g. singular::plural). Thus the grammatical category is the total of paradigms of a given part of speech.

Different parts of speech may possess the same morphological categories. But in every part of speech the structure and functions of the categories are specific. Thus case and number of the noun are different from case and number of the pronoun. Number of the noun differs from number of the verb though they are correlated. In Ukrainian the categories of gender, number and case of the noun and the adjective are different both formally (inflexions), structurally (gender of the noun is not a word-changing but rather a classification category in both Ukrainian and English) and functionally (these categories are external for the adjective and internal for the noun).

Due to dialectal unity of language and thought, grammatical categories correlate, on the one hand, with the conceptual categories and, on the other hand, with the objective reality. It follows that we may define grammatical categories as references of the corresponding objective categories. For example, the objective category of **time** finds its representation in the grammatical category of **tense**, the objective category of **quantity** finds its representation in the grammatical category of **number**. Those grammatical categories that have references in the objective reality are called **referential** grammatical categories. However, some grammatical categories have no references in the objective reality. They are called **significational**

categories. To this type belong the category of mood which has modality as its conceptual correlate. The category of mood does not refer to anything in the objective reality but expresses the speaker's attitude to what he says.

5. Any grammatical category must be represented by at least two grammatical forms (e.g. the grammatical category of number – singular and plural forms). The relation between two grammatical forms differing in meaning (function) and external signs is called an **opposition** – book::books. All grammatical categories find their realization through oppositions, e.g. the grammatical category of number is realized through the opposition singular::plural. Thus a grammatical category is an opposition between two mutually exclusive form-classes (a form-class is a set of words with the same explicit grammatical meaning).

The members of an opposition possess both common and differential features. The common features serve as a basis for comparison, while differential features immediately express the meaning (function).

According to the number of the members, oppositions may be **binary** (two-member), **ternary** (three-member), **quaternary** (four-member), etc. In grammar multimember oppositions are generally reduced to a binary opposition, e.g. the quaternary opposition of the category of aspect is reduced to two sets of oppositions: continuous –non-continuous, perfect –non-perfect.

The qualitative types of oppositions were originally formulated for phonology by Nickolay Trubetzkoy, a representative of the Prague School. They are **gradual**, **equipollent** and **privative**.

The **gradual** opposition is formed by a contrastive group of members which are distinguished by the degree of a certain feature ("mark"). In grammar this type of opposition is confined to the category of comparison of the adjective or the adverb: *nice – nicer – the nicest*. Some grammarians, however, do not recognize the gradual opposition in grammar, considering it more semantic than morphological.

The **equipollent** opposition is formed by a contrastive group of members which are distinguished by different positive features. The gradual opposition in grammar is a minor type and is confined to formal features only, e.g. *am – is – are* present a correlation of the person forms of the verb *be*.

The **privative** binary opposition is the major type of categorial opposition in grammar. It is formed by a contrastive group of members one of which possesses a certain differential feature, while the other member is characterized by the absence of this feature. The member in which the feature is present is called "**marked**", "strong" or "positive". The member in which the feature is absent is "**unmarked**", "weak" or "negative". Generally in grammar the marked member of an opposition is structurally more complicated, e.g. past –non-past, future – non-future (tense): *liked –like*, *go – will go*.

6. When grammatical forms function in speech their oppositional categorial characteristics interact in such a way that one member of an opposition may function in a context typical of the other member. This contextual deformation of a categorial opposition is called "**oppositional reduction**" or "**neutralization**". From the functional point of view, there are two types of oppositional reduction:

1) **Functional neutralization proper**, when the replacing member of the opposition loses its differential features and functionally assimilates with the replaced member, e.g. *Man conquers space* (in this case *man* stands for *mankind*). *The cat is a domestic animal* (*cat* stands for the whole species of cats).

2) **Transposition**, when the replacing member acquires the function of the replaced member while preserving its own inherent function in the background. The replacive member of the opposition obtains an additional expressive meaning, and the sentence gets stylistically coloured, e.g. *You are always interrupting me*.

When the unmarked member replaces the marked member the oppositional reduction is called "**rising**", e.g. *When I entered the room he sat in the armchair smoking a pipe* (the indefinite aspect stands for the continuous). If the direction of the oppositional reduction is reverse, it is called "**falling**", e.g. *I'm leaving tomorrow* (the present tense stands for the future action).

Lecture 4. Parts of speech
1. Notion of parts of speech. Approaches to differentiating parts of speech.
2. Traditional criteria for parts of speech.
3. Notional and functional parts of speech.
4. Problem of the pronoun and the three-layer division of the lexicon.
5. Theory of syntactic classes of words.

1. A class of words is a word complex differentiated on the basis of some characteristics relevant for the organization of the lexicon as a whole. The major types of classes of words are etymological, semantic, stylistic and grammatical. Grammatical classes of words are traditionally called parts of speech, or lexico-grammatical categories. Thus a **part of speech** is **a separate class of words singled out on the basis of grammatically relevant properties and correlating with other parts of speech**. All the words belonging to a part of speech possess common characteristics which distinguish them from words of other classes.

However, the **problem of word classification into parts of speech** still remains one of the most controversial problems in modern linguistics. The attitude of grammarians with regard to parts of speech and the basis of their classification has varied greatly at different times. Only in English, grammarians have been vacillating between 3 and 13 parts of speech.

Thus, the **logical-inflectional approach** is based on Latin grammar. According to the Latin classification of the parts of speech all words were divided into declinable and indeclinable parts of speech. This system was reproduced in the earliest English grammars. **Declinable parts of speech** included nouns, pronouns, verbs and participles, **indeclinable parts of speech** – adverbs, prepositions, conjunctions and interjections. This classification is quite successful for Latin or other languages with developed morphology and synthetic paradigms but it cannot be applied to the English language because the principle of declinability/indeclinability is not relevant for analytical languages.

The functional approach to the problem was introduced in the nineteenth century by Henry Sweet. Sweet resorted to the functional features of words and

singled out nominative units and particles. According to Sweet, **nominative parts of speech** are noun-words (noun, noun-pronoun, noun-numeral, infinitive, and gerund), adjective-words (adjective, adjective-pronoun, adjective-numeral, and participles), verb (finite verb, verbals – gerund, infinitive, participles); **particles** are 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, in other words, declinable and indeclinable.

O.Jespersen points out this weak point of Sweet's classification and in his own *Philosophy of Grammar* and *Grammar of Present-Day English* proposes his "**theory of three ranks**". Jespersen's theory combines the analysis of lexical meaning, morphological form and functioning of words in word-combinations and sentences, and is one of the first attempts to differentiate words into parts of speech on the basis of their position (function). In the phrase *a furiously barking dog* Jespersen differentiates three ranks. The underlying principle of his theory is the so-called principle of determination: *dog*, being an absolutely independent word is a word of the primary rank, *barking*, which determines the word *dog*, or is subordinated to it, is a word of the secondary rank, and *furiously*, which determines *barking*, is of the tertiary rank. Jespersen applied the theory of ranks to sentence structures as well: *The dog* (primary) *barks* (secondary) *furiously* (tertiary), though the relations between subject and predicate are obviously different from those between the noun and its attribute.

Among other studies of parts of speech are onomaseological and descriptive approaches**.** The **onomaseological approach** presupposes investigation of the specific features of nominations by different classes of words or how these features predetermine the grammatical categories of the words of a given part of speech. The **descriptive approach** means differentiation of words on the basis of their position in the sentence.

2. The **traditional approach** differentiates parts of speech on the basis of their semantic, morphological and syntactic features. This **polydifferential (**or **complex) principle** was worked out for the Russian language by I.V Scherba and V.V. Vinogradov, and for the English language, by O.I. Smirnitsky and B. Ilyish.

The **semantic criterion** involves evaluation of the generalized categorial meaning of the words of a given class, e.g. nouns denote "substances".

The **formal criterion** is determination of the typical elements of the structure of the words of a given class, such as grammatical and derivational suffixes, e.g. the inflexions *–s*, the derivational suffixes *-ness* (*happiness*), *-er-/or* (*teacher, doctor*), *-y* (*beauty*), etc. for the noun. Notional words possess specific grammatical categories (e.g. number, case, gender, and article determination for the noun) expressed through morphological paradigms. As to functional words, the formal criterion is redundant for their identification as they are unchangeable words.

The **syntactic criterion** serves to determine the combinability of the words of a given class with other words and their typical syntactic functions of in the sentence, e.g. the noun combines with a modifier (adjective, participle, noun in the common or

the genitive case, etc.) and with a verb following (*children play*) or preceding it (*play games*) and performs the functions of subject and object.

However, parts of speech are not uniform classes of words. In fact, they have a **field structure** (as was first shown by Admoni on the material of the German language). Some words belonging to a given part of speech have all its essential characteristics and make up its nucleus. Other words which are referred to a given part of speech lack some of its features and constitute its periphery. The border elements may acquire features of some other part of speech and be subject to interclass migrations (cf. the gerund, the infinitive, the participle, the verbal noun, the substantivized adjective).

3. According to V. Plotkin, parts of speech result from the necessity to standardize grammatical properties of words, without which it would be impossible to reduce the infinite number of denoted events to a short inventory of sentence models. A sentence model includes the denotation of the process, its participants and properties of processes and participants. In traditional grammar these are four parts of speech: verbs, nouns, adjectives and adverbs. Outside these four parts of speech are words which do not require a similar standardization. They form systems whose components are highly individualized.

Most grammatical theories recognize the noun, the adjective, the verb and the adverb as **notional** parts of speech. The **functional** parts of speech are the article, the preposition, the conjunction, the particle, the interjection and the modal word.

(a) Notional words are autosemantic, i.e. words of complete nominative value which combine the categorial meaning of the part of speech with the more individual generic and aspectual meaning. Functional words are synsemantic, i.e. words of incomplete nominative value; the range of their functioning in a language is directly correlated with the degree of their desemantization: the more desemantised is the word, the more common.

(b) Notional words denote referents (things, actions and properties) of the extra-lingual reality, while functional words express connections and relations between notional words and have no direct bearing on extra-lingual phenomena; the are "building elements of lexicon" (Scherba). Thus, for example, the article expresses the specific limitation of the substantive functions; the preposition, dependencies and interdependencies of substantive referents; the conjunction, connection of phenomena.

(c) Notional words are "open systems", while functional words are "closed systems" and the number of their constituents is limited.

(d) Notional words can perform independent syntactic functions in the sentence, whereas functional words do not perform independent syntactic roles.

(e) Notional words are generally changeable, while functional words are unchangeable.

(f) There is an interclass derivation between notional words, e.g. *back* can function as a noun, an adjective, an adverb or a verb; *cheer-* and *heart-* can form the following word-groups: *a cheerful heart*, *a hearty cheer*, *to cheer heartily*, *to hearten cheerfully*.

Notional words constitute the bulk of the existing word stock while functional words constitute a smaller group of words. Although the number of functional words is limited (there are only about 50 of them in modern English), they are the most frequently used units.

The division of language units into notional and functional words reveals the interrelation of lexical and grammatical types of meaning. In notional words, the lexical meaning is predominant. In functional words, the grammatical meaning dominates over the lexical one. However, in actual speech the border line between notional and function words is not always clear cut. As B. Ilyish points out, some words belonging to a particular part of speech may occasionally, or even permanently, perform a function differing from that which characterizes the part of speech as a whole, as, for example, auxiliary verbs. Some notional words develop the meanings peculiar of function words, e.g. semi-notional words such as *to turn, to get*, etc.

4. In the history of linguistics (e.g. in L.Ščerba's works) the very existence of the **pronoun** as a part of speech has been denied, though in present-day grammars pronouns are recognized as a part of speech. However, pronouns are regarded as not completely notional words, whose categorial meaning as a part of speech is difficult to define. A part of pronouns share the peculiarities of the noun, others of the adjective, and they are commonly divided into noun-pronouns and adjective pronouns. But pronouns are different from both nouns and adjectives. They do not nominate referents of the extra-lingual reality, but rather point them out and substitute nominations. Like notional words, they can perform self-dependent syntactic functions in the sentence. Like functional words, they are synsemantic, present a closed system and are mostly unchangeable (although some pronouns do change: *I –me, this –these*, etc).

Thus in modern grammatical theories the lexicon (word-stock) is divided into **three layers**: notional words, pronouns and functional words. "Pronouns" include not only pronouns proper but also numerals, which, like pronouns, also have the substitutional function and share certain peculiarities of syntactic construction with pronouns, e.g. *five children, five of the children, five of them; some children, some of the children, some of them*. An intermediate position between notional word and pronouns is occupied by words of "**broad meaning**": polysemantic nouns and verbs words such as *thing, stuff, affair, do, make, fix*; some adjective and adverbs such as *similar, such, here, there, therefore, so, thus*, which do not nominate referents but rather substitute the corresponding nominations

Some pronouns distinguish the nominative and the objective cases (personal pronouns and the relative and interrogative pronoun *who*).

5. Structural linguistics has developed a purely functional approach to word class identification based only on the position of the word of a given class in the sentence: the **theory of syntactic classes of words** (or descriptive approach). The principles of the **syntactico-distributional classification** were worked out by Ch. Fries, L. Bloomfield and Z. Harris. This classification is based on **distributive analysis,** that is, the analysis of **the ability of words to combine with other words of different types** realized by means of substitution testing. At the same time, the

lexical meaning of words was not taken into account. According to Charles Fries, the words in such sentences as 1. *Woggles ugged diggles*; 2. *Uggs woggled diggs*; and 3. *Woggs diggled uggles* are quite evident structural signals, their position and combinability are enough to classify them into three word-classes.

The positions of words were tested on three **typical sentences** (**frames**):

Frame A. The concert was good (always).

Frame B. The clerk remembered the tax (suddenly).

Frame C. The team went there. (The parenthesized positions are optional from the point of view of the structural completion of the sentence.)

Notional words in the English sentence may take four positions: those of the noun (N), verb (V), adjective (A) and adverb (D). Words standing outside these positions are functional.

Words taking the positions typical of the noun are Class 1 words. Besides nouns proper they may be pronouns, numerals, substantivized adjectives, infinitives, etc., i.e. any word capable of substituting the noun in the sentence. Class 2 words take the positions typical of the finite verb; class 3 words, those of the adjective; and class 4 words, those of the adverb. According to C.T. Hockett, notional words (N, V, A) having the structure of mere roots "can show more than one pattern of usage", thus there are double and triple word classes, e.g. NA class: *American*, *native*, *human*; NV class: *a look*, *to look*; AV class: *clean*, *to clean*; NAV class: *the fat* (of meat), *fat* (meat), *to fat up* (fowls).

Functional words are not capable of filling the positions in a sentence frame without destroying its structural meaning. They total 154 units and comprise 15 limited groups. They are further distributed between three main sets: (a) specifiers of notional verbs (*do, have*, *will*), functional modifiers (*seem, turn out*), and intensifiers of adjectives and adverbs (too, very, enough); (b) words determining relations of notional words to one another, i.e. prepositions and conjunctions; (c) words referring to the sentence a whole, i.e. question-words (*what*, *how*), inducement words (*please*, *let's*), attention-getting words (*look, I say*), words of affirmation and negation (*yes*, *no*), sentence introducers (*it*, *there*). Ch.Fries was the first linguist to pay attention to some peculiarities of function words.

Disregard of the formal criterion to differentiating English words into parts of speech English is justified by the fact that modern English tends to languages of isolating type and may have little distinction in the morphemic structure of words belonging to different parts of speech (*back out, come back; excuse my back; the back yard*).

Lecture 5. The grammatical properties of the noun

1. General characteristic of the noun.

2. Grammatically relevant subclasses of the noun.

3. Category of substantival number. Different meanings of the plural form. Relative and absolute number. Singularia tantum and Pluralia tantum nouns. Oppositional reduction of the category of number.

4. Interpretations of case. Meanings of the genitive case.

5. Problem of the category of gender. Blokh's classification. Personification as the oppositional reduction of gender. Gender in the works of English grammarians.

6. Analysis of the article.

1. As any other part of speech, the noun can be characterised by three criteria: semantic (the meaning), morphological (the form and grammatical categories) and syntactical (functions, distribution). The noun has the generalized grammatical meaning of "substance". It is the central nominative unit of language due to its practically unlimited substantivization power. It is characterized by certain word-building distinctions: typical suffixes (-*ness*, -*hood*, -*er/-or*, -*ist*, -*ee*, etc.), compounding models (N+N, A+N, V+N), conversion models (an animal – behave like the animal: *ape – to ape*). It discriminates the grammatical categories of number, case, gender, and article determination. The most characteristic syntactic functions of the noun are those of subject and object. The functions of predicate, attribute or adverbial modifier, although performed by the noun, are not inherently characteristic of it. As to noun combinability, 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 the common and genitive case.

2. According to M. Blokh, the subclass differentiation of nouns constitutes a foundation for their selective combinability with other parts of speech or between themselves, e.g. *The horse was crumbling. *The tree was laming. *The cat's love of music.

The subclasses of the noun are presented by oppositional pairs:

(a) On the basis of the *type of nomination* nouns fall into proper and common.

(b) On the basis of *quantitative structure* common nouns fall into countable and uncountable.

(c) On the basis of the *form of existence* nouns are subdivided into animate and inanimate.

(d) On the basis of *personal quality* nouns can be also differentiated into human and non-human.

(e) According to M. Blokh the division into concrete and abstract nouns is realized less explicitly and rigorously.

3. The category of **substantival number** is the linguistic representation of the objective category of quantity and is presented by the opposition of the singular and the plural forms, the marked member of the opposition being the plural form. The category of number in English is restricted in its realization because of the dependent implicit grammatical meaning of countableness/uncountableness. The number category is realized only within subclass of countable nouns.

The singular form is characterized by the zero inflexion, while the meaning of the plural is mostly expressed by means of the inflexion -*(e)s*. The position of the plural inflexion varies in compounds: *forget-me-nots*, *commanders-in-chief*. Apart from the genuinely English inflexions there are borrowed nounal inflexions, such as Latin: -*a/-ae* (*formula –formulae*), -*us/-i* (*stimulus –stimuli*), -*um/-a* (*curriculum – curricula*; Greek: -*is/-es* (*basis –bases*), -*on/-a* (*criterion –criteria*).

Seven nouns use inner inflexion to differentiate between the singular and the plural: *foot, goose, tooth, man, woman, mouse, louse*. The nouns *child* and *ox* form their plural forms by means of the inflexion *–en*. A few nouns have homogenous number forms: *deer*, *sheep*, *swine*, *trout*, *pike*, *plaice*. The number opposition here is not expressed formally but is revealed only lexically and syntactically in the context: e.g. *Look! A sheep is eating grass. Look! The sheep are eating grass*.

The opposition in the category of number is "one" –"more than one", e.g. *tree – trees* (one separate object –more than one objects). According to B. Ilyish, the meaning of the plural in, for instance, *hours* is different as an hour is not a separate object but a continuous period of time measured by a certain agreed unit of duration. In such plurals as *waters* or *snows* the meaning of the plural is still more distinct. First of all, no numeral could be used. *Waters* or *snows*, as opposed to *water* or *snow*, don't denote chemical or physical properties of these substances but rather the vastness of the seascape or the landscape: *the waters of the Atlantic*, *the snows of Kilimanjaro*. The difference between two numbers may increase to such a degree that the plural form may develop a completely new meaning and become lexicalized, e.g. *colours*, *quarters, attentions*, etc.

Substantival number can be relative or absolute. Countable nouns are used both in the singular and in the plural; their number is **relative** (also called common, or correlative). Uncountable nouns are either singular or plural; their number is **absolute**. They constitute two groups: Pluralia tantum (absolute plural) and Singularia tantum (absolute singular). Collective nouns denote both a plurality and a unit; this semantic ambiguity leads to the formation of nouns used only in the singular (*foliage*) or only in the plural (*ashes*).

Pluralia tantum nouns include "summation plurals" (objects consisting of two identical parts: *scissors, tongs, jeans*), collective nouns (*police*, *cattle, earnings*, *outskirts*), names of diseases or abnormal states of the body (*mumps, hysterics*), some geographical names (*Athens*), nouns denoting a more or less indefinite plurality (*environs, dregs*).

Singularia tantum nouns may include the names of unique objects (*the sun*, *the moon*, *the horizon*), branches of professional activity (*architecture, linguistics*), mass materials (*water*, *snow*, *sugar*), abstract notions (*love*, *friendship*), certain collective nouns (*poultry*, *furniture*, *fruit*), proper names (*Rome*, *Laura*). Some of these nouns can be used in the form of the common singular with the common plural counterpart due to the change of meaning, e.g. different sorts of the mass material (*waters of the Nile*), concrete manifestations of the qualities denoted by abstract nouns (*It was a joy to see you*; *joys of childhood*), or concrete objects embodying a certain property (*a beauty*). The difference in the meaning between a noun with the absolute singular and that with the common singular number may be hardly perceptible, e.g. *The job requires experience. / I had many unforgettable experiences in Africa*.

Some grammarians (for instance, A. Isachenko) believe that the meaning of the category of number of the noun is not that of quantity, but of discreteness.

From this perspective, countable nouns denote discrete objects, phenomena, feelings: *bench, storm, illness, joy*. Uncountable nouns denote materials, materials that are not discrete (e.g. *air, brass*), as well as abstract notions (*anger,*

gratitude).Countable nouns can be used with all the three forms of the article as well as with cardinal numerals (*a cat, the cat, cats, two cats*). Uncountable nouns are not used with the indefinite article or with cardinal numerals but are used with the indefinite pronouns some or any in the partitive meaning (*furniture, the furniture, some furniture*). Besides there can be differentiated mixed nouns (*cake, the cake, a cake, cakes*). The latter are treated as countable or uncountable with a difference in meaning:

> He's not had much difficulty. –I've often had many difficulties.
> The role requires experience. –He's had many odd experiences.
> She had much beauty in her youth. –She was a beauty in her youth.
> I don't like idle talk. –The talks will take place in Paris.

Thus the category of number is asymmetrical. For all groups of nouns except Pluralia tantum only the singular form is obligatory. The singular form can render not only the meaning of quantity (one), but also the absence of a quantitative estimation for uncountables. The plural form always expresses some quantitative relation and therefore it can make the meaning of an abstract notion more concrete: *joys of childhood, snows of Kilimanjaro, waters of the Dnipro*.

The functional opposition between the singular and the plural number is **neutralized** in sentences of the following types: (a) *The family were sitting*; *The United States is an international organization*; (b) *I myself still wonder at that six weeks of calm madness*; (c) *The cat is a domestic animal*; (d) *Man conquers space*. Nouns of the type *family, government, party, clergy*, etc. can be used to denote the group as a whole, and in that case they are treated as singulars and usually termed "collective nouns"; or else they are used to denote a group consisting of a certain number of individual human beings, and in that case they are usually termed "nouns of multitude", e.g. "*Does the Board know this*?" "*Yes*", said John, "*they fully approve the scheme.*" (A.Wilson).

4. The **category of case** in modern English is a controversial issue. Traditionally it is defined as a morphological category of the noun manifested in the forms of the noun declension and showing the relation of the nounal referent to other objects and phenomena. In other words, case expresses the relation of a word to another word in the word-group or sentence (*my sister's coat*).

In modern linguistics the term "genitive case" is used instead of the "possessive case" because the meanings rendered by the "`s" sign are not only those of possession. The scope of **meanings rendered by the genitive case** is as follows:

–**possessive genitive**: *Mary's father – Mary has a father*, *the boy's toys –the boy has toys*;

–**subjective genitive**: *the doctor's arrival – the doctor has arrived*, *the boy's willingness – the boy is willing*;

–**objective genitive**: *the man's release – the man was released*, *the boy's punishment –the boy was punished*;

–**adverbial genitive**: *Two hour's work – X worked for two hours*;

–**equation genitive**: *a mile's distance – the distance is a mile*;

– **qualitative genitive** or **genitive of destination**: *children's books – books for children, women's clothes – clothes for women*;

–**mixed group**: *yesterday's paper*.

Sometimes only the context can reveal the true meaning of the genitive case form, e.g. *She perceived with all her nerves the wavering of Amanda's confidence, her <u>child's peace of mind</u>, and she understood how fragile it was* (Cary).

In Old English there were four cases: nominative, genitive, dative, and accusative. When the strict word order was established the Old English system of cases collapsed. There is no universal point of view as to the case system in Modern English. Different scholars stick to a different number of cases.

According to the traditional "**limited case**" **theory** (supported by H.Sweet, O. Jespersen, A. Smirnitsky, L. Barkhudarov and many others), in modern English case is presented by the opposition of the unmarked common case and the marked (-'*s*) genitive case.

Some scholars consider that in spite of the scarcity of case inflexions, case relations in present-day English are expressed by other means. The **theory of "positional cases"** worked out by J.C. Nesfield, M.Deuchbein, and M. Bryant differentiates the unchangeable forms of the noun as cases on the basis of the position of the noun in the sentence. Besides the inflexional genitive case purely positional cases are singled out: nominative, dative, accusative, and vocative.

As positional cases are not morphologically marked and thus do not comply with the traditional understanding of case as a variable morphological category, the **theory of "prepositional cases"** (elaborated by G. Curme) was meant as a logical supplement to the theory of positional cases. Combinations of nouns with prepositions in objective and attributive collocations are understood as morphological case-forms that coexist with positional cases and the classical inflexional genitive. The prepositions are termed "inflexional" and the cases, "analytical": of +noun – the genitive case; to/for +noun – the dative case. A failing of this theory is that there are many other combinations of prepositions with nouns (e.g. by/with +noun could be called the instrumental case; in/on/at/under/over … +noun, the locative case), and the number of cases would become indefinitely large.

The **theory of possessive postposition** (formant) rejects the existence of case in Modern English. According to it what is named the genitive case is in reality a combination of the noun with postposition (a word with a preposition-like function). The arguments are as follows: (a) the formant – 's is loosely connected with the noun as it is used not only with single nouns but also with word-groups of various status, e.g. *the man who hauled him out to dinner's head;* (b) there is an indisputable parallelism between 's- constructions and "of+noun constructions".

As to the latter argument, until recently the possibility of forming the genitive case was mainly limited to nouns denoting living beings (*my father's car, Mary's book, the dog's head*) and a few others, notably those denoting units of time (*this year's elections*) and some substantivized adverbs (*today's newspaper*). It was normally said *the man's face* and *the woman's face*, but *the face of the clock* and the *surface of the water* (though you could say *the water's edge*). But of late scholars note a change going on in present-day English which runs counter to the general trend towards loss of inflections: the spreading of the 's-genitive at the expense of the of-genitive. Here are a few examples: *resorts' weather* → the weather of seaside

towns; *human nature's diversity* → the diversity of human nature; *the game's laws* → the laws of the game. A few typical examples given by G. Curme are: *When I think of all the sorrow and the barrenness that has been wrought in my life by want of a few more pounds per annum, I stand aghast at money's significance. ...for the sake of the mind's peace, one ought not to inquire into such things too closely. A book's chances depend more on its selling qualities than its worth.*

As to the first argument, the expression of the type *Smith and Brown's office* certainly denotes the office belonging to both Smith and Brown. Thus –s refers not to *Brown* alone but to the whole word-group *Smith and Brown* (the so-called **group genitive**). This is true also as to examples of the following kinds: *the Chancellor of Exchequer's speech, the Oxford professor of poetry's lecture, the King of England's residence, nobody else's business.* In examples of this kind –'s is disengaged from the noun to which it properly belongs. And here are a few examples of special use of the possessive case in fossilised expressions of the formula character, such as: *to one's heart's content, for pity's sake, out of harm's way, at one's fingers' ends, for old acquaintance's sake, for appearance's sake.* These expressions were grammatically regular and explicable in their day, but they follow grammatical or semantic principles which have now fallen into disuse.

The –'s may even follow a word which normally does not possess such a formant, as in *somebody else's book.* Longer word-groups modified by –'s are found mostly in colloquial speech, e.g. *The man I saw yesterday's son* (Sweet's example); *The girl in my class's mother took us* (to the movies) (Salinger); *The blonde I had been dancing with's name was Bernie something – Crabs or Krebs* (Salinger).

In B. Ilyish's opinion, this proves that in modern English the –s can no longer be described as a case inflection without many reservations. Scholars put forward the following interpretations: (1) when the –s belongs to a noun it is the genitive case ending, and when it belongs to a phrase it tends to become a syntactic element, viz. a postposition; (2) since the –s can belong to a phrase it is no longer a case inflection even when it belongs to a single noun; (3) the –s when belonging to a noun, no longer expresses a case, but a new grammatical category. An essential argument in favour of the latter point is that both the form without –s and the form with –s can perform the same syntactic functions, e.g. the subject of the sentence (cf. *My father was a happy man* and *My father's was a happy life*).

To defend the case it can be said that (1) in accord with statistic data, -'s is attached to single nouns in 96% of textual occurrences and to phrases in 4 % of cases lengthy; (2) word-groups modified by -'s are always stylistically coloured.

5. The **category of gender** is another disputable category of Modern English as it plays a relatively minor part in English grammar in comparison with its role in many other languages. Some scholars restrict the term "gender" to those languages that have precise and mutually exclusive noun classes distinguished by clear formal markers (inflexions). As to English, it has no gender concord, and the reference of the pronouns *he, she, it* is largely determined by what is referred to as 'natural' gender for English and depends upon the classification of persons and objects as male, female or inanimate. Thus, the recognition of gender in English as a grammatical category is logically independent of any particular semantic association.

According to some grammarians (B. Ilyish, F. Palmer, and E. Morokhovskaya), English nouns have no category of gender. B. Ilyish states that not a single word in Modern English shows any peculiarities in its morphology that can be understood as denoting a male or female being. Thus, the words *husband* and *wife* do not show any difference in their forms to make a distinction between male and female gender correspondingly. Likewise the difference between such nouns as *actor* and *actress* is purely lexical.

V. Yartseva speaks about the category of activeness/passiveness that has replaced the category of gender in English. "Active" nouns as subjects of the sentence govern objects and correlate with the pronouns *he, she,* and *who.* "Passive" nouns as subjects do not require an object and correlate with the pronouns *it* and *which.*

Nevertheless, other scholars (M.Blokh, John Lyons) admit the existence of the category of gender. M.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*).

M. Blokh presents gender not as an opposition of variable forms of nouns but as a **noun classification** formed by two sets of oppositions.

<div align="center">Gender</div>

Person nouns   Non-person nouns

Feminine nouns   Masculine nouns   Animate nouns   Inanimate

The marked member of the upper opposition are person nouns. Personification can be regarded as a transpositional use of non-person nouns as person nouns.

Personification can be regarded as neutralization of the upper opposition (transposition): non-person nouns are used as person nouns: *The sun came out in the east, / Out of the sea came* he.

The marked member of the lower opposition of person nouns are feminine nouns. When there is no special need to indicate the biological gender of the person referents of the nouns they are used neutrally as masculine, e.g. *A parent must take care of his child.*

As to English grammarians, they, in spite of the scarcity of formal morphological distinctions, differentiate the masculine, feminine, common, and neuter genders. The distinction of the masculine and feminine genders is expressed by suppletive forms (*bachelor —spinster, brother —sister, monk —nun)* or morphologically *(emperor —empress, man —doctor- woman —doctor, he-wolf— she- wolf, tom -cat —pussy-cat).*

Common gender nouns are person nouns which do not discriminate the forms of masculine and feminine genders (*child, student, teacher).* Neuter gender nouns are inanimate nouns (*books, nature, water).*

6. As B. Ilyish points out, the **article** presents the student with one of the most difficult and intricate problems. There are languages that have no article (e.g. most Slavonic languages and Latin); Ancient Greek had only one article (the definite one); many languages (Italian, Spanish, German, Swedish, etc.) have two articles. As for its form, the article is usually a separate unit which may be separated from the noun it modifies by an attribute (chiefly an adjective), though in certain languages (e.g.

Bulgarian or Swedish) the article may also be a morpheme attached to the noun as a suffix. The questions which arise as to the English article are: (a) how many articles there are in English and (b) whether it is a separate word or a morpheme.

On the basis of three different usages of the word *language* (*the language, a language* and *language*), as well as many other words, it can be stated that English has three articles: the definite, the indefinite and the zero articles. The idea of the zero article takes its origin in the notion of the "zero morpheme" and its application to the article seems justified if the article is interpreted as a morpheme.

The three main views of the article are: (1) it is a word and the collocation "article+noun" is a phrase (sometimes it is included into the adjective class as a "determiner" of the noun); (2) the article is a form element in the system of the noun, a kind of a morpheme; (3) it is an auxiliary word of the same kind as auxiliary verbs and the combination "article+noun" is an analytical form of the noun.

In order to determine the segmental status of the article, that is to decide whether the article is a purely auxiliary element which functions as a component of a definite morphological category, or it is a separate word, M.Y. Blokh considered the properties of the English article in four successive stages:
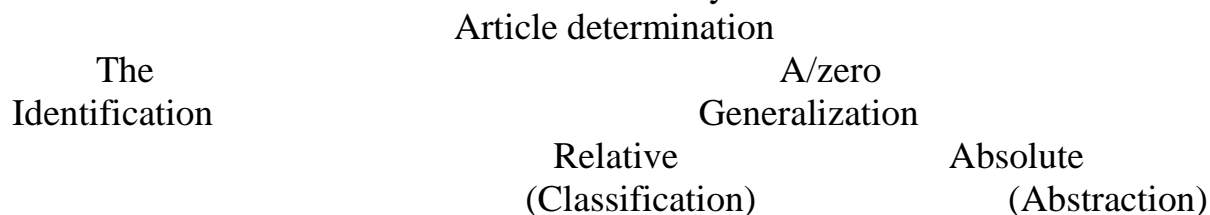
A. A **semantic evaluation** of the articles. Both the definite and the indefinite articles have a stable element in their grammatical meaning that is always preserved irrespective of the context. The **invariable grammatical meaning** of the definite article is that of **individualization** or identification, restriction and concretization. B. Ilyish compares the uses of the definite article in the following sentences: *The dog has come home* and *The dog is a domestic animal*. In the first sentence one certain dog is meant, whereas *the dog* in the second sentence means the dog in general, as a zoological species. Nevertheless, in both sentences the invariable grammatical meaning of the definite article is "something singled out from other entities". Whether what is singled out is a separate object or a whole class does not depend on the article but on the other elements of the sentence (first of all, the predicate).

If we compare the two sentences, *There is a hill behind our house* and A *hill is opposite of a valley* (examples given by H. Sweet), we will see that in the first sentence a hill denotes an individual object (a certain hill) without reference to its individual peculiarities, and in the second sentence, any object of the given class (any hill). Nevertheless, in both sentences the indefinite article expresses **generalization** of the referent of the noun. It refers the object denoted by the noun to a certain class of similar objects.

B. A **situational estimation** of the use of the articles. The indefinite article or "zero article" in combination with the noun introduce the central communicative part of the utterance, while the definite article indicates the type of information which is presented as "the facts already known", the starting point of communication. Cf . *A boy entered the room. The boy entered the room.*

Another situational (contextual) characteristic of the article is its immediate connection with two types of attributes to the noun. The descriptive attribute requires the indefinite article, the restrictive attribute, the definite article, e.g. *a nice day, the same day*.

C. An **analysis of the categorial features** of the articles in the light of the oppositional theory. The article determination of the noun is divided into two binary correlations connected with each other hierarchically.

<div align="center">

Article determination

The   A/zero

Identification   Generalization

Relative   Absolute

(Classification)   (Abstraction)

</div>

In the light of the oppositional theory, the article determination of the noun is divided into two binary correlations connected with each other hierarchically. In the higher opposition the function of identification of the definite article is opposed to non-identification, or generalization of the indefinite or zero articles. Generalization in its turn can be relative presented by the indefinite or zero articles or absolute presented only by the zero article. Cf. *Language is a means of communication. English is the foreign language I know best. Anyone must study a foreign language.* Likewise can be compared sentences of the kind: *He has eaten the egg. He has eaten an egg. He has egg on his sleeve.*

D. A **paradigmatic generalization**. The article is not the only determiner in English. Besides the definite article the meaning of individualization is conveyed by demonstrative and possessive pronouns. The paradigm of generalization is comprised by the indefinite or zero articles as well as the indefinite pronouns *(another, some, any, every, etc).*

Lecture 6. The grammatical properties of the adjective and the adverb

1. General characteristic of the adjective. Subclasses of adjectives.
2. Problem of statives.
3. General characteristic of the adverb. Subclasses of adverbs.
4. Status of qualitative adverbs. Differentiation of adverbs of *hard* and *hardly* type.
5. Problem of the second component of constructions of *give up* type.
6. Category of comparison. Analytical forms of comparison.
7. Notion of the elative and lexicalization of the forms of comparison.
8. Evaluative and specificating functions of adjectives.
9. Substantivization, adjectivization, and adverbilization as the result of interclass migration of notional parts of speech.

1. **Adjective as a part of speech** is characterized by the following typical features: (a) lexico-grammatical meaning of substantival property (size, colour, position in space, material, psychic state, etc); (b) the morphological category of comparison; (c) the combinability with nouns, link-verbs, adverbs (mostly of degree), and the prop-word *one*; (d) typical affixes (*-ful*, *-less*, *-ish*, *-ous*, *-ive*, *-ic*, *un*, etc.); (e) the functions of attribute and predicative in the sentence. However, there is a number of adjectives that can perform only one of the functions: that of attribute, e.g. *absolute (limit), close (friend), perfect (idiot), great (supporter), extreme*

(enemy), *total (nonsense)*, *complete (fool)*, *strong (opponent)*, *firm (friend)*; or that of predicative: *(I'm) sorry/glad*.

Structurally adjectives may be simple (*red*), derived (*typical*) and compound (*black-eyed*). **Semantically** adjectives are traditionally classified into relative and qualitative. **Relative adjectives** express qualities which characterize an object through its relation to another object: *a historical event* (an event referring to some period in history); *a woolen sweater* (a sweater made of wool, *Siberian wheat* (wheat from Siberia). **Qualitative adjectives** denote various qualities of substances which admit of quantitative estimation, i.e. they denote qualities of size, shape, colour, etc. which an object may possess in various degrees. Thus qualitative adjectives possess the following features: ability of grading (*small –smaller –smallest*), ability to form adverbs (*nice –nicely*) and antonyms (*good –bad*); ability of reduplication (*goody-goody*); ability to be used in structures of grammatical pleonasm (*deafer than deaf*).

2. **Statives** are words denoting different states, mostly of temporary duration, e.g. *afraid, adrift, agog, ablaze, ashamed, aware, astir, afoot, afire, ablaze, askew, awry, aslant*. They are also called "predicative adjectives" as they are mostly used as predicative and but occasionally as post-posed attribute. L.Scherba and V.Vinogradov were the first to identify them as a separate part of speech, namely "words of the category of state"; in Russian these are the words *жаль, лень, одиноко, страшно, холодно, радостно* and the like which are traditionally included into the class of adverbs.

In English, words of the *afraid* type were first presented as a separate part of speech by B. Ilyish who called them "statives words" or "statives". B.Khaimovich and B.Rogovskaya called them "adlinks" stressing their connection with link-verbs and their analogy to adverbs. In fact, they are more like adjectives but **as different from adjectives** they are built up by the prefix *a-*, do not have the category of comparison and are not used as pre-posed attributes.

On the other hand, L. Barkhudarov and M. Blokh stress the fundamental **similarity between the statives and the traditional adjective**. Their arguments are as follows: (a) adjectives and statives may express the same types of meaning: the psychic or the physical state of a person, the physical state of an object, the state of an object in space, and some others, e.g. *scared –afraid, living –alive, sleeping –asleep, similar –alike, excited –astir, half-open –ajar*; (b) they have similar combinability: like adjectives, statives can be used as post-posed attributes, e.g. *It is strange to see the household astir at this hour of the day*: (c) they can be homogeneous parts of a word-group, e.g. *Barges moored to the dock were **ablaze** and **loud** with sound*; (d) the total number of statives does not exceed several dozen (about two dozen stable units and six dozen "nonce" units); this number is negligible as compared to the number of words belonging to other notional parts of speech; (e) though the prefix *a-* is viewed as the formal mark of the statives there are words expressing state which are devoid of this mark, e.g. *ill, well , glad, sorry, worth*, etc. Besides among the basic statives there are words which cannot be separated into the prefix and the root, e.g. *aware, afraid, askew, aloof*. According to M. Blokh, the above analysis shows that statives, though forming a unified set of words, do not constitute a separate lexemic class and present a subclass of words within the

adjective. Thus the adjective is classified into common adjectives (qualitative and relative) and statives adjectives.

3. **The adverb as a part of speech** is characterized by (a) the meaning of "a secondary property", i.e. a non-substantive property –the property of a process, of another property, or circumstances in which the action occurs; (b) the morphological category of comparison; (c) typical affixes, e.g. *–ly*, *-wards*, *-wise*; (d) combinability with verbs, adjectives and other verbs; (e) the function of adverbial modifier in the sentence.

Structurally adverbs may be simple (e.g. *here, there, now, quite, so*), derived (*slowly, sideways, clockwise, away*), compound (*sometimes, nowhere, anyhow*) or composite (*to and fro, upside down*).

Semantically adverbs are subdivided into qualitative, quantitative, and circumstantial. **Qualitative** adverbs denote properties of actions which admit of quantitative estimation, much like qualitative adjectives denote properties of substances: *speak loudly –loud speech.*

Quantitative adverbs show the degree or the quantity of an action or a property. They combine not only with verbs but also with adjectives, adverbs, numerals or nouns. They are subdivided into adverbs of high degree (e.g. *very, entirely, utterly, greatly, absolutely*); adverbs of excessive degree (*too, awfully, tremendously dreadfully, terrifically)*; adverbs of unexpected degree (*surprisingly, astonishingly*); adverbs of moderate degree (*fairly, comparatively, relatively, moderately, rather)*; adverbs of approximate degree (*almost, nearly*); adverbs of optimal degree (*enough, quite, sufficiently*); adverbs of inadequate degree (*insufficiently, intolerably, unbearably*); adverbs of under-degree (*hardly, scarcely*).

Circumstantial adverbs denote various circumstances attending an action such as time, place, manner, cause, consequence. Many of circumstantial adverbs are used as syntactic connectives and question words (e.g. *now, here, thus, why*). As they do not characterize the action itself they may occupy different positions in the sentence. Though grading is generally characteristic of qualitative adverbs, some circumstantial adverbs become gradable as well if used in the evaluative function: *often, near, far, late, soon*, e.g. *often –oftener* (*more often*). Part of circumstantial adverbs have distinct suffixes: *-wards* (*backwards*), *-ce* (*twice*), etc. Others are homonymous with other parts of speech: prepositions (*He's in the house. /He's in. The boy is behind the tree. /Don't leave him behind.*), conjunctions (*I haven't seen him since January./ I haven't met him since.*) and some others.

4. Qualitative adverbs constitute the largest subgroup in the class of the adverb. Each qualitative adjective has a parallel adverb in *–ly*. The relation between qualitative adverbs and qualitative adjectives is so obvious that A. Smirnitsky proposes to treat words of the type *quick –quickly*, *loud –loudly* as belonging to the same part of speech but having different combinability. The suffix *-ly* is regarded as the grammatical morpheme of "adverbiality". However, as M. Blokh points out, derivative relations in general are not at all relations of lexico-grammatical identity. Besides there are qualitative adverbs formed from the same stem with and without the suffix *–ly*. The latter usually have direct meanings while the former convey figurative meanings, e.g. *She looked at him closely./ She sat close to him. He hardly*

works but his brother works <u>hard</u>. It is <u>near</u>. /It is <u>nearly</u> 6. The house is <u>high</u> up the hill./It is <u>highly</u> estimated.

5. In the combinations of the ***give up* type**, which are called phrasal verbs, the lexico-grammatical status of the second component is a disputable problem. It is often regarded as a variety of adverb as it may have the meaning of direction of the action, which is expressed by such adverbs as *up, down, along, in* and some others. Other scholars treat the second component as a preposition-like functional word (e.g. *He put on his hat and left the room*); still others as a prefix similar to the German detachable prefixes (*Come in*). However, the meaning of these postpositives to the verb is much more generalized and abstract. In combination with verbs they often acquire new meanings which are not characteristic of the corresponding adverbs, prepositions or prefixes. They impart an additional aspective meaning to the verb base (e.g. *sit down, eat up*) or lexical modification (sometimes very considerable) to its semantics (*bring up, bring about, give in*). M.Blokh classes these components as a special functional set of particles.

6. The **category of comparison** of adjectives and adverbs is the system of opposemes showing quantitative distinctions of qualities. Accordingly, the positive, the comparative and the superlative degrees of comparison are distinguished. In terms of the oppositional theory, the positive degree is the unmarked member, while the comparative and the superlative degrees are the marked members of the opposition distinguished by the inflexions or auxiliaries. The comparative and the superlative degrees are both relative in meaning. In the sentences *Peter is older than Mary*; *He is the oldest boy in the class*, *older* and *oldest* do not imply that the person is old. On this ground O.Jespersen and A.Smirnitsky propose to differentiate two forms of comparison: the positive degree and the **relative degree** which exists in two variants, i.e. the comparative and the superlative.

The comparative and the superlative degrees are formed either synthetically or analytically depending mostly on the structure of the stem. If it is monosyllabic or disyllabic with a stress on the second syllable (e. g. complete) or ending in *-er*, *-y*, *-le*, *-ow* (e.g. *slender, pretty*, *simple, narrow*), the **synthetic pattern** is used. Otherwise the comparative and the superlative degrees are formed **analytically**. However, analytical and inflected forms of comparison are not always absolutely identical in function. Analytical forms can be used to express emphasis. The structure of the analytical form permits contrastive stress-shifts. Stress on *more* and *most* will focus attention on the notion of degree (compare with other analytical forms: *He does love you; do come*), and stress on the adjective will make the lexical content of the adjective more prominent. Compare the following: (1) *He is **healthier** than his brother.* (2) *He is more healthy than his brother.* (3) *He is more healthy, but less capable.*

One of the problems concerning the analytical forms of comparison is due to the fact that they are devoid of idiomatic features characteristic of some other categorial analytical forms (such as the verbal perfect or continuous). That is why some authors treat them as free syntactic combinations of adverbs (*more* and *most*) with adjectives (e.g. *more interesting*, *the most interesting*). These combinations as well as, for instance, *less interesting* and *the least interesting* are called phrasal comparatives and

superlatives. Besides *more* and *most* are not always auxiliaries of comparison: they can be notional words and combine with nouns, e.g. *more people*, *most people*.

In order to prove that *more* is a word-morpheme identical to the suffix *-er* B. Khaimovich and B. Rogovskaya present the following arguments: (a) they have the same meaning; (b) their distribution is complementary (*beautiful –more beautiful*; *nice –nicer*). Similar arguments can be applied to the analytical superlative forms.

Accepting "more/most+adjective" as analytical forms of comparison B.Khaimovich and B. Rogovskaya deny this status to the combinations "less/least +adjective" treating them as free word-groups for the following reasons: they are opposite in meaning to the suffixes *-er/-est* and their distribution is not complementary (*prettier –less pretty*, *safer –less safe*). But, according to M. Blokh, if two forms have opposite meanings it testifies to their categorial equality; the combination "less/least +adjective" is a specific form of comparison which may be called reverse comparison as contrasted to direct comparison presented by "more/most +adjective" or "adjective stem +-er". The same arguments are applicable to the analytical forms of comparison of adverbs. On the whole, analytical forms of comparison are more characteristic of the adverbs than of the adjective, as the adverb stem is generally longer. However, in some cases the suffix *–ly* of qualitative adverbs is dropped and the synthetic pattern of grading is used, e.g. *quickly –more quickly – most quickly* or *quickly –quicker –quickest*.

7. A universal feature in the grammar of adjectives is the **absolute use of comparatives and superlatives**. It is the **elative** (Lat. *gradus elativus*), or "degraded superlative" (Blokh), possessing the seme of "extremity" and lacking the meaning of comparison, e.g. *"And I am very happy, most happy". "It's most distasteful to me”, he said suddenly.*

In most cases the elative is expressed through analytical forms, though synthetic forms are also possible. The distinct mark of the analytical elative is the indefinite article (*It's a most interesting observation*) while the synthetic elative can be used with the definite, the indefinite or zero article, e.g. *He's got the most beautiful mother, with lovely silvery hair and a young face with dark eyes. He made a last lame attempt to delay the experiment. Suddenly I was seized with the sensation of deepest regret.*

Absolute superlatives will be found in such patterns in Ukrainian as: в найкоротший термін, в найкращому настрої, наймиліша людина.

Absence of comparison is found also in case of **lexicalization** of the comparative and superlative forms, e.g. *higher education*, *elder brother*, *, sooner or later*, *with the greatest pleasure*; *The better part of valour is discretion* (Shakespeare). "*Nothing could be more so".* (Galsworthy) *“My health is better for it”, he added hastily. Cf.*: вища освіта, продукти кращої якості, etc.

8. The ability of grading is the most important grammatical feature of qualitative adjectives. In actual speech, however, this distinction is not always observed. Some qualities expressed by qualitative adjectives seem to be incompatible with the idea of comparison, e.g. *extinct, immobile, perfect, final, ultimate, fixed, right*. On the other hand, some relative adjectives can form degrees of comparison, e.g. *the most grammatical of the suggested topics*. It testifies to the difficulty of

drawing a rigid demarcation line between qualitative and relative adjectives, for in the course of language development the so-called relative adjectives gradually develop qualitative meanings. Thus, for instance, through metaphoric extension adjectives denoting material have come to be used in the figurative meaning, e.g.: *golden age*, *golden hours*, *golden mean*, *golden opportunity*, *golden hair*, etc. Compare also: *wooden chair* and *wooden face, wooden manners; flaxen threads* and *flaxen hair; leaden plate* and *a leaden sleep, leaden atmosphere, leaden sky.*

M. Blokh proposes an additional linguistic distinction of adjectives in the text: adjectives with **evaluative** or with **specificating functions** depending on whether they actually give some qualitative evaluation of the substance referent or only point out its property. One and the same adjective can be used in either of the functions. Thus, *good* is basically a qualitative adjective and is capable of grading, but in the correlation *good – excellent –satisfactory –bad* it acquires a specificating function and cannot be used in the comparative and superlative degrees. On the other hand, *wooden* is basically a relative adjective but when used metaphorically ("awkward", "expressionless"), as *a wooden smile*, *face*, *manners* etc., it acquires an evaluative function: *He was sitting behind the table looking more wooden than ever*. Other examples of metaphoric extension of the meaning of relative adjectives denoting material: *golden age*, *golden hours*, *golden mean*, *golden opportunity*, *golden hair*; *wooden face, wooden manners; flaxen hair*; *leaden sky*, *a leaden sleep, leaden atmosphere.*

The distinction between the evaluative and specificating uses of the adjective emphasizes the fact that the category of comparison is potentially characteristic of the whole class of the adjective.

9. Derivation without a derivative morpheme has been variously treated by grammarians. It has been customary to speak of the conversion of nouns, adjectives and verbs. The term *conversion* has been used for various things. A. Kruisinga, for instance, makes reference to conversion whenever a word takes on a function which is not its basic one, as the use of an adjective as a noun (*the poor, the British, shreds of pink, at his best*).

Like other parts of speech the adjective and the adverb are not uniform classes of words but have a field structure. The centre of the field is formed by the words that possess all the formal, semantic and functional characteristics of the class. In the periphery the adjective and the adverb overlap each other as well as the noun or the verb. The overlapping of the adjective and the noun causes the phenomena of substantivization of the adjective and adjectivization of the noun. **Substantivization** can be partial or complete.

Completely substantivized adjectives possess all the properties of the noun, Such adjectives may be preceded by the article, take the plural inflection, be used in the possessive case, e.g. *a/the native, the native's* (*house*), *natives, the natives.*

Partially substantivized adjectives fall into the subclasses of Pluralia tantum (e.g. *the English, the rich, the privileged*) and Singularia tantum (*the invisible, the abstract, the blue of the sky, shreds of pink, do one's best*). The words of the first subgroup denote sets of people; the words of the second subgroup express abstract

notions. Being categorically unchangeable, partially substantivized adjectives convey the mixed adjectival-nominal semantics of property.

Substantivation of abstract adjectives intensifies the word meaning and often serves stylistic purposes as a colourful means of emphasis in literary style: *In that moment of emotion he betrayed the Forsyte in him — forgot himself, his interests, his property — was capable of almost anything; was lifted into the pure ether of the selfless and unpractical.* (Galsworthy) *He drove slowly, enjoying the quiet of the evening.* (Cronin) *The impossible was not on her side and she knew it, sensed rightly that it never would be.* (Sillitoe)

Substantivation of adjectives of colour for stylistic purposes is also rather a frequent occurrence: *When the storm stopped the fields were white over, the sky a milk blue, low and still threatening.* (Sillitoe)

Transposition of adjectives into the class of appellative nouns is rather a frequent occurrence in colloquial English: *my little silly, my sweet, my dear.*

Adjectivization is the phenomenon of acquisition by nouns or adverbs of the characteristics of adjective. Adjectivization of nouns occurs when they function as attribute or predicative in the sentence, e.g. *I adore Kyiv chestnut trees. This watch is gold.* Adjectivization of adverbs can be illustrated by the following examples: *Franklin Roosevelt, the then president of the United States, proclaimed the "New Deal" –a new Government economic policy. The world today presents a picture radically different from what it was before the World War II*.

Adverbialization is the process of transformation of adjectives into adverbs when, for example, *quick* is used instead of *quickly: Come quick*.

Lecture 8. The grammatical characteristic of the finite verb

1. General characteristic of the verb.
2. Verb classifications.
3. Subclasses of notional verbs.
4. Subclasses of functional verbs.
5. Categories of person and number of the verb.
6. Notion of tense. Subcategories of primary and prospective time. Grammatical and lexical denotations of time. Oppositional reduction of tense forms. Problem of the future tense and the future-in-the past.
7. Notion of aspect of the verb. Grammatical oppositions of aspect forms and their oppositional reduction. Lexico-syntactic classification of aspect forms.
8. Notion of voice and the opposition of active and passive voice forms. Functions of the passive voice, means of its expression and types of the passive. Problem of the "medial" voice. Problem of *be + Participle II* constructions.
9. Category of mood. Problem of the imperative mood. Classifications of the subjunctive mood.

1. 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 the verb there are various subclass divisions based on different principles.

The **verb as a part of speech** has an intricate nature combining the features of all other notional parts of speech in the form of the so-called verbids (non-finite forms of the verb). It is characterized by:

(1) The lexico-grammatical **meaning** of "process" or "action", which is an abstraction from lexical meanings of individual verbs or groups of verbs: some verbs (*sleep, stand, love*) denote states rather than actions, but these states are presented as processes developing in time and come therefore within the range of the lexico-grammatical meaning of the verb.

(2) Certain typical **stem-building elements** such as the suffixes *–ize* (specialize), *-en* (blacken), *-fy* (qualify), etc.; the prefixes *be-* (befriend), *re-* (reread), *en-* (enforce), *under-* (undergo), *over-* (overestimate), *mis-* (mistake), *un-* (undress), etc.; the word-morphemes (postpositives) *up* (bring up), *in* (give in), *off* (put off), *down* (sit down), *out* (take out), etc..

(3) Grammatical categories of person, number, tense, aspect, voice and mood.

(4) Combinability with adverbs and nouns denoting the agent (doer) and the recipient of the action.

(5) The syntactic function of predicate for finite verbs; verbids function as predicates in secondary predication structures, e.g. *I saw him <u>enter</u> that house*.

2. **Structurally** verbs fall into simple, derivative, compound, and composite. The number of **simple verbs** is growing due to conversion which is one of the most productive ways of word-formation in modern English, especially the model N –V (e.g. *ape –to ape*, *pocket –to pocket*). Sound interchange and the change of stress (*food-feed, import-import*) are not productive means of the formation of verbs. In the class of **derivative verbs** prefixation is more productive than suffixation. **Compound verbs** are formed from noun stems by means of conversion (*blackmail – to blackmail*) or back-formation (*babysitter –to baby-sit*). On the whole compounding is not productive for the verb. The **composite (phrasal) verbs** occupy an intermediary position between the analytical forms of the verb and syntactic word combination. Composite verbs include a verb and a postposed adverb (word-morpheme, a verbal postposition) that has specificational value (modifies or changes the meaning of the verb).

Semantically verbs are divided into verbs of full nominative value (notional verbs), and verbs of partial nominative value (semi-notional and functional verbs). Notional verbs include the bulk of the verbs. Functional and semi-notional verbs include limited sets of verbs characterized by individual relational properties. This subclass division is flexible: the same verb lexeme may belong to different subclasses. Some authors recognize verbs of "mixed", or "double" lexical character: they realize different meanings depending on the context. Thus the verb *grow* in the meaning of "develop, increase in size" is a notional verb (*Haw quickly you are growing!*); in the meaning of "become" it is a link verb (*It is growing dark.*). Different meanings of the verb *have* are realized in the following sentences: *How much money do you have on you? The Englishman had to make the best of the situation.*

3. The majority of English verbs are notional. They are classified into the following subclasses: actional /statal, terminative /non-terminative, subjective /objective, transitive /intransitive.

On the basis of the **subject –process relations** notional verbs fall into **actional and statal**. Actional verbs express the action performed by the subject; statal verbs express the state of their subject. Actional verbs (*do, make, go, come*) present the subject as an active doer; statal verbs present the subject as a recipient of some outward activity *(see. know, realize, worry)*. Actional verbs may take the form of the continuous aspect; statal verbs in the same context use the indefinite forms.

On the basis of the **relation of the verb semantics to the idea of a processual limit**, verbs are divided into terminative (or limitive) and durative (or non-limitive) The difference is in the aspective nature of their lexical meaning. **Terminative verbs** present a process as potentially limited, e.g., *come, leave, take, bring, stand, up, sit down, give up.* **Durative verbs** present a process as not limited by any border point, *e.g., move, run, stand, sit, live, work, look for, hope*, etc.

On the basis of their **combinability with words denoting the subjects and the objects of the actions** they name verbs can be objective and subjective. **Objective verbs** are mostly associated with two nouns or noun equivalents denoting the subject or the object of the action named by the verb. **Subjective (non-objective) verbs** are associated only with nouns or noun equivalents denoting the subject of the action.

Objective verbs that are connected with their object words directly, without a preposition, are called **transitive** verbs. All the other verbs, both subjective and objective are called **intransitive**.

The general division of verbs into transitive/intransitive is morphologically more relevant for Ukrainian than for English, because the passive forms of the verb are confined in Ukrainian to transitive verbs only. The division of verbs into subjective and objective is highly relevant for English morphology, since in English all three types of objects can be transformed into the subjects of the corresponding passive constructions.

4. **Semi-notional verbs** have "faded" lexical meaning; the meaning of action is almost obliterated. They are comparatively few in number, but of very frequent occurrence, and include such subgroups as link-verbs, modal verbs, aspect verbs, and auxiliary verbs.

Auxiliary verbs are regarded as grammatical elements of the categorial forms of the verb. They are *be, have, do, will, should, would (may, might).* **Modal verbs** are characterized by their peculiar meaning. The meaning of "action" is suppressed by the meaning of ability, necessity, permission, etc., i.e. the meaning of the subject attitude type (M. Blokh). **Link-verbs** introduce the notional part of the predicate (the predicative). *To be* is a "pure link-verb". The other link-verbs are specifying *(to appear, to seem, etc.)*

Link-verbs fall into the following groups:

(a) link-verbs of being: be, seem, look, appear;

(b) link-verbs of becoming: become, get, go;

(c) link-verbs of remaining: *remain, keep.*

Aspect verbs indicate beginning, continuation and termination of an action.

5. The categories of **person and number** are closely interconnected. As in all Indo-European languages they are expressed simultaneously, in one morpheme.

The category of **person** serves in Indo-European languages to present an action as associated by the speaker (1) with himself or a group of person including himself; (2) the person (s) addressed; (3) the person (s) or thing (s) not participating in the process of speech. Thus the 1st and 2nd persons are immediate participants of communication; 3rd person is not immediately included into the communication.

In Modern English the expression of the category of person is divided into 3 peculiar subsystems: (1) modal verbs –no person inflexions; (2) the verb *to be* –3 different suppletive person forms; (3) all other verbs –the 3 rd person singular is opposed to all other forms. The 2nd person singular in Old English had marked distinctions. At present it is used only in dialects, sometimes in poetry, in solemn and pathetic prose with a distinct archaic flavour, in religious texts.

As to the plural number there are no verb form distinctions between the 1st and 3rd persons. Owing to the presence of the plural personal pronouns (we, you, they) person distinctions are felt in the plural of the verb as well. There are no person oppositions in the past tense. In the future tense the person opposition of *shall/will* is being gradually obliterated due to the spreading of *'ll.*

The category of **number** shows whether the action is associated with one or with more than one doer. Accordingly it denotes something fundamentally different from what is indicated by the number of nouns; e.g. *He eats three times a day* doesn't indicate a single eating but a single eater.

Modal verbs do not distinguish number at all because of their peculiar historical development. Some others are but rarely used in the singular because the meaning of "oneness" is hardly compatible with their lexical meaning, e.g. *to crowd, to conspire.*

There is no functional meaning in the system of person and number taken by itself. But it serves to indicate the person and the number of the subject of the process due to the substantive character of the categorical meanings of person and number. The combination of the English finite verb with the subject is obligatory not only syntactically but also to express the person of the subject of the process. It is a specific semi-analytical expression of grammatical categories. The subject forces the verb through its inflexion to express substantival meaning not represented in the form of the subject.

6. **Tense** is a verbal category which reflects the objective category of time and expresses the relation between the time of the action and the time of the utterance. The concept of time is common to all languages. The number of tenses and their meanings are different in different languages.

There are three major tenses in English: present, past and future. This ternary opposition is normally reduced to two binary oppositions: the opposition of **primary time** (past-present) and the opposition of **prospective time** (future-present). The present is the unmarked member in both the oppositions and consequently more common in language.

Graphically time is shown generally by means of notions of space:

past ----------------------------- present ---future

In reality, however, the relations between the present, past and future are much more complicated. Denotation of time can be lexical and grammatical (grammatical temporality).

All the lexical expressions of time that refer the denoted moments or periods of time to the present moment (the moment of speech) are "present-oriented", or "**absolutive**". The absolutive denotation of time is distributed among the sphere of the present (*now*), the sphere of the past (*yesterday*) and the sphere of the future (*next week*).

The **non-absolutive** denotation of time does not characterize an event from the point of view of the present moment. It can be "relative" or "factual". The **relative** expression of time correlates two or more events (e.g. *before that, some time later, at that time).* The **factual** expression of time either directly states the astronomical time of an event (e.g. *in 2000*) or refers the denoted action to a historical landmark (e.g. *during World War I*).

The lexical denotation of time is detailed. The **grammatical denotation** is more abstract and generalized. Thus the present tense as expressed by the finite verb is a variable period of time, including the moment of speech within its definite or indefinite stretch and opposed to the past and the future time. E.g. *Knowledge is power* implies both "always" and "at the moment of speech".

But in most cases lexical denotations cannot indicate the time of the process without the corresponding grammatical tenses: *In the morning he worked in the library and in the afternoon had a nap in the garden.*

Sometimes the lexical denotation stands in contrast to the grammatical tense, e.g. *Yesterday he turned the corner and what do you think happens next?* The **transpositional use** of the present instead of the past is called "historical present" and serves to enliven the narration of a past event.

Neutralization of the opposition present-future can be obligatory or optional. The former occurs in the subordinate clauses of time and condition when present tenses are used to denote future actions, e.g. *If you help me, we'll finish the work in an hour.* Optional neutralization occurs when the Present Indefinite or the Present Continuous are used to denote planned future actions. The present continuous is generally used to express a planned future action of a person or a lifeless object, the present indefinite, for scheduled actions performed by vehicles (planes, buses, trains, etc.), e.g. *He is leaving tomorrow. Hurry up: the train starts at 5.05.*

As to the "**problem of the future tense**", O. Jespersen was among the first grammarians to express doubts as to the existence of the future tense in modern English. According to him, the verbs *shall* and *will* in combination with the infinitive preserve some of their original meanings: *shall* of compulsion or obligation, and *will*, of volition. Thus, from Jespersen's point of view, English has no means of expressing "pure futurity" free from a shade of modality, which makes the future tense different from the present and the past tenses.

A certain modal meaning of the future tense cannot be denied. A future action is not seen as quite real. It is only foreseen, or anticipated, or planned. However, though in some cases *shall* and *will* really express some shades of modal meanings, in other

cases the modal meanings of obligation or volition respectively are excluded by the context, e.g. *I am sorry, I am afraid I <u>will have to go</u> back to the hotel* (West).

Traditional grammar gives the following rules for usage: *shall+Infinitive* for the 1st person and *will+Infinitive* for the 2nd and the 3rd persons express a future action; the reverse combination expresses a modal meaning: / *will* - intention or desire, *you shall* — promise, command, threat, etc.

However, in Modern English the opposition of person auxiliaries is often neutralized for the 1st person. The construction / *will+Infinitive* is called "**voluntary future**": it expresses an action which is to be performed by the speaker on his own accord, e.g. *Your arrival cannot have been announced to his majesty, <u>I will see</u> about it.* The construction / *shall+Infinitive* serves to express "**non-voluntary future**", i.e. a future action that will be realized without the will of the speaker, irrespective of his choice, e.g. *I'm sorry, madam, but I'm going to faint. <u>I shall go off</u>, madam, if I don 't have something.*

The auxiliary *shall* is generally retained for the 1st person in the contracted negative form *shan 't* and in interrogative sentences.

The **future-in-the past** forms are used chiefly in subordinate clauses when in the principal clause the predicate is used in a past tense, e.g. *This did not mean that she was content to live. It meant simply that even death, if it came to her here, <u>would seem</u> stale* (West). The problem is that the future-in-the past tenses do not easily fit into a system of tenses represented by a straight line running out of the past into the future. Their starting point is not the present, from which the past and the future are reckoned, but the past itself. I. Ivanova propounded the idea of temporal centres; she also used the term "dependent future" instead of the future-in-the-past. N. Irtenyeva divides the system of English tenses into two halves: the tenses centring in the present (present and future tenses) and the tenses centring in the past (past and future-in-the past tenses). The latter are characterized by specific features: the root vowel (e.g. *sung* as against *sing*) or the suffix *–d* or *–t*, e.g. *looked, spen<u>t</u>, ha<u>d</u> been, woul<u>d</u> go, ha<u>d</u> been singing*.

7. **Aspect** reflects the inherent mode of realization of the process irrespective of its timing. It is closely connected with the category of tense and they may be presented within the same morpheme. The category is subdivided into the subcategories of development and retrospect.

The **subcategory of development** is presented by the opposition of continuous-non-continuous aspects. The continuous aspect is the marked member of the opposition expressed by the formula "be … ing". The continuous form denotes an action proceeding continuously at a definite period of time, within certain time limits. The indefinite (non-continuous) aspect form, on the other hand, denotes an action either occurring repeatedly or everlasting, without any notion of lasting duration at a given moment. However, as B. Ilyish points out, any variations of this essential meaning of the indefinite aspect form may be due to the lexical meaning of the verb and of other words in the sentence. Thus, the action in the sentence *The Earth turns round the Sun* goes on without interruption, while the action in the sentence *The sun rises in the east* is repeated every morning and does not take place

at all in the evening. But this is irrelevant for the meaning of the grammatical form as such and merely serves to illustrate its possible applications.

There have been attempts in grammatical studies to consider the continuous forms as tense forms. Thus, O. Jespersen treated verb forms of the type *is writing* as means of expressing limited duration, i.e. expressing an action serving as frame to another which is performed within the frame set by that action. A similar view was propounded by N. Irtenyeva, who thinks that the basic meaning of the type *is writing* is that of simultaneity of an action with another action or situation. But, according to B. Ilyish, that it may be true for complex sentences in which the type *writes* is used in the principal clause, while the type *is writing* is used in the subordinate clause, and the narration refers to the past time, e.g. *But once she was in the car and André was bending over her, tucking her rug about her, her sense of freedom left her* (West). The above view of the continuous aspect cannot be applied to the present tense. Although N. Irtenyeva says that in such cases the action expressed by the *is writing* type is simultaneous with the act of speech, firstly, the act of speech is not mentioned in the speech and, secondly, simultaneity with the act of speech is the definition of the present tense in general, and not of the type *is writing* as such. Another view is held by I. Ivanova. According to her, *is writing* is a continuous aspect form but *writes* is not an aspect form at all, because its meaning is vague and cannot be clearly defined. On the basis of those assertions the author comes to the conclusion that some finite forms of the English verb are "aspect-tense forms" while others have no aspect and are therefore "purely tense forms". But it is not tense distinctions that are found in the opposition *write –was writing*; the perfect continuous forms do not convey the idea of simultaneity (e.g. *He has been working at the project for over a year*); simultaneous actions are often expressed by non-continuous forms of the verb (*While I watched the programme she cooked the dinner*).

The **subcategory of retrospect** is presented by the opposition of perfect –non-perfect forms. The marked member of the opposition is the perfect aspect expressed by the formula "have …en" and denoting the priority of the action to another action or situation.

The position of the perfect forms in the system of the English verb has occasioned much controversy. B. Ilyish sums up the main views on the essence of perfect forms in modern English in the following way:

(1) The perfect is a peculiar tense category. This view was held, for example, by O. Jespersen.

(2) The perfect is a peculiar aspect category which has been defined by various scholars as "retrospective", "resultative", "successive", etc.

(3) The perfect is neither tense nor aspect. A. Smirnitsky understands it as a means of expressing "time relation". E. Axiutina, while adopting A. Smirnitsky's view of the perfect, proposes the term "correlation".

According to M.Blokh, the perfect form may be regarded as intermediary between aspect and tense. The temporal meaning is apparent in the following sentence: *I haven't met Charlie for years*. (The meaning is made explicit through the test-question: *For how long haven't you met Charlie*?) The aspective meaning of the perfect form is apparent in the sentence: *I haven't met Charlie for years, and can*

hardly recognize him in a crowd. (It is revealed through a question-test: *What is the consequence of your not having met Charlie for years*?) The aspective meaning of the perfect form is more prominent, so the perfect is considered to be an aspect form of the verb.

The nature of verb forms is disclosed through oppositional reductions: if the functional meanings of two forms are neutralized in a certain context, these forms are members of the same categorial opposition. The indefinite (non-continuous) aspect forms substitute the continuous forms if the progression of an action is indicated by means other than aspective, e.g. *The night is wonderfully silent. The stars shine with a fierce brilliancy*. The verb denoting an action in development is regularly used in the indefinite aspect when it is followed by a participial construction functioning as an adverbial modifier of attendant circumstances, e.g. *He just stood looking at her*. On the other hand, the continuous aspect can be transpositionally used to denote habitual, recurrent actions in emphatic contexts, e.g. *I'm always losing my keys*.

The category of retrospect is neutralized with both terminative and non-terminative verbs, e.g. *I'm not ashamed because I didn't do it*. Oppositional reduction of perfect –non-perfect forms is common in some colloquial sentences, e.g. *Where <u>do</u> you come from*? *I <u>hear </u>he has returned. I'<u>m told</u> he is planning to work abroad*.

Various aspective meaning can be in-built in the semantic structure of the verb. The division into terminative and non-terminative verbs is based on their inherent properties. Besides the grammatical classification of aspect forms there is a **lexico-syntactic classification** according to which there can be: a) **terminative** aspect representing an action as a whole (e.g. *She sighed. Last year we built a new house*); b) **point-action** aspects calling attention to a certain point of an action: initial (**ingressive aspect**, e.g. He woke up early), final (**effective aspect**, e.g. *He knocked him out in the fourth round*), or representing an action as continuing (**durative aspect**, e.g. *He kept working*); c) iterative aspect denoting an indefinitely prolonged succession of like actions, e.g. *Each night the old man would walk to town*.

8. There are different definitions of the category of **voice**. According to N. Rayevskaya, voice "expresses the relation between the action and its subject showing whether the action is performed by its subject or passed on to it". M. Blokh defines voice as the verbal category which shows the direction of the process as regards the participants of the situation reflected in the syntactic construction.

The category of voice reflects the objective relations between the action and the subject or object of the action. Traditionally voice is regarded as a two-member opposition of active and passive voice forms. The category of voice, like the categories of person and number, is not an inherent verbal category. It does not denote a characteristic of the process but rather the subjective appraisal of the situation by the speaker. The **active voice** denotes that the subject is the doer of the action. The **passive voice** denotes that the subject is the recipient of the action. The passive is the marked member of the opposition and is characterized by the formula "be … -en (participle II)". In colloquial speech the role of the passive auxiliary can occasionally be performed by *get* or *become*, e.g. *Sam got licked for a good reason. The young violinist became admired by all*. The number of such examples is

increasing, though grammarians differ about their status. One can say, for instance, *He gets punished regularly*, but one cannot say *Gets he punished regularly*?

Although passive forms theoretically can be formed from any objective verb the passive is alien to many verbs of the statal subclass such as *have, possess, belong, resemble, cost, remain*; phrasal verbs such as *take part/courage/flight/alarm/heart, lose heart*, etc. However the demarcation line between the verbs that can be used in the passive and those that cannot is not rigid and normally non-passivized verbs can sometimes be used in the passive, e.g. *The bed has not been slept in*.

Passive constructions play an important role in the English verb system since in English not only transitive, but also intransitive verbs can be used in the passive. Thus there can be distinguished the following types of the passive: a) **direct or primary passive** when the subject of the passive construction corresponds to the direct object of the active construction (e.g. *The novel was written in 1858*). There are verbs which take two objects in the active voice but admit only the direct passive construction, e.g. *bring, do, play, telegraph*; b) **indirect or secondary passive** when the subject of the passive construction corresponds to the indirect non-prepositional object of the active construction (*For her twentieth birthday she was given a Ferrari*); c) **prepositional passive** when the subject of the passive construction corresponds to the prepositional object of the active construction (*He will be taken care of*). Among other verbs which are used in the prepositional passive constructions are *speak about (of, to), talk about (of), comment on, laugh at, mock at, sneer at, look at (upon, on, after, for), (dis)approve of, account for, send for, rely on, think of*.

The passive voice is used to avoid mentioning the doer of the action. It is done for different reasons: either he is unknown, or he is obvious, or the speaker prefers to conceal his identity, e.g. *A crime was committed last night at 15 Lily Street. Patients are taken good care of in our hospital. The information has been received from reliable sources*. The more formal referential character of passive verbal forms as compared to the active voice makes it possible to use them for stylistic purposes. Although L. Payne considers the passive a menace to style as it is 'indirect, limp, weak and sneaky", a "nobody voice" that "lack any sense of human involvement" and warns students against using it, the passive voice often provides the right tone for reporting about violence, disaster and accident, e.g. *The child was kidnapped. The woman was trapped in the burning house*. The passive – active voice opposition is also an important means of actual division of the sentence. The passive construction enables the semantic object (the recipient of the action) to become the theme of the utterance, and the attention is focused on the action itself, e.g. *The police dispersed the demonstration. – The demonstration was dispersed*.

Alongside with the active and passive voice some scholars differentiate **"medial" voices**: reflexive, reciprocal and middle. In the sentence *I wash and dress* the actions denoted by the verbs are not passed on to any outer object as in other active voice constructions, but confined to the subject of the sentence. This verbal meaning is called "**reflexive**". It may be also conveyed by the verbs *shave, hide, prepare*. Reflexive meaning can be rendered explicitly with the help of the reflexive pronouns, e.g. *I wash and dress myself*.

In the sentences of the type *The friends will be meeting tomorrow* or *They married two years ago*, the actions denoted by the verbs are performed by the subject constituents reciprocally and directed at each other. This **reciprocal** meaning of the verbs can be rendered explicitly by combining the verbs with reciprocal pronouns *each other* or *one another*.

In sentences of the type *The new paper-bags are selling like hot pies*, the actions denoted by the otherwise transitive verbs are presented as if going on of their own accord. Active forms serve to convey passive meanings and are called **middle** voice forms. M. Blokh regards such cases as neutralization of the voice opposition similar to that found in constructions with the infinitive: *He is easy to please. She was delightful to look at, witty to talk to*. Middle voice constructions can be explained by the mixed character (transitive or intransitive) of a number of verbs in modern English, e.g. *I opened the door. –The door opened. The Master burnt the manuscript. –Manuscripts do not burn. She washed the dress. –The dress washes well.*

The common argument against "medial" voices is that their distinctive meanings are not expressed morphologically and their number is limited.

The status of *be + Participle II* **construction** is a controversial problem of grammatical studies. In the sentence *You are mistaken*, "be+Participle II" is a compound nominal predicate, while in the sentence *Are you often mistaken for you brother?* the similar construction is a passive voice form. To differentiate them various methods of analysis are applied. If the construction denotes an action and can be transformed into the active voice it is classified as a passive form; if it denotes a state, as a compound nominal predicate. If the second part of the construction expresses a process the construction is a passive form; if it has ceased to be a participle and has turned into an adjective the construction is a nominal predicate. The status of the construction is also determined by the context: a by-phrase or a parallel construction, e.g. *The door was opened by the butler. The door on the left was closed, and the door on the right was open*. If the construction is passive the link-verb can be used in any form, synthetic or analytical (*The fence will be painted/has been painted/is being painted*.); if it a compound nominal predicate the link verb is only used in the Present or Past Indefinite.

9. The category of **mood**, like the category of voice differs in principle from the categories of tense and aspect. While tense and aspect characterize the action from the point of view of its inherent properties, the category of mood expresses the outer interpretation of the action, namely, the speaker's presenting it as actual or imaginary (the subject of a hypothesis, speculation, desire) (M. Blokh). V. Vinogradov gave the following definition: "Mood expresses the relation of the action to reality, as stated by the speaker."

Mood is presented by the opposition of the forms of the **oblique** mood expressing unreality and the forms of the **direct** mood expressing real actions. The marked member of the opposition is the oblique mood.

The special complexity of the category of mood in the English language is caused by the diversity of modal verbal meanings and the poverty of the morphological basis of the verb. The same forms are used by the indicative and oblique moods to express their peculiar meanings. The homonymic verbal forms

used in the oblique mood are sometimes called pseudo-Past Indefinite and pseudo-Past Perfect to differentiate them from the forms of the indicative mood.

In the oblique moods there occurs a tense retrospect shift, e.g. *He is not here, and I'm sorry. -1 wish he were here.*

However the tenses of the oblique moods do not have absolute but relative meanings. Only in the indicative mood the system of tenses is fully developed. According to B.Ilyish, the reason for this is obvious: it is when real actions are described is necessary represent the by exact temporal characteristics; actions which do not take place in reality but are thought to be desirable, possible, etc, do not require such a temporal exactitude. The verbal forms in the subjunctive mood do not refer the action to a certain point of time (present, past or future) but merely indicate that the action of the verb in the oblique mood coincides in time with the action in the principal clause or with the moment of speech or precedes them.

There is no unity of opinions concerning the category of mood in modern English. The number of moods in different grammar studies varies from 2 to 17. A. Smirnitsky, O. Ahkmanova, Ganshina and Vasilevskaya and some other scholars name 6 moods in present-day English: indicative, subjunctive I, subjunctive II, conditional, suppositional, and imperative.

Subjunctive I represents an action as problematic, but not contradicting reality (*So be it*.). Subjunctive II represents an action as contrary to reality (*I wish you were here*.). The suppositional mood represents an action as problematic, but not necessarily contradicting reality; it expresses necessity, order, suggestion, supposition, etc. (*It is impossible that he should have thought so*.) The conditional mood represents an action as unreal due to the absence of the necessary circumstances on which the realization of the action depends. (*If he were here he would help us. If I had not been so busy yesterday, I should have come*.) Using the imperative mood the speaker urges the person addressed to perform an action, which means that the action is not an actual fact yet.

The imperative mood in English is represented by one form only, e.g. *Go*! It differs from all other moods in several respects. It has no person, number, tense or aspect distinctions and is limited in its use to one type of sentence only, i.e. the imperative sentence. Usually a verb in the imperative has no pronoun acting as a subject, though the pronoun may be used in emotional speech: *"You leave me alone!" she cried out loudly*.(Caldwell)

A disputable problem is the status of the constructions of the type "let+personal pronoun (in the objective case) or noun (in the common case)+infinitive", e.g. *Let me see. Let Paul do as he will*. According to B. Ilyish they cannot be called analytical forms of the imperative as the personal pronoun (e.g. *me*) or the noun (*John*) stand in objective relation to the infinitive.

M. Blokh uses the term **"subjunctive"** to indicate all the mood system of unreality. The subjunctive presents two sets of forms according to the structural division of verbal tenses into the present and the past. They constitute two functional subsystems of the subjunctive: the spective (the mood of attitudes) and the conditional (the mood of appraising causal-conditional relations of processes). The **spective** is presented by **pure spective** (the traditional subjunctive I) and the **modal**

spective (modal subjunctive). The **conditional** comprises the **stipulative conditional** (subjunctive II) and **consective conditional** (subjunctive III).

The imperative is structurally identical to the pure spective (the same infinitive stem). Semantically the imperative also conveys the meaning of attitudes; it does not present actions as real but rather as desirable. For this reason it is close to the Subjunctive mood in meaning. A transformation analysis makes it explicit: *Do as 1 say. — / insist that you do as I say.* When the speaker expresses his wish by using one of the subjunctive moods, he communicates to the listener what he considers desirable. When using the imperative mood the speaker directly urges the person addressed to fulfill his order or request. Cf.: *I wish you were quiet./ Be quiet.*

The modal subjunctive can be classified into the "desirative" series (*may*-spective), the "considerative" series (*should* - spective), and the "imperative series" (*let* - spective): *May success attend you. Whatever they should say of the project it must be considered seriously. Let's agree to differ.*

The spective mood is regarded as the Present Subjunctive as its forms essentially coincide with the forms of the verb in the Present Indefinite of the Indicative mood, e.g. *May all your dreams come true.*

The Conditional mood is the Past Subjunctive as its forms are homonymic to the forms of the Past Indefinite or Past Perfect of the indicative mood. It is used in conditional sentences in which one of the clauses contains a condition (stipulation) and the other, a consequence.

The conditional mood is a mood of reasoning by the rule of contraries, the contraries being situations of reality opposed to the corresponding situations of unreality, e.g. *If you had come a bit earlier you would have met her (but in reality you did not come and did not meet her),*

M. Y. Blokh unites under the title "stupulative" a wide range of uses that are traditionally given different names. By means of transformational analysis, he shows that different types of clauses are not essentially different from the conditional clause, e.g. *Even though it were raining, we 'II go boating — We don 't know whether it will be raining or not, but even in case it is raining we 'II go boating* (clause of concession - conditional clause). *She was talking to Bennie as if he were a grown person. — She was talking to Bennie as she would be talking to him if he were a grown person,* (comparative clause — conditional clause).

Lecture 9. The verbids

1. Definition of verbids. Problem of the category of tense of verbids.

2. Infinitive as the initial form of the verb, its nounal and verbal features. Role of the infinitive in the expression of modality. Split infinitive. Marked and unmarked infinitives. Problem of the infinitival "particle" *to.*

3. Gerund as compared to the infinitive. Nounal and verbal features of the gerund. Process as expressed by the infinitive, the gerund and the verbal noun

4. Verbal, adjectival and adverbial features of the participle. Constructions of the fused participle or half-gerund. Means of differentiating the participle, the gerund and the verbal noun.

1. **Verbids** (verbals or non-finite forms of the verb) include the infinitive, the gerund, and the Participle. The term "verbids" is used in more recent studies instead of the older term "verbals" because of the polysemantic character of the latter, e.g., *verbal categories, verbal means, verbal behaviour*, etc.

They have mixed properties combining features of the verb with those of some other parts of speech:

(a) the lexico-grammatical meaning of action is presented as a substance or a qualifying action; (b) their peculiar morphemes are *-ing*, *-en/ed*, *to*; (c) like finite verbs, verbids combine with adverbs, nouns, and pronouns, and like nouns or adverbs, with finite verbs; (d) their syntactic functions are different from those of the finite verb: they are not used as single predicates in primary predication structures but as predicates in the secondary predication structures, or subjects, objects, attributes, adverbial modifiers, and part of the compound verbal predicate; (e) verbids differentiate the categories of aspect and voice, though presented differently in the infinitive, on the one hand, and in the gerund and the participle, on the other hand.

As to the category of tense, it is only relatively expressed in verbids. The non-perfect forms of the infinitive, the gerund and the participle alike generally convey a simultaneous or a posterior action of the verbid in relation to the action expressed by the finite verb. The perfect forms of the verbid serve to express an anterior action, e.g. *I hope (hoped, will hope) to speak to you later. He confesses (confessed) to have thought about it*.

2. The **infinitive** is the most abstract form of the verb, the head form of the verbal paradigm, the verbal nominative (A.Shakhmatov). It originated from the noun and at present combines nounal and verbal features: the infinitive has the meaning of a process partially viewed as a substance. Consequently, it can perform the inherent functions of the noun in the sentence: subject and object. Being a verb, it differentiates the categories of aspect (development and retrospect) and voice. Its paradigm includes 6 forms; two more forms are possible but of rare occurrence and are stylistically coloured.

The infinitive is presented by two varieties: with and without *to* (**marked and unmarked infinitive**). The infinitival *to* is usually called a particle but it does not have the properties of the particle. The particle as a part of speech has the lexico-grammatical meaning of "emphatic specification", distinct lexical meanings, and combinability with almost any part of speech. The infinitival *to* does not emphasize or specify anything, has no lexical meaning and combines only with the infinitive.

The infinitival *to* can be treated as an auxiliary word. Like other auxiliaries it can represent the whole analytical word or be separated from the rest of the analytical word by some other word(s), e.g. *Will you go? –I want to. In order to fully appreciate the significance of the event we must remember what happened just a month ago.* If the infinitival *to* is separated from the notional part by some other word the infinitive is called **split**.

The infinitive is regarded as constituent of the expression of the **modal representation of an action**. It is only the infinitive that combines with the modal verb to form a compound modal verbal predicate. Besides the infinitive can acquire a

modal meaning in the attributive, objective, adverbial functions, e.g. *This is a book to read. It was arranges for them to have a rest.*

3. The **gerund** like the infinitive combines the properties of the verb and the noun. It has more of the noun than the infinitive as it became part of the verb system much later. The gerund is characterized by combinability with possessive pronouns, nouns in the genitive case form, and prepositions. It can perform all the syntactic functions proper of the noun. The paradigm of the gerund comprises four forms: like the finite verb, it distinguishes the categories of aspect (Perfect/Indefinite) and voice (Active/Passive);

Though the gerund and the infinitive have much in common they do not repeat but rather complement each other. (a) On the whole the action expressed by the gerund is more abstract than the action conveyed by the infinitive. Cf. *I like going there* (= in general) *but I don 't like to go there today.* (b) The action denoted by the gerund may not be associated with any doer of the action or else the doer of the action is not clear. Cf. *I like singing. I like to sing.* (c) The gerund often denotes an imperfective action while the infinitive serves to convey a perfective action. Cf. *She likes doing homework late at night when there is nobody to disturb her./ She likes to do homework first and then watch TV.* (d) The gerund and infinitive may be used in the same construction with different meanings, e.g. *He stopped smoking./ He stopped to smoke.* (e) The infinitive follows such verbs as *to hope, to promise, to refuse, to offer*, etc. The gerund is usual after *to avoid, to delay, to deny to enjoy, to excuse, to keep on, to suggest*, etc; after verbs followed by prepositions: *to approve of, to agree to, etc.; after adjectives with prepositions aware of, capable of, fond of*, etc.

A combination of verbal and nounal properties is characteristic of the verbal noun as well. According to M. Blokh, the infinitive, the gerund and the verbal noun present a process essentially as a substance but the infinitive shows the process as dynamic; the gerund, as semi-dynamic; the verbal noun, as static.

4. The **participle** is a processual qualifying form of the verb. It combines the features of the finite verb with those of the adjective and the adverb. Like the verb, it can function as the secondary predicate in participial constructions, e.g. *I saw him crossing the street*. At the same time it can perform the functions typical of the adjective and the adverb in the sentence, e.g. *Look at the girl <u>talking</u> to your sister. <u>Entering</u> the school in the morning, he was surprised by the silence*.

The participle is presented by two varieties: Participle I and Participle II which differ both in structure and in meaning. Participle I morphologically coincides with the gerund and has four forms, e.g. *reading, having read, being read, having been read*. For this reason some authors do not differentiate the gerund and Participle I and regard them as ***ing-forms*** of the verb which in different contexts acquire different shades of meaning and perform different syntactic functions (the gerund is mostly used as subject or object, whereas the participle mostly functions as an attribute); in the functions of attribute and adverbial modifier they differ in combinability: the gerund is always used with prepositions, e.g. *There are different ways <u>of getting</u> people's consent. <u>In leaving</u> home, he forgot to lock the door*.

The solution of the problem depends on the extent to which we are prepared to allow for shades of meaning in one set of forms. The gerund combines verbal and

nounal qualities; Participle I, verbal, adjectival, and adverbial qualities. These differences are distinct when the gerund and Participle I are used as pre-posed attributes: *dancing hall – dancing girl, sleeping draught – sleeping child.*

Participle I and the gerund are difficult to differentiate in sentences of the type *"Excuse my boys (them) having bored you".* The *ing*-form in such examples differs from a "classical" gerund in combining with a noun in the common case or a pronoun in the objective case in the function of the secondary subject of the complex. The *ing*-form is treated as a "half-gerund", or "fused participle", or "gerundial participle". Such complexes are common with the nouns which have no case oppositions, when the *ing*-form is preceded by more than one noun, or to avoid ambiguity in oral speech, e.g. *I'm sorry about <u>the letter</u> not having been sent yet. I was surprised at <u>Peter and John</u> having agreed to the plan. Excuse <u>my son</u> being late for the lesson.*

Ing-forms also include the verbal noun. As different from typical nouns, it has a strongly felt meaning of the process in its semantic structure. In the sentence it performs the functions of subject and object, can be modified by an adjective and the definite article, e.g. *The writing of the diploma turned out to be more time-consuming than she had expected.*

The two forms of the participle –Participle I and Participle II –are different both in structure and in meaning. Participle II is a single form having no paradigm of its own and combining the properties of the verb and the adjective. The use of Participle II outside analytical formations (like *has done* or *will be done*) is comparatively limited. In such cases it is either used as a predicative or a post-posed attribute, e.g. *The door is shut. This is the new machine invented by our engineer.* Such forms as *been*, *laughed*, *run*, *sat*, *lain*, *wept*, etc. can only appear within a perfect form, but never as a separate participle. A few second participles of intransitive verbs can, however, be used as attributes, e.g. *fallen leaves, retired colonel, withered flowers, vanished civilization* and some others. But these participles are in the process of adjectivization. Some participles have turned into regular adjectives, e.g. *written work* as opposed to *oral work* or *devoted friend*, where *devoted* does not designate an action or even the result of an action, but a property.

 Though Participle II generally renders a passive meaning, there are some exceptions in this respect as well, e.g. *well-read (person), drunk (man), runaway (horse).* It normally has a passive meaning not only when used in passive voice constructions but also without the auxiliary *to be.* Likewise it generally has a perfective meaning both in the combination with *to have* and when used alone.

Participle II has no category of aspect but it may denote simultaneousness or priority depending on the lexical meaning of the verb and the context. B. Ilyish compares the following phrases: (a) *a young man liked by everybody*, (b) *a young man killed in the war.* The action denoted by the participle *liked* is going on, whereas that denoted by the participle *killed* is finished. This should not be interpreted as two different meanings of the participle as a grammatical form, since it depends on the lexical meaning of the verb (the action denoted by *liked* can last indefinitely, while the form *killed* denotes an action which reaches its end and cannot last after that).

Module II. Syntax
Lecture 1. Word-group

1. Minor and major syntax.

2. Definition of the word-group. Word-group vs sentence.

3. Criteria for classifying word-groups.

4. Coordinate and subordinate word-groups.

5. Objective and qualifying relations in subordinate word-groups. Semantic schemes of word-groups N+N. Multinominal chains.

6. Means of expressing syntactic relations in subordinate word-groups and their correlative relevance in modern English.

1. Syntax is divided into the phrase sublevel (**minor syntax**) and the sentence sublevel (**major syntax**). According to O. Morokhovskaya the **phrase sublevel** is made up by non-communicative units: word-forms and word-groups. The **sentence sublevel** is comprised by communicative units: the simple sentence (N+V finite) and the composite sentence (clause+clause). The clause is intermediary between the word-group and the sentence: like the sentence it is of finite predication; like the word-group it is a dependent non-communicative unit.

2. A **scientific theory of the word-group** appeared in the end of the nineteenth century in Russia due to F.Fortunatov, A.Shakhmatov, A.Peshkovsky, V.Vinogradov. Abroad it was established in the 1930s, esp. due to the American L.Bloomfield.

Different terms are used in linguistics to denote a combination of words: "word-group", "word cluster" and "phrase". On the whole "phrase" is more popular with American scholars, "word-group", with the British. Neither are scholars unanimous as to the interpretation of the notion of the word-group. Sometimes it is understood as any syntactically organized word combination consisting of either notional words (e.g. to ignore the remark) or of a notional and a functional word (e.g. *under the sun*). However, the latter are equivalent to separate word in their nominative function; only a combination of notional words can be called a unit of polynomination associated with the word-group.

Unlike the sentence, the word-group can undergo grammatical changes: *write a letter*, *has written letters*, *wrote the letter*, *would have written a letter…* are grammatical modifications of the same word-group. Each component of the word-group can be expanded according to the laws of a given language, e.g. *a nice day –an exceptionally nice day*. In the sentence every word has a definite form which cannot be changed.

3. Word-groups are **classified** according to the following **criteria**: (1) the number of constituents; (2) the nature of constituents; (3) their order; (4) syntactic relations between them.

Theoretically the number of constituents in a word-group is not limited but multiple combinations are usually reduced to elementary ones (two-member).

According to the lexico-grammatical class of the constituents word-groups are classified into substantive (nounal), verbal, adjectival and adverbial.

The order of constituents is of primary importance, English being a language of isolating type. The sequence of constituents determines the meaning of a word-group, e.g. *a pot flower – a flower pot, a dog house – a house dog, cane sugar – sugar cane, to read a book – a book to read*. The second element of a substantive word-group usually conveys a more general meaning while the first element specifies the meaning of the word-group.

Syntactic relations between components can be described in two different ways: (a) in terms of syntagmatic relations of independence, dependence and interdependence and (b) in terms of syntactic functions.

4. Syntagmatic relations of **independence** are characteristic of **coordinate word-groups** (equipotent, in M. Blokh's terminology), i.e. word-groups whose components are equal in rank. These relations are also called symmetrical. Words in a coordinate word-group can be connected syndetically or asyndetically (with or without conjunctions). M. Blokh differentiates consecutive (e.g. *on the beach or in the water, the sun and the moon*) and non-consecutive (or cumulative) equipotent connection of words, which in writing is signaled by a comma or a dash, e.g. *agreed, but reluctantly; quick –and careless*.

Theoretically coordinate word-groups may include an unlimited number of notional words; in fact there are seldom more than 4 or 5. Lengthy coordinate word-groups are used to create a certain stylistic effect, e.g. *He could concentrate his immediate attention on the donkeys and tumbling bells, the priests, patios, beggars, children, crowing cocks, sombreros, old high white villages, goats, olive-trees, greening plains, singing birds in tiny cages, water-sellers, sunsets, melons, mules, great churches, pictures and swimming great mountains in the fascinating land* (J. Galsworthy).

Syntagmatic relations of **interdependence** which were pointed out by Louis Hjelmslev and supported by L. Barkhudarov characterize the relations between the subject and the predicate in a predicate word-group. It is a bilateral domination, according to M. Blokh: the subject subordinates the predicate formally; the predicate subordinates the subject semantically. But the very existence of the predicate word-group is a disputable issue. Most grammarians believe that predicate relations are characteristic of the sentence, not the word-group.

Besides interdependence is a variety of **dependence** which is characteristic of **subordinate word-groups** (dominational, in M. Blokh's terminology). Subordination is based on inequality of components and these relations are called asymmetrical. The dominating component is the **kernel** (the nucleus, or the headword). The dominated component is the **adjunct** (the complement, or the expansion, or the modifier). Subordination is more widely used in English than coordination. Subordinate word-groups are more restricted as to the number of the components. Word-groups with practically limitless adjuncts are used to create a stylistic effect, e.g. *the man in the store across the street by the bank under the bridge… .*

According to the positions of the kernel and the adjunct(s) subordinate word-groups fall into: **regressive** (left-hand position of the adjunct in relation to the kernel, e.g. *an old house, fairly well*), **progressive** (right-hand position of the adjunct, e.g. *a*

test in grammar, to rely on Jim) and **central** (the kernel is in the middle of the word-group, e.g. *no particular interest in the subject*).

5. In terms of **syntactic functions**, relations between the components of the subordinate word-group can be objective or qualifying. **Objective** relations are those between the process and its object and are characterized as very close. Formally they can be prepositional and non-prepositional. From the semantico-syntactic point of view they can be direct (*gave the book*) and indirect, or oblique (*asked the boy, spoke to the boy*).

Qualifying relations can be attributive and adverbial.

In **attributive** word-groups (attribute+noun) the kernel is generally a noun and they are built according to the models: A+N, N+N, Npos+N, pron/num+N, Part I/II+N (N – noun, N pos –noun in the possessive case, A – adjective, pron – pronoun, num – numeral, Part I/II –participle I/II).

Attributive word-groups can have pre-posed or post-posed adjuncts. Their position depends on their lexico-grammatical class (part of speech), origin and expansion. Thus attributes expressed by an adjective, a pronoun, a participle I or an ordinal numeral generally precede the noun. Attributes expressed by a participle II, a gerund, an infinitive or a cardinal numeral follow the kernel. Native adjectives precede the noun they modify; adjectives of French origin which are used as legal terms (e.g. *ambassador plenipotentiary, heir legal, heir male/female, bride elect, life matrimonial, court martial, finances private/public, Postmaster general, sum total, from times immemorial*) and Latin grammatical terms (*the third person singular/plural*) follow the noun. Attributes with an expansion of their own are always in postposition to the kernel, e.g. *the car damaged in the accident*, (*John was*) *the boy brightest in his class*. Post-posed attributes are also found in some set phrases (*generations unborn, two days running, for the time being*). Attributes and their expansions can be transformed into compounds and placed in preposition to the noun, e.g. *fruit grown at home – home-grown fruit*. Pre-posed attributes (nouns or adjectives) may have left-hand expansion, e.g. *remarkably brave people, life support system control box*.

If there are two or more attributes in pre-position, (a) closest to the head-word is the attribute to which the greatest importance is attached, e.g. *steady dangerous eyes*; (b) the attribute denoting a more general quality precedes the one denoting a more specific quality, e.g. *a nice good-natured smile*; (c) a shorter attribute precedes a longer one, e.g. *a rude ignorant man*. Besides attributes generally precede the kernel in the following order: (other properties) –age –size –form –colour – nationality –material –purpose –noun, e.g. *an old red brick wall, happy little children*.

In attributive word-groups of the **N+N type** the relations between the constituents may be variegated, e.g. *fruit salad* (salad made of fruit), *a fruit knife* (a knife for cutting or peeling fruit), *a Vietnam village* (a village in Vietnam), *an Oxford man* (a man who received his education in Oxford). R. Lees speaks of the implicit seme between the components of a similar word-group and illustrates it with such examples: *a puppy dog* (a dog that **is** a puppy), *a bulldog* (a dog that is **like** a bull), *a shepherd dog* (a dog that **herds** sheep), *a fog dog* (a dog "**seen**" in the fog).

Combinations N+N are so common in English that English punning habits often make use of a sentence with the stress pattern so much distorted as to suggest a ridiculous utterance. A catch is sometimes posed for children, e.g. *Did you ever see a horse fly?* (a horsefly). Rarely ambiguity may arise from constructions of the Npos+N type as in the puzzle by O. Jespersen presented in his book "Essentials of English Grammar": *The son of Pharaoh's daughter is the daughter of Pharaoh's son.*

N+N constructions regularly replace Npos+N combinations, e.g. *Teacher's Training College – Teacher Training College, London's bridges – London bridges.* Combinations of more than two nouns in the common case form **multinominal chains** that are widely used in scientific style to achieve compactness and economy, e.g. *hydrolic work carriage traverse speed regulating valve* – клапан, що регулює швидкість гідравлічного переміщення робочої каретки: room *temperature neutron bombardment effect* – явища, викликані бомбардуванням нейтронами при кімнатній температурі.

Occasionalisms of the N+N type are used to create a humorous effect, e.g. *The umbrella man slowed his steps. Soapy did likewise with a presentiment that luck would again run against him. The policeman looked at the two curiously. "Of course", said the umbrella man, "that is –well, you know how these mistakes occur – I –if it's your umbrella I hope you'll excuse me –I picked it up this morning in a restaurant –if you recognize it as yours why –I hope you'll – ". "Of course, it's mine," said Soapy, viciously. The ex-umbrella man retreated.* (O' Henry)

A typological feature of the English language is the use of "quotation nouns" in the attributive function, e.g. *She looked at me with a kind of don't-touch-me-or-I'll-slap-you air. There is a sort of Oh-what a wicked world this-is-and-how-I-wish-I-could-do-something-to-make-it-better-and-nobler expression about Montmorency.*

Adverbial relations (verb+adverbial modifier) are looser than objective or attributive ones: the adjunct may precede or follow the kernel, e.g. *to reject abruptly –to abruptly reject.*

6. Syntactic relations between the components of a subordinate word-group can be expressed through agreement, government, connection and parataxis.

Agreement means that the adjunct takes a grammatical form similar to that of the kernel. In modern English this can refer only to the category of number. The only consistent agreement is found between the noun and the demonstrative pronoun, e.g. *this tree – these trees, that child – those children.* The agreement between the subject and the predicate is not consistent, cf. *The family agree. The crew are ready. England* (the team) *are playing with Scotland. The United Nations is an international organization.* Besides the agreement between the subject and the predicate belongs to the sentence level.

Government is the use of a certain form of the adjunct which is required by the kernel, but not coinciding with its form. It is found in the objective word-group of the model verb+personal pronoun (the latter takes the form of the objective case), e.g. *tell me* (*us, her*, etc.). Even this type of government is, however, made somewhat doubtful by the rising tendency to use the forms *me*, *him*, etc. outside their original sphere (e.g. *It's me*). Some grammarians refer to government adverbial word-groups of the model verb+adverb, e.g. *speak loudly/louder.*

Connection means the use of connective words to express syntactic relations between words, e.g. *go with Alice, come up to the blackboard*, etc.

Parataxis is defined negatively as the absence of agreement, government or connection, e.g. *a nice day, teaching practice, a man to rely on, to read a book, a book to read*. It is primarily expressed through word order and is the most widely used means of expressing syntactic relations in the word-group in modern English. The stronger are the relations between the components of a word-group the closer is the adjunct to the kernel, e.g. *Happy little children sing songs merrily*. In the nounal phrase *little* (denoting the age) is a more permanent characteristic of the noun than *happy* (denoting the emotional state of the children).In the verbal phrase *songs* is closer to the kernel verb than *merrily*, and these two words could not interchange their positions.

B. Iyish also distinguishes **enclosure** which consists in placing some element of a phrase between two parts of another element, e.g. placing an attribute between an article and the noun which it determines (*on-the spot investigation*) or an adverb inside a prepositional phrase (*…that little thimbleful of brandy … went sorely against the grain with her*).

Lecture 2. Theories of the simple sentence in modern linguistics
1. Notion of the sentence; its distinction from the word and the word-group.
2. Classifications of the sentence.
3. Traditional model of parts of the sentence. Problem of the secondary parts and their characteristic. Independent elements of the sentence.
4. Verbocentric conception of the sentence. Obligatory and optional relations in the sentence. Notion of the elementary simple sentence.
5. IC model of the sentence.
6. Paradigmatic study of the simple sentence. Kernel and transform sentences. Derivational procedures.
7. Sentence studies in cognitive linguistics.

1. There exist more than 300 definitions of the **sentence**. M. Blokh defines it in the following way: "The sentence is the immediate integral unit of speech built up of words according to a definite syntactic pattern and distinguished by a contextually relevant communicative purpose."

The sentence is characterized by an intonation contour, sentence stress, predication, modality, and a relatively complete meaning. These characteristics distinguish the sentence as a communicative unit from the word and the word-group as nominative language units.

A sentence may consist of just one word (*Morning. Here. Go.*), but possessing **predication**, it does not only name some referents of the extra-lingual reality but presents them as making up some situational event. Predication establishes the relation of the denoted event to objective reality. The centre of predication in the sentences of the verbal type (which is the dominant type in English) is a finite verb which expresses predicative meanings of tense, aspect, mood, etc. through grammatical forms. The process denoted by the verb is connected with the agent (the

doer of the action), the object and various circumstances of realization of the process. Thus predication is realized not only through the axis "subject – predicate", but also through the secondary parts of the sentence.

Unlike the word the sentence does not exist in the language system as a ready-made unit. With the exception of a limited number of utterances of phraseological character it is created by the speaker in the course of communication. It is not a unit of language proper, but a chunk of text built up as a result of a speech generating process. Being a unit of speech the sentence is intonationally delimited and participates in rendering essential communicative-predicative meanings (**modality** of the sentence), e.g. interrogative vs. declarative meanings.

2. Sentences are **classified** according to different criteria: their structure, the purpose of communication, the type of subject and predicate, etc. **Structurally** sentences are divided into simple and composite; one-member and two-member; complete and elliptical. Sentences are differentiated into **simple** and **composite** depending on whether they contain one or more than one predicative lines (axes).

Sentences with both a subject and a predicate are called **two-member (binary) sentences**. Binary sentence structures predominate in modern English. The basic structure is the S – P which can be extended through complementation to S –P – O, S –P –O –D, S–P –O –D –D, etc. If only one of the principal parts is present the sentence is **one-member**: nominal (*Fire!*) or verbal (*Come on!*). Nominal sentences imply the action, verbal sentences imply the agent: *(It is) fire! (You) come on*!

One-member sentences should be differentiated from **elliptical sentences**, i.e. sentences with one or more of their parts left out, which can be unambiguously inferred from the context. The main sphere of elliptical sentences is dialogue where the part of the sentence that is left out can be either supplied from the preceding sentence (pronounces by another speaker) or may be easily dispensed with, e.g. *Where are you going to? –The movies. – Who with? –David.*

According to the **purpose of communication**, sentences fall into declarative, interrogative and imperative.

The **semantic classification** of the simple sentence is based on the following principles:

1) **subject categorial meaning**:

personal sentences				(e) impersonal sentences
human		non-human		
(a) definite	(b) indefinite	(c) animate	(d) inanimate	

(a) *He came early.* (b)*He who does not work neither shall he eat.* (c) *It* (*the dog*) *ran up to me.* (d) *It* (*my watch*) *is fast.* (e) *It is never late to learn.*

2) **predicate categorial meaning**:

verbal sentences		nominal sentences	
(a) actional	(b)statal	(c)factual	(d) perceptual

(a)*The window is opening.* (b)*The window is glistening.* (c) *It rains.* (d) *It smells of hay.*

3) **subject-predicate relations**:

subjective sentences (*John lives in London*); objective sentences (*John is reading a book*); neutral, or potentially objective sentences (*John is reading*).

3. The sentence is both a communicative and nominative unit. The nominative division of the sentence is the traditional **division into parts of the sentence**. The **principal parts** of the sentence are the subject and the predicate.

The **subject** denotes the agent or the recipient of the action in active and passive constructions correspondingly. Structurally it may be simple, phrasal or clausal. Semantically is may be notional or formal. The **notional** subject is expressed by the noun or any other part of speech equivalent to the noun in the sentence: personal or indefinite pronoun, numeral, substantivized adjective, infinitive or gerund, e.g. *Seeing is believing*. The **formal** subject is a structural element of the sentence filling the position of the subject and expressed by *it* (introductory, impersonal or emphatic: *It's no use crying over spilt milk. It never rains but pours. It was then that he noticed something strange going on.*) or *there*. Sentences with the formal *there* are called existential. Their predicates may be the verbs be, live, come, lie, hang, stand and some others, e.g. *There comes my daughter. Once upon a time there lived a king*.

In English the subject generally precedes the predicate; it is direct word order. Inverted word order in the declarative sentence is found (a) in conditional clauses starting with *had*, e.g. *Had I known you better I would have entrusted the letter to you*; (b) in sentences starting with words of negative or restrictive meaning such as *never, nor, neither, nowhere else, scarcely, hardly, seldom, not only* and the conjunction *so*, e.g. *Neither came he to see her off. Hardly had he come from France he set up his own tourist business*.

The **predicate** denotes the action performed or experiences by the subject. Structurally it may be simple or compound; semantically, verbal or nominal. The **simple verbal predicate** is classified into synthetic (*come, comes, came*) and analytical (*will come, has come*, etc.). The **compound verbal predicate** is divided into the **compound verbal aspect predicate** (aspect verb+infinitive /gerund, e.g. *start to think/thinking*) and the **compound verbal modal predicate** (modal verb+infinitive, e.g. *should help*); there may be two modal verbs in the predicate, e.g. *He may have to return*.

The **compound nominal predicate** is made up by a link-verb (*be, seem, sound, look,* etc) and a predicative expressed a noun, an adjective, a pronoun or a numeral, e.g. *It sounds incredible. But it is true*. The **simple nominal predicate** is but rarely used. It is made up by a predicative expressed by a noun, an adjective or an infinitive. Sentences with such a predicate imply a negation, are emphatic and stylistically coloured, e.g. *He a gentleman*! *Nick, dishonest*! *She to say a lie*!

Mixed types of the compound predicate are:

–The compound modal nominal predicate, e.g. *She can't be happy*.

–The compound aspect nominal predicate, e.g. *He began to feel rather ashamed*.

–The compound modal aspect predicate, e.g. *You ought to start thinking before speaking*.

–The compound nominal predicate of double orientation, e.g. *She is said to be very ill*.

–The compound verbal predicate of double orientation, e.g. *No one <u>appeared to have noticed</u> his escape*. (Traditionally this and the previous constructions are called Complex subject with the infinitive.)

–The compound nominal double predicate, e.g. *The sun <u>rose red</u>. The sun <u>was shining cold a bright</u>*.

Secondary parts are dependent sentence elements and serve to modify the subject or the predicate. The theory of secondary parts of the sentence is one of the least developed sections of linguistics. Secondary parts of the sentence are not clearly defined, which gives rise to the "**problem of secondary parts**". The same word or word-group in the sentence may be interpreted differently by different grammarians, e.g. *to the window* in the sentence *He came up to the window* is understood as an adverbial modifier or an object. Likewise *of my brother* in the sentence *I've just met a friend of my brother* may be treated as an attribute or an object depending on the arbitrary tradition of a grammar school, "personal opinion or predilection" (B. Ilyish).

The **object** is the constituent of the sentence which denotes a thing that the action passes on. Structurally it may be simple, phrasal, complex or clausal. It may be expressed by nouns, pronouns, infinitives, gerunds. Semantically the object may be direct, indirect (prepositional and non-prepositional) and cognate. The latter is formally and/or semantically similar to the predicate of the sentence, e.g. *to live a happy <u>life</u>, to die a heroic <u>death</u>, to fight a <u>fight</u> (a <u>battle</u>), to run <u>a race</u>, to dream <u>a dream</u>*.

The **attribute** is the part of the sentence which modifies a noun or a noun equivalent and characterizes it as to its quality or property. Structurally the attribute may be simple, phrasal or clausal. Semantically attributes fall into descriptive, restrictive or appositive.

The **adverbial modifier** is the most diversified part of the sentence and denotes different circumstances of the action: time, place, purpose, consequence, manner, attendant circumstances, etc. Structurally the adverbial modifier may be simple, phrasal, complex or clausal. It may refer to the predicate verb, to the predicate group or to the whole of the sentence. The position of adverbial modifiers is the least rigid in the sentence structure. However, adverbial modifiers of time and place are normally found in the end of the sentence. If both of them are found in the same sentence the adverbial modifier of place precedes that of time, e.g. *Let's meet at the theatre at 6 o'clock*. Adverbial modifiers of frequency (e.g. *always, usually, often, seldom, never*) or of the indefinite time (*just, already, ever*) generally precede the notional verb but follow the verb *to be*, e.g. *He has already come. He is never late*.

Independent elements of the sentence are not grammatically dependent on any particular part of the sentence, but as a rule refer to the sentence as a whole. They may occur in different positions in the sentence. They are direct address and parenthesis. The latter may be expressed by a modal word or phrase (e.g. *perhaps, evidently, in fact*), interjection (*oh, dear me, Good heavens*), conjunct (an adverb with the function of a connector, e.g. *finally, besides, moreover*), a prepositional phrase (*in my opinion, in short*), an infinitival or participial phrase (*to tell the truth,*

so to say, frankly speaking), a clause (e.g. *As it was, Nell departed with surprising docility*).

4. **The verbocentric conception (theory) of the sentence**, worked out by L.Tesniere, is based on the alternative interpretation of the syntactic structure of the sentence, its functional or syntactic positions, and the view of the **verb as the central predicative organizer of the sentence**. Unlike the traditional grammar, which says that there are two principal parts in the sentence – the subject and the predicate, the verbocentric conception (or verb-centered conception) argues that the main part of the sentence is the verb. According to this theory the verb determines the constituent structure of the whole sentence. L.Tesniere pictured the sentence as a "small drama", centered around an action, denoted by the verb-predicate and its participants which he termed "actants" (the subject and the object of the sentence) and "circonstants" (the time, the place, the quality of the action). In other words, the verb opens up some syntactic positions for other parts of the sentence. This combining power of the verb (or its combinability) L. Tesniere called the **valency of the verb**. Thus, in the sentence "We started our journey at the dawn" the verb predicate "start" denotes an action, while the other parts denote its participants: "We" – the subject or the doer of the action, "journey" its object. So there are two actants of the verb. There's also one circonstant "at the dawn", which denotes the time of the action. Thus, the syntactic structure of the sentence according to L.Tesniere is conditioned by the syntactic valency of the verb predicate.

The syntactic valency of the verb can be of two cardinal types: obligatory and optional. The **obligatory valency** is necessary realized in the sentence; it is indispensable for the existence of the syntactic unit as such, for otherwise the sentence is grammatically incomplete. Obligatory valency mostly refers to the actants –the subject and the object, (there are cases, however, when the adverbial can be also viewed as an obligatory position: e.g. *The summer lasts into the early September*.) The **optional valency** is not significant for the competence of the sentence. It may or may not be realized depending on the needs of communication. The optional valency, as a rule, is the adverbial valency of the verb.

M. Blokh illustrates the above with the following example: *The (small) lady listened to me (attentively)* where the attribute and the adverbial modifier *small* and *attentively* are optional parts of the sentence, while the object *to me* is an obligatory part considering the valency of the verb listen. In fact, there is another variant of the sentence possible: *to me* could be considered optional and *attentively*, obligatory > *The lady listened attentively*.

In spite of the fact that these two sentences (*The lady listened to me* and *The lady listened attentively*) contain a secondary part (an object and an adverbial modifier correspondingly), they are sentences with obligatory parts only. Thus the verbocentric conception of the sentence contributes to the revision of the idea of **the elementary simple sentence.** In modern grammatical theories it is no longer understood as a sentence with subject and object only, but as **a sentence with only obligatory parts**, which may be objects or adverbial modifiers depending on the specific valency of a given verb. Some verbs need objects to form grammatically correct sentences, e.g. *listen, ask, answer*, etc. For others adverbial modifiers are

indispensable, e.g. *live, last, wait, behave, act, treat, put, take, send, come, go, arrive, return, sit, stand*, etc.

5. To know how the sentence is constructed it is necessary to determine how the separate units of the sentence are grouped together. In traditional (linear) grammar (e.g. as it is shown in the *Essentials of English Grammar* by O. Jespersen) the sentence is shown as a linear model S +P +O +D (subject +predicate +object +adverbial modifier) or as a functional hierarchy:

The movement (subject)   ———   led (predicate)

  Romantic (attribute)   to the enrichment (object)

        of literature (object)   with myths, legends and stories (object)

         children'(attribute)   wonder (attribute)

While the first model fails to show the generating process of grammatically correct sentences (not showing articles and other auxiliary elements in the structure of grammatically correct sentences as, for example, in the sentence *The boy took a book from the table*). If the sentence is composite (e.g. *A dirtily clad old man with a long white beard jumped up suddenly and fell upon the younger man who was standing near the door which …*) the linear theory will fail to construct it altogether. Besides, passive constructions, exclamatory sentences, negative or interrogative, will all need other models. As to the scheme of functional hierarchy it fails to show the linear order of speech (*The Romantic movement led to the enrichment of children's literature with myths, legends and wonder stories.*).

Ch. Fries introduced into the analysis of the sentence the idea of phrases consisting of immediate constituents (ICs). His analysis is called the "**IC model of the sentence**" (the model of immediate constituents).

The sentence structure is presented as made up by binary immediate constituents, semantically connected on the basis of subordination. The aim of the analysis is to arrive at the minimal ICs and to work out the rules of generating sentences. Let's take the following sentence: *The old lady looked at the stranger closely*. First the sentence is divided into the largest ICs: the NP (the noun phrase) and the VP (the verb phrase) which correspond to the subject group and the predicate group of the sentence. The NP is further subdivided into the determiner (T) and the rest of the noun phrase (NP). The VP is divided into the adverbial (D) and the rest of the verb phrase (VP). The NP is divided into the attribute (A) and the noun (N). The VP is divided into the verb (V) and the object noun phrase (NP obj). The object noun phrase is divided into the preposition (prep) and the noun phrase (NP). The latter is finally divided into the determiner (T) and the noun (N). A noun in this analysis is a Class 1 word (a noun proper or a word of any other part of speech which can substitute a noun in the sentence frame).

To make the IC model analysis more vivid different graphs are used: the analytical IC diagramme, the IC derivational tree, the candelabra graph, etc. In additions to the graphs, rewriting rules are employed. Rewriting rules are the steps to form a sentence, e.g. the above sentence, *The old lady looked at the stranger closely*:

1) S→NP+VP

2) NP→ T +NP

3) VP→D+VP

4) NP→A+N

5) VP→V+NPobj

6) NPobj→ prep+NP

7) NP→ T +N

8) N→ lady, stranger

9) V→ looked

10) A→ old

11) T → the, the

12) D→ closely

After this analysis other nouns (or noun equivalents), verbs, determiners, etc. can be used to build up new sentences according to the same rewriting rules. A drawback of the IC model is that occasionally the same formal scheme corresponds to semantically different sentences, e.g. *He is eager to please. He is easy to please.* Besides if the sentence is structurally complicated, the rewriting rules become too numerous.

6. The **paradigmatic study of the sentence** means the study of the sentence model with its functional variants. Paradigmatic relations are expressed through oppositions. Syntactic oppositions are realized by correlated sentence patterns.

Traditional grammar studies the sentence from the point of view of its syntagmatic structure: as a string of certain parts fulfilling the corresponding syntactic functions. **Transformational generative grammar** (T-grammar) which appeared in the 1950s in the descriptive school of American linguistics has proposed to investigate paradigmatic relations between sentence structures. The first propounders of the theory were Zellig Harris and Noam Chomsky.

The rise to paradigmatic approach to the sentence study and to T-grammar was given by observations of young children's speech. Linguists and psychologists were amazed at children's ability to learn their native language at an early age and with no formal tuition, in spite of diversity of sentence structures. "If there is any explanation at all", wrote Paul Roberts, "it must be that language structure is not really as complicated as it looks at first. There must be some system to it simple enough to be grasped and held by any human mind, however ordinary". It means that the system of any language contains a rather small number of kernel sentences and other language forms (phonemes and morphemes), and all other forms and sentences of different structure are derived or generated from these kernel elements by certain derivation rules, which are not very numerous or difficult.

The terms "transform" and "transformation" were introduced by N. Chomsky in his book "Syntactic Structures" (1957) and further developed by other representatives of generative grammar. Transforms are "syntactic patterns that closely parallel other syntactic patterns from which they are conventionally considered to derive, but which are distinct in form and use" (R. Long). According to Z. Harris every sentence can be divided into the centre plus zero or more constructions; the centre is the predication (S+P), all other words are added to it according to their combinability, e.g. *Boys play.* → *The three noisy boys play boisterously upstairs.* **Transformation** (**syntactic derivation**) is a body of rules to generate (i.e. construct) an infinite set of grammatically correct sentences from a finite vocabulary, transitions from one pattern of certain notional parts to another

pattern of the same notional parts. Some of the sentence patterns are regarded as **kernel** (nuclear, base), others as their **transforms**.

Grammarians of T-grammar set themselves the tasks to determine (1) kernel sentences and (2) the procedures of their transformation. The kernel sentence is understood as a "sentence-root" against which transform sentences are compared. Robert B. Lees proposed to reduce **kernel structures** in English to two: **N+V** and **N is N/Adj.,** i.e. sentences with a simple verbal predicate or a compound nominal predicate with the predicative expressed by a noun or an adjective. The subject of the kernel sentence is a noun in the singular number. The predicate is a finite verb in the present tense, indefinite aspect, active voice, indicative mood, singular number. The sentence is non-interrogative, non-imperative, non-negative, non-modal. Any possible change in the model of the kernel sentence produces a transform.

Transformation is paradigmatic production of more complex sentence structures out of kernel sentences. It doesn't mean an immediate change of the kernel sentence into a transform. The process is realized through elementary transformational steps or **derivational procedures**:

(1) **Morphological arrangement**: morphological changes corresponding to grammatical categories of the words in the base sentence, e.g. *John+starts.* →*John starts. John has started. John would be starting*.

(2) **Functional expansion**: the use of functional words, e.g. *John+starts.* →*John must start. John seems to start*.

(3) **Substitution** (of a notional word for a functional or semi-notional word), e.g. *John+starts.* →*He starts. I want another pen. –I want another one*.

(4) **Deletion**: elimination of some parts of the sentence, e.g. *Are you leaving*? →*Leaving*?

(5) **Positional arrangement**: change of word order, e.g. *John is here.* →*Is John here? The boy ran in.* → *In ran the boy*.

(6) **Intonational arrangement**: change of the intonation pattern in oral speech and the use of the corresponding punctuation marks or a variety of print in written speech, e.g. *He starts at dawn.* →*He starts at dawn*?

The derivational procedures show that the kernel sentence undergoes constructional and predicative transitions. The constructional derivation affects the formation of more complex sentence structures of simpler ones. The predicative derivation realizes the formation of predicatively different units not affecting the constructional volume of the kernel sentence. The constructional derivation results in the transition of the kernel sentence into a word-group or a clause, e.g. *The machine works.* → *The work of the machine, the machine's work, the machine work, the working machine*, etc. *They arrived. They relieved me of my fears.* →*They arrived, and I was relieved of my fears. /If the arrive I'll be relieved of my fears. /On their arrival I will be relieved of my fears*.

7. There are two main approaches to the study of the sentence in **cognitive linguistics** investigations. The first one brings into focus the observation of the concepts represented by syntactic constructions, their nature, content and structure

(A.Goldberg, L. Talmy, N.N. Boldyrev, L.A. Fours). The second one concerns the sentence typology and principles of sentence classification (L.Talmy, J.R. Taylor).

The first approach was initiated by A.Goldberg. She argues that constructions are conventionalized pieces of grammatical knowledge and they exist independently of the particular lexical items which instantiate them. The constructions brought under her observation are: ditransitive construction, caused-motion construction, resultative construction, way construction.

Ditransitive construction in the most general sense represents transfer between an agent and a recipient, e.g.: *Joe loaned Bob a lot of money*. **Caused-motion construction** represents the situation where one object (the causer) directly causes the motion of the other object: *They laughed the poor guy out of the room.* **Resultative construction** represents the situation where a patient undergoes a change of state as a result of the action denoted by the verb, e.g.: *I had brushed my hair smooth*; or *The river froze solid.* **"Way" construction** represents the situation which involves the motion of the subject along some path, e.g.: *He pushed his way through the others; He bought his way into the exclusive country club* (metaphorical motion).

The semantics of a construction is viewed as a family of closely related senses. It means that one and the same construction is paired with different but related senses, one of which is a central sense (a prototypical one), the others (non-prototypical ones) are the senses which are its metaphorical extension. Thus, within the semantics of the ditransitive construction A.Goldberg distinguishes the central sense "the actual successful transfer" (e.g.: *He gave her a lot of money*) and metaphorical extension senses, such as, "causal events as transfers" (e.g.: *The rain brought us some time*). Thus, a syntactic construction is viewed by A. Goldberg as a category structured by the prototypical principle.

The main object of her further study is to make proposals for how to relate verb and construction. For this purpose she proposes the notion "semantic constraints", i.e. the principles which license the use of the verb in the construction. Thus, the semantic constraints for the caused-motion construction, for example, are the constraints on the causer and on the type of causation. Constraint on the Causer presupposes that the causer can be an agent or a natural force, e.g.: *Chris pushed the piano up the stairs; The wind blew the ship off the course*.

The basic target of N.N. Boldyrev and L.A. Fours' study is to observe the nature of the concepts represented by simple sentences and propose concepts typology. The main principle governing the concept typology is the assumption that syntactic concepts represent both linguistic and extra-linguistic knowledge in their structure. L.A. Fours argues that there are three formats of representing knowledge in syntax of the simple sentence and points out a configurational format, an actualizational format and a format of mixed type (combining properties of configurational and actualizational formats).

Configurational format includes concepts which are represented by the basic syntactic configurations (schemes) defining the rules of combining words into constructions. **Actualizational format** includes concepts which are verbalized by particular types of sentences. Configurational format represents the linguistic

knowledge which is common for different types of sentences. Actualizational format represents the extralinguistic knowledge – the knowledge of the different types of events as they become verbalized in the basic configurational structures through the concrete lexical content. The concepts of these format are: "actionality", e.g.: *They moved to the city*, "causativity", e.g.: *He galloped the horse forward*, "process", e.g.: *The cup cracked*, "state", e.g.: *Cables and wires ran in all directions*, "quality", e.g.: *The clothes washed well*.

Format of mixed type – the format combining configurational and actualizational ones – represent both linguistic and extra-linguistic knowledge. This format includes configurations of combining words into sentences which are different from the transitive and intransitive ones. They are: **there-constructions**, e.g.: *There existed an inborn instinct of aggression*; **it-constructions**, e.g.: *It's so lonely here.*; **inverted constructions**, e.g.: *Now there comes another.*; **elliptical constructions**, e.g.: *Are you going to write that composition for me?– If I get the time, I will. If I don't I won't.*

One of the basic arguments of cognitive approach to syntax says that grammatical constructions provide alternative imagery (conceptualizations) for the same event or situation. It was formulated as a **principle of conceptual alternativity** by L.Talmy and became the basis in his investigation of conceptual content of syntactic structures. L.Talmy brings into focus a certain type of event complex which can acquire alternative conceptualizations through different syntactic structures. The different ways of conceptualization of the same content is viewed in the following examples:

a) *The guy left the room because they had laughed at him* (complex sentence).

b) *They laughed at him and he left the room* (compound sentence).

c) *They laughed the guy out of the room* (simple sentence).

On the one hand, the event complex can be conceptualized as composed of two simple events and relation between them and expressed by a composite sentence. On the other hand, the event complex can be conceptualized as a single event and expressed by a simple sentence. L. Talmy proposed the term "event integration" to identify the process of conceptual fusion of distinct events into a unitary one.

L.Talmy studies complex events that are prone to conceptual integration and representation by a single clause. L. Talmy calls this type of complex events a **macro-event** and distinguishes several event-types: Motion, Change of State, Action Correlation and some others, e.g.: *The bottle floated into the cave. I kicked the ball into the box* (Motion); *The door blew shut. I kicked the door shut* (Change of State); *I jog together with him. I jog along with him. I outran him* (Action Correlation: involves activities performed by different agents).

The main target of the sentence investigation in the cognitive linguistics, as different from the traditional (structural and functional) linguistics, is to introduce the sentence classification, based on correlation of grammatical constructions and concepts represented by them as well as conceptualization processes.

A sentence typology, proposed within a cognitive approach, has been introduced by J.R. Taylor. He has classed all the sentences into single clauses and constructions which are built as combinations of clauses. The main criterion for further division

becomes the degree of integration between clauses. The merit of this classification is that it is based on correlation between formal syntactic properties of the sentences and processes of conceptual operations (basically, conceptual integration) which enable the creation of sentences.

The notion "clause" is understood by J.R. Taylor as a syntactic structure which designates a single process and should be distinguished from **clause fusion** – a clause combination, based on conceptual and syntactic integration, though both the structures reveal the "syntax of the simple sentence". Compare: *These cars are expensive. These cars are expensive to repair.* The clause fusion construction can be "unpacked" into two independent clauses, designating two different processes.

J.R. Taylor starts with clause classification. The basic parameters of this classification are the **structural and semantic characteristics of clauses**, such as, the number of participants, the semantic role of the participants and their syntactic expression, kinds of situations (processes) that clauses designate, i.e. concepts (event types) represented by different kind of clauses.

According to the process type (event type) clauses are classed into those which designate: **dynamic processes,** e.g.: *The house collapsed. The telephone rang*; **stative processes,** e.g.: *The book is 200 pages long. The book is boring.*; **cognitive processes** (mental and perceptual processes), e.g.: *I watched the film. The noise frightened me.*

According to the number of participants clauses are classed into one-participant clauses (Intransitives), two-participant clauses (Transitives), three-participant clauses (Double-object clauses). J.R. Taylor addresses the semantic roles of participants and their syntactic expression in the clause.

One-participant clause (intransitive) presents a situation as involving only one participant, which is an **Experiencer, Mover or Patient**: *The child slept. The poem doesn't translate. I don't photograph very well.* Two-participant clause (transitive) prototypically involves the transfer of energy from an Agent (the subject) to a Patient (the object), e.g.: *The farmer shot the rabbit.* Three-participant clause (double-object clause) is a clause where a second post-verbal object is obligatory, its presence determines the existence of the clause as such, e.g.: *I'll mail you the report. I'll bake you a cake.* The three participants are the Agent, the thing that undergoes changes at the hands of the Agent, and the person which benefits from the change (Beneficiary).

Lecture 3. Actual division of the sentence and the problem of defining sentence communicative types

1. Informative structure of the sentence. Notions of the theme, the rheme and the transition. Direct and inverted actual division of the sentence.

2. Means of rhematisation of the sentence parts.

3. Traditional division of the sentence in accord with the communicative purpose of the speaker.

4. Ch. Fries's theory of communicative division of the sentence.

5. Communicative types of the sentence in the light of the actual division.

6. Intermediary communicative types of the sentence.

1. The division of the sentence into communicative parts is the **actual division**. Its purpose is to define the relative significance of sentence parts from the point of view of their informative role in the utterance and to establish their contribution to the overall information conveyed by the sentence. The theory of the actual division of the sentence was derived from the logical analysis of the proposition, in which the information already known was called the **logical subject** and the new information, the **logical predicate**. The founder of the theory of the actual division, J. Mathesius, stressed its close connection with the context and called it **semantic** contrasting it to the traditional division of the sentence into sentence parts, which he called nominal, "purely syntactic" or "formally grammatical".

The major components of the informative structure of the sentence are the theme and the rheme. The **theme** is the starting point of communication, something that is assumed to be known, usually an object or phenomenon about which something new is reported. The **rheme** is the new, basic informative part of the utterance, the centre of the communication. Between the theme and the rheme some grammarians differentiate a **transition**, i.e. intermediate parts of the actual division of various degrees of informative value. According the theory of the actual division the theme of the utterance may or may not coincide with the subject of the sentence and the rheme may or may not coincide with its predicate. If they do coincide the actual division of the sentence is called **direct,** e.g. *Mr. Collins was not a sensible man*; if not, the actual division is **inverted**, e.g. *Through the open window came the purr of the approaching car*. When the rheme precedes the theme the utterance acquires additional expressiveness, e.g. *To be or not to be* (rheme), *that is the question* (theme).

2. **Means of rhematization** can be classified into phonetic, morphological, syntactic, and lexical. The major **phonetic means** of rhematization is the logical stress which can bear not only notional but functional words as well. In printed text it is shown by italics, bold type and other graphic means, e.g. *Did they pay you? –They paid her. But I am sure.*

The **morphological means** of rhematization are determiners: the determiners of definiteness are associated with the theme of the utterance while the indefinite determiners introduce the rhematic part, c.f. *The boy entered the room. A boy entered the room.* In the first example the subject is the rheme of the utterance, in the second example it is the theme.

The **syntactic means** of rhematization include word order, emphatic constructions, constructions with the formal subject *there,* parcelling. The neutral word order is: S –P –O –D (S –subject, P –predicate, O –object, D –adverbial modifier). In a neutral context, the theme is expressed by the subject (or subject group) and is placed at the beginning of the sentence; the rheme is expressed by the predicate (or the predicate group) and is placed closer to the end of the sentence, e.g. *You are speaking magic words*! Any part of the sentence placed beyond its usual position is foregrounded and becomes the rheme of the utterance, e.g. *Magic words you are speaking*! *I was happier then. Twenty-eight I was.*

As to **emphatic constructions** they are constructions with the emphatic *it* and contrastive structures. Any part of the sentence which follows the emphatic *it* is made the rheme of the utterance, e.g. *It is <u>not the gay coat</u> that makes the gentleman. It was <u>then</u> that I realized the truth. It is <u>an ill bird </u>that fouls its own nest*. In **contrastive structures** two constituents of the sentence are brought to the foreground, e.g. *I did it <u>for you</u>, not <u>for him</u>*. In existential sentences the formal subject **there** introduces the rheme of the utterance, e.g. *There <u>is many a slip</u> 'twixt the cup and the lip*. **Parcelling** means setting off a syntactically dependent sentence element by a full stop like an independent unit thus foregrounding it, e.g. *He hadn't been scared then. He had once. When he was still a kid*.

The **lexical means** of rhematization are particles, whose grammatical function is that of intensification: *even, just, only, simply, exclusively, still* etc.: *I only want to help you*.

3. Traditional grammar distinguishes four **communicative types of the sentence** –declarative, interrogative, imperative and exclamatory– on the basis of their **communicative purpose**. The **declarative** sentence denotes a statement (affirmative or negative) which serves to convey some information. The **interrogative** sentence functions as a question and serves to request information. The **imperative** sentence serves as an inducement (an order or a request) to perform an action. The **exclamatory** sentence functions as an exclamation and serves to express strong emotions.

In more recent investigations the exclamatory sentence is no longer regarded as a separate communicative sentence type. The property of exclamation is viewed as an accompanying feature to the three major communicative types of the sentence which can be presented in two variants: exclamatory or non-exclamatory. The exclamatory character of the sentence is realized through intonation, word order and special words. For example, the declarative sentence *What a nice day it is!* (exclamatory) –*It's a nice day* (non-exclamatory); the interrogative sentence: *Wherever have you been?* (exclamatory) –*Where have you been?* (non-exclamatory); the imperative sentence: *Don't you dare to compare me to common people!* (exclamatory) –*Don't compare me to common people* (non-exclamatory).

4. **Ch. Fries** was among the first grammarians to revise the traditional communicative classification of the sentence. In his book "The Structure of English" (1952) he differentiated sentences into communicative types not according to the purpose of communication but **according to the responses they elicit**. The material of his investigation was also different from that of his predecessors. The utterances he analised were continuous chunks of talk by a speaker in a telephone conversation, with the speakers unaware of being recorded (thus the maximum of spontaneity of speech was achieved). The utterances were first divided into "**situation utterances**" (i.e. stimuli eliciting a response) and "**response utterances**". Among the situation utterances were further distinguished:

(1) Utterances regularly followed by oral (verbal) responses (greetings, calls, questions);

(2) Utterances regularly eliciting action responses (requests or commands);

(3) Utterances eliciting conventional signals of attention to continuous discourse (statements).

Besides Fries recognized "non-communicative utterances" which are not a reaction to the act of communication but are "characteristic of the situations", such as surprise, sudden pain, disgust, anger, laughter, sorrow (traditional interjections; according to M. Blokh, "mere symptoms of emotions").

Fries's theory does not discard the traditional principle of the "purpose of communication", but rather confirms and specifies it: the purpose of communication is reflected in the listener's response. Thus, the declarative sentence is followed by conventional signals of attention to continuous discourse (e.g. *I've seen John today. – Really?*); an interrogative sentence is a request for information that is generally provided by the interlocutor (*When are you leaving? –Tomorrow.*); an imperative sentence is generally followed by an action (or its description in written speech, e.g. *"Close the window", she said. He got up and shut the window.*).

5. M. Blokh proposes an analysis of the communicative types of the sentence **in the light of the theory of the actual division**. The actual division of the **declarative** sentence is presented in the most explicit form. The rheme is easily identified through a question-test, e.g. *The next instant she recognized him. –What did she do the next instant?*

The **imperative** sentence unlike the declarative sentence is based on a proposition but does not formulate it directly. The implied proposition is reversely contrasted against the content of the expressed inducement, e.g. *Let's go out at once* implies that we are in. In the imperative sentence the informative peak does stand distinctly against the background information as the imperative sentence is highly informative in itself. The rheme is the whole of the predicate group; the theme is usually zeroed, though it may be represented in the form of direct address: *Kindly tell me what you mean, Wilfred*.

The actual division of the **interrogative** sentence is different from that of the declarative or imperative sentence. As the interrogative sentence denotes an inquiry about information its rheme is informationally open. The interrogative sentence only marks the position of the rheme which is to be supplied by the response utterance. Different types of the interrogative sentence present different types of the open rheme. In **special questions** the rhematic position is marked by the interrogative pronoun or adverb. The interrogative word makes up a rhematic unity with the response utterance. The theme is presented fully in the interrogative sentence and is often zeroed (omitted) in the response, e.g. *When did he come? –After midnight*.

The open character of the rheme in the **alternative question** consists in the implication of two possible choices for the listener, e.g. *Which do you prefer: tea or coffee?* The actual division of the **general question** is similar to that of the alternative question, but the choice is between the answers "yes" and "know", e.g. *Will you give me a lift?*

6. **Intermediary communicative types of the sentence** are of mixed nature as to their **formal structure** and the **communicative purpose**:

(1) Declarative-interrogative, e.g. indirect questions: *I wonder what she is doing now*.

(2) Interrogative-declarative, e.g. rhetoric questions: *Can a leopard change his spots?*

(3) Declarative-imperative, e.g. constructions with modal verbs: *"You can't come in", he said. "You mustn't get what I have".*

(4) Imperative-declarative, e.g. inducements used in proverbs: *Talk of the devil (angel) and he will appear.*

(5) Imperative-interrogative, e.g. imperative structures implying a question: *Tell me about yourself.*

(6) Interrogative-imperative, questions implying an inducement: *Will you have a cup of tea? Why don't you do what you are told?*

Lecture 4. Composite sentence

1. Notion of the composite sentence.
2. Differentiation of complex and compound sentences.
3. Pproblem of the compound sentence. Types of coordination.
4. Classification of complex sentences. One-member and two-member complex sentences. Monolithic and segregative complexes. Types of subordination.
5. Classification of complex sentences in cognitive linguistics.

1. The **composite sentence** expresses a complicated act of thought and reflects two or more situational events as making a unity. It is a syntactic unit formed by two or more predicative lines. Each predicative line in the composite sentence makes up a **clause**, a syntactic non-communicative unit of an intermediary status between the sentence and the word-group.

M. Blokh points out that the correspondence of a clause to a separate sentence is evident while the correspondence of a composite sentence to a sequence of simple sentences is not evident, which is the reason for the very existence of the composite sentence in language. The following extract would hardly make any sense if presented as a sequence of simple sentences: *When I sat down to dinner I looked for an opportunity to slip in casually the information that I had by accident run across the Driffields; but news travelled fast in Blackstable* (Maugham).

The composite sentence is more characteristic of written speech where the length limit imposed on the sentence by the recipient's operative memory can be neglected. The **elementary composite sentence** consists of two clauses and is more common in oral speech.

2. The composite sentence is differentiated into the compound and the complex sentences. The **compound sentence** is based on coordination: the clauses are equal in rank, "equipotent" (according to M. Blokh), or "on an equal footing" (according to B.Ilyish).

In the **complex sentence** clauses are connected on the basis of subordination, with one of the clauses dominating the other(s).

Although coordinate clauses are relatively independent each subsequent clause in the compound sentence refers to the whole of the preceding clause, whereas a subordinate clause usually refers to a certain word in the principal clause, as B. Khaimovich and B. Rogovskaya point out, independence of coordinate clauses is not

absolute. When united in the compound sentence the base sentences lose their independent status. The first clause becomes "**leading**", the successive clauses are "**sequential**". The content of each successive clause is related to the content of the previous clause. For this reason the order of clauses in the compound sentence is even more rigid than in the complex sentence. In the complex sentence clauses can often interchange their positions, e.g. *If you come at six we'll have dinner together. – We'll have dinner together if you come at six*. Changes are generally impossible in the compound sentence, e.g. *He came at six and we had dinner together*.

In the complex sentence he dominating clause is called "**principal**" while the dominated clause is "**subordinate**". However, the dominance of the principal clause over the subordinate clause is also relative. In fact they form a semantico-syntactic unity within the framework of which they are interconnected. In some types of complex sentences the principal clause is distinctly incomplete, e.g. *How he managed to pull through is what baffled me*.

Neither does the principal clause necessarily convey the central informative part of the communication. The order of clauses is an important factor in distributing primary and secondary information in the utterance: in a neutral context the rheme tends to the end of the sentence. Sometimes the principal clause becomes a sheer introducer of the subordinate clause. This function of the principal clause is called **phatic**: to maintain the immediate connection with the listener. Such introductory principal clauses are easily transformed into parenthetical clauses, e.g. *You know there was no harm in him. – There was no harm in him, you know*.

3. "**The problem of the compound sentence**" means doubts as to its existence. These doubts are caused by the fact that semantic relations between coordinate clauses are similar to those between independent sentences; non-final coordinate clauses can be pronounced with the falling, finalizing tone like independent declarative sentences. According to L. Iofik and some other grammarians, the compound sentence is a fictitious notion developed under the school influence of written presentation of speech. Thus what is called the compound sentence is really a sequence of semantically related sentences not separated by full stops in writing because of an arbitrary school tradition.

However, though semantic relations between clauses are similar to those between sentences, in the compound sentence the connections between the related events are shown as more close. As to the falling tone for non-final clauses, though it is possible, the rising tone is more common.

The compound sentence distinguishes four types of coordinate connection that is expressed not only by coordinating conjunctions and adverbs but by the general meaning of clauses revealed through their lexical and grammatical content.

Copulate coordination implies that the events denoted by the clauses are merely united in time and place. The clauses are joined together with copulative connectors *and, nor, neither … nor, not only … but (also), as well as, then, moreover* or asyndetically, e.g. *The bus stopped, the door sprang open, a lady got in, then another lady*.

Adversative coordination unites clauses expressing opposition, contradiction or contrast using the connectors *but, while, whereas, yet, still, nevertheless, only*, e.g. *The story was amusing but nobody laughed*.

Disjunctive coordination is used when clauses denote a choice between two mutually exclusive alternatives. Disjunctive connectors are *or, either ... or, else (or else), otherwise*, e.g. *We were talking about a lot of things, or rather he was talking and I was listening*.

Causative-consecutive coordination unites two clauses, one of which denotes the reason (cause) of an action and the other, the consequence. The clauses are joined together with the conjunction *for* or asyndetically, e.g. *At first I thought they were brothers, (for) they were so much alike*.

4. **Classification of complex sentences** may be based on the categorial or the functional principles. According to the **categorial principle** subordinate clauses are classified into three categorial-semantic groups:

(1) **Substantive-nominal** whose semantics is similar to that of the noun or the nominal phrase, e.g. *That you mimic so much does not make you very attractive*.

(2) **Qualification-nominal** whose function is to give a characteristic to a substance, e.g. *The man who came in the morning left a message*.

(3) **Adverbial** which characterize a process, e.g. *Describe the picture as you see it*.

The inherent nominative properties of the categorial-semantic groups are revealed through a question-test or a substitution, e.g. *That you mimic so much does not make you very attractive – Your mimicking does not make you very attractive*.

Basing on the **functional principle** subordinate clauses are classified on the analogy of parts of the simple sentence. B. Khaimovich and B. Rogovskaya point out that clauses differ from parts of the simple sentence in predication; the function of a clause is often defined by the conjunction or adverb while the function of a part of the sentence is determined mostly by its position; there is sometimes no correspondence between a clause and a part of the sentence. Still, as M. Blokh remarks, a general analogy between a subordinate clause and a part of the sentence exists, which allows to discriminate **subject, predicative, objective, attributive and adverbial clauses**.

N. Pospelov divided elementary complex sentences into one-member and two-member sentences. **One-member sentences** are characterized by a comparatively close (obligatory) connection between clauses: the subordinate clause is so closely related (formally and semantically) to the principal clause that the principal clause could not exist without it as a complete syntactic unit. Such are sentences with subject and predicative clauses as well as some object and attributive clauses, e.g. *All I know is that I know nothing. Tell me what you want*.

Two-member sentences are characterized by a comparatively loose (optional) connection between clauses: the subordinate clause could be deleted from the sentence without destroying the structural completeness of the principal clause, e.g. *If you insist I'll tell you the truth*.

According to M. Blokh, obligatory subordinate connection underlies **monolithic** complexes, optional subordinate connection, **segregative** complexes. Monolithic complexes fall into:

(a) **Merger** complex sentences in which the subordinate clause is fused with the principal clause, e.g. *What he says makes sense*.

(b**) Valency** complex sentences in which the subordinate clause is governed by the valency of the verb in the principal clause, e.g. *Put it where you've taken it*.

(c) **Correlation** complex sentences based on subordinate correlation (mutual subordination), e.g. *The more we study, the more we know*.

(d) **Arrangement** complex sentences which are monolithic only when the subordinate clause precedes the principal clause, otherwise they are segregate, e.g. *If he comes tell him to wait*.

In complex sentences with two or more subordinate clauses subordination may be parallel or consecutive. In case of **parallel subordination** all subordinate clauses depend on the principal clause. If it is **homogeneous** parallel subordination they are subordinated to the same part of the principal clause and perform the same function, e.g. *I know that he came and that you gave him the letter*. If it is **heterogeneous** parallel subordination the subordinate clauses refer to different parts of the principal clause and perform different syntactic functions, e.g. *All she saw was that she might go to prison for the crime she had not committed*.

Consecutive subordination presents a hierarchy of clausal levels: each subsequent clause is subordinated to the previous clause, e.g. *I've no idea why she said she could not call on us at the time I had suggested*. The **depth of subordination** results from the number of consecutive levels of subordination. In colloquial speech it seldom exceeds three levels.

5. In cognitive linguistics the classification of clause complexes is based on the criterion of the degree of integration between clauses. J.R. Taylor distinguishes minimal integration, coordination, subordination, complementation, clause fusion which reveals the highest degree of integration.

Clause complexes of minimal integration. Two clauses are simply juxtaposed, with no overt linking, e.g.: *I came, I saw, I conquered*. The clauses are in sequential relation to each other – the first mentioned was the first to occur. **Clause complexes of coordination**. Each clause could in principle stand alone as an independent conceptualization. The clauses are linked by means of words such as *and, but, or*, e.g.: *She prefers fish, and/but I prefer pasta*. **Clause complexes of subordination**. Here, there are two clauses, but one is understood in terms of a particular semantic relation (temporal, causal, etc.) to each other. Typical subordinators are *after, if, whenever, although*. **Clause complexes based on complementation**. Complementation represents a closer integration of clauses, in that one clause functions as a participant in another. There are different syntactic forms that a complement clause can take. A complement clause functions as the subject or the object of the main verb. The complement clause may appear as: **an infinitive without to**, e.g.: *I saw them break into the house*; "**to**"-**infinitive**, e.g.: *To finish it in time was impossible. I advise you to wait a while. I want to go there myself*; "**ing**"-**form of the verb**, e.g.: *I avoided meeting them. I can't imagine him*

saying that; **subordinate clause, introduced by *that* or question words**, e.g.: *I hope that we will see each other again soon, I wonder what we should do*. **Clause fusions** represent the highest degree of integration. It occurs when two clauses fuse into a single clause, e.g.: *These cars are expensive to repair*. One could "unpack" this sentence into two independent clauses, designating two different processes: "someone repairing the cars" and "this process is expensive". In the example the two clausal conceptions have fused into one.

Lecture 5. Semi-composite sentence
1. Surface and the deep structures of the sentence. Notion of the semi-composite sentence.
2. Sentences with homogeneous parts.
3. Sentences with secondary predication structures.
4. Sentences with a dependent appendix and "pseudo-complex" sentences.
5. M. Blokh's classification of semi-composite sentences.
6. Problem of direct, indirect and represented speech.

1. The sentence is supposed to have a **surface structure** and a **deep structure**. The surface structure is more complicated, being based on two or more underlying propositions – deep structures. In certain very simple sentences the difference between the surface structure and the deep structure is minimal.

The **semi-composite sentence** is a syntactic unit intermediary between the simple and the composite sentence. It is simple in its surface structure but composite in its deep structure: it contains one explicitly expressed predicative line but is derived from two or more base sentences. It is also called **contracted**. In accord with the relations between base sentences semi-composite sentences are classified into semi-compound and semi-complex sentences.

2. The semi-compound sentence is presented by sentences with **homogeneous parts,** i.e. parts of the same category (subjects, objects, etc.) standing in the same relations to other parts of the sentence or to the same head-word. Sentences with homogeneous parts are contracted from two or more base sentences connected on the basis of coordination, e.g. *I met my relatives. I met my friends. – I met my relatives and friends*. Homogeneous may be both principal and secondary parts of the sentence. Great expressiveness is achieved if the sentence has one subject while other parts are homogeneous, e.g. *Scarlett stood in her apple-green "second day" dress in the parlour of Twelve Oaks amid the blaze of hundreds of candles, jostled by the same throng as the day before...* (M. Mitchell).

3. Sentences with a **secondary predication structure** are semi-complex. A secondary predication structure (SPS), or complex, is a typologically relevant feature of English syntax. It is a syntactic unit intermediary between a phrase and a clause: it differs from a phrase in containing two words in predicative relation to each other; it differs from a clause in not having the predicative relation explicitly expressed.

Some scholars do not regard *him run* in the sentence *I saw him run* as a syntactic unity (complex object) but as two separate sentence parts: him (object) and run (objective predicative). Really in some cases the second element can be omitted,

e.g. *I saw him*. However, in other cases the two elements are inseparable as in H.Sweet's witty example *I like boys to be quiet*. The sentences cannot be reduced to *I like boys* as it does not even imply the slightest liking for them.

In a secondary predication structure one of the components denotes the doer of the action, the other, the action itself. The nominal component is expressed by a noun (in the common or genitive case), a personal pronoun (in the objective case) or a possessive pronoun. The predicate part may be an infinitive, a participle, a gerund, an adjective, an adverb or a noun. The most common are complexes with verbids which include: the objective-with-the infinitive construction (*He heard her shriek*), the subjective-with-the infinitive construction (*You are supposed to know it*), the infinitival prepositional construction (*It is for you to go there. It is up to you to decide*), the objective-with-the participle construction (*I saw him crossing the street*) the subjective-with-the participle construction (*She was seen entering the house*), the nominative absolute participle construction (*The weather permitting, we shall leave at dawn*), gerundial constructions (*Do you mind my opening the window*?).

4. In the **dependent appendix** the predicate part is omitted, being the same as the predicate of the whole sentence. Sentences with a dependent appendix include:

(a) Phrases of the model *than+noun/ pronoun/ phrase*, *as+adjective/adverb+as*, e.g. *I like Jane (her) better than you. He speaks English as fluently as his mother*.

(b) Phrases introduced by a coordinating or subordinating conjunction, e.g. *Denis tried to escape, but in vain*.

"Pseudo-complex" sentences include:

(a) Cleft sentences (sentences with emphatic *it*), e.g. *It was not till that moment that I remembered where I had seen him*.

(b) Tag (disjunctive) questions, e.g. *You are not angry with me, are you?*

(c) Absolute (emancipated) clauses, i.e. subordinate clauses used as independent exclamatory sentences, e.g. *If only it were true! As though you didn't know it!*

5. **M. Blokh** defines the semi-composite sentence as a construction with two or more predicative lines expressed in fusion. The semi-complex sentence is derived from a matrix sentence and an insert sentence. In the resulting construction the matrix sentence becomes the dominant part and the insert sentence, its expanding subordinate semi-clause. Semi-composite sentences are classified into:

(a) Semi-composite sentences of **subject sharing** which are derived from two or more base sentences with the same subject, e.g. *The moon rose. The moon was red. – The moon rose red*.

(b) Semi-composite sentences of **object sharing** are derived from base sentences in which one and the same part performs different functions: in the matrix it is the object, in the insert, the subject, e.g. *We saw him. He was talking on the telephone. –We saw him talking on the telephone*.

(c) Semi-composite sentences of **attribute complication** include an attributive semi-clause. E.g. *The waves rolled over the dam. The waves sent out a fine spray. – The waves rolling over the dam sent out a fine spray*.

(d) Semi-composite sentences of **adverbial complication** include an adverbial semi-clause, e.g. *The windows were closed. She did nit hear the noise of the street. – The windows being closed, she did nit hear the noise of the street*.

(e) Semi-composite sentences of **nominal phrase** include a gerundial or infinitival phrase inserted in the matrix sentence in a nominal or adverbial position, e.g. *Avoiding quarrel is a wise policy*. (The subject of the sentence.) *In writing the letter he dated it wrong*. (The adverbial modifier of time.)

6. There is no agreement between grammarians as to the status of constructions of **direct, indirect and represented speech**. Direct speech structures of the type *He said, "I love you"* are treated either as a peculiar syntactic structure different from both a simple and a complex sentence; or as a simple sentence in which the "quotation part" functions as a secondary part of the sentence; or as a complex sentence in which the quotation serves as an object clause.

According to B. Khaimovich and B. Rogovskaya direct speech construction does not differ grammatically from the conventional types of the complex sentence. They define it as a syntactic unit with two centers of predication; and the rules of changing from direct to indirect speech, as the rules of reducing two predicative centres to one, e.g. *He said, "I love you". –He said he loved her*. (*What he said was that he loved her*.); the tense form of the predicate in the object clause is determined by the general rules of sequence of tenses.

B. Ilyish points out two cases when a distinction found in direct speech is obliterated when the utterance is changed to indirect speech:

–The difference between the past indefinite and the present perfect, e.g. *He answered, "I didn't do it". He answered, "I haven't done it". –He answered he hadn't done it*.

–The difference between futurity and conditionality, e.g. *He said, "I shall do it". –He said he should do it*.

Represented speech is common in literary prose, especially of the twentieth century, but never occurs in spoken language. It generally expresses the character's thoughts and feelings, psychological traits or mental state through the writer's narration. It differs from direct speech in not reproducing the speaker's words in their original form. It is different from indirect speech as it does not report the speaker's words from the author's point of view by formulas like *He said that ..., He wondered if ..., He asked...*. The peculiarities of grammatical organization of represented speech are (a) the use of future-in-the past (and other past tenses) in independent sentences but not as a result of sequence of tenses in the subordinate clause; (b) the use of exclamatory one-member sentences, as in the following fragments:

Mrs. Small and Aunt Hester were left horrified. Swithin was so droll! They themselves were longing to ask Soames how Irene would take the result, yet knew that they must not, he would perhaps say something of his own accord, to throw some light on this, the present burning question in their lives, the question that from necessity of silence tormented them almost beyond bearing; for even Timothy had now been told, and the effect on his health was little short of alarming. And what, too, would June do? This, alas, was a most exciting if dangerous speculation! (J. Galsworthy)

General, coming forwards, called her hastily ... back, demanding whether she was going? And what was there more to be seen? Had not Miss Morland seen all that could be worth her notice? And did she not suppose her friend might be glad of some refreshment after so much exercise? (J. Austen)

Lecture 6. Syntax of the text

1. Notions of the superphrasal unity and the paragraph.

2. Monologue and dialogue unities in the text.

3. Notion of the cumuleme and the occurseme. Prospective and retrospective cumulation.

4. Parcelled and segmented constructions.

5. Investigations of the text in modern linguistics. Categories of textuality.

6. Expressive syntactic constructions.

1. When modern linguistics began to emerge, it was customary to limit investigation to the framework of the sentence as the largest unit with an inherent structure (L. Bloomfield). All the other structures, as different from the sentence, were assigned to the field of stylistics. The reason for this lies with the fact that it is much more straightforward to decide what constitutes a grammatical or acceptable sentence than what constitutes a grammatical or acceptable sentence sequence, paragraph or text, as the text formation is characterized by lesser conformity with established rules.

However, in speech sentences are not used in isolation but form unities. Thus, comparing word order in ancient and modern languages H. Weil detected another principle besides grammar: the relations of "thoughts" to each other evidently affect the arrangement of words in sentences. His investigations were renewed by Czech linguists ("Prague School") under the notion of **functional sentence perspective**.

Groups of sentences characterized by a topical unity (a common microtopic) and semantico-syntactic cohesion are called **superphrasal unities** (SPU). The first to recognize the superphrasal unity were the Russian scholars N. Pospelov and L. Bulakhovsky. Later M. Blokh suggested the term "supra-sentential construction". **Topical unity** implies that a text as a succession of sentences centers on a common informative purpose. **Semantico-syntactic cohesion** interprets the sentences in a succession as syntactically relevant.

In written speech the superphrasal unity may or may not coincide with the **paragraph**, i.e. a stretch of written text delimited by a new line at the beginning and an incomplete line in the end. While the paragraph is a feature of written speech, the superphrasal unity belongs to all types of speech, oral or written, literary or colloquial. The paragraph is a polifunctional unit: it is used for representing a superphrasal unity as well as introducing utterances in a dialogue and separate points in an enumeration. The paragraph may contain several superphrasal unities or only one sentence. A one-sentence paragraph is a means of expressive syntax.

2. M. Blokh subdivides "supra-sentential constructions", which may be a monologue or a dialogue. The **monologue** is a one-direction sequence: a group of sentences directed from a speaker to his listener(s). The **dialogue** is a two-direction

sequence: a group of sentences pronounced by interlocutors in turn. This division is not absolute: a dialogue can be found in a monologue (an inner dialogue, i.e. a dialogue of the speaker with himself); on the other hand, a monologue can be found in a dialogue (when a response to an utterance does not form a rejoinder but a continuation of the stipulating utterance).

3. Monologue and dialogues differ in the type of the sentence connection. Monologues are based on the cumulative connection; the resulting construction is a **cumuleme**. Phonetically the cumuleme is delimited by a falling tone and a prolonged pause (2.5 moras as different from a sentence pause of 2 moras). Semantically cumulemes fall into factual (narrative and descriptive), modal (reasoning, perception, etc.) and mixed. In the cumuleme the first sentence is "leading", others are "sequential", topically and syntactically connected with the leading sentence.

Sentences in the cumuleme are presented either prospectively or retrospectively. **Prospective** (epiphoric) **cumulation** relates the given sentence to the one which is to follow, e.g. *I tell you one of the two things must happen. Either out of that darkness some new creation will come, or the heaven will fall*. **Retrospective cumulation** relates the given sentence to the preceding one, e.g. *Either out of that darkness some new creation will come, or the heaven will fall. I tell you one of the two things must happen.*

Dialogues are based on occursive connection: sentences are positioned to "meet" one another. The resulting construction is an **occurseme**. Hierarchically the occurseme is superior to the cumuleme.

4. Parcellation and segmentation are border-line phenomena between the sentence and the sentence sequence. Both parcelled and segmented constructions belong to expressive syntactic means. They are common in colloquial speech and in literary prose they are used to give a special emphasis to certain sentence parts or to create the effect of spontaneity.

The parcellated construction presents two or more collocations separated by a sentence-tone (in writing they are delimited by a full stop) but related to one another as parts of one and the same sentence, e.g. *I realized his horse was the first to come. Again. I thought I was finished.* In such a construction a syntactically dependent sentence element (an object, an attribute, a predicative or an adverbial modifier) is placed outside the sentence frame and presented as an independent unit, e.g. *He was exhausted. Completely finished, and sick with salt water in him.* According to M. Blokh, the parcelled construction is a result of the transposition of a sentence into a cumuleme.

If, on the other hand, a cumuleme is transposed into a sentence, the result is a **segmented construction** (or **fusion**). Two different sentences may be "forced" into one, e.g. *The air-hostess came down the aisle then to warn the passangers they were about to land and please would everyone fasten their belts*. Another type of a segmented construction may be regarded as a kind of reduplication when the sentence is split into two independent sentence elements related as the theme and the rheme (expressed by a noun and a pronoun), the theme being set off in the position of an independent element. Segmented constructions of this type are characterized by a middle pause and semi-finalizing punctuation marks (coma, dash, semicolon).

If the noun precedes the pronoun the construction is called a **reprise**, e.g. *Poor girl, she did not know she was nearing the trouble herself.* If the pronoun precedes the noun the construction is called **anticipation**, e.g. *Is he real – this man*?

5. Topically and syntactically connected cumulemes and occursemes form the **text** – the highest syntactic unit possessing its own categories.

The first large-scale inquiry into text organization was performed by R. Harweg (1968) within the **descriptive structural approach.** R. Harweg postulated that texts are hold together by the mechanism of "substitution" (one expression following up another one of the same sense and thus forming a cohesive or coherent relationship). His notion of "substitution" is extraordinary broad and complex, subsuming relationships such as synonymy, class/instance, subclass/superclass, cause/effect, part/whole. The main tendencies of the text studies within the structural approach are as follows: the text was defined as a unit larger than the sentence (K. Pike), research proceeded by discovering types of text structures and classifying them in some sort of scheme.

The **transformational generative grammar approach** combined with the basic principles of cognitive psychology provides a model of text generating (T.A. van Dirk, I. Mel'cuk, A. Zolkovskiy). T.A. van Dirk introduced the notion of macrostructure: a statement of the content of a text, and reasoned that the generating of a text must begin with a main idea which gradually evolves into the detailed meanings that enter sentences with the help of "literary operations". When a text is presented, there must be operations which work in the other direction to extract the main idea back out again. Thus, the main concern of T.A. van Dirk's study is to describe cognitive processes that can render texts "literary". A different line has been adopted in the work of I. Mel'cuk. He argues that the central operation of a text model should be the transition between "meaning" and text, i.e. how meaning is expressed in a text or abstracted out of a text, which is possible due to the speaker's/hearer's ability to express/identify one and the same idea in a number of synonymous utterances. Thus, I. Mel'cuk adopts the text model as that one of meaning representation in cognitive continuity. All the discussed trends of the text study illustrate the evolution in theory and method of text linguistics.

The **main target of the text linguistics** of the present day is to describe various text types used in discourse, explain both the shared features and the distinctions among texts of different types, i.e. to find out what standards texts must fulfill, how they might be produced or received. In modern text linguistics a **text** is defined as a communicative occurrence which meets particular standards (categories) of textuality. If any of these standards is not considered to have been satisfied, the text will not be communicative (R.Beaugrande, W. Dressler).

Different authors point out different **textual categories** or **parameters of the text**: Ts.Todorov –verbal, syntactic, semantic; N.E. Enkvist –topic, focus, linkage; I.R.Galperin – informative contents, cohesion, prospection, retrospection, modality, integrity, completeness; R. Beaugrande and W. Dressler – cohesion, coherence, intentionality, acceptability, informativity, situationality, intertextuality.

Integrity, discreteness, cohesion and coherence are the most obvious categories of textuality. They indicate how the component elements of the text fit

together and make sense. **Integrity** denotes the ability of the text to function as a unity which cannot be reduced to the sum of its constituents. Integrity is effected by: (1) the communicative intention of the author, i.e. the message he intents to communicate to the recipient; (2) topical unity of the text; (3) compositional and genre unity; (4) the image of the author, which may be relatively close or relatively remote from the real author; (5) foregrounding, which is realized by placing the most important fragments of the text in the "strong" positions (the title, the beginning or the end of the text.

The category of **discreteness** is effected by dividing the text into units of different language levels, the largest of which are superphrasal unities and paragraphs. Complexes of superphrasal unities and paragraphs make up the communicative blocs of the text.

Compositional discreteness is realized by text-forming and text-arranging blocs. Text-forming blocs include exposition, complication, development and denouement. Text-arranging blocs are differentiated into introductory, connecting and finalizing.

Functional-communicative discreteness of the text is effected by its division into predicative and relative parts. The former posses a greater informational load in the text as compared to the latter.

Violation of the rules of discreteness of the text (no division into paragraphs, no punctuation marks) is used as a stylistic device, e.g. as part of the stream-of-consciousness technique.

Cohesion concerns the ways in which the components of the surface text, i.e. the actual words we hear or see, are mutually connected within a sequence. The surface components depend upon each other according to grammatical forms and conventions. The notion of cohesion includes all the functions which can be used to signal relations among surface elements, e.g.: the road sign*: slow children at play* which is more likely to be read as "slow" and "children at play", cannot be rearranged into: *Children play slow at.*

As to formal means of cohesion, sentence connection can be of two types: conjunctive and correlative. **Conjunctive connection** is effected by conjunction-like connectors: regular conjunctions (coordinative and subordinative) and adverbial or parenthetical sentence-connectors (*then, yet, however, consequently, hence, besides, moreover, nevertheless*): *The president emotionally declared that he was "glad to be home". Then he told the gathering what it had come to hear*. **Correlative connection** is effected by a pair of elements one of which refers to the other, used in the foregoing sentence. By means of this reference successive sentences are related to each other. Correlative connection can be both retrospective and prospective. Correlative connection is divided into substitutional and representative.

Besides on the level of the text two more types of connection are employed – substitutional and representative connection. **Substitutional connection** is based on the use of substitutes, e.g. *There was an old woman who lived in a shoe. She had so many children, she didn't know what to do*. A substitute may have as its antecedent the whole of the preceding sentence or a clausal part of it. Substitutes often go together with conjunctions, effecting the mixed type of connection, e.g.: *As I saw*

them I thought that they seemed prosperous. <u>But it</u> may have been all the same just an illusion.

Representative connection is based on representative elements which refer to one another without substitution, e.g. *Soon he went home. None regretted <u>his departure</u>.* Representative correlation is achieved also by repetition, e.g. *He has a lean and hungry look. He <u>thinks too much</u>. <u>Thinks too much</u>. Such men are dangerous.*

Coherence concerns the ways in which the semantic components of the text, i.e. the concepts and relations which underlie the surface text are mutually accessible and relevant. For example, in "children at play", "children" is an object concept, "play" – an action concept, and the relation – "agent of", because the children are the agents of the action. Coherence can be illustrated by a group of relations of causality, such as cause, reason, purpose, etc. These relations concern the ways in which one situation or event affects the conditions for some other one. Coherence is not a mere feature of texts, but rather the outcome of cognitive processes among text users. A text does not make sense by itself, but rather by the interaction of text-presented knowledge with people's stored knowledge of the world. It follows that text linguistics must co-operate with cognitive psychology to explore such a basic matter as the sense of a text.

The **category of personality/impersonality** is another text-centered notion, designating operations directed at the text materials. It is realized on the basis of explicitness/non-explicitness of the author. It serves as a criterion for differentiating fiction from non-fiction (publicistic or scientific texts). In fiction, the image of the author exists side by side with the image of the narrator who is shown as living in the same world with other characters of the story. Narration may be objectivized (told in the third person) or subjectivized (told in the first person).

There are also user-centered notions which are brought to bear on the activity of textual communication at large, both by producers and receivers. They are intentionality, acceptability, informativity, situationality, intertextuality.

Intentionality is the category of textuality which concerns the text producer's attitude to constituting a coherent and cohesive text to fulfill the producer's intentions.

Acceptability as a category of textuality concerns the text receiver's attitude that the text should have some use of relevance for the receiver. This attitude is responsive to such factors as text type, social or cultural setting. Receivers can support coherence by making their own contributions to the sense of the text. Text producers often speculate on the receivers' attitude of acceptability and present texts that require important contributions in order to make sense. For example, the bell telephone company warns people: *Call us before you dig. You may not be able to afterwards.* People are left to infer the information on their own, which is: *Call us before you dig. There might be an underground cable. If you break the cable, you won't have phone service, and you may get a severe electric shock. Then you won't be able to call us.*

Informativity as a category of textuality concerns the extent to which the presented texts are expected/unexpected or known/unknown. The texts which need

inference, i.e. are implicit to a certain degree, are considered to be more informative than those which are more explicit (see the example above).

Situationality concerns the factors which make a text relevant to a situation of occurrence. Thus, the road sign   *slow*

children

at play

can be treated in different ways, but the most probable intended use is obvious. The ease with which people can decide such an issue is due to the influence of the situation where the text is presented. Situationality even affects the means of cohesion. On the one hand, a more explicit text version, such as: *Motorists should proceed slowly, because children are playing in the vicinity and might run out into the street. Vehicles can stop more readily if they are moving slowly* would remove every possible doubt about the sense. On the other hand, it would not be appropriate to a situation where receivers have only limited time and attention to devote to signs among other moving traffic. That forces the text producer toward a maximum of economy; situationality works so strongly that the minimal version is more appropriate than the clearer.

Intertextuality concerns the factors which make the utilization of one text dependent on knowledge of one or previously encountered texts. Intertextuality is responsible for the evolution of text types as classes of texts with typical patterns of characteristics. Within a particular type, reliance on intertextuality may be more or less prominent. In types like parodies, critical reviews, the text producer must consult the prior text continually, and text receivers will usually need come familiarity with the latter.

6. The sentence model S –P –O –D is considered to be initial, stylistically unmarked, or neutral. All other sentence models can be regarded as means of conveying additional logical or expressive information. In accord with the type of transformation of the initial sentence model all **expressive syntactic means** fall into three groups: (1) expressive syntactic means based on the reduction of the initial model; (2) expressive syntactic means expressive based on the expansion of the initial model; (3) syntactic means based on the change of the sequence of the constituents of the initial model.

Expressive syntactic means based on the **reduction of the initial model include**:

Ellipsis, i.e. omission of a part of the sentence (usually the subject or the predicate) whose meaning is easily understood from the context, e.g. *Coming!*

Aposiopesis (stop-short, pull-up), i.e. a sudden break in the utterance caused by emotions, indecisiveness, hesitation, e.g. *Something like despair ravaged the heart of his watching Fleur. If she left him for Wilfred! But surely – no – her father, her house, her dog, her friends, her – her collection of – of – she would not – could not give them up!* (Galsworthy)

Nominal sentences, i.e. sentences of the nominal phrase only, e.g. *The very idea of it! The irony of it! That woman! said Soames.* (Galsworthy)

Asyndeton, i.e. asyndetic connection of words in the word-group, a device that may create the effect of hurried speech, e.g. *Who makes fame? Critics, writers, stockbrokers, women*. (Maugham)

Expressive syntactic means expressive based on the **expansion of the initial model include**:

Repetition, i.e. repeated use of a part of the sentence or a word-group on a short space. There can be differentiated a simple contact repetition, e.g. *Tears, tears that nobody could see rolled down her cheeks*; an expanded repetition, e.g. *Pain, even slight pain tends to isolate*; a framing repetition, e.g. *Nothing ever happened in that little town, left behind by the advance of civilization, noth*ing; a pick-up repetition, e.g. *Poirot was shaken; shaken and embittered*; a chain repetition, e.g. *A smile would come into Mr. Pickwick's face. The smile extended into laugh, the laugh into roar, and the roar became general*. (Dickens)

Enumeration, i.e. naming homogeneous syntactic units, e.g. *Doorknobs, keyholes, fireirons, window catches were polished; metal which I had no idea existed flashed into life*. (Dickens)

Syntactic tautology, i.e. repetition of semantically identical and grammatically synonymous units within the sentence; a variety of semantic pleonasm serving to make the idea more clear and concrete. The most common is the repetition of the subject (segmentation), e.g. *That Jimmy Townsend – he and his job were made for each other*. (Wain)

Polysyndeton, i.e. usage of numerous conjunctions, e.g. *He was asleep in a short time and he dreamed of Africa when he was a boy and the long golden beaches, so white they hurt your eyes, and the high capes and the grey brown mountains*. (Hemingway)

When used in poetry it helps to create a slow rhythm and it may be combined with asyndeton which in this case seems even more dynamic:

And ere through shrill notes the pipe uttered,
You heard as if an army muttered;
And the muttering grew to a grumbling,
And the grumbling grew to a mighty rumbling
And out of the houses the rats came tumbling;
Great rats, small rats, lean rats, brawny rats,
Brown rats, black rats, grey rats, tawny rats,
Grave old plodders, grey young friskers ... (Browning)

Emphatic structures (it is/was he/she/I/it who/that …; constructions with the emphatic *to do*) are used to intensify one of the parts of the sentence, e.g. *It's blood they make their profit of*. (Carter) *I'll never swim the Channel, that I do know*.(Wain)

Parenthetic sentences which are used to specify some details of the communication, e.g. *It is my conjecture only –that the police are interested*.(Greene)

Syntactic means based on the **change of the sequence of the constituents of the initial model,** i.e. violation of the neutral word order:

Inversion which may be grammatical (such as used in interrogative sentences) and stylistic which is used to deliberately emphasize the meaning of a component,

e.g. *And out of the houses the rats came tumbling. From behind me came Andrew's voice.*

Distant positioning of syntactically connected units of the sentence, e.g. *There was a world of anticipation in her voice, and of confidence too.*

Detachment (isolation) of a part of the sentence (commonly the attribute) is used to stress its syntactic and semantic relevance, e.g. *I hardly dare to think what it must have been for Art, strapped, helpless and immobile.*

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