**MORPHOLOGY**

**Morphology** is a branch of linguistics that studies morphemes. American linguist Bloomsfield defined the morpheme as a minimal meaningful unit. But this definition is considered to be defective as *it*doesn't specify what meaning it meant, we don't know if the word or form building morphemes are meant. According to Gleason a morpheme is a minimal unit in the plane of context which relates to some units in the plane of expression.

**Morpheme**is a minimal unit of grammar. But morphemes in English are mostly word-building morphemes, so a grammatical morpheme is not defied here either. A for-building morpheme may be defined as an element of the word which signals the kind of grammatical meaning attached to the word by the presence of the morpheme. The morpheme itself has a purely relational grammatical meaning which is revealed only by contrast with some other morpheme or word-form. A morpheme is an exponent of a grammatical category. In speech morphemes are represented by allomorphs: phonological and morphological.

E.g. morpheme of plurality Cats [s], Dogs [z], Houses [iz]

E.g. morphologically -ren - children, -en - oxen, - sheep, deer

All kinds of environment in which a morpheme can occur are called -distribution.

 Morphemes Roots affixes

Functionally are divided

Word-building Form-building

By the place are divided

Prefixes suffixes

The root- the morpheme that conveys lexical meaning of a word, the basic part of the word.

**The word-form and the word**

The **WF**may be equivalent to the word but it presents an isolated unit. A WF is never part of a word. A WF is always a carrier of grammatical information. When we describe a WF we never think of its lexical meaning instead we concentrate on its grammatical meaning.

E.g. When we mention the WF **speaks**we know it shows 3 person Sg, Present Tense. We can identify the WF in such a way due to the existence of such opposed forms as is speaking, speak, spoke. Obviously the latter group carries some other grammatical information and represents other grammatical meanings. => Gr. Meanings have relational property.

Affixes can be used to create new words - derivational or word-building affixes.

E.g. govern + ment

They create lexical subclasses of words, cover a narrow range of words

Form-building affixes (=inflectional) are used to build up forms of words. They are

wider in employment.

E.g. -ed covers the whole class of regular verbs.

Prefixes in English are NEVER used to build up forms of words.

**Basic notions of morphology: the morpheme, the allomorph, the word-form, the word. Differences between form-building and word-building affixes.**

Ps S = parts of speech; Ms = morphemes; W Fs = word forms; Mg = meaning; S = sentence; L = language;

Lgs = linguistics

Morphology is a part of grammar which deals with the forms of words.

Morphological units.

Morphemes are smallest indivisible meaningful gr units. In speech morphemes are often represented in one of the possible variants (called allomorphs). Allomorphs can be:

1.phonological ( morphemes of plurality – s: s/z/iz )

2.morphological (mouse – mice)

Their material form in speech depends on the phonetic environment.

Ms are divided into roots (lexical meaning of w) and affixes : prefixes and suffixes. They can be derivational (word-building) and inflectional (form-building).

The scale of application of derivational affixes is limited. The sphere of application of inflectional affixes is broad.

Morpheme (form-building) may be defined as an element of a W which signals the kind of grammatical Mg which is attached to the W by the presence of this element. The M itself has a purely relational gr-l Mg which is revealed only by contrast with some other M. or W F which exposes a contrastive gram-l Mg.

“ a boy” - noun in singular which ends with a zero M is opposed to the noun “ boys” where the presence of the suffixes- signals the opposite gr-l Mg of plurality.

M – is a marker of some gr-l category.

The W F may be equal to a W, but at any rate it makes an isolated unit. It is never part of a W. A W F is a carrier of gr info. Speaks – indicates the 3d person Sg. We can establish this fact only because there exist other Ws of the same verb which are devoid of this gr-l Mg. We can oppose speaks to spoke.

The W. When we discuss the W in morphology we are interested in the following. The first question concerns the possible paradigms that W can have in keeping with the gr-l categories it possesses. Secondly, discussing the W in morphology we are to place it as a certain part of speech.

**Grammatical structure of the L. Grammatical meaning and grammatical form. Grammatical category.**

GRAMMATICAL STRUCTURE

In speech words are arranged into sentences, which further become utterances. There are special means to build up sentences. In English there *are*4 means that form the grammatical structure of any sentence:

**Word-change**

*see - saw - seen; read - reads*

**Word-order**

*The dog bit the man.*- *The man bit the dog.*

**3. Function words:**auxiliary verbs, articles, prepositions

*They live in/outside London*

*I bought/have bought a book.*

**4. Intonation**

*They are idiots?*

=>the **system of these 4 means, which signal relations between words**

**in a sentence, forms the *grammatical structure*of the language.**

**GRAMMATICAL MEANING + GRAMMATICAL FORM**

In every sentence every word has a certain lexical meaning. We can also

say that every word has some more general meaning.

For example:

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| set1 | set 2 |
| *kiss – kisses* *boyfriend - boyfriends partner - partners* | *kisses – kissed* *touches - touched holds - held* |

The words in both groups have different lexical meaning. But in **set**1 the meaning of oneness is opposed to the meaning of plurality.

In **set**2 the meaning of the 3d person *Sq*in the present tense is opposed to the meaning of the past tense possibly in the same person.

=> **Such general abstract meanings are called *grammatical.* The forms that express them *are grammatical forms (****they*are

exponents of grammatical meaning).

GRAMMATICAL CATEGORY (*GC)*

There is no uniform opinion as to how this notion should be universally described, because it is hard to say what units of L represent exponents of grammatical categories.

**Characteristics of *GC:***

*1.The notion of GC applies to the plane of content (план содержания) of morphological paradigmatic units. (= понятие ГК узко морфологическое, характеризует набор грамматических форм одного слова)*

*2.The general notion for any GC is grammatical meaning.*

*3.GCs do not nominate things but express relations.*

*For example: the category of number is studied in terms of singular*

*forms as opposed to plural forms:*

*Sg = oneness vs PI = more than oneness*

*4.GCs of a L represent universal categories of human thinking.*

*5.GCs are not uniform. They differ in accordance with the part of speech and the possible meanings.*

*6.Any GC is a unity of form and meaning.*

*PARTS OF SPEECH*

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**Parts of speech are lexical-grammatical word classes characterized by a general abstract grammatical meaning expressed in certain grammatical markers.**It means that within certain classes of words certain grammatical features are common to all words of the class.

■ Functionally all parts of speech fall into two large groups: notional words and functional (form) words.

1. **Notional.**There are 6 notional parts of speech, 4 are the main ones: noun, verb, adjective, adverb.

They cover 93% of the English lexicon. They fill all the main positions in the sentence. These words are very often called autonomous, autosemantic, content words - means they possess an independent notional meaning. Plus usually grammarians refer pronouns and numerals to notional ps of sp.

Notional words are characterized by a clear-cut lexical meaning plus they also have a distinct gr meaning. They can perform various syntactic functions.

2.**Functional.**Other parts of sp serve as connectors between the main ones. They are often called syn-semantic, syntagmatic words. These dependent words are prepositions and conjunctions. Prepositions act within one clause, conjunctions may connect words, clauses, separate sentences.

So function words express relations but they never denote objects and notions. However, the relations they denote are not purely formal, because each preposition and conjunction has a definite lexical meaning.

- Their use is sometimes obligatory: *depend on.*

- They are never used alone in the sentence (without notional words). Sentences containing only notional words are possible: *Mary came home late last night.*

*-*The number of FWs is limited (150). They occur quite frequently.

**٧The interjection**clearly falls out of the system. Semantically they express emotions, the attitude of the speaker to the special situation. They are unpredictable and difficult to define. Functionally it's difficult to distinguish them from Ws and WCs.

Interjections are imitation of sounds, of nature, reflections of surprise, indignation. Sometimes

interjections draw from notional words: well, my.

The number of these elements is limited. Grammarians suggest terming them as emotional

elements, discourse particles, without specifying which part of speech they belong to.

*٧*In general now there is a tendency to enlarge the traditional number of parts of speech by including some new items, for example: **Words of the category of state:***alive, ajar, asleep.*These words are similar to adjectives which can express states and function as predicatives. Grammarians say that this is a subclass of adjectives limited to the predicative function.

**٧Pronouns**- are they a different part of speech?

NO: - Sweet, Sherba

classical school

but - Jesperson: can't be applied to all WCs

YES: Are they notional of functional?

Notional: classical school, functional: present day.Barhudarov: structural Ws.

**■ Principles of classification.**The modern classification is traced back to ancient Greece.

Though criticized, it's natural and easy to remember. Principles:

1.***Semantic.***Has been criticized a lot. Jesperson: Traditional grammar says that by means of the verb something is said about sth/sb. But! *"You 're a scoundret" -*it's the words scoundrel that says sth about sb. Using this principle we should treat this word as a verb!

Nouns denote things, objects.

Verbs - action, state

Adjectives- qualities, properties

But! Words as *'action', 'flight'*denote actions. *Whiteness*denotes quality.

So this principle alone is not reliable.

*2.****Formal approach.***The form of a word. In this case the noun should be defined as a word which has a plural -s or in the possessive case 's. But then the invariable parts of sp should be classed together in a strange group: *must, for, sheep.*

One of the famous classifications was worked out within this approach (H. Sweet). He was the 1st grammarian who represented the facts of English beyond the framework of Latin grammar.

*1) Declinable:*

*-*noun-words: infinitives& gerunds, noun numerals, nouns proper, noun pronouns adjective-words: adjectives proper, adjective pronouns, adjective numerals, participles

- verbs: verbs proper, verbals.

2) *Indeclinable:*adverbs, prepositions, conjunctions, interjections.

The principles of Sweet's classification are not unified. This happened because Sweet worked under the strong influence of the rules of classical grammar. He starts from form, taking into consideration the ability of words to have inflexions. That's the origin of his division, but it's easy to notice that adverbs and numerals are indeclinable and pronouns have few formal exponents. So Sweet declares his own basic principle.

*٧***Russian Soviet Linguistic School.**Originally the classification developed by this school aimed at describing the Russian language. But it turned out that the principles of this classification appeared universal - can be applied to all European languages.

1.***Semantic****.*The general meaning of a part of speech doesn't coincide with individual lexical and grammatical meanings of words which belong to it but the general meaning is closely connected with these meanings.

The general meaning of a part of speech is called **lexical-grammatical.**

# The general meaning of a noun is that of *substantivity.*Verbs denote actions or states and taken together denote processes.

**2.*****Morphological***a)Morphological categories. Each part of speech possesses some morphological categories which are not to be found in any other part of speech.

# Nouns have number and case. Verb is characterized by several grammatical categories. This principle can be applied to the parts of speech which have certain grammatical categories and which have special form-building means of expressing such categories.

b) Word-building affixes. Certain word-building affixes are typical of this or that part of speech only. # Nouns: *-dom-, -ness, -ion.*

But! Only few English words contain derivational affixes which help to list them as this or that aprt of speech. Most word-building affixes in modern English are ambiguous. They can be found in several parts of speech at a time. # *ly -friendly - adj, daily - noun, kindly - adverb, etc*

**3***.****Syntactic.***

a) We are to consider the syntactic role of a word in a sentence. Different functions of a sentence are typical of different parts of speech.

b) The combinability of words. # Nouns can combine with articles, prepositions, adjectives.

**4. Functional**A part of speech is described as a lexical-grammatical field which has a core and a periphery.

**4. Princpls of the part of speech classsification. Notional & funct-l Ws. proN, interject, statives.**

POS – lexico-grammatical word classes which are characterized by a general abstract lexical meaning as well as general abstract grammatical meaning expressed by certain grammatical markers. Within one and the same class there are certain grammatical features common to all the words of this class. POS present a mixed lex-l & Gr-l phenomena (words of one part of speech have the same grammatical features).

Principles of classification are very unspecified.

Different amounts of words represent this or that part of speech. The greatest amount – nouns and verbs – because in speech they become the subject and predicate, and the structure of a sentence represents the peculiarity of human thinking.

The noun is subjected to inflections (изменение формы слова; окончание, флексия).

The verb is subjected to conjugation (спряжение).

In the sentence they seem to be opposed. The subject represents the known information; the verb introduses new information.

**Functionally**, all parts of speech fall onto two groups:

Notional (6) and Structural (Functional).

Notional parts of speech: 4 main:

Noun, verb, adj, adv – 93 % of the Eng vocabulary.

They possess an independentvnotional meaning of their own.

+numarals, pronouns.

Structural (Functional) parts of speech:

Connections between the main ones. Syntagmatic. They don’t have their own sense. They perform the function of linkage.

Prepositions (act within one clause), conjunctions (unite words, clauses, separate sentences).

Express relations but never denote objects or notions.

Dividing parts of speech into notional and functional, we can say that notional words are characterized by distinct, clear cut lexical meaning. They can perform different syntactic functions in sentences. Functional words have a less distinct lexical meaning, they don’t perform any syntactic functions.They only help express relations. Their use is someties obligatory. Functional words are not used in sentences independently. The number of functional words in sentences is highly limited (150).

The ninths part of speech is **injection**. The injection falls out of the system of parts of speech. It represents a peculiar phenomenon because:

1) injections express emotions

2) the form of injections is unpredictable

3) some of injections are similar to word combinations (My God!)

4) phonetically, they are sounds of surprise etc. Some of them are pause-fillers

5) many injections draw from notional words which usually accuire a different meaning in the emotive function (“well” – used to be a n adv.; “my” – a pronoun).

6) some injections are absolutely indistinct.

**There are some debatable questions**:

1) words of category of state (awake, ajar)

Semantically they express state, but some grammatitians argue that they should be grouped separately. Adj-s always express state.

2) some grammatitians suggest that we should treat modal words as a separate part of speech (certainly, possibly). In fact, they appear to be functionally and structurally close to adverbs; though they have certain peculiar positional characteristis.

3) particles (only, merely).

By nature, they seem to be modifiers. If we analize their use in actual speech, we will see that they are a subclass of limiting adv-s.

4) articles (см. про существительные)

Princilpes of classification of words into parts of speech remain unspecified. Many grammatitians try to present the system of parts of speech in which they tried not to imitate the Greek classification. These attempts were productive with languages which were different from Greek. These attempts can be distributed among known approaches of language description.

**I. Semantic approach**

The noun denotes objects. The verb denotes actions. It is not satisfactory. Jespreson: traditional grammar says that by means of the verb some thing is said about sth or sb but :(“You are a scounderl”) – it is the noun “scoundrel” that says sth about sb. →”scounderl” – verb. The noun denotes object.

**Functional criterion.**

Some grammatitians believe that the only criterion is functional. So words can only be devided into parts of speech depending on their ability to take inflections. →

Noun – the word that takes the plural inflection “**-s**”, the inflaction “**’s**” in the genitive case. Among words we will have to classify different invariable parts of speech (than, for, etc).

One classification was worked out within this approach.

H.Sweet worked out a classification in which he tried to stick to the form of words. Besides, he tried to break from the traditions of classical grammar. He claimed that he represented the facts the way they really existed. Declinable and indeclinable words.

Declinable words: (склоняемые)

1) nouns → n-pronouns, n-numerals, infinitives; gerunds, noun proper.

2) adjectives → adj-proper, adj-pronouns, adj-numerals; participles

3) verbs → finite forms; verbals.

Indeclinable words(несклоняемые)

Adv., prepositions, conjunctions, interjections.

The principles were inconsistent. He started from form (the ability of a word to take inflection). But adj and numerals are indeclinable. Pronouns have few formal exponents. So he violates his basic principles here. He made an attempt to show the double nature of verbals. By him, verbals get into different groups depending on their syntactic features. With numerals and pronouns, he also considered their positions in word-combinations. So words get into different morphological clases depending on their combinability. His classification presents a mixture of formal and meaningful features.

It is hardly possible to creat an idea of an independent word classification

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This idea found its way into grammar through a famous Danish grammatitian Otto Jespreson. It is necessary to study the morphological characteristics of words as well as their syntactic position (abilities). He produced **the third rank theory**. It was based on mutual relations of words in sentences. When he illustrated his theory, he used the following patterns:

1) an extremely hot weather

2) a furiously barking dog

Describing relations between the words that:

“weather”, “dog” – should be called primary word

“hot”, ”barking” – secondary word

“extremely”, “furiously” – tertiary word.

He considered the morphological features of Eng words under the general title of syntax. But this theory was new at that time, and it was widely employed by the scholars of his school. This theory doesn’t cover the relations of all the main word classes. This theory left out the most important part of speech – the verb. His idea that words should be used in sentences was so popular, that some grammatitians tried to work out a p.of sp. classification based on syntactic criterion only – representatives of American school of describing linguists (Charles Freeze).

To classify words it is not enough to rely on the description of elements in the sintagmatic chain. Meaning is to be taken into consideration. But his understanding of meaning is not traditional.

Structural meaning

~The man gave the boy the money.

It conveys the following information: who preformed a certain action. How many men were involved in the action. The time of the action. See whether the situation is presented as a fact or as sth desirable. Sth state, required, desired. All this information (mostly grammatical) doesn’t coincide with the lexical information; it makes the structural meaning of the sentence.

He states that no sentence can be acceptable if it lacks either structural or lexical meaning. Then he claims that grammar is a system of devices that signals structural meanings. Formal devices – that can be given to different word-groups. His starting point is purely formal. He aims at analyzing formal exponent of grammar. He takes into account ordering of elements in syntagmatic chains. He declared that a part of speech is a functional pattern. To illustrate the patterns he introduced the minimal free utterance test frames.

a) the concert was good (always)

b) the clerk remembered the tax (suddenly)

c) the team went there.

Each word within the frames represents a particular slot (выемка, щель). All words that could fill the same slot as with no change of structural slot as with no change of structural meaning – class I words. In frames b) and c)

Class I words are identified by means of substitution. “Clerk” – names of presons. He also introduced a so-called adjective frame for the plural form of the noun.

~The concerts were good.

The idea of substantivation was further applied to the other word in the frames and thus he signaled out class II words (remembered).

Went + class III words – there

Good + class IV words – always.

He never provided any differences. He simply enumerated words belonging to this and that class. He never included other words in his frames. Instead of describing these words, he introduced the term “function words”, and grouped them into 15 groups, and ascribed the leters to them.

Group A (= marker of class I words) included determiners which can have the position of the definite article in frame a) (no, both, few, John’s, most, one). Viewed traditionally, determiners are represented by pronouns, adj, numerals, nouns in the possessive case.

Group B (= markers of class II words) is formed by the substitutes in the adjusted frame. ~The concert may be good. (must, should, come, got).

Group C (not)

Group D comprises words we can use instead of “very”.

~The concert was very good.

His grouping of functional words appeared as a result of using the semantic principle. Freeze claims that functional words must be learnt separately as peculiar signs that signal particular structure means. Among finctional words there are modal verbs, auxiliary words, modal verbs – are treated as separate words viewed apart from class words. He also grouped modal verbs and auxiliary verbs in groups. If it is so, we cannot divide verb forms into synthetic, analytical. Synthetic and analytical forms show different grammatical categiries (tense – synthetic; aspect - analytical).

Freeze’s classification is inconsistent. It is claimed to be fomal but in many cases he relies on meaning. His classification is based on 2 principles:

1) He analyses functioning of words of the 4 major classes. He studies their meaning including them into functional words.

2) His classification never explains the grammatical difference between classes of forms, functional groups, notional goups.

**The grammatical school of Russian Soviet linguists** has made a serious input in the problem of p.of sp. classification. All the known principles have been taken into consideration, and put in a reliable system. To divide words into p-s of sp., 3 ideas are to be applied to a word:

1) semantically, lexico-grammatical meaning of a word is to be considered.

Taking into accout that the lexico-grammatical meanings are different but are closely connected. Thus words known as nouns show signs of substantivity. Verbs denote actions and state which are different aspects of the process.

2) The morphological principle is described as the aspect of the formal view of grammatical phemonena. It has 2 sub-principles:

a) describing a word, we are to consider its morphological categories. Each p.of sp. possesses certain morphological categories which are not found in other p.pf sp. This principle is applied to words that have certain form-building means to signal the presence of categories (changeable words).

b) word-building affixes. There are affixes typical of this or that p.of sp.

Of the 2 sub-principles, the first is more important because most word-building affixes are ambiguous (двусмысленный). (friendly, homely, kindly, safely, possibly, merely)

3) Syntactic principle.

a) we rely on the syntactic role of a word in a sentence

b) we consider the syntactic description of words in phrases, sentences.

Semantic principle: each class (the N, V, Adj) has a unified abstr m-ng): N denote substances, V – process, act; Adv – properties of act; Adj – prop-s of substances, qualities.

Though POS posess Gr m-ng and material shape in language they form an independent system and may contact in speech. Many parts of speech have their own special sets of morphological categories and form-building morphemes that signal those categories (grammatical paradigme).

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**The status**

The ground is that the Article isn't inflected (e/g in German Article is a word).Some Grammarians speak of the morphemic character of the Eng Article. By them, the Article is a structural element building morphemes. The article can change its position in reference to a Noun (e/g a dog; a black dog; a lovely black dog) The A can be substituted by other Ws (the dog = this/ my dog) => such features aren't characteristic of the morphemes. Most linguists say that *Article is a separate word.*

Several points of view: Place Article among other Ps of speech:

1. Classical Eng Grammar - Article = adj or more often a pronoun. It reminds of a pronoun b/c "the" has originated from the Old Eng. Pronoun "se"

2. The grammarian Kruisinga include indef A - indefinite pronoun, definite - demonstrative pronoun

3. Jesperson & Sweet Article = pronoun

4. Curme A = pronominal attribute

5. Structural Gr Article = function W (determiners)

6. Soviet Linguists A= functional P of Sp

**The number of Articles**

The older Grammatical Tradition spoke about 2 As. BUT: e.g Language is a means of communication, we use the term ZERO ARTICLE. The idea of a zero article originates from the notion "zero morpheme".

Modem Eng = 3 Articles ( Бархударов, Штеллинг)

The notion of a zero morpheme has been applied to the Article on the grounds that, when there's no Ab4 a noun- reminds of the absence of inflexion in such forms as cat-cats. This point of view is opposed by some Grammarians. They argue that we can speak about a zero Art if we treat the A as a morpheme. Meaningful absence of the Article - significant meaningful absence of the article. But the omition of the A but this term describes a different phenomenon typical of newspapers, acts, etc. (winner gets prize)

**Functions of the Article**

Whether the Article has meanings or functions?

Barhudarov => The M of the A is highly abstract, it's more proper to speak about functions. Different *spheres of Grammar*- different functions

• Morphologically *-*to serve as the formal indicator of a Noun. Ильиш: to indicate substantivity. The presence of the A signals that what follows is a noun or what has acquired some nominal characteristics. (e/g black - a black ( 1 человек), the black (раса)

• From the syntactic point of view - a) to separate the noun phrase from other members of the sentence. What stands btw the A and the noun is one and the same member of the sentence( e/g I bought a think English book)

b) to connect different Sentences

e/g We saw a man. The man was approaching us.

• Semantic role consists in relating a given utterance to a given speech situation. (=actualization). Ws denote many things, they have different meanings but when speaking, people choose one aspect of the thing.

\* Barmina, Verkhovskaya "The Eng Article": A has category of definiiteness / indefmiteness A = the determiner of the N or a noun-phrase. **Determiners=**formal means of expressing this category. This category presents the object as known/unknown, general/individual, identifiable/ non-identifiable. In Eng article is the main means of expressing this category, besides

*possessive, demonstrative, indefinite pronouns, Ws denoting place,. numerals and some others.*

**5. The art (A), № of A, def & indef A.**

The noun is usually preceded by the A.

Problems:

~the number of As; ~the status of the A; ~meanings/functions

**The status of the A in modern Eng. 2 aspect of the question:**

1) Is the A a morpheme or is it a separate word?

If we compare Eng to German→in German the A is a word, it has different forms, each form will find reflection of the categories of gender, number and case. Every form of the A in German contains the root morpheme and the inflexion morpheme.

Some grammarians mentioned morphemic character of the Eng A. They term the Eng A a structural element of the noun. They say that the indefinite A with the noun “cat” signals singularity (as the morpheme “s”[cats] signals pluraliry). The A can change its position in reference to the noun (a cat, a blafck cat, a lovely black cat). A-s can be substituted by other words (the cat→this cat, my cat). Such features are not characteristic of morphemes → most Eng grammarians treat the A as a separate word.

2) If the A is a separate word, is it a separate p.of sp. or is it not such? If not, the A is to be described among other p-s of sp.

Class-cal Eng grammars treat the A is an Adj; or more often as a pronoun. The idea that the A is sort of a pronoun originates from the fact that in Old Eng, the As were derived from pronouns. This is true only of “the” (se→the).

Круизинга includes “a” among the indefinite pronouns and “the” – among the demonstrative pronouns.

Jesperson and Sweet also treat As as pronouns.

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The cat of № is presented by the opposition sing (grammatically unmarked) & pl (grammatically marked by the morphemes of plurality). The 2 opposed forms denote whether the n denotes one object or more than 1 object. The forms show whether we deal with the grammatical meaning of oneness or more than oneness.Formally, the category of number is expressed by 2 morphemes:

1) the zero morpheme (=the morpheme of singularity)

2) the morpheme of plurality

is represented by a number of variants. The preoductive allomorph here is the morpheme “-s” in its variants:[s], [z], [iz] and the non-productive morphemes “-en” (oxen) and some other variants.

Regular formation of PL: base+-s [s], [z], [iz] (*boy-s).* irregular.form-n: **-en** (*oxen*); zero (*deer, fish*); alternates of the base *(man-men*); phonemic alteration of the bs (*wife-wives*); borrowd alteratons: *a/ae, on/a*.

!!the variant [z] of the morpheme “-s” has the highest frequency of occurrence, as it is found after all phonemes except sibilants (свистящие) and voiceless consonants.

**The meaning of the category of number**.

In many grammars it is defined as oneness – more than oneness. However, not all grammarians find the definition convincive.

The meaning of the plural form is more than oneness. But a singular form not always denote one object.

~Silence fell in the room.

~He doesn’t like tea.

~The phone was invented by Alexander Bel*.*

The nouns are used in the sg., but they don’t have the m-ng of 1ness, as they don’t convey the idea of 1 object. They denote abstract notions that can’t be counted. Thus they essentially are uncountable. Þ m-ng opposite to pl-tyÞ **non-pl-ty (**Бархударов**)**.

Бархударов: non-plurality as a categorical meaning includes several meanings:

1) oneness proper (I saw this film. Give me a pen.)

2) uncountability (see: “silence”, “tea”, “telephone”.)

3) generalization (the lion lives in Africa.)

The m-ng of the unmarked Sg form of the opp-n which represents the cat of № is broader and less definite than the meaning of the marked form. By Бархударов, it is to be defined in negative terms as opposite to the m-ng of the markd form. **There are some Ns standing apart from the point of view of the category of №**, they have 1 f: sg/pl® Ns of the Tantum group. The singularia tantum nouns (*info, advice, hair*), pl(*clothes, scisors*). Such nouns denote notions which are outside the meaning of the c. of №. They don’t convey any idea of number as they cannot reflect any relations of objective reality.The reference of different Ns to either group is oppotional. In various languages their equivalents can get into the opposite tantum group (*outskirts – окраина, советы – advice*). The reason for the existence of Tantum groups is one of the characteristic features of a language. The idea is that within a grammatical category, any noun must have number and have a morpheme of number. Thus, even those nouns whose meaning contradicts the idea of countability is referred to one of the form classes within the category. even if their m-ng contradicts the idea/m-ng of countability.

**8. The category of case of nouns (Ns). The meanings of the common and the genitive case. Different points of view on the number of cases in ModernEnglish.**

Case = the form of a N which shows the relations of this N to other Ws in a sentence. Case helps to define the syntactic function of a W in a sentence. In English case is a morphological category, for it is represented by 2 different forms of a noun: 2 cases.

1) the common case (the form is unmarked)

2) the possessive case (genitive) (marked by *‘****s****.*In speech - phonologicaliy conditioned aliomorphs)

In plural nouns the case morpheme & the morpheme of number often coincide. The presence of the genitive case is shown by **‘**only (boys').

Common case (CC): the meaning is broad, shows that this or that N is not genitive; can be used in any syntactic f-n in a sentence. Frequent use of Ns in *CC*(98% of ail Ns).

Genitive case (GC):

1. Mainly applied to Ns denoting animate objects. BUT: often used with Ns denoting measure/space *{a year's absence)*

2. Ns in GC are mainly used as attributes to other Ns. Can be used as subject *{John's is a nice car).*

**NB** Animate objects: can be called 'he/she' and referring to them we. can use 'who'. BUT: *a car, a ship -*can be replaced by 'he/she', but no 'who'.

Ns which can be substituted only by 'it', BUT can form GC *{the committee's report).*The meaning of GC is difficult to define. Several types (transformational method):

|  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- |
| meaning | Example | Analysis |
| 1. possessive genitive | John's car My friend's room | key-W - 'to have' (John has a car). Most frequent M |
| 2. subjective genitive | the doctor's advice Mary's beauty | = the doctor advised Mary is beautiful |
| 3. objective genitive | John's surprise The man's release | 1) John was surprised The man was released 2) sb surprised John sb released the man |
| 4. adverbial genitive | Two hours' work A month's absence | Sb worked for 2 hours Sb was absent for a month |
| 5. equation genitive | A mile's distance An arm's length | Distance is a mile Length is an arm |
| 6. genitive of destination | Children's books Ladies' dresses | Books are for children Dresses are for ladies |

Other meanings of GC are difficult to define and may be individual in each case *{yesterday's paper, father's generation, Beethoven's symphony).*

The number of cases in modern English:

**Or3?**

*3-case system:*in Old English - a universal 3-case system for Ns and proNs

*(nominative:*boy, he: *genitive:*boy's, his; *objective:*boy, him)

BUT: the gr sys of English has changed a lot, if proNs retained their 3-case sys, not

necessarily Ns have it. The form 'his' can hardly be considered to be a case form of a

personal proN.

Curm: **case**= **a form of a N which shows its syntactic function in the S.**Includes here certain relations which are shown by prepositions/context/position in the S. Various syntactic functions of a N. Uses old English: there syntactic functions were signalled by

inflections, now they’ve disappeared – not clear why the position of a N should be regarded as its case form. Confuses morphological and syntactic factors as well as facts of modern and old English .

Проф. Воронцова; non-traditional point of view on the number of cases of N - **the**

**category of case doesn't exist; ‘s**- "a formant s" (формант).

Reasons:

1.the use of **`s** is not obligatory/ can be substituted by an of-prase. In Russian inflections *are*obligatory,

2.the formant **`s** can be added to a limited number of Ns, mainly denoting living beings. In Russian all Ns have case inflections.

3.is not added to plural Ns ending in -s

4. **`s** can be added to Ns and some adverbs (yesterday's paper), but adverbs in English are indeclinable

5.**`s** can be used with 'group possessives' (Peter and Paul's father)

All this makes **`s** different from real case inflections, reminds rather of a function W, very similar to preposition (expresses a certain type of gram relations) but placed after the W and not before = postposition (послелог). Смирницкий не согласен с этой умной женщиной:

1. **`s** is mainly added to nouns => a case inflection

2. in group genitives words are so closely connected that they can be treated as compound Ns

3. **`s** can hardly be called a word at all, because it consists of 1 consonant. It can be assimilated in speech. Assimilation is typical of morphemes.

Analytical cases

Regular use of certain prepositions to express case relations:

To go to London

To arrive in London

To leave for London

BUT there are no analytical cases:

1) case is a morphological category and prepositional phrases belong to the sphere of syntax

2) the amount of meanings expressed by prepositions and the meanings of cases do not coincide completely

3) combinations of nouns and various prepositions are too numerous to be interpreted as case forms, so the number of cases becomes practically unlimited.

Kerm → a pronominal attribute.

Representatives of structural grammar (Freeze) treated the A among the structural words called the determiners.

Russian linguists treated the A as a functional p.of sp. because different A-s have specific meanings and functions.

**The number of Eng A-s**

The older grammatical tradition spoke of 2 A-s(the, a). But practical use of language showa that in speech nouns can be used in 3 different ways:

~(1)Language is a means of communication.

~(2)Everone ahould learn a foreign language.

~(3)She speaks English. Do you know the langage?

In the 3 cases the word “language” has different meanings:

**(1) the zero A**.

This term was introduced by Смирницкий and Штелинг.

→the, a, 0.

The idea of the zero article originates from the notion of the zero morpheme. Sometimes the absence of the grammatical marker is meaningful, and it doesn’t necessarily happen in the analytical language (руки, рук – no case marker). We can speak about zero A-s if we accept the point of view that an A is a morpheme. Ильишь argues that we can’t stick to this term for it’s essentially incorrect. We can prove it easily that an A is a word, and no word can be a zero. He proposes to interprete the phenomenon of the absence of the A as meaningful, and he introduces another terminological interpretation – significant meaningful absence of the article. He also notes that such cases are very different from the cases when the A is omitted. Omition of the A is a stylistic phenomenon found in newspapers, telegrams, advertisments, printing.

A gr cat-ry which charact-zes the rel-ns betw the doer & the obj of the act-n expr-ed by the f of the predicate V. The cat of Vc is represented as an opp-n of forms (give-AV & be givenPV). Some f-s of AVce find no parallel in the PV (F. Cont, Pr/P Perf Cont, F.Perf Cont). In some cases cause of the lex-l character of the V the subj of active constr can’t be regarded as the doer of the act: 1) *he hurt his leg, he lost his father*. We come across some disagreement betw the gr f of theV & its lex m-ng. It turns out that the subj in these s-ces is the sufferer of the act & not the doer. They’r treated as activ constr only due to the f of the V. 2) *The concert began, the door opened*. The V’s used in the AVce, it denotes an act which goes on in the subj itself. This m-ng of the V is calld middle 3) *Jon shaved, the boy washed*. The subj of theact is at the same time the objÞ reflective m-ng 4)*they kissed*. The subj is the obj of the act, but here the references of the subj & obj performing the same act r diff. The form of the subj’s pl. The reciprocal (взаимн)m-me Cat-ry is a unity of f & m-ng. In the majority of cases the subj of the pass (P) constr is the obj of the s-ce. Бархуд-в ®term non-pass to define the m-ng of the AVce. types of passive const-s. 1) **the direct P.** the subj here is the direct obj in the Aconstr: *coal is used for making goods.* But there’r restrictnz.

2) **the Indirect P.** The indirect obj is to become a subj (*he was offered a new job.* the IP is highly restricted. It’s freely used with the V to give (*give an opportunity, a chance) + offer, show, promise*. 3) **the prep-nal P**. A prep-l obj of a V becomes a subj of a P constr. Some restr-ns: this constr is mostly found with Vs of every day use(*speak, talk, look, laugh + take care over, lose sight of*). But never with Vs which take 2 obj (direct & prep-nal) (*explain, dictate, declare, announce, dedicate: the rule was explained to us*) 4) **The adverbal P.** the subj corresponds to the adv.modifier in the A constr. Only 2 s-ces in this type & they’r restr-ed to literary style (*the house wasn’t lived in, the bad wasn’t slept in*). **Why P is so frequent.** Using it we have a poss-ty to change the W-order in a s-ce & place the most important info in the end-poss-n (*the boy wrote a letter* (a new obj), *the letta was written by the boy*). But in the majority of En s-ces the doer of the act is not mentioned cause the doer is often not known & can’t be stated (*the house was broken*) (the doer is self-evident)./ *He was elected MP* – when the *by*-phr is absent it’s possbl to shift the attention of the listener to oth parts of the s-ce./ *The letta was delivered in time.* In En the № of Vs which can take a direct obj is very large & the use of the dir pattern is practically unlimited.

**11. The category of Aspect. The meaning of common and continuous aspect. Lexical and grammatical expression of aspect *in*English**

Aspect is a grammatical category which characterizes the way in which the action

expressed by the verb is carried out. In Russian- соверш\несовершенный вид

The imperfect aspect expresses actions without indicating a limit beyond which the action

cannot continue.

Я читал.

The perfect aspect denoted actions which are limited in their duration.

Я прочитал.

In Russian aspect is a gr. Category because it has a special meaning and a special form to

express the meaning, we often employ suffixes and prefixes.

Прыгать \ прыгнуть

In English grammarians of the past didn't find aspective distinctions in the English verb.

They rather spoke of the 4 groups of tenses, These classifications are still found in

English. Nevertheless the majority of grammarians believe that English verb has the

category of aspect.

Aspect can be expressed lexically and grammatically.

1. Aspect can be expressed by the lexical character of the verb.

VERBS

Terminative

Durative

Imply a *limit*beyond which the action cannot go An action can continue indefinitely

To love to catch

To hate to nod

to jump

*2.*The category of aspect here isn't expressed formally and the meaning becomes clear from *the*context. It's revealed through the opposition of 2 forms. Common aspect as opposed to continuous aspect.

Grammarians debate the number of aspects and the inventory of aspect forms. In common

linguistics the most common point of view - 2 aspects - progressive and perfective.

Joose: there exists temporary aspect and generic aspect, the form of the continuous aspect

is marked - the discontinuous morpheme to be + ing is employed.

Most grammarians agree that the difference between the continuous and common aspect

form is not temporal.

E.g, He speaks English. He was speaking English.

He is speaking English. He spoke English

Describing the aspective distinction we should mention that the continuous aspect has a specialized meaning. It is used to indicate incomplete actions which are in progress at the moment or at the certain period of time. E.g. He was studying English at 5 o'clock yesterday. The common aspect describes events in a general way.

To prove that the context is of importance we should sum up the basic meanings of the common aspective forms. They may denote:

- momentary actions

E.g. She dropped the plane.

- recurrent actions

E.g. I get up at 7 o'clock.

- Actions occupying a long period of time.

E.g. He studied there for 5 years.

- actions of unlimited duration

E.g. The Earth goes round the sun.

There's no direct correspondence between Russian aspect and the English *Aspect(A)-*a gr. cat-ry, characterizes the way in which the actionexpressed by the pred-te v is carried out. Russian aspects:perfective и inperfective. A=вид (я читал-я прочитал). In the Rus. l-ge A is a gr. cat-ry, opp-tion of v f-s, in which peculiar suffixes&prefixes ( делать-сделать). In Eng the situation is complicated. Ling-sts still have no uniform opinion concerning the status, the number of A-s&the inventory of f-s. Gram-ns of the avoided A&spoke about Ind, Cont, Perf, Perf. Cont tenses(T). Now eng V has the gr. Cat-ry of A &A can be expressed in 2 ways: 1)**Lexically:** We speak about the lex. character of the v. Eng.v-s can be ***terminative*** (imply a limit beyond which an action can’t continue (to nod, to jump)&***non-terminat***.-durative(not imply any limit of that kind (to live). Polysemantic v-s can be termin. in 1 m-g,& non-termin. in another (to see-видеть, увидеть). The.distinction b/n dur & term is purely lex-l m-g is clear fr the context. 2)**Gramat-ly**: A is expressed in opp-tion of Cont&Common A f-s. Foreign ling-ts say 2 A Progressive&Perfective A . Martin Joos :Generic& Temporary A. Cont is marked: marker is discontin-s morph ( to be+ ing). The diff-ce b/n Cont&non~ is not the temporal one. I take-I’m taking – time is the same - pr. Cont denotes an action: a)incomplete b)in progress at the mom under consideration. (E.g.We r taking up psychology this year). The common A describes an action in 1)a general way 2)a complete or in~ (I did my homework yesterday). Бархудар.:´’Common A f-s r to be termed negatively as non-Cont.’’ The exact m-g of Common A is determined by the context. M-gs: 1)a momentary action (She dropped the plate) 2)recurrent actions (I get up at 7 o’clock) 3)actions occupy a period of time (He lived in Moscow) 4)unlimited duration (The Volga flows into the Caspian sea) Ther’s no direct correspondence b/n the Rus&Eng. A.En Com A=Russian perfective & inperfec A. (The girl played играла the piano well. The girl played сыграла a waltz& everybody applauded.En cont A = Russian inperf A. But: The girl was playing играла the piano when I entered-Девушка играла, когда я вошел)

 **The category of phase. Various interpretations of the category of phase.**

The category of PHASE = ORDER = TIME CORRELATION

This category is built up by the opposition of PERFECT and NON-PERFECT

forms.

The term "phase" was suggested by Tregqer and Smith (they borrowed it from

the physical theory of electric circuit). => The opposed verbs in the "current

phase" and verbs in the "perfect phase":

1.A verb in the current phase denotes an action which is simultaneous with its effect (= in phase with its effect): *He came swiftly.*=> He was seen the moment he came.

2. A verb in the perfect phase denotes an action which is out of phase with its effect => the effect is delayed *and*our attention is focused on the result: *He has opened the book.*=> The action of opening is of limited duration *and*was complete in the past, but the effect is felt at the present.

**VARIOUS INTERPRETATIONS**

**Traditional Grammar**

Perfect forms were referred to *secondary tenses,*non-perfect - to *primary tenses.*

|  |  |
| --- | --- |
| primary tenses (absolute) | secondary tenses (relative) |
| They refer an action to a certain period in the past/ present/ future (secondary tenses do NOT). | They express priority to some time in the past/ future/ in the moment of speaking. |

**Some treat perfect forms as aspect forms**

• *Ильиш*=> The Future Perfect and the Past Perfect represent relative tenses because they express priority. But the Present Perfect is a special aspect = resultative.

• *Воронцова ->*calls the Present Perfect "transmissive aspect": it denotes a completed action which is connected with the present, thus expresses continuity between the past and the present.

**Смирницкий *&*Бархударов**

They call it "the category of time correlation", that is built up by the opposition of perfect and non-perfect forms.

• Perfect forms do NOT coincide with tense forms: *He came./He had come. ->*Time is the same (PAST).

• The difference is not aspective either: the form *"has been fucking"*'denotes the Continuous Aspect. If we admit that the perfect form is also *an*aspective form => *"has been fucking" shows*2 different aspects at a time. => нехоpошо получается.

=> The difference is that non-perfect forms denote actions which take/ took

place during a certain period, while perfect forms always denote actions which

are prior to some moment. Non-perfect forms denote non-priority.

Perfect forms of both aspects are opposed to non-perfect forms of both

aspects. **The cat-ry of Ph**-made up by opposition of Perf&non~ forms(f-s) which r char-sed by certain gr. m-gs. Tragger &Smith Use the term ”Ph” speak of the opp-ton of the current perf. Ph f-s . the term from physics . A verb in the current Ph denotes an action which is simultan. with its effect of the action(E.g.He came swiftly-The action is simultan with the effect.He was seen the mom he came) If the v in the Perf. Ph, the effect of the action is delayed. The perf Ph. removes our attention from the action &relocates it on the effect. E.g.He has opened the book. To open-is an action of limited duration, completed in the past& the effect of this action is fact in the present & temperarly delayed´the book is opened now´. There r 2 ??: 1)to what gr cat-ry the perf. Ph belong? 2)gr m-g of the Perf. f-s. 3 possibilities: 1)Some l-sts treat Perf.f-s within the framework of***tenses*** (t). Class. school :Primary t-s- non-perfect, refer an action to cert. moment (mom.) of time in the past,pr., the fut or to the mom. of speaking (sp-ng). Secondary-perfect forms,don’t refer actions to points of time but express priority to the point of time in the P., Pr or Fut. The Pr.Perf denotes an action connected with the pr. The Past perf –action prior to the mom in the past, Fut perf- prior to a certain time in fut. Perf forms – special aspects.Ильиш: P.Perf&theFut.Perf. can be treated as relative t-s as they express priority. Pr.Perf-special aspect-the resultative aspect. Voroncova: Perf. f-s- transmissive aspect. ´The m-g of a PrPerf. showsa completed action, connected with the Pr, we observe continuity b/n the Past&thePr.” 3)Смирницк. и Бархударов: Describing Perf f-s we should speak about the cat-ry ***of time correlation***-made up by the opp-tion of Perf&non~ f-s. This difference b/n perf & nonperf fs isn’t temporal, has nothing to do with the cat-ry of tense (took &had taken-both in the Past t), is not aspective either.(He has been doing it – he has done it)Pr perfect a spec aspect:1 sent-ence the form of predic.V contains 2 diff. aspects- it’s inlogical. Смирницк states that the diff-ce b/n Perf&non~ f-s is that non~ f-s denote actions which take or took place during a cert.mom or period of time, perf. f-s denote actions which r prior to a cert. mom. So non-perf f-s denote non-priority. Perf. f-s – priority. Non~ f-s of Cont.& common aspect r opposed to perf. f-s of Cont&common aspect. (to have been doing-to have been done, to be doing-to do). These opp-tions form a special gr cat-ry – the cat-ry of time correlation-was criticized by other ling-sts, they say there is a weak point-the Pr. Perf on 1 hand & the P&Fut. Perf on the other hand have differ. m-gs. They agree that the F&P. Perf indicate priority whereas the Pr.Perf besides priority to the mom of speech indicates some connection with it. Смирниц: The m-g of priority is nevertheless inherent in the Pr.Perf. It’s not the only case when a gr f. has addition. m-gs. The basic m-g is found in all the 3 Perf. f-s

 **The category of tense. The number of tenses in Modern English. The**

**Meaning of the present and the past tense. The problem of the future tense and**

**the future-in-the-past tense in Modern English.**

**Time vs Tense**

*Time*= a form of the existence of matter

*Tense*= gram. category which indicates the time of an action by means of the form of a

verb.

Main divisions of *time:*present, past, future. *Tense*divisions in different Ls are different.

**Number of tenses?**

In English: 2 tenses/3 tenses

The present tense

Actions that take place at the moment of speaking or occupy a prolonged period of time or timeless actions.

/ *hear a noise, I'm speaking English, We live in Moscow, The Volga flows into the Caspian sea*

By means of Present tense we can describe:

- Past=> historical/dramatic present: / *enter the room and who do you think I see?!*

*-*Future=>*I'm leaving next week*

*Structurally dependent use:*clauses of time, condition and concession; in certain object clauses present instead of future (I’ll *do what you say)*

=> meaning of the present tense is hard to define; it's better understood from the opposition with past (some grammarians prefer ''non-past' to 'present').

The past tense

Бархударов: denotes an action prior to the moment of speaking and not correlated to this moment.

The form is marked (marked member = phonologically conditioned allomorphs in regular forms: - ed => [t],[d],[id] and morphologically conditioned in irregular: *sing- sang)*

The future tense

Traditional grammar: 3-fold division of tenses *=>*the future tense is an analytical form which is made up of the *auxiliary verbs shall/will + the stem of the infinitive*(Смирницкий, Ильиш)

Arguments:

1. an analytical form is always some auxiliary verb (grammatical meaning) + main part (lexical meaning of the form).

2. shall&will originated from modal verbs but lost their modal meaning (prove: 'will' is freely used with the 1stperson sg & pl without modal colouring). Modal meanings -in some sentences (Will you join us? - Присоединяйтесь!; Who shall answer the phone -> duty).

3. shall/will still have some shade of modality; describing the form ‘*shall/will + infinitive'*sometimes speak about the modality of uncertainty => we can never be sure about the future, so uncertainty is always present in prospective utterances *(shall/will*+ *infinitive*can have the modalitv of futurity).

 Jespersen, Allen, Qwerk&компания, Бархударов => 2 tenses.

Бархударов: *shall/will*+ *infinitive*is not a tense form:

1. formal point of view: shall/will + infinitive = may/might + infinitive

modal verbs create free word-combinations + we can come across different forms of

infinitive:

*can/may be working/have worked/have been working,*etc

2. The modal meaning of *shall/will*+ *mf*is always present in the utterance (a future action is always treated as necessary, possible or desirable)

*3.shall/will*+ *'mf-*no discontinuous morpheme => doesn't answer requirements for an analytical form.

*4. shall/will*+ *inf=*not the only form to express a future action; there are

- certain verbs which refer to future (e.g. *intend)*

- several word-combinations *(to be going*to, to *be about to)*

*-*some verbs in their modal meaning

- present tenses

• Purely analytical forms are usually the only means of the language to convey a certain grammatical meaning (ср. с формой past)

5.*shall/will*like other modal verbs have their special past forms (should/would)

the combination *should/would +inf can*express both future and past (future-in-the-past), which hardly makes any sense in terms of a grammatical category (the principle of identification of any grammatical category demands that the forms of the category in normal use should be mutually exclusive. The category is constituted by the opposition of its forms, not by their co-position).

Блох believes that *shall/will + inf*belongs to a new specific temporal category -*the category of prospective time.*This category is built on the opposition of forms with s/)3///w///-marker and forms without this marker. As to the difference in meaning the forms with *sha/l/witl-marker*express an AFTER-ACTION whereas the forms without this marker express NON-AFTER-ACTION.

The prospective time is relative - the future action is relative to the present or the past time. If they are relative to the present time we speak of the form of the FUTURE. If they are relative to the past time we speak of the FUTURE-IN-THE-PAST.

 The category of tense. The number of tenses in Modern English. The meaning of the present and the past tense. The problem of the future tense and the future-in-the past tense in Modern English.

E=English; Ts=tenses; Mg=meaning

Speaking about TIME we can define it as a form of existence of matter, it is the way we think about the progression of existence.

Tense**-** is a grammatical category that indicates the time of the action expressed by the form of the verb.

The main divisions of the objective time are relatively clear: there exist the past, the present and the future.

Concerning the E Ts we know that there are different opinions on the number of Ts. The 2 most wide-spread points of view about the English tense-system: some linguists think that it is a 2-tense system and some – that it’s a 3-tense system.

Within a 2-t. sys we differentiate between past and present tenses.

Within a 3-t. sys we differentiate between present, past and future.

The problem of the Future Tense: traditional grammar suggests the 3-fold division of Ts, which reflects the philosophical concept of time of the period.Linguists who belong to this field (Смирницкий, Ильиш) believe that the Future T. is an analytical form of the verb - this means that shall\will are auxiliary Vs & an infinitive makes the lexical part of this analytical form.

By these linguists, *an analytical*form is traditionally understood as a combination of an auxiliary verb which is devoid of the lexical Mg and a lexical part which is limited in function, so it carries the lexical Mg of the form only and is devoid of any Gr. Mg.

The Gr. Features of an analytical forms are concentrated in the auxiliary part. The combination of shall\will+inf. meets these requirements and that’s why it may be called an analytical form.

The Vs shall and will originate from modal Vs but they’ve lost their modal Mg (It’s easily shown be the fact that ~will~ nowadays is freely used for the 1-st person sing.) The modal colourings of these 2 Vs can be traced now only in a few constructions: ~ Will you join us?~(expressing of a request)

~Who shall answer the phone?~ (obligation)

The other group of linguists (Jespersen, Quirk, Leech) thinks that there is a 2-fold T sys in E. They believe that the category of T is expressed through the opposition of past and non-past forms (live-lived) They insist there is no Future T in E.

Here are their arguments:

1.Formally the combinations shall\will +inf. are in no way different from the comb. can+inf. or any other comb-s of modal V +inf.

(will come\ can come; will be reading\ can be reading; will be invited\can be invited ) As to the Mg of the comb. shall\ will+inf.- their modal colouring is always retained though it may be weakened. (In particular, Бархударов says a future action is never real- it`s always possible, planed and so on)

2.The comb-s shall\ will+inf. Are not the only constr-s in E which are used to express future actions. We can also employ other: *to be going to do smth., to be about to do smth.*Also we have special Vs to express future actions (*to intend)*. Also- special tense forms which may express future actions (*I’m leaving tomorrow)*

3.The Vs shall\will like other modal Vs have corresponding past forms: should\would which can combine with diff. infinitives.

The above given arguments lead to the conclusion that the E lang. has no special form for the Future T. It has no form standing on the same grammatical level as the forms of the past and present Ts.

If to stick to the 3-fold division of Ts, we should take into consideration that these 3 Ts may appear in the common and in the continuous aspect- thus we get 6 tense-aspect forms.

Besides these six, however, there are 2 more, namely: the future-in-the-past and the future-continuos-in-the-past*.* These forms are used chiefly in subordinate clauses, but can be found in independent clauses as well.

The F-in-the-past &the F-Cont.-in-the-past do not easily fit into a system of Ts represented by a straight line running out of the past into the future. They are a deviation from this straight line: their starting point isn’t the present from which the past and the future are reckoned, but the past itself.

**The Present tense(PT):**

**PT denotes a wide scope of actions:**

1.They can be: taking place at the very moment of speaking (I hear a noise )

2.Occupying a prolonged period of time (I live in Moscow )

3.Timeless action (The Earth moves round the Sun)

4.Past actions («dramatic narrative use» - to make the description more vivid) I entered the room and who do you think I see? Your cousin!)

5.Future actions (I`m leaving tomorrow)

6.to denote future actions in object clauses when 2 future actions are regarded as simultaneous (I`ll do what you say)

So, we can conclude that the Mg of PT can be characterized as vague.

Бархударов insists that it`s easier to understand the PT comparing it with the past. He puts forward the term non-past. Барх. Very distinctly defines the Mg of the Past T. By him, the Past T. denotes an action which is prior to the moment of speaking & which is not correlated with this moment. Past T. The category of mood expresses the character of connection between the process denoted, by the verb and the actual reality, either presenting the process as a fact that really happened, happens or will happen, or treating it as an imaginary phenomenon # the subject of a hypothesis, speculation, desire.

**Forms used to express unreality:**

The Subjunctive mood is used in **conditional**Ss to express an unreal condition (=subordinate

clause) and an unreal consequence (=principal clause).

1.Unreal condition referring **to the present or future**the Past Subjunctive of the verb *to be*is in the subordinate clause, in the principal clause we find analytical subjunctive (would, should + Infinitive) **[would/should],**(were...)

#:The world **would be**healthier if every chemist's shop in England **were demolished.**

Unreal condition referring **to the future**can also be expressed by the Past Subj of the verb *to be+ infinitive*of the notional verb or the analytical subj with the mood auxiliary *should*for all persons.

#:If I **were to offer**my home, they were probably be accepted.

If you **should send**me to a difficult spot with this man alone, I'd feel secure.

If there's *should*in the subordinate clause, we often find the Indicative or Imperative Mood in the principal clause.

#:If any of your family **should come**to my house, **I shall be delighted**to welcome them.

2. Unreal condition referring **to the past**the Past Perfect of the Indicative mood is used in the subordinate clause, in the principal clause we find *should/would*+ *Perfect Infinitive ( have done)*[Past **Perfect],**(should/would have done)

#:If I had consulted my own interests, I should have come here.

3.Unreal Condition is often used with *might/could.*They fully retain their modal meaning and they don't form analytical subjunctive, (modal verb+Infinitive)

#:If she were still waiting, she might be restless.

**The cat of MOOD. Different points of view on the number of moods in modern Eng. Forms used to express unreality in Eng.**

The category of mood expresses the character of connection between the process denoted by the verb and the actual reality, either presenting the process as a fact that really happened, happens or will happen, or treating it as an imaginary phenomenon # the subject of a hypothesis, speculation, desire.

Traditionally there are 3 Moods: 1) Indicative 2) Imperative 3) Subjunctive. But Some Grammarians think there are from 10 to 16 Moods to no moods at all. But **Barhundarov**thinks that there are only 2 :Indicative and Imperative, and the rest is a shift of tenses, modal Ws or whatever.

1. #: I suggest that u do smth = a special form of Imperative Mood he says

Reasons to this:

• Morphologically "he go/be" coincides with the forms of the Imperative Mood

• This form is used after the verbs of volition and order and in direct commands.

2. #: If he knew, he would go...

If he had known, he would have gone...

Originally it belongs to the Subj Mood. In Modern Eng they should be regarded as forms of the Indicative Mood. The unreality is expressed NOT by a Mood form but by the use of the Past Tense with the reference to the Present. It's just shift of tenses, he says. **Forms used to express unreality:**

The Subjunctive mood is used in **conditional**Ss to express an unreal condition (=subordinate clause) and an unreal consequence (=principal clause).

1. Unreal condition referring **to the present or future**the Past Subjunctive of the verb *to be*is in the subordinate clause, in the principal clause we find analytical subjunctive (would, should + Infinitive) [would/should], (were...)

# :The world **would be**healthier if every chemist's shop in England **were demolished.**

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3. Unreal Condition is often used with *might/could.*They fully retain their modal meaning and they don't form analytical subjunctive, (modal verb+Infmitive)

#: If she were still waiting, she **might be**restless.

**10 FORMS TO EXPRESS UNREALITY:**

1. "he go/he be"

#: I insist that he come in time

2. "were" for all persons

I wish I were 10 yrs younger

3. #:1 wish I knew it

4.had known/had gone

#:As if he had known it

5.should/would + Inf

#: If I could, I would go

6. should/ would + Perf Inf

#:he would have gone...

7. should+Inf

#: I insist that he should go i

8. May/might + Inf

9. Would + Inf

#:If he would do smth...

10. can/could+ Inf

is the marked number of the tense oppositions. The formal marker of the Past T. is the morpheme -ed in regular Vs (in speech it is represented by allomorphs -e, d, it).

CRITICISM of this theory:

The *gr.*meanings of the Present Perfect (1) and the Past/ Future Perfect (2) are

|  |  |
| --- | --- |
|  |  |
| Doesn't show priority only, it shows connection with the present. | Indicate priority. |

=> Смирницкий simplifies the matter. HE ARGUES:

Though the Present Perfect shows connection with the present, the meaning of priority is always inherent (неотъемлемый, присущий) in the form of the Present Perfect. => It is similar to the past ant future forms. It is not the only case when a g*r.*form has some additional meanings".

aspect, the

English common aspect may correspond both to the Russian perfective and imperfective

aspect.

E.g. The girl played the piano well. Девушка хорошо играла на рояле.

The girl played the waltz and everybody applauded her. Девушка сыграла вальс и ей аплодировали.

The English continuous aspect corresponds to the Russian imperfective aspect only.

E.g. When I entered the girl was playing the piano. ...она играла...

Agreement is one of the principal means (together with word order) to show the relation between the subject and the predicate.

Agreement in English may be formal and notional. In the majority of cases agreement is formal: the subject and the predicate agree in form - in number and sometimes in person.

 The predicate agrees with the first component of the subject expressed by a phrase:

1. When the sentence begins with the formal subject *there*

E.g. There is a table and several chairs in the room.

There are several chairs and a table in the room.

2. In questions beginning with *where*

E.g. Where is my hat and my gloves?

Where are my gloves and my hat?

3. When the components are joined by *with*or *as well as*

E.g. A woman with children was there.

The teacher as well as the students was there.

The predicate agrees with the last component of the subject expressed by a word group if the components, are joined by either... or, neither... nor, not only... but also. E. g. Either you or I am to do it.

 In some cases however the agreement is notional and varies with the same word in accordance with the notion it expresses (one object - more than one object)

E.g. Bread and butter are important foodstuffs.

The bread and butter is on the plate.

The red and the white blanket are very good.

The red and white blankets are very good.

The red and white blanket is very good.

Who is he?

Who are they?

 **A number** (a variety) of books for home reading were suggested to them.

**The number** (the variety) of books suggested to them was great.

 **The family** is small (the collective)

**The family** are small and blond (members of the family)

 **"The Caramazov Brothers"** was written by Dostoyevsky (the title of the play)

 **Five pounds** is too much for it.

**Two miles** is a long way.

**Tow and two** is four.

 **16.Agreement (in number) between the subject and the predicate in Modern English***.*

The category of number in E is represented by the oppositions of 2 forms: singular and plural.

The cat. of N shows whether a Noun has the Gr Mg of oneness or more than oneness.

The Subject (S) is the principal part of a 2-member sentence which is grammatically independent of the other parts of the sentence and on which the 2d principal part (the predicate) is grammatically dependent.

The Predicate (P) is the second principal part of the sentence which expresses an action, state, or quality of the person or thing denoted by the subject. As a rule the P contains a finite V which may express tense, mood, voice, aspect and sometimes person and number.

In E the P agrees with the S in person and number. Agreement implies that the use of one form necessitates the use of the other, for example: a Sing S requires a P in the Sing, a plural S- a P in the Pl.

But there is often a conflict between (b\n) form and Mg- in these cases the P does not agree with the S.

~ The Brown family were at breakfast, father, mother and seven children. ~

Agreement in E may be FORMAL or NOTIONAL. In the majority of cases agreement is formal: the S and the P agree in form-in number and sometimes in person. In some cases- notional: varies with the same word in accordance with the notion it expresses (one object- more than one object)

The following rules of agreement of the P with the S shud be observed:

The P is used in the Pl when there are 2 or more homogeneous Ss connected by the conjunction AND or asyndetically:

~ Her father and mother…were obviously haunted and harassed. ~

If 2 or more homog. Ss are expressed by infin-s the P is in the Sing:

~ To labour in peace, and devote her labour and her life to her poor son, was all the widow sought. ~

When the P-verb precedes a number of Ss it is often in the Sing., especially if the sent. Begins with HERE or THERE:

~ And here was a man, was experience and culture. ~

If the Ss are of different number the P agrees with the S that stands FIRST:

~ There was much traffic at night and many mules on the roads… ~

When 2 homog. Ss in the Sing are connected by the conj-s not only…but (also), neither…nor, either…or, or, nor, the P is usually in the Sing.

~ There was neither heroic swift defeat nor heroic swift victory ~

If the Ss are of different person or number, the P agrees with the one NEXT to it:

~ Neither your sister nor you are to blame. ~

When 2 Ss in the Sing are connected by the conjunction as well the P is in the Sing.

~ Activity as well as cell structure is an essential condition of life ~

If the Ss are of different person or number, the P agrees with the S that stands first:

~ The Volga as well as its affluents is very picturesque. ~

If a S expressed by a noun is modified by 2 or more attributes connected by AND, the P is in the Sing when one person, thing or idea is meant.

~ The complete and beautiful quiet was almost the quiet from beyond the grave. ~

If 2 or more persons, things or ideas are meant the P is in the Pl:

~ Classical and light music have both their admirers. ~

6)If the S is expressed by a defining, indefinite, or negative pronoun (each, either, everybody, everyone ,everything, somebody, someone, something, nobody, no one, nothing, neither etc) the P is in the Sing.

~ Everybody was glad to see him back. ~

~ There was nothing to attract attention or excite alarm in this. ~

7)If the S is expressed by an interrogative pronoun (who, what) the P is usually in the Sing.

~ Who is to apply to her for permission? - I asked. ~

If the question refers to more than one person the P may be used in the Pl.

~ Who were to be the subjects of their piracies was a matter that did not occur to him. ~

8) If the S is expressed by a relative pronoun ( who, which, that) the P agrees with its antecedent.

~ She looked at his handsome face, which was turned to hers…~

9) If the S is expressed by the emphatic it the P is in the Sing no matter what follows.

~ Foreigners say that it is only English girls who can thus be trusted to travel alone ~

10) If the S is expressed by a noun in the Plur which is the title of a book, or the name of a newspaper or magazine, the P is usually in the Sing.

~ ``The Posthumous Papers of the Pickwick Club`` was written when Dickens was 24. ~

11)If the S is expressed by a noun in the Pl denoting time, measure, or distance, the P is in the Sing when the noun represents the amount or mass as a whole.

~ Twenty-one years is a longish time, lad, but memory is longer… ~

If the S is expressed by a collective noun denoting a group or collection of similar individuals taken as a whole (mankind, humanity…) the P-verb is in the Sing.

~ He consoled himself with the idea that perhaps humanity was better than he thought. ~

If the S is expressed by a noun of multitude, i.e. a collective noun denoting the individuals of the group taken separately (people- люди, infantry, gentry, police, cattle, jury…) the P-verb is as a rule in the Pl.

~ The weather was warm and the people were sitting at their doors. ~

With collective nouns (family, crew, board, government, team, band…) as S the P is either in the Sing or in the Pl; this depends on what is uppermost in the mind, the idea of oneness or plurality.

~ The band was beginning to play…

~ the band had arrived and were standing in the hall ~

 The P agrees in number with the S expressed by a syntactic word-group (w-g- is a combination of Ws forming one part of the sentence) ), consisting of two nouns connected by the conjunction and.

 Here we find agreement according to the Mg expressed in the w-group.

(a) If the w-gr. Consists of 2 Ns denoting different persons, things, or notions, the P-verb is in the Pl.

~ Andreis and I were alone ~

NB! Syntactic w-groups forming one part of the sentence shud not be confused with homog. Parts of the sentence. A sent. With 2 homog. Ss can be divided into 2 sentences with each S taken separately.

But if we have a sentence with the S expressed by a synt. w-gr. Its elements cannot be used separately without destroying the Mg of the sentence; only the whole w-gr.

The P-verb is in the Sing when the S is expressed by several Ns which represent one person or thing, or 2 persons or things forming a close unit often corresponding to one notion.

~ The wife and mother WAS asked with deference before the plan was made. ~

2) If the S is expressed by a w-gr. Consisting of 2 Ns connected by the preposition WITH, or the expression TOGETHER WITH, the P-verb is in the Sing. (These w-grs. are rarely used in E.)

~ A woman with a child on the 3d floor is screaming… ~

3) If the S is expressed by a synt. w-gr. The 1st element of which denotes an indef. Number or amount, such as a number of, a variety of, the majority of, a lot of, plenty of, a mass of… the P may be in the Sing or in the Pl.

~ There is a lot of truth in that ~

~ There are a lot of things for you to believe ~

NB! The Ns number & variety may retain their concrete Mg (количество, разнообразие) and serve as S of the sentence. In this case they are used with the definite article; the of-phrase that follows them is a separate part of the sent- an attribute to the S. The P is naturally in the Sing as it agrees with the S the number, the variety.

~ They tell me that the number of teachers in town has not increased in years ~

4) If the S is expressed by a group of Ws denoting arithmetic calculations ( addition, subraction, division) the P is usually Sing; multiplication presents an exception as the V may be in the Sing or in the Pl.

~ Two and two is four ~

~ Twice two is (are) four ~

Non-finite forms of the verb: the infinitive *(to fuck),*the gerund *(fucking),*participle I *(fucking),*participleII *(fucked).*

Non-finite forms have a double nature, nominal and verbal. The participle combines the characteristics of a verb with those of an adjective/ adverb. The gerund and the infinitive combine the characteristics of a verb with those of a

noun.

The verbals, unlike the finite forms of the verb, do not express person, number, tense or mood.

Non-finites possess the verb categories of phase, voice and aspect.

And now DETAILS.....

THE INFINITIVE

|  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- |
| the nominal character | the verbal character |   |
| is manifested in its syntactic functions. The infinitive can be used as: 1. the subject => *To kiss you is pleasant.*2. a predicative => *My plan is to pass the exam.*3. an object => *I've never learned to drink vodka.* | 1. the infinitive of transitive verbs can take a direct object => *He began to feel some curiosity.*2. it *can*be modified by an adverb => *I like to do it slowly.*3. - phase distinctions - aspect distinctions - voice (inf. of transitive verbs) |   |
| PHASE | ASPECT | ACTIVE VOICE | PASSIVE VOICE |
| non-perfect | common | to go to take | to be taken |
| non-perfect | continuous | to be going to be taking | - |
| perfect | common | to have gone to have taken | to have been taken |
| perfect | continuous | to have been going to have been taking | - |
|   |   |   |   |   |

**THE GERUND**

|  |  |
| --- | --- |
| the nominal character | the verbal character |
| 1. can perform the function of subject, | 1. the gerund of transitive verbs can |
| object, predicative => | take a direct object => *I made* |
| *Drinking leads to joy.* | *progress in understanding the* |
| *Everybody likes making love.* | *Bushmen language. =)* |
| *My duty is fighting for peace.* | 2. can be modified by *an*adverb => *She* |
| 2. can be preceded by a preposition => | *burst out crying bitterly.* |
| *Iam tired of typing.* | 3. - phase |
| 3. can be modified by a noun in the | - voice (the gerund of transitive |
| possessive *case*or by a possessive |   |
| pronoun => *I wonder at Marina's/ your* |   |
| *doing this.* |   |
| PHASE | *ACTIVE*VOICE | PASSIVE VOICE |   |
| non-perfect | running kissing | being kissed |   |
| perfect | having run having kissed | having been kissed |   |
|   |   |   |   |   |

**THE PARTICIPLE (I, II)**

|  |  |
| --- | --- |
| the adjectival/ adverbial character | the verbal character |
| is manifested in their syntactic functions: attribute and adverbial modifier => I -> *I saw the girl sitting by the window. Having done it, I went to bed.* II -> *I saw your name written on the wall. When left alone, she masturbated.* | 1. participle I of a transitive verb can take a direct object => *Opening thedoor, he went out.*2. Participle I and II can be modified by an adverb => *Looking at him gently, she began crying. Deeplyaffected, he killed her.*3. participle I: - phase – voice (p I of transitive verbs) |
| PHASE | *ACTIVE VOICE* | PASSIVE VOICE |   |
| non-perfect | going kissing | being kissed |   |
| perfect | having gone having kissed | having been kissed |   |
|   |   |   |   |   |

**Participle II**of transitive verbs, when it is not part of a perfect form, is always passive in meaning.

**DIFFERENT POINTS OF VIEW..........**

Some grammarians do not distinguish between the gerund and participleI. BUT look at my tables and you'll see that these *are*two different non-finite forms, BECAUSE:

1) The participle combines the characteristics of a verb with those of *an*adjective/ adverb. While the gerund combines the characteristics of a verb with those of a noun.

2) They have absolutely different syntactic functions.

3) The gerund can be preceded by a preposition and modified by a noun in the possessive *case*or by a possessive pronoun. The participle cannot.

AT THE SAME TIME their verbal characteristics fully coincide! (probably that i< th« hnsie ooint of the above-mentioned grammarians)

Non-Finite forms of the verb: double nature. The grammatical categories of verbals. Different points of view on the number of non-finite forms in Modern English.

Non-Finite= N-F ;Verbals= Vls; Finite=F

The V has finite and N-F forms (also called Vls)

The Vls, unlike the F forms of the V, do not express person, number or mood. Therefore they cannot be used as the predicate of a sentence.

Like the F forms- the Vls have Tense and Voice distinctions, but their tense dist. Differ greatly from those of the F V.

There are 3 Vls: *the participle (I or II) (Part), the gerund (Ger), the infinitive (Inf)*

The characteristic traits of the Vls are as follows:

They have *a double nature-1. nominal &2. verbal.*

1)The Part. Combines the characteristics of а V with those of an adjective; the Ger. And the Inf.- of a V with those of а N.

2)The tense distinctions of the Vls *are not absolute, but relative!*

The form of a Vl does not show whether the action it denotes refers to the present, past or future; it shows only whether the action expressed by the Vl is simultaneous with the action expressed by the F V or prior to it.

All the Vls can form *predicative constructions (p.con), i.e constr. Consisting of 2 elements- a nominal (N or Pronoun) and a verbal (Part, Ger, Inf);* the verbal element stands in predicate relation to the nominal element, i.e in a relation similar to that between the S and the P of the sentence. In most cases p.con. form syntactic units, serving as one part of the sentence.

The Vls have the Gr. Cat-es of ORDER and VOICE. The Inf. Has also a sd Gr. Cat-y- ASPECT.

Order. (Correlation)

The cat. of Order is built up by 2 forms: perfect & non-perfect.

Non-perfect Perfect

Inf to ask, to give to have asked, to have given

Ger asking, giving having asked, having given

Part asking, giving having asked, having given

The perfect form is used to present the event as prior to another event (generally prior to the event expressed by the predicate V)

The non-perfect form will be generally used to present the event as non-prior to another event (simultaneous, posterior or referring to no particular time).

Voice.

Active Passive

Inf to ask, to give to be asked, to be given

Ger asking, giving being asked, being given

Part I asking, giving being asked, being given

The active form of the Vl will indicate that the doer of the action is denoted by the S of the sentence, the passive- that the doer is not denoted by the S of the sentence:I wanted to ask him that question; I wanted to be asked that question.

NB! In certain cases the Vl (the Inf or the Ger) though active in form may be passive in Mg. The Inf may indicate it when used as predicative in some traditional contexts: They were not to blame.; The house is to let.

The Ger. will be passive in Mg when used after the Vs want, need, require and the adjective worth: The woodwork needed painting.; He has got one friend worth having.

Aspect.

The cat. of A is built up by 2 aspect forms: continuous and common.

Only one Vl, as was said above. Has the cat. of A- it is the Inf.

Common Continuous

To write, to read to be writing, to be reading

The Cont. form of the Inf. Will generally indicate that the event is presented as temporary, as being in progress at the time of another event or at a definite moment (period).

The Common- will be often used just to name the event without specifying its character or time.

Part. II as was said above has one unalterable form. Consequently, it has no morphological Gr. Cat-es.

When formed from transitive terminative Vs it is generally passive and perfective in Mg.

The answer given by him did not explain his attitude.

When asked he did not know what to say.

When formed from non-terminative transitive Vs it is generally passive but non-perfective.

She is a pleasant girl called Mary.

NB! When formed from non-trans. Vs such as fall, vanish, return, grow (in the Mg of grow up) and a few others Part. II is ACTIVE in Mg.: He is a retired soldier .

**18. Word-groups and sentences: basic differences. Classification of word-qroups based on syntactical relations between the members of the word-group:**

**coordinate, subordinate, pfedicative> cumulative.**

Syntax deals with both sentences and word-groups.

Смирницкий: the analysis of sentences ma in problem of syntax, analysis word-groups=secondary, because joining of words into word-groups is only a step, toward making a sentence.

Word-groups Sentences

\* not complete (structurally-and semantically) \* units of speech (can function as independent utterances)

\* can't be used as units of communication

**Fundamental feature that**distinguishes a sentence from a word-group=INTONATION

\*noun+verb ≠word-group \* normally contain a verb in-afinite form

(noun+verb=subject&predicate)

Word-group - logical and grammatical combination of 2 or more words which don't form a sentence.

Sentence - basic unit of communication, grammatically organized and expressing a complete thought.

*Traditional grammar*=> *2 types of syntactic relations between words: coordination, subordination*

*Coordination:*grammatical' equality of words joined together; is realized by coordinating conjunctions or by word-order: *John and Mary; John, Mary or Marinka*

When connection is realized by word order -> asyndetic coordination (бессоюзие) + only homogenious members of the sentence can be joined by coordination

*Subordination:*implies Inequality in the grammatical status of words in the sentence -one of the words becomes the head of the phrase & the other *=*the modifier subordinated to the head. *John's room/ his- book*

Can be expressed by **agreement***(согласование)*and **government***(управление).*

**AGREEMENT**

Kind of relation in which the subordinated word takes a form similar to that of the head-word's

- *Ильиш:*only *2*cases of agreement -> demonstrative pronouns "this/that", "these/those" (agree in number).

- *Some grammarians:*"agreement" can be applied to word-groups in which words belong to different grammatical classes

*When everybody has given his, opinion...*(agrees in number with *everybody; colloquial - ...has given their opinion )*

- between the subject and the object *She's making a cake for herself*

*He injured himself in the bottom.*

the form of The subordinated word

is determined by the head-word but

isn't similar to it.

**GOVERNMENT**

-the form of the subordinated waod is detemined by the head-word but isn’t similar to it

- extremely limited: the predicate verb governs the form of the object expressed by a personal pronoun, because the personal proN is to be used in the objective case: *He gave him/her/me a book.*

 Modern English: analytical means to reveal subordination, most important - word order prepositions.

 Predicative relations (так их зовут Смирницкий с Бархударовым; = interdependence)

Relations between the subject and the predicate:

- subject determines the gram, form of the predicate (person&number) *I am, he reads*

*-*predicate ascribes to the subject some action, state or quality He *went, he is old, he is married*

Cumulation (кумуляция)

subordinated

His new coatnew coat

Subordinated his new; some old = > somehow connected with each other

Easy to prove: can't change their word order,

Subordinated the relations between them are not very distinct;

Subordinated lectors can't be identified, only against the background of

Subordinated the head-word in the word-group

 Also cumulation between nouns in:

*To write John a letter*

There's some strange relation between *John*and

*a letter*(can't change their position, we are to

introduce a preposition “to”)

Word groups and sentences: basic differences. Classification of word-groups based on syntactical relations between the members of the word-group: coordinate, subordinate, predicative, cumulative.

Syntax deals with analysis of the structure of a sentence. The first step to build a sentence- word-group (not an independent utterance).

Basic English sentence must contain a verb in the Finite Form .Sentences without verbs convey only fragments of information (not full info). Глагол- структурно-семантический узел предложения, предопределяет, какие члены предложения будут находиться, их смысловые отношения. When a noun and a verb in the F.F. follow each other they become the subject and the pred.icate – the main parts of the basic English sentence, they may be accompanied by other words in a sentence, but that doesn’t change their functional status, that’s why many ling-s exclude them from the domain of word groups.. Some foreign ling-s suggest that we should use a special term to denote relations between them – clause. **Word group** – a logical and gram. combination of 2 or more words, which don’t form a sentence. Cood word group brings together items of equal rank #Boys and Girls. Subordinate word group in which one word is *the head* and the other are *subordinates* **Sentence** – a unit of communication, grammatically organized and expressing a complete thought ( Bloomfield).The sent. is char. by predication, that establishes or indicates relations b\n the utter-s and reality, it’s expressed through the F.F of a verb, which expresses Tense, Mood, Person, Number, traditionally. It’s said that the most universal means of expressing pred. is intonation.

The sentence is characterized by the specific category of predication which establishes the relation of the named information to actual life. => **Predication is the relation of the information expressed in the utterance to reality; it's a correlation between the utterance and reality.**

**•** Both the predicate and subject are important for the structure of the sentence, their relations are reciprocal. The subject dominates the predicate, determining the person and number, and the predicate dominates the subject, ascribing to it some action or quality.

But the principal means of expressing predication is the predicate, because the center of predication in a sentence is a finite verb. It expresses predication mainly through its tense and mood forms (and also through person and number - см.выше)

- The events are presented as facts taking place in the past: *She smiled when Tom returned to the room.*

- The events are presented as facts taking place at present: *I'm traveling with a couple of friends. They 're still packing.*

- The events are presented as non-facts, as something imaginary: / *wonder how different my life would have been if I had grown up anywhere else.*

But this is not the only means. Predication is expressed not only by the forms of the finite verb that connect it to the subject, but also by all other forms and elements of the sentence that establish the connection between given information and reality:

- intonation (the universal means)

- word order

- different functional words

 **19. Predication. Means of expressing predication**.

Predication is an expression of relation of the sentence to reality or the expression of the relation between the content of the sentence (nominative and predicative sides) and reality (*The doctor has arrived*). The predicative connection of words, uniting the subject and the predicate, builds up the basis of the sentence. The subject dominates the predicate determining the *person* of predication, while the predicate dominates the subject determining the *event*of predication and ascribing to the predicative person some action or state or quality. The domination of the subject exposed by the reflective character of the verbal category of person & nouns. (*I go, he goes*). The predicate dominates the subject when the sentence transforms into the noun-phrase placing the predicate in the position of a headword (*the train arrived — the arrival of the train*).

There are predicative groupings formed by a combination of a non-finite verbal form with a substantive element (infinitival (the predicative person is expressed by the prepositional *for-phrase),*gerundial (by the possessive or objective form of the substantive), participial (by the nominative (common) form of the substantive) constructions: *The pupil*knows his mistake-> *for the pupil*to know—*> the pupil('s)*knowing his mistake-> *the pupil*knowing his mistake).

 SYNTACTIC RELATIONS btw Ws: coordination, subordination, interdependence, cumulation, apposition. Means of expressing Syn relations: agreement, government, word order, function words, parenthesis.

**Coordination**- relation of equality. We find this relation between homogeneous (-однородные) members of the S.

# *Peter*and *Mary*went there (subjects to the same predicate)

Peter *went*there alone and *returned*late (predicates to the same subj)

We heard their *merry happy*laughter (attributes to the same noun)

**Subordination**- relation of inequality btw the components. In this case we have one head-word and modifiers to it. Attributes, objects and adv modifiers stand in subordinate relation to the other components of the S.

# I heard her *happy laughter*(laughter is the head word)

*She*was *laughing happily*(head word - was laughing)

She looked *at me attentively*(head word - looked)

**Cumulation**-

# His new coat; Some old letters

*his and new (some and old)*are subordinated to *coat (letters).*At the same time "his and new" are related with each other in a certain way. Their position is fixed and can't be changed.

# To give smb smth

To give smth to sb

**Apposition**-

# Queen Mary

Both Ws are heads and both are also attributes. But the Ws in the apposition are identical in reference. They have the same referent. Usually 2 Nouns have different designations for the same thing or person.

# Mr. Smth the doctor

English is an analytical L. There are several means to form the Gr Str-re of the S:

**Agreement** is one of the principal means (together with word order) to show the relation between the subject and the predicate. In Eng agreement can be *formal*or *notional.*In the majority of cases, it's formal: the subj and the predicate agree in form - in number and sometimes in person.

# I am here

There ARE several CHAIRS

A WOMAN with children WAS there

In some cases, however, *the agreement is notional*and varies with the same word in accordance with the notion it expresses (one object - more than one object).

# Bread and butter are important foodstuffs

The bread and butter is on the plate.

**Function Ws**- serve as connectors btw the main ones. These dependent Ws are prepositions and conjunctions. Prepositions act within one clause, conjunctions may connect Ws, clauses, separate Ss. Thus, prepositions and conjunctions express relations but they never denote objects and notions. However, the relations they denote are not purely formal b/c each preposition and conjunction has a definite lexical meaning.

They are characterized by an indistinct meaning : both lex and grammatical.

# The boy saw it in a book.

They don't perform any syntactical function, they express relations btw. Ws in a S.

Their use is sometimes obligatory

# depend on

 They are never used alone in Ss without notional Ws

# Mary came home last night.

Coordination uses conjunctions and cumulation makes use of few Function Ws.

**Parenthesis**- either shows the speaker's attitude towards the thought expressed in the S or connects a given S with another one, or summarizes that which is said in the S. It is connected with the rest of the S rather semantically or grammatically. No question can be put to it. Very often it's detached from the rest of the S and consequently it's often separated from it by commas or dashes. Can be expressed by: *modal words*(indeed, certainly, in fact, truly, surely, actually), *adverbs which serve as connectives*(firstly, secondly, thus, finally, consequently, then, anyway, yet, still), *prepositional phrases*(in a word, in truth, in my opinion, in short, on the hand), *infinitive and participial phrases{*to be sure, to tell the truth, to begin with, generally speaking, strictly speaking).

# Evidently, he was not a man, he must be some other kind of animal.

Besides, I want to get back as soon as possible.

To tell the truth, I don't want to call him.

**Word order**- as Eng Ws have hardly any inflexions and their relation to each other is shown by their place in the S and not by their form, Word-order in eng is fixed. We can't change the position of different parts of the S at will, esp. that of the subject and the object.

Syntactical relations between words in a sentence: coordination, subordination, interdependence, cumulation, apposition. Means of expressing syntactic relations: agreement, government, word order, function words, parenthesis.

Grammatically words are combined into sentences on the basis of their semantics. Sometimes lexical connection between words is decisive for identifying grammatical structure of the sentence. l) *Her elder sister is teaching English*.-by lexical meaning of the words we understand that *'is teaching'*is Present Continuous. 2) *Her hobby is teaching English.*-we understand that ‘is’-a link-verb, *'teaching'*is a gerund in the function of a predicative, though both look similar. Traditional Grammar recognized 2 types of relations: coordination and subordination*.*Coordination implies grammatical equality of words joined together by coordinating conjunctions #Jane &Bob. Only homogeneous members of the sentence can be combined.

Subordination implies inequality in the grammatical status of words, joined together. The main is the head word (~*his book*).

Agreement-the subordinate word takes a form similar to that of the word to which it is subordinate. Agreement is found only in the demonstrative pronouns *'this &that',*which agree in number with the word they modify. But other linguists (Gorrel, Laird):' Agreement can be used in reference to words which belong to different word-groups. '*His*' agrees with ‘*everybody*' in ‘*When everybody has given his opinion, the committee can decide’*, (though in the colloq. speech there is a tendency to use 'their'). Quirk, Greenbaum: E.g. *He injured himself in the leg*--agreement in number, person and gender. The relations between the subject and the predicate are a controversial problem. Quirk, Palmer and others do interpret these relations as agreement. Others assume that agreement belongs to the level of word-groups which form parts of the sentence while a *n+a finite*v forms a sentence and can't be regarded as a word-group. Sweet, Kruisinga and otherscall *‘a n+a finite v'*a clause to distinguish it from a word-group. Smirnickij and Barkhudarov call these syntactical relations as 'predicative relations'. The 2nd opinion is better.

Government is a kind of relation in which the form of the subordinate word is determined by the head-word, but is different from the head-word. In Modern English the sphere of government is very limited. The predicate verb governs the object expressed by a personal pronoun since the form of the objective case is used here (*me, him*, etc.) The notion of government can also be applied to use of the genitive case.

Modern English relies on analytical means to reveal subordination within sentences--word order & functional wordsof which prepositions are the most important. In phrases word order refers to the certain place of a head word and a subordinate one; in sentences the order of the parts of the sentences is important. Conjunctions play a great role, for instance, *copulative* conjunctions ( and, neither…nor, etc) are used to enumerate events; *disjunctive* conjunctions ( or, otherwise, either…or, etc.) are used to indicate choice between words or events; and *adversative*conjunctions ( but, yet, still, nevertheless, however etc.) are used to indicate opposition or contradiction.

Not all relations can be called coordination or subordination. Between the subject and the *predicate -- reciprocal relations:*the subject dominates the predicate determining the person (I am. He reads), at the same time the predicate dominates the subject ascribing to it some action (He went), or state (He is married), or quality (He's clever).The Danish linguist Hjelmslev introduced the term 'interdependence' to indicate this shit.

Another type of syntactical relations is cumulation. E.g. 1) this new coat, 2) some old letters. In 1) his &new are subordinate to coat (they are attributes to noun).In 2)the same. At the same time his &new, or some &old are related with each other: their position is fixed (can't say new his coat). We also find cumulation relations between nouns in 'to write John a letter'-the fact that there is some syntactical relation between 'John' and 'a letter' becomes clear if we change their positioning with the help of the preposition (to writer a letter to John).

Lately linguists single out apposition as a special type of relations between components of a word-group. Ch. Hockett: e.g. Queen Mary-both words are heads& both are attributes. Thus it's not subordination. In coordination the constituent have different referents, while words in apposition are identical in reference: usually 2 nouns give different designations to the same thing or person (*Mr. Smith, a doctor –title, profession, social position etc.*).

Parenthesis – words &phrases which have no syntactical ties with the sentence, and express the speaker's attitude towards what he says, a general assessment of the statement, or an indication of its sources, or connection with other statements, or with a wider context ( ~*Perhaps he is ill. As we have already mentioned..*.)

|  |
| --- |
|  |

Structurally sentences are divided into:1) *simple*(contains only 1 subject-predicate unit) or *composite*(more than one), 2) *complete*or *incomplete*(elliptical)-distinguished by the presence or absence of word-forms in the principal positions of 2-member sentences, 3) t*wo-member*(two principal parts-the subject and the predicate) or *one- member*(1 principal part which is either subject, or the predicate). These 3 classifications are based on different approaches to the structural organization of sentence & reflect its different aspects.

*The simple sentence. 1) Two-member sentences.*The basic pattern is one subject-predicate unit. Thus it has 2 main positions: those of the subject and the predicate. There are several variations of this pattern-depend on the kind of the verb occupying the predicate position. This verb may be transitive, in~, ditransitive or a link verb. Sentences may be unextended (*John is clever*) and extended (*John learned French*). A sentence may be extended, not only by obligatory elements but also by optional ones (attributes, certain kinds of prepositional objects, adverbial modifiers) ~*John ran quickly to me*.

*2) One-member sentences:*a) nominal b) verbal. *Nominal*-the principal part is expressed by a noun, they state the existence of the things. They are typical of descriptions and may be unextended (*Silence. Midnight*) &extended (*English spring flowers*!). *Verbal*-the principal part expressed by a non-finite form of the verb, infinitive or gerund. Mostly used to describe different emotional perceptions of reality. *(To think of that! Living at the mercy of a woman*!).

*The composite sentence is a*sentence consisting of 2 or more clauses. In its structure a clause is similar to a simple sentence, but unlike a simple sentence it forms part of a bigger syntactical unit. Clauses may be joined by means of coordination (a compound sentence-*The door opened & 2 men came in*) or subordination (a complex sentence *~ I have come to u, because I know that u can help me*). Coordination is a way of linking grammatical elements to make them equal in rank. Subordination makes one of them dependent upon the other. *A compound sentence* may contain coordination, clauses extended by subordinate clauses - a compound-complex sentence. (*Pooh was very proud when he heard this and Piglet noticed it at once*). *A complex sentence* may contain subordinate clauses joined by means of coordination - a complex sentence with homogeneous subordinate clauses (*I know that he has come and that he is out of money*).

 **Classification of sentences based on the communicative purpose of the utterance (declarative, interrogative, imperative).**

Бархударов singled out 3 types of sentences: declarative, interrogative, imperative sentences.

**DECLARATIVE SENTENCES**

|  |  |
| --- | --- |
| semanticaily | structurally |
| express statements | they are unmarked type, i.e. display direct word-order: *I love you.*Sometimes inversion is used => more emphatic sentences. |

**Inversion:**

1.Full inversion: *Down the river came the boat with a*

2. Partial inversion: *In he came.*

|  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- |
|     | • INTERROGATIVE SENTENCES |   |   |
| Semanticaily they express questions => we expect a respond. |   |   |  |
| type of question | example | structure | intonation | answer |
| General | Are you rich? | *are*marked by | rising | provoke yes/ no |
| questions |   | partial | intonation | answer |
|   |   | inversion |   |   |
| \*\*Confirmative | Your name is | no inversion | *are*marked by | provoke |
| questions | Lera. |   | intonation alone | positive |
|   |   |   | (rising) | answers (you |
|   |   |   |   | expect |
|   |   |   |   | confirmation) |
| Special | When will he | *are*marked by | usually a falling | require a full |
| questions | kiss me? | a question-word | tone (though *an* | answer |
|   |   | (wh-wards) | intonation |   |
|   |   | placed initially | pattern may be |   |
|   |   | + partial | different) |   |
|   |   | inversion |   |   |
| \*\*questions to | Who broke | no inversion | the same | the same |
| the subject or | your heart? |   |   |   |
| some port of it |   |   |   |   |
| MIXED TYPES: |   |   |   |   |
| 1. Alternative | Are you a girl | a combination | rising tone + | require a full |
| questions | or a boy? (= | of 2 general | falling tone | answer |
|   | Are you a girl | questions, that | (мне кажется...) |   |
|   | or *are*you a | *are*usually |   |   |
|   | boy?) | contracted into |   |   |
|   |   | one |   |   |
| 2. Tag- | You love me, | A declarative | the intonation | yes/ no + tag |   |
| questions | don't you? | sentence + a | of a tag is |   |   |
|   |   | tag (ТАG = a | falling if the |   |   |
|   |   | pronoun | speaker is |   |   |
|   |   | corresponding | positive, rising |   |   |
|   |   | to the subject | - if he doubts |   |   |
|   |   | and + *an* |   |   |   |
|   |   | auxiliary verb |   |   |   |
|   |   | corresponding |   |   |   |
|   |   | to the |   |   |   |
|   |   | predicate) |   |   |   |
| 3. Echo- | - He loves | nearly repeat | rising | yes/ no |   |
| questions | fucking. | the previous | intonation |   |   |
|   | - He loves | statement |   |   |   |
|   | fucking? |   |   |   |   |
| \*\*special type | - John gave me | *are*generated | rising | a full answer |   |
| of echo- | a hug. | when the | intonation |   |   |
| questions | - Who did | hearer misses |   |   |   |
|   | what? | some part of |   |   |   |
|   |   | the statement |   |   |   |
|   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |

IMPERATIVE SENTENCES

E.g. They are in Moscow.

They are here.

A model for these sentences - to be + adverb(or a prepositional phrase)

Traditional point of view - an adverb or a prepositional phrase in such sentences function as predicatives and is considered together with to be CNP. To be is the only possible link here.

Other grammarians disagree. Смирницкий: the verb to be is not always devoid of lexical meaning. The lexical meaning of **to**be depends on its syntactic environment.

E.g. He is here => the meaning of the verb **to**be is very close to the meaning of the verb to stay.

The meeting is tonight => the meaning of **to**be is **to**take place.

è To be + adverb = a special kind of predicate = an adverbial predicate

**The principal parts of the s-ce.The predicate.Diff-t classifications of the predicate.**

The pred. Is one of the two main parts of the sent. (1)meaning It denotes the action or property of the thing expressed by the subj. (2)syntactical relations in the sent. It is not dependent on any other part of the sent. (this statement requires some comment- sometimes it`s claimed that pred.agrees in number with subj.-subj.singular,pred.singular;subj.plural,pred.plural - but it`s doubtful in sent. like “My family were sitting in the kitchen” )

(3)its morphological realization Ways of expressing the pred. are varied and their structure will better be considered when discussing types of predicate

Usually pred. is a rheme of the sentence, it conveys new info about the subject, it is what is being discussed in the sentence. Indicates whether the subj is or is not viewed as the doer of the action denoted by the predicate(through its active oe passive form) Is the principle means of expressing predication, establishes relations b\n reality.

Categories of predication: tense, mood, person, number.

*Pred.may be classified in 2 ways,*one-based on their structure(simple&compound)

A Simple Pred.1)Verbal,2)Nominal B Compound Pred.1)Verbal,2)Nominal

the other- based on their morphological characteristics(verbal&nominal)

A Verbal Pred.1)Simple2)Compound B Nominal Pred1)Simple2)Compound

The ultimate result is of course the same in both cases

*A simple pred* is generally expressed by one word- a verb in its finite form – “The boy went there alone”(synthetic verb form), “We shall see him tomorrow”(analytical verb form)

A special kind of simple verbal pred.in English are those formed by multi-word verbs (to catch sight of=to see, to have a look = to look,to have adinner= to dine,to make use = to use,etc.)

*The compound predicate*is expressed by a group a interrelated components.In accordance with their principle component predicates may be subdivided into compound verbal&compound nominal.

*Compound verbal*predicate = modal/aspective verb +main part(expr.by a notional verd in the form of hte inf/gerund occasionally) “He can go home” He began working”

Also may be compound modal aspective “Why will you continue to write about this?” “We have to keep on hoping”

*Compound nominal predicate(CNP)* = link verb(link verbs of being-to be,to continue,to feel,etc;of becoming- to become,to grow,to turn,to get; of seeming(appearing – to seem,to look,to tasre,etc)+predicative(a single word – “He was happy”, a phrase-“He seemed quite happy”, a syntactic complex – “That is for me to decide” )

A special kind of CNP will be “double predicate”,a CNP where insted of the link verb ther`s a notional verb-it preserves its original lex.meaning&at the same time performs the function of a link – “He stood quiet near the window”=He stood near the window.He was quiet. The term double pred. was originally introduced and discussed by Смирницкий и Ильиш. Note:a special type of “double” when nothional verb is followed by an object ant the predicative part follows the object& refers to it semantically-all this is called compound nominal with an objective This is the universal division for many European Ls: **1. attribute 2. object 3.adverbial modifier.**But it is being criticized: such treatment doesn't allow to single out individual features of a L BUT it is natural for it reflects the

relations of the objective reality.

The theory of secondary parts is not complete. Not everything is defined. It is difficult to find objective criteria to determine the function of a secondary part of sentence.

=> **Several main CONTRADICTIONS:**

**• *An*object**is usually defined as a person/ thing that takes part in the process denoted by the predicate verb.

1. *He drinks vodka ->*a direct object

2. *He offered****me****vodka.*=> *an*indirect object

3. *He thinks about more vodka. ->*a prepositional object

4. *He doesn 't like to drink diluted vodka. ->*infinitive as a n object\*

\* №4 is disputed. Смирницкий once said: the main feature of the object is to denote a thing (предметность) => infinitive cannot be regarded *as art*object... Бархударов и Шпеллинг - similar views => treat the infinitive as part of a complex verbal predicate.

• Sometimes it is difficult to distinguish between the attribute and the adverbial

modifier.

|  |  |
| --- | --- |
| example | dilemma |
| The man *next door*suggested we get married. *Tired and disappointed,*she refused to smoke opium. The weather *that winter was*cold for going naked. | an attribute OR an adverbial modifier of place? attribute OR adv. modifier of reason? attribute OR adv. modifier of time? |

Sometimes it is difficult to distinguish between objects and adverbial modifiers.

|  |  |
| --- | --- |
| example | dilemma |
| I kissed him *in the lips.*He was glad *to disappoint her.* | a prepositional object OR an *adv.*modifier of place? object OR adv. mod, of reason OR (some grammarians) part of the predicate |

• Predicative constructions *are*treated differently.

|  |  |
| --- | --- |
| example | dilemma |
| I saw him come/ coming She was seen to humiliate men/ humiliating men. | a Complex object OR object + objective predicative a Complex subject OR subject + subjective Predicative |

 **Because of all these contradictions:**

**amer. Freeze: notions of subject structure *and*object structure; but he regards the rest of the secondary parts *as*modifiers,**

**Zandboort and Harris: a term "adjunct" to denote any secondary part.**

**MEANS OF EXPRESSING SECONDARY PARTS OF SENTENCE**

**ATTRIBUTE**

1. **Adjectives (a) or adjectival phrases (b)**which characterize the person or non-person qualities or express the speaker's attitude.

*a) We sat on the****soft****sofa and... well, just sat there.*

*b) We sat there,****unable to move or say a word.***

**2. Pronouns or pronominal phrases,**which help to identify or define a person/ non-person.

*Can you see****those****children****of mine****anywhere?*

3. **Numerals (ordinal or cardinal),**which state the number or order, *or serve*to identify persons/ things.

*He was my****first****man.*

*It is part****two****of the book.*

4. **Nouns in the common *case*singular (a) or prepositional nominal phrases (b)=>**quality or locative/ temporal/ etc features of a person/ thing.

*a)We did it at the****garden****wall. It was rough.*

*b)He was a man****of strange habits***

5. **Nouns or pronouns *in*genitive case.**

**His girlfriend's***bottom is****his****pride, joy and personal source of enjoyment.*

**6. Statives**(though rarely)

*No man****alive****would eat your cooking.*

*7.***Participle I (a), II (b) and participial phrases (c)***->*characterise a person/thing through *an*action/ process/ reaction.

*a) He laughed at the crying girl. Bastard.*

*b) I couldn 't help laughing when I saw his****shaved****face.*

*c) I glanced at the man****knitting by the window.***

8.**Gerunds (a), gerundial phrases (b), gerundial complexes**(c) => usually characterize things from the point of view of their function/ purpose.

**a)***Her****walking****shoes were elegant and the****singing****teacher envied her desperately.*

*b) He showed no sign****of having ever known me.****Jerk.*

*c) There is no chance****of our seeing him again.****He left for Leipzig.*

**9Infinitives (a), infinitive phrases (b), infinitive complexes (c)**=> characterize through a real/ unreal action.

*a) You are the one to blame.*

*b) He is not a man****to experiment with sex.***

*c)This is a problem****for you to solve***

10.**Adverbs (a), adverbial phrases (b),**

*a) The****then****president sucked,*

*b) If you live in an****out of the way****place -I'm sorry.*

11. Sentences used as a whole (so called "quotation nouns).

*She looked at him with a kind of****don't-touch-me or- I’ll-slap you****air and he risked****.***

12. **Attribute clauses**

I *loved the boy****who loved boys.***

*OBJECT*

1. Nouns, substantivized adjectives or participles.

*I kissed****the girt.****She helped****the poor/ the wounded.****(But that was not t reason why I kissed her.)*

*2.*Numerals, phrases with numerals.

*I found****three of them****behind the door of my bathroom.*

3.*Gerunds,*gerundial phrases.

*He insists on****coming****(who doesn 't)). I hate****being looked after.***

4. Pronouns,

*I don't want****anybody****here. But they don't understand****that.***

5.Infinitives, infinitive phraser.

*I am glad****to see you.****I have to learn****how to strip men of money.***

6.Different predicative complexes.

*I felt****him trembling all over.****He wanted****it done quickly.****Everything depended on his,****working properly with his hands.***

7. Object clauses.

*I thought of****what he had done****and wanted more.*

ADVERBIAL MODIFIER

1. Adverbs.

*You sing****beautifully.****And****I often****lie.*

2. Adverbial phrases.

*It happened****three months ago****and lasted****for three minutes.***

3. A noun/ pronoun/ numeral preceded by a preposition.

**Behind him***stood a horse. It happened****in 2004.****There: was her lover****unde,***

**4. A**noun or *this/ that/every/last/next\**a noun *Wait****a minute!****Come****this way,****please.*

5.Non-finite forms:

Gerund: *I eat before****going to bed.***

Infinitive: *I come here****to make love to you.***

Participle: ***Walking in****the****garden,****we found a very comfortable wall.*

6.Predicative complexes:

Gerundial constructions: *Are you angry****because of my being late?***Absolute constructions: ***The meal over,****we began drinking.*(non-prepositional ) You *mustn't do it****with children watching,***(prepositional)

7. A conjunction + adjective: *I do it****if necessary.***

noun: ***As a little girl****she went to the forest.*

participle: ***When argued with,****I get irritated.****While doing it****I got tired.*

infinitive: ***As if to calm him down,****she gave him some pills.*

8. Clauses

*Won 't you stay forever or at least****till the rain stops?****I stayed with him****because he asked me.****I'm very kind.*

predicative “They elected him president for a second term”

Note: CNP may also be modal/aspective.In this case the link verb will be preceded by a modal or an aspective verb “Beginning to be smug already,are you ,Ian?” “He must be at least 20years younger than she is!” Occasionally we come across compound nominal aspective modal predicates(ахуеть!!!) “He must begin feeling better now”

The majority of predicates are used both in written and oral,double pred.and modal aspective – mainly in written English

(сл.какая-то хуйня, но может кому-то интересно)

Смирницкий: has its own classification of predicates. The existing class-n of pred-s disregards the meaning of the predicate. Pred-s should be cass-d into:**1.** pred-s, denoting processes( He arrived). **2.** qualifying the sub. (He is old\ a doctor). **3.** objective predicates ( The book consists of five chapters. He has many friends. He resembles his father) has\consist\resemble serve to express relations b\n the sub. and the obj. here. Their lex. Meaning is weakened. Besides chapters\ father\friends don`t qualify the sub. They`re objects with different reference. Such sent-s shouldn`t be mixed up with: He sings songs. He reads books. – here the words possess their lex. M-g to the full extend**. 4.** adverbial pred-s ( He is here in Moscow).

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Textual linguist may understand something, which is as short as a sentence or even an interjection (complete and coherent), as long as a whole text: story, novel.

Text as a linguistic unit has its own semantic and structural categories: The main **semantic**features/categories:

- information

- profundity presupposition

- completeness

1) Any text should carry complete information; it should express a certain

communication.

2) By profundity some authors mean that the text should have some depth, some food for thinking, some idea, which may either be expressed, or may be understood implicitly.

3) By presupposition we mean the shared knowledge: there should be some level at which we communicate, otherwise there may be complete misunderstanding,

4)The text should be complete in meaning, it shouldn't be abrupt (except for fiction where it's a stylistic device).

As to the **structural**categories of the text, they are:

- integration

- cohesion

- retrospection

- prospection

- continuum

- polyphony

1) integrity (целостность): to achieve integrity we use certain logical connections and connectors, a certain composition, a certain word order.

2)**Cohesion**- to provide the logical connection (logical connectors: conjunction, parenthentic words, the article, pronominalization).

3) Retrospection + Prospection = profundity in semantics

Expressed with the 16 tense-aspect forms.

4) Polyphony = a good text usually has more than one line of thinking, of reasoning, which is very important for fiction.

5) Continuum = the text should continue without breaking, it shouldn't be abrupt. Tense forms, number forms, mood forms - all this provides for **cohesion**and continuum of a certain text.

Types of texts: (3 main types)

1) narrative (in a narrative text the most important thing which provides for prospection and retrospection are forms expressing time and word expressing space).

2) Description (temporal and spacious characteristics).

3) Dialog

- for description mostly spacious characteristics (considering space, not time)

- for the dialog - the dynamic means, in a dialog we have more colloquial words, more vivid words, more interjections than in other types of texts.

**28. Text as a str.& semantic unit of communication.types of texts. Gram.means of expressing cohesion in texts**

Text(t.) is a structural and semantic unit used in language communication.

It has a minimum border line – it always contains no less then two components – complete utterances, simple or composite, a text always presupposes the existence of a certain cohesion b\n its components-utterances. A t. has no max. ( upper) border line that can be grammatically defined, it’s given by the extra ling. situation which is reflected in the text.

Besides complete utterances the t. may also contain *special connectors\means of text cohesion*

1. **the order of the elements** – in the monologue each succeeding utterance in the paragraph is supposed to be a communication, a development of the idea, exp. In the previous part of the text; in the dialogue the words of the preceding speaker are understood as a clue to which the words of the next speaker are kind of response**. 2. conjunctions**join not only utterance, but also utterances within a text**. 3. articles.** Definite article is often used anaphorically to indicate a link b\n a following and a preceding utter., or a previous situation. The indefinite art. generally point to the center of communication, the most important item, expressed in the paragraph; it can also be used cataphorically to indicate that the following text will devoted to the description of the object introduced by the noun mod. by the ind. art.( the same in titles of books and in news headlines**). 4. pronouns** ( esp. personal, possessive and demonstrative + pronominal adverbs0, they are often used as anaphoric connectors**. 5. Forms of the verb.** The non-perfect form (continuous or common) begins a paragraph giving the general background, the “time-point” of the sit. described in the paragraph, thus organizing all its utter-s into the same text cataphorically. The perfect form seldom begins a paragraph as it indicates a relation b\n the given and the previous situation. It’s generally placed towards the end of the end of the par. organizing it anaphorically**. 6. ellipsis,** elliptical utter. can be understood only within a text**. 7. Parenthesis**. They may be expressed by a word(doubtless, first, further, however, now, second, therefore), a phrase( at least, for example, for instance, in a sense, in my opinion, no doubt, no wonder, of course, on the contrary), a clause(it seems, as was said\mentioned\stressed above, as you will see later, one may think). Such phrases aren’t grammatically linked with the rest of the utter. into which they are imbedded, they don’t perform in it any gram. function, they are used for**: a)**to stress the attitude of the speaker to the events in the text, give a certain modal coloring to the text.. **b)** to exemplify smth previously mentioned. **c)** to refer the utter., to link it anaphorically or cataphorically to some other utterance in the text – a kind of text connector. **d)** sometimes they may be used to establish a closer contact with the listener, to switch the conversation onto a more friendly basis(you see, you know, let us see).

*There are two types of texts*: **monologues**(written speech; grouped into superphrasal units\paragraphs; full forms, Ind. or Sub. mood, Imp. rare, finite or non-finite9absolutely or in complexes)verb forms, non-elliptical utterances, two\one member utter-s, close\loose attributes or adv. modifiers, homogeneous members, complex\compound utterances, syndetic\asyndetic adjoinment, indirect speech) and **dialogues**(oral speech, grouped into ”minimal conversations”, contracted forms, Ind. or Imp. mood, Sub. – rare, finite forms, non-finite-rare ( used absolute), elliptical\non-ell. utter-s, two member utter-s, close attr. or adv. modifiers, hom. members-rare, simple\compound utter-s, complex – rare, mainly asyndatical adjoinment, direct\indirect speech).