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Ю. И. ПЛАХОТНАЯ

THEORETICAL GRAMMAR OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE
ТЕОРЕТИЧЕСКАЯ ГРАММАТИКА АНГЛИЙСКОГО ЯЗЫКА

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Рецензент:
Родичева Анна Анатольевна, кандидат филологических наук, заведующая кафедрой английского языка и литературы РГГМУ, доцент.

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Настоящее пособие предназначено для изучающих английский язык на филологических и лингвистических факультетах. В пособии рассматриваются вопросы структуры языка как системы, вопросы синтаксиса фразы, предложения и текста, вопросы определения частей речи и грамматических категорий. Для проработки теоретического материала даны задания для самостоятельного выполнения или на практических занятиях. Пособие написано на английском языке.

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ВВЕДЕНИЕ

Настоящее учебное пособие предназначено для методического обеспечения дисциплины «Теоретическая грамматика» для студентов языковых факультетов, обучающихся по направлению 45.03.01 «Филология» (профиль «Зарубежная филология. Английский язык и литература»).

Цель учебного пособия — проанализировать современные концепции положений теоретической грамматики английского языка. Основная задача заключается в расширении компетенций студентов по овладению системой лингвистических знаний, включающих знание основных лексических, морфологических и синтаксических явлений и закономерностей функционирования английского языка.

Теоретический материал пособия, основанный на достижениях отечественной и зарубежной лингвистики, включает все основные темы для изучения данной дисциплины. В десяти главах представлены темы по морфологии и синтаксису, даны определения основных грамматических понятий, явлений и процессов. Для контроля понимания изложенного материала в конце каждой главы предложены вопросы и задания для самоконтроля, а также для обсуждения на практических занятиях. В пособии имеются задания для лабораторных работ.

Данное учебное пособие может быть использовано преподавателями для подготовки к лекциям и семинарам.

CHAPTER I. THE INTRODUCTION INTO THE THEORY OF GRAMMAR. BASIC LINGUISTIC NOTIONS

1. The nature of a language

Linguists understand language to be human, innate, universal, and learned. They believe that there is a connection between a word and the thing it represents, that is why the words are very powerful and important. Scientists think of language in terms of its various functions: 1) it gives expression to our thoughts; 2) it is used to transmit information; 3) it provides communication and conveys new information, so it has the "communicative function"; 4) it maintains social intercourse (as in greetings or talk about the weather), so it has the "phatic" function; 5) it is used to get others to do things; 6) it expresses emotions or feelings, so it has emotive function; 7) it has a poetic function; 8) it explains language rules by means of the language itself, so it has a "metalinguistic" function.

In the view of linguists, "human language consists of signs, which are defined as things that stand for or represent something else. Linguistic signs involve sequences of sounds which represent concrete objects and events as well as abstractions" [3].

2. Language and speech

Language is used by people to communicate in their everyday life. According to Cambridge dictionary, language is a system of communication by speaking, writing, or making signs in a way that can be understood, or any of the different systems of communication used in particular regions (Cambridge Dictionary). Language also is a means of forming and storing ideas as reflections of reality and exchanging them in the process of intercourse.

Ferdinand de Saussure, the Swiss scholar who established principles of modern linguistics, defined the distinction between language and speech. Language is a set of basic elements, which can form a great variety of combinations. Speech is closely connected with the language, as it is the result of using the language in a definite act

of speaking. Speech is individual, personal, while language is common for all individuals.

American professor of Linguistics N. Chomsky names a human language the 'human essence', the distinctive quality of mind that is unique to man and inseparable from any critical phase of human existence, personal or social. As Noam Chomsky said, "when we study human languages, we are approaching what some might call 'the human essence', the distinctive qualities of the mind, that are, as far as we know, unique to man" [7; 88]. According to R. L. Trask, language is "what makes us human", and as a human language it is "a truly unique phenomenon" [19; 1–2].

Some scientists agree that language has been existing for at least 100 000 years. A minority of scholars suggest a much earlier origin of a language, going back to our ancestor, Homo erectus, over a million years ago. According to the speech scientists Philip Lieberman and Edmund Crelin, Neandertals inhabited western Europe about 35 000 years ago, could not produce an adequate range of speech sound and hence could not speak [19; 18–19].

Any human language has two main functions: the communicative function and the expressive or representative function. These 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 name language as a semiotic system. Language is considered to be a set of signs. According to R. L. Trask, "as a true sign language, it is a genuine human language, complete with a large vocabulary and a rich and complex system of grammar" [19; 19]. So, linguistic signs are informative and meaningful. There are other examples of semiotic systems, for instance, traffic lights as a system of colours, or Code Morse. Language is universal, natural, as it is used by people for their social communication, while any other sign systems are artificial and depend on the sphere of usage. The "primary medium of language is speech, that is, the production of sequences of speech sounds" [19; 15]. Speech is the production of sequence of speech sounds. And also there exist a written speech. The oldest known written texts are less than 6 000 years old, while speech is much older than that. Even

now the great majority of the world's languages that accounts 6,000 or so, are not normally written down [19].

As Anne E. Baker and Keen Hengeveld write, languages can be produced in different modalities, as there are spoken languages and sign languages. In sign languages, the relationship between form and meaning is closer than in spoken languages. Languages also can be written, the written forms are different and they are secondary as they are based on the spoken forms [2; 25]. The scientists give examples of universal properties of language.

1. All languages consist of small elements. In spoken languages these elements are the speech sounds. From these small elements all larger units, words, sentences are built.
2. All spoken languages have vowels and consonants.
3. In all languages, the users can express a negative statement, ask a question, issue an order [2; 7–8].

According to R. L. Trask, there are some of the fundamental properties, which are known as the design features of language. Duality is the use of a small number of meaningless elements in combination to produce a large number of meaningful elements. Duality is unique to human language. Animals' signaling systems are based on the principle of 'one sound, one meaning'. The total number of different things a creature can 'say' is no larger than the number of different sounds. It is usually between three and six, though monkeys have the total of twenty or so. How many phonemes are there in English all together? The answer is forty-odd. Because not all English speakers use exactly the same set of speech sounds. For example some people pronounce the words 'buck' and 'book', or 'hair' and 'air', 'three' and 'free', 'pool' and pull' and so on differently, but some identically. So, very few English speakers have fewer than forty phonemes or more than forty-five [19; 3–5].

The other feature of a human language is displacement. It is the use of a language to talk about things other than the here and now. Open-endedness is our ability to use language to say anything at all, including things we have never seen or heard before. One more feature which sets human language apart from animal signa-

ling systems is arbitrariness, which is the absence of any necessary connection between a linguistic form and its meaning. Iconicity is a direct correlation between form and meaning. The most familiar examples of iconicity in English are provided by instances of ***onomatopoeia*** – the representation of sounds by words of similar sound, such as splash, buzz, meow, quack, boom and others. They all represent attempts to reproduce real-world sounds with English phonemes. In fact, onomatopoeic words are so strongly arbitrary in different languages, for example Japanese *'chirin'chirin'* means *'tinkle'*, Turkish '*şip'* means *'plop'*, Basque '*kukurruku'* means 'cock-a-doodle-do'. If the sound of the word seems somehow to correlate with the appearance of the insect, this type of iconicity is called ***phonaesthesia.*** For example '*tximeleta'* seems to suggest not something large, but rather small and light and fluttery. This word is not related to the sound of anything, but it means a kind of butterfly. It is more generally called sound symbolism. So, sound symbolism is a special case, while arbitrariness is the norm [19; 13–14].

3. Language as a system

A system consists of small units which stand in relation to each other and perform particular functions. These units are organized on certain principles, or rules [3].

Language is regarded the system of elements (signs, units) such as sounds, words, phrases, sentences. These elements have no value without one another, they depend on each other and exist only in a system. Language is a structural system. ***System*** is a complex object made up of separate parts (e. g. the system of sounds). ***Structure*** means hierarchical layering of parts in `constituting the whole. In the structure of a language, there are four main structural levels: phonological, morphological, syntactical and supersyntatical. The levels are represented by the corresponding level units. The phonological level is the lowest level. The unit of this level is the `***phoneme***', as a distinctive unit *(bag – back).*

The morphological level has two level units: the `***morpheme***' – the lowest meaningful unit *(teach – teacher);* the ***'word***' – the main naming ('nominative') unit

of language. The syntactical level has two level units as well: the **'word group'** – the dependent syntactic unit; the '***sentence***' – the main communicative unit. The supersyntactical level has the '***text***' as its level unit.

Each level has its own system. Therefore, language is regarded as a system of systems. The level units are built up in the same way and that is why the units of a lower level serve the building material for the units of a higher level. This similarity and likeness of organization of linguistic units is called isomorphism. This is how language works – a small number of elements at one level can enter into thousands of different combinations to form units at the other level.

All structural levels are subject matters of different levels of linguistic analysis. Language incorporates three constituent parts: the phonological system, the lexical system and the grammatical system. The unity of these parts forms a language. The phonological system is the basis of the language; it performs the material realization of its larger units (words). The lexical system is the set of naming means of language, words and stable word groups. The grammatical system is the set of rules determining the combination of words in the formation of sentences. Each of the three constituent parts of the language is studied by a particular linguistic discipline. Thus, the phonological description of a language is accomplished by the science of phonology, the lexical description – by lexicology, the grammatical description – by grammar, which enables us to combine words to form sentences and texts. As Anne E. Baker and K. Hengeveld think, a word on its own has a particular meaning, but it is composed of combinations of sounds that help to distinguish meaning, so 'boy' is different from 'toy' on the bases of two sounds b and t. Words, when combined with other words, can also form a complex message, which may vary depending on the order. Compare the sentences: *The lifeguard saved the girl. The girl saved the lifeguard.* These sentences consist of exactly the same words with their own meaning, but these sentences have different meaning [2; 7–8].

The distinctive speech sounds are called the phonemes, that do not have their own meaning. For example the word *cat* consists of three phonemes /kæt/ and it has a definite meaning while the phoneme /k/ does not have its own meaning. These

meaningless phonemes can be rearranged to produce different words with different meanings. Thus, /tǽk/ produces the word *tack*, /ǽkt/ gives *act*, /ǽt/ – at, /tǽkt/ – *tact* or *tacked.* So, by combining a very small set of meaningless speech sounds in various ways, we can produce a very large number of different meaningful items or words [19; 3]. All human languages are constructed in this way, and this type of structure is called ***duality of patterning***.

N. Chomsky introduces the term ***'surface structure'*** that refers to a representation of the phrases that constitute a linguistic expression and the categories to which these phrases belong to [7; 92].

4. Grammatical structure of the language

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

According to different scholars, Indo-European languages are classified into two structural types – ***synthetic*** and ***analytic***. Synthetic languages are defined as ones of 'internal' grammar of the word – most of grammatical meanings and grammatical relations of words are expressed with the help of inflexions (Russian, Latin, etc). Analytical languages are those of 'external' grammar because most grammatical meanings and grammatical forms are expressed with the help of words (will do). However, we cannot speak of languages as purely synthetic or analytic. Since the Old English times the English language has become more analytical, as it possesses analytical forms as prevailing.

5. Paradigmatic and syntagmatic relations

A linguistic unit can enter into relations of two different kinds: paradigmatic and syntagmatic. It enters into ***paradigmatic relations (PR)*** with all the units that can occur in the same environment.

The term ‘paradigmatic’ is derived from the word ‘paradigm’ and denotes the relations between elements in paradigms in the system of language. Classical grammatical paradigms are those making up grammatical categories of words or morphological categories. For example, the category of number of the noun *(tooth-teeth),* the category of verb tense, etc. ***Paradigm*** is a system of variants of the same unit, which is called the invariant. ***Paradigmatic relations*** are relations between the variants of the lingual unit within a paradigm [22; 13]. PR are relations based on the principles of similarity. They exist between the units that can substitute one another. For instance, in the word-group *A litter of milk* the word *litter* is in paradigmatic relations with the words *bottle*, *cup,* etc. The article *A* can enter into PR with the units *the, this, one, same,* etc.

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

1) Semantic PR are based on the similarity of meaning: *a book to read = a book for reading. He used to practice tennis every day. – He practiced tennis every day.*

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

3) Functional PR 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*. Paradigmatic features of units have their ability to substitute each other, so PR can occur in the system of language [22; 13, 28].

A linguistic unit enters into ***syntagmatic relations (SR)*** with other units of the same level. SR exists at each language level. For example in the word-group *A litter of milk* the word *litter* contrasts with a, of, milk; within the word litter – *l, i, t, t, e, r* are in syntagmatic relations. SR can be of three different types: ***coordinate, subordinate and predicative***.

1) Coordinate SR exist between the homogeneous linguistic units that are

equal in rank, as they are in the relations of independence: *you and me*; *They were tired, but happy.*

2) Subordinate SR 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.

3) Predicative SR are the relations of interdependence: primary and secondary predication. The primary predication occurs between the main parts of the sentence: the subject and the verb. There are sentences which contain predication, related to the object. This predication may be called secondary predication. In Modern English there are several ways of expressing secondary predication. One of them is named the complex object, as in the examples, *"I saw him working. We heard them talk. The audience watched the team play. I want you to call tomorrow. We expect you to visit us"*, etc.

6. Plane of content and plane of expression

The nature of grammar is better understood in the light of discrimination between the two planes of language, namely, the *plane of content* and the *plane of expression*. The plane of content deals with the purely semantic elements containedin language, while the plane of expression comprises the material units of language taken by themselves. The two planes are inseparably connected, so that no meaning can be realized without some material means of expression. Grammatical elementsof language present a unity of content and expression.

The correspondence between the plane of content and the plane of expression is very complex, and it is peculiar to each language. This complexity is clearly illustrated by thephenomena of polysemy, homonymy and synonymy.

Taking into consideration the discrimination between the two planes, it is possible to say that the purpose of grammar is to disclose and formulate the regularities of the correspondence between the plane of content and the plane of expression in the process of utterance formation out of lexical units.

7. The notion of ‘grammar’

The definition of the word ‘grammar’ is based on the classical Latin word ‘grammaria’ which is taken from the Greek word ‘grammatike (tekhne)’ (“art of letters”), referring both to philology and literature. According to D. Harper’s etymology dictionary, the restriction of the meaning of grammar to “systematic account of the rules and usages of language” is a postclassical trend. By the end of the 16th century, the word ‘grammar’ had obtained the different meaning as “rules of a language to which speakers and writers must conform”. Until the 17th century, the term ‘grammar’ had only been applied to the study of the Latin language, which was taught in grammar schools in England. Later ‘grammar’ split into the study of words and their meanings now known as lexicology, as well as into the study of sounds, known as phonetics and phonology.

In the contemporary linguistics, that is the study of language that includes phonetics, morphology, syntax, semantics, and pragmatics, grammar is the set of rules for composing clauses, phrases, and words in a language. At present, the most popular usage of the term ‘grammar’ unites morphology – the study of word forms and structure, and syntax – the study of word combinations and sentences.

Grammarians, the linguists who specialize in the study of grammar, identify the rules of grammar that govern each particular language. A rule of grammar is a statement that expresses a fundamental fact about the way in which the grammar of a particular language or speech variety is put together [19; 225]. The grammar of a language is a complex and highly structured affair, that operates in terms of concepts and categories which have to be defined in terms of other concepts and categories. So, speaking a language is much more difficult of any other activity, like going by bike or ice-skating, even if we know all the rules [19; 33–34].

A grammar of a language describes the rules of the form and meaning of words, phrases, clauses, and sentences. A grammar interacts with the phonology (studying the sound system), the graphology (the writing system: spelling and punctuation), the dictionary or lexicon, and the semantics. A grammar is divided into

two components: syntax (that studies the formation of phrases and sentences) and morphology (that studies the formation of words) [10; 3-4].

"Grammar is the art of speaking, that is explaining one's thoughts by signs which men have invented for this purpose. One can consider two things in regard to the signs, the first is what they are by nature, sounds and characters, the second is their signification, that is the manner in which men utilize them for signifying their thoughts". The Grammar examines "the spiritual element of speech, which constitutes one of the greatest advantages, which a man has over all the other animals, and which is one of the greatest proofs of the man's reason" [15; 95].

According to Robert Lawrence Trask, Professor of Linguistics at the University of Sussex, one of the most important characteristics of language is the presence of grammar. The grammar of the language is the way it combines smaller elements (words) into larger elements (sentences). Every human language has grammar, even the most remote languages, like Hua, spoken by the least technologically advanced people. Even artificial languages, like Esperanto, have grammar [19; 27].

Before learning the peculiarities of 'grammar' we should define what the language is and how it differs from speech.

Questions

1. What does the word 'grammar' mean?
2. What is language? What functions does a language have?
3. What is the difference between language and speech?
4. What is Morphology and Syntax?
5. Tell about the plane of content and the plane of expression.
6. What types of relations do linguistic units have?
7. How is the expressive function of the language realized?
8. What is a structure? What is a system?
9. What structural levels are there in a language?
10. What means is each level represented by?

11.What is isomorphism?

12.What are pragmatic and syntagmatic relations?

13.What is the difference between language as a semiotic system and other semiotic systems?

14.What is a natural human language? What are its differences with computer languages?

15.What are the main features of the language and speech?

16.What are the difference between the language and the speech?

Tasks

1. Give your own examples of syntagmatic and paradigmatic relations.

2. Analyze the syntagmatic and paradigmatic relations in the units in the given sentences. Analyze the plane of context and the plane of expression in the given sentences.

1) "As the sun rose above the horizon, they slew the lamb. They scattered its blood. Some of the priests were silently weeping. They could all hear the shouting outside the gates of the Temple. They continued nonetheless to separate the organs, the sacred forbidden fat. They heard the foot beat of the army, that terrible consolidated crunch of one hundred right feet going down in unison. The lie of uniformity. As if they could become one creature. As if each of them, like this lamb, would not be utterly alone at the moment of death. No one else will save you from your own death, that is certain" [Naomi Alderman "The Liars' Gospel"].

2) "He looked at her intently and let his features register surprise. It wasn't altogether an act. At this distance of intimacy, with only a desk between them, he was startled again by her beauty. It was almost a physical sensation. There was nothing seductive about her. Indeed, her tailored grey dress had an austerity about it, echoed in the way she had pulled back the luxuriance of her hair in a simple clasp. But the fine-boned modelling of her face, the porcelain hue of her skin, the serious, slightly haughty cast of those wide grey eyes, the fluidity of her gestures, all gave him the

sense that the particular quality of her beauty would continue to surprise him" [Lisa Appignanesi "Memory and Desire"].

CHAPTER II. TYPES OF GRAMMAR

1. Historical stages of the English theoretical grammar

English theoretical grammar has naturally been developing in the mainstream of world linguistics.

There is no generally accepted periodization of the history of the English grammar, but it is possible to define two stages in the history of grammar. Thus, we may trace three main development stages of English theoretical grammar:

– the first (the 16th century – the beginning of the 19th century);
– the second (the first quarter of the 19th century – the 1930s);
– the third (the 1930s – present day).

The prescientific stage began at the end of the 16th century and lasted till the 1900s. It comprises two types of grammar: descriptive and prescriptive. Early grammarians, such as William Bullokar's in his "Bref grammar of English" in 1585 described the grammatical phenomena of the language, was ***the pre-normative grammar.***

In the middle of the 18th century appeared ***the normative (prescriptive) grammar,*** which stated strict rules of grammatical usage. R. Lowth in his "Short Introduction to English grammar" in 1762 prescribed how to use the language and gave the strict grammar rules.

Scholars long ago expressed the idea that some languages have a common origin. Attempts to establish groups of languages have been repeatedly made from the 16th century. Among the scholars who developed the idea of language relationship and attempted to give the first schemes of their genealogical groups was J. J. Scaliger (1540–1609).

One of the most important texts in the history of linguistic thought was published in 1660 at the Port-Royal Abbey in France: the 'Grammaire general at

raison- nee' ('General and Rational Grammar') by Antoinee Arnauld (1612–1694) and Claude Lancelot (1615–1695). Port-Royal also produced other works on language, including 'Art of thinking' by Arnauld and Nicole in 1662 also known as 'The Port-Royal Logic" and a number of grammar manuals for the teaching of classical and vernacular languages, among them is 'New Method for Learning the Latin Language Easily and Quickly' by Lancelot in 1644. The foundation of their radical pedagogy was the principle of inculcating new knowledge on the basis of the knowledge, already possessed by the pupil [15; 97–98]. "Since common sense teaches us that one must always begin with the easiest tasks and that what we already know should help to illuminate that which we do not yet know, it is apparent that we should use our native language as a men of entry into languages which are still strange and unknown to us (Lancelot, 1644). This method, going from the known to the unknown, from the easiest to the hardest, was followed in each of the grammars of the vernacular and Classical languages written at Port-Royal. For the Grammar is an inquiry into the foundations of the art of speaking, providing an account of the nature of language. In this respect, it is a general or 'universal' grammar. It is an explanation of the grammatical features shared by all languages. But, the aim of the Grammar is not only to explain what a language is like, but also to support that explanation with justification. Here is perhaps the linchpin of Port-Royal linguistic thought: the primary function of speak- ing is said to be the communication of thoughts, and the only way that speech can successfully perform that task is by acting as a mirror of the structure of the thoughts being expressed. "This is why the different sorts of signification which are embodied in words cannot be clearly understood if what has gone on in our minds previously has not been clearly understood , since words were invented only in order to make these thoughts known" [10; 98–99].

The second stage of the history of the English grammar can be called the theoretical grammar, which gives the scientific explanation of the grammatical phenomena. This type of grammar is called ***the classical scientific grammar*** describing the grammatical system, especially that of syntax. Henry Sweet was the first scholar who wrote the grammar of that kind called "New English grammar,

Logical and Historical" in 1891. H. Sweet is mainly famous for his a system of parts of speech. Grammarians like C.P. Manson's "English grammar" (1858) and A. Bain's "Higher English grammar (1863) criticized some grammatical constructions and forms used by educated English speaking people. These grammarians created the basis for scientific grammar.

According to I. Pribytock, the scientific period of the history of the English grammar has also two stages: the first is from the appearance of H. Sweet's book till 1940's, when there were two types of grammar: prescriptive (J. C. Nesfield) and explanatory (C. T. Onions, H. R. Stokoe, G. Gurme, O. Jespersen and others). In 1940s, the second type of grammar appeared that is connected with new different types of gram- mar [25, 6].

English grammars in the 20thcentury may be divided into two parts: the first part is from the beginning of the 20th century till the 1940's, when there were only two types of grammars – ***the prescriptive and the classical scientific.*** Among the prescriptive grammars there is a work of J.Nesfield, who developed the system of members of the sentence. The founders of classical scientific grammar in Modern period specialize in syntax and morphology, they are L.G. Kimball, C.T. Onionsand H. R. Stokoe, Poustma H., Kruisinga A., Curme G.O., Bryant M.M., O.Jespersen [12; 5-40]

2. Different types of grammar

There are different theories and approaches to the matter of the same language phenomenon in various directions of linguistics. At the beginning of the 20th century various types of grammar appeared in the science of linguistics, each of them contributing greatly to English theoretical grammar: structural or descriptive grammar, transformational grammar, communicatively oriented grammar, semantically oriented grammar, pragmatically oriented grammar and textual grammar.

The structural grammar, according to Ch. Fries, gives the description of the grammar as it exists without criticising it. The transformational grammar (Z. Harris, N. Chomsky) found the structure of kernel sentences that enables people to construct multiple sentences. Communicatively oriented grammar (V. Mathesius, J. Firbas) studies the actual division of the sentences that is consisted from the theme and the rheme. Semantically oriented grammar (Ch. Fillmore, W. L. Chafe) studies the semantic structure of the sentences. Pragmatically oriented grammar (J. Austin, J. Searle) focuses its attention on the functional sides of the language uinits. Textual grammar (Z. Harries, V. Waterhouse, T. van Dijk, M. K. Halliday) puts texts into its focus [25; 7].

3. Synchronic and diachronic grammar

There are different types of grammar of the language. We describe grammar to understand how it operates in a certain language at a certain period of its existence. As a result we receive a synchronic grammar (distributional, categorial or transformational as a case may be). Synchronic means describing a subject (usually a language) as it exists at one point in time. We also may describe grammar to understand how the language changes through the time. Diachronic or historical grammar is concerned with the study of changes occurring over a period of time in the language.

4. Descriptive and prescriptive grammars

The word ‘Grammar’ is used to refer to the descriptive and prescriptive rules of a language. Linguists tend to a descriptive approach to grammar, as they describe a language, while people who use a language in their everyday life tend towards a prescriptive approach. A descriptive approach looks at the grammar of any spoken language as it actually exists, a prescriptive grammar looks at the norms and strict rules of grammatically correct speech created by scholars. A prescriptive approach is also used in teaching a language to non-native speakers. Pedagogical grammar

describes the rules to help learners of the language. Traditional grammar lessons consisted of exercises in ‘parcing’ and naming sentence parts and word categories. According to A. Baker, a grammar represents the knowledge that all speakers have of the rules of their language in theory. This sort of grammar describes the rules for all varieties of the language, and the description covers those variants that are more or less systematic in character. Another type of grammar, a prescriptive grammar prescribes the rules for correct usage, which forms of a language are good, and which are not [2; 19–20].

5. Theoretical and practical grammar

Grammar may be practical and theoretical. The aim of practical grammar is the description of grammar rules that are necessary to understand and formulate sentences. The theoretical grammar serves to describe the grammatical structure of the language as a system where all parts are interconnected. The difference between theoretical and practical grammar lies in the fact that practical grammar prescribes certain rules of usage and teaches to speak (or write) correctly whereas theoretical grammar presents facts of the language analyzing them, and gives no prescriptions. Any linguistic description may have a practical or theoretical purpose. So, the aim of the practical grammar is to provide the student with a manual of practical usage of the language. The aim of theoretical grammar is to present a theoretical description of the grammatical system, i.e. to scientifically analyze and define grammatical categories and study the mechanisms of grammatical formation of utterances. Another aim of theoretical grammar is to offer explanation for these rules. Theoretical grammar deals with the language as a functional system.

6. Methods of linguistic analysis

Different grammar schools have their own method of analyses. Three types of analysis or methods separately or in any combination are used to discover

grammatical systems of languages, they are 1) historical method, 2) comparative method, 3) general method. The historical grammar studies the language phenomena through the history of the language. Comparative grammar compares the phenomena of the cognate languages that were arisen from one (parent) pra-language. General grammar is concerned with the grammatical phenomena of all languages.

The study of the actual relationship between languages became possible only when the historical comparative method of language study was created in the first quarter of the 19th century. The historical comparative method developed in the connection with the comparative observation of languages belonging to the Indo-European family, and its appearance was stimulated by the discovery of Sanskrit.

Sir William Jones (1746–1794), a prominent British orientalist and Sanskrit student, was the first to point out that Sanskrit, Greek, Latin, Gothic, and some other languages of India and Europe had sprung from the same source, which no longer existed. He based his views on an observation of verbal roots and certain grammatical forms in the languages compared.

The relations between the languages of the Indo-European family were studied systematically at the beginning of the 19th century by some European scholars, such as Franz Bopp (1791–1867), Rasmus Kristian Rask (1787–1832), Jacob Grimm (1785–1863), A. Ch. Vostokov (1781–1864). These scholars not only made comparative and historical observations of languages, but they defined the fundamental conception of linguistic relationship, and created the historical comparative method in linguistics. The rise of this method marks the appearance of linguistics as a science in the strict sense of the word.

The historical and comparative study of the Indo-European languages became the principal line of European linguistics for many years. The historical comparative linguistics was further developed in the works of such scholars of the 19th and 20th centuries as F. Dietz (1794–1876), the founder of Roman philology, A. F. Pott (1802– 1887), A. Schleicher (1821–1868), F. I. Buslayev (1848–1897), F. F. Fortunatov (1848– 1914), F. de Saussure (1857–1913), A. Meillet (1866–1936) and other linguists.

The historical comparative method had definite shortcomings and limitations. This method did not give any exact definition of the object of linguistics as an independent science. The study of numerous languages of the world and the research was limited to the group of the Indo-European languages. There were mainly the historical changes of phonological and morphological units that were studied. The study of the evolution of sounds and morphemes led to an atomistic approach to the language. This method concerned with the separated, individual parts of a subject, rather than approaching the subject as a whole.

As a reaction to the atomistic approach to languages, a new theory appeared that was seeking to linguistic events in their mutual interconnection and interdependence, to understand and to describe language as a system. The first linguists to speak of the language, as a system or a structure of smaller systems were Russian and Polish linguist I. A. Beaudouin de Courtenay, Russian Academician F. F. Fortuna- tov, and the Swiss linguist F. de Saussure.

There were three major linguistic schools, that developed these new notions concerning the language and linguistics as the science that studies it:

- the Prague School that created Functional linguistics;
- the Copenhagen School that created Glossematics;
- the American School that created Descriptive linguistics.

The Prague School was founded in 1929, uniting Czech and Russian linguists: V. Mathesius, B. Trnka, N. Trubetskoy, R. Jakobson, and others. The chief contribution of early Praguians to modern linguistics is the technique for determining the units of the phonological structure of languages. The basic method is the use of oppositions (contrasts) of speech sounds that change the meaning of the words in which they occur.

The Copenhagen School was founded in 1933 by Louis Hjelmslev (1899–1959) and Viggo Brondal (1887–1942). In 1939 the Prague and the Copenhagen Schools founded the international journal “Acta Linguistica”. In the early 1930s the conception of the Copenhagen School was given the name of ’Glossemantics’ (from Gk. ’glossa’ – language).

The American school (Descriptive linguistics) developed from the necessi- ty of studying half-known and unknown languages of the Indian tribes, as at the beginning of the 20th century these languages were rapidly dying out. The Indian languages had no writing and, therefore, had no history, so the historical comparative method was used very little. Frantz Boas, linguist and anthropologist (1858–1942) is usually mentioned as the predecessor of American Descriptive Linguistics. His basic ideas were later developed by Edward Sapir (1884–1939) and Leonard Bloomfield (1887–1949). Bloomfield's main work "Language" was published in 1933. It is a complete methodology of language study. The main concepts of Bloomfield's book are:

1. Language is a workable system of signals that are linguistic forms by means of which people communicate.

2. Grammar is a meaningful arrangement of linguistic forms from morphemes to a sentence.

Afterwards we have to collect information about the positions the variant of the units may occupy. This way of analysis was suggested as the main method of linguistic analysis by the Russian linguist A. I. Bauduin de Courtenay in late 1890's and developed in detail by his followers. Though these procedures were used as long as people analyzed their languages, A. I. Bauduin de Courtney and his followers trans- formed it into even more powerful instruments of linguistic research. This method does not have any generally recognized name. It is often called oppositional, or paradigmatic, or categorical. Because the method results in providing us with sets of categories of a language, we shall refer to it as categorial.

One more constant feature of all units is that they must be pronounced or written, that is they must be produced for speech. So, we may base our grammatical analysis on the process of creation of linguistic units. This type of grammar is known as ***Generative*** or ***Transformational.*** This way of analysis was developed as the main method of linguistic analysis by the American linguist N. Chomsky in late 1950's and his followers. The chief contribution of ***the American Descriptive School*** to modern linguistics is the elaboration of the techniques of linguistic analysis.

The main methods are ***the Distributional method*** and ***the method of Immediate Constituents***. A recent development of Descriptive linguistics gave rise to a new method – the Transformational grammar, which was first suggested by Z. S. Harris as a method of analyzing the "raw material" (concrete utterances) and was later elaborated by Noam Chomsky as a synthetic method of "generating" (constructing) sentences. The TG refers to syntax only and presupposes the recognition (identification) of such linguistic units as phonemes, morphemes. Ch. Fries is another prominent figure of American linguistic theory. His main work is "The Structure of English".

Distributional analysis was suggested as the main method of linguistic analysis by the American linguist L. Bloomfield in early 1930's and developed in details by his followers. Though the distributional procedures were used as long as people analyze their languages, L. Bloomfield and his followers transformed it into one of the most powerful instruments of linguistic research.

Questions

1. What scientific directions in linguistics can you name?
2. What does the descriptional and prescriptional grammar mean?
3. Explain the difference between practical and theoretical grammar.
4. What does Glossemantics study?
5. What method did the Prague School linguists use?
6. What does an atomistic approach mean?
7. What was the historical method applied for?
8. What does the comparative grammar do?
9. What is distributional analysis?

Tasks

1. Name the representatives of different types of grammar.

2. Make a report about one of the linguists, a representative of a linguistic school. Tell about his scientific career and views.

CHAPTER III GRAMMATICAL MEANING AND FORM

1. Aspects of meaning

The study of meaning is called semantics, that is the branch of linguistics. Scholars define meaning as the information that is linked with the forms of language, whether they are words (lexical meaning) or constructions (compositional meaning). 'The way in which words are formed and combined into constituents and clauses of various types determines the meaning of the construction. This is the principle of compositionality' [2; 214].

According to A. Baker, a word has a form and a meaning. The form of the word is usually arbitrary. There is nothing in the form of the word 'horse' that tells us about this animal, which may be referred to by different words in other languages: for example English – 'horse', French – 'cheval', Polish – 'kon', Dutch – 'paard'. The arbitrary nature of the form becomes clear when we compare them to the words with the natural relation between form and meaning, such as English 'cuckoo', French 'coucou', Polish 'ku ku', Dutch 'koekoek'.

The arbitrary nature of the words goes with their conventional character. The form-meaning relationship is based on social convention, a kind of agreement between users of the same language. The members of a particular language community will simply have to keep to the convention that horse is used for horse and for cow [2; 222].

Content words make up the core of the meaning of the sentence as a whole. Function words act like the mortar that keeps the bricks, the content words, in place. Content words can be syntactic heads, whereas function words cannot. Speakers can use content words to refer to something that exists or obtains in reality or in some fictional world. Function words primarily serve a function within the grammatical system of the language and add further semantic and pragmatic nuances, establish relations between the lexical elements and connect everything into the grammatical networkof the sentence.

Example: *He has the book. He has a book.*

The articles ***the*** indicating a particular book, and the indefinite article ***a***

indicating a more general meaning of any book, can illustrate semantic and pragmatic nuances [2; 224]. The representation of a word meaning is the most difficult part of lexical description, that is studied by the sub-discipline of semantics. The different meaning of theword can constitute two different ***lemmas***, that are the meanings, which are given in the dictionary under one single heading. The content words can easily be extended, so they belong to the open word categories. Any speaker of the language is free to add new content words to the vocabulary. Function words belong to the closed, non- extendable, word classes [2; 233–238].

According to R. L. Trask, the meaning of a sentence depends on two things: the meaning of the words and the grammatical structure of the sentence. Considerthe examples:

The dog bit the milkman.The

dog bit the postman.

The dog is biting the postman.The

postman bit the dog.

These sentences have different meaning. If we want to know the meaning, we need to know what all words mean and every detail of the grammatical structure. This view is very influential in semantics and is called Frege's Principle of Compositionality, after the German philosopher who proposed it [19; 48].

According to Paul R. Kroeger, language is a complex form of communication, and people talk in order to share or request information. For example what is the meaning of the word '*hello*'? Every speaker of English knows how to use it: for greeting an acquaintance, answering the telephone. In the Teochew language (a dialect of Chinese), there is no word for 'hello'. The normal way for one friend to greet another is to ask: '*Have you already eaten or not?*' The expected reply is "Yes, I have eaten", even if this is not in fact true. This example illustrates why it is helpful to distinguish between the meaning (or semantic content) of an utterance and its function (or pragmatic content). In many contexts, there is a close relationship between meaning and function. For example if a doctor

wants to administer a certain medicine, which can- not be taken on an empty stomach, he will probably ask the patient: ‘Have you eaten?’ In this situation both the meaning and the function of the question will be essentiallythe same whether the doctor is speaking English or Teochew [14; 1].

The form, however, would be quite different. Compare the Teochew form with its English translation:

1. Li chya? Pa boy? You eat full not yet.

2. Have you already eaten?

The words are different and there are grammatical differences as well. Both sentences have the form of a question. In Teochew, this is indicated by the presence of a negative element (‘not yet’) at the end of the sentence, while in English it is indicated by the special position of the auxiliary verb at the beginning.

The Teochew example illustrates how a particular form may be used for different functions, depending on the context. This means that the form of an utterance by itself (ignoring context) does not determine its function. But it is equally true that function by itself does not fully determine the form. In other words, we cannot fully explain the form of an utterance while ignoring meaning and function; at the same time, we cannot account for the form of an utterance by looking only at its meaning and function [14; 1].

The study of word meaning is called lexical semantics, which deals not just with meaning of individual words, but also with the way in which the meanings of words are related [19; 49].

Words do not have meanings in isolation. In general, the meaning of a word is related to the meaning of other words in ways that may be simple or complex. Ex. ‘young’ is more closely related to ‘old’ than it is to ‘lazy’. Likewise, ‘rose’ is related in one way to ‘flower’, in another way to ‘lilac’. Lexical semantics deals with clarifying these relationships in meaning. One way for words to be related in meaning is synonymy, the case in which they have identical meanings. Are there any words which have exactly the same meaning? Consider ‘pail’ and ‘bucket’. They refer to one thing, but in England, Wales, and in the southern USA ‘bucket’ is normal, and

‘pail’ is rustic, while in Scotland and the northern USA ‘pail’ is normal and ‘bucket’ is rustic. So, when two words can be applied to exactly the same range of objects or events, they often have different associations. Are these associations part of the meanings of words? That depends on what you are trying to do: deciding which object a word refers, or the proper use of a word in context [19; 53].

Another familiar relation in meaning is antonymy, which refers to words that have opposite meanings, like ‘hot’ and ‘cold’, ‘good or ‘bad’. These are gradable antonyms. For some people, the words like ‘clean’ and ‘dirty’ are binary antonyms, which mean that the two words are incompatible. Another type of relation is illustrated by ‘rose’ and ‘flower’. We say that ‘rose’ is hyponym of ‘flower, while ‘flower’ is a superordinate of rose. Is a ‘lower’ a hyponym to ‘plant’?

In English it is a matter of debate whether particular words are hyponyms of a generic term or not. Everyday Dyirbal, an Australian language with a well-developed avoidance style, has no generic term for lizards, but only the names for particular lizards, as *‘banggarra’ – ‘blue-tongue lizard’, ‘biyu’ – ‘frilled lizard’, ‘buynyjuk’ – ‘red bellied lizard’.* The avoidance style has only a single term for all of these, so we may consider, that Dyirbal-speakers regard all these terms as hyponyms of a superordinate. We have been treating grammar and meaning as two entirely distinct aspects of language, and very often they are distinct, they are intimately bound up together [19; 54–58].

The word combines in its semantic structure two types of meaning: lexical and grammatical. Lexical meaning is the individual meaning of the word. Grammatical meaning is the meaning of the whole class or subclass.

Grammatical meanings of notional words are rendered by their grammatical forms. For example the meaning of the plural in English is regularly rendered by the grammatical suffix – (e)s: cats, books, clashes. Grammatical meanings of individual grammatical forms are established as such in paradigmatic correlations: the plural correlates with the singular (cat – cats), the genitive case of the noun correlates with the common case (cat – cat’s), the definite article determination correlates with the indefinite article determination (a cat – the cat) [22].

2. Aspects of linguistic forms

Grammatical form and grammatical meaning of the word are interconnected. As I. Pribytok says, that "there exists neither formless grammatical meaning, nor meaningless grammatical form" [25; 11].

While using a language people recognize certain forms being grammatically correct and the other forms being incorrect. But we can often understand a sentence perfectly well even if it is not grammatically correct.

Examples:

Those guys was trying to kill me.

When he came here?

The form of a sentence may be accepted as correct even when the meaning is obscure or absurd. An example may be found in "***Jabberwocky****"*, anonsense poem written by Lewis Carroll about the killing of a creature named "the Jabberwock". It was included in his 1871 novel 'Through the Looking-Glass, and What Alice Found There' [14; 2].

"Jabberwocky"

"Twas brillig, and the slithy toves
Did gyre and gimble in the wabe;
All mimsy were the borogoves,
And the mome raths outgrabe".
"Beware the Jabberwock, my son!
The jaws that bite, the claws that catch!
Beware the Jubjub bird, and shun
The frumious Bandersnatch!"
He took his vorpal sword in hand:
Long time the manxome foe he sought—
So rested he by the Tumtum tree,
And stood awhile in thought.

The meaning of the poem is quite nonsense. While the grammar forms of function words (conjunctions, prepositions) are real English words, the notional words (nouns, verbs, etc.) don't exist in English and make no sense [14; 2].

There are two basic types of means with the help of which grammatical forms are built: synthetic and analytical. ***Synthetic grammatical forms*** are built by means of the morphemic composition of the word with the help of adding grammatical suffixes to the stems of the words, ***outer inflexion***, e. g. *cat – cats*; ***inner inflexion***, or ***vowel interchange*** inside the root, e. g. *goose – geese*; and ***suppletivity***, when different roots are combined within the same paradigm, e. g. *go – went*. ***Analytical grammatical forms*** are built by the combination of the notional word with auxiliary words, e. g. *come – have come*. Analytical forms consist of two words which together express one grammatical meaning, so they are ***grammatically idiomatic***. The meaning of the grammatical form is not immediately dependent on the meanings of its parts. Some analytical forms are closer to a word; for example the forms of the perfect aspect: *come – have come.* The components of some other analytical forms are more independent semantically, and they are less idiomatic grammatically; for example the degrees of comparison: *beautiful – more beautiful – most beautiful.* Combinations of an auxiliary component and a basic component are treated by some linguists as ***free word-combinations***, but as they express some specific grammatical meaning, they should be recognized as analytical grammatical forms. Some lexical means regularly involved in the expression of common grammatical meanings can also be regarded as marginal cases of suppletivity or specific analytical forms, e. g. the use of quantifiers with uncountable nouns or repetition groups – *a bit of joy, the last two items of news, thousands and thousands*, etc. Analytical grammatical forms are prevalent in English; that's why modern English is an analytical type of language.

Questions

1. What is a word?
2. What criteria determine a word?
3. What is an arbitrary and conventional form of a word?

4. What are the differences between content and function words?

5. What do closed and open classes mean?

6. Is a lemma the same as the meaning of a word?

7. What is the denotation and connotation of a word?

CHAPTER IV. MORPHOLOGY: PARTS OF WORDS

1. Morphology as a part of grammar

Morphology literally means 'the study of forms' was originally used in biology, but since the middle of the 19th century, has also been used to describe the type of investigation that analyzes all those basic 'elements' used in a language. These 'elements' in the form of a linguistic message are known as 'morphemes'.

Word forms may consist of a number of elements, or morphemes, which is 'a minimal unit of meaning or grammatical function' which include forms used to indicate past tense or plural, for example. In the sentence 'The police reopened the investigation' the word 'reopened' consists of three morphemes. One minimal unit is 'open', another – '*-re*' (meaning 'again') and a minimal unit of grammatical function is '*-ed*' (indicating past tense). The word '*tourists'* also contains three morphemes: tour, *-ist* (marking a person who does smth) and *-s* (indicating plural).

Morphology, when translated from Greek, means "study of form". In Language studies it means "forms of words". So, morphology studies the connections between words used together in sentences, but connections between forms actually found in different sentences and extracted from their natural surroundings. Morphology can be defined in two ways: according to the units described in it and according to properties of the units. Morphology deals with such units as words, morphemes, forms of words, grammatical categories of words and categorial forms of words. It studies relations of these units to each other and possibilities of their use in larger units – sentences. All these units are taken both in their paradigmatic and syntagmatic aspects. The results of morphological study are classes, systems, meanings and laws of usage of these

units. Morphology deals with the internal structure of words, peculiarities of their grammatical categories and their semantics while syntax deals with the rules governing combination of words in sentences (and texts in modern linguistics).

Morphology includes several types of units and two types of grammatical meanings, which employ the units as their forms. Besides connection with grammatical meanings the units have syntagmatic and paradigmatic properties. Because the units might be in different relations, and, they might reflect different meanings, they might be of different types.

2. Morphemic structure of a word

The forms of words, their meanings, the categorial forms employed by the categories and the grammatical forms, that are used to express the categorial meanings are also fall into morphological study. ***The word*** is the main unit of morphology. It is the main expressive unit of a human language, which ensures the thought-forming function of the language. It is also the basic nominative unit of language with the help of which the naming function of language is realized. As any linguistic signs, the word is a level unit. In the structure of language, it belongs to the upper stage of the morphological level. It is a unit of the sphere of 'language' and it exists only through its speech actualization. One of the most characteristic features of the word is its indivisibility. As any other linguistic unit the word is a bilateral entity. It unites a concept and a sound image and thus has two sides – the content and expression: concept and sound form.

Forms of words might differ, first of all, in the number of categorial forms they express the difference might be from one to as many categorial forms, as the word may have categories. Word forms are composed of ***morphemes***, which, in their turn, are represented by ***morphs***. There are certain discrepancies between paradigmatic and syntagmatic properties of morphs. Some morphs remain elements of a word form both in the paradigmatic and syntagmatic spheres. Some morphs must be treated as

morphs paradigmatically and at the same time, as a separate unit syntagmatically. This fact may produce different types of word forms.

Morphemes might differ in the number of morphs they use for their representation in speech. We may find morphemes having no morphs whatsoever to represent them as we see in the singular number form "*hand*". Morphs also differ in the ability to represent different morphemes. There are morphs representing only one morpheme as |ing|, but we may find morphs that are representations of several morphemes as |z|, which as used by the morpheme of the third person singular present indicative and plural of nouns and the possessive case of nouns.

3. Word formation

The study of the origin and history of a word is known as its ***etymology***, a term which is derived from Latin, but has its origins in Greek (*etymon* 'original form' and *logia* 'study of'). There are different ways that words can enter the language. Some time ago, a lot of words in daily use today were considered barbaric misuses of the language. We can view the constant evolution of new words and new uses of old words due to the ways of forming [20; 53].

There are some processes of the word formation.

Borrowing is the process of taking new words from a foreign language, for example *alcohol* (*Arabic*), *robot* (*Czech*), *piano* (*Italian*), *yogurt* (*Turkish*).

Compounding is the process of joining tow words to form the new one, for example *bookcase, bookshop, storyteller* and many others.

Blending is forming a new word by taking the beginning of one word and adding the end of another word, for example *smoke + fog + smog.*

Clipping is a process of creating a new word by reducing a long two or more-syllable-word into one-syllable-word, for example *examination – exam, advertisement* – ad and others.

Backformation is the process of transforming one part of speech into another by reducing one syllable, for example *donation – donate* (a noun to a verb).

Conversion is the process of transforming one part of speech into another without reducing a word: spy – a spy (a verb – a noun).

Acronyms are formed from initial letters of words: *compact disk – CD, video cassette recorder – VCR.*

Coinage is the process of forming new words as the names of new products, for example *Xerox, aspirin, nylon, Teflon* and other words.

Derivation is the process of forming new words with the help of various affixes: prefixes, suffixes, infixes. A lot of words are formed by this derivation processes (prefixation, suffixation) have both a prefix and a suffix (foolishness – has two suffixes). Infixes are not normally used in English but found in some other languages. Infix is an affix that is incorporated inside another word [20; 58].

New words based on the name of a person or a place are called ***eponims*** (ex. *hoover, spangler, sandwich* (from the eighteenth-century Earl of Sandwich who first insisted on having his bread and meat together while gambling), *jeans (*from the Italian city of Genoa, where the type of cloth was first made). Some eponyms are technical terms, based on the names of those who first discovered or invented things, such as Fahrenheit (from the German, Gabriel Fahrenheit), volt (from the Italian, Alessandro Volta) and watt (from the Scot, James Watt).

A word also has a phonological and an orthographic form. Words which share the same phonological or orthographic "shape", but are morphologically unrelated are called ***homonyms***, e. g. rose (noun) and rose (past tense verb). Words with the same pronunciation are specified as ***homophones***, and words with the same spelling are determined as ***homographs***. Words which partake the same morphological form are called ***homomorphs***, e. g. meeting (noun) and meeting (verb). There is also a correspondence between words with different morphological form, but same meaning, which are called ***synonyms.*** Homonymy is phonological and/or graphic, and synonymy is semantic [20; 53].

Questions

1. Define the term ‘inflection’.
2. Explain what derivation is.
3. What are the most important functions of word formations?
4. What is affixation?
5. Which kinds of affixes can be found in the English language?
6. What happens in reduplication?

CHAPTER V. MORPHOLOGY: PARTS OF SPEECH

1. Classification of parts of speech

In the traditional grammatical analysis ***parts of speech*** are words classified according to their functions in sentence. Most of the Indo-European and Semitic languages use the identical categories. Some other languages, such as Chinese, have fewer parts of speech.

There are eight parts of speech are usually identified: nouns, adjectives, adverbs, prepositions, conjunctions, pronouns, verbs, and interjections. The terms ‘article’, adjective’ and noun’ come from traditional grammar, which has its origins in the description of language such as Latin and Greek. A different approach might focus on some other properties of the parts of speech in order to carry out structural analysis [20; 74].

Some modern grammars refer to parts of speech as “word-classes” or “form-classes”, which are very important for grammatical description.

Traditional grammatical analysis has given us a number of other categories, including number, person, tense, voice and gender, which can be discussed in isolation, but their role in describing language structure becomes clearer when we consider them in terms of agreement. The agreement is based on the category of number (singular or plural) and on the category of person. English pronouns can be

described in terms of person and number. The form of the verb must be described in terms of such categories as categories of tense and voice. The category of gender describes the agreement between a noun and a possessive adjective in terms of natural gender derived from a biological distinction between male and female [20; 75].

Nouns (from Latin "*nomen"* meaning "*name*") are the words which denote a thing, place, person, quality, or action. In modern English, proper nouns are distinguished from common nouns. Proper nouns are always capitalized and denote the names of individuals and objects. There are also verbal nouns, or gerunds, that combine features of both parts of speech. They are formed commonly with words ending in -ing. Nouns are inflected to indicate number (singular or plural) and case (nominative, genitive, and objective), which indicate the relationship between the noun and other words. In a sentence a noun usually function as the subject or object of an action or as the object of a preposition.

O. Jespersen called nouns as substantives, it seemed more preferable for this, as he defined different meanings for these word, such as living beings and plants (animal, friend, bud), things (picture, mountain, stone), substances (water, linen), happenings, acts, states (gale, death, walk), measures, indications of quantity (hour, inch, handful), qualities (health, poverty). Some words may belong to two of these classes, for example rain can mean a substance or a happening, but it is difficult to say in what class should put such substantives as *space, form* and *cause* [13; 38].

According to Yule, a noun can be defined as a word that comes after an article (a/an or the), and can take inflections of possessive ('s) and plural (-s). And not all nouns (ex. Information, mud) have these characteristics [20; 75].

Adjectives are the words that modify a noun or pronoun in one of three forms of comparative degree: positive, comparative, or superlative. In the English languages, the form of an adjective doesn't change to correspond with the number and gender of the noun or pronoun. There are three degrees of comparison of adjectives: absolute (tall, handsome), comparative (taller, more\less handsome), superlative (the tallest, the most/least handsome).

Adverbs are the words that modify a verb (go slowly), an adjective (very good), or another adverb (very slowly). Adverbs may indicate place or direction (where, whence), time (ever, immediately), degree (very, almost), manner (aukquadly, wisely), and belief or doubt (perhaps, probably). Like adjectives, they may be comparative (wisely, more wisely, most wisely).

Pronouns are the words used instead of a noun and inflected in the same way as nouns. There are some types of pronouns: personal pronouns (I, you, he/she/it, we, you, they); demonstrative pronouns (this, that, these, those); interrogative pronouns (who, which), introducing questions; relative pronouns (who, which), introducing clauses; indefinite pronouns (each, either, some, any, many, few, all).

Verbs are the words that express action. Verbs are conjugated while inflected. Conjugation involves changes of form according to person and number (who and how many subjects perform an action), tense (when the action was performed), voice (indicating an action performed over an object or by a subject), and mood (indicating the mind of the performer).

Verbals are the words, derived from verbs but not functioning as such (gerunds, participles and infinitives).

Prepositions are the words that combine with a noun or pronoun to form a phrase. They change the form of the noun or pronoun to the objective case (as in the phrase “give it to me”), or to the possessive case (as in the phrase “the door of the house”).

Conjunctions are the words that connect sentences, clauses, phrases, or words, and sometimes paragraphs. There are two types of conjunctions: coordinate and subordinate. Coordinate conjunctions (and, but, or, however, nevertheless, neither… nor) join independent clauses, or parts of a sentence; subordinate conjunctions introduce subordinate clauses (where, when, if, unless, since, after, while, whether, because).

Interjections are exclamations such as oh, alas, ugh, or well (often printed with an exclamation point). Used for emphasis or to express an emotional reaction, they do not truly function as grammatical elements of a sentence.

Articles indefinite/definite. The article ***the*** contrasts with the indefinite article ***a/an*** (a house, the house). The article ***the*** contrasts with the zero article, i.e. the absence of an article, or with the indefinite determiner some with plural nouns (the houses, houses, some houses).

2. Classes of words

The word classes that words fall into are called not very felicitously 'the parts of speech' [Jespersen, 2006, p. 38]. Some scholars consider words as falling into two broad categories: ***closed class words*** and ***open class words***. The former consists of words that are relatively stable and unchanging in the language. Closed classes of words are pronoun /she, they/, determiner /the, a/, primary verb /be/, modal verb /can, might/, preposition /in, of/, conjunction /and, or/ and auxiliaries /do, does/. These words play a major part in English grammar, often corresponding to inflections in some other languages, and they are sometimes referred to as '***grammatical words***', '***function words***', or '***structure words***'. They have a grammatical function as structural markers: a determiner defines the beginning of a noun phrase, a preposition – the beginning of a prepositional phrase, a conjunction – the beginning of a clause [13; 41–42; 25; 32–34].

Open classes are: nouns, adjectives, full verbs, and adverbs. To these two categories may be added: numerals /one, first/, and interjections /oh, aha/. As open-class words denote lexical meaning they have been called ***lexical*** or ***content words.*** There are some words which do not fit into any of these classes: the negative particle *not* and the infinite marker *to*.

Quirk and Greenbaum point out the ambiguity of the term word, as they are enrolled in their classes in their 'dictionary form', but not as they appear in sentences or function as constituents of phrases. When words in their grammatical forms appear in sentences the scholars refer to them as ***lexical items***, that are words occurring in a dictionary, so *work, works, working, worked* are counted as different grammatical forms of the word *work.* This distinction is necessary for certain parts of speech that have inflections, they are nouns /book, books/, verbs /give, gives/, pronouns /he, his/,

adjectives /big, biggest/, and a few adverbs /soon, sooner/ and determiners /few, fewer/ [18].

We assign words to their various classes according to their properties in entering phrasal or clausal structure. For example determiners link up with nouns to form noun phrases; pronouns can replace noun phrases. It is impossible to separate grammatical form from semantic factors, for example compare generic /the tiger lives/ and specific /these tigers/.

Another possible assignment is according to morphological characteristics, the occurrence of derivational suffixes, which marks a word as a member of a particular class. For example the suffix ***-ness***, marks an item as a noun /friendliness/, while the suffix ***-less*** marks an item as an adjective /helpless/. These indicators help to identify word classes without semantic factors.

Closed-class items are 'closed' in the sense that they cannot normally be extended by the creation of additional members. It is not possible for a new pronoun to develop. So there is only a short list all the words in a closed class.

Open class items have the same grammatical properties and structural possibilities as other members of the class (for example as other nouns or verbs), the open class is extendible and new words can be created and tend to be rather heterogeneous [18].

It is difficult to classify two additional classes, numerals and interjections, as either closed or open classes. According to some scientists, numerals (the cardinal or the ordinal), must be placed somewhere between open-class and closed-class words. They resemble the open class as they make up infinite membership; but they resemble the closed-class as the semantic relations among them are mutually exclusive and defining. Interjections might be considered a closed class as they are institutionalized in number. But they do not enter into constructions with other word classes, and they are connected to sentences with which they may be orthographically or phonologically associated [18].

A contrast between words is the distinction between stative and dynamic. On the one hand nouns can be characterized naturally as 'stative', as they refer to entities

whether they are concrete /house, table/ or abstract /hope, length/. On the other hand, verbs and adverbs can be characterized as 'dynamic' as verbs indicate action, activity and temporary or changing conditions; and adverbs add a particular condition of time, place, manner to the dynamic implication of the verb.

Verbs which may be used either dynamically or statively, for example if a verb denotes a temporary condition, the verb phrase is dynamic, ex. '*He's leaving now*'. On the other hand, when we say that '*a species of animal lives in China*', the verb is used statively. Some verbs cannot normally be used with the progressive aspect, ex. '*He is knowing English*' and belong to the stative category. In contrast to verbs, most nouns and adjectives are stative as they denote a phenomena or quality that is regarded as stable or permanent, for example '*Jack is an engineer*'. Also adjectives can resemble verbs in referring to transitionary conditions of behavior or activity. /He is being a nuisance – He is being naughty/.

Pronouns serve as replacements for a noun, ex. '*The big room and the small one*', or noun phrases, ex. '*Their new car was damaged when it had an accident*'.

There are the words that can be described as pro-forms for place, time and other adverbials under certain circumstances, ex. '*Jack is in London and Ben is there too*'. In formal English we find such pro-forms for adverbials, that have an important function in modern usage to substitute with the 'pro-verb' do for a main verb and whatever follows it in the clause, ex. '*He wished they would take him seriously, but they didn't do so*'.

Questions

1. What is the definition of a part of speech?
2. What is the classification of parts of speech?
3. What are open class words?
4. What are closed class words?
5. Describe specific features of different parts of speech.
6. What kinds of forms does a word have?

Tasks

1. Define the classes of words and the parts of speech in the given sentence.

1) "Then for an instant, as we whistled by, the red glare from our furnaces would reveal the scow and the form of the gesticulating orator as if under a lightning-flash, and in that instant our firemen and deck-hands would send and receive a tempest of missiles and profanity, one of our wheels would walk off with the crashing fragments of a steering-oar, and down the dead blackness would shut again" [Mark Twain "Life on the Mississippi"]

CHAPTER VI. GRAMMATICAL CATEGORY

1. Lexical and grammatical categories

The grammar of any language is articulated in terms of sizeable number of classes of items and forms: the categories of grammar. Almost all words in any language fall into a number of categories, the lexical categories, also called word classes or parts of speech. The words in each category exhibit similar behavior, while words in different categories behave differently. There are about fifteen lexical categories in English, such as noun, verb, adjective and preposition, identified by Greek grammarians thousands years ago, as well as modern categories like complementizer (for example '*whether*') and determiners (for example '*the*, *this*') [19; 37].

Traditional grammarians define a noun like the name of a person, place or thing, or an adjective, like a word that denotes a quality. According to the definition, the word 'red' which is the name of the colour, must be a noun, but it is considered as an adjective. All definitions have problems, because lexical categories are not really categories based on the meaning, but they are grammatical categories that must be defined in terms of their grammatical properties. So, the noun has certain distributional properties as they occur in certain position in sentences, a noun has certain inflectional properties, as they change their forms within a sentence, a noun

has certain derivational properties, as they can take certain prefixes and suffixes to derive other words. A few English words don't belong to any of the category, for example *please, not,* hence these words cannot be attributed to any lexical category [19; 38–39].

The view of grammar as a set of rules for the proper use of a language can be found and may be characterized as the prescriptive approach. But the categories and rules that were appropriate for Latin grammar did not seem to fit the native languages of North America. As a consequence, a rather different approach was adopted. Analysts collected samples of the languages they were interested in and attempted to describe the regular structures of the language as it was used. This is called the descriptive grammar [20; 76].

There are several categories for nouns, verbs, adjectives and adverbs. They are the category of number, gender, person, case, tense, aspect, voice, mood.

2. The category of number

The category of number is not a lexical one, as it cuts across certain lexical categories and affects their forms in the sentences. Most often it affects nouns, which have two forms: a singular and a plural, though some have only one. The word 'scissors' or 'pants' denote a single object, but the words are plural.

In English, most nouns have two forms, a singular and a plural and they exhibit the only inflectional variation that occur between singular and plural (dog/dogs, box/boxes, person/people, man/men). But not all English nouns show this distinction. For example *wheat, furniture, spaghetti* have only a singular form, while *oats, police, pants* have only a plural [19; 38]. The word scissors or pants denote a single object but these words are plural and have no singular form. Example *This scissors is very sharp.* It is an ***idiosyncrasy*** of the grammar of English. When we use the word 'furniture' we mean several objects, but the word is strictly singular.

Languages are free to make any grammatical distinction of number, including none at all. Many languages lack the category of number, at least in nouns. For

example Chinese and Japanese do not distinguish singular and plural forms of nouns, and Arabic has a three-way number distinction in nouns: ‘malikun’ – ‘king’, ‘malikani – ‘two kings’, malikuna’ – ‘three or more kings’. The second form is called the dual. The Pacific language Larike has a trial in pronouns: ‘mane’ – ‘he’ or ‘she’, matua’ – ‘they two’, ‘matidu’ – ‘they three’, ‘mati’ – ‘they four or more’. The East African language Tigre has a three-way distinction for nouns, a paucal or ‘little plural’: ‘a horse’, ‘a few horses’, ‘horses’ [19; 40–41].

3. The category of gender

Categories of number and gender represent cases, in which certain aspects of meaning are built into the grammar of language [19; 58].

R. L. Trask calls the category of gender strange and most misunderstood. French, for example has two gender classes, masculine and feminine, and the words in these classes differ grammatically in different ways: masculine with the article le (‘le chien’ – ‘a dog’, ‘le bifteck’ – ‘a steak’), and feminine – with the article la (‘la maison’ – ‘a house, ‘la voiture’ – ‘a car’).

The majority of French words do not denote either males or females, and they are simply assigned to one gender or the other. There is no connection between gender and sex as sex is a matter of biology, while gender is a matter of grammar, so the gender of most nouns has nothing at all to do with sex.

In many languages, gender shows no connection with sex. In the African language Swahili, there are eight gender classes (the first class denoting human beings of either sex and animals, the second class contain words for large things, the third – for small things and so on). The North American language Navaho has ten genders, where sex plays no part: one gender is for human beings, another – for liquids, a third – for round things (stones, balls) a forth for long things (like pencils, ski poles, a fifth for long floppy things (like ropes and belts) and so on.

The Australian language Dyirbal has four gender classes: 1) men, kangaroos, possums, bats most snakes and fish, birds, insects, moon, rainbow, boomerangs and

others; 2) women, bandicoots, dogs, dangerous snakes and fish, most birds, scorpions and others; 3) all tree and plants with edible parts; 4) parts of the body, meat, bees and honey, wind, mud, stones and so on.

English has no grammatical gender. There are some words denoting males 'bull', 'duke', and that denote females 'cow', 'duchess'. Among pronouns there is 'he' (for males), 'she' (for females), 'it' (non-human and infants). Like all languages, English has devices for indicating sex, but English has no gender [19; 42–46].

According to Deborah Cameron, the term 'gender' refers to a social condition of being a man or a woman, and it also determines grammatical category of gender. In some languages, there is the category of gender for nouns, pronouns and adjectives. It is necessary to distinguish the gender from sex, which is used to define biological characteristics of male and female. While gender refers to the social and cultural traits and behaviour that is appropriate for men and women in the particular society. Gender can take varying forms in different societies and historical periods. But many contemporary language and gender scholars have questioned the assumption that gender manifests itself linguistically through clear-cut binary differences – 'men do this, women do that' [6; 724–725].

The type of biological distinction used in English is quite different from the more common distinction found in languages that use grammatical gender. Whereas natural gender is based on sex (male and female), grammatical gender is based on the type of noun (masculine and feminine) and is not tied to sex. In this latter sense, nouns are classified according to their gender class and articles and adjectives have different forms to 'agree with' the gender of the noun. For example Spanish has two grammatical genders, masculine and feminine (el sol 'the sun' and la luna 'the moon'. German has three genders masculine der Mond 'the moon', feminine die Sonne 'the sun' and neuter das Feuer 'the fire'. The different forms of the articles in Spanish (el, la) and German (der, die, das) correspond to differences in the gender class of the noun. This gender distinction is not based on a distinction in sex. A girl is biologically 'female', but German noun is grammatically neuter. Or, for example 'book' is not considered by French or English to be biologically male. So, the

grammatical category of gender may not be appropriate for describing forms in other languages such as English [20; 76].

4. The category of person

In terms of theoretical grammar we should speak of the three persons, distinguishing between: the speaker: the first person, the person (or persons) spoken to: the second person, and what is neither speaker nor spoken to: the third person. This distinction applies to the "personal pronouns": first person (I, we); second person (you); to the third person (he, she, it, they). The plural we means I (the speaker) + someone else or some others.

The phrases like *some of us, most of us, most of you* are considered to be in the third person. Example '*Most of us lost their heads*' [13; 109].

But it is possible to say '*Most of us lost our heads*', if the speaker includes himself, In indirect speech persons are naturally shifted according to circumstances: "*I hate you*" becomes "*He said that he hated me*", or "her," or "*You said that you hated me*" [13; 109].

Any imperative is in the second person, even if addressed to a "third person", as in the example "*Oh, please, someone go in and tell her*".

And bring out my hat, somebody, will you (Dickens).

Someone, one, and somebody mean "*one of you present*".

In many languages the distinction between the three persons is found not only in the pronouns, but also in the verbs, as it was the case in Old English, but it does not exist in Modern English. The only survivals of personal distinctions in verbs are the following:

– In the present tense the third person singular of most verbs ends in -s.

– From the verb be we have in the present the forms I am, you are, he is (plural are in all persons).

– The present subjunctive is always like the base and thus does not add -s in the third person.

– The auxiliaries to express futurity and conditioned unreality generally vary according to the person: I shall go, I should go, but you (he) will go, would go…

There are some difficulties in distinguishing the form of the verb in person in the examples like the following:

Neither my brother nor I am (is, are) rich [13; 111].

A few quotations will show how various writers have cut this Gordian knot:

Nor God, nor I, delights in perjur'd men (Shakespare).

Neither she nor I were wet (Charlotte Brontë).

Neither you nor I is the ideal man (Walpole).

After *myself, yourself* it is generally made to agree with the person meant: *myself am, yourself are.*

According to O. Jespersen, we may use the term "generic person" for what vaguely comprises all persons (French on, Scandinavian and German man). In English *one* is used in this sense, often as a kind of disguised I:

One would think she was mad.

One might have expected a politer answer from him.

Instead of the formal one the personal pronouns, we and you, are often used in familiar speech with the same meaning of generic person with an emotional colouring.

Examples: *We live to learn. You never can tell* [13; 112].

5. The category of case

As it is considered by different linguists, ***case*** is a grammatical category in which distinctions in the forms of words indicate grammatical relationships between words. In English, nouns and certain pronouns are distinguished according to case. Nouns have the form of the genitive (or possessive) case (a girl's dall, children's room) with the inflection '***s***, and the common case with no inflection (a girl, children). Nouns in the nominative case define a subject, in the genitive case they define possessiveness, and in the objective case they indicate the relationship

between the noun and other words. As O. Jespersen says, in substantives there are two cases: a common case, referring to nominative and objective in pronouns and genitive case.

Personal pronouns are distinguished between subjective case (I, we, you, he, she, it, they), objective case (me, us, you, him, her it, them), and genitive case (my, our, your, his, her, its, their). The genitives of personal pronouns are designated as possessive pronouns.

O. Jespersen defines two cases in English pronouns: nominative (I, we, he, she, they, who); and objective (me, us, him, her, them, whom). The nominative acts as the subject and the objective acts as the object. The last is also used as indirect object and as object after prepositions [13; 96]. For example:

He (***she***, ***they***…) *gave* ***me*** (***him***, ***her***…) *a pen.*

He *spoke to* ***me*** (***him***, ***her***…).

It is sometimes difficult to define which case to choose. In some cases the same forms of the subject and object are used, as in the example

You *seem to have suffered more than* ***I***.

I *like* ***her*** *no better than* ***him***.

I *never saw stronger than* ***he*** *(is).*

I *never saw stronger than* ***him***.

Than can be treated as a conjunction and a preposition, when it is followed by a subjective.

He is wiser than us all. (Kipling).

As also can be treated like a conjunction and a preposition. Compare the examples

I like him as well as he me.

You are not as good as me (Fielding).

After ***such as*** the nominative is used. Example '*Happiness is not for such as I*'. The three synonyms ***but***, ***except***, ***save*** are prepositions and require the object. Example '*Nobody else went* ***but*** (***except***, ***save***) *me*' [13; 97–98].

6. The categories of tense and aspect

The temporal meaning of verb phrases is realized through the grammatical category of tense. ***The grammatical category*** of tense concerns the localization of a situation in time (the past, the present or the future) of the situation in a clause. A. Baker and K. Hengeveld distinguish between absolute tense and relative tense. ***The absolute tense*** is when the temporal expressions are interpreted in relation to the speech moment. For example

Ben is cleaning his room.

Ben cleared his room.

Ben will clear his room.

In ***relative tense*** the expression is interpreted relatively to a moment in time that has been introduced earlier [2; 214]. For example:

Ben went to ben after having cleared his room.

Ben will go to ben after having cleared the table.

The category of tense is the grammaticalization of time, but is it important to realize that tense and time are two quite different things. Time is an aspect of physics and psychology. We chop up the time into the chunks like past, present and future. But we can distinguish the recent past from the remote past, or the near future from the distant future. It is possible for a language to build some of these time distinctions into its grammar. For this purpose the language hase the category of tense in its grammar. Like other languages, English does this by marking tense distinctions on verbs: ‘love’ – ‘loved’, ‘go’ – ‘went’. But, not all languages do this: some languages do not have tense. For example in Chinese there is nothing comparable to verb distinction, like go/went. A Chinese speaker must always express distinctions of time by adding suitable time words (lexically) to the sentence: “I go now, I go yesterday. I go tomorrow, I go in ten minutes”.

Lots of languages do have tense, Turkish has three tenses: past “I went”, present “I’m going’ and future “I’ll go”. Many languages have only two tenses, but tense systems can be considerably more elaborate. The West African language Bamileke-Dschang has about eleven tenses that express five different degrees of

remotedness in the past and five degrees of remotedness in the future, and a present tense. Speakers must use the tense form that represents the appropriate point in time [19; 58–59].

Tense is not always marked on verbs. The California language Hupa has tense-marking on nouns. For example the word ‘house’ has three tenses: a present tense ‘xonta’ – ‘house which now exists’, a past tense ‘xontaneen’ – ‘ house which is now in ruins’, and future – ‘xontate’ – ‘house which is not buil yet’. In English we have ‘ex-wife’ meaning the past tense of ‘wife’, while ‘fiancee’ is its future tense [19; 59].

Tense as the grammatical category is usually distinguished from ***the category of aspect***, “which concerns the temporal perspective from which a situation is being presented” [2; 214]. “The aspect category does not link a situation to the timeline, but specifies the temporal perspective from which the speaker is presenting the situation” [2; 210].

There is also the distinction between perfective and imperfective aspect. “In a clause with perfective aspect the situation is presented as a finished and completed whole; in a clause with imperfective aspect the situation is presented as being in progress” [2; 210]. The perfective verb form describes a finished or completed situation; the imperfective form describes a situation as it is going on (non-complete). For example

Ted was reading when I came in.

A. Baker differentiates between various types of situations: ***dynamic***, the situation in which something changes, and ***static***, this is not the case; and between situations which are ***controlled*** and ***non-controlled*** [2; 214].

Compare two examples

1. *Kate grew healthy*.

2. *Kate was healthy*.

In the first example something changes, and in the second example nothing changes. Static and dynamic situations can be determined by adding an adverbial expression such as *slowly*, *quickly* etc. In dynamic situations such words are acceptable. For example:

3. *Kate went slowly along the street*.

But such an expression is not possible in a static situation, for example

4. *Kate was sitting slowly at the table*.

The difference between controlled and non-controlled situations is that the first one can be the subject of an order, and in the second one something is not under the addressee's control [2; 212]. Let's study the examples:

5. *Sit down on the sofa!*

6. *Clean your room quickly!*

7. *Be healthy!*

The examples 5, 6 show the controlled situation and the seventh one non-controlled. The example 6 demonstrates a dynamic controlled situation. The following example is dynamic but non-controlled.

8. *Dan turned very pale* [2; 212].

7. The category of mood

In the English grammar, there are three moods: the indicative, which expresses actuality; the subjunctive, which expresses contingency; and the imperative (the Infinitive and the Participle), which expresses command (I walk; I might walk; Walk!). The imperative like the Infinitive has the same form as the base of the verb. The same is true for the present subjunctive and the present indicative except for the third person singular. Therefore, there are can be various functions of the same forms. The indicative is used in all statements and questions. The subjunctive is used in the main sentences [13; 236].

Bybee defines ***mood*** as an indication of "what the speaker wants to do with the proposition" in a particular discourse context. In other words, mood is a grammatical reflection of the speaker's purpose in speaking. Linguists refer to the declarative, imperative, and interrogative moods as major mood categories. Each of these categories corresponds to one of three basic speech acts: statements, commands, and questions, respectively [14; 165].

The term '***modality***' has some semantic notions such as ability, possibility, hypotheticality, obligation, and imperative meaning. If we want to provide a more theoretically useful definition, we need to find what it is that all modal utterances have in common. The imperative mood has the function of conveying a command, while the verb can has meaning of 'ability,' or the verb might expresses a type of possibility, as in 'You might be right about that?'

What does the hypothetical meaning of a sentence like 'If the dog lost a bit of weight it could use the cat-flap' have in common with the obligation meaning of 'You have to pay to get in?' [8; 269].

One feature that is common to all modal utterances is that they do not represent situations as straightforward facts. However, linguists feel that modality is something semantically far richer than 'lack of factuality.' The scholars say that modal meaning involves the notions of necessity and possibility, or involves a speaker's judgment that a proposition is possibly or necessarily true or that the actualization of a situation is necessary or possible. According to I. Depraetere and S. Reed, all modal utterances are non-factual, in that they do not assert that the situations they describe are facts, and all involve the speaker's comment on the necessity or possibility of the truth of a proposition or the actualization of a situation [8; 269].

Some linguists do not distinguish between mood and modality (or mode), using one label or the other as a cover term for all the categories. According to P. R. Kroeger thinks, ***mood*** (as we have just said) is an expression of what the speaker is trying to do, so certain moods are closely associated with particular speech acts. Modality expresses the speaker's attitude toward the proposition being expressed (e.g. his degree of certainty about whether it is true or not); or the actor's relationship to the described situation (e. g. whether he is under some kind of obligation to act in a certain way).

Subjunctive is a category used to mark propositions which the speaker does not assert to be true. English still retains a few traces of subjunctive inflected forms, mostly in archaic or frozen expressions.

Examples:

a) *If I were you, I wouldn't do that.*

b) *God bless you!*

c) *Long live the king!*

The most common context where subjunctives may be required is in conditional or contrafactual constructions, e. g. '*If you had been on time, we could have caught that bus*'. The subjunctive may also have optative and/or hortative uses in main clauses, and it may be required in certain kinds of dependent clauses [14; 165–167].

– *Hortative*: 'Let us kill those robbers!'

– *Optative*: 'May the gods confound you!'

– *Conditional*: 'If some god were to grant me this, I would stoutly refuse it'.

– *Contrafactual*: 'If he were living, you would hear his words'.

The subjunctive, optative, and hortative moods are similar in certain important ways. All of them indicate that the speaker is not asserting the truth of the proposition expressed by the clause, and that the situation described by the clause is not an actual one. For this reason, the three are sometimes referred to as the "irrealis" moods.

We have seen that there is often an association between irrealis mood and future tense, in tense systems that distinguish future vs. non-future, because future tense expresses situations which are not yet actual. These categories may also span the boundary between mood and modality. The optative and hortative moods can be associated with specific speech acts (wishing and exhorting) or intentions, and so fit into our basic definition of mood [14; 165–167].

Questions

1. What grammatical categories exist?
2. What parts of speech have the category of number?
3. What parts of speech express a person?
4. What is the difference between grammatical gender and natural gender?
5. What is aspect? Is it used in the grammatical description of English?
6. What is the category of case?

7. What does the category of tense define?

8. What is modality? What parts of speech is it realized by?

Tasks

1. Define the categories of words in the given sentences.

1)"Now that he had been recognized as a friend, they relaxed back onto blankets scattered on the floor around the blazing fire. They were smoking, drinking, talking desultorily. One couple were kissing. In a far corner of the room a pipe was being passed round a small group. Johannes greeted a few of those he knew by name, then sat down by Mario's side near the fire. He took a slug from the proffered bottle of wine. Then after a moment, he asked, 'Is Janine not here?"' [Lisa Appignanesi "Dreams of innocence"].

2)" A dozen or so children live here. Some of us, like Maureen, are filled by sadness, or eaten up with bitterness. Some of us have broken hearts and troubled souls. But most of us love each other and look out for each other. We always knew that if we cared for each other, we could put up with the psychiatrists who came, the psychologists, the social workers, the caregivers, the play therapists, the drug counselors, the health workers, the welfare workers. We knew we could put up with Maureen and her assistants. We could put up with her questions and her coldness and her circle times. We knew that we could find a tiny corner of the Paradise that we'd all lost" [David Almond "Heaven Eyes"].

CHAPTER VIII. SYNTAX: WORD GROUPS AND PHRASES

1. General characteristics of syntax

As the parts of grammar, syntax studies the rules of using words in speech, investigating the act of producing speech utterances. The word 'syntax' comes originally from Greek and literally means 'a putting together' or 'arrangement' [20; 86].

There are three basic approaches to the problem of defining the subject of syntax: a) a word-centric approach to syntax; b) a sentence-centric approach; c) a comprehensive approach to the subject of syntax. According to a word-centric approach, a word is recognized as the main language unit and word-groups and sentences, as the syntactical units, are regarded as syntagmatics of words. Within this approach it is impossible to analyze the sentence as a communicative unit as well as the word-group.

A sentence-centric approach is based on the idea that the main language unit is the sentence, but word-groups and words are analyzed as parts of the sentence and their essential properties are not studied. A comprehensive approach to the subject of syntax states that the syntax is the study of all syntactic level units in the system of their paradigmatic and syntagmatic properties.

In the theoretical grammar it was considered that there are three types of syntax: a minor syntax as the theory of the word-group, a major syntax as the theory of the sentence, and a higher/super-syntax as the theory of the text. The minor syntax is formed by word-groups, and the major syntax is formed up by the sentence. The combination of semantically connected sentences forms a language unit, which serves the purpose of communication. This highest communicative

unit is called the text, within which a sentence functions as a minimal communicative unit [4; 55–56].

2. Types of syntactic units

Syntactic unit is a combination that has at least two constituents. The basic syntactic units are a word-group, a clause, a sentence, and a text. They are hierarchical units, it means that the units of a lower level serve the building material for the units of a higher level. As all language units the syntactic units are of communicative nature, like sentences and texts, and non-communicative nature, like word-groups and clauses [23].

According to Anne Baker and Kees Hengeveld, ***sentence units*** are called constituents, that are the meaningful parts that make up ***a sentence***.

Let's split the following sentence into three coherent and meaningful parts.

The student / *bought a computer* / *yesterday afternoon.*

The sentence is not just a random of collection of individual words. Within a sentence words are organized into groups that belong together semantically and behave as coherent units. A. Bake and K. Hengeveld call these groups ***constituents*** [2;124]. If a language allows movement, then a constituent can occur at a different positions in the sentence or can be placed as one single unit (ex. *yesterday afternoon*), but not all constituents (ex. *the student, bought a computer*).

The real building blocks of sentences are not words, but constituents that consist of one or several words [2; 125–126].

Sentences are built up out of constituents. There are two types of constituents: a phrase and a clause. A. Baker calls clauses the two 'subsentences' that make up a sentence. *Ex: He knows* / *that the earth is round*. In this sentence, there are two clauses [2; 126].

3. Types of syntactic relations

Syntactic relations are syntagmatic relations observed between syntactic units. They can be of three types – coordination, subordination and predication.

The syntactic units can go into three types of syntactic relations.

Coordination – syntagmatic relations of independence. They can be observed on the phrase, sentence and text levels. Coordination may be symmetric and asymmetric. Symmetric coordination is characterized by complete interchangeability of its elements – *pens and pencils*. Coordination links elements of the same rank. Asymmetric coordination occurs when the position of elements is fixed: *ladies and gentlemen*. Forms of connection within SR1 may be copulative (*you <u>and</u> me*), disjunctive (*you <u>or</u> me*), adversative (*strict but just*) and causative-consecutive (sentence and text level only). According to V. N. Beloshapkova, coordination can be 'open' and 'closed'. 'Open' coordination can unite two and even more elements, as in

the example '*blue, green, red and yellow flowers*'. "Closed' coordination unites only two elements, like in the example '*It's difficult, but useful*' [25; 192].

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

***Predication* (*SR3*)** – syntagmatic relations of interdependence. Predication may be of two kinds – primary (sentence level) and secondary (phrase level). Primary predication is observed between the subject and the predicate of the sentence while secondary predication occurs between non-finite forms of the verb and nominal elements within the sentence. Secondary predication serves the basis for gerundial, infinitive and participial word-groups (predicative complexes) [23].

According to L. S. Barkhudarov, predication is realized by correspondence [25; 192].

Some scientists define other types of syntactical bonds: apposition, isolation, accumulation, parenthesis.

Apposition has the components logically equal in rank as they have the same referent. Example '*Uncle Ben was very rich*'.

Isolation is defined by G. N. Vorontsova as a free secondary predication with:

a) loose attributes, example

'It is a fine summer morning – sunny, soft and still' (J. Jerome);

b) loose appositive, example

'Last night, everything was closed' (R. lardner).

Accumulation is defined by a group of St. Petersburg linguists as the connection of elements the third of which seems not suit the two others, as in the

example '*(to write) the friend a letter*'. There is no syntactic bond between '*the friend*' and '*a letter*' without the third element '*to write*'.

Parenthesis is defined as the kind of syntactic bond with the elements that have no connections with the other elements of the sentence, like:

a) modal elements (perhaps);

b) connective elements ('*on the first place*'…);

c) insertions giving additional information [25; 200–202].

4. A phrase

A phrase is characterized by a word as a central element. A clause, weather main or embedded, normally consists of a number of phrases [2; 127]. Depending on their referential, predicative, attributive or relational function we can we can distinguish between noun phrases, verb phrases, adjective phrases, adverbial phrases and adpositional phrases. A noun phrase has a referential function, and a verb phrase possess a predicative function. Phrases with an attributive function do not only occur within clauses but also within other phrases. When a phrase is used to specify a property of a noun it is called an adjective phrase, and when a phrase is used to specify properties of other words, it is known as an adverbial phrase. Attributive function do not only occur within clauses but also within other phrases.

Ex. *The* very beautiful *woman* / *laughed* / *extremely* / *loudly*.

In this sentence /the woman/ – a noun phrase; /laughed extremely loudly/ – the verb phrase; /extremely loudly/ – the adverbial phrase is the attributive phrase within the verb phrase. Compare a phrase /very beautiful/, which is inside the noun phrase. This phrase is an adjective phrase [2; 127–140].

A relational functional specifies a location between two constituents. It can be illustrated by the example *I met him / in the garden.*

A phrase */in the garden/* with a relational functional is called an adpositional phrase. Adpositional phrases may be subdivided into prepositional and postpositional phrases depending

Within each type of phrase, we can further distinguish between obligatory heads, or the obligatory nucleus, and optional modifiers. The modifiers cannot occur on their own in the phrases. Let's study the examples

She ate /a nice sandwich/. – The noun phrase.

He /laughed excessively/. – The verb phrase.

The /extremely nosy/ man laughed. – The adjective phrase.

He ate /rather grossly/. – The adverbial phrase.

It lives /ten feet below/sea level/. – Adpositional phrase.

Words that can serve as heads of phrases are content words, which can be subdivided into word classes (noun, adjective, adverb and adposition), depending on the type of phrase of which they can be the head. There are also function words that have a structuring function in the clause [2; 127–140].

A. Baker divides words into content and function words. The heads of different types of phrases (NPh, VPh, ADjPH, AdvPh, and AdpPh) belong to different word classes that is why the head of an Nph is a noun, and the others are a verb, an adjective, an adverb, and adposition. (a preposition or postposition). These word categories serve as the heads of their representative phrases /The new student (NP)/ answered the questions intelligently (VP) /in class (AdP)/.

It is impossible for these five word categories to serve as the head of a different type of constituent. Ex. adjectives can modify nouns but cannot modify verbs, and adverbs can modify nouns but cannot modify nouns.

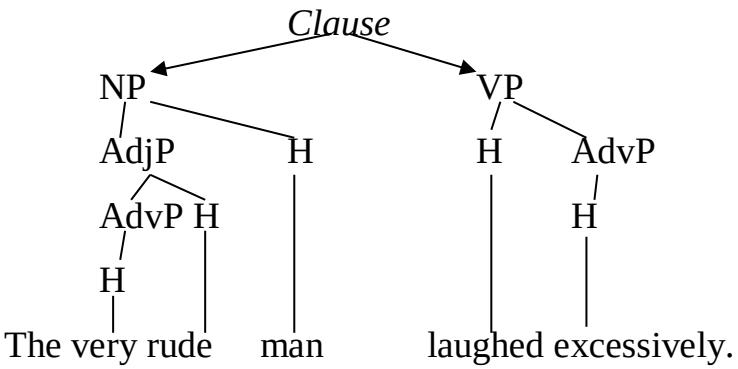
Function words have grammatical meaning and structure the clause. Some function words were originally content words and behave in the same way as content words as regards their form.

Ex. *Carl **has** stolen a car. Carl **has** a car.*

In the first example has does not have a concrete meaning and serves as a grammatical function word, an auxiliary word. In the second example has is a content with a concrete meaning [2; 133–138]. The number of content words in a language can easily be expanded, they belong to the open word classes. Function words belong to the closed word classes [2; 238].

An alternative way of representing the hierarchical structures is the tree diagram.

Constituents and word classes



The type of constituent is marked by subscripted abbreviation, heads are marked with H [2; 132–133].

Another method is the method of brackets. The brackets are used to mark the boundaries of the constituents.

[[(the) [very] rude] man] [laughed [excessively]]].

For the clause as a whole, the number of left brackets should always equal the number of right brackets [2; 133].

The definition of the phrase is rather a controversial issue. In Russian linguistics, the narrow approach, which was put forward by V. V. Vinogradov, traditionally prevails: only a combination of two notional words, one of which dominates the other, is considered a word-combination. A much broader approach was proposed by Leonard Bloomfield, and it is shared by many modern linguists. One of the leading specialists in this field, V. V. Burlakova, defines a word-combination as any syntactically organized group of syntagmatically connected words; this includes combinations of functional and notional words, and predicative and coordinative combinations of words. ***The phrase*** is a unit formed by a combination of two or more notional words.

The phrase is a group unit formed by any combination of two or more words in which neither of the elements can be transformed or substituted in its position by a word of another class or subclass (Ilyish, Burlakova). The second definition is much

wider, because it includes not only phrases consisting of notional words, but also prepositional phrases, predicative phrases with finite verbs.

5. Types of phrases

L. Helmslev suggests the term "interdependence" to denote the connections between the constituents of bilateral dominational phrases. Thus, there are four basic types of syntagmatic connections of words distinguished in their syntactic groupings: coordination (consecutive equipotent connection), subordination (consecutive dominational connection), predication, or interdependence (bilateral dominational connection) and cumulation (inner cumulation).

I. According to the type of syntactic bond existing between immediate constituents, the main types are:

1) subordinate, ex. *fond of reading; writing a letter*;

2) coordinate, ex. *sooner or later; brother and sisters*;

3) predicative, ex. *for you to go; for time permitting.*

Subordinate phrases usually consist of the head, which is an independent element, and an adjunct. Subordinate phrases are subdivided into several groups into:

1) noun phrases, ex. *a sleepless night*;

2) verb phrases, ex. *worked hard*;

3) adjective phrases, ex. *rich in oil*;

4) pronominal phrases, ex. *some more weak students*;

5) adverbial phrases, ex. *very well*;

6) participial & gerundial phrases, ex. *wasting the time*.

II. According to their structure phrases are divided into:

1) simple or unextended, which usually consist of two notional words:

Ex. *cold water, quite near*;

2) complex or extended, consisting of more than 2 notional words:

Ex. *He ran hastily downstairs – parental extension.*

Very cold water – continuing extension [23].

III. According to the place of the elements phrases can be continuous and discontinuous.

Ex. *very warm wind – continuous.*

“I’m ready”, said the boy cheerfully – discontinuous.

Subordinate verb phrases occupy some specific place in the syntactic structure in modern English due to wide valency of the verb. There are th4ree subclasses of the verb phrases.

1. The head of which can be expressed by transitive words. Adjuncts in such phrases are called objective compliments.

E. g. *To read a good book was pleasure*.

2. The head of which can be expressed only by intransitive verbs. Adjuncts in such phrases are called qualifying compliments.

E. g. *She remained silent*.

3. The head of which can be expressed by transitive (переходный0 and intransitive words. Adjuncts in such phrases are called extensions.

E. g. *She regarded him fixedly*.

The main feature is the same syntactic function of their immediate constituents. It may be tested by the ability of any constituent to substitute the whole phrase.

E. g. *They drove slowly in silence*.

The means of expressing of syntactic bonds of coordinate phrase are 3 in number:

1) coordinate conjunctions;

2) word order;

3) intonation [23].

Accordingly coordinate phrases are subdivided into the following subclasses:

1. Syndetic phrases, which fall into 2 subclasses:

1) Simple phrases with continuous conjunctions (and, but, or, as well as, along with). E. g. She refused everything but a piece of bread;

2) Correlative phrases with discontinuous conjunctions (both and, either or, neither nor, not only but).

2. Asyndetic coordinate phrases fall into 2 subclasses:

1) Copulative – when conjunctions can be inserted between the immediate constituents. E. g. He was hot (and) hungry (and) tired;

2) Appositive phrases. Immediate constituents of appositive phrases refer to the same person or object, that's why they do not allow insertion of any construction. E. g. king Lear, grammarian Blumkins.

Predicative phrases consist of 2 parts: subjectival and predicatival.

E. g. subjectival predicatival

She didn't expect me to come up to her.

The relations between subjectival and predicatival are similar to those of the subject and the predicate, but predicatival can never be expressed by a finite verb. That's why predicative phrases can't function as independent units. The person or thing expressed by the subject of the sentence and the subjectival are different.

All predicative phrases are subdivided into bound and absolute. Bound predicative phrases are grammatically connected with the verb predicate of the sentence. These phrases are not isolated. They function as extended adjuncts [23].

They may be expressed by the following constructions:

1. Objective with the infinitive.

E. g. Nobody saw him leave the room.

2. Objective participial construction.

E. g. Nobody saw him leaving the house.

3. Subjective infinitive construction.

E. g. He is known to have been a talented writer.

4. Subjective participial construction.

E. g. They were heard quarrelling.

5. For to infinitive construction.

E. g. For me to go back would be to admit I was afraid.

6. Gerundial and half-gerundial construction.

E. g. Barbara('s) coming tonight meant a lot.

Independent absolute predicative phrase may be expressed by nominative absolute construction:

E. g. She began to go downstairs, the boy following her.

And prepositional absolute constructions:

E. g. He stood there, with his mouth open [23].

Questions

1. What types of phrases exist?
2. What is the difference between adjectival and adverbial phrases?
3. Which word is the head and which is the modifier in the following phrase: ‘a beautiful flower’?
4. What is a noun phrase?
5. Which types of phrases can be replaced by pronouns?
6. What is the difference between content words and function words?
7. Name two types of appositions.

Tasks

1. Divide the following sentences into their main constituents and define NP, VP, AdjP, AdvP, AdpP.

Annual art exhibition is hosted in our town.

He will probably take part in the following sports competition in a month.

2. Find out the word combinations in the given sentences and define the types of phrases. Define the types of syntactic relations in the word combinations in bold.

1) “The green garden path, the tufts of flowers, purple and white columbines, and great oriental red poppies with ***their black chaps*** *and mulleins tall and yellow, this flamy garden which had been a garden for a thousand years, scooped out in the little hollow among* ***the snake-infested commons****” [David Herbert Lawrence “England, my England”].*

2)"From the dim woods on either bank, Night's ghostly army, the grey shadows, creep out with noiseless tread ***to chase away the lingering rear-guard of the light****, and pass, with noiseless, unseen feet, above the waving river-grass, and through the sighing rushes; and Night, upon her sombre throne,* ***folds her black wings*** *above the darkening world, and, from her phan-tom palace, lit by the pale stars,* ***reigns in stillness****" [Jerome K.Jerome "Three men in a boat(to say nothing of the dog"].*

*3) "****It was pleasant to drive*** *back to the hotel in the late afternoon, above a sea as mysteriously colored as the agates and cornelians of childhood, green as green milk, blue as laundry water, wine dark"[F. Scott Fitzgerald "Tender is the night"].*

4) "Indeed, certain of the most authentic historians of those parts, who ***have been careful*** *in collecting and collating the floating facts concerning this spectre, allege that* ***the body of the trooper*** *having been buried in the churchyard, the ghost rides forth to the scene of battle in nightly quest of his head; and that the rushing speed with which he sometimes* ***passes along the Hollow****, like a midnight blast, is owing to his being belated, and in a hurry to get back to the churchyard before daybreak"[Washington Irving "The Legend of Sleepy Hollow"].*

CHAPTER VIII. SYNTAX: TYPES OF SENTENCES

1. A sentence

The ***sentence*** has always been considered the main and the highest unit of speech, which is capable of expressing a communication, a more or less complete idea or thought, that is why the sentence is connected with many lingual and extra lingual aspects – logical, psychological and philosophical. According to academician G. Pocheptsov, the sentence is the central syntactic construction used as the minimal communicative unit which is characterized by predication, actualizes a definite structural scheme and possesses definite intonation characteristics. The predication

refers the utterance to reality and is expressed through the finite verb categories of tense and mood: the temporal and the modal characteristics of the sentence.

The distinction between the sentence and the utterance is that the sentence is an abstract theoretical entity defined within the theory of grammar, while the utterance is the actual use of the sentence in speech. Therefore, the sentence is a unit of language while the utterance is a unit of speech.

According to Kaushanskaya, ***a sentence*** is a unit of speech with the definite grammatical structure that conforms to the laws of language and serves as the means of expressing the thought. A sentence is also a means of showing the speaker's attitude to the reality. The sentence performs two important functions: nominative (substance-naming) and predicative (reality evaluating).

According to M. Blokh, "sentence is a construction which in a given utterance is not a part of any larger construction". Barkhudarov gives another definition: "Sentence is a linguistic construction with a subjective predicative structure". According to Pocheptsov: "Sentence is a minimal syntactic structure used in speech acts and which has characterizing features, the main of which are predication and structure scheme or model" [23].

The most essential features of the sentence as a linguistic unit are a) its **structural** characteristics – subject-predicate relations (primary predication), and b) its **semantic** characteristics – it refers to some fact in the objective reality. It is represented in the language through a conceptual reality.

According to Roy Harris and Talbot J. Taylor, "a judgement, that we make about things, when we say *'The earth is round'*, is called a ***proposition.*** Every proposition embodies two terms: the first is called the subject (the earth) and the second is the predicate (round)" [15; 96].

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

As write Anne E. Baker and Keen Hengeveld, languages have a certain structure, especially the structure of sentences. Compare the sentences. Which are correct?

Tomorrow I will travel to Manchester.

I tomorrow will travel to Manchester.

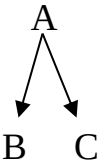
I will travel to Manchester tomorrow.

I will tomorrow travel to Manchester.

The English grammar allows for only three different word order patterns, so only three sentences out of four are correct. Thus, grammar is certain set of rules that regulate the structure of the sentences [2; 5–6].

Thus, each language has its own way of structuring the words that can be analyzed differently. One way of analyzing a sentence is to cut it to its immediate constituents, that is, to single out different levels of meaning. English has dichotomous phrase structure, which means that the phrase in English can always be divided into two elements (constituents) until we get down to the single word. All groups of words are arranged in levels. The name given by linguists to these different levels of relationship is **immediate constituents**.

The most commonly used method of representing constituency and linear order is the tree diagram. There is a simple tree diagram:



This tree contains three nodes. The top node, *A*, is the mother of the two lower nodes, *B* and *C*. *B* and *C* are daughters of the same mother, and so we refer to them as sister nodes. When a tree of this kind is used to represent the structure of a grammatical unit (e. g. a phrase or sentence), the mother node represents the larger unit, while the daughter nodes represent its constituents (or sub-parts). A more adequate interpretation of the diagram: A unit of category *A* is composed of two

constituent parts, one of category *B* and the other of category *C*, occurring in that order.

The second tree represents a prepositional phrase which consists of two parts, a preposition followed by a noun phrase. The noun phrase is composed of a determiner followed by a noun.

Word level Phrasal

N = Noun NP = Noun Phrase

A = Adjective AP = Adjective Phrase

V = Verb VP = Verb Phrase

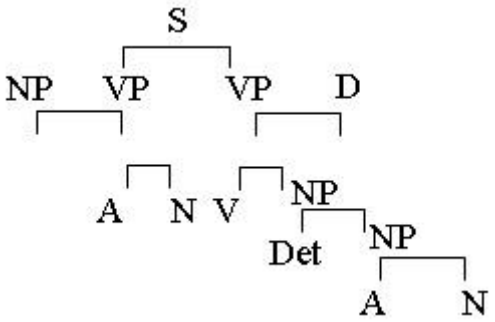
P = Preposition PP = Prepositional Phrase

Adv = Adverb S = Sentence or Clause

Det = Determiner

Conj = Conjunction [Kroeger, 2005, p. 39].

There is one more type of sentence trees.



[23].

This tree shows the structure of each phrase that a sentence consists from.

2. Classification of sentences

Sentences may be classified:

1) according to the communicative task: interrogative – the aim is to seek information, declarative – the aim is to give information, imperative (incentive) – to urge smb. to do smth;

2) according to the emotional coloring: neutral, emotionally colored, exclamatory. Each of the communicative types can be exclamatory and non-exclamatory sentences with specific intonation and emphatic words;

3) according to the structure based on the number of predicative groups (subject-predicate): simple and composite, which may be compound and complex, or semi-compound and semi-complex sentences;

4) according to the completeness of the structure: complete (with both subject and predicate/predicative) and incomplete/non-complete or elliptical (without one member) [24; 276];

5) according to the character of predicative relations: affirmative, negative;

6) according to the number of the main parts: two-member sentences, verbless two-member sentences, one-member sentences;

7) according to the structural completeness: complete, incomplete;

8) according to the character of the subject: personal (personal proper, indefinite – personal, general – personal) and impersonal;

9) according to the use of secondary members: extended (with secondary members) and non-(un)-extended (without secondary members of the sentence) [24; 276].

3. Simple sentences

The sentences can be ***simple*** and ***composite***. According to I. P. Krylova and E. M. Gordon, all words in a sentence perform definite syntactic functions, for example the subject and the predicate, which are grammatically independent and significant, or other functions depending on the subject forming the subject-phrase of the sentence, or on predicate forming the predicate-phrase. A sentence with both the subject and the predicate is called a two-member sentence. Sentences, which consist of only the subject or the predicate is known as one-member sentence. They are:

1) sentences with the verb in the Imperative mood;

2) exclamatory sentences (‘What a nice view!’ ‘How cold!’);

3) questions that express suggestion (‘What about having a cup of tea?’);

4) Yes or No sentences;

5) formulas of courtesy (‘Hello!’ ‘Good-buy!’).

There are unextended sentences built up of only the subject and the predicate and extended sentences with secondary functions [24; 417].

According to A. Baker, “a predicate expresses a relation between the referents of other constituents in the clause or it specifies a property of the referent of another constituent” [2; 144]. The function of predicate is usually expressed by verb phrases ex. ‘John laughed.’ But other types of predicate are also possible. In the example ‘*Ian’s mum is ill*’, the predicate is an adjective phrase, in ‘Mary is my best friend’, it is a noun phrase, In ‘The dog is in the garden’, it is an adpositional phrase [2; 145]. Phrases that are obligatory associated with a predicate are known as arguments. Constituents that are not required by a predicate are known as adjuncts, as in the example ‘*Yesterday Sylvie walked along the beach*’, Sylvie is an argument of walked, the constituents yesterday and along the beach are adjuncts [2; 146].

A number of arguments that accompanies a predicate is its valency. A predicate that requires just one argument is known as a one-place predicate, which is known as ‘intransitive,; if it requires two arguments it is a two-place predicate, which is known as transitive, and with three is distransitive.

Example ‘*Charles bought the newspaper*’, compare with ‘*Charles bought*’, ‘*Bought the newspaper*’. *Buy* requires two arguments, one to describe the buyer, the other to describe what is bought. Examples of one-place argument: ‘*Gianni walked*’, ‘*He is a carpenter*’, ‘*Ann is outside*’. Examples of three-place argument: ‘Mabel put the book on the shelf’. Example of the four-place predicate: Exchange – smb exchanged smth with smb for smth. Zero-place predicate – ‘*It snows*’, “*It is raining*’ [2; 147–150].

Noun phrases describe entities, but they play different roles in the event describes in the sentence, and these roles are called ***semantic roles***.

Ex. Colonel Mustard killed Miss Scarlet in the kitchen with a gun.

There are four roles:

Agent – the entity that takes the initiative for an event, the acting person;

Patient – the entity undergoing the action;

Location – the place where an event occurs or an entity is located;

Instrument – the entity used to carry out the action.

Recipient – the entity that receives smth.

Source – the entity smth originates from.

Example:

1. *The millionaire (agent) donated his fortune (patient) to Medecins sans Frontieres (recipient).*

2. *The student (agent) took a book (patient) from the shelf (source)* [2; 151].

As well as having a semantic role, a constituent also has a grammatical role. The constituent that determines the perspective of a sentence has the grammatical role of subject, which determines the construction of the clause. In many languages the subject occupies a special position (in English it is usually initial) [2; 151]. The semantic role of the subject is not explicitly marked.

Example:

The father gave a Mercedes to his daughter.

The father gave his daughter a Mercedes.

A Mercedes and his daughter occupy the same position in the clause, right of the verb and without a preposition. Despite their different semantic roles (the patient and the recipient), the grammatical behavior of these constituents is exactly the same, and they serve the same grammatical role of object (direct or indirect) [2; 153].

4. Composite sentence

A ***composite sentence*** consists of two simple sentences joined together. The component parts of a composite sentence are called clauses, which can by in the relationships of coordination or subordination. According to the types of relationships, there can be a compound and a complex sentence [24; 429].

A compound sentence presents the relation of coordination, when clauses are syntactically independent of each other. A compound sentence contains two or more independent clauses and one or more dependent clauses. They may be joined syndetically by coordinating conjunctions (such as, and, but, or, yet, for, etc.) or asyndetically (without any conjunctions) [24; 429].

A complex sentence presents two or more component parts of the sentence one of which presents the syntactic functions within another sentence. The basic component is called the principal clause, and the clause with some syntactic function within the principal clause is a subordinate clause. Subordinate clauses are subordinated structurally and semantically to principal clauses and may be joined to them by means of conjunctions, conjunctive words, or by means of the sequence of tenses [24; 429].

One type of descriptive grammar is called structural analysis and its main concern is to investigate the distribution of forms in a language. The method involves the use of 'test-frames' that can be sentences with empty slots in them. For example

The ___ makes a lot of noise.

I heard a ____ yesterday.

There are a lot of forms that can fit into these slots to produce good grammatical sentences of English (ex. car, child, dog, radio). As a result, they can be examples of the same grammatical category which can be labeled 'noun'.

____ makes a lot of noise.

I heard ____ yesterday.

And for these test-frames the words (it, the professor, an old car…) can be examples of the same grammatical category as 'noun phrase'. By developing a set of test-frames discovering which forms fit the slots in the test-frames, we can produce a description of aspects of the sentence structures of a language [20; 76].

An approach with the same descriptive aims is called immediate constituent analysis. The technique employed in this approach is designed to show how small constituents (or components) in sentences go together to form larger constituents. One basic step is determining how words go together to form phrases. '*Her father*

brought a shortgun to the wedding'. In the sentence we can identify eight components at the same word level. The phrase-like constituents are combinations of the following types: her father, a shotgun, the wedding – noun phrases, to the wedding – a prepositional phrase, brought a shotgun – a verb phrase.

The next diagram is designed to show how the constituents in the sentence structure can be marked off by using labeled brackets. The first step is to put brackets round each constituent, and then more brackets round each combination of constituents [20; 76].

[[The [dog] [[loved] [[the] [girl]].

The different constituents of the sentence are shown at the word level, at the phrase level and at the sentence level. Then we can label each constituent using abbreviated grammatical terms such as art. (article), n. (noun), NP (noun phrase), V (verb), VP (verb phrase), S (sentence).

S

NP VP NP

art N V art N

[[The [dog] [[loved] [[the] [girl]].

In performing this type of analysis, we have not only labeled all the constituents, we have revealed the hierarchical organization of those constituents. The sentence is higher that the noun phrase, which is higher that the noun. We can apply the same type of analysis to the sentence from another language.

Here is a sentence from Scottish Gaelic which would be translated as 'The boy saw the black dog'.

Chunaic an gille an cu dubh.

Saw the boy the dog black.

The structures of Gaelic and English sentences are different: the verb comes first in the sentence, the adjective comes after the noun.

This Gaelic sentence has the V NP NP structure, which is different from the NP V NP structure of the English sentence.

We can look at similar descriptions of the sentences in other languages such as Gaelic, Japanese or Spanish and see what structural differences exist. At a very practical level, it may help us understand why a Spanish learner of English produces phrases like ‘the wine red’ (instead of the red wine’), using a structural organization of constituents that is possible in Spanish, but not in English [20; 76].

Questions and tasks?

1. What is a sentence?
2. What types of sentences can you name?
3. What is the criterion of generative grammar?
4. What syntactic structures can you name?
5. What is the structure of the composite sentence?
6. What is the structure of the simple sentence?
7. What is surface and seep structure?
8. How do we call the levels of relationship between the words in a sentence?

Tasks

1. Define the structure of the given sentences.

1) “Ah, how he had loved it!”

2) “He had made it flame with flowers, in a sun cup under its hedges and trees”.

3) “Ah, marvellous to sit there in the wide, black, time-old chimney, at night when the wind roared overhead, and the wood which he had chopped himself sputtered on the hearth! Himself on one side the angle, and Winifred on the other” [Lawrence “England, my England”].

4) “There were four of us—George, and William Samuel Harris, and myself, and Montmorency. We were sitting in my room, smoking, and talking about how bad we were—bad from a medical point of view I mean, of course” [Jerome K.Jerome “Three men in a boat (to say nothing of the dog”].

5) “Having thus settled the sleeping arrangements to the satis-faction of all four of us, the only thing left to discuss was what we should take with us; and this we had

begun to argue, when Harris said he'd had enough oratory for one night, and pro-posed that we should go out and have a smile, saying that he had found a place, round by the square, where you could really get a drop of Irish worth drinking" [Jerome K. Jerome "Three men in a boat (to say nothing of the dog"].

6) During the four years since his puppyhood he had lived the life of a sated aristocrat; he had a fine pride in himself, was even a trifle egotistical, as country gentlemen sometimes become because of their insular situation [Jack London "The call of the wild"].

7) The matter was dealt with swiftly. The soldiers poured into the inner courtyard, shouting words in their own language, issuing and obeying commands at a run. They did not pause, even at the sight of the holy rituals. One or two of the priests attempted to run and were cut down. The High Priest was pleased to note that most of the younger men simply continued with their duties: burning the incense, fanning the flames, pouring the libations of wine. And if their arms trembled or their heads jerked or their mouths cried out when a sword ran them through, would not God in His infinite mercy forgive it? [Naomi Alderman "The Liars' Gospel"].

CHAPTER IX. ACTUAL DIVISION OF THE SENTENCE

When speaking about the notional parts of the sentence as the basic elements of the reflected situation form 'the nominative meaning of the sentence'. Thus, according to M. Y. Blokh the division of the sentence into notional parts can be just so called – the "nominative division". The idea of the "actual division" of the sentence, called also the "functional sentence perspective", is to reveal the actual informative role of the sentence parts in an utterance, and the immediate semantic contribution they make to the total information conveyed by the sentence. As the actual division of the sentence is realized only in a concrete context of speech, therefore it is sometimes referred to as the "contextual" division of the sentence [22].

The principle of sentence organization was developed by the Prague linguistic school. In their study called function sentence perspective (FSP) the greatest contributions were made by Firbus and Mathesius. According to their theory, the utterance, as the unit of speech, as its informative structure consisting from ***the theme*** and ***the rheme***. The actual division of the sentence is also called the "functional sentence perspective", as it exposes the informative perspective of the sentence.

The theme expresses the starting point of communication denoting an object or about which the speaker is going to talk. The theme can be already familiar to the listener or reader. Presented by the speaker it becomes known and understood. The theme is here the starting point of the sentence, not its conclusion. The theme of the sentence may or may not coincide with the subject.

The predicate that gives new information is called rheme, which expresses the basic informative part of the communication. The rheme may or may not coincide with the predicate of the sentence.

In some utterances the grammatical division coincides with the actual division of the sentence which is called objective: the theme – subject and the rheme – predicate. But there is also the subjective sequence, when the rheme precedes the theme, when we start with new information to show the expressive attitude of the speaker.

The most important semantic element in the sentence is called the centre of communication. The centre of communication of one utterance may become the starting point of the utterance that follows. There are numerous other ways in which the semantic content of the sentence can be expressed:

1. *The rat was eaten by the dog.*
2. *It was the dog that ate the rat.*
3. *It was the rat that the dog ate.*
4. *What the dog did was ate the rat.*
5. *The dog, it ate the rat.*

The theme is introduced in the first and second sentences by the word 'the rat' and the rheme in the first and second examples is 'the dog'. By defining the theme or

rheme, we consider whether the information has already been introduced before or it is known to the reader or listener. *The **given** information is expressed by **the theme** and the **new** information – by **the rheme**.*

The rheme is defined by the following:

1. Position in the sentence. As a rule new information in English generally comes at the end of the sentence: *The cat ate **the rat**.*

2. Intonation. We can put a stress on the ‘new word’. I need the report, not the statistical data. I need only the report.

3. The use of the indefinite article.

***A gentleman** is waiting for you*.

4. The use of ‘there is’, ‘there are’. *There is **a dog** in the room.*

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

6. Inverted word order: *Here comes the sun.*

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

M. Y. Blokh along with the other linguists distinguish the communicative principle of the classification of sentences, as the sentence is first of all a communicative unit. This principle is formulated in traditional grammar as the “purpose of communication”, which refers to the sentence as a whole, and the structural features connected with the expression of this sentential function belong to the fundamental, constitutive qualities of the sentence as a lingual unit.

In accord with the purpose of communication there are three cardinal sentence-types: the declarative sentence; the imperative sentence; the interrogative sentence. These communicative sentence-types stand in strict opposition to one another, and their inner proper-ties of form and meaning are immediately correlated with the corresponding features of the listener's responses.

Thus, the declarative sentence expresses a statement, either affirmative or negative, and as such stands in systemic syntagmatic correlation with the listener's responding signals of attention, of appraisal (including agreement or disagreement). The imperative sentence expresses inducement, either affirmative or negative. It

urges the listener, in the form of request or command, to perform or not to perform a certain action. The imperative sentence is connected with the corresponding “action response”, and is systemically correlated with a verbal response. The interrogative sentence expresses a question, i. e. a request for information wanted by the speaker from the listener. By virtue of this communicative purpose, the interrogative sentence is naturally connected with an answer, forming together with it a question-answer dialogue unity [22].

An attempt to revise the traditional communicative classification of sentences was made by the American scholar Ch. Fries who classed them, as a deliberate challenge to the “accepted routine”, not in accord with the purposes of communication, but according to the responses they elicit [22].

In Fries's system, the sentence is defined as a minimum free utterance. Utterances were first classed into “situation utterances”, and “response utterances”. Situation single free utterances (i. e. sentences) were further divided into three groups:

1. Utterances that are regularly followed by oral responses only. These are greetings, calls, questions. E. g. *Hello! Good-bye! See you soon!*

2. Utterances regularly eliciting action responses. These are requests or commands. E. g. *Read that again, will you? Oh, wait a minute!*

3. Utterances regularly eliciting conventional signals of attention to continuous discourse. These are statements.

There are utterances that are not directed to any listener but, as Ch. Fries says, “characteristic of situations such as surprise, sudden pain, disgust, anger, laughter, sorrow”. E. g. *Oh, oh! Goodness! My God! Darn! Gosh!* Etc.

These interjectional units are classed by Ch. Fries as “noncommunicative” utterances [22].

Questions

1. What is actual division of the sentence?
2. What is theme and what is rheme?

3. How are they expressed in a sentence?
4. How are utterances classified?
5. How does Fries define a sentence?
6. Name the communicative types of sentences.

Tasks

1. Find out the themes and rhemes in the given sentences. Analyze the structure of the actual division of the sentences.

1) "The timbered cottage with its sloping, cloak-like roof was old and forgotten. It belonged to the old England of hamlets and yeomen. Lost all alone on the edge of the common, at the end of a wide, grassy, briar-entangled lane shaded with oak, it had never known the world of today. Not till Egbert came with his bride. And he had come to fill it with flowers" [David Herbert Lawrence "England, my England"].

2) "Whereupon he lay down sullenly and allowed the crate to be lifted into a wagon. Then he, and the crate in which he was imprisoned, began a passage through many hands. Clerks in the express office took charge of him; he was carted about in another wagon; a truck carried him, with an assortment of boxes and parcels, upon a ferry steamer; he was trucked off the steamer into a great railway depot, and finally he was deposited in an express car" [Jack London "The call of the wild"].

3) "She ought to taken those cakes," Kate says. I could have used the money real well. But it's not like they cost me anything except the baking. I can tell him that anybody is likely to make a miscue, but it's not all of them that can get out of it without loss, I can tell him. It's not everybody can eat their mistakes, I can tell him. Someone comes through the hall. It is Darl" [William Faulkner "As I Lay Dying"]

CHAPTER X. THE SYNTAX OF THE TEXT

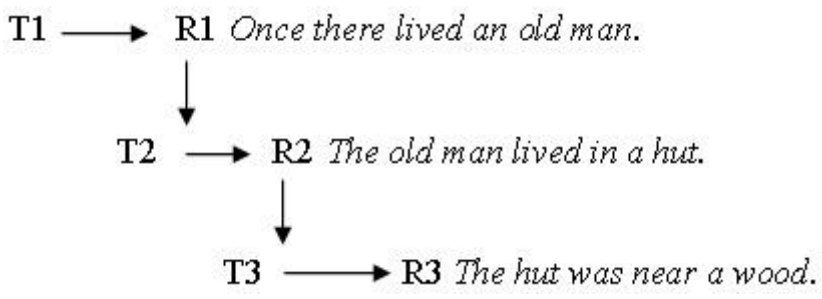
Text is the unit of the highest (supersyntactic) level of the language. Text is a specifically arranged number of sentences, connected logically and semantically and contain a complete massage. The simplest level of the text is one sentence, but the upper levels of the text may be a paragraph, a chapter, a story. A complex syntactic unit is a group of sentences united by common sense, communicative intention and structural relations. The text is a language unit and is realized in speech as discourse.

According to Yule, 'pragmatics is the study of 'invisible' meaning, or how we recognize what is meant even when it isn't actually said or written. In order for that to happen, speakers (or writers) must be able to depend on a lot of shared assumptions and expectations when they try to communicate. The investigation of those assumptions and expectations provides us with some insights into how more is always being communicated than is said' [20; 112].

Text linguistics is connected with the analysis of formal and structural features of the text. Textual basic integrative properties can be described with the help of the notions of ***coherence***, ***cohesion*** *and* ***deixis***.

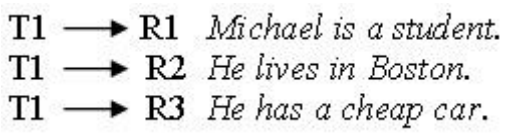
Coherence is a semantic or topical unity of the spoken or written text – that is, the sentences within the text are usually connected by the same general topic. Generally speaking, a coherent text is the text that 'sticks together' as a whole unit. Coherence is usually achieved by means of the theme and rheme progression. There exist various types of the theme and rheme progression, e. g.

a)



[23];

b)



[23].

Naturally, in the process of text development different types of theme and rheme progression are combined.

Texts must have a certain structure that depends on factors quite different from those required in the structure of a single sentence. Some of those factors are described in terms of cohesion, or the ties and connections that exist within texts. A number of those types of cohesive ties can be identified in the following paragraph [20; 125].

Cohesion is a succession of spoken or written sentences. Sometimes the sentences may even not coincide topically. The connection we want to draw between various parts of the text may be achieved by **textual** and **lexical** cohesion. Textual cohesion may be achieved by formal markers which express conjunctive relations and serve as text connectors. Text connectors may be of four different types:

1) additive – *and, furthermore, similarly, in addition, etc.*;

2) adversative – *but, however, on the other hand, in fact, anyway, after all, nevertheless, etc.*;

3) causal – *so, consequently, for this reason, thus, etc.*;

4) temporal – *then, after that, finally, at last, in the long run, etc.*

The full list of text connectors is very long. Some of them do not possess direct equivalents in the Ukrainian language. At the same time it is impossible to speak and write English naturally without knowing for sure when and how to use text connectors of the English language.

Lexical cohesion occurs when two words in the text are semantically related in the same way – in other words, they are related in terms of their meaning. Two major categories of lexical cohesion are ***reiteration*** *and* ***collocation***. Reiteration includes

repetition, synonym or near synonym use and the use of general words. E. g. '*You could try driving the car up the slope. The incline isn't at all that steep*' [23].

The key to the concept of coherence ('everything fitting together well') is not something that exists in words or structures, but something that exists in people. It is people who 'make sense' of what they read and hear. They try to arrive at an interpretation that is in line with their experience of the way the world is. Indeed, our ability to make sense of what we read is probably only a small part of that general ability we have to make sense of what we perceive or experience in the world [20].

Cohesive ties within the text are also formed by ***endophoric*** relations, which are of two kinds: those that look back in the text for their interpretation are called ***anaphoric*** relations; those that look forward in the text are called ***cataphoric*** relations. '*Look at the sun. It is going down quickly*'. In this example 'it' refers back to 'the sun'. '*It is going down quickly, the sun*'. In this example 'it' refers forwards to 'the sun' [23].

Collocation includes all those items in text that are semantically related. The items may be related in one text and not related in other. For instance, the words 'neighbour' and 'scoundrel' are not related at all. However, in the following text they are collocated: *My neighbor has just let one of his trees fall into my garden. And the scoundrel refuses to pay for the damage he has caused.*

Much of the textual meaning can be understood in context. Those terms that cannot be interpreted without a context are called deixis. As a linguistic term **deixis** means 'identification by pointing'. As Yule said, 'there are some very common words in our language that can't be interpreted at all if we don't know the context, especially the physical context of the speaker. These are words such as here and there, this or that, now and then, yesterday, today or tomorrow, as well as pronouns such as you, me, she, him, it, them. Some sentences of English are virtually impossible to understand if we don't know who is speaking, about whom, where and when. For example You'll have to bring it back tomorrow because she isn't here today. Out of context, this sentence is really vague. It contains a large number of expressions (you, it, tomorrow, she, here, today) that rely on knowledge of the

immediate physical context for their interpretation (i.e. that the delivery driver will have to return on February 15th to 660 College Drive with the package labeled ‘flowers, handle with care’ addressed to Lisa Landry). Expressions such as tomorrow and here are obvious examples of bits of language that we can only understand in terms of the speaker’s intended meaning. They are technically known as deictic expressions, from the Greek word deixis (pronounced like ‘day-icksis’), which means ‘pointing’ via language. We use deixis to point to things (it, this, these boxes) and people (him, them, those idiots), sometimes called person deixis. Words and phrases used to point to a location (here, there, near that) are examples of spatial deixis, and thoseused to point to a time (now, then, last week) are examples of temporal deixis [20; 115].

Deictic terms are used to refer to different objects in our environment, actions in the present, social relationship. Deictic units are usually pronouns, certain time and place adverbs, some verbs of motion (*come*/*go*), and tenses. There are five major types of deictic markers – person, place, time, textual and social.

Person deixis refers to grammatical markers of communicant roles in a speech event. The first person is the speaker’s reference to self; the second person is the speaker’s reference to addressee(s) and the third person is reference to others who are neither speaker nor addressee.

Place deixis refers to how languages show the relationship between space and the location of the participants in the text: *this, that, here, there, in front of, at our place, etc.*

Temporal deixis refers to the time relative to the time of speaking: *now, then, today, yesterday, tomorrow, etc.*

Textual deixis has to do with keeping track of reference in the unfolding text: *in the following chapter, but, first, I’d like to discuss, etc.* Most of the text connectors belong to this group.

Social deixis is used to code social relationships between speakers and addressee or audience. Here belong honorifics, titles of addresses and pronouns. There are two kinds of social deixis: relational and absolute. ***Absolute deictic***

markers are forms attached to a social role: *Your Honor, Mr. President, Your Grace, Madam, etc.* ***Relational deictic markers*** locate persons in relation to the speaker rather than by their roles in the society: *my cousin, you, her, etc.* In English, social deixis is not heavily coded in the pronoun system. 'You' refers to both – singular and plural. As well as in the Ukrainian language, English possesses 'a powerful we': *We are happy to inform… In this article we…* [23].

Deixis may be ***situational*** or ***textual***. Situational deixis denotes the use of expressions to point to some feature of the situation, typically persons or objects in the situation and temporal or locational features. For example, the pronoun I is necessarily deictic, referring to the speaker and writer and shifting its reference according to who is speaking or writing. Similarly, here and now may be situationally bound as is the use of tenses that take as their point of reference the time of speaking or writing. Textual deixis denotes the use of expressions to point to other expressions in the linguistic context. References to what comes earlier are anaphoric, whereas references to what comes later are cataphoric.

When we use a referring expression like this, he or Shakespeare, we usually assume that our listeners can recognize which referent is intended. In a more general way, we design our linguistic messages on the basis of large-scale assumptions about what our listeners already know. Some of these assumptions may be mistaken, of course, but mostly they're appropriate. What a speaker (or writer) assumes is true or known by a listener (or reader) can be described as a presupposition [20; 117].

Questions

1. What is the structure of the text?
2. What is deixis? What are the types of it?
3. What text connectors exist?
4. What does pragmatics study?
5. What is discourse?

Tasks

1. Analyze the cohesion of the given text. Define the types of deixis.

1) "It was beautifully clean inside, and as tidy as possible. There was a table, and a Dutch clock, and a chest of drawers, and on the chest of drawers there was a tea-tray with a painting on it of a lady with a parasol, taking a walk with a military-looking child who was trundling a hoop. The tray was kept from tumbling down, by a bible; and the tray, if it had tumbled down, would have smashed a quantity of cups and saucers and a teapot that were grouped around the book. On the walls there were some common coloured pictures, framed and glazed, of scripture subjects; such as I have never seen since in the hands of pedlars, without seeing the whole interior of Peggotty's brother's house again, at one view. Abraham in red going to sacrifice Isaac in blue, and Daniel in yellow cast into a den of green lions, were the most prominent of these. Over the little mantelshelf, was a picture of the 'Sarah Jane' lugger, built at Sunderland, with a real little wooden stern stuck on to it; a work of art, combining composition with carpentry, which I considered to be one of the most enviable possessions that the world could afford. There were some hooks in the beams of the ceiling, the use of which I did not divine then; and some lockers and boxes and conveniences of that sort, which served for seats and eked out the chairs" [Charles Dickens "David Copperfield"].

2) Between us there was, as I have already said somewhere, the bond of the sea. Besides holding our hearts together through long periods of separation, it had the effect of making us tolerant of each other's yarns—and even convictions. The Lawyer—the best of old fellows—had, because of his many years and many virtues, the only cushion on deck, and was lying on the only rug. The Accountant had brought out already a box of dominoes, and was toying architecturally with the bones. Marlow sat cross-legged right aft, leaning against the mizzen-mast. He had sunken cheeks, a yellow complexion, a straight back, an ascetic aspect, and, with his arms dropped, the palms of hands outwards, resembled an idol. The director, satisfied the anchor had good hold, made his way aft and sat down amongst us. We exchanged a few words lazily. Afterwards there was silence on board the yacht. For some reason

or other we did not begin that game of dominoes. We felt meditative, and fit for nothing but placid staring. The day was ending in a serenity of still and exquisite brilliance. The water shone pacifically; the sky, without a speck, was a benign immensity of unstained light; the very mist on the Essex marsh was like a gauzy and radiant fabric, hung from the wooded rises inland, and draping the low shores in diaphanous folds. Only the gloom to the west, brooding over the upper reaches, became more sombre every minute, as if angered by the approach of the sun [Joseph Conrad "Heart of Darkness"].

4) "After a parti cularly fierce blow, he crawled to his feet, too dazed to rush. He staggered limply about, the blood flowing from nose and mouth and ears, his beautiful coat sprayed and flecked with bloody slaver. Then the man advanced and deliberately dealt him a frightful blow on the nose. All the pain he had endured was as nothing compared with the exquisite agony of this. With a roar that was almost lionlike in its ferocity, he again hurled himself at the man. But the man, shifting the club from right to left, coolly caught him by the under jaw, at the same time wrenching downward and backward. Buck described a complete circle in the air, and half of another, then crashed to the ground on his head and chest" [Jack London"The call of the wild"].

LABORATORY TASKS

Laboratory task 1

Classification of nouns

I. Make a list of your own examples of nouns according to various classifications of nouns. Choose them from the book you are reading, write down the name of the author of the book.

2. II. Write down five sentences from a book with different meanings of nouns. Write your comments.

Laboratory task 2

Classification of adjectives and adverbs

1. Write down your examples of different adjectives and adverbs from the book you are reading. Fill in the tables with your own examples.

QUALITATIVE	RELATIVE

of time	
of frequency	
of place and direction	
of manner	
of degree or intensifiers	
focusing adverbs	
viewpoint adverbs	
attitudinal adverbs	
conjunctive adverbs	
formulaic adverbs	

Laboratory task

Verbs and verbials

1. Give examples of different types of verbs from a book that you are reading.

2. Give examples of different non-finite forms of verbs from a book that you are reading.

3. Give examples of different syntactic functions of verbs and verbals from a book that you are reading.

Laboratory task 4

Types of syntactic connections

1. Give at least three examples on different types of syntactic bonds from a book.

Laboratory task 5

Syntactic functions of parts of speech

1. Give at least three examples of different syntactic functions of nouns, pronouns, numerals, adjectives, adverbs from a book.

Laboratory task 6

Types of sentences

1. Give three examples of different types of simple sentences from a book.

2. Give three examples of compound sentences from a book.

3. Give three examples of complex sentences with different types of subordinate clauses from a book.

GLOSSARY

Accidence is part of morphology treating of word inflection.

Actant is a semantic entity representing participants in a situation defined by their abstract semantic function.

Adjective is a word such as wise that typically can premodify a noun such as decision and function as subject predicative after a copular verb such as be or seem.

Adjective clause is a subordinate clause used as adjective.

Adjective phrase is a phrase has an adjective such as heavy or informative as its head.

Adjunct is an adverbial (an optional element) that is integrated to some extent in sentence or clause structure.

Adverb is a word that typically functions as a premodifier of an adjective or another adverb or as an adverbial.

Adverbial clause is a clause that functions as an adverbial in sentence or clause structure.

Adverbial modifier is a part of the sentence which modifies a verb, an adjective or an adverb and represents the circumstances (time, place, degree, manner, etc.) of an action.

Adverb phrase has an adverb such as badly or luckily as its head.

Affix is a segment that is not itself a word but is attached to a word. If it is attached to the beginning of a word it is a prefix (un- in undecided), and if it is attached to the end of a word it is a suffix.

Agent is the person or other being that instigates the happening denoted by the verb.

Agreement is a way of connection implying (involving) concord of grammatical forms in a subordinate word-group.

Allo-term is a variant language unit actualized in a concrete speech string.

Allomorph is a variant form of the same morpheme.

Allophone is a pronunciation variant of the same phoneme (abstract sound unit).

Alternative condition presents two or more conditions.

Alternative question offers two or more choices for the response.

Analytical(al) cases is a conventional term applied to prep.

Antecedent of an expression is the expression that it refers to.

Apposition is a relationship between two units that refer to the same entity or overlap in their reference.

Article a, an, and the are articles. Their function is to modify a noun or noun substitute.

Aspect is a grammatical category referring primarily to the way that the time denoted by the verb is regarded. English has two aspects: the perfect aspect and the progressive (or continuous) aspect.

Attribute is a part of the sentence which refers to a noun or another word of nominal nature and expresses a state, a quality, a process, evaluation, etc.

Auxiliary is one of a small set of verbs that combine with a main verb to form the perfect or progressive aspect or the passive, or to conveydistinctions of modality (such as possibility and permission), and to function as operator for forming negative sentences and questions.

Base of a word is the segment to which a prefix or suffix is attached: the suffix -able is attached to the base enjoy, and the prefix un– is attached to the base enjoyable.

Base form of the verb is the uninflected form (remain, take, write), the form to which inflections are added (remained, takes, writing), except that for the highly irregular verb be the base form is be.

Bound morph is a morpheme that cannot form a word by itself.

Case is a grammatical category in which distinctions in the forms of words indicate grammatical relationships between words.

Clause is a construction that typically consists minimally of a subject and a verb, though in an imperative clause the subject is generally absent but implied, so that minimally only the verb needs to be present.

Cleft sentence is a sentence that is cleft (split) so as to put the focus on one part of it.

Clitic is a word that cannot occur independently but must be attached to another word.

Closed classes are in contrast with open classes, and both denote classes of words (or parts of speech) that are required for grammatical description.

Code is a semiotic system, a system of informative signs (signals), conventionally adopted by the community.

Coherence refers to the continuity of meaning that enables others to make sense of a written text or of a stretch of speech.

Cohesion refers to lexical and grammatical devices for linking parts of a written text or spoken discourse.

Collective noun denotes a group of people, animals, or institutions.

Comparative clauses are introduced by the subordinators as or than.

Comparison applies to adjectives or adverbs that are gradable.

Complement is a phrase or clause whose form is determined by the word it complements.

Complementary distribution is the relation of formally different morphs having the same function in different environments.

Complex sentence consists of a main clause that has one or more subordinate clauses.

Complex-transitive verb has two complements: a direct object and an object predicative.

Compound is a word formed from a combination of two or more words.

Compound sentence is a sentence that consists of two or more main clauses (each of which could be an independent sentence) that are linked by coordination.

Compound-complex sentence is a sentence containing two or more independent clauses and one or more dependent clauses.

Conditional clauses are introduced by the subordinator if.

Conjuncts are sentence adverblals that indicate logical relationships between sentences or between clauses.

Conjunctions are either co-ordinators (or co-ordinating conjunctions) or subordinators (or subordinating conjunctions).

Conjunctive adverb is used as conjunction.

Continuous morpheme is an uninterrupted string of phonemes building up a morpheme.

Conversion is the term in word-formation for creating a new word by shifting an existing word to a different word class without adding a prefix.

Co-ordination is the linking of two or more units that would have the same function if they were not linked.

Count noun is a noun that has both singular and plural forms and can take determiners (as appropriate) that accompany distinctions in number (a/this book, many/these books).

Declarative (or declarative sentence) is used in the expression of statements and generally requiring subject – verb order.

Deep structure is the formal syntactical construction represented by dummy symbols replaced by lexical entities in ways determined by their feature content.

Definite noun phrase conveys the assumption that the hearer or reader can identify what it refers to.

Demonstrative pronouns and determiners are singular this and that and their respective plurals these and those.

Denominatives are verbs derived from N–stems and A–stems by means of conversion.

Denotate is an object of extralingual reality denoted by a linguistic sign.

Derived sentence is a transform of a kernel, a result of transformation.

Direct object is a complement of a transitive verb. It generally follows the verb in a declarative sentence.

Discontinuous morpheme is a morpheme built up of aninterrupted string of phonemes.

Disjuncts are sentence adverbials, either style disjuncts or content disjuncts. Style disjuncts comment on the act of speaking or writing, and may be adverbs, prepositional phrases, non-finite clauses, and finite clauses.

Distribution is the contextual environment of a language unit. See contrastive, non-contrastive, complementary distribution.

Ellipsis is the omission of a part of a normal structure.

Finite verb displays tense, the distinction between present and past tense.

Function is manifestation of relationship between related element.

Functional part of speech – a part of speech having a partial nominative value.

Gender is a grammatical category in which contrasts are made within a word class such as personal/non-personal, masculine/feminine/neuter.

Gerund is an -ing participle that shares characteristics of a noun and a verb.

Government is a way of connection when the head of a subordinate word-group requires of its adjunct to assume an appropriate grammatical form (usually a case-form) or to be used with definite preposition.

Gradual opposition is an opposition whose members is characterized by the expression of a certain degree of one and the same categorial feature.

Illocutionary act is an utterance which has a certain conventional force, e. g. informing, ordering, warning, undertaking, etc.

Imperative is a sentence (or clause) type. It expresses commands.

Indefinite article is a before consonant sounds (a house) and an before vowel sounds (an hour).

Independent clause can stand alone and convey meaning as a simple sentence: She was fond of all her friends, although she loved no one in particular. Also known as main clause or principal clause.

Indicative verbal forms express the categorial meanings of the indicative mood and describing the denoted action in terms of absolute time.

Indirect object is a complement of a transitive verb.

Infinitive has the base form of the verb.

Infinitive clause is a clause whose verb is an infinitive ('I want to learn Chinese').

Inflection is an affix that expresses a grammatical relationship, such as the plural *-s* in candidates and the *-ed* ending in wanted. In English, inflections are always suffixes.

Interjection is an exclamatory emotive word that is loosely attached to the sentence or used as an utterance by itself, such as oh and boo.

Interrogative is a sentence type in which there is subject-operator inversion (the operator coming before the subject).

Irregular verb forms its past tense and past participle by a change of vowels.

Isomorphism is likeness or similarity of organisation.

Language is the system, phonological, lexical, and grammatical, which lies at the base of all speaking.

Lexeme is the lexical meaning bearer of the word, traditionally called "the stem"; a word taken as an invariant unity of form and meaning.

Locutionary act – uttering of a certain sentence with a certain sense and reference (J. Austin).

Main clause is a clause that is not subordinate to another clause.

Main verb (or lexical) verb is the head of the verb phrase and is sometimes preceded by one or more auxiliaries (may have been in may have been smoking).

Modality is the way in which proposition is modified in terms of reality/non-reality.

Modifier is a subordinate element usually of a verb phrase which qualifies, describes or restricts the meaning of the head.

Morpheme is an abstract unit established for the analysis of word structure.

Morphology is the study of the structure of words.

Neutralization is a type of oppositional reduction by which a neutralized language unit becomes fully functionally identified with its counter-member.

Nominal clauses have a range of functions similar to those of noun phrases. ***Nominal relative clause*** is a clause whose introductory word is a fusion of a relative pronoun or relative determiner with an implied antecedent.

Nominal relative determiner/pronoun introduce nominal relative clauses.

Noun phrase is a phrase whose head (possibly its only word) is a noun, a pronoun, or a nominal adjective (elderly in 'I prefer catering for the elderly'). See also nominal adjective.

Object is a part of the sentence which typically refers to participants in the event different from the Subject, occurs after transitive verbs and can become the Subject in a passive structure.

Opposition (opposeme) Binary juxtaposition of linguistic elements or their paradigmatic forms; correlation of categorial forms having a certain function.

Paradigm is a set of grammatically related forms (a set of paradigmatic forms of linguistic units), such as the five forms of the irregular verb drive, drive, drives, driving, drove, driven.

Paradigmatic is one of the two planes of language structure comprising language units in their class membership.

Particle is a word that does not take inflections and does not fit into the traditional word classes; for example the negative particle not and infinitival to.

Passive voice is contrasted with active voice.

Phrasal verb is a multi-word verb in which a verb is combined with an adverb to form an idiomatic unit.

Phrase comes between the word and the clause in the hierarchy of grammatical units.

Possessive pronouns are the possessives of the personal pronouns. They may be dependent (my, your, his, her, its, our, their) or independent (mine, yours, his, hers, its, ours, theirs).

Pragmatics is the study of the use of the language and its interpretation in situational contexts.

Predicate is the member of a predication containing the mood and tense (or only mood) components of predicativity.

Predicativity is the relation of the thought of a sentence to the situation of speech (to the act of speech, to the speaker and to reality).

Preposition is a word that introduces a prepositional phrase, which consists of a preposition and the prepositional complement.

Prepositional object is the object of a prepositional verb (the painting in I looked closely at the painting) or the object of a phrasal-prepositional.

Prepositional verb is a multi-word verb in which a verb combines with a preposition to form an idiomatic unit.

Pronouns are a closed class of words that have a range of functions similar to those of nouns

Proper noun have unique reference. They name specific people, places, etc.

Proposition The content of a declarative sentence, that which is proposed, or stated, denied, questioned, etc., capable of truth and falsity.

Relative clauses postmodify nouns, pronouns, and nominal adjectives (‘the elderly who are sick’).

Secondary predication – predication expressed by potentially predicative complexes with non-ninite forms of the verb and verbal nouns. See primary predication.

Semantics is the study of meaning of words and sentences, their denotations, connotations, implications, and ambiguities.

Sentence is a communicatuion unit made up of words (and word-morphemes) in conformity with their combinability and structurally united by intonation and predicativity.

Sequence of tenses is the relationship between the tenses of the verbs in the reporting clause and the reported clause as a result of backshift of the verb in the reported clause. See direct speech, backshlfting, tense.

Sign is a material designator of a meaning, a concrete token element used in the concrete process of communication and reference.

Singularia Tantum nouns (absolute singular nouns) – nouns having only the singular form.

Source (as a semantic role) – smth. which gives rise/origin to another entity, cause of some action.

Speech act is the performance of an utterance (spoken or written) in a particular context with a particular intention is a speech act.

Stem is a stem is a term in grammar and word-formation for a root plus the element that fits it into the flow of speech.

Subject predicative is a subject predicative is the complement of a copular verb such as he or seem.

Subordinate (dependent) clauses are grammatically dependent on a host (or superordinate) clause or host phrase and generally function as a constituent of their host.

Syntagmatic is one of the two planes of language structure comprising language units in their linear ordering.

System is a structured set of elements connected by a common function.

Tense is a grammatical category referring to the time of a situation. English has two tenses that are signalled by the form of the verb: present and past.

Transitive verb is a verb that has a direct object or an indirect object or both as its complement(s).

Transitivity is the ability of a verb to take a direct object.

Transposition is the use of a language element in the contextual conditions typical of its oppositional counter-member by which it fulfils two functions simultaneously.

Valency (valence) is a potential ability of elements to pattern with one another, the ability of a language unit to take an adjunct, potential combinability of a language unit.

Verb is a word that displays contrasts such as tense, aspect, mood, voice, number (singular/plural), and person.

Verbal (verbid) is a non-finite form of the verb.

Verbiality is a general lexico-grammatical meaning of the verb implying the ability of the verb to denote an action or state.

Verb phrase is a phrase whose head is a main verb (or lexical verb).

Vocative is an optional addition to the basic sentence (or clause) structure, and is used to address directly the person or persons spoken to.

Voice is a grammatical category which distinguishes between active and passive.

Word order is the order of constituents within a phrase, clause, or sentence.

Zero article (or zero determiner) is postulated for noun phrases where no article (or other determiner) is present.

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List of novels from which the examples were taken

Lisa Appignanesi "Memory and Desire"

Naomi Alderman "The Liars' Gospel"

Mark Twain "Life on the Mississippi"

Lisa Appignanesi "Dreams of innocence"

David Almond "Heaven Eyes"

David Herbert Lawrence "England, my England"

Jerome K. Jerome "Three men in a boat(to say nothing of the dog"

Scott Fitzgerald "Tender is the night"

Washington Irving "The Legend of Sleepy Hollow"

Jack London "The call of the wild"

Naomi Alderman "The Liars' Gospel"

William Faulkner "As I Lay Dying"

Charles Dickens "David Copperfield"

Joseph Conrad "Heart of Darkness"

Учебное пособие

Плахотная Юлия Ивановна
кандидат филологических наук, доцент кафедры
английского языка и литературы
Института «Полярная Академия» РГГМУ

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