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LECTURES IN THEORETICAL ENGLISH GRAMMAR AND METHOD-GUIDES FOR SEMINARS

У цьому курсі лекцій систематизовано і впорядковано викладено та пояснено основні концепції, поняття і точки зору на певні граматичні явища англійської мови з належним обґрунтуванням кожної з них. Лекції викладено у логічному порядку – від загального огляду частин мови, детального їхнього розгляду до синтаксичних особливостей функціонування англійської мови. До кожної теми пропонується план та набір тестових завдань. У кінці кожної лекції наводиться список літератури, який може бути використаний як для додаткового ознайомлення з тією чи іншою темою, так і при написанні курсових, дипломних і магістерських робіт.

Призначена для студентів, аспірантів, викладачів і всіх тих, хто вивчає граматику англійської мови як у практичному, так і теоретичному її різновидах.

Lecture 1

GRAMMAR IN THE SYSTEMIC CONCEPTION OF LANGUAGE

Plan

1. Constituent parts of language.
2. Grammar vs meaning.
3. The plane of content vs the plane of expression.
4. Language as a system.
5. Units of language.

1. Constituent Parts of Language

Language is a means of forming and storing ideas as reflections of reality and exchanging them in the process of human intercourse. Language is social by nature; it is inseparably connected with the people who are its creators and users; it grows and develops together with the development of society.

Language incorporates the three constituent parts ("sides"), each being inherent in it by virtue of its social nature. These parts are the phonological system, the lexical system, the grammatical system. Only the unity of these three elements forms a language; without any one of them there is no human language in the above sense.

The phonological system is the subfoundation of language; it determines the material (phonetical) appearance of its significative units. The lexical system is the whole set of naming means of language, that is, words and stable word-groups. The grammatical system is the whole set of regularities determining the combination of naming means in the formation of utterances as the embodiment of thinking process.

Each of the three constituent parts of language is studied by a particular linguistic discipline. Thus, the phonological description of language is effected by the science of phonology; the lexical description of language is effected by the science of lexicology; the grammatical description of language is effected by the science of grammar.

Any linguistic description may have a practical or theoretical purpose. A practical description is aimed at providing the student with a manual of practical mastery of the corresponding part of language As for theoretical linguistic descriptions, they pursue analytical aims and therefore present the studied parts of language in relative isolation, so as to gain insights into their inner structure and expose the intrinsic mechanisms of their functioning. Hence, the aim of theoretical grammar of a language is to present a theoretical description of its grammatical system, i.e. to scientifically analyze and define its grammatical categories and study the mechanisms of grammatical formation of utterances out of words in the process of speech making.

2. Grammar vs Meaning

In earlier periods of the development of linguistic knowledge, grammatical scholars believed that the only purpose of grammar was to give strict rules of writing and speaking correctly. The rigid regulations for the correct ways of expression were often based on purely subjective and arbitrary judgments of individual grammar compilers. The result of this "prescriptive" approach was that alongside quite essential and useful information, non-existent "rules" were formulated that stood in sheer contradiction with the existing language usage, i.e. lingual reality. Traces of this arbitrary prescriptive approach to the grammatical teaching may easily be found even in to-date's school practice.

To refer to some of the numerous examples of this kind, let us consider the well-known rule of the English article stating that the noun which denotes an object "already known" by the listener should be used with the definite article. However, English sentences taken from the works of distinguished

authors directly contradicting this "rule":

"I've just read a book of yours about Spain and I wanted to ask you about it." - "It's not a very good book, I'm afraid" (S. Maugham). I feel a good deal of hesitation about telling you this story of my own. You see it is not a story like other stories I have been telling you: it is a true story (J.K. Jerome).

Or let us take the rule forbidding the use of the continuous tense-forms with the verb *be* as a link, as well as with verbs of perception. Here are examples to the contrary:

My holiday at Crome isn't being a disappointment (A. Huxley).
For the first time, Bobby felt, he was really seeing the man (A. Christie).

The given examples of English articles and verb forms, though not agreeing with the above "prescriptions", contain no grammar mistakes in them. We must bear in mind that the true grammatical rules or regularities cannot be separated from the expression of meanings; on the contrary, they are themselves meaningful. Namely, they are connected with the most general and abstract parts of content inherent in the elements of language. These parts of content, together with the formal means through which they are expressed, are treated by grammarians in terms of "grammatical categories". Such are, for instance, the categories of number or mood in morphology, the categories of communicative purpose or emphasis in syntax, etc. Since the grammatical forms and regularities are meaningful, it becomes clear that the rules of grammar must be stated semantically, or, more specifically, they must be worded functionally. For example, it would be fallacious to state without any further comment that the inverted word order in the English declarative sentence is grammatically incorrect. Word order as an element of grammatical form is laden with its own meaningful functions. It can express, in particular, the difference between the central idea of the utterance and the marginal idea, between emotive and unemotive modes of speech, between different types of style. Thus, if the inverted' word order in a given sentence does express these functions, then its use should be considered as quite correct. E.g.:

In the centre of the room, under the chandelier, as became a host, stood ***the head of the family, old Jolyon himself*** *(J. Galsworthy).*

3. The Plane of Content vs the Plane of Expression

The nature of grammar as a constituent part of language is better understood in the light of explicitly discriminating the two planes of language, namely, the plane of content and the plane of expression.

The plane of content comprises the purely semantic elements contained in language, while the plane of expression comprises the material (formal) units of language taken by themselves, apart from the meanings rendered by them. The two planes are inseparably connected, so that no meaning can be realized without some material means of expression. Grammatical elements of language present a unity of content and expression (or, in somewhat more familiar terms, a unity of form and meaning).

On the other hand, the correspondence between the planes of content and expression is very complex, and it is peculiar to each language. This complexity is clearly illustrated by the phenomena of polysemy, homonymy, and synonymy.

In cases of polysemy and homonymy, two or more units of the plane of content correspond to one unit of the plane of expression. For instance, the verbal form of the present indefinite (one unit in the plane of expression) polysemantically renders the grammatical meanings of habitual action, action at the present moment, action taken as a general truth (several units in the plane of content). E.g.:

I get up at half past six in the morning.
I do see your point clearly now.

As a rational being, I hate war.

The morphemic material element *-s/-es* (in pronunciation [-s, -z, -iz]), i.e. one unit in the plane of expression (in so far as the functional semantics of the elements is common to all of them indiscriminately), homonymically renders the grammatical meanings of the third person singular of the verbal present tense, the plural of the noun, the possessive form of the noun, i.e. several units of the plane of content. E.g.:

John trusts his friends. We have new desks in our classroom. The chiefs order came as a surprise.

In cases of synonymy, conversely, two or more units of the plane of expression correspond to one unit of the plane of content. For instance, the forms of the verbal future indefinite, future continuous, and present continuous (several units in the plane of expression) can in certain contexts synonymically render the meaning of a future action (one unit in the plane of content). E.g.:

Will you come to the party, too? Will you be coming to the party, too? Are you coming to the party, too?

Taking into consideration the discrimination between the two planes, we may say that the purpose of grammar as a linguistic discipline is, in the long run, to disclose and formulate the regularities of the correspondence between the plane of content and the plane of expression in the formation of utterances out of the stocks of words as part of the process of speech production.

4. Language as a System

Modern linguistics lays a special stress on the systemic character of language and all its constituent parts. It accentuates the idea that language is a system of signs (meaningful units) which are closely interconnected and interdependent. Units of immediate interdependencies (such as classes and subclasses of words, various subtypes of syntactic construction, etc.) form different microsystems (subsystems) within the framework of the global macrosystem (supersystem) of the whole of language.

Each system is a structured set of elements related to one another by a common function. The common function of all the lingual signs is to give expression to human thoughts.

The Russian scholar Beaudoin de Courtenay and the Swiss scholar Ferdinand de Saussure demonstrated the difference between lingual synchrony (coexistence of lingual elements) and diachrony (different time-periods in the development of lingual elements as well as language as a whole) and defined language as a synchronic system of meaningful elements at any stage of its historical evolution.

On the basis of discriminating synchrony and diachrony, the difference between language proper and speech proper can be strictly defined, which is of crucial importance for the identification of the object of linguistic science.

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

The system of language includes, on the one hand, the body of material units – sounds, morphemes, words, word-groups; on the other hand, the regularities or "rules" of the use of these units. Speech comprises both the act of producing utterances, and the utterances themselves, i.e. the text. Language and speech are inseparable, they form together an organic unity. As for grammar (the grammatical system), being an integral part of the lingual macrosystem it dynamically connects language with speech, because it categorially determines the lingual process of utterance production.

The sign (meaningful unit) in the system of language has only a potential meaning. In speech, the potential meaning of the lingual sign is "actualized", i.e. made situationally significant as part of the

grammatically organized text.

Lingual units stand to one another in two fundamental types of relations: **syntagmatic** and **paradigmatic**.

Syntagmatic relations are immediate linear relations between units in a segmental sequence (string). E.g.:

The spaceship was launched without the help of a booster rocket.

In this sentence syntagmatically connected are the words and word-groups *the spaceship, was launched, the spaceship was launched, was launched without the help, the help of a rocket, a booster rocket.*

Morphemes within the words are also connected syntagmatically. *E.g.: space/ship; launch/ed; with/out; boost/er.*

Phonemes are connected syntagmatically within morphemes and words, as well as at various juncture points *(cf.* the processes of assimilation and dissimilation).

The combination of two words or word-groups one of which is modified by the other forms a unit which is referred to as a syntactic "syntagma". There are four main types of notional syntagmas: *predicative* (the combination of a subject and a predicate), *objective* (the combination of a verb and its object), *attributive* (the combination of a noun and its attribute), *adverbial* (the combination of a modified notional word, such as a verb, adjective, or adverb, with its adverbial modifier).

The other type of relations, opposed to syntagmatic and called "**paradigmatic**", are such as exist between elements of the system outside the strings where they co-occur. These intra-systemic relations and dependencies find their expression in the fact that each lingual unit is included in a set or series of connections based on different formal and functional properties.

In the sphere of phonology such series are built up by the correlations of phonemes on the basis of vocality or consonantism, voicedness or devoicedness, the factor of nazalization, the factor of length, etc. In the sphere of the vocabulary these series are founded on the correlations of synonymy and antonymy, on various topical connections, on different word-building dependencies. In the domain of grammar, series of related forms realize grammatical numbers and cases, persons and tenses, gradations of modalities, sets of sentence patterns of various functional nature, etc.

5. Units of Language

Units of language are divided into **segmental** and **supra-segmental**. Segmental units consist of phonemes, they form phonemic strings of various status (syllables, morphemes, words, etc.). Supra-segmental units do not exist by themselves, but are realized together with segmental units and express different modificational meanings (functions) which are reflected on the strings of segmental units. To the supra-segmental units belong intonations (intonation contours), accents, pauses, patterns of word order.

The segmental units of language form a hierarchy of levels. This hierarchy is of a kind that units of any higher level are analyzable into (i.e. are formed of) units of the immediately lower level. Thus, morphemes are decomposed into phonemes, words are decomposed into morphemes, phrases are decomposed into words, etc.

But this hierarchical relation is by no means reduced to the mechanical composition of larger units from smaller ones; units of each level are characterized by their own, specific functional features which provide for the very recognition of the corresponding levels of language.

The lowest level of lingual segments is **phonemic**, it is formed by phonemes as the material elements of the higher-level segments. The phoneme has no meaning, its function is purely differential: it differentiates morphemes and words as material bodies. Since the phoneme has no meaning, it is not a sign.

Phonemes are combined into syllables. The syllable, a rhythmic segmental group of phonemes, is not a sign, either; it has a purely formal significance. Due to this fact, it could hardly stand to reason to

recognize in language a separate syllabic level; rather, the syllables should be considered in the light of the intra-level combinability properties of phonemes.

Phonemes are represented by letters in writing. Since the letter has a representative status, it is a sign, though different in principle from the level-forming signs of language.

Units of all the higher levels of language are meaningful.

The level located above the phonemic one is the **morphemic** level. The morpheme is the elementary meaningful part of the word. It is built up by phonemes, so that the shortest morphemes include only one phoneme. E.g.: *ros-y* [-i]; *a-fire [-ə]; comes* [-z].

The morpheme expresses abstract, "significative" meanings which are used as constituents for the formation of more concrete, "nominative" meanings of words.

The third level in the segmental lingual hierarchy is the level of words, or **lexemic** level.

The word (lexeme), as different from the morpheme, is a directly naming (nominative) unit of language: it names things and their relations. Since words are built up by morphemes, the shortest words consist of one explicit morpheme only. *Cf.*: *man, will, but, I,* etc.

The next higher unit is the phrase (word-group), it is located at the **phrasemic** level. To level-forming phrase types belong combinations of two or more notional words. These combinations, like separate words, have a nominative function, but they represent the referent of nomination as a complicated phenomenon, be it a concrete thing, an action, a quality, or a whole situation.

Notional phrases may be of a stable type and of a free type. The stable phrases (phraseological units) form the phraseological part of the lexicon, and are studied by the phraseological division of lexicology. Free phrases are built up in the process of speech on the existing productive models, and are studied in the lower division of syntax.

Above this **the level of sentences** is located. The peculiar character of the sentence ("proposeme") consists in the fact that, naming a certain situation, or situational event, it expresses predication, i.e. shows the relation of the denoted event to reality. Namely, it shows whether this event is real or unreal, desirable or obligatory, stated as a truth or asked about, etc. In this sense, as different from the word and the phrase, the sentence is a predicative unit. Cf.: *to receive - to receive a letter - Early in June I received a letter from Peter Melrose.*

The sentence is produced by the speaker in the process of speech as a concrete, situationally bound utterance. At the same time it enters the system of language by its syntactic pattern, which, as all the other lingual unit-types, has both syntagmatic and paradigmatic characteristics.

But the sentence is not the highest unit of language in the hierarchy of levels. Above this level there is still another one whose units are formed by separate sentences united into topical groupings. These sentence-groups, each distinguished by its micro-topic as part of a continual text, are called "super-sentential constructions" (or “supra-phrasal units”). In the printed text, the supra-sentential construction very often coincides with the paragraph.

The syntactic process by which sentences are connected into textual unities is analyzed under the heading of "cumulation".

Check Yourself Test

1. What is language? Characterize it.
2. What are the three constituent parts of language? Characterize each of them.
3. What was the purpose of grammar in earlier periods of the development of linguistics?
4. What do the plane of content and the plane of expression comprise?
5. Explain the systemic character of language.
6. Explain the terms “synchrony” and “diachrony”.
7. Dwell on the syntagmatic relations and their relation with the paradigmatic ones.
8. what are segmental and supra-segmental units of language?
9. What are the levels of lingual segments?
10. Define cumulation.

Literature

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Lecture 2

MORPHEMIC STRUCTURE OF THE WORD

Plan

1. The morphological system of language
2. The morphemic structure of the word.
3. The application of the distributional analysis at the morphemic level.
4. Categorial grammatical meaning.

1. The Morphological System of Language

The morphological system of language reveals its properties through the morphemic structure of words. It follows from this that morphology as part of grammatical theory faces the two segmental units: the morpheme and the word. But the morpheme is not identified otherwise than part of the word; the functions of the morpheme are effected only as the corresponding constituent functions of the word as a whole.

For instance, the form of the verbal past tense is built up by means of the grammatical suffix: *train-ed* [-d]; *publish-ed* [-t]; *meditat-ed* [-id].

However, the past tense as a definite type of grammatical meaning is expressed not by the morpheme in isolation, but by the verb (i.e. word) taken in the corresponding form (realized by its morphemic composition); the suffix is immediately related to the stem of the verb and together with the stem constitutes the temporal correlation in the paradigmatic system of verbal categories.

Thus, in studying the morpheme we actually study the word in the necessary details of its composition and functions.

It is very difficult to give a rigorous and at the same time universal definition to the word, i.e. such a definition as would unambiguously apply to all the different word-units of the lexicon. This difficulty is explained by the fact that the word is an extremely complex and many-sided phenomenon. Within the framework of different linguistic trends and theories the word is defined as the minimal potential sentence, the minimal free linguistic form, the elementary component of the sentence, the articulate sound-symbol, the grammatically arranged combination of sound with meaning, the meaningfully integral and immediately identifiable lingual unit, the uninterrupted string of morphemes, etc. None of these definitions, which can be divided into formal, functional, and mixed, has the power to precisely cover all the lexical segments of language without a residue remaining outside the field of definition.

The said difficulties compel some linguists to refrain from accepting the word as the basic element of language. In particular, American scholars – representatives of Descriptive Linguistics founded by L. Bloomfield – recognized not the word and the sentence, but the phoneme and the morpheme as the basic categories of linguistic description, because these units are the easiest to be isolated in the continual text due to their "physically" minimal, elementary segmental character: the phoneme being the minimal formal segment of language, the morpheme, the minimal meaningful segment. Accordingly, only two segmental levels were originally identified in language by Descriptive scholars: the phonemic level and the morphemic level; later, a third one was added to these - the level of "constructions", i.e. the level of morphemic combinations.

As for the criterion according to which the word is identified as a minimal sign capable of functioning alone (the word understood as the "smallest free form", or interpreted as the "potential minimal sentence"), it is irrelevant for the bulk of functional words which cannot be used "independently" even in elliptical responses.

2. The Morphemic Structure of the Word

In traditional grammar the study of the morphemic structure of the word was conducted in the light of the two basic criteria: positional criterion (the location of the marginal morphemes in relation to the central ones) and semantic or functional criterion (the correlative contribution of the morphemes to the general meaning of the word).

In accord with the traditional classification, morphemes on the upper level are divided into root-morphemes (roots) and affixal morphemes (affixes) The roots express the concrete, "material" part of the meaning of the word, while the affixes express the specificational part of the meaning of the word, the specifications being of lexico-semantic and grammatico-semantic character.

The roots of notional words are classical lexical morphemes.

The affixal morphemes include prefixes, suffixes, and inflexions (in the tradition of the English school, grammatical inflexions are commonly referred to as "suffixes") Of these, prefixes and lexical suffixes have word-building functions, together with the root they form the stem of the word, inflexions (grammatical suffixes) express different morphological categories.

The root, according to the positional content of the term (i.e. the border-area between prefixes and suffixes), is obligatory for any word, while affixes are not obligatory Therefore one and the same morphemic segment of functional (i.e. non-notional) status, depending on various morphemic environments, can in principle be used now as an affix (mostly, a prefix), now as a root. Cf.:

out - a root-word (preposition, adverb, verbal postposition, adjective, noun, verb),

throughout - a composite word in which *-out* serves as one of the roots (the categorial status of the meaning of both morphemes is the same)

outing - a two morpheme word, in which *out-* is a root and *-ing* is a suffix,

outlook, outline, outrage, out-talk etc - words, in which *out-* serves as a prefix,

look-out, knock-out, shut-out, time-out etc - words (nouns), in which *-out* serves as a suffix

3. The Application of the Distributional Analysis at the Morphemic Level

Further insights into the correlation between the formal and functional aspects of morphemes within the composition of the word may be gained in the light of the so-called **"allo-emic" theory** put forward by Descriptive Linguistics and broadly used in the current linguistic research

In accord with this theory, lingual units are described by means of two types of terms allo-terms and erne-terms *Eme*-terms denote the generalized invariant units of language characterized by a certain functional status phonemes, morphemes. *Allo*-terms denote the concrete manifestations, or variants of the generalized units dependent on the regular co-location with other elements of language **allophones, allomorphs.**

The allo-emic identification of lingual elements is achieved by means of the so-called "distributional analysis" The immediate aim of the distributional analysis is to fix and study the units of language in relation to their textual environments, i.e. the adjoining elements in the text.

The environment of a unit may be either "right" or "left", *e.g.: un-pardon-able.*

In this word the left environment of the root is the negative prefix *un-*, the right environment of the root is the qualitative suffix *-able.* Respectively, the root *-pardon-* is the right environment for the prefix, and the left environment for the suffix.

The distribution of a unit may be defined as the total of all its environments; in other words, the distribution of a unit is its environment in generalized terms of classes or categories.

Contrastive and non-contrastive distributions concern identical environments of different morphs (recurrent segments consisting of phonemes). The morphs are said to be in contrastive distribution if their meanings (functions) are different. Such morphs constitute different morphemes. Cf. the suffixes *-(e)d* and *-ing* in the verb forms *returned, returning.* The morphs are said to be in non-contrastive distribution (or free alternation) if their meaning (function) is the same. Such morphs constitute "free alternants", or "free variants" of the same morpheme. Cf. the suffixes *-(e)d* and *-t* in the verb forms *learned, learnt.*

As different from the above, complementary distribution concerns different environments of

formally different morphs which are united by the same meaning (function). If two or more morphs have the same meaning and the difference in their form is explained by different environments, these morphs are said to be in complementary distribution and considered the allomorphs of the same morpheme. Cf. the allomorphs of the plural morpheme /-s/, /-z/, /-iz/ which stand in phonemic complementary distribution; the plural allomorph *-en* in *oxen, children,* which stands in morphemic complementary distribution with the other allomorphs of the plural morpheme.

As a result of the application of distributional analysis to the morphemic level, different types of morphemes have been discriminated which can be called the "distributional morpheme types". It must be stressed that the distributional classification of morphemes cannot abolish or in any way depreciate the traditional morpheme types. Rather, it supplements the traditional classification, showing some essential features of morphemes on the principles of environmental study.

On the basis of the **degree of self-dependence,** "free" morphemes and "bound" morphemes are distinguished. Bound morphemes cannot form words by themselves, they are identified only as component segmental parts of words. As different from this, free morphemes can build up words by themselves, i.e. can be used "freely".

For instance, in the word *handful* the root *hand* is a free morpheme, while the suffix *-ful* is a bound morpheme.

There are very few productive bound morphemes in the morphological system of English. Being extremely narrow, the list of them is complicated by the relations of homonymy. These morphemes are the following:

1) the segments *-(e)s* [-z, -s, -iz]: the plural of nouns, the possessive case of nouns, the third person singular present of verbs;
2) the segments *-(e)d[-d*, -t, -id]: the past and past participle of verbs;
3) the segments -wig: the gerund and present participle;
4) the segments *-er, -est:* the comparative and superlative degrees of adjectives and adverbs.

The auxiliary word-morphemes of various standings should be interpreted in this connection as "semi-bound" morphemes, since, being used as separate elements of speech strings, they form categorial unities with their notional stem-words.

On the basis of **formal presentation,** "overt" morphemes and "covert" morphemes are distinguished. Overt morphemes are genuine, explicit morphemes building up words; the covert morpheme is identified as a contrastive absence of morpheme expressing a certain function. The notion of covert morpheme coincides with the notion of zero morpheme in the oppositional description of grammatical categories (see further).

For instance, the word-form *clocks* consists of two overt morphemes: one lexical (root) and one grammatical expressing the plural. The outwardly one-morpheme word-form *clock,* since it expresses the singular, is also considered as consisting of two morphemes, i.e. of the overt root and the covert (implicit) grammatical suffix of the singular. The usual symbol for the covert morpheme employed by linguists is the sign of the empty set: 0.

On the basis of **segmental relation**, "segmental" morphemes and "supra-segmental" morphemes are distinguished. Interpreted as supra-segmental morphemes in distributional terms are intonation contours, accents, pauses.

On the basis of **grammatical alternation**, "additive" morphemes and "replacive" morphemes are distinguished. Interpreted as additive morphemes are outer grammatical suffixes, since, as a rule, they are opposed to the absence of morphemes in grammatical alternation. *Cf. look + ed, small + er,* etc. In distinction to these, the root phonemes of grammatical interchange are considered as replacive morphemes, since they replace one another in the paradigmatic forms. *Cf. dr-i-ve - dr-o-ve - dr-i-ven; m-a-n - m-e-n,* etc.

On the basis of **linear characteristic,** "continuous" (or "linear") morphemes and "discontinuous" morphemes are distinguished.

By the discontinuous morpheme, opposed to the common, i.e. uninterruptedly expressed, continuous morpheme, a two-element grammatical unit is meant which is identified in the analytical grammatical form comprising an auxiliary word and a grammatical suffix. These two elements, as it

were, embed the notional stem; hence, they are symbolically represented as follows:

be ... **ing** - for the continuous verb forms *(e.g. is going);*

have ... **en-** for the perfect verb forms *(e.g. has taken);*

be ... **en** - for the passive verb forms (e.g. *is taken).*

4. Categorial Grammatical Meaning

Notional words, first of all verbs and nouns, possess some morphemic features expressing grammatical (morphological) meanings. These features determine the grammatical form of the word.

Grammatical meanings are very abstract, very general. Therefore the grammatical form is not confined to an individual word, but unites a whole class of words, so that each word of the class expresses the corresponding grammatical meaning together with its individual, concrete semantics.

For instance, the meaning of the substantive plural is rendered by the regular plural suffix *-(e)s,* and in some cases by other, more specific means, such as phonemic interchange and a few lexemebound suffixes.

The grammatical category is a system of expressing a generalized grammatical meaning by means of paradigmatic correlation of grammatical forms.

The ordered set of grammatical forms expressing a categorial function constitutes a paradigm.

The paradigmatic correlations of grammatical forms in a category are exposed by the so-called "grammatical oppositions".

The opposition (in the linguistic sense) may be defined as a generalized correlation of lingual forms by means of which a certain function is expressed. The correlated elements (members) of the opposition must possess two types of features: common features and differential features. Common features serve as the basis of contrast, while differential features immediately express the function in question.

The oppositional theory was originally formulated as a phonological theory. Three main qualitative types of oppositions were established in phonology: "privative", "gradual", and "equipollent". By the number of members contrasted, oppositions were divided into binary (two members) and more than binary (ternary, quaternary, etc.).

The most important type of opposition is the binary privative opposition; the other types of oppositions are reducible to the binary privative opposition.

The binary privative opposition is formed by a contrastive pair of members in which one member is characterized by the presence of a certain differential feature ("mark"), while the other member is characterized by the absence of this feature. The member in which the feature is present is called the "marked", or "strong", or "positive" member, and is commonly designated by the symbol + (plus); the member in which the feature is absent is called the "unmarked", or "weak", or "negative" member, and is commonly designated by the symbol - (minus).

For instance, the expression of the verbal present and past tenses is based on a privative opposition the differential feature of which is the dental suffix *-(e)d.* This suffix, rendering the meaning of the past tense, marks the past form of the verb positively *(we worked),* and the present form negatively *(we work).*

The gradual opposition is formed by a contrastive group of members which are distinguished not by the presence or absence of a feature, but by the degree of it.

For instance, the front vowels [i: - i - e - æ] form a quaternary gradual opposition, since they are differentiated by the degree of their openness (their length, as is known, is also relevant, as well as some other individualizing properties, but these factors do not spoil the gradual opposition as such).

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

The equipollent opposition is formed by a contrastive pair or group in which the members are distinguished by different positive features.

For instance, the phonemes [m] and [b], both bilabial consonants, form an equipollent opposition, [m]

being sonorous nasalized, [b] being plosive.

Gradual oppositions in morphology are not generally recognized.

Check Yourself Test

1. Characterize the morphological system of language.
2. Define the word.
3. What was peculiar for the representatives of Descriptive Linguistics?
4. What are the two basic criteria for the study of the morphemic structure of the word?
5. What are morphemes divided into?
6. Dwell on the allo-emic theory.
7. Where is the distributional analysis applied?
8. What are free and bound morphemes?
9. Characterize overt and covert morphemes.
10. Grammatical meanings are concrete, aren't they?
11. What is opposition in linguistics? What are its basic types?

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Lecture 3

GRAMMATICAL CLASSES OF WORDS

1. Notional and functional parts of speech.
2. Subcategorization of parts of speech.
3. Syntactic classification of word stock.

1. Notional and Functional Parts of Speech

The words of language, depending on various formal and semantic features, are divided into grammatically relevant sets or classes. The traditional grammatical classes of words are called “parts of speech”. Since the word is distinguished not only by grammatical, but also by semantico-lexemic properties, some scholars refer to parts of speech as “lexico-grammatical” series of words, or as “lexico-grammatical categories” [Смирницкий 1957: 33; 1959: 100].

In modern linguistics, parts of speech are discriminated on the basis of the three criteria: **semantic, formal and functional.** The **semantic** criterion presupposes the evaluation of the generalized meaning, which is characteristic of all the subsets of words constituting a given part of speech. This meaning is understood as the “categorical meaning of the part of speech”. The **formal** criterion provides for the exposition of the specific inflexional and derivational (word-building) features of all the lexemic subsets of a part of speech. The **functional** criterion concerns the syntactic role of words in the sentence typical of a part of speech. The said three factors of categorical characterization of words are conventionally referred to as, respectively, “meaning”, “form”, and “function”.

In accord with the described criteria, words on the upper level of classification are divided into notional and functional. To the **notional parts of speech** of the English language belong the noun, the adjective, the numeral, the pronoun, the verb and the adverb.

The **features of the noun** are the following: 1) the categorical meaning of substance (“thingness”); 2) the changeable forms of number and case; the specific suffixal forms of derivation (prefixes in English do not discriminate parts of speech as such); 3) the substantive functions in the sentence (subject, object, substantival predicative); prepositional connections; modifications by an adjective.

The **features of the adjective:** 1) the categorical meaning of property (qualitative and relative); 2) the forms of the degrees of comparison (for qualitative adjectives); the specific suffixal forms of derivation; 3) adjectival functions in the sentence (attribute to a noun, adjectival predicative).

The **features of the numeral:** 1) the categorical meaning of number (cardinal and ordinal); 2) the narrow set of simple numerals; the specific forms of composition for compound numerals; the specific suffixal forms of derivation for ordinal numerals; 3) the functions of numerical attribute and numerical substantive.

The **features of the pronoun:** 1) the categorical meaning of indication (deixis); 2) the narrow sets of various status with the corresponding formal properties of categorical changeability and word-building; 3) the substantival and adjectival functions for different sets.

The **features of the verb:** 1) the categorical meaning of process (presented in the two upper series of forms, respectively, as finite process and non-finite process); 2) the forms of the verbal categories of person, number, tense, aspect, voice, mood; the opposition of the finite and non-finite forms; 3) the function of the finite predicate for the finite verb; the mixed verbal – other than verbal functions for the non-finite verb.

The **features of the adverb:** 1) the categorical meaning of the secondary property, i.e. the property of process or another property; 2) the forms of the degrees of comparison for qualitative adverbs; the specific suffixal forms of derivation; 3) the functions of various adverbial modifiers.

Contrasted against the notional parts of speech are words of incomplete nominative meaning and non-self-dependent, mediatory functions in the sentence. These are **functional parts of speech**. To the basic functional series of words in English belong the article, the preposition, the conjunction, the particle, the modal word and the interjection.

The **article** expresses the specific limitation of the substantive functions.

The **preposition** expresses the dependencies and interdependencies of substantive referents.

The **conjunction** expresses connections of phenomena.

The **particle** unites the functional words of specifying and limiting meaning. To this series, alongside other specifying words, should be referred verbal postpositions as functional modifiers of verbs, etc.

The **modal word,** occupying in the sentence a more pronounced or less pronounced detached position, expresses the attitude of the speaker to the reflected situation and its parts. Here belong the functional words of probability (*probably, perhaps*, etc.), of qualitative evaluation (*fortunately, unfortunately, luckily*, etc.), and also of affirmation and negation.

The **interjection,** occupying a detached position in the sentence, is a signal of emotions.

2. Subcategorization of Parts of Speech

Each part of speech after its identification is further subdivided into subseries in accord with various particular semantico-functional and formal features of the constituent words. This subdivision is sometimes called "subcategorization" of parts of speech.

Thus, nouns are subcategorized into proper and common, animate and inanimate, countable and uncountable, concrete and abstract, etc. Cf.:

Mary, Robinson, London, the Mississippi, Lake Erie - girl, person, city, river, lake;
man, scholar, leopard, butterfly - earth, field, rose, machine;
coin/coins, floor/floors, kind/kinds - news, growth, water, furniture;
stone, grain, mist, leaf- honesty, love, slavery, darkness.

Verbs are subcategorized into fully predicative and partially predicative, transitive and intransitive, actional and statal, purely nominative and evaluative, etc. Cf.:

walk, sail, prepare, shine, blow - can, may, shall, be, become;
take, put, speak, listen, see, give - live, float, stay, ache,- ripen, rain;
write, play, strike, boil, receive, ride - exist, sleep, rest, thrive, revel, suffer;
roll, tire, begin, ensnare, build, tremble - consider, approve, mind, desire, hate, incline.

Adjectives are subcategorized into qualitative and relative, of constant feature and temporary feature (the latter are referred to as "statives" and identified by some scholars as a separate part of speech under the heading of "category of state"), factual and evaluative, etc. Cf.:

long, red, lovely, noble, comfortable- wooden, rural, daily, subterranean, orthographical;
healthy, sickly, joyful, grievous, wry, blazing - well, ill, glad, sorry, awry, ablaze;
tall, heavy, smooth, mental, native - kind, brave, wonderful, wise stupid.

The adverb, the numeral, the pronoun are also subject to the corresponding subcategorizations.

3. Syntactic Classification of Word Stock

Alongside the three-criteria principle of dividing the words into grammatical (lexico-grammatical) classes, modern linguistics has developed another, narrower principle of word-class identification based on syntactic featuring of words only.

The fact is that the three-criteria principle faces a special difficulty in determining the part of speech status of such lexemes as have morphological characteristics of notional words, but play the role of grammatical mediators in phrases and sentences. Here belong, for instance, modal verbs together with their equivalents – suppletive fillers, auxiliary verbs, aspective verbs, intensifying

adverbs, determiner pronouns.

Still, at the present stage of the development of linguistic science, syntactic characterization of words that has been made possible after the exposition of their fundamental morphological properties, is far more important and universal from the point of view of the general classificational requirements.

It shows the distribution of words between different sets in accord with their functional specialization. The role of morphology by this presentation is not underrated, rather it is further clarified from the point of view of exposing connections between the categorial composition of the word and its sentence-forming relevance.

The principles of syntactic (syntactico-distributional) classification of English words were worked out by L. Bloomfield and his followers Z. Harris and especially Ch. Fries.

The syntactico-distributional classification of words is based on the study of their combinability by means of substitution testing. The testing results in developing the standard model of four main "positions" of notional words in the English sentence: those of the noun (N), verb (V), adjective (A), adverb (D). Pronouns are included into the corresponding positional classes as their substitutes. Words standing outside the "positions" in the sentence are treated as function words of various syntactic values.

Comparing the syntactico-distribulional classification of words with the traditional part of speech division of words, one cannot but see the similarity of the general schemes of the two: the opposition of notional and functional words, the four absolutely cardinal classes of notional words (since numerals and pronouns have no positional functions of their own and serve as pro-nounal and pro-adjectival elements), the interpretation of functional words as syntactic mediators and their formal representation by the list.

However, under these unquestionable traits of similarity are distinctly revealed essential features of difference, the proper evaluation of which allows us to make some important generalizations about the structure of the lexemic system of language.

Check Yourself Test

1. Define parts of speech.
2. What are the main criteria of discriminating parts of speech in modern English? What does each criterion concern?
3. Enumerate the notional and functional parts of speech.
4. Name the features of the notional parts of speech.
5. Name the features of the functional parts of speech.
6. What is subcategorization of parts of speech? What are parts of speech subcategorized into?
7. Why was it necessary to elaborate the syntactic classification of words?
8. What is the syntactico-distributional classification of words based on?

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Lecture 4

THE NOUN

Plan

1. Noun: general considerations.
2. Noun: the category of gender.
3. Noun: the category of number.
4. Noun: the category of case.

The noun as a part of speech has the categorial meaning of "substance" or "thingness". It follows from this that the noun is the main nominative part of speech. The noun has the power, by way of nomination, to isolate different properties of substances (i.e. direct and oblique qualities, and also actions and states as processual characteristics of substantive phenomena) and present them as corresponding self-dependent substances. E.g.:

*Her words were unexpectedly **bitter**. – We were struck by the unexpected **bitterness** of her words.*

*At that time he was **down** in his career, but we knew well that very soon he would be **up** again. – His career had its **ups** and **downs.***

*The cable arrived when John was **preoccupied** with the arrangements for the party. – The arrival of the cable interrupted his **preoccupation** with the arrangements for the party.*

This natural and practically unlimited substantivization force establishes the noun as the central nominative lexemic unit of language.

The categorial functional properties of the noun are determined by its semantic properties.

The most characteristic substantive function of the noun is that of the subject in the sentence, since the referent of the subject is the person or thing immediately named. The function of the object in the sentence is also typical of the noun as the substance word. Other syntactic functions, i.e. attributive, adverbial, and even predicative, although performed by the noun with equal ease, are not immediately characteristic of its substantive quality as such.

The noun is characterized by some special types of combinability. In particular, typical of the noun is the prepositional combinability with another noun, a verb, an adjective, an adverb. *E.g.*: *an entrance to the house; to turn round the corner, red in the face; far from its destination.*

The possessive combinability characterizes the noun alongside its prepositional combinability with another noun. E.g.: *the speech of the President - the President's speech; the cover of the book - the book's cover.*

English nouns can also easily combine with one another by sheer contact, unmediated by any special lexemic or morphemic means. In the contact group the noun in pre-position plays the role of a semantic qualifier to the noun in post-position. *E.g.*: *a cannon ball; a log cabin; a sports event; film festivals.*

As a part of speech, the noun is also characterized by a set of formal features determining its specific status in the lexical paradigm of nomination. It has its word-building distinctions, including typical suffixes, compound stem models, conversion patterns. It discriminates the grammatical categories of gender, number, case, article determination.

The cited formal features taken together are relevant for the division of nouns into several subclasses, grouped into four oppositional pairs. The first nounal subclass opposition differentiates **proper** and **common** nouns. The foundation of this division is "type of nomination". The second subclass opposition differentiates **animate** and **inanimate** nouns on the basis of "form of existence". The third subclass opposition differentiates **human** and **non-human** nouns on the basis of "personal quality". The fourth subclass opposition differentiates **countable** and **uncountable** nouns on the basis of "quantitative structure". Somewhat less explicitly and rigorously is the division of English nouns into **concrete** and **abstract.**

2. Noun: the Category of Gender

There is a peculiarly regular contradiction between the presentation of gender in English by theoretical treatises and practical manuals. Whereas theoretical treatises define the gender subcategorization of English nouns as purely lexical or "semantic", practical manuals of English grammar do invariably include the description of the English gender in their subject matter of immediate instruction.

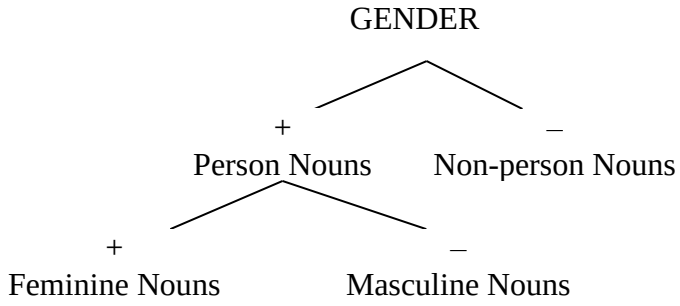
The category of gender is expressed in English by the obligatory correlation of nouns with the personal pronouns of the third person. These serve as specific gender classifiers of nouns, being potentially reflected on each entry of the noun in speech.

The category of gender is strictly oppositional. It is formed by two oppositions related to each other on a hierarchical basis. One opposition functions in the whole set of nouns, dividing them into person (human) nouns and non-person (non-human) nouns. The other opposition functions in the subset of person nouns only, dividing them into masculine nouns and feminine nouns. Thus, the first, general opposition can be referred to as the upper opposition in the category of gender, while the second, partial opposition can be referred to as the lower opposition in this category.

As a result of the double oppositional correlation, a specific system of three genders arises, which is somewhat misleadingly represented by the traditional terminology: the **neuter** (i.e. non-person) gender, the **masculine** (i.e. masculine person) gender, the **feminine** (i.e. feminine person) gender.

The oppositional structure of the category of gender can be shown schematically on the following diagramme (see Fig. 1).

Fig. 1



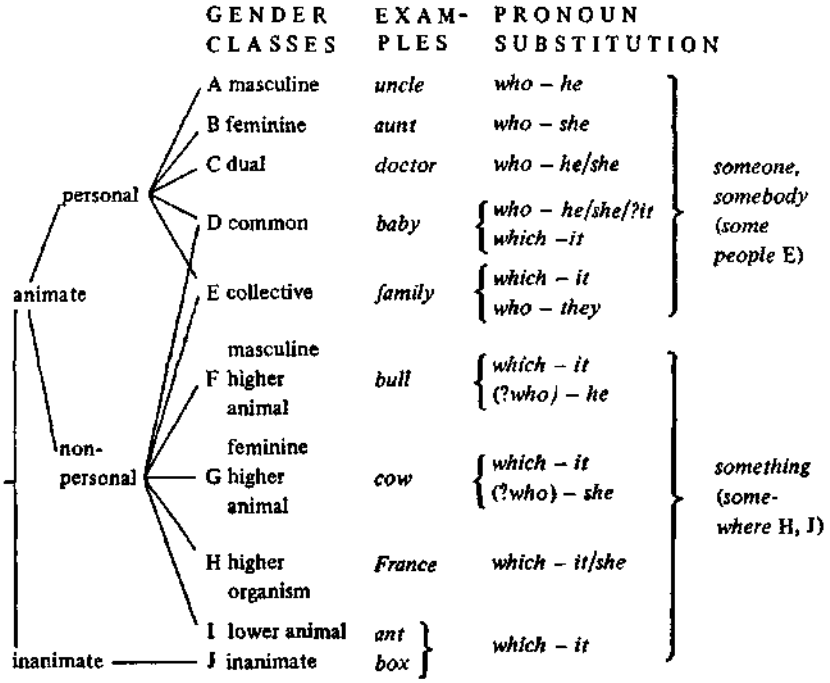
A great many person nouns in English are capable of expressing both feminine and masculine person genders by way of the pronominal correlation in question. These are referred to as nouns of the "common gender". Here belong such words as *person, parent, friend, cousin, doctor, president,* etc. In the plural, all the gender distinctions are neutralized in the immediate explicit expression, though they are rendered obliquely through the correlation with the singular.

Alongside the demonstrated grammatical (or lexico-grammatical) gender distinctions, English nouns can show the sex of their referents lexically, either by means of being combined with certain notional words used as sex indicators, or else by suffixal derivation. E.g.: *boy-friend, girl-friend; man-producer, woman-producer; washer-man, washer-woman; landlord, landlady; bull-calf, cow-calf; cock-sparrow, hen-sparrow; he-bear, she-bear; master, mistress; actor, actress; executor, executrix; lion, lioness; sultan, sultana,* etc. In fact, the referents of such nouns as *jenny-ass,* or *pea-hen,* or the like will in the common use quite naturally be represented as *it*, the same as referents of the corresponding masculine nouns *jack-ass, pea-cock* and the like. This kind of representation is different in principle from the corresponding representation of such nounal pairs as *woman – man, sister – brother, etc.*

On the other hand, when the pronominal relation of the non-person animate nouns is turned, respectively, into *he* and *she,* we can speak of a grammatical personifying transposition, very typical of English. This kind of transposition affects not only animate nouns, but also a wide range of inanimate nouns, being regulated in everyday language by cultural-historical traditions. Compare the reference of *she* with the names of countries, vehicles, weaker animals, etc.; the reference of *he* with the names of stronger animals, the names of phenomena suggesting crude strength and fierceness, etc.

R. Quirk and the co-authors of the book "A University Grammar of English" suggested a wider classification of gender classes (see Fig. 2).

Fig. 2



[A/B] Personal masculine/feminine nouns

These nouns are of two types. Type (i) has no overt marking that suggests morphological correspondence between masculine and feminine, whereas in Type (ii) the two gender forms have a derivational relationship.

(i) *morphologically unmarked for gender*	bachelor	spinster	king	queen
	brother	sister	man	woman
	father	mother	monk	nun
	gentleman	lady	uncle	aunt
(ii) *morphologically marked for gender*	bridegroom	bride	host	hostess
	duke	duchess	steward	stewardess
	emperor	empress	waiter	waitress
	god	goddess	widower	widow
	hero	heroine	usher	usherette

Some masculine/feminine pairs denoting kinship have common (dual) generic terms, for example, *parent* for *father/mother,* and *child* for *son/daughter* as well as for *boy/girl.* Some optional feminine forms *(poetess, authoress,* etc) are now rare, being replaced by the dual gender forms *(poet, author,* etc).

[C] Personal **dual** gender

This is a large class including, for example, the following:

artist	fool	musician	servant
chairman	foreigne	neighbour	speaker
cook	friend	novelist	student
criminal	guest	parent	teacher
doctor	inhabita	person	writer
enemy	librarian	professor	

For clarity, it is sometimes necessary to use a 'gender marker':

boy friend	girl friend
man student	woman

The dualclass is on the increase, but the expectation that a given activity is largely male or female dictates the frequent use of sex markers: thus*a nurse,* but *a male nurse; an engineer* but *a woman engineer.*
Note: Where such nouns are used generically, neither gender is relevant though a masculine reference pronoun may be used:

If *any student* calls, tell *him* I'll be back soon

When they are used with specific reference, they must of course be either masculine or feminine and the context may clearly imply the gender in a given case:

I met a *(handsome)* student (and *he* ...)
I met a *(beautiful)* student (and *she ...)*

[D] Common gender
Common gender nouns are intermediate between personal and non-personal. The wide selection of pronouns *(who, he/she/it)* should not be understood to mean that all these are possible for all nouns in all contexts. A mother is not likely to refer to her baby as //, but it would be quite possible for somebody who is not emotionally concerned with the child or is ignorant of or indifferent to its sex.
|**E] Collective nouns**
These differ from other nouns in taking as pronoun substitutes either singular *(it)* or plural *{they)* without change of number in the noun *(the army ~ it (they;* cf.*: the armies ~ they).* Consequently, the verb may be in the plural after a singular noun (though less commonly in AmE than in BrE):

The committee (has/have) met and (it has/they have) rejected the proposal.

The difference reflects a difference in attitude: the singular stresses the non-personal collectivity of the group and the plural the personal individuality within the group.

We may distinguish three subclasses of collective nouns:

(a) SPECIFIC: army, clan, class, club, committee, crew, crowd, family, flock, gang, government, group, herd, jury, majority, minority
(b) GENERIC: the aristocracy, the bourgeoisie, the clergy, the elite, the gentry, the intelligentsia, the laity, the proletariat, the public
(c) UNIQUE: (the) Congress, Parliament, the United Nations, the United States, the Vatican

[F/G] Higher animals
Gender in higher animals is chiefly observed by people with a special concern (e.g. with pets).

buck	doe	gander	goose
bull	cow	lion	liones
cock	hen	stallion	mare
dog	bitch	tiger	tigres

A further class might be set up, 'common higher animals', patterning with *which – it, (?who) — he/she,* to account for *horse, cat, tiger,* etc, when no sex distinction is made or known. In such cases, *he* is more usual than *she.*

[H) Geographical names (Higher organisms)

Names of countries have different gender depending on their use. (i) As geographical units they are treated as [J], inanimate: 'Looking at the map we see France here. *It is* one of the largest countries of Europe.' (ii) As political/economic units the names of countries are often feminine, [B] or [G]: 'France *has* been able to increase *her* exports by 10 per cent over the last six months.' 'England *is* proud of *her* poets.' (iii) In sports, the teams representing countries can be referred to as personal collective nouns, [E]: 'France *have* improved *their* chance of winning the cup.'

The gender class [H] is set up to embrace these characteristics, and in it we may place ships and other entities towards which an affectionate attitude is expressed by a personal substitute:

What a lovely ship. What is she called?

The proud owner of a sports car may refer to it as *she (or* perhaps as *he* if the owner is female).

{I/J] Lower animals and inanimate nouns

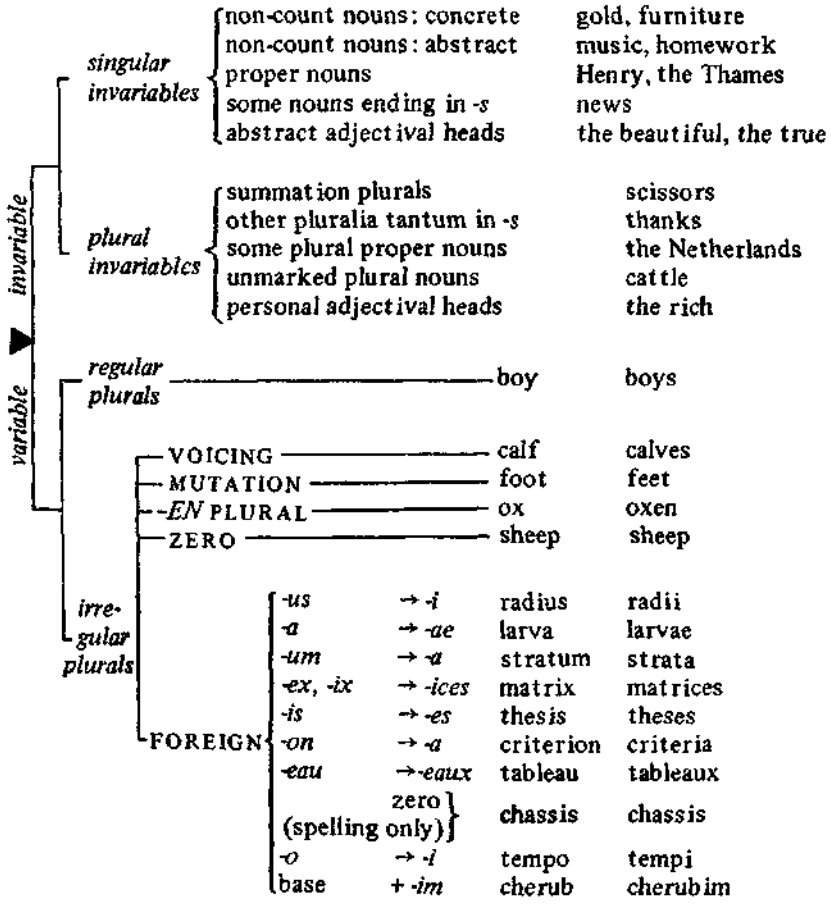
Lower animals do not differ from inanimate nouns in terms of our present linguistic criteria; *ie* both *snake* and *box* have *which* and *it* as pronouns. Sex differences can, however, be indicated by. a range of gender markers for any animate noun when they are felt to be relevant:
eg: she-goat, he-goat, male frog, hen-pheasant.

3. Noun: the Category of Number

Invariable nouns

The English number system comprises SINGULAR, which denotes 'one', and PLURAL, which denotes 'more than one'. The singular category includes common non-count nouns and proper nouns. Count nouns are VARIABLE, occurring with either singular or plural number *(boy ~ boys),* or have INVARIABLE plural *(cattle).* Fig. 3 provides a summary, with relevant section references.

Fig. 3



Note: In addition to singular and plural number, we may distinguish dual number in the case of *both, cither,* and *neither* since they can only be used with reference to two.

Invariable nouns ending in '-s'

Note the following classes which take a singular verb, except where otherwise mentioned:

(a) *news:* The news is bad today

(b) SOME DISEASES: *measles, German measles, mumps, rickets, shingles.* Some speakers also accept a plural verb.

(c) SUBJECT NAMES IN *-ICS* (usually with singular verb): *elastics, linguistics, mathematics, phonetics,* etc.

(d) SOME GAMES *billiards, bowls* (esp. BrE), *darts, dominoes, draughts* (BrE), *checkers* (AmE), *fives, ninepins*

(e) SOME PROPER NOUNS *Algiers, Athens, Brussels, Flanders, Marseilles, Naples, Wales, the United Nations* and *the United States* have a singular verb when considered as units

Plural invariable nouns

SUMMATION PLURALS

Tools and articles of dress consisting of two equal parts which are joined constitute summation plurals. Countability can be imposed by means of *a pair of a pair of scissors, three pairs of trousers*

bellows	tongs	pants
binocular	tweezers	pajamas
pincers	glasses	pajamas
pliers	spectacles	shorts
scales	braces	suspenders
scissors	flannels	tights
shears	knickers	trousers

Note:

[a] Many of the summation plurals can take the indefinite article, especially with premodification *a garden shears a curling-tongs,* etc, obvious treatment as count nouns is not infrequent *several tweezers*

[b] Plural nouns commonly lose the inflection in premodification *a suspender belt*

OTHER PLURALIA TANTUM IN *S*

Among other 'pluralia tantum' *(the* nouns that only occur in the plural), the following nouns end in *-s* In many cases, however, there are forms without *-s,* sometimes with difference of meaning

the Middle Ages
amends (make every/all possible amends)
annals
the Antipodes
archives
arms ('weapons', an arms depot)
arrears
ashes *(but* tobacco ash)
auspices
banns (of marriage)
bowels
brain(s) ('intellect', he's got good brains, *besides* a good brain)
clothes *(cf.* cloths, /s/, *plural of* cloth)
the Commons (the House of Commons)
contents *(but* the silver content of the coin)
customs (customs duty)
looks (he has good looks)
the Lords (the House of Lords)
manners
means (a man of means)
oats
odds (in betting)
outskirts
pains (take pains)
particulars (note the particulars)
premises ('building')
quarters, headquarters *(but* the Latin quarter)
regards *(but* win his regard)
remains
riches
savings (a savings bank)
spirits ('mood', *but* he has a kindly spirit)
spirits ('alcohol', *but* alcohol is a spirit)

dregs (coffee dregs)
fireworks *(but* he let off a firework)
funds ('money', *but* a fund, 'a source of money')
goods (a goods train)
greens
guts ('bowels', *but* cat-gut)
heads (heads or tails)
holidays (summer holidays, BrE, *but* he's on holiday, he's taking a holiday in Spain)
letters (a man of letters)
lodgings
stairs (a flight of stairs)
suds
surroundings
thanks
troops *(but* a troop of scouts)
tropics *(but* the Tropic of Cancer)
valuables
wages *(but* he earns a good wage)
wits (she has her wits about her, *but* he has a
regards *(but* win his regard)
remains

Note: *Cf.* also *pence* in 'a few pence tenpence', beside the regular *penny ~ pennies*
UNMARKED PLURALS

cattle
clergy *(but also singular)*
folk *(but also informal* folks)
gentry
people *(but regular when = 'nation')*
police
vermin
youth *(but regular when* = 'young man')

Regular plurals

Variable nouns have two forms, singular and plural, the singular being the form listed in dictionaries The vast majority of nouns are variable in this way and normally the plural *(s* suffix) is fully predictable both m sound and spelling by the same rules as for the *-s* inflection of verbs Spelling creates numerous exceptions, however.

(a) Treatment of *-y*

Beside the regular *spy ~ spies,* there are nouns in *-y* to which *s* is added with proper nouns: *the Kennedys, the two Germanys* after a vowel (except the *u* of *-quy): days, boys, journeys* in a few other words such as *stand-bys.*

(b) Nouns of unusual form sometimes pluralize in *'s:*

letter names: *dot your i's*
numerals: *in the 1890's* (or, increasingly, *1890s)*
abbreviations: *two MP's* (or, increasingly, *MPs)*

(c) Nouns in *-o* have plural in *-os,* with some exceptions having either optional or obligatory *-oes:*

Plurals in *-os* and *-oes:*

archipelago, banjo, buffalo, cargo, commando, flamingo, halo, motto, tornado, volcano

Plurals only in *-oes:*

echo, embargo, hero, Negro, potato, tomato, torpedo, veto

Compounds

Compounds form the plural in different ways, but (c) below is the most usual.

(a) PLURAL IN FIRST ELEMENT

attorney general	attorneys general, but more usually as (c)
notary public	notaries public
passer-by	passers-by
mother-in-law	mothers-in-law, but also as (c) informally
grant-in-aid	grants-in-aid
man-of-war	men-of-war
coat of mail	coats of mail
mouthful	mouthsful but also as (c)
spoonful	spoonsful but also as (c)

(b) PLURAL IN BOTH FIRST AND LAST ELEMENT

gentleman farmer	gentlemen farmers
manservant	menservants
woman doctor	women doctors

(c) PLURAL IN LAST ELEMENT *(ie* normal)

assistant director assistant directors

So also: boy friend, fountain pen, woman-hater, breakdown, grown-up, sit-in, stand-by, take-off, forget-me-not, etc.

Irregular plurals

Irregular plurals are by definition unpredictable and have to be learned as individual items. In many cases where foreign words are involved, it is of course helpful to know about pluralization in the relevant languages particularly Latin and Greek. Thus, on the pattern of

analysis → analyses

we can infer the correct plurals:

axis → axes basis → bases crisis → crises, etc

But we cannot rely on etymological criteria: plurals like *areas* and *villas,* for example, do not conform to the Latin pattern *(areae, villae).*

VOICING + -*S* PLURAL

Some nouns which in the singular end in the voiceless fricatives spelled *-th* and *-f* have voiced fricatives in the plural, followed by /z/. In one case the voiceless fricative is /s/ and the plural has /ziz/: *house ~ houses.*

(a) Nouns in *-th*

There in no change in spelling.

With a consonant before the *-th,* the plural is regular: *berth, birth, length,* etc.

With a vowel before the *-th,* the plural is again often regular, as with *cloth, death, faith, moth,* but in a few cases the plural has voicing *{mouth, path),* and in several cases there are both regular and voiced plurals: *bath, oath, sheath, truth, wreath, youth.*

(b) Nouns in -/(e)

Plurals with voicing are spelled *-ves.*

Regular plural only: *belief, chief, cliff, proof, roof, safe.*

Voiced plural only: *calf, elf, half, knife, leaf, life, loaf, self, sheaf, shelf, thief, wife, wolf.*

Both regular and voiced plurals: *dwarf, handkerchief, hoof, scarf, wharf.*

Note: The painting term *still life* has a regular plural: *still hfes.*

MUTATION

Mutation involves a change of vowel in the following seven nouns:

foot ~ feet	man ~ men	woman ~ women	
tooth ~ teeth	louse ~ lice	/u/	/i/
goose ~ geese	mouse ~ mice		

Note: With woman/women, the pronunciation differs in the first syllable only while *postman(post-men Englishman] men,* etc have no difference in pronunciation at all between singular and plural

THE *-EN* PLURAL

This occurs in three nouns

brother	brethren	b*rethren* (with mutation) = 'fellow members of a religious society', otherwise regular *brothers*
child	children	(with vowel change /ai/ → */ i/*
ox	oxen	

ZERO P L U R A L

Some nouns have the same spoken and written form in both singular and plural Note the difference here between, on the one hand, invariable nouns, which are either singular *(This music is too loud)* or plural *(All the cattle are grazing in the field),* and, on the other, zero plural nouns, which can be both singular and plural *(This sheep looks small, All those sheep are mine)*

Animal names

Animal names often have zero plurals They tend to be used partly by people who are especially concerned with animals, partly when the animals are referred to as game Where there are two plurals, the zero plural is the more common in contexts of hunting, etc, *e.g. We caught only a few fish,* whereas the regular plural is used to denote different individuals or species *the fishes of the Mediterranean*

The degree of variability with animal names is shown by the following lists

Regular plural *bird, cow, eagle, hen, rabbit,* etc

Usually regular *elk, crab, duck* (zero only with the wild bird)

Both plurals *antelope, reindeer, fish, flounder, herring*

Usually zero *pike, trout, carp, deer, moose*

Only zero *grouse, sheep, plaice, salmon*

Quantitative nouns

The numeral nouns *hundred, thousand,* and usually *million* have zero plurals except when unpremodified, so too *dozen, brace, head* (of cattle), *yoke* (rare), *gross, stone* (BrE weight)

He always wanted to have hundreds / thousands of books and he has recently bought ***four hundred / thousand***

Other quantitative and partitive nouns can be treated similarly, though the zero plurals are commoner in informal or technical usage

Dozens of glasses, tons of coal

He is six foot/feet (tall)

He bought eight ton(s) of coal

Note: Plural measure expressions are normally singularized when they premodify: *a five pound note a ten second pause*

Nouns in *-(e) s*

A few nouns in *-(e)s* can be treated as singular or plural

He gave *one series/two series* of lectures

With certain other nouns such as *barracks, gallows, headquarters, means, (steel) uorks,* usage varies, they are sometimes treated as variable nouns with zero plurals, sometimes as 'pluralia tantum'

F O R E I G N P L U R A L S

Foreign plurals often occur along with regular plurals. They are commoner in technical usage, whereas the -s plural is more natural in everyday language; thus *formulas* (general) ~ *formulae* (in mathematics), *antennas* (general and in electronics) ~ *antennae* (in biology).

Our aim here will be to survey systematically the main types of foreign plurals that are used in present-day English and to consider the extent to which a particular plural form is obligatory or optional Most (but by no means all) words having a particular foreign plural originated in the language mentioned in the heading.

Nouns in *-us* (Latin)

The foreign plural is *-i,* as in *stimulus ~ stimuli.*

Only regular plural *(-uses) bonus, campus chorus, circus, virus,* etc.

Both plurals *cactus, focus, fungus, nucleus, radius, to minus, syllabus.*

Only foreign plural *alumnus, bacillus, lotus, stimulus.*

Note: The usual plurals of *corpus* and *genus* are: *corpora genera.*

Nouns in *-a* (Latin)

The foreign plural is *-ae,* as in *alumna ~ alumnae.*

Only regular plural *(-as): area, arena, dilemma, diploma, drama,* etc.

Both plurals: *antenna, formula, nebula, vertebra.*

Only foreign plural: *alga, alumna, larva.*

Nouns in *-um* (Latin)

The foreign plural is *-a*, as in *curriculum ~ curricula.*

Only regular plural: *album, chrysanthemum, museum,* etc.

Usually regular: *forum, stadium, ultimatum.*

Both plurals: *aquarium, medium, memorandum, symposium.*

Usually foreign plural: *curriculum.*

Only foreign plural: *addendum, bacterium, corrigendum, desideratum, erratum, ovum, stratum.*

Note: *Media* with reference to press and radio and *strata* with reference to society are sometimes used informally as singular. In the case of *data*, reclassification as a singular non-count noun is widespread, and the technical singular *datum* is rather rare.

Nouns in *-ex, -ix* (Latin)

The foreign plural is *-ices,* as in *index ~ indices.*

Both regular and foreign plurals: *apex, index, vortex, appendix, matrix.*

Only foreign plural: *codex.*

Nouns in *-is* (Greek)

The foreign plural is *-es,* as in *basis ~ bases.*

Regular plural *(-ises): metropolis*

Foreign plural: *analysis, axis, basis, crisis, diagnosis, ellipsis, hypothesis, oasis, parenthesis, synopsis, thesi.s*

Nouns in *-on* (Greek)

The foreign plural is *-a,* as in *criterion ~ criteria.*

Only regular plurals: *demon, electron, neutron, proton* Chiefly regular: *ganglion.*

Both plurals: *automaton*

Only foreign plural: *criterion, phenomenon.*

Note: Informally, *criteria* and *phenomena* are sometimes used as singulars.

French nouns

A few nouns in *–e(a)u* retain the French *-x* as the spelling *of* the plural, beside the commoner *-s,* but the plurals are almost always pronounced as regular, /z/, irrespective of spelling, *eg: adieu, bureau, tableau, plateau.*

Some French nouns in *-s* or *-x* are pronounced with a final vowel in the singular and with a regular /z/ in the plural, with no spelling change: *chamois, chassis, corps, faux pas, patois.*

Nouns in *-o* (Italian)

The foreign plural is -/ as in *tempo ~ tempi.*

Only regular plural: *soprano*

Usually regular plural: *virtuoso, libretto, solo, tempo.*

Note: *Graffiti* is usually a 'pluralia tantum', *confetti, spaghetti* non-count singular.

Hebrew nouns

The foreign plural is *-im,* as in *kibbutz ~ kibbutzim.*

Usually regular: *cherub, seraph.*

Only foreign plural: *kibbutz.*

The semantic nature of the difference between singular and plural present some difficulties of interpretation. On the surface of semantic relations, the meaning of the singular will be understood as simply “one”, as opposed to the meaning of the plural “many” in the sense of “more than one”. This is apparently obvious for such correlations as *book – books, lake – lakes* and the like. However, alongside these semantically unequivocal correlations, there exist plurals and singulars that cannot be fully accounted for by the above ready-made approach. This becomes clear when we take for comparison such forms as *tear* (one drop falling from the eye) and *tears* (treacles on the cheeks as tokens of grief or joy), *potato* (one item of the vegetables) and *potatoes* (food), *paper* (material) and *papers* (notes or documents), *sky* (the vault of heaven), *skies* (the same sky taken as a direct or figurative background), etc.

It is sometimes stated that the plural form indiscriminately presents both multiplicity of separate

objects (“discrete” plural, e.g. *three houses*) and multiplicity of units of measure for an indivisible object (“plural of measure”, e.g. *three hours*) [Ilyish 1971, 36 ff.]. However, the difference here lies not in the content of the plural as such, but in the quality of the objects themselves. Actually, the singulars of the respective nouns differ from one another exactly on the same lines as the plurals do (cf. *one house – one hour*).

On the other hand, there are semantic varieties of the plural forms that differ from one another in their plural quality as such. Here belong, for example, cases where the plural expresses a definite set of objects (*eyes of the face, wheels of the vehicle,* etc.), various types of the referent (*wines, tees, steels*), intensity of the presentation of the idea (*years and years, thousands upon thousands*), picturesqueness (*sands, waters, snows*). The extreme point of this semantic scale is marked by the lexicalization of the plural form. Cf. *colours* as a “flag”, *attentions* as “wooing”, *pains* as “effort”, *quarters* as “abode”, etc.

The most general quantitative characteristics of individual words constitute the lexico-grammatical base for dividing the nounal vocabulary as a whole into countable and uncountable nouns. Uncountable nouns are treated grammatically as either singular or plural. Namely, the singular uncountable nouns are modified by the non-discrete quantifiers *much* or *little*, and they take the finite verb in the singular, while the plural uncountable nouns take the finite verb in the plural.

The two subclasses of uncountable nouns are usually referred to, respectively, as singularia tantum (only singular) and pluralia tantum (only plural). The absolute singular excludes the use of the modifying numeral *one*, as well as the indefinite article.

The absolute singular is characteristic of the names of abstract notions (*peace, love, joy, courage, friendship*, etc.), the names of the branches of professional activity (*chemistry, architecture, mathematics, linguistics*, etc.), the names of mass materials (*water, snow, steel, hair*, etc.), the names of the collective inanimate objects (*foliage, fruit, furniture, machinery*, etc.). Some of these words can be used in the form of the common singular with the common plural counterpart, but in this case they come to mean either different sorts of materials, or separate concrete manifestations of the qualities denoted by abstract nouns, or concrete objects exhibiting the respective qualities. Cf.:

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

Common number with uncountable singular nouns can also be expressed by means of combining them with words showing discreteness, such as *bit, piece, item, sort.* Cf.:

*The last two **items of news** were quite sensational.*
*Now I’d like to add one more **bit of information.***
*You might as well dispense with one or **two pieces of furniture** in the hall.*

In the sphere of the plural, likewise, we must recognize the common plural form as the regular feature of countability, and the absolute plural form peculiar to the uncountable subclass of pluralia tantum nouns. The absolute plural, as different from the common plural, cannot directly combine with numerals, and only occasionally does it combine with discrete quantifiers (*many, few*, etc.).

The absolute plural is characteristic of the uncountable nouns which denote objects consisting of two halves (*trousers, scissors, tongs, spectacles*, etc.), the nouns expressing some sort of collective meaning, i.e. rendering the idea of indefinite plurality, both concrete and abstract (*supplies, outskirts, clothes, parings; tidings, earnings; contents, politics; police, cattle, poultry, etc.*), the nouns denoting some diseases as well as some abnormal states of the body and mind (*measles, rickets, mumps, creeps, hysterics*, etc.). As is seen from the examples, from the point of view of number as such, the absolute plural forms can be divided into set absolute plural (objects of two halves) and non-set absolute plural (the rest).

The set plural can also be distinguished among the common plural forms, namely, with nouns denoting fixed sets of objects, such as ***eyes** of the face, **legs** of the table, **wheels** of the vehicle, funnels of the steamboat, **windows** of the room*, etc.

The necessity of expressing definite numbers in cases of uncountable pluralia tantum nouns, as

well as in cases of countable nouns denoting objects in fixed sets, has brought about different suppletive combinations specific to the plural form of the noun, which exist alongside the suppletive combinations specific to the singular form of the noun shown above. Here belong collocations with such words as *pair, set, group, bunch* and some others. Cf.: *a pair of pincers, three pairs of bathing trunks, a few groups of police, two sets of dice, several cases of measles.*

4. Noun: the Category of Case

The category of case is expressed in English by the opposition of the form in *-'s* [-z, -s, -iz], usually called the "possessive" case, or more traditionally, the "genitive" case to the unfeatured form of the noun, usually called the "common" case. The apostrophized -*s* serves to distinguish in writing the singular noun in the genitive case from the plural noun in the common case. E.g.: *the man's duty, the clerk's promotion, Max's letter, the clerk's promotion, the Empress's jewels.*

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

The case system in English is founded on a particle expression. The particle nature of *-'s* is evident from the fact that it is added in post-position both to individual nouns and to nounal word-groups of various status, rendering the same essential semantics of appurtenance in the broad sense of the term. Thus, within the expression of the genitive in English, two subtypes are to be recognized: the first (principal) is the word genitive; the second (of a minor order) is the phrase genitive. Both of them are not inflexional, but particle case-forms.

The English genitive expresses a wide range of relational meanings specified in the regular interaction of the semantics of the subordinating and subordinated elements in the genitive phrase. Summarizing the results of extensive investigations in this field, the following basic semantic types of the genitive can be pointed out.

First, the form which can be called the **genitive of possessor**. Its constructional meaning will be defined as "inorganic" possession, i.e. possessional relation (in the broad sense) of the genitive referent to the object denoted by the head-noun. E.g.: *Dad's earnings, Kate and Jerry's grandparents*.

The diagnostic test for the genitive of possessor is its transformation into a construction that explicitly expresses the idea of possession (belonging) inherent in the form. Cf., *Christine's living-room → the living-room belongs to Christine.*

Second, the form which can be called the **genitive of integer**. Its constructional meaning will be defined as "organic possession", i.e. a broad possessional relation of a whole to its part. E.g.: *Jane's busy hands; Patrick's voice.*

Diagnostic test: … → *the busy hands as part of Jane's person.*

A subtype of the integer genitive expresses a qualification received by the genitive referent through the head-word. E.g.: *Mr. Dodson's vanity, the computer's reliability.* This subtype of the genitive can be called the **genitive of received qualification.**

Third, the **genitive of agent.** The more traditional name of this genitive is **subjective.** The general meaning of the genitive of agent renders an activity or some broader processual relation with the referent of the genitive as its subject. E.g.: *the great man's arrival, the hotel's competitive position.*

Diagnostic test: … → *the great man arrives; the hotel occupies a competitive position.*

A subtype of the agent genitive expresses the author, or, more broadly considered, the producer of the referent of the head-noun. Hence, it receives the name of the **genitive of author.** E.g. *Beethoven's sonatas; the committee's progress report.*

Diagnostic test: … → *Beethoven composed (is the author of) the sonatas; ... → the committee has compiled (is the compiler of) the progress report.*

Fourth, the **genitive of patient.** This type of genitive, in contrast to the above mentioned, expresses the recipient of the action or process denoted by the head-noun. E.g. *the champion's sensational defeat; the meeting's chairman.*

Diagnostic test: … → *the champion is defeated (i.e. his opponent defeated him); ... → the meeting*

is chaired by its chairman.

Fifth, the **genitive of destination.** This form denotes the destination, or function of the referent of the head-noun. E.g. *women's footwear, a fisher's tent.*

Diagnostic test: *... → footwear for children; ... → a tent for children.*

Sixth, the **genitive of dispensed qualification.** The meaning of this genitive type, as different from the subtype "genitive of received qualification", is some characteristic or qualification, not received, but given by the genitive noun to the referent of the head-noun. E.g. *a girl's voice; a banker's statistics.*

Diagnostic test: *... → a voice characteristic of a girl; ... → statistics peculiar to a banker*.

Under the heading of this general type comes a very important subtype of the genitive which expresses a comparison. The comparison, as different from a general qualification, is supposed to be of a vivid, descriptive nature. The subtype is called the **genitive of comparison.** E.g., *the cock's self-confidence of the man*.

Diagnostic test: … → *the self-confidence like that of a cock.*

Seventh, the **genitive of adverbial.** The form denotes adverbial factors relating to the referent of the head-noun, mostly the time and place of the event. This type of genitive can be used with adverbialized substantives. E.g.: *the evening's newspaper, New York's talks.*

Diagnostic test:…→ *the newspaper issued in the evening;... →the talks that were held in New York.*

Eighth, the **genitive of quantity.** This type of genitive denotes the measure or quantity relating to the referent of the head-noun. For the most part the quantitative meaning expressed concerns units of distance measure, time, measure, weight measure. E.g.: *three miles' distance, an hour's delay.*

Diagnostic test: … → *a distance the measure of which is three miles*, etc.

Two genitives

In many instances there is a functional similarity (indeed, semantic identity) between a noun in the genitive case and the same noun as head of a prepositional phrase with *of*. We refer to the *-S* GENITIVE for the inflection and to the OF-GENITIVE for the prepositional form. For example:

*What is **the ship's** name? What is the name **of the ship**?*

Although there are usually compelling reasons for preferring one or other construction in a given case, and numerous environments in which only one construction is grammatically acceptable, the degree of similarity and overlap has led grammarians to regard the two constructions as variant forms of the genitive.

Choice of '-s' genitive

The following four animate noun classes normally take the *-s* genitive:

(a)	PERSONAL NAMES:	Segovia's pupil George Washington's statue
(b)	PERSONAL NOUNS:	the boy's new shirt my sister-in-law's pencil
(c)	COLLECTIVE NOUNS:	the government's conviction the nation's social security
(d)	HIGHER ANIMALS:	the horse's tail the lion's hunger

The inflected genitive is also used with certain kinds of inanimate nouns:

(e)	GEOGRAPHICAL and INSTITUTIONAL NAMES:	
	Europe's future	the school's history
	Maryland's Democratic Senator	London's water supply
(f)	TEMPORAL NOUNS	
	a moment's thought	a week' s holiday
	the theatre season's first big event	today's business

(g) NOUNS OF SPECIAL INTEREST TO HUMAN ACTIVITY

the brain's total solid weight	the game's history
the mind's general development	science's influence

Choice of **the 'of-genitive**

The of-genitive is chiefly used with nouns that belong to the bottom part of the gender scale, that is, especially with inanimate nouns: *the title of the book, the interior of the room.* In these two examples, an *-s* genitive would be fully acceptable, but in many instances this is not so: *the hub of the wheel, the windows of the houses.* Related no doubt to the point made about information focus, however, the corresponding personal pronouns would normally have the inflected genitive: *its hub, their windows.*

In measure, partitive, and appositive expressions, the o/-genitive is the usual form except for temporal measure *(a month's rest)* and in idioms such as *his money's worth, at arm's length.*

Again, where the of-genitive would normally be used, instances are found with the inflected form in newspaper headlines, perhaps for reasons of space economy.

FIRE AT UCLA: INSTITUTE'S ROOF DAMAGED

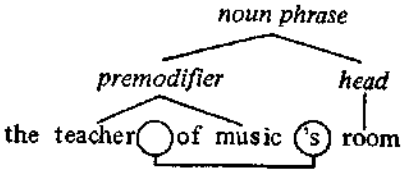
where the subsequent news item might begin: 'The roof of a science institute on the campus was damaged last night as fire swept through ...'

Note: On the other hand, beside the regular -.s genitive in *John's life, the child's life,* the idiom *for the life of me/him* requires both the of-genitive and a pronoun.

The group genitive

In some postmodified noun phrases it is possible to use an *-s* genitive by affixing the inflection to the final part of the postmodification rather than to the head noun itself. Thus:

the *teacher's* room
the *teacher of music's* room



This 'group genitive' is regularly used with such postmodifications as in *someone else's house, the heir apparent's name,* as well as prepositional phrases. Other examples involve coordinations: *an hour and a half's discussion, a week or so's sunshine.* The group genitive is not normally acceptable following a clause, though in colloquial use one sometimes hears examples like:

Old man what-do-you-call-him's house has been painted
?A man I know's son has been injured in a railway accident.

In normal use, especially in writing, such *-s* genitives would be replaced by o/-genitives:

The son of a man I know has been injured in a railway accident The genitive with ellipsis

The noun modified by the *-s* genitive may be omitted if the context makes its identity clear:

My car is faster than John's (i.e. than John's car)
His memory is like an elephant's
John's is a nice car, too

With the of-genitive in comparable environments, a pronoun is normally necessary:

*The population of New York is greater than **that** of Chicago*

Ellipsis is especially noteworthy in expressions relating to premises or establishments:

*I shall be at **Bill's***

Here *Bill's* would normally mean 'where Bill lives', even though the hearer might not know whether the appropriate head would be *house, apartment, flat, digs* (BrE); 'lives' is important, however, and *hotel room* (where Bill could only be 'staying') would be excluded. By contrast

*I shall be at **the dentist's***

would refer to the dentist's professional establishment and the same applies to proper names where these refer to commercial firms. It would not be absurd to write:

I shall be at Harrod's/Foyle's/Macy's

This usage is normal also in relation to small 'one-man' businesses:

I buy my meat at Johnson's.

With large businesses, however, their complexity and in some sense 'plurality' cause interpretation of the *-s* ending as the plural inflection, and the genitive meaning – if it survives – is expressed in writing by moving the apostrophe *(at Macys').* On the other hand, conflict between plurality and the idea of a business as a collective unity results in vacillation in concord:

Harrods is/are very good for clothes

Double genitive

An of-genitive can be combined with an *-s* genitive in a construction called the 'double genitive'. The noun with the -s genitive inflection must be both definite and personal:

An opera of Verdi's *An opera of my friend's*

but not:

**A sonata of a violinist's* **A funnel of the ship's*

There are conditions which also affect the noun preceding the o/-phrase. This cannot be a proper noun; thus while we have:

Mrs Brown's Mary

we cannot have:

**Mary of Mrs Brown* **Mary of Mrs Brown's*

Further, this noun must have indefinite reference: that is, it must be seen as one of an unspecified number of items attributed to the postmodifier:

A friend of the doctor's has arrived.
The daughter of Mrs Brown's has arrived.
A daughter of Mrs Brown's has arrived.
Any daughter of Mrs Brown's is welcome.
**The War Requiem of Britten's*

The double genitive thus involves a partitive as one of its components: 'one of the doctor's friends' (he has more than one) and hence not '*one of Britten's *War Requiem'*. Yet we are able, in apparent defiance of this statement, to use demonstratives as follows:

That wife of mine *This War Requiem of Britten's*

In these instances, which always presuppose familiarity, the demonstratives are not being used in a directly defining role; rather, one might think of them as having an ellipted generic which allows us to see *wife* and *War Requiem* appositively as members of a class of objects: 'This instance of Britten's works, namely, *War Requiem'*.

Note: So too when *'A daughter of Mrs Brown's'* is already established in the linguistic context, we could refer to *'The/That daughter of Mrs Biown's* (that I mentioned)'

Check Yourself Test

1. Define the noun.
2. What are the characteristic substantive functions of the noun?
3. What is the combinability of the noun?
4. Group the nouns into oppositional pairs.
5. How is the category of gender presented in theoretical treaties and practical grammars? What is the difference in their treatment of this category?
6. Is it possible for an English noun to express both masculine and feminine gender?
7. Dwell on the semantic nature of the difference between singular and plural.
8. What are the two subtypes of the genitive case in English?
9. What are the semantic types of the genitive?

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Lecture 5

Noun: Article Determination

Plan

1. Defining the article.
2. The usage of articles.
3. Situational assessment of the article uses.
4. Articles in the light of the oppositional theory.

1. Defining the Article

Article is a unit of specific nature accompanying the noun in communicative collocation. Its special character is clearly seen against the background of determining words of half-notional semantics. Whereas the function of the determiners such as *this, any, some* is to explicitly interpret the referent of the noun in relation to other objects or phenomena of a like kind, the semantic purpose of the article is to specify the nounal referent, as it were, altogether unostentatiously, to define it in the most general way, without any explicitly expressed contrasts. E.g.,

*Will you give me **this** pen, Willy?* (i.e. the pen that I am pointing out, not one of your choice) – *Will you give me **the** pen, please?* (i.e. simply the pen from the desk, you understand which).

***Any** blade will do, I only want it for scratching out the wrong word from the typescript. (i.e. any blade of the stock, however blunt it may be) – have you got something sharp? I need a penknife or **a** blade (i.e. simply a blade, if not a knife, without additional implications)*

***Some** woman called in your absence, she didn't give her name. (i.e. a woman strange to me) – **A** woman called while you were out, she left a message. (i.e. simply a woman, without further connotation)*

Another peculiarity of the article, as different from the determiners in question, is that in the absence of a determiner the use of the article with the noun is quite obligatory in so far as the cases of non-use of the article are subject to no less strict rules than the use of it. Thus, the task of a linguist is to decide whether the article is a purely auxiliary element of a special grammatical form of the noun which functions as a component of a definite morphological category, or it is a separate word, i.e. a lexical unit in the determiner word set, if of a more abstract meaning than other determiners.

2. The Usage of Articles

A mere semantic observation of the articles in English, i.e. the definite article **the** and the indefinite article **a/an**, at once discloses not two but three meaningful characterizations of the nounal referent achieved by their correlative functioning, namely: one is rendered by the definite article, one rendered by the indefinite article, and one rendered by the absence (or non-use) of the article. Let us examine them separately.

The definite article expresses the identification or individualization of the referent of the noun: the use of this article shows that the object denoted is taken in its concrete, individual quality. The indefinite article is commonly interpreted as referring the object denoted by the noun to a certain class of similar objects; in other words, the indefinite article expresses a classifying generalization of the nounal referent, or takes it in a relatively general sense. As for the various uses of nouns without an article, from the semantic point of view they all should be divided into two types. In the first place, there are uses where the articles are deliberately omitted out of stylistical considerations. We see such uses, for instance, in telegraphic speech, in titles and headlines, in various notices. E.g.:

The *water is horribly hot.* → ***This*** *water is horribly hot.*
What ***an*** *arrangement.* → *What* ***sort of*** *arrangement.*
Telegram *received* ***room*** *reserved for* ***week-end.*** (The text of a telegram)
Conference *adjourned until further notice.* (The text of an announcement)
Big red bus *rushes food to* ***strikers.*** (The text of a newspaper announcement)

Alongside free elliptical constructions, there are cases of the semantically unspecified non-use of the article in various combinations of fixed type, such as prepositional phrases (*on fire, at hand, in debt*, etc.), fixed verbal collocations (*take place, make use, cast anchor*, etc.), descriptive coordinative groups and repetition groups (*man and wife, dog and gun, day by day*, etc.), and the like. These cases of traditionally fixed absence of the article are quite similar to the cases of traditionally fixed uses of both indefinite and definite articles (cf.: *in a hurry, at a loss, in the main, out of the question*, etc.).

The meaningful non-uses of the article are not homogeneous; nevertheless, they admit of a very explicit classification founded on the countability characteristics of the noun. The essential points of the said classification are three in number.

First, the meaningful absence of the article before the countable noun in the singular signifies that the noun is taken in an abstract sense, expressing the most general idea of the object denoted. This meaning, which may be called the meaning of "absolute generalization", can be demonstrated by inserting in the tested construction a chosen generalizing modifier such as *in general, in the abstract, in the broadest sense.* Cf.:

Law (in general) *begins with the beginning of human society.*

Second, the absence of the article before the uncountable noun corresponds to the two kinds of generalization: both relative and absolute. To decide which of the two meanings is realized in any particular case, the described tests should be carried out alternately. Cf.:

John laughed with ***great bitterness*** (that sort of bitterness – relative generalization).
The subject of ***health*** (in general – absolute generalization) *was carefully avoided by everybody.*

Third, the absence of the article before the countable noun in the plural, likewise, corresponds to both kinds of generalization, and the exposition of the meaning in each case can be achieved by the same semantic tests. Cf.:

Stars, planets *and* ***comets*** (these kinds of objects: relative generalization) *are different* ***celestial bodies*** (not terrestrial bodies: relative generalization).
Wars (in general: absolute generalization) *should be eliminated as means of deciding international disputes.*

To distinguish the demonstrated semantic functions of the non-uses of the article by definition, we may say that the absence of the article with uncountable nouns, as well as with countable nouns in the plural renders the meaning of "uncharacterized generalization", as different from the meaning of "absolute generalization", achieved by the absence of the article with countable nouns in the singular.

3. Situational Assessment of the Article Uses

Examined from the angle of situational assessment, the definite article serves as an indicator of the type of nounal information which is presented as the "facts already known", i.e. as the starting point of the communication. In contrast to this, the indefinite article or the meaningful absence of the article introduces the immediate informative data to be conveyed from the speaker to the listener. In the situational study of syntax the starting point of the communication is called its "theme", while the central informative part is called its "rheme".

In accord with the said situational functions, the typical syntactic position of the noun modified by the definite article is the "thematic" subject, while the typical syntactic position of the noun modified by the indefinite article or by the meaningful absence of the article is the "rhematic" predicative. Cf.:

The day (subject) *was drawing to a close,* ***the busy noises of the city*** (subject) *were dying down.*
How to handle the situation was ***a big question*** (predicative)

Another essential contextual-situational characteristic of the articles is their immediate connection with the two types of attributes to the noun. The first type is a "limiting" attribute, which requires the definite article before the noun; the second type is a "descriptive" attribute, which requires the indefinite article or the meaningful absence of the article before the noun. Cf.:

The events ***chronicled in the narrative*** *took place some four years ago.* (a limiting attribute)
She was a person of ***strong will and iron self-control.*** (a descriptive attribute)

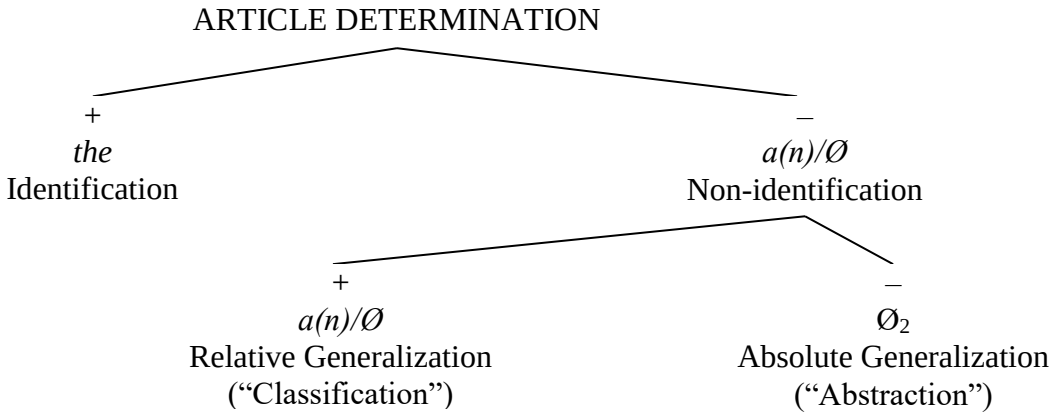
4. Articles in the Light of the Oppositional Theory

In the light of the oppositional theory the article determination of the noun should be divided into two binary correlations connected with each other hierarchically. The opposition of the higher level operates in the whole system of articles. It contrasts the definite article with the noun against the indefinite article and the meaningful absence of the article. In this opposition the definite article should be interpreted as the strong member by virtue of its identifying and individualizing function, while the other forms of article determination should be interpreted as the weak member, i.e. the member that leaves the feature in question ("identification") unmarked.

The opposition of the lower level contrasts the two types of generalization, i.e. the relative generalization distinguishing its strong member (the indefinite article plus the meaningful absence of the article as its analogue with uncountable nouns and nouns in the plural) and the absolute, or "abstract" generalization distinguishing the weak member of the opposition (the meaningful absence of the article).

The described oppositional system can be shown on the following diagram (see Fig. 4).

Fig. 4



The best way of demonstrating the actual oppositional value of the articles on the immediate textual material is to contrast them in syntactically equivalent conditions in pairs. *Cf.* the examples given below.

Identical nounal positions for the pair "the definite article – the indefinite article":

The train *hooted* (that train). ***- A train*** *hooted* (some train*).*

Correlative nounal positions for the pair "the definite article – the absence of the article":

*I'm afraid **the oxygen is out*** (our supply of oxygen). - ***Oxygen** is necessary for life* (oxygen in general, life in general).

Correlative nounal positions for the pair "the indefinite article - the absence of the article":

*Be careful, there is **a puddle** under your feet* (a kind of puddle). – *Be careful, there is **mud** on the ground* (as different from clean space).

Finally, correlative nounal positions for the easily neutralized pair "the zero article of relative generalization – the zero article of absolute generalization":

***New information** should be gathered on this subject* (some information). – ***Scientific information** should be gathered systematically in all fields of human knowledge* (information in general).

Within the system of the determiners two separate subsets can be defined, one of which is centred around the definite article with its individualizing semantics (*this – these, that – those, my, our, your, his, her, its, their*), and the other one around the indefinite article with its generalizing semantics (*another, some, any, every, no*). In other words, the observation inevitably leads us to the conclusion that the article determination of the noun as a specific grammatical category remains valid also in such cases when the noun is modified not by the article itself, but by a semi-notional determiner. E.g.:

*But unhappily **the wife** wasn't listening. – But unhappily **his wife** wasn't listening.*
*What could **a woman** do in a situation like that? – What could **any woman** do in a situation like that?*
*At least I saw **interest** in her eyes. – At least I saw **some interest** in her eyes.*

The demonstration of the organic connection between the articles and semi-notional determiners, in its turn, makes it possible to disclose the true function of the grammatical use of articles with proper nouns. E.g.,

*It was like seeing **a Vesuvius** at the height of its eruption.* Cf.: *The sight looked to us like **another Vesuvius.***

The data obtained show that the English noun, besides the variable categories of number and case, distinguishes also the category of determination expressed by the article paradigm of three grammatical forms: the definite, the indefinite, the zero. The paradigm is generalized for the whole system of the common nouns, being transpositionally outstretched also into the system of proper nouns.

Check Yourself Test

1. Define the article.
2. How do articles differ from determiners?
3. What is characteristic for the use of articles?
4. When do we omit articles?
5. How does the oppositional theory affect the use of articles?

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Lecture 6

The Grammatical Categories of the Pronoun

Plan

1. Meaning and morphological structure of pronouns.
2. Classification of pronouns.
3. Pronoun: the categories of person and number.
4. Pronoun: the category of case.
5. Pronoun: the category of gender.

1. Meaning and Morphological Structure of Pronouns

The status of the pronoun in the system of the parts of speech is a special one because some of the pronouns share the essential properties of nouns (e.g. *someone*), while others have much in common with adjectives (e.g. *this*). Since the categorical meaning of the pronoun is difficult to define, some scholars refuse to recognize pronouns as a separate part of speech and distribute them between nouns and adjectives. Most Modern English grammars, however, distinguish pronouns from both nouns and adjectives.

The meaning of pronouns is general and undetermined; their semantic interpretation depends on context. Pronouns point to things without naming them. This property is described as indication. Indication is considered to be the semantic foundation of another basic feature of pronouns: substitution. As substitutes, pronouns act as syntactic representatives of other parts of speech, taking on their meaning in context. This isolates all the heterogeneous groups of pronouns into a special set within the parts of speech.

In terms of form, pronouns fall into different types. Some of them are variable in form *(one / one's / ones),* and others are invariable *(something, which).* Variable pronouns express a number of grammatical categories. Some pronouns have the category of number, singular and plural *(this/these),* while others do not *(somebody);* some have the category of case *(she/her, everybody/everybody's),* while others have none.

In terms of their word-building structure, pronouns can have a base form consisting of a plain stem *(I, either, any,* etc.) or **a derivational** form, consisting of a stem and an affix *(theirs).* Two pronouns have a **composite** structure *(each other, one another).* There are also **compound** pronouns, formed by putting together two stems *(everyone, something,* etc.). The combination of the negative pronoun *no* with the stems *-body* and *-thing* forms negative compounds. The negative pronouns *neither* and *none* are regarded as having a base form in present-day English, and the negative pronoun *no one* is either spelt as two words or hyphenated, being intermediate in structure between composite and compound pronouns.

2. Classification of Pronouns

Many pronouns function both as determiners modifying a noun (*this dog*) and as pronouns proper, or, without any noun (*which of the dogs*). Others can be determiners only (*he*). Thus, in a sentence, pronouns act as noun determiners or have the same syntactic functions as nouns:

Every cloud has a silver lining, (noun determiner)
Nobody wanted to leave, (subject)
Say *something, please,* (direct object)
What are you thinking about? (prepositional object)
He's a mere nobody, (predicative)

Besides, all wh-pronouns (*who, whose, what, which*), as well as the pronoun *that*, serve as subordinators (connectives) in complex sentences. E.g.:

What can't be cured must be endured.

There exist various **classifications of pronouns**. We shall treat them under the following headings.

Personal or **central pronouns,** with the subgroups of:

a) personal pronouns proper – *I, you, he, she, it, we, they;*

b) possessive pronouns – *my, your, his, her, its, our, their, mine, yours, his, hers, ours, theirs;*

c) reflexive pronouns – *myself, yourself, himself, herself, itself, ourselves, yourselves, themselves.*

Demonstrative pronouns – this, that, these, those.

Indefinite pronouns, with the subgroups of:

a) indefinite pronouns proper – *some, any, no, somebody, anybody, nobody, someone, anyone, no one, none, something, anything, nothing, one;*

b) distributive pronouns – *all, every, each, other, another, either, neither, both, everybody, everyone, everything.*

Reciprocal pronouns – *other, one another.*

Interrogative pronouns, which also function as relative words introducing phrases and clauses – *who, whose, what, which.*

It is clear, however, that some points in this classification are not grammatical at all. Thus, if we say, for instance, that a pronoun is indefinite we do not characterize it from a grammatical but from a semantic point of view. There is no doubt that the pronoun *something* is indefinite in its meaning, but that indefiniteness of meaning is in no way reflected either in its morphological properties or in its syntactical functions. This is as much to say that the indefiniteness of its meaning is irrelevant from the grammatical viewpoint.

3. Pronoun: the Categories of Person and Number

The grammatical category of person is peculiar to the central (i.e. personal, possessive and reflexive) pronouns. It is referred to as one of the shifter (or deictic) categories; the reference of deictic words varies in the process of communication with the shift of the speaker/ addressee and participant/non-participant roles. The central pronouns, expressing as they do the category of person, belong to deictic words, since their reference is determined by the act of communication: the first person denotes the speaker(s)/writer(s) of the utterance (7, we); the second person, the addressee(s), i.e. the hearer(s)/reader(s) *(you)* and the third person, a being/beings or thing(s) not involved in the act of communication *(he, she, it, they).* Besides, the referent of a third person pronoun can be determined by discourse, where the pronoun points back or forward to an antecedent expressed by a noun or another pronoun:

Elizabeth II was in her mid-twenties when she came to the throne.
When she came to the throne, Elizabeth II was in her mid-twenties.

These types of contextual reference, distinguished from deixis (or situational reference), are known as anaphoric and cataphoric reference, respectively. They are established not only by the third person central pronouns, but also by other subclasses of pronouns.

The category of number is peculiar to the central, demonstrative and some of the indefinite pronouns. It is not expressed in the same way as in nouns. Most nouns take the ending *-sl-es,* which is affixed to the singular form, whereas plural central and demonstrative pronouns are chiefly represented by suppletive (i.e. morphologically unrelated) stems: *my – our, that – those.*

This first person central pronouns have one singular form and one plural form for each of the subgroups: *I – we* (personal pronoun), *my – our* (possessive), etc.

The second person of personal (you) and possessive *(your)* pronouns is interpreted in actual utterances as either singular or plural and combines with a plural verb even though it may refer to one addressee: *You are a sensible man* – You *are sensible men.* The second person of reflexive pronouns, however, maintains the number contrast: *yourself – yourselves.*

The third person has three singular forms (he, *she, it; his, her, its; himself, herself, itself)* and one plural form (they; *their; themselves)* for each subgroup.

The indefinite pronoun *one* builds up the plural with the help of the inflection: *one – ones.* The plural form *others* correlates with two singular indefinite pronouns in substantive use, depending on the type of identification: *another—others* (indefinite identification) and *the other – the others* (definite identification).

4. Pronoun: the Category of Case

In present-day English, the category of case is a controversial issue. It is restricted to the sphere of nouns and pronouns. Linguists traditionally distinguish the **common** case contrasted to the **genitive** case in discussing nouns, and the **nominative** case contrasted to the objective case in discussing pronouns.

Nominative	I	he	she	(it)	we	(you)	they	who
Objective	me	him	her	(it)	us	(you)	them	whom

At the same time, the pronouns that convey a meaning similar to the genitive of nouns are regarded as a separate subclass, termed "possessive pronouns". However, the term "possessive pronoun" is not applied to the genitive or possessive form *whose* or to the inflected forms of indefinite or reciprocal pronouns, e. g. *each other's, one's, anybody's,* etc. Although this approach is somewhat inconsistent, it is widely accepted in practical grammars for teaching purposes.

The term "objective case" suggests that the form is limited to the syntactic function of object. This is true to the extent that a personal pronoun object is always in the objective case:

They offered me a ride.
We hope you will visit us soon.

However, the term “objective case” can be misleading. The case distinction between *who* and *whom* is not always maintained, because the use of the objective form *whom* is felt to be too formal:

Who did you go with? (informal)
With whom did you go? (very formal)

Besides, there are a number of syntactic positions where the choice between the nominative case and the objective case of personal pronouns seems to be determined by the register of communication (formal or informal) and perhaps some other factors rather than the function of the pronoun in the sentence.

1. The subject of an elliptical sentence and similar structures:

Who opened the door? – I did / I (rare) / *Me* (informal) – *He did / Him* (informal). (Note that *He* is not used as a short answer in similar contexts.)
He’ll lend you a hand. –He won’t / Not him (informal)
I’m tired. – So am I (formal) / *I, too.* (formal) / *Me too.* (informal)
I don’t know her name. – Neither do I / Me neither. (informal)
Get out of here now! – Who, me?
It’s about time you got married. – Me, get married?
You are older than she is/than she/than her. (informal)

You are as pretty as she is/as she/ as her (informal)

2. The appositive subject expressed by a coordinated phrase:

Could we talk about it, just you and I? / you and me? (informal)
My cousin and I, / My cousin and me (informal), *we never agree on anything.*

3. The subject (i.e. nominal) element of an absolute construction with or without a participle placed in final position:

It was hard to understand the lyrics of this song, he being an Irishman / him being an Irishman. (informal)
Sheila wants to marry a banker, and him at least sixty years old!

4. The predicative (after *It + be*) of complete and elliptical sentences:

Who's there? – It's I (formal) / *It's me / (Only) me / Me, Jack.*
It was Caroline. – Oh, she! / Oh, her! (informal)
I knew it was he (formal) / him (informal) by his handwriting.

5. The nucleus of a one-member sentence, combining with a limited set of attributes:

Poor me!
Silly us!
Good old him (informal)

6. The appositive first-person subject:

Me, I never lost my temper. (informal)

The objective case is clearly preferred to the nominative case in informal usage; moreover, in (5) and (6), the nominative case is not possible at all.

It can be assumed that the proximity factor largely accounts for the choice of the case form: where the pronoun immediately precedes or follows a finite verb with which it agrees in person and number (as in *as... as she is, so do I,* etc.), the nominative case is the only possible option; where the pronoun is moved farther away from its finite verb, it is likely to change into the objective case.

Besides, it could tentatively be suggested that nominative pronouns are generally unstressed (unless, of course, they receive special prominence) while objective pronouns can be both stressed and unstressed. Therefore, the choice of the objective case form allows making an emphasis on the pronoun.

This shows that the term "case", as applied to the present-day pronoun system in English, is largely conventional. It is not without reason that some modern grammars avoid using the term "case" and distinguish two sets of forms rather than two cases: **the basic form** and **the object form** of personal pronouns.

5. Pronoun: the Category of Gender

The category of gender shows whether a word denotes a personal or non-personal entity. Therefore, personal gender is contrasted to non-personal gender. With reference to pronouns, these terms may be somewhat confusing: for instance, *it*, which is grammatically a third person (i.e. personal) pronoun, has to be qualified as non-personal; at the same time, *who*, which is an interrogative / relative, not a personal pronoun, has to be described as expressing personal gender.

The category of personal gender implies a further opposition of the biological sex of the referent: female or male. Feminine gender expresses the female sex of the referent, and masculine gender expresses the male sex. The pronoun *it*, even though it occasionally refers to a living being (such as *a bird, a baby*, etc.) is neuter, i.e. unmarked as feminine or masculine. Sex distinctions are restricted to the third person pronouns: personal, possessive and reflexive.

The first and the second person central pronouns are inevitably personal, i.e. animate, though unmarked as feminine or masculine. The third person singular distinguishes between non-personal (*it*) and personal (*he, she*) gender, the latter forms marked by feminine / masculine gender contrast. The plural form, however, is gender-neutral (*they*).

The interrogative pronouns *who* and *what* are contrasted as expressing personal and non-personal gender, and so are *who* and *which* used as relative words, or subordinators. However, *whose* can be gender-neutral in the function of subordinator: *an old oak whose branch was broken by the storm.* Indefinite and negative pronouns in *-one* and *-body* are personal and those in *-thing* are non-personal. The indefinite pronoun *one* is personal (*One lives and learns; The little ones are in the nursery now*) unless it serves as a substitute word, or prop-word, used to avoid repetition (*Give me another crayon, a / the new one*). Other pronouns are unmarked for gender.

In Modern English, the category of gender is regarded as lexical or lexico-grammatical; the sex opposition is lexical.

Check Yourself Test

1. What parts of speech do pronouns share common properties with?
2. What is the semantic interpretation of pronouns?
3. Name the formal and structural peculiarities of pronouns.
4. What is the status of the pronoun in the system of the parts of speech?
5. What are the syntactic functions of the pronouns?
6. Classify English pronouns.
7. What grammatical categories do pronouns have?
8. What classes of pronouns have the category of person?
9. Define deixis.
10. What cases do pronouns have?
11. What is misleading in the term “objective case”?
12. Define the category of gender.

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Lecture 7

CATEGORIES OF THE VERB.

Plan

1. Grammatical categories of verbs.
2. Notional, semi-notional and functional verbs.
3. Actional, statal and processual verbs.
4. Aspective characteristics of verbs.
5. Types of valency.

1. Grammatical Categories of Verbs

Grammatically the verb is the most complex part of speech. This is due to the central role it performs in the expression of the predicative *functions of the sentence, i.e. the functions establishing the connection* between the situation (situational event) named in the utterance and reality. The complexity *of* the verb is inherent not only in the intricate structure of its grammatical categories, but also in its various subclass divisions, as well as in its falling into two sets of forms profoundly different from each other: the finite set and the non-finite set.

The general categorical meaning of the verb is process presented dynamically, i.e. developing in time. This general processual meaning is embedded in the semantics of all the verbs, including those that denote states, forms of existence, types of attitude, evaluations, etc., rather than actions.

And this holds true not only about the finite verb, but also about the non-finite verb. The processual semantic character of the verbal lexeme even in the non-finite form is proved by the fact that in all its forms it is modified by the adverb and, with the transitive verb, it takes a direct object. Cf.:

*Mr. Brown received **the visitor instantly,** which was unusual. – Mr. Brown's receiving **the visitor** instantly was unusual. – It was unusual for Mr. Brown to receive **the visitor instantly.***

*But: An **instant** reception **of the visitor** was unusual for Mr. Brown.*

The processual categorial meaning of the notional verb determines its characteristic combination with a noun expressing both the doer of the action (its subject) and, in cases of the objective verb, the recipient of the action (its object); it also determines its combination with an adverb as the modifier of the action.

In the sentence, the finite verb invariably performs the function of the verb-predicate, expressing the processual categorial features of predication, i.e. time, aspect, voice, and mood.

The non-finite verb performs different functions according to its intermediary nature (those of the syntactic subject, object, adverbial modifier, attribute), but its non-processual functions are always actualized in close combination with its processual semantic features. This is especially evident in demonstrative correlations of the "sentence-phrase" type. Cf.:

***His rejecting the proposal** surprised us. – That **he had rejected the proposal** surprised us.*

***Taking this into consideration,** her attitude can be understood. – **If one takes this into consideration,** her attitude can be understood.*

From the point of view of their outward structure, verbs are characterized by specific forms of word-building, as well as by the formal features expressing the corresponding grammatical categories.

The verb stems may be simple, sound-replacive, stress-replacive, expanded, composite, and phrasal. The original simple verb stems are not numerous. Cf. such verbs as *go, take, read,* etc. But conversion (zero-suffixation) as a means of derivation, especially conversion of the “noun → verb” type, greatly enlarges the simple stem set of verbs, since it is one of the most productive ways of

forming verb lexemes in modern English. Cf.: *a cloud – to cloud; a house – to house; a man – to man; a park – to park*, etc.

The sound-replacive type of derivation and the stress-replacive type of derivation are unproductive. Cf.: *food – to feed, blood – to bleed; ´import – to im´port, ´transport – to trans´port.*

The typical suffixes expanding the stem of the verb are: *-ate (cultivate), -en (broaden), -ify (clarify), -ize (normalize).* The verb-deriving prefixes of the inter-class type are: *be- (belittle, befriend, bemoan)* and *en-/em- (engulf, embed).* Some other characteristic verbal prefixes are: *re- (remake), under- (undergo), over- (overestimate), sub- (submerge), mis- (misunderstand), un- (undo),* etc.

The composite (compound) verb stems correspond to the composite non-verb stems from which they are etymologically derived. Here belong the compounds of the conversion type (*blackmail n. – blackmail v.*) and of the reduction type (*proof-reader n. – proofread v.*).

The phrasal verb stems occupy an intermediary position between analytical forms of the verb and syntactic word combinations. Among such stems two specific constructions should be mentioned. The first is a combination of the head-verb *have, give, take* and occasionally some others with a noun; the combination has as its equivalent an ordinary verb. Cf.: *to have a smoke – to smoke; to give a smile – to smile; to take a stroll – to stroll.*

The second is a combination of head-verb with a verbal postposition that has a specificational value. Cf.: *stand up, go on, give in, be off, get along.*

The grammatical categories which find formal expression in the outward structure of the verb are: the category of finitude dividing the verb into finite and non-finite forms (the corresponding contracted names are “finites” and “verbids”), the categories of person, number, tense, aspect, voice, and mood, whose complete set is revealed in every word-form of the notional finite verb.

2. Notional, Semi-notional and Functional Verbs

The class of verbs falls into a number of subclasses distinguished by different semantic and lexico-grammatical features. On the upper level of division two unequal sets are identified: the set of verbs of **full nominative** value (**notional verbs**), and the set of verbs of **partial nominative** value (**semi-notional** and **functional verbs**). The first set is derivationally open, it includes the bulk of the verbal lexicon. The second set is derivationally closed; it includes limited subsets of verbs characterized by individual relational properties.

Semi-notional and functional verbs include auxiliary verbs, modal verbs, semi-notional verbid introducer verbs, and link-verbs.

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

Modal verbs are used with the infinitive as predicative markers expressing relational meanings of the subject attitude type, i.e. ability, obligation, permission, advisability, etc. By way of extension of meaning, they also express relational probability, serving as probability predicators. The modal verbs *can, may, must, shall, will, ought to, need, used (to), dare* are defective in forms, and are suppletively supplemented by stative groups. The supplementation is effected both for the lacking finite forms and the lacking non-finite forms. Cf.:

*The boys **can** prepare the play-ground themselves. → The boys **will be able to** prepare the play-ground themselves. → The boys’ **being able** to prepare the play-ground themselves.*

Semi-notional verbid introducer verbs are distributed among the verbal sets of discriminatory relational semantics (*seem, happen, turn out*, etc.), of subject-action relational semantics (*try, fail, manage*, etc.), of phrasal semantics (*begin, continue, stop*, etc.). The predicator verbs should be strictly distinguished from their grammatical homonyms in the subclasses of notional verbs. As a matter of fact, there is a fundamental grammatical difference between the verbal constituents in such sentences as, say, "They *began* to fight" and "They *began* the fight". Whereas the verb in the first sentence is a semi-notional predicator, the verb in the second sentence is a notional transitive verb normally related to

its direct object. The phrasal predicator *begin* (the first sentence) is grammatically inseparable from the infinitive of the notional *verb fight,* the two lexemes making one verbal-part unit in the sentence. The transitive verb *begin* (the second sentence), on the contrary, is self-dependent in the lexico-grammatical sense, it forms the predicate of the sentence by itself and as such can be used in the passive voice, the whole construction of the sentence in this case being presented as the regular passive counterpart of its active version. Cf.:

They *began* the fight. → The fight was *begun* (by them).
They *began* to fight. → * *To fight was begun* (by them).*

Link-verbs introduce the nominal part of the predicate (the predicative), which is commonly expressed by a noun, an adjective, or a phrase of a similar semantico-grammatical character. of a similar semantico-grammatical character. It should be noted that link-verbs, although they are named so, are not devoid of meaningful content. Performing their function of connecting ("linking") the subject and the predicative of the sentence, they express the actual semantics of this connection, i.e. expose the relational aspect of the characteristics ascribed by the predicative to the subject.

The linking predicator function in the purest form is effected by the verb *be*; therefore *be* as a link-verb can be referred to as the “pure link-verb”. Other link-verbs express some specification of this general predicative-linking semantics, so that they should be referred to as “specifying” link-verbs. The common specifying link-verbs fall into two main groups: those that express perceptions and those that express non-perceptional, or “factual” link-verb connection. The main perceptional link-verbs are *seem, appear, look, feel, taste*; the main factual link-verbs are *become, get, grow, remain, keep.*

Besides the link-verbs proper, there are some notional verbs in language that have the power to perform the function of link-verbs without losing their lexical nominative value. Cf.:

*Fred **lay** awake all through the night.*
*Robbie **ran in** out of breath.*
*The moon **rose** red.*

Notional link-verb function is mostly performed by intransitive verbs of motion and position. Due to the double syntactic character of the notional link-verb, the whole predicate formed by it is referred to as a “double predicate”.

3. Actional, Statal and Processual Verbs

Notional verbs undergo the three main grammatically relevant categorizations. The first is based on the relation of the subject of the verb to the process denoted by the verb. The second is based on the aspective characteristics of the process denoted by the verb, i.e. on the inner properties of the process as reflected in the verbal meaning. The third is based on the combining power of the verb in relation to other notional words in the utterance.

On the basis of the subject-process relation, all the notional verbs can be divided into actional and statal. **Actional verbs** express the action performed by the subject, i.e. they present the subject as an active doer (in the broadest sense of the word). To this subclass belong such verbs as *do, act, perform, make, go, read, learn, discover,* etc. **Statal verbs** denote the state of their subject, i.e. either give the subject the characteristic of the inactive recipient of some outward activity, or else express the mode of its existence. To this subclass belong such verbs as *be, live, survive, worry, suffer, rejoice, stand, see, know,* etc.

Alongside the two verbal sets, a third could be distinguished which is made up of verbs expressing neither actions, nor states, but “processes”. As representatives of the **purely processual** subclass one might point out the verbs *thaw, ripen, deteriorate, consider, neglect, support, display*, and the like. On closer observation, however, it becomes clear that the units of this medial subclass are subject to the same division into actional and statal sets. For instance, the “purely processual” verb *thaw* referring to

an inactive substance should be defined, more precisely, as "processual-statal", whereas the "processual" verb *consider* relating to an active doer should be looked upon, more precisely, as "processual-actional".

Among these of a special significance are the verbal sets of mental processes and sensual processes. Within the first of them we recognize the correlation between the verbs of mental perception and mental activity. E.g.: *know – think; understand – construe; notice – note; admire – assess; forget – reject,* etc.

Within the second set we recognize the correlation between the verbs of physical perception as such and physical perceptional activity. E.g.: *see – look; hear – listen; feel (inactive) – feel (active) – touch; taste (inactive) – taste (active); smell (inactive) – smell (active),* etc. The initial member of each correlation pair presents a case of statal verb, while the succeeding member, respectively, of an actional verb.

4. Aspective Characteristics of Verbs

Aspective verbal semantics exposes the inner character of the process denoted by the verb. It represents the process as durative (continual) (*continue, prolong, last, linger, live, exist*), iterative (repeated) (*reconsider*), terminate (concluded) (*terminate, finish, end, conclude, close, solve, resolve, sum up, stop*), interminate (not concluded) (*know, have, possess, hope*), instantaneous (momentary) (*burst, click, knock, bang, jump, drop*), ingressive (starting) (*begin, start, resume, set out, get down*), overcompleted (developed to the extent of superfluity) (*oversimplify, outdo*), undercompleted (not developed to the full extent) (*underestimate*), and the like.

Some of these aspectual meanings are inherent in the basic semantics of certain subsets of English verbs. Compare, for instance, verbs of ingression *{begin, start, resume, set out, get down),* verbs of instantaneity *(burst, click, knock, bang, jump, drop),* verbs of termination *(terminate, finish, end, conclude, close, solve, resolve, sum up, stop),* verbs of duration *(continue, prolong, last, linger, live, exist).* The aspectual meanings of overcompletion, undercompletion, repetition, and the like can be rendered by means of lexical derivation, in particular, prefixation *(oversimplify, outdo, underestimate, reconsider).* Such aspectual meanings as ingression, duration, termination, and iteration are regularly expressed by aspective verbal collocations, in particular, by combinations of aspective predicators with verbids *(begin, start, continue, finish, used to, would,* etc., plus the corresponding verbid component).

In terms of the most general subclass division related to the grammatical structure of language, two aspective subclasses of verbs should be recognized in English. These will comprise numerous minor aspective groups of the types shown above as their microcomponent sets.

The basis of this division is constituted by the relation of the verbal semantics to the idea of a processual limit, i.e. some border point beyond which the process expressed by the verb or implied in its semantics is discontinued or simply does not exist. For instance, the verb *arrive* expresses an action which evidently can only develop up to the point of arriving; on reaching this limit, the action ceases. The verb *start* denotes a transition from some preliminary state to some kind of subsequent activity, thereby implying a border point between the two. As different from these cases, the verb *move* expresses a process that in itself is alien to any idea of a limit, either terminal or initial.

The verbs of the first order, presenting a process as potentially limited can be called **limitive (terminative)**. To the subclass of limitive belong such verbs as *arrive, come, leave, find, start, stop, conclude, aim, drop, catch* , etc. Here also belong phrasal verbs with limitive postpositions, e.g. *stand up, sit down, get out, be off,* etc.

The verbs presenting a process as not limited by any border point, should be called, correspondingly, **unlimitive (non-terminative, durative, cursive).** To this subclass belong such verbs as *move, continue, live, sleep, work, behave, hope, stand,* etc.

Some authors recognize also a third subclass, namely, **verbs of double aspective nature** (of **double** or **mixed lexical character**). These are capable of expressing either a "terminative" or "non-terminative" ("durative") meaning depending on the context.

5. Types of Valency

The combining power of words in relation to other words in syntactically subordinate positions (the positions of "adjuncts") is called their **syntactic valency.** The valency of a word is said to be "realized" when the word in question is actually combined in an utterance with its corresponding valency partner, i.e. valency adjunct. If, on the one hand, the word is used without its valency adjunct, the valency conditioning the position of this adjunct (or "directed" to it) is said to be "not realized".

The syntactic valency falls into two cardinal types: **obligatory** and **optional**.

The **obligatory valency** is such as must necessarily be realized for the sake of the grammatical completion of the syntactic construction. For instance, the subject and the direct object are obligatory parts of the sentence, and, from the point of view of sentence structure, they are obligatory valency partners of the verb. Consequently, we say that the subjective and the direct objective valencies of the verb are obligatory. E.g.: *We saw a house in the distance.*

This sentence presents a case of a complete English syntactic construction. If we eliminate its subject or object, the remaining part of the construction will be structurally incomplete, i.e. it will be structurally "gaping". Cf.:

**We saw in the distance. *Saw a house in the distance.*

The **optional valency** is not necessarily realized in grammatically complete constructions: this type of valency may or may not be realized depending on the concrete information to be conveyed by the utterance. Most of the adverbial modifiers are optional parts of the sentence, so in terms of valency we say that the adverbial valency of the verb is mostly optional. For instance, the adverbial part of the above sentence may be freely eliminated without causing the remainder of the sentence to be structurally incomplete: *We saw a house (in the distance).*

The predicative valency of the link-verbs proper is obligatory. Cf.:

*That young scapegrace made **a good husband,** after all.*

Link-verbs, although their classical representatives are only half-notional, should also be included into the general valency characterization of verbs. This is due to their syntactically essential position in the sentence. The predicative valency of the link-verbs proper is obligatory. Cf.:

*The reporters seemed **pleased** with the results of the press conference.*
*That young scapegrace made **a good husband**, after all.*

The obligatory adjuncts of the verb, with the exception of the subject (whose connection with the verb cannot be likened to the other valency partners), may be called its **complements**; the optional adjuncts of the verb, its **supplements.** The distinction between the two valency types of adjuncts is highly essential, since not all the objects or predicatives are obligatory, while, conversely, not all the adverbial modifiers are optional. E.g.:

*We did it **for you**.* (the object of the addressee is optional)
*The night came **dark and stormy.*** (the predicative to a notional verb is optional)
*The patient is doing **fine**.* (the adverbial of manner is obligatory)

Thus, according as they have or have not the power to take complements, the notional verbs should be classed as **complementive** or **uncomplementive.**

In connection with this upper division, the notions of verbal transitivity and objectivity should be considered. Verbal transitivity, as one of the specific qualities of the general "completivity", is the ability of the verb to take a direct object. The direct object is joined to the verb "directly", without a preposition. Verbal objectivity is the ability of the verb to take any object, be it direct, or oblique

(prepositional), or that of the addressee. Transitive verbs are opposed to intransitive verbs; objective verbs are opposed to non-objective (or "subjective") verbs.

Uncomplementive verbs fall into two unequal subclasses of **personal** and **impersonal** verbs.

The **personal uncomplementive verbs**, i.e. uncomplementive verbs normally referring to the real subject of the denoted process (which subject may be either an actual human being, or else an inanimate substance or an abstract notion), form a large set of lexemes of various semantic properties. Here are some of them: *work, start, pause, hesitate, act, function, materialize, laugh, cough, grow, scatter*, etc.

The subclass of **impersonal verbs** is small and strictly limited. Here belong verbs mostly expressing natural phenomena of the self-processual type, i.e. natural processes going on without a reference to a real subject. Cf.: *rain, snow, freeze, drizzle, thaw*, etc.

Complementive verbs are divided into the predicative, objective and adverbial sets. The **predicative complementive verbs**, i.e. link-verbs, have been discussed above as part of the predicator verbs. The main link-verb subsets are, first, the pure link *be*; second, the specifying links *become, grow, seem, appear, look, taste*, etc.; third, the notional links.

The **objective complementive verbs** are divided into several important subclasses, depending on the kinds of complements they combine with. At the upper level of division they fall into **monocomplementive verbs** (taking one object-complement) (*have, take, forget, look at, point to, cost, become, belong to, abound in*) and **bicomplementive verbs** (taking two complements) (*give, bring, explain, introduce, teach, ask, argue, consult, remind of, apologize for, send, keep*).

The **monocomplementive objective verbs** fall into five main subclasses. The first subclass is the possession objective verb *have* forming different semantic varieties of constructions. This verb is normally not passivized. The second subclass includes direct objective verbs, *e.g. take, grasp, forget, enjoy, like.* The third subclass is formed by the prepositional objective verbs, *e.g. look at, point to, send for, approve of think about.* The fourth subclass includes non-passivized direct objective verbs, *e.g. cost, weigh, fail, become, suit.* The fifth subclass includes non-passivized prepositional objective verbs, *e.g. belong to, relate to, merge with, confer with, abound in.*

The **bicomplementive objective verbs** fall into five main subclasses. The first subclass is formed by addressee-direct objective verbs, i.e. verbs taking a direct object and an addressee object, *e.g. a) give, bring, pay, hand, show* (the addressee object with these verbs may be both non-prepositional and prepositional); b) *explain, introduce, mention, say, devote* (the addressee object with these verbs is only prepositional). The second subclass includes double direct objective verbs, i.e. verbs taking two direct objects, *e.g. teach, ask, excuse, forgive, envy, fine.* The third subclass includes double prepositional objective verbs, i.e. verbs taking two prepositional objects, *e.g. argue, consult, cooperate, agree.* The fourth subclass is formed by addressee prepositional objective verbs, i.e. verbs taking a prepositional object and an addressee object, *e.g. remind of, tell about, apologize for, write of, pay for.* The fifth subclass includes adverbial objective verbs, i.e. verbs taking an object and an adverbial modifier (of place or of time), *e.g. put, place, lay, bring, send, keep.*

Adverbial complementive verbs include two main subclasses. The first is formed by verbs taking an adverbial complement of place or of time, e.g.: *be, live, stay, go, ride, arrive.* The second is formed by verbs taking an adverbial complement of manner, e.g.: *act, do, keep, behave, get on.*

Observing the syntagmatic subclasses of verbs, we see that the same verb lexeme, or lexico-phonemic unit (phonetical word), can enter more than one of the outlined classification sets. This phenomenon is called **subclass migration.** Cf.:

*Who **runs** faster, John or Nick?* (*run* – uncomplementive)
*The man **ran** after the bus.* (*run* – adverbial complementive, non-objective)
*I **ran** my eyes over the uneven lines, (run* - adverbial objective, transitive)
*And **is** the fellow still **running** the show? (run* - monocomplementive, transitive)

Check Yourself Test

1. Characterize the verb from the semantic and structural points of view.
2. How do notional verbs differ from functional verbs?
3. Why are modal verbs defective? Give examples.
4. Give the difference between the actional, statal and processual verbs.
5. What do we call the verbs presenting a process as potentially limited? What is their counterpart?
6. What is syntactic valency? What types of valency do linguists distinguish?
7. How is verbal transitivity and objectivity treated in modern linguistics?
8. What do we call subclass migration?
9. Classify complementive and uncomplementive verbs.
10. Define supplements and complements.

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Lecture 8

NON-FINITE VERBS (VERBIDS)

Plan

1. The verbids: general characteristics.
2. The infinitive.
3. The gerund.
4. The participle.

1. The Verbids: General Characteristics

Verbids are the forms of the verb intermediary in many of their lexico-grammatical features between the verb and the non-processual parts of speech. The mixed features of these forms are revealed in the principal spheres of the part-of-speech characterization, i.e. in their meaning, structural marking, combinability, and syntactic functions.

The processual meaning is exposed by them in a substantive or adjectival-adverbial interpretation: they render processes as peculiar kinds of substances and properties. They are formed by special morphemic elements which do not express either grammatical time or mood (the most specific finite verb categories). They can be combined with verbs like non-processual lexemes (performing non-verbal functions in the sentence), and they can be combined with non-processual lexemes like verbs (performing verbal functions in the sentence).

In other words, we may say that the opposition of the finite verbs and the verbids is based on the expression of the functions of full predication and semi-predication. While the finite verbs express predication in its genuine and complete form, the function of the verbids is to express semi-predication, building up semi-predicative complexes within different sentence constructions.

The English verbids include four forms distinctly differing from one another within the general verbid system: the infinitive, the gerund, the present participle, and the past participle. In compliance with this difference, the verbid semi-predicative complexes are distinguished by the corresponding differential properties both in form and in syntactic-contextual function.

2. The Infinitive

The **infinitive** is the non-finite form of the verb which combines the properties of the verb with those of the noun, serving as the verbal name of a process. By virtue of its general process-naming function, the infinitive should be considered as the head-form of the whole paradigm of the verb.

The infinitive is used in three fundamentally different types of functions: first, as a notional, self-positional syntactic part of the sentence; second, as the notional constituent of a complex verbal predicate built up around a predicator verb; third, as the notional constituent of a finite conjugation form of the verb. The first use is grammatically “free”, the second is grammatically “half-free”, the third is grammatically “bound”.

The dual verbal-nominal meaning of the infinitive is expressed in full measure in its free, independent use. It is in this use that the infinitive denotes the corresponding process in an abstract, substance-like presentation. This can easily be tested by question-transformations. Cf.:

*Do you really mean **to go away** and **leave** me here alone? → **What** do you really mean?*
*It made her proud sometimes to **toy** with the idea. → **What** made her proud sometimes?*

The combinability of the infinitive also reflects its dual semantic nature, in accord with which we distinguish between its verb-type and noun-type connections. The verb-type combinability of the infinitive is displayed in its combining, first, with nouns expressing the object of the action; second,

with nouns expressing the subject of the action; third, with modifying adverbs; fourth, with predicator verbs of semi-functional nature forming a verbal predicate; fifth, with auxiliary finite verbs (word-morphemes) in the analytical forms of the verb. The noun-type combinability of the infinitive is displayed in its combining, first, with finite notional verbs as the object of the action; second, with finite notional verbs as the subject of the action.

The self-positional infinitive, in due syntactic arrangements, performs the functions of all types of notional sentence-parts, i.e. the subject, the object, the predicative, the attribute, the adverbial modifier:

To meet *the head of the administration and not* ***to speak*** *to him about your predicament was unwise, to say the least of it.* (Infinitive subject position)

The chief arranged ***to receive*** *the foreign delegation in the afternoon*. (Infinitive object position)

The parents' wish had always been ***to see*** *their eldest son the continuator of their joint scientific work.* (Infinitive predicative position)

Here again we are faced with a plot ***to overthrow*** *the legitimately elected government of the republic.* (Infinitive attributive position)

Helen was far too worried ***to listen*** *to the remonstrances*. (Infinitive adverbial position)

If the infinitive in free use has its own subject, different from that of the governing construction, it is introduced by the preposition-particle *for*. The whole infinitive construction of this type is traditionally called the "*for-to* infinitive phrase". Cf.:

For that shy-looking young man to have stated his purpose so boldly *– incredible!*

With some transitive verbs (of physical perceptions, mental activity, declaration, compulsion, permission, etc.) the infinitive is used in the semi-predicative construction of the complex object and complex subject, the latter being the passive counterpart of the former. Cf.:

We have never heard ***Charlie play his violin****.* → ***Charlie*** *has never been heard* ***to play*** *his violin.*

The members of the committee expected ***him to speak against the suggested resolution****.* → *He was expected by the members of the committee* ***to speak against the suggested resolution***.

Due to the intersecting character of joining with the governing predicative construction, the subject of the infinitive in such complexes, naturally, has no introductory preposition-particle.

The English infinitive exists in two presentation forms. One of them, characteristic of the free uses of the infinitive, is distinguished by the prepositional marker *to.* This form is called traditionally the **"*to*-infinitive",** or in more recent linguistic works, the "marked infinitive". The other form, characteristic of the bound uses of the infinitive, does not employ the marker *to*, thereby presenting the infinitive in the shape of the pure verb stem, which in modern interpretation is understood as the zero-suffixed form. This form is called traditionally the "bare infinitive", or in more recent linguistic works, respectively, "the unmarked infinitive".

The only function of the particle *to* is to build up and identify the infinitive form as such. The particle *to* can be used in an isolated position to represent the whole corresponding construction syntagmatically zeroed in the text. Cf.:

You are welcome to acquaint yourself with any of the documents if you want ***to.***

It can also be separated from its notional, i.e. infinitive part by a word or a phrase, usually of the adverbial nature, forming the so-called **"split infinitive".** Cf.:

My task is not to accuse or acquit; my task is ***to*** *thoroughly* ***investigate, to*** *clearly* ***define,*** *and* ***to*** *consistently* ***systematize*** *the facts.*

Thus, the marked infinitive presents just another case of an analytical grammatical form. The use or non-use of the infinitive marker depends on the verbal environment of the infinitive. Namely, the unmarked infinitive is used, besides the various analytical forms, with modal verbs (except the modals *ought* and *used*), with verbs of physical perceptions, with the verbs *let, bid, make, help* (with the latter – optionally), with the verb *know* in the sense of "experience", with a few verbal phrases of modal nature (*had better, would rather, would have*, etc.), with the relative-inductive *why.*

The infinitive is a categorically changeable form. It distinguishes the three grammatical categories sharing them with the finite verb, namely, the aspective category of development (continuous in opposition), the aspective category of retrospective coordination (perfect in opposition), the category of voice (passive in opposition). Consequently, the categorical paradigm of the infinitive of the objective verb includes eight forms: the indefinite active, the continuous active, the perfect active, the perfect continuous active; the indefinite passive, the continuous passive, the perfect passive, the perfect-continuous passive. E.g.: *to take – to be taking – to have taken – to have been taking; to be taken – to be being taken – to have been taken – to have been being taken.*

The infinitive paradigm of the non-objective verb, correspondingly, includes four forms: the indefinite active, the continuous active, the perfect active, perfect continuous active. E.g.: *to go – to be going – to have gone – to have been going.*

The continuous and perfect continuous passive can only be used occasionally, with a strong stylistic colouring. It is the indefinite infinitive that constitutes the head-form of the verbal paradigm.

3. The Gerund

The gerund is the non-finite form of the verb which, like the infinitive, combines the properties of the verb with those of the noun. Similar to the infinitive, the gerund serves as the verbal name of a process, but its substantive quality is more strongly pronounced than that of the infinitive. Namely, as different from the infinitive, and similar to the noun, the gerund can be modified by a noun in the possessive case or its pronominal equivalents (expressing the subject of the verbal process), and it can be used with prepositions.

The general combinability of the gerund, like that of the infinitive, is dual, sharing some features with the verb, and some features with the noun. The verb-type combinability of the gerund is displayed in its combining, first, with nouns expressing the object of the action; second, with modifying adverbs; third, with certain semi-functional predicator verbs, but other than modal. Of the noun-type is the combinability of the gerund, first, with finite notional verbs as the object of the action; second, with finite notional verbs as the prepositional adjunct of various functions; third, with finite notional verbs as the subject of the action; fourth, with nouns as the prepositional adjunct of various functions.

The gerund, in the corresponding positional patterns, performs the functions of all the types of notional sentence-parts, i.e. the subject, the object, the predicative, the attribute, the adverbial modifier:

Repeating *your accusations over and over again doesn't make them more convincing.* (Gerund subject position)

No wonder he delayed ***breaking*** *the news to Uncle Jim.* (Gerund direct object position)

She could not give her mind to ***pressing*** *wild flowers in Pauline's botany book.* (Gerund addressee object position)

Joe felt annoyed at ***being shied*** *by his room-mates.* (Gerund prepositional object position)

You know what luck is? Luck is ***believing*** *you're lucky.* (Gerund predicative position)

Fancy the pleasant prospect of ***listening*** *to all the gossip they've in store for you!* (Gerund attributive position)

He could not push against the furniture without ***bringing*** *the whole lot down.* (Gerund adverbial of manner position)

One of the specific gerund patterns is its combination with the noun in the possessive case or its possessive pronominal equivalent expressing the subject of the action. This gerundial construction is

used in cases when the subject of the gerundial process differs from the subject of the governing sentence-situation, i.e. when the gerundial sentence-part has its own, separate subject. E.g.:

Powell's being rude *like that was disgusting.*
Will he ever excuse ***our having interfered!***

Besides combining with the possessive noun-subject, the verbal *ing*-form can also combine with the noun-subject in the common case or its objective pronominal equivalent. E.g.:

I read in yesterday's paper about ***the hostages having been released****.*

The gerund is a categorically changeable (variable, demutative) form; it distinguishes the two grammatical categories, namely, the aspective category of retrospective coordination (perfect in opposition), and the category of voice (passive in opposition). Consequently, the categorical paradigm of the gerund of the objective verb includes four forms: the simple active, the perfect active; the simple passive, the perfect passive. E.g.: *taking – having taken – being taken – having been taken.*

The gerundial paradigm of the non-objective verb, correspondingly, includes two forms: the simple active and the perfect active. E.g.: *going – having gone.*

The perfect forms of the gerund are used, as a rule, only in semantically strong positions, laying special emphasis on the meaningful categorical content of the form.

4. The Participle

The **present participle** is the non-finite form of the verb which combines the properties of the verb with those of the adjective and adverb, serving as the qualifying-processual name. In its outer form the present participle is wholly homonymous with the gerund, ending in the suffix *-ing* and distinguishing the same grammatical categories of retrospective coordination and voice.

Like all the verbids, the present participle has no categorial time distinctions, and the attribute “present” is a conventional name. The present participle has its own place in the general paradigm of the verb, different from that of the past participle, being distinguished by the corresponding set of characterization features.

Since it possesses some traits both of adjective and adverb, the present participle is not only dual, but triple by its lexico-grammatical properties, which is displayed in its combinability, as well as in its syntactic functions.

The verb-type combinability of the present participle is revealed, first, in its being combined, in various uses, with nouns expressing the object of the action; second, with nouns expressing the subject of the action (in semi-predicative complexes); third, with modifying adverbs; fourth, with auxiliary finite verbs (word-morphemes) in the analytical forms of the verb. The adjective-type combinability of the present participle is revealed in its association with the modified nouns, as well as with some modifying adverbs, such as adverbs of degree. The adverb-type combinability of the present participle is revealed in its association with the modified verbs.

The self-positional present participle, in the proper syntactic arrangements, performs the functions of the predicative (occasional use, and not with the pure link *be*), the attribute or the adverbial modifier of various types. Cf.:

The questions became more and more ***irritating***. (Present participle predicative position)
She had thrust the crucifix on to the ***surviving*** *baby*. (Present participle attributive front-position)
Norman stood on the pavement like a man ***watching*** *his loved one go aboard an ocean liner*. (Present participle attributive back-position)
He was no longer the cocky, pugnacious boy, always ***squaring*** *up for a fight*. (Present participle attributive back-position, detached)

She went up the steps, ***swinging*** *her hips and tossing her fur with bravado*. (Present participle manner adverbial back-position)

And ***having read*** *in the papers about truth drugs, of course, Gladys would believe it absolutely.* (Present participle cause adverbial front-position)

The present participle, similar to the infinitive, can build up semi-predicative complexes of objective and subjective types. The two groups of complexes, i.e. infinitival and present participial, may exist in parallel (e.g. when used with some verbs of physical perceptions), the difference between them lying in the aspective presentation of the process. Cf.:

Nobody noticed ***the scouts approach the enemy trench***. *– Nobody noticed* ***the scouts approaching the enemy trench with slow, cautious, expertly calculated movements.***

Suddenly ***a telephone*** *was heard* ***to buzz****, breaking the spell. –* ***The telephone*** *was heard* ***vainly buzzing*** *in the study.*

A peculiar use of the present participle is seen in the absolute participial constructions of various types, forming complexes of detached semi-predication. Cf.:

The messenger waiting in the hall*, we had only a couple of minutes to make a decision.*

The dean sat at his desk, ***with an electric fire glowing warmly behind the fender at the opposite wall.***

The **past participle** is the non-finite form of the verb which combines the properties of the verb with those of the adjective, serving as the qualifying-processual name. The past participle is a single form, having no paradigm of its own. By way of paradigmatic correlation with the present participle, it conveys implicitly the categorical meaning of the perfect and the passive. As different from the present participle, it has no distinct combinability features or syntactic function features specially characteristic of the adverb. Thus, the main self-positional functions of the past participle in the sentence are those of the attribute and the predicative. Cf.:

Moyra's ***softened*** *look gave him a new hope*. (Past participle attributive front-position)

The cleverly ***chosen*** *timing of the attack determined the outcome of the battle*. (Past participle attributive front-position)

It is a face ***devastated*** *by passion*. (Past participle attributive back-position)

His was a victory ***gained*** *against all rules and predictions.* (Past participle attributive back-position)

Looked upon *in this light, the wording of the will didn't appear so odious*. (Past participle attributive detached position)

The light is bright and inconveniently ***placed*** *for reading*. (Past participle predicative position)

Like the present participle, the past participle is capable of making up semi-predicative constructions of complex object, complex subject, as well as of absolute complex.

The past participial complex object is specifically characteristic with verbs of wish and oblique causality *(have, get).* Cf.:

I want ***the document prepared*** *for signing by 4 p.m.*

Will you have my ***coat brushed up****, please?*

The complex subject of this type, whose participle is included in the double predicate of the sentence, is used but occasionally. A more common type of the participial complex subject can be seen with notional links of motion and position. Cf.:

We *sank down and for a while* ***lay*** *there* ***stretched out and exhausted.***

The absolute past participial complex as a rule expresses priority in the correlation of two events. Cf.:

***The preliminary talks completed**, it became possible to concentrate on the central point of the agenda.*

The past participles of non-objective verbs are rarely used in independent sentence-part positions; they are mostly included in phraseological or cliché combinations like *faded photographs, fallen leaves, a retired officer, a withered flower, dream come true,* etc. In these and similar cases the idea of pure quality rather than that of processual quality is expressed, the modifying participles showing the features of adjectivization.

The past participle is traditionally interpreted as being capable of adverbial-related use (like the present participle), notably in detached syntactical positions, after the introductory subordinative conjunctions. Cf.:

***Called up** by the conservative minority, the convention failed to pass a satisfactory resolution.*
*Though **welcomed** heartily by his host, Frederick felt at once that something was wrong.*

Check Yourself Test

1. What is the processual meaning of the verbids?
2. What are the four forms of English verbids?
3. Define the infinitive.
4. What is the combinability of the infinitive?
5. Name and characterize the semi-predicative constructions with the infinitive.
6. What is peculiar about the form of the “to-infinitive” and the “split infinitive”?
7. What functions is the infinitive used in?
8. Define the gerund.
9. How do the gerund and the infinitive differ from each other?
10. What is the combinability of the gerund?
11. What are the grammatical categories of the gerund?
12. Define the participle.
13. Why is the present participle triple by its lexico-grammatical properties?
14. What is the combinability of the participle?
15. Name and characterize the semi-predicative constructions with the participle.

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Lecture 9

FINITE VERBS

1. The verbal categories of person and number.
2. The category of tense.
3. The category of aspect.
4. The category of voice.
5. The category of mood.

1. The Categories of Person and Number

The finite forms of the verb express the processual relations of substances and phenomena making up the situation reflected in the sentence. The finite verb is directly connected with the structure of the sentence as a whole. Indeed, the finite verb, through the working of its categories, is immediately related to such sentence-constitutive factors as morphological forms of predication, communication purposes, subjective modality, subject-object relation, gradation of probabilities, and quite a few other factors of no lesser importance.

The expression of the category of person is essentially confined to the singular form of the verb in the present tense of the indicative mood and, besides, is very singularly presented in the future tense. As for the past tense, the person is alien to it, except for a trace of personal distinction in the archaic conjugation.

In the present tense the expression of the category of person is divided into three peculiar subsystems. The first subsystem includes the modal verbs that have no personal inflexions: *can, may, must, shall, will, ought, need, dare.* So, in the formal sense, the category of person is wholly neutralized, or, in plainer words, it is left unexpressed.

The second subsystem is made up by the unique verbal lexeme *be* which has three different suppletive personal forms, namely: *am* for the first person singular, *is* for the third person singular, and *are* (it coincides with the plural all-person (equal to none-person) marking).

The third subsystem presents just the regular, normal expression of person with the remaining multitude of the English verbs, with each morphemic variety of them. From the formal point of view, this subsystem occupies the medial position between the first two: if the verb *be* is at least two-personal, the normal personal type of verb conjugation is one-personal. Indeed, the personal mark is confined here to the third person singular *-(e)s* [-z, -s, -iz], the other two persons (the first and the second) remaining unmarked, e.g.: *comes – come, blows – blow, stops – stop, chooses – choose.*

Alongside this universal system of three sets of verbal forms, modern English possesses another system of person-conjugation characterizing elevated modes of speech (solemn addresses, sermons, poetry, etc.) and stamped with a flavour of archaism. The archaic person-conjugation has one extra feature in comparison with the common conjugation, namely, a special inflexion for the second person singular. The three described subsystems of the personal verb forms receive the following featuring:

The modal person-conjugation is distinguished by one morphemic mark, namely, the second person: *canst, may(e)st, wilt, shalt, shouldst, wouldst, ought fe)st, need(e)st, durst.*

The personal *be* conjugation is complete in three explicitly marked forms, having a separate suppletive presentation for each separate person: *am, art, is.*

The archaic person-conjugation of the rest of the verbs, though richer than the common system of person forms, still occupies the medial position between the modal and *be* conjugation. Two of the three of its forms, the third and second persons, are positively marked, while the first person remains unmarked, *e.g. comes – comest – come, blows – blowest – blow, stops – stoppest – stop, chooses – choosest – choose.*

As regards the future tense, the person finds here quite another mode of expression. The features distinguishing it from the present-tense person conjugation are, first, that it marks the first person in distinction to the remaining two; and second, that it includes in its sphere also the plural. The very

principle of the person consists in the oppositional use of *shall – will* specifically marking the first person (expressing, respectively, voluntary and non-voluntary future), which is contrasted against the oppositional use of *will – shall* specifically marking the second and third persons together (expressing, respectively, mere future and modal future). These distinctions are characteristic only of British English.

Passing to the expression of grammatical number by the English finite verb, we are faced with the interesting fact that, from the formally morphemic point of view, it is hardly featured at all.

As a matter of fact, the more or less distinct morphemic featuring of the category of number can be seen only with the archaic forms of the unique *be*, both in the present tense and in the past tense. In the common conjugation of *be*, the blending of the person and number forms is more profound, since the suppletive *are*, the same as in the past tense counterpart *were*, not being confined to the plural sphere, penetrate the singular sphere, namely, the expression of the second person (which actually becomes non-expression because of the formal coincidence).

As for the rest of the verbs, the blending of the morphemic expression of the two categories is complete, for the only explicit morphemic opposition in the integral categorical sphere of person and number is reduced with these verbs to the third person singular (present tense, indicative mood) being contrasted against the unmarked finite form of the verb.

2. The Category of Tense

The category of tense in English expresses the relationship between the time of the action and the time of speaking. The time of speaking is designated at present time and is the starting point for the whole scale of time measuring. The time that follows the time of speaking is designated as future time; the time that precedes the time of speaking is designated as past time. Accordingly there are three tenses in English – the present tense, the future tense and the past tense which refer actions to the present, future or past time.

Strangely enough, some doubts have been expressed about the existence of a future tense in English. The reason why O. Jespersen denied the existence of a future tense in English was that the English future is expressed by the phrase "*shall / will* + infinitive" and the verbs *shall* and *will* which make part of the phrase preserve, according to Jespersen, some of their original meaning (*shall* an element of obligation, and *will* an element of volition). Thus, in Jespersen's view, English has no way of expressing "pure futurity" free from modal shades of meaning, i.e. it has no form standing on the same grammatical level as the forms of the past and present tenses. However, this reasoning is not convincing. Though the verbs *shall* and *will* may in some contexts preserve or indeed revive their original meaning of obligation or volition respectively, as a rule they are free from these shades of meaning and express mere futurity. This is especially clear in sentences where the verb *will* is used as an auxiliary of the future tense and where, at the same time, the meaning of volition is excluded by the context. E.g. *I am so sorry, I am afraid I will have to go back to the hotel.*

It is well known that a present tense form may also be used when the action belongs to the future. This also applies to the present continuous, as in the following example: *Jane is coming tomorrow by plane.* The use of the present continuous adds another shade of meaning, which would be lost if it were replaced by the future tense: Jane's arrival tomorrow is part of a plan already fixed in the present. Thus the future arrival is presented as a natural outcome of actions already under way, not as something that will, as it were, only begin to happen in the future.

So the three main divisions of time are represented in the English verbal system by the three tenses. Each of them may appear in the common and in the continuous aspect. Thus we get six tense-aspect forms.

Besides these six, however, there are two more, namely, the future-indefinite-in-the-past and the future-continuous-in-the-past. It is common knowledge that these forms are used chiefly in subordinate clauses depending on a main clause having its predicate verb in one of the past tenses. However, they can be found in independent clauses as well. E.g.:

It was after ten o'clock. The dancers had already dispersed and the last lights were being put out. Tomorrow the tents would be struck, the dismantled merry-go-round would be packed into wagons and carried away. The future-indefinite-in-the-past denotes an action foreseen for the future (*the merry-go-round would be packed into wagons and carried away*).

The future-indefinite-in-the-past and the future-continuous-in-the-past do not easily fit into a system of tenses represented by a straight line running out of the past into the future. They are a deviation from this straight line: their starting point is not the present, from which the past and the future are reckoned, but the past itself. With reference to these tenses it may be said that the past is a new centre of the system. The idea of temporal centres propounded by Prof. Ivanova as an essential element of the English tense system seems therefore fully justified in analysing the "future-in-the-past" tenses. It should be noted that in many sentences of this kind the relation between the action denoted by the verb form and the time of the utterance remains uncertain: the action may or may not have taken place already. What is certain is that it was future from the point of view of the time when the action denoted by the verb form took place.

A different view of the English tense system has been put forward by Prof. N. Irtenyeva. According to this view, the system is divided into two halves: that of tenses centring in the present, and that of tenses centring in the past. The former would comprise the present indefinite, present perfect, future indefinite, present continuous and present perfect continuous, whereas the latter would comprise the past indefinite, past perfect, future-indefinite-in-the-past, past continuous, and past perfect continuous. The latter half is characterized by specific features: the root vowel (e.g. *sang* as against *sing*), and the suffix *-d* (or *-t*), *looked, sent.* This view has much to recommend it. It has the advantage of reducing the usual threefold division of tenses (past, present, and future) to a twofold division (past and present) with each of the two future tenses (future indefinite, and future-indefinite-in-the-past) included into the past or the present system, respectively. However, the cancellation of the future as a tense in its own right would seem to require a more detailed justification.

3. The Category of Aspect

The aspective meaning of the verb, as different from its temporal meaning, reflects the inherent mode of the process irrespective of its timing.

The aspective meaning can be inbuilt in the semantic structure of the verb, forming an invariable, derivative category. In English, the various lexical aspective meanings have been generalized by the verb in its subclass division into limitive and unlimitive sets. On the whole, this division is loose, the demarcation line between the sets is easily trespassed both ways. In spite of their want of rigour, however, the aspective verbal subclasses are grammatically relevant in so far as they are not indifferent to the choice of the aspective grammatical forms of the verb.

On the other hand, the aspective meaning can also be represented in variable grammatical categories.

Two systems of verbal forms should be evaluated in this light: the continuous forms and the perfect forms. The aspective or non-aspective identification of the forms in question will, in the long run, be dependent on whether or not they express the direct, immediate time of the action denoted by the verb, since a general connection between the aspective and temporal verbal semantics is indisputable.

The continuous forms are aspective because, reflecting the inherent character of the process named by the verb, they do not, and cannot, denote the timing of the process. The opposition constituting the corresponding category is effected between the continuous and the non-continuous (indefinite) verbal forms. The categorical meaning discloses the nature of development of the verbal action, on which ground the suggested name for the category will be "development".

The perfect, as different from the continuous, does reflect a kind of timing, though in a purely relative way. Namely, it coordinates two times, locating one of them in retrospect toward the other. The perfect expresses not only time in relative retrospect, but also the very connection of a prior process with a time-limit reflected in a subsequent event. The suggested name for this category will be

"retrospective coordination", or, contractedly, "retrospect". The categorical member opposed to the perfect, for the sake of terminological consistency, will be named "imperfect" (non-perfect).

The aspective category of development is constituted by the opposition of the continuous forms of the verb to the non-continuous, or indefinite forms of the verb. The marked member of the opposition is the continuous, which is built up by the auxiliary *be* plus the present participle of the conjugated verb. In symbolic notation it is represented by the formula *be…ing.* The categorical meaning of the continuous is "action in progress"; the unmarked member of the opposition, the indefinite, leaves this meaning unspecified, i.e. expresses the non-continuous.

The evolution of views in connection with the interpretation of the continuous forms has undergone three stages. The traditional analysis placed them among the tense-forms of the verb, defining them as expressing an action going on simultaneously with some other action. This temporal interpretation of the continuous was most consistently developed in the works of H. Sweet and O. Jespersen. In point of fact, the continuous usually goes with a verb which expresses a simultaneous action, but, as we have stated before, the timing of the action is not expressed by the continuous as such – rather, the immediate time-meaning is conveyed by the syntactic constructions, as well as the broader semantic context in which the form is used, since action in progress, by definition, implies that it is developing at a certain time point.

The meaningful difference consists exactly in the categorical semantics of the indefinite and continuous: while the latter shows the action in the very process of its realization, the former points it out as a mere fact.

A further demonstration of the essentially non-temporal meaning of the continuous is its regular use in combination with the perfect, i.e. its use in the verb form perfect continuous. Surely, the very idea of perfect is alien to simultaneity, so the continuous combined with the perfect in one and the same manifestation of the verb can only be understood as expressing aspectuality, i.e. action in progress.

At the second stage of the interpretation of the continuous, the form was understood as rendering a blend of temporal and aspective meanings – the same as the other forms of the verb obliquely connected with the factor of time, i.e. the indefinite and the perfect. This view was developed by I.P. Ivanova.

The combined temporal-aspective interpretation of the continuous, in general, should be appraised as an essential step forward, because, first, it introduced on an explicit, comprehensively grounded basis the idea of aspective meanings in the grammatical system of English; second, it demonstrated the actual connection of time and aspect in the integral categorical semantics of the verb. In fact, it presented a thesis that proved to be crucial for the subsequent demonstration, at the 3rd stage of analysis, of the essence of the form on a strictly oppositional foundation.

This latter phase of study, initiated in the works of A.I. Smirnitsky, V.N. Yartseva and B.A. Ilyish, was developed further by B.S. Khaimovich and B.I. Rogovskaya and exposed in its most comprehensive form by L.S. Barkhudarov.

The category of retrospective coordination (retrospect) is constituted by the opposition of the perfect forms of the verb to the non-perfect, or imperfect forms. The marked member of the opposition is the perfect, which is built up by the auxiliary *have* in combination with the past participle of the conjugated verb. In symbolic notation it is expressed by the formula *have…en.*

The functional meaning of the category has been interpreted in linguistic literature in four different ways, each contributing to the evolution of the general theory of respective coordination.

The first comprehensively represented grammatical exposition of the perfect verbal form was the "tense view": by this view the perfect is approached as a peculiar tense form. The tense view of the perfect is presented in the works of H. Sweet, G. Curme, M. Bryant and J.R. Aiken and some other foreign scholars. In Russian linguistic literature this view was consistently developed by N.F. Irtenyeva. The tense interpretation of the perfect was also endorsed by the well-known course of English grammar by M.A. Ganshina and N.M. Vasilevskaya.

The difference between the perfect and non-perfect forms of the verb, according to the tense interpretation of the perfect, consists in the fact that the perfect denotes a secondary temporal

characteristic of the action. Namely, it shows that the denoted action precedes some other action or situation in the present, past, or future. This secondary tense quality of the perfect, in the context of the "tense view", is naturally contrasted against the secondary tense quality of the continuous, which latter, according to N.F. Irtenyeva, intensely expresses simultaneity of the denoted action with some other action in the present, past, or future.

Laying emphasis on the temporal function of the perfect, the "tense view", though, fails to expose with the necessary distinctness its aspective function, by which the action is shown as successively or "transmissively" connected with a certain time limit. Besides, the purely oppositional nature of the form is not disclosed by this approach either, thus leaving the categorial status of the perfect undefined.

The second grammatical interpretation of the perfect was the “aspect view”: according to this interpretation the perfect is approached as an aspective form of the verb. The aspect view is presented in the works of M. Deutschbein, E.A. Sonnenschein, A.S. West, and G.N. Vorontsova.

Recognizing all the merits of the aspect approach in question, however, we clearly see its two serious drawbacks. The first of them is that, while emphasizing the aspective side of the function of the perfect, it underestimates its temporal side, convincingly demonstrated by the tense view of the perfect described above. The second drawback, though, is just the one characteristic of the tense view, repeated on the respectively different material: the described aspective interpretation of the perfect fails to strictly formulate its oppositional nature, the categorial status of the perfect being left undefined.

The third grammatical interpretation of the perfect was the “tense-aspect blend view”: in accord with this interpretation the perfect is recognized as a form of double temporal-aspective character, similar to the continuous. The tense-aspect interpretation of the perfect was developed in the works of I.P. Ivanova. According to LP. Ivanova, the two verbal forms expressing temporal and aspective functions in a blend are contrasted against the indefinite form as their common counterpart of neutralized aspective properties.

The achievement of the tense-aspect view of the perfect is the fact that it demonstrates the actual double nature of the analyzed verbal form, its inherent connection with both temporal and aspective spheres of verbal semantics. Thus, as far as the perfect is concerned, the tense-aspect view overcomes the one-sided approach to it peculiar both to the first and the second of the noted conceptions.

However, comprehensively exposing the two different sides of the integral semantics of the perfect, the tense-aspect conception loses sight of its categorial nature altogether, since it leaves undisclosed how the grammatical function of the perfect is effected in contrast to the continuous or indefinite, as well as how the "categorial blend" of the perfect-continuous is contrasted against its three counterparts, i.e. the perfect, the continuous, the indefinite.

As we see, the three described interpretations of the perfect, actually complementing one another, have given in combination a broad and profound picture of the semantic content of the perfect verbal forms, though all of them have failed to explicitly explain the grammatical category within the structure of which the perfect is enabled to fulfill its distinctive function.

The categorical individuality of the perfect was shown as a result of study conducted by A.I. Smirnitsky. His conception of the perfect may be called the “time correlation view”.The explicitly demonstrated the fact that the perfect form, by means of its oppositional mark, builds up its own category, different from both the “tense” (present – past – future) and the “aspect” (continuous – indefinite), and not reducible to either of them. The functional content of the category of “time correlation” was defined as priority expressed by the perfect forms in the present, past or future contrasted against the non-expression of priority by the non-perfect forms.

Thus, we have arrived at the “strict categorical view” of the perfect, disclosing it as the marking form of a separate verbal category, semantically intermediate between aspective and temporal, but quite self-dependent in the general categorical system of the English verb. It is this interpretation of the perfect that gives a natural explanation to the “enigmatic” verbal form of the perfect continuous, showing that each categorical marker – both perfect and continuous – being separately expressed in the speech entry of the verbal lexeme, conveys its own part in the integral grammatical meaning of the entry. Namely, the perfect interprets the action in the light of priority and aspective transmission, while

the continuous presents the same action as progressive. As a result, far from displaying any kind of semantic contradiction or discrepancy, the grammatical characterization of the action gains both in precision and vividness. The latter quality explains why this verbal form is gaining more and more ground in present-day colloquial English.

The categorial opposition "perfect versus imperfect" is broadly represented in verbids. The perfect is used with verbids only in semantically strong positions, i.e. when its categorial meaning is made prominent. Otherwise the opposition is neutralized, the imperfect being used in the position of neutralization. Quite evidently this regularity is brought about by the intermediary lexico-grammatical features of verbids, since the category of retrospective coordination is utterly alien to the non-verbal parts of speech. The structural neutralization of the opposition is especially distinct with the present participle of the limitive verbs, its indefinite form very naturally expressing priority in the perfective sense. Cf.:

She came to Victoria to see Joy off, and Freddy Rigby came too, ***bringing*** *a crowd of the kind of young people Rodney did not care for* (M. Dickens)

But the rule of the strong position is valid here also. Cf.:

Her Auntie Phyll had too many children. ***Having brought*** *up six in a messy, undisciplined way, she had started all over again with another baby late in life* (M. Dickens).

With the gerund introduced by a preposition of time the perfect is more often than not neutralized. E.g.:

He was at Cambridge and after ***taking*** *his degree decided to be a planter* (S. Maugham).

Cf. the perfect gerund in a strong position:

The memory of ***having met*** *the famous writer in his young days made him feel proud even now.*

Less liable to neutralization is the infinitive. The category of retrospective coordination is for the most part consistently represented in its independent constructions, used as concise semi-predicative equivalents of syntactic units of full predication. Cf.:

It was utterly unbelievable for the man ***to have*** *no competence whatsoever* (simultaneity expressed by the imperfect). – *It was utterly unbelievable for the man* ***to have had*** *no competence whatsoever* (priority expressed by the perfect).

The perfect infinitive of notional verbs used with modal predicators, similar to the continuous, performs the two types of functions. First, it expresses priority and transmission in retrospective coordination. Second, dependent on the concrete function of each modal verb and its equivalent, it helps convey gradations of probabilities in suppositions. E.g.:

He ***may have warned*** *Christine, or again, he may not have warned her. Who can tell?*
Things ***must have been*** *easier fifty years ago.*
You needn't worry, Miss Nicholson. The children are sure ***to have been following*** *our instructions, it* ***can't have been otherwise.***

In addition, as its third type of function, also dependent on the individual character of different modal verbs, the perfect can render the idea of non-compliance with certain rule, advice, recommendation, etc. The modal verbs in these cases serve as signals of remonstrance (mostly the verbs *ought to* and *should).* Cf.:

*Mary **ought to have thought** of the possible consequences. Now the situation can't be mended, I'm afraid.*

The modal *will* used with a perfect in a specific collocation renders a polite, but officially worded statement of the presupposed hearer's knowledge of an indicated fact. Cf.:

*"You **will** no doubt **have heard**, Admiral Morgan, that Lord Vaughan is going to replace Sir Thomas Lynch as Governor of Jamaica," Charles said, and cast a glance of secret amusement at the strong countenance of his most famous sailor* (J. Tey).

*It **will not have escaped** your attention, Inspector, that the visit of the nuns was the same day that poisoned wedding cake found its way into that cottage* (A. Christie).

Evident relation between the perfect and the continuous in their specific modal functions (i.e. in the use under modal government) can be pointed out as a testimony to the category of retrospective coordination being related to the category of development on the broad semantic basis of aspectuality.

4. The Category of Voice

The verbal category of voice shows the direction of the process as regards the participants of the situation reflected in the syntactic construction.

The voice of the English verb is expressed by the opposition of the passive form of the verb to the active form of the verb. The sign marking the passive form is the combination of the auxiliary *be* with the past participle of the conjugated verb (in symbolic notation: *be…en*). The passive form as the strong member of the opposition expresses reception of the action by the subject of the syntactic construction (i.e. the "passive" subject, denoting the object of the action); the active form as the weak member of the opposition leaves this meaning unspecified, i.e. expresses "non-passivity".

In colloquial speech the role of the passive auxiliary can occasionally be performed by the verb *get* and, probably, *become.* Cf.:

*Sam **got licked** for a good reason, though not by me.*
*The young violinist **became admired** by all.*

The category of voice has a much broader representation in the system of the English verb than in the system of the Ukrainian verb, since in English not only transitive, but also intransitive objective verbs including prepositional ones can be used in the passive (the preposition being retained in the absolutive location). Besides, verbs taking not one, but two objects as a rule can feature both of them in the position of the passive subject. E.g.:

*I've **been rung up** by the police.*
***Have** you ever **been told** that you're very good-looking?*
*He **was said** to have been very wild in his youth.*
*I **won't be talked to** like this.*

Still, not all the verbs capable of taking an object are actually used in the passive. In particular, the passive form is alien to many verbs of the statal subclass (displaying a weak dynamic force), such as *have* (direct possessive meaning), *belong, cost, resemble, fail, misgive,* etc. thus, in accord with their relation to the passive voice, all the verbs can be divided into two large sets: the set of passivized verbs and the set of non-passivized verbs. The category of voice should be interpreted as being reflected in the system of verbs, the non-passivized verbs presenting the active voice form if not directly, then indirectly.

The big problem in connection with the voice identification in English is the problem of "medial" voices, i.e. the functioning of the voice forms in other than the passive or active meanings.

*I **will shave** and **wash**, and be ready for breakfast in half an hour.*
*I'm afraid Mary **hasn't dressed up** yet.*
*Now I see your son **is thoroughly preparing** for the entrance examinations.*

The indicated verbs in the given sentences are objective, transitive, used absolutively, in the form of the active voice. But the real voice meaning rendered by the verb entries is not active, since the actions expressed are not passed from the subject to any outer object. This kind of verbal meaning of the action performed by the subject upon itself is classed as "reflexive". The same meaning can be rendered explicit by combining the verb with the reflexive "self-pronoun:

*I **will shave myself, wash myself**, Mary **hasn't dressed herself up** yet; your son **is** thoroughly **preparing himself**'.*

Let us take examples of another kind:

*The friends **will be meeting** tomorrow.*
*Unfortunately, Nellie and Christopher **divorced** two years after their magnificent marriage.*
***Are** Phil and Glen **quarrelling** again over their toy cruiser?*

The actions expressed by the verbs in the above sentences are also confined to the subject, the same as in the first series of examples, but, as different from them, these actions are performed by the subject constituents reciprocally: the friends will be meeting one another; Nellie divorced Christopher, and Christopher, in his turn, divorced Nellie; Phil is quarrelling with Glen, and Glen, in his turn, is quarrelling with Phil. This verbal meaning of the action performed by the subjects in the subject group on one another is called "reciprocal". As is the case with the reflexive meaning, the reciprocal meaning can be rendered explicit by combining the verbs with special pronouns, namely the reciprocal pronouns: the friends will be meeting one another; Nellie and Christopher divorced each other; the children are quarrelling with each other.

Another problem posed by the category of voice and connected with neutralizations concerns the relation between the morphological form of the passive voice and syntactical form of the corresponding complex nominal predicate with the pure link *be.* As a matter of fact, the outer structure of the two combinations is much the same. Cf.:

*You may consider me a coward, but there you **are mistaken**.*
*They **were** all **seized** in their homes.*

The first of the two examples presents a case of a nominal predicate, the second, a case of a passive voice form. Though the constructions are outwardly alike, there is no doubt as to their different grammatical status.

The demarcation between the construction types in question is commonly sought on the lines of the semantic character of the constructions. Namely, if the construction expresses an action, it is taken to refer to the passive voice form; if it expresses a state, it is interpreted as a nominal predicate. *Cf.* another pair of examples:

The door ***was closed*** by the butler as softly as could be.
The door on the left ***was closed***.

The predicate of the first sentence displays the "passive of action", i.e. it is expressed by a verb used in the passive voice; the predicate of the second sentence is understood as displaying the "passive of state", i.e. as consisting of a link-verb and a nominal part expressed by a past participle.

Proceeding from this criterion, we see that the predicate in the construction "You are mistaken" (the first example in the present paragraph) is nominal simply by virtue of its notional part being an adjective, not a participle. The corresponding non-adjectival participle would be used in quite another type of constructions. Cf.:

*I **was** often **mistaken** for my friend Otto, though I never could tell why.*

5. The Category of Mood

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, i.e. the subject of a hypothesis, speculation, desire.

In proceeding now to an analysis of moods in English, let us first state the main division of moods into the one which represents an action as real, i.e. actually taking place (the indicative) as against that or those which represent it as non-real, i.e. as merely imaginary, conditional, etc.

Thus, the use of the indicative mood shows that the speaker represents the action as real.

The imperative mood represents an action or state as desirable and expresses a request or a command:

Turn off this terrible music!

The imperative mood can be expressed by both **synthetic** (consisting of one verb) and **analytical** (multiple-verb) forms. The synthetic imperative refers to the 2nd person singular and plural and is expressed by the basic form of the verb *(Go!).* The negative form requires the auxiliary *do (Don't go!); do* can also be used emphatically:

Do be quiet!

To give even more expression to an order or request addressed to the 2nd person. singular, *you* may be included into the sentence:

You better watch your step!

Commands of this type may sound rude.

The analytical imperative requires *let* with the 3rd person singular and 1st/3rd person plural:

Let her/us/them do it.

Corresponding negative commands are formed with *don't* or let's *not:*

Don't let's go there. Let's not go there.

Used in similar combinations with the 1st person singular, *let* may be regarded as a notional, rather than auxiliary, verb in the indicative mood *(let me ~ allow me),* which is natural enough, since a request can hardly be addressed to the speaker.

Syntactically, imperative sentences may be treated as one-member complete; some authors regard them as two-member elliptical (incomplete), as the subject (most commonly you) is easily understood from the context.

The imperative mood differs from all other moods in several important points. It has no person,

number, tense, or aspect distinctions, and, which is the main thing, it is limited in its use to one type of sentence only, viz. imperative sentences. Most usually a verb in the imperative has no pronoun acting as subject. However, the pronoun may be used in emotional speech. E.g.: *You leave me alone.*

Owing to the difference of approach to moods, grammarians have been vacillating between two extremes – 3 moods (indicative, subjunctive and imperative), put forward by many grammarians, and 16 moods, as proposed by M. Deutschbein. Between these extremes there are intermediate views, such as that of Prof. A. Smirnitsky, who proposed a system of 6 moods (indicative, imperative, subjunctive I, subjunctive II, suppositional, and conditional), and who was followed in this respect by M. Ganshina and N. Vasilevskaya. The problem of English moods was also investigated by Prof. G. Vorontsova and by a number of other scholars.

If we start from the meanings of the mood forms (leaving aside the meaning of reality, denoted by the indicative), we obtain (with some possible variations of detail) the following headings:

Meaning	**Means of expression**
Inducement (order, request, prayer, and the like)	*come* (no ending, no auxiliary, and usually without subject, 2nd person only)
Possibility (action thought of as conditionally possible, or as purpose of another action, etc.)	(1) *(he) come* (no ending, no auxiliary) (2) *should come* (*should* for all persons) (3) *may come* (?)
Unreal condition	*came, had come* (same as past or past perfect indicative), used in subordinate clauses
Consequence of unreal condition	*should come* (1st person) *would come* (2nd and 3rd person)

We would thus get either four moods (if possibility, unreal condition, and consequence of unreal condition are each taken separately), or three moods (if any of these are taken together), or two moods (if they are all three taken together under the heading of “non-real action”). The choice between these variants will remain arbitrary and is unlikely to be determined by means of any objective data.

If, on the other hand, we start from the means of expressing moods (both syntactical and analytical) we are likely to get something like this system:

Means of expression	**Meaning**
come (no ending, no auxiliary, and usually without subject)	Inducement
(he) come (no ending, no auxiliary)	Possibility
came, had come	Unreal condition
should come (for all persons)	Unlikely condition Matter for assessment
should come (1st person)	Consequence of unreal condition
would come (2nd and 3rd person)	Wish or purpose
may come (?)	

In this way we should obtain a different system, comprising six moods with the following meanings: (1) inducement, (2) possibility, (3) unreal condition, (4) unlikely condition, (5) consequence of unreal condition, (6) wish or purpose.

1. Synthetic forms of the present subjunctive are used in a number of set phrases expressing wish, oaths and swearing, etc., most of which are characteristic of archaic style ("formulaic" subjunctive):

Wish: *Be it so!/So be it! – Нехай це станеться!* (sounds solemn)

Be it as you wish. – Нехай буде по-вашому!

Long live!... – Нехай живе!, (mostly used jocularly)

God /Lord /Heaven help smb!

God/The Lord forgive smb!
God/Heaven forbid! – Боже упаси!
God save us! – Хорони нас Бог!
God save the Queen! (part of the British National Anthem)
(God) Bless you! – Благослови вас Бог! (More often used as a reaction to a person sneezing. Cf.: *Будь здоровий!)*
Success attend you! – Нехай щастить!
Peace be to his ashes. – Мир праху його.
God rest his soul. – Упокой, господи, душу його.
Swearing *and threats*: *God damn (it)! Damn!*
Confound the cat!
Blast the fool!
Woe be to you if... – Горе тобі, якщо... (archaic, very emotional)
Others: *Manners be hanged! – Геть пристойність!*
Far be it from me to regard you as... – Я і не думав вважати вас...
Suffice it to say that... – Достатньо сказати, що...
(The situation looks grim. Suffice it to say that we are 3 billion in debt.)
Come what may... – Щоб не трапилось...
(Come what may, I won't leave you.)
Be it rain or snow... (concessive meaning similar to *Come what may)*
If truth be known... – Правду кажучи...
... if need be – ...якщо буде потрібно.
...as it were... – ...ніби то...;...як би то сказати...
(Your ideas are, as it were, very expensive.)

It is important to bear in mind the difference between the formulaic subjunctive of the type *God save/bless...* and imperative sentences *(Jim, come here!).* In the latter case, the noun is an address (note the comma!), while in the former it is the subject. (Cf.: *Нехай береже тебе Бог!)*

2. Occasionally, depending on register (colloquial vs. formal) or dialect (BrE vs. AmE), the present subjunctive may be used in *that*- clauses to express **desirability** ("mandative" subjunctive):

I suggest that we go home.
I demand that the decision be adopted.

In colloquial AmE desirability is generally expressed by present subjunctive forms:

I insist that Andy stay at home,

while in BrE the present subjunctive is characteristic of official language:

I *move that the treaty be ratified.*

The modal verb *should* + infinitive is used in that-clauses in similar circumstances to express demand, recommendation, suggestion:

I suggest/propose/move/require/insist/demand, etc. that the decision should be adopted, (object clauses)

It is necessary / obligatory / important / required / requested / imperative / essential / vital / urgent, etc. that we / he should follow the rules, (subject clauses)
My *suggestion / proposal / idea / intention / plan, etc. is that the ceremony should begin at midday,* (predicative clauses)

We agreed with his suggestion I idea, etc. that the argument should be put an end to. (attributive clauses)

As was said, this structure is sometimes regarded as an analytical form of the subjunctive mood.

3. A common way of expressing **purpose** is with the help of the infinitive, but when the two actions have different subjects, clauses of purpose are used introduced by *so that, so, that* (rare), *in order that.* The analytical forms employ the modal auxiliaries *may/might, can I could, should:*

She opened the door so that we might / could see the stairs. Should is more common with the verb in the negative form:

I opened my umbrella so that she shouldn't get wet. The conjunction *lest (щоб не)* is characteristic of bookish style:

I opened my umbrella lest she should get wet.

Lest followed by an analytical form with *should* is used to express both purpose and fear; in the former case *lest* introduces an adverbial clause of purpose, in the latter, an object clause:

He was terrified lest his whereabouts should be discovered.

In similar circumstances, AmE gives preference to the present subjunctive.

4. Synthetic forms of the present subjunctive are used in some clauses of concession:

Whatever be your reasons... Be you God Almighty...

Occasional use of the present subjunctive form of the verb after the conjunctions ever and *whether* is regarded archaic:

Everyone has the right to live, whether he be rich or poor.

In official style and in several set colloquial expressions the verb that follows these conjunctions may be omitted:

Whatever his reasons, I won't believe him. Whatever the weather, we'll have to get there. However difficult, the work must be done. Everyone has the right to live, whether rich or poor.

When the clause of concession denotes a real fact, the indicative mood is used: *Though/although you are tired,* you *have* to *go on.*

No matter how tired you are, you have to go on. However tired you *are, you have to go on. Stupid as he is, I hope he will understand me.*

1. Synthetic forms of the **past** subjunctive are used in clauses of condition to express unreal **condition:**

I'd feel safer if I owned this house.

2. They can also be used in clauses of comparison and predicative clauses to express unreal **comparison:**

I feel as if I were young again. Tom behaves as if he were drunk.

person or manner, forms are used that are identical to the simple past or past progressive to denote comparison with simultaneous actions/states:

He keeps smiling as if he knew some secret.

Rules of the sequence of- tenses are not observed:

He kept smiling as if he knew some secret.

The verb be, used independently or as part of the past continuous tense form, is often were for all persons:

He looked around as though he were afraid of something. She lay still as if she were sleeping.

Yet in contemporary English *was* for singular is becoming increasingly popular:

He is eating greedily as if he was terribly hungry.

It should be understood that both was and *were* express unreality rather than a reference to the past:

He is eating greedily as if he was I were terribly hungry.

Therefore the "genuine" past subjunctive is only recognizable in the following two cases: 1) when were is used with the subject in the singular; 2) when *was I were* is used in a subordinate clause, while the verb in the main clause is in the present tense.

To denote priority, analytical forms are used that are identical to the past perfect or the past perfect progressive indicative:

He was eating greedily as if he hadn't seen food for weeks. She was breathless as though she had been running.

However, when the verb in the main clause is in the present tense, it becomes obvious that the past perfect forms have the meaning of both priority and unreality (otherwise the present perfect would be sufficient):

He behaves as if nothing had happened. If comparison refers to the future, the auxiliary would is used:
She gave me an angry look as if she would attack me that very moment.

The above examples illustrate the use of the subjunctive mood to express unreal comparison, i. e. a comparison with an imaginary situation:

He *walked slowly as if he were carrying a heavy load.* (He was not carrying a heavy load.)

When no meaning of unreality *is* implied, indicative *forms* are quite appropriate in the subordinate clause:

She continues reading as if she doesn't hear the noise. (She really doesn't hear the noise.)

Unreal comparison can also be expressed in **predicative clauses** following the verbs/eel, *look, sound,* etc.:

I feel as if I were young again.
She looked as though something terrible had happened.

Jack sounded as if he were going to break down.

Similar meaning is rendered by **subject clauses** introduced by *it* + be, *seem, look, feel,* etc.:

It was as if the world were going to pieces.
It seemed as though he had done something wrong.
It looks / feels as if it were winter now.
The imperative mood represents an action or state as desirable and expresses a request or a command:

Turn off this terrible music!

The imperative mood can be expressed by both **synthetic** (consisting of one verb) and **analytical** (multiple-verb) forms. The synthetic imperative refers to the 2nd person singular and plural and is expressed by the basic form of the verb *(Go!).* The negative form requires the auxiliary *do (Don't go!); do* can also be used emphatically:

Do be quiet!

To give even more expression to an order or request addressed to the 2nd person. singular, *you* may be included into the sentence:

You better watch your step!

Commands of this type may sound rude.
The analytical imperative requires *let* with the 3rd person singular and 1st/3rd person plural:

Let her / us / them do it.

Corresponding negative commands are formed with *don't* or let's *not:*

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Used in similar combinations with the 1st person singular, *let* may be regarded as a notional, rather than auxiliary, verb in the indicative mood *(let me ~ allow me),* which is natural enough, since a request can hardly be addressed to the speaker.
Syntactically, imperative sentences may be treated as one-member complete; some authors regard them as two-member elliptical (incomplete), as the subject (most commonly you) is easily understood from the context.

3. The past subjunctive in object clauses (especially after wish) serves to express unreal **wish:**

I wish I were a bird?

The past synthetic and analytical subjunctives are used in object clauses after wish or *would rather.*

I wish I were / was you. (simultaneous action)
I wish she had not done it. (priority)
I wish you would/could/might stay a little longer, (future)

The first and second examples express regret rather than genuine wish and are generally translated *Шкода, що...* . English negative forms correspond to Russian affirmative ones:

She wished she hadn't said it. – Вона пошкодувала, що сказала це.

The subjunctive mood used after *would rather* generally denotes unreal wish referring to the moment of speech:

I'd (much) rather you didn't comment on my words.
Much rather tends to express irritation and may sound rude.

In isolated clauses of condition introduced by *If only* both synthetic and analytical forms of the subjunctive can refer to the unreal present, past, or future:

If only she were here!
If only we hadn't lost the game!
If only it would stop raining!

These structures are close to *I wish* sentences in that the meaning of desirability is generally transformed into regret (except when the wish refers to the future). They are more emotional than / *wish* sentences, and are more common in oral speech.

In attributive clauses after *It's (high (about) time* the past subjunctive is used:

It's about time we went.

This expression is believed to be somewhat less straightforward than the one with the structures *should + infinitive* or *for + infinitive (It's time for us to go I It is time that we should go)* and may be used for politeness' sake.

It is worth mentioning that in all these cases the past subjunctive describes an unreal situation which is imagined to occur simultaneously with the situation denoted by the main clause of a complex sentence. In order to refer to a prior or future imaginary situations analytical forms of the subjunctive are used.

Check Yourself Test

1. What do finite forms of the verb express? What are they related to in the sentence?
2. How is the category of person expressed in modern English?
3. Is grammatical number expressed by the English finite verb?
4. What does the category of tense express?
5. Why have some doubts been expressed about the existence of the future tense in English?
6. What is the point of view of linguists as to the future-in-the-past tenses?
7. Why are continuous forms aspective and not tense forms?
8. Define the aspective category of development and the category of retrospective coordination (retrospect).
9. How is the verbal category of voice expressed in modern English?
10. What are the points of view as to the number of moods in modern English?

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Lecture 10

THE ADJECTIVE AND THE ADVERB

1. The adjective.
2. The adverb.

1. The Adjective

The **adjective** expresses the categorical semantics of property of a substance. It means that each adjective used in the text presupposes relation to some noun the property of whose referent it denotes, such as its material, colour, dimensions, position, state, and other characteristics, both permanent and temporary. It follows from this that unlike nouns adjectives do not possess a full nominative value. Indeed, words like *long, hospitable, fragrant* cannot effect any self-dependent nominations; as units of informative sequences they exist only in collocations showing what is long, who is hospitable and what is fragrant.

The semantically bound character of the adjective is emphasized in English by the use of the prop-substitute *one* in the absence of the notional head-noun of the phrase. E.g.:

I don't want ***a yellow balloon****, let me have* ***the green one*** *over there.*

On the other hand, if the adjective is placed in a nominatively self-dependent position, this leads to its substantivization. E.g.

Outside it was a beautiful day, and the sun tinged the snow with ***red (the red colour).***

Adjectives are distinguished by a specific combinability with nouns which they modify, if not accompanied by adjuncts (adverbials integrated in a clause), usually in preposition, and occasionally in post-position; by a combinability with link-verbs, both functional and notional; by a combinability with modifying adverbs.

In the sentence the adjective performs the functions of an attribute and a predicative.

To the derivational features of adjectives belong a number of suffixes and prefixes, of which the most important are: *-ful (hopeful), -less (flawless), -ish (bluish), -ous (famous), -ive (decorative), -ic (basic), un- (unprecedented), in- (inaccurate), pre- (premature).* Among the adjectival affixes should also be named the prefix *a-*, constitutive for the stative subclass.

As for the variable morphological features, the English adjective, having lost in the course of the history of English all its forms of grammatical agreement with the noun, is distinguished only by the hybrid category of comparison.

All the adjectives are traditionally divided into two large subclasses: **qualitative** and **relative**.

Relative adjectives express such properties of a substance as are determined by the direct relation of the substance to some other substance. E.g.: *wood – a wooden hut, colour – coloured postcards.*

Qualitative adjectives denote various qualities of substances, i.e. of establishing their correlative quantitative measure. The measure of a quality can be estimated as high or low, adequate or inadequate, sufficient or insufficient, optimal or excessive. Cf.: *an awkward situation – a very awkward situation, an enthusiastic reception – a rather enthusiastic reception.*

In this connection, the ability of an adjective to form degrees of comparison is usually taken as a formal sign of its qualitative character, in opposition to a relative adjective which is understood as incapable of forming degrees of comparison by definition. Cf.: *a pretty girl – a prettier girl; a quick look – a quicker look; a hearty welcome – the heartiest of welcomes; a bombastic speech – the most bombastic speech.*

However, in actual speech the described principle of distinction is not at all strictly observed, which is noted in the grammar treatises putting it forward. Two typical cases of contradiction should be pointed out here.

In the first place, substances can possess such qualities as are incompatible with the idea of degrees of comparison. Accordingly, adjectives denoting these qualities, while belonging to the qualitative subclass, are in the ordinary use incapable of forming degrees of comparison. Here belong adjectives like *extinct, immobile, deaf, final, fixed, etc.*

In the second place, many adjectives considered under the heading of relative still can form degrees of comparison, thereby, as it were, transforming the denoted relative property of a substance into such as can be graded quantitatively. Cf: *a mediaeval approach - rather a mediaeval approach - afar more mediaeval approach; of a military design - of a less military design - of a more military design; a grammatical topic -a purely grammatical topic - the most grammatical of the suggested topics.*

In order to overcome the demonstrated lack of rigour in the definitions in question, we may introduce an additional linguistic distinction which is more adaptable *to* the chances of usage. The suggested distinction is based on the evaluative function of adjectives. According as they actually give some qualitative evaluation to the substance referent or only point out its corresponding native property, all the adjective functions may be grammatically divided into "evaluative" and "specificative". In particular, one and the same adjective, irrespective of its being basically (i.e. in the sense of the fundamental semantic property of its root constituent) "relative" or "qualitative", can be used either in the evaluative function or in the specificative function.

For instance, the adjective *good* is basically qualitative. On the other hand, when employed as a grading term in teaching, i.e. a term forming part *of* the marking scale together with the grading terms *bad, satisfactory, excellent,* it acquires the said specificative value; in other words, it becomes a specificative, not an evaluative unit in the grammatical sense. Conversely, the adjective *wooden* is basically relative, but when used in the broader meaning "expressionless" or "awkward" it acquires an evaluative force and, consequently, can presuppose a greater or lesser degree ("amount") of the denoted property in the corresponding referent. E.g.:

Bundle found herself looking into the expressionless, ***wooden*** *face of Superintendent Battle* (A. Christie).

The superintendent was sitting behind a table and looking ***more wooden*** *than ever* (ibid).

The degrees of comparison are essentially evaluative formulas, therefore any adjective used in a higher comparison degree (comparative, superlative) is thereby made into an evaluative adjective.

Thus, the introduced distinction between the evaluative and specificative uses of adjectives, in the long run, emphasizes the fact that **the morphological category of comparison** (comparison degrees) is potentially represented in the whole class of adjectives and is constitutive for it.

Among the words signifying properties of a nounal referent there is a lexemic set which claims to be recognized as a separate part of speech, i.e. a class of words different from the adjectives in its class-forming features. These are words built up by the prefix a- and denoting different states, mostly of temporary duration. Here belong lexemes like *afraid, agog, adrift, ablaze.* In traditional grammar these words were generally considered under the heading of "predicative adjectives" (some of them also under the heading of adverbs), since their most typical position in the sentence is that of a predicative and they are but occasionally used as pre-positional attributes to nouns.

English qualifying a-words of the corresponding meanings were subjected to a lexico-grammatical analysis and given the part-of-speech heading "category of state". This analysis was first conducted by B.A. Ilyish and later continued by other linguists. The term "words of the category of state" was later changed into "stative words", or "statives".

The part-of-speech interpretation of the statives is not shared by all linguists working in the domain of English, and has found both its proponents and opponents.

Probably the most consistent and explicit exposition of the part-of-^ speech interpretation of statives has been given by B.S. Khaimovich and B.I. Rogovskaya [Khaimovich, Rogovskaya, 199 ff]. Their theses supporting the view in question can be summarized as follows.

First, the statives, called by the quoted authors "adlinks" (by virtue of their connection with link-verbs and on the analogy of the term "adverbs"), are allegedly opposed to adjectives on a purely semantic basis, since adjectives denote "qualities", and statives-adlinks denote "states". Second, as different from adjectives, statives-adlinks are characterized by the specific prefix *a-*. Third, they allegedly do not possess the category of the degrees of comparison. Fourth, the combinability of statives-adlinks is different from that of adjectives in so far as they are not used in the pre-positional attributive function, i.e. are characterized by the absence of the right-hand combinability with nouns.

The advanced reasons, presupposing many-sided categorial estimation of statives, are undoubtedly serious and worthy of note. Still, a closer consideration of the properties of the analyzed lexemic set cannot but show that on the whole the said reasons are hardly instrumental in proving the main idea, i.e. establishing the English stative as a separate part of speech. The re-consideration of the stative on the basis of comparison with the classical adjective inevitably discloses the fundamental relationship between the two - such relationship as should be interpreted in no other terms than identity at the part-of-speech level, though, naturally, providing for their distinct differentiation at the subclass level.

The first scholar who undertook this kind of re-consideration of the lexemic status of English statives was L.S. Barkhudarov, and in our estimation of them we essentially follow his principles, pointing out some additional criteria of argument.

First, considering the basic meaning expressed by the stative, we formulate it as "stative property", i.e. a kind of property of a nounal referent. As we already know, the adjective as a whole signifies not "quality" in the narrow sense, but "property", which is categorially divided into "substantive quality as such" and "substantive relation". In this respect, statives do not fundamentally differ from classical adjectives. Moreover, common adjectives and participles in adjective-type functions can express the same, or, more specifically, typologically the same properties (or "qualities" in a broader sense) as are expressed by statives.

Indeed, the main meaning types conveyed by statives are: the psychic state of a person *{afraid, ashamed, aware);* the physical state of a person *{astir, afoot);* the physical state of an object *{afire, ablaze, aglow);* the state of an object in space *(askew, awry, aslant).* Meanings of the same order are rendered by pre-positional adjectives. Cfю:

*the **living** predecessor - the predecessor **alive**; **eager** curiosity - curiosity **agog**; the **burning** house - the house **afire**; a **floating** raft - a raft **afloat**; a **half-open** door - a door **ajar**; **slanting** ropes - ropes **aslant**; a **vigilant** man - a man **awake**; **similar** cases - cases **alike**; an **excited** crowd - a crowd **astir**.*

It goes without saying that many other adjectives and participles convey the meanings of various states irrespective of their analogy with statives. Cf. such words of the order of psychic state as *despondent, curious, happy, joyful;* such words of the order of human physical state as *sound, refreshed, healthy, hungry;* such words of the order of activity state as *busy, functioning, active, employed,* etc.

Second, turning to the combinability characteristics of statives, we see that, though differing from those of the common adjectives in one point negatively, they basically coincide with them in the other points. As a matter of fact, statives are not used in attributive pre-position, but, like adjectives, they are distinguished by the left-hand categorial combinability both with nouns and link-verbs. Cf.:

*The household was all **astir**. - The household was all **excited**. - It was strange to see the household **astir** at this hour of the day. - It was strange to see the household **active** at this hour of the day.*

Third, analyzing the functions of the stative corresponding to its combinability patterns, we see that essentially they do not differ from the functions of the common adjective. Namely, the two basic

functions *of* the stative are the predicative and the attribute. The similarity of functions leads to the possibility of the use of a stative and a common adjective in a homogeneous group. E.g.:

Launches and barges moored to the dock were ablaze and loud with wild sound.

True, the predominant function of the stative, as different from the common adjective, is that of the predicative. But then, the important structural and functional peculiarities of statives uniting them in a distinctly separate set of lexemes cannot be disputed. What is disputed is the status *of* this set in relation to the notional parts of speech, not its existence or identification as such.

Fourth, from our point of view, it would not be quite consistent with the actual lingual data to place the stative strictly out of the category of comparison. As we have shown above, the category of comparison is connected with the functional division of adjectives into evaluative and specificative. Like common adjectives, statives are subject to this flexible division, and so in principle they are included into the expression of the quantitative estimation of the corresponding properties conveyed by them. True, statives do not take the synthetic forms of the degrees of comparison, but they are capable of expressing comparison analytically, in cases where it is to be expressed. Cf.:

*Of us all, Jack was the one **most aware** of the delicate situation in which we found ourselves.*
*I saw that the adjusting lever stood **far more askew** than was allowed by the directions.*

Fifth, quantitative considerations, though being a subsidiary factor of reasoning, tend to support the conjoint part-of-speech interpretation of statives and *common* adjectives. Indeed, the total number of statives does not exceed several dozen (a couple of dozen basic, "stable" units and, probably, thrice as many "unstable" words of the nature of coinages for the nonce [Жигадло, Иванова, Иофик, 170]). This number is negligible in comparison with the number of words of the otherwise identified notional parts of speech, each of them counting thousands of units.

As for the set-forming prefix *a-*, it hardly deserves a serious consideration as a formal basis of the part-of-speech identification of statives simply because formal features cannot be taken in isolation from functional features. Moreover, as is known, there are words of property not distinguished by this prefix, which display essential functional characteristics inherent in the stative set. In particular, here belong such adjectives as *well, glad, sorry, worth (while), subject (to), due (to), underway,* and some others. On the other hand, among the basic statives we find such as can hardly be analyzed into a genuine combination of the type "prefix + root", because their morphemic parts have become fused into one indivisible unit in the course of language history, e.g. *aware, afraid, aloof.*

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

The category of adjectival comparison expresses the qualitative characteristic of the quality of a nounal referent, i.e. it gives a relative evaluation of the quantity of a quality. The category is constituted by the opposition of the three forms known under the heading of degrees of comparison; the basic form **positive degree**, having no features of comparison; the **comparative degree** form, having the feature of restricted superiority (which limits the comparison to two elements only); the **superlative degree** form, having the feature of unrestricted superiority. The synthetical forms of comparison in *-er* and *-(e)st* coexist with the analytical forms of comparison effected by the auxiliaries *more / most* and less / *least.* The analytical forms of comparison perform a double function. On the one hand, they are used with the evaluative adjectives that, due to their phonemic structure (two-syllable

words with the stress on the first syllable ending in other grapho-phonemic complexes than *-er, -y, -le, -ow* or words of more than two-syllable composition), cannot normally take the synthetic forms of comparison. On the other hand, the analytical forms of comparison, as different from the synthetic forms, are used to express emphasis, thus complementing the synthetic forms in the sphere of this important stylistic connotation. Cf.:

*The audience became **more** and **more noisy**, and soon the speaker's words were drowned in the general hum of voices.*

Scholars point out the following two factors in support of the view that the combinations of *more/most* with the basic form of the adjective are not the analytical expressions of the morphological category of comparison, but free syntactic constructions: first, the *more/most*-combinations are semantically analogous to combinations of *less / least* with the adjective which, in the general opinion, are syntactic combinations of notional words; second, the word-combination, unlike the synthetic superlative, can take the indefinite article, expressing not the superlative, but the elative meaning (i.e. a high, not the highest degree of the respective quality).

The reasons advanced, though claiming to be based on an analysis of actual lingual data, can hardly be called convincing.

The elative superlative, though it is not the regular superlative in the grammatical sense, is still a kind of a specific, grammatically featured construction. This grammatical specification distinguishes it from common elative constructions which may be generally defined as syntactic combinations of an intensely high estimation. E.g.: *an extremely important amendment; a matter of exceeding urgency; quite an unparalleled beauty,* etc.

Thus, from a grammatical point of view, the elative superlative, though semantically it is "elevated", is nothing else but a degraded superlative, and its distinct featuring mark with the analytical superlative degree is the indefinite article: the two forms of the superlative of different functional purposes receive the two different marks (if not quite rigorously separated m actual uses) by the article determination treatment.

It follows from the above that the possibility of the *more/most*-combination to be used with the indefinite article cannot in any way be demonstrative of its non-grammatical character, since the functions of the two superlative combinations in question, the elative superlative and the genuine superlative, are different.

Moreover, the use of the indefinite article with the synthetic superlative in the degraded, elative function is not altogether impossible, though somehow such a possibility is bluntly denied by certain grammatical manuals. Cf.:

*He made a **last** lame effort to delay the experiment, but Basil was impervious to suggestion (J. Vance).*

But there is one more possibility to formally differentiate the direct and elative functions of the synthetic superlative, namely, by using the zero article with the superlative. This latter possibility is noted in some grammar books [Ganshina, Vasilevskaya, 85]. Cf.:

*Suddenly I was seized with a sensation of **deepest** regret.*

However, the general tendency of expressing the superlative elative meaning is by using the analytical form

Let us examine now the combinations of *less/least* with the basic form of the adjective.

Thus, the *less/least*-combinations, similar to the *more/most-combi*nations, constitute specific forms of comparison, which may be called forms of "reverse comparison". The two types of forms cannot be syntagmatically combined in one and the same form of the word which shows the unity of the category of comparison. The whole category includes not three, but five different forms, making up the two

series -respectively, direct and reverse. Of these, the reverse series of comparison (the reverse superiority degrees, or "inferiority degrees", for that matter) is of far lesser importance than the direct one, which evidently can be explained by semantic reasons. As a matter of fact, it is more natural to follow the direct model of comparison based on the principle of addition of qualitative quantities than on the reverse model of comparison based on the principle of subtraction of qualitative quantities, since subtraction in general is a far more abstract process of mental activity than addition. And, probably, exactly for the same reason the reverse comparatives and superlatives are rivalled in speech by the corresponding negative syntactic constructions.

2. The Adverb

The **adverb** is usually defined as a word expressing either property of a action, or property of another property, or circumstances in which an action occurs. In other words the adverb is a notional word expressing a non-substantive property, that is, a property of a non-substantive referent. The entire class of adverbial words is the least self-dependent of all the four notional parts of speech.

Properties may be of a more particular, "organic" order, and a more general and detached, "inorganic" order. Of the organic properties, the adverb denotes those characterizing processes and other properties. Of the inorganic properties, the adverb denotes various circumstantial characteristics of processes or whole situations built around processes. ,

The above definition, approaching the adverb as a word of the secondary qualifying order, presents the entire class of adverbial words as the least self-dependent of all the *Four notional* parts of speech.

In accord with their categorical meaning, adverbs are characterized by a combinability with verbs, adjectives and words of adverbial nature. The functions of adverbs in these combinations consist in expressing different adverbial modifiers. Adverbs can also refer to whole situations; in this function they are considered under the heading of situation-"determinants". E.g.:

You've got awfully brave, ***awfully*** *suddenly.* (an adverbial modifier of intensity, in right-hand combination with an adverb-aspective determinant of the situation).

Adverbs can also combine with nouns acquiring in such cases a very peculiar adverbial-attributive function, essentially in post-position, but in some cases also in pre-position.

The world ***today*** *presents a picture radically different from what it was before World War II.*

Franklin D. Roosevelt, the ***then*** *President of the United States, proclaimed the "New Deal" – a new Government economic policy.*

In accord with their word-building structure adverbs may be **simple** and **derived.** Simple adverbs are rather few, and nearly all of them display functional semantics, mostly of pronominal character: *here, there, now, then, so, quite, why, how, where, when.*

The typical adverbial affixes in affixal derivation are, first and foremost, the basic and only productive adverbial suffix *-ly* (*slowly, tiredly*), and then a couple of others of limited distribution, such as *-ways* (*sideways, crossways*), *-wise* (*clockwise*), *-ward(s)* (*homewards, afterwards*). The characteristic adverbial prefix is *a-* (*away, ahead, apart, across*).

Among the adverbs there are also peculiar composite formations and phrasal formations of prepositional, conjunctional and other types: *sometimes, nowhere, anyhow, at least, at most, to and fro; upside down.* Some authors include in the word-building sets of adverbs also formations of the type *from outside, till now, before then,* etc.

Furthermore, there are in English some other peculiar structural types of adverbs which are derivationally connected with the words of non-adverbial lexemic classes by conversion. To these belong both adverbs of full notional value and adverbs of half-notional value.

A peculiar set of converted notional adverbs is formed by adjective-stem conversives, such as *fast, late, hard, high, close, loud, tight,* etc. The peculiar feature of these adverbs consists in the fact that

practically all of them have a parallel form in *-ly*, the two component units of each pair often differentiated in meaning and connotation. Cf.: *to work hard – hardly to work at all; to fall flat into the water – to refuse flatly; to speak loud – to criticize loudly; to fly high over the lake – to raise a highly theoretical question*, etc.

Among the adjective-stem converted adverbs there are a few words with the non-specific *-ly* originally inbuilt in the adjective: *daily, weekly, lively, timely*, etc.

Very characteristic of English are the adverbs that positionally interchange with prepositions and conjunctive words: *before, after, round, within*, etc. Cf.: *never before – never before our meeting; somewhere round – somewhere round the corner; not to be found within – within a minute*, etc.

Preposition-adverb-like elements, placed in post-position to the verb, form a semantic blend with it. By combining with these elements, verbs of broader meaning are subjected to a regular, systematic multiplication of their semantic functions. E.g.: *to give – to give up, to give in, to give out, to give away, to give over*; *to bring – to bring about, to bring up, to bring through, to bring forward, to bring down*, etc.

The function of these post-positional elements is either to impart an additional aspective meaning to the verb-base, or to introduce a lexical modification to its fundamental semantics. E.g.: *to bring about* – to cause to happen; to reverse; *to bring up* – to call attention to; to rear and educate; *to bring through* – to help overcome a difficulty or danger; to save (a sick person); *to bring forward* – to introduce for discussion; to carry to the next page (the sum of figures); *to bring down* – to kill or wound; to destroy; to lower (as prices, etc.).

The lexico-grammatical standing of the elements m question has been interpreted in different ways. Some scholars have treated them as a variety of adverbs (H. Palmer, A. Smirnitsky); others, as preposition-like functional words (I. Anichkov, N. Amosova); still others, as peculiar prefix-like suffixes similar to the German separable prefixes (Y. Zhluktenko); finally, some scholars have treated these words as a special set of lexical elements functionally intermediate between words and morphemes (B.A. Ilyish; B.S. Khaimovich and B.I. Rogovskaya), a special functional set of particles, i.e. words of semi-morphemic nature, correlative with prepositions and conjunctions (M.Ya. Blokh.).

Adverbs are commonly divided into **qualitative**, **quantitative** and **circumstantial**.

By **qualitative** such adverbs are meant as express immediate, inherently non-graded qualities of actions and other qualities. The typical adverbs of this kind are qualitative adverbs in *-ly*. E.g.:

*The little boy was crying **bitterly** over his broken toy.*

The adverbs interpreted as **quantitative** include words of degree. These are specific lexical units of semi-functional nature expressing quality measure, or gradational evaluation qualities. They may be subdivided into several very clearly pronounced sets.

The first set is formed by adverbs of high degree. These adverbs are sometimes called intensifiers**:** *very, quite, entirely, utterly, highly, greatly, perfectly, absolutely, strongly, considerably, pretty, much.* The second set includes adverbs of excessive degree (direct and reverse) also belonging to the broader subclass of intensifiers: *too, awfully, tremendously, dreadfully, terrifically.* The third set is made up of adverbs of unexpected degree: *surprisingly, astonishingly, amazingly.* The fourth set is formed by adverbs of moderate degree: *fairly, comparatively, relatively, moderately, rather.* The fifth set includes adverbs of low degree: *slightly, a little, a bit.* The sixth set is constituted by adverbs of approximate degree: *almost, nearly.* The seventh set includes adverbs of optimal degree: *enough, sufficiently, adequately.* The eighth set is formed by adverbs of inadequate degree: *insufficiently, intolerably, unbearably, ridiculously.* The ninth set is made up of adverbs of under-degree: *hardly, scarcely.*

Circumstantial adverbs are also divided into **notional** and **functional.**

The functional circumstantial adverbs are words of pronominal nature. Besides quantitative (numerical) adverbs mentioned above, they include adverbs of time, place, manner, cause, consequence. Many of these words are used as syntactic connectives and question-forming functionals. Here belong such words as *now, here, when, where, so, thus, how, why*, etc.

As for circumstantial adverbs of more self-dependent nature, they include two basic sets: first,

adverbs of time; second, adverbs of place: *today, tomorrow, already, ever, never, shortly, recently, seldom, early, homeward, eastward, near, far, outside, ashore,* etc. The two varieties express a general idea of temporal and spatial orientation and essentially perform deictic (indicative) functions in the broader sense. Bearing this in mind, we may unite them under the general heading of **orientative** adverbs, reserving the term **circumstantial** to syntactic analysis of utterances.

Thus, the whole class of adverbs will be divided, first, into nominal and pronominal, and the nominal adverbs will be subdivided into qualitative and orientative, the former including genuine qualitative adverbs and degree adverbs, the latter falling into temporal and local adverbs, with further possible subdivisions of more detailed specifications.

As is the case with adjectives, this lexemic subcategorization of adverbs should be accompanied by a more functional and flexible division into evaluative and specificative, connected with the categorial expression of comparison. Thus, not only qualitative, but also orientative adverbs, providing they come under the heading of evaluative, are included into the categorial system of comparison. Cf.: *quickly – quicker – quickest – less quickly – least quickly; frequently – more frequently – most frequently – less frequently – least frequently; ashore – more ashore – most ashore – less ashore – least ashore,* etc.

Barring the question of the uses of articles in comparative-superlative collocations, all the problems connected with the adjectival degrees of comparison retain their force for the adverbial degrees of comparison, including the problem of elative superlative.

Check Yourself Test

1. Define the adjective.
2. What differentiates the adjective from the noun?
3. What subclasses are adjectives divided into? Characterize each of them.
4. Do all qualitative adjectives have degrees of comparison and relative adjectives lack them?
5. Are statives a separate part of speech? Prove your answer.
6. Define adverbs.
7. Characterize adverbs from the structural point of view.
8. What do qualitative, quantitative and circumstantial adverbs express?
9. Classify adverbs.
10. How are circumstantial adverbs subdivided?

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Lecture 11

THE NUMERAL, THE PREPOSITION, THE CONJUNCTION, THE PARTICLE AND THE INTERJECTION

Plan

1. The numeral.
2. The preposition.
3. The conjunction.
4. The particle and the interjection.

1. The Numeral

The **numeral** is a part of speech which indicates **number** of or the **order** of persons and things in a series. Unlike any other part of speech, they belong to two codes: the language code and the numerical (digital) code. In written language, therefore, they can occur in two forms, verbal and non-verbal, i.e. as words of digits. This is just one feature that sets them apart from other word classes.

As a part of speech, the numerals have both open-class and closed-class characteristics. They resemble open-class words in that they are a class of infinite membership; at the same time, they resemble closed-class words in the sense that we do not create new numerals in the same way as we create new nouns or verbs, for they are made up of a limited number of morphemes combined according to regular rules.

Even if they are written as digits, numerals differ from other symbols (such as #, &, or @) frequently incorporated in the written text, primarily because they constitute a word class in its own right, falling into several clear-cut subtypes marked by a specific meaning and form.

The numeral as a grammatical category conveys the quantitative meaning. Although a similar meaning can be conveyed by other parts of speech, primarily quantitative nouns and distributive pronouns, the numeral clearly has the central position among the quantitative expressions. A numeral resembles a term in that it is monosemantic. Its meaning is devoid of emotional and stylistic colouring and does not depend on the context; therefore, there is a one-to-one correspondence between the use of numerals in different languages. The few exceptions from this general rule are due to the idiomatic usage rather than universal properties of numerals.

Although the same meaning can be conveyed by a digit and a word, all elements of the numeric system do not have the same potential for verbalization. The greater the order of the number, the less likely it is to receive a verbal form; the average speaker is unlikely to use verbal designations (if any) for exact orders greater than a trillion. The highest degree of verbalization is observed in numerals contained in idiomatic expressions, where figures would be out of place.

The numeral displays formal characteristics peculiar to the nominal parts of speech. Even though it may occur in a non-verbal form, it can be accompanied by an article and take the plural ending.

Numerals fall into two subclasses, **cardinal** numerals (also termed "cardinal numbers" or "cardinals"), which indicate how many elements are in a set, and **ordinal** numerals ("ordinal numbers", "ordinals"), which indicate the order of the element in a set. The ordinals have a one-to-one relation with the cardinals: *ten — (the) tenth; three hundred and one — {the) three hundred and first.* The suffix of the ordinal number is often written solid after the digit: *15th;* the digit itself therefore, seems to acquire the status of a morpheme.

Cardinal numerals indicate exact number, they are used in counting. As to their structure, the cardinal numerals from 1 to 12 and 100, 1000, 1,000,000 are **simple** words; those from 13 to 19 are **derivatives** with the suffix *-teen*; the cardinal numerals indicating tens are formed by means of the suffix *-ty*. The numerals from 21 to 29, from 31 to 39, etc. are **composite.**

Five additional points should be noted:

a) *twenty-two, twenty-five* are spelt with a hyphen;

b) in *two hundred and twenty-three, four hundred and sixteen*, etc. there must be the word *and* after the word *hundred*;
c) the spelling shift in *four – fourteen – forty;*
d) the pronunciation and spelling changes in *five – fifteen – fifty*;
e) the single *-t* in *eight – eighteen – eighty.*

Ordinals for 1 to 3 are unsystematic: *first, second, third.* The rest are formed by adding the suffix *-th* to the corresponding cardinal numbers (but note the changes in *five – fifth* and *nine – ninth).* Cardinal numbers ending in *-y* change to *-ie* before the suffix *-th, -s.* Unlike the change of -y to *-ie* in nouns and verbs, the change from cardinals ending in *-y* to ordinals ending in *-ieth* adds a syllable. Cf.: *sixty – the sixties – the sixtieth.*

The cardinal numeral 0, in addition to being unsystematic, can be regarded as an exception fro the numerical system for two reasons. In the first place, its ordinal counterpart is hardly ever used in everyday conversation. Secondly, it receives various verbal designations, depending on the context and register. As a matter of fact, many of them could be viewed as nouns (stylistically neutral or otherwise), and at least one is a pronoun (*nothing*).

Zero is used for 0 especially in mathematics and in referring to temperature:

It is ten (degrees) below zero.
Zero point three centimetres.

It is normal in scientific contexts.

Nought (chiefly BrE; written *naught* in AmE) occurs mostly as the name of the figure 0, and so does *cipher* (or *cypher*):

The nought / cypher on the scale is red and the other figures are black.
Point nought one (= 0.01).

It seems to be interchangeable with *zero* except in set expressions:

O or *Oh* is used in giving telephone and fax numbers, in which digits are read out one by one:

Extension nine oh three (= 903).

Nil or *nothing* is common in football, hockey and similar games:

Canada won 3-0 (read *three nil* or *three (to) nothing*).
The teams drew 0-0 (read *nil nil*).

In AmE sports reporting we also find *zig:*

It's Arkansas over Connecticut, 5-0 (read *five zig*).

Love is used in racket sports, such as tennis or squash:

Becker leads by 40-0 (read *forty love*).
Love all (i.e. no score on either side).

The word is a product of folk etymology: it derives from the French *l'oeuf*, "an egg", as the figure 0 is egg-shaped.

Zilch is a slang word for zero, none or nothing:

How many are left? – Zilch.

The zero sign can be omitted altogether before the decimal point in writing and speaking. Therefore, we may say *point eight one seven* for 0.817.

Such cardinal numerals as *hundred, thousand, million* may be used with articles (*a hundred, a thousand, a million*); they may be substantivized and used in the plural (*hundreds, thousands, millions*). When used after other numerals they do not take *-s* (*two hundred times, thirty thousand years*, etc.). The word *million* may be used with or without *-s* (*two million(s)*). When the word *million* is followed by some other cardinal numeral only the first variant is possible: *two million five hundred thousand inhabitants.*

Therefore, $100 is read as *a hundred dollars* or *one hundred dollars.* However, only *one* and not *a* can occur in the middle of a compound numeral, and usually in low year dates. For example, 3,185 is read as *three thousand one hundred and eighty five,* and 179 BC is read as *one hundred and seventy nine BC.*

Furthermore, they can be used like quantity nouns (in the same way as *dozen* or *score),* with plural *-s* and followed by an o/-phrase:

Hundreds of thousands (of children) *are underfed. It must have cost millions.*

The same numerals occur in figurative use with reference to indefinitely large numbers:

I've told you a thousand times to leave that cat alone!

Speakers of BrE always use the conjunction *and* between the hundreds and the tens in a number: 412 is read/our *hundred and twelve* (AmE also *four hundred twelve).* After a singular numeral, or after *several* and *a few,* the cardinals *hundred, thousand, million* and *billion* are used in the singular form, and *of* is not used: *three/a few million years,* but *millions of years.*

In an informal style, we often use *eleven hundred* for 1,100, *twelve hundred* for 1,200, etc. This form occurs with round numbers between 1,100 and 1,900. It is invariably used with historical dates:

He was born in 1500. (read *in (the year) fifteen hundred*).

In technical contexts, *thousand* may have the abbreviated form ***k***, million – ***m***, and billion – ***bn***, written solid after digits:

The project costs are estimated at £30k.

Other cardinals are only occasionally found in the plural:

They came in twos and threes.

Generally speaking, plural numerals mostly occur in year dates (decades) and in making reference to card games, marking systems, etc.:

The dictionary was first published in the (early) *seventies I in the'70s I in the 1970s.*
He shuffled the pack and dealt me two nines and three aces.
I got three fives and a four for my vocabulary tests.

In fact, numbers are usually spelled out in the text of formal writing if we can spell them in one or two words: *sixteen, forty-one, ten thousand.*

The parts of compound numerals from *twenty-one* through *ninety-nine* and the parts of numerals denoting vulgar fractions, e.g. *three-fourths,* are hyphenated if they appear in verbal form.

In digital form, numbers consisting of four figures (except for year dates) or more are normally separated by commas or blanks: 6,311; 25,000,000; 12 000. Decimal fractions are separated by an

ordinary or raised point: 7.412; 7·412. In fractional numbers the numerator is a cardinal and the denominator is a substantivized ordinal: *two-thirds, three-sixths.*

Roman numbers, like I, II, III, etc., a variant system of digital representation, are hardly ever used except in dynastic names (*George IV*, read *George the Fourth*), and sometimes in other cases, e.g. page numbers in the introductions to books (*ii, viii, xii*), the numbers of paragraphs in documents, the numbers of questions in examinations, and the figures on clock faces.

In discussing the morphological characteristics of compound numerals expressing high order numbers, it is hardly possible to decide whether they are actually grammatical compounds or free word combinations. For example, *three thousand, one hundred and eighty-two* appears in a sentence as a single indivisible unit and thus resembles an additive compound, for we cannot insert any words between its elements, any more than we can remove an element without destroying the meaning of the whole, nor can we modify any one element.

On the other hand, numbers of appropriate orders can be combined in what seems to be an endless number of ways; they can have a large number of strong stresses and thus resemble free word combinations. As regards the criterion of form, i.e. spelling, a compound numeral like the one cited above demonstrates a diversity rather than integrity of form: it partly breaks down into separate words and partly uses hyphenation; it also contains a coordinating conjunction. This demonstrates the peculiar morphological status of the numeral.

The numeral is a nominal part of speech; both the cardinals and the ordinals can function pronominally (i.e., like nouns or in place of nouns) and adjectivally (i.e., like adjectives). Cf.:

Pronominal use	Adjectival use
Seven is a positive integer.	*There were seven candidates in all.*
Seven were injured in the crash.	*The lawyer referred to the Fifth Amendment.*
Three (of them) were bankers.	*We took two apples apiece and left the fifth apple for George.*

In other words, a numeral can serve as the head or modifier of a phrase.

If used as a modifier, it can stand in pre-position or post-position to the head word:

There were fifty passengers on board.
The next paragraph begins on page fifty.

Furthermore, cardinals can stand in apposition to the noun number: *number one; (room) number twenty-five; a number seven (bus).*

Although numerals mostly indicate exact numbers, a few word combinations with numerals are used in an informal style to indicate approximate numbers: *some fifty people (some* is unstressed); *fifty-odd people; fifty people or so; fifty people or thereabouts; fifty or so people; a good fifty people.* Besides, numerals often combine with limiting and intensifying adverbs: *the very first (line); just a hundred (words); only ten (days).*

Ordinals can co-occur with cardinals within one pattern. Grammatically arranged groups of words confined to the same part of speech have been termed "autocombinatory" structures. The ordinal *(the) first* most frequently occurs as the initial element in this kind of pattern; other combinations are also possible:

The first three (applicants) *were interviewed by the personnel manager.*
The Committee awarded the first prize and two second prizes.

The above-mentioned phrases like *three fives* also conform to this structural model. It is readily seen that the members of an autocombinatory numeral phrase belong to different subtypes: an ordinal combines with a cardinal, or a singular cardinal with a plural cardinal.

Whether the numeral receives a digital or a verbal representation, its syntactic function remains the same. There seems to be just one restriction, stylistic rather than grammatical, on the position of the digital form: a written sentence cannot begin with digits (the only exception being year dates). If the number is long, it is moved to medial or final position:

Last month 9,725 people visited the exhibition.

One- or two-word numbers can be just spelled out and, therefore, remain in initial position:

Forty-five people entered their names.

Numerical expressions (but which we mean numerals proper and word combinations with numerals) incorporated in a written sentence can have a verbal, digital or mixed representation. In speaking, none but the verbal representation is possible. Most areas of human interest and activity call for the necessity of counting or measuring. In each sphere there can be specific conventions for referring to numbers.

In BrE, the commonest way to write the day's date is to give it a mixed representation: *30 April 1978; 1 December 1950.*

The last two letters of the ordinal numeral *(st, -nd, -rd* or *-th)* are sometimes added solid after the figure. A comma can be used before the year, but this is no longer very common in BrE except when the date comes inside a sentence: *10th January^,) 1978.* In AmE it is common to write the month first and to put a comma before the year: *October 24,1933.*

The date may also be written digitally, i. e. entirely in figures separated by an oblique, a period or a hyphen: *30/4/99; 30.4.99; 30-4-99.* All-figure dates are written differently in Britain and America, since British people put the day first whereas Americans generally start with the month. Therefore, *3.5.99* means "3 May 1999" in Britain, but "March 5,1999" in America.

In speaking, dates are given as follows:

30 April 1978 – April the thirtieth, nineteen seventy-eight,
or the thirtieth of April, nineteen seventy-eight.
April 30,1978 – April thirtieth...(AmE), *or April thirty...* (AmE)

The names of decades (e. g. *the nineteen eighties)* can be written *the 1980s* or *the '80s,* with the omission of figures indicated by an apostrophe.

Year dates are read as follows:

1200 – twelve hundred.
1703 – seventeen hundred and three or seventeen oh
1812 – eighteen (hundred and) twelve,
2000 – two thousand.
2005 – two thousand and five (AmE also *two thousand*

Note that Ukrainian and English do not refer to pairs of dates in the same way:

Between 1980 and 1990 (or *From 1980 to 1990) momentous change took place. —*
У *1980-1990 рр. відбулися значні зміни.*

A dash can be used between dates to indicate *to.* Notice that the preposition *from* is retained in this pattern, although *to* is missing:

The survey covered from 1980 – 1990.

To distinguish between dates before and after the beginning of the Christian era, we use the abbreviations BC and AD (in AmE also B.C. and A.D.), respectively. The former means "before

Christ"; the latter stands for the Latin *Anno Domini*, literally "in the year of the Lord", i.e. in a specified year of the Christian era. BC follows the date; AD can precede or follow it. Neither is normally read out (or written) in full:

The Julian calendar was introduced in Rome in 46 BC. The emperor Nero was born in AD 37. (or:... in 37 AD)

There are more formal and less formal ways of saying what time it is.

Formal	Less formal BrE	Less formal AmE
9:05	*five past nine*	*five after nine*
9:10	*ten past nine*	*ten after nine*
9:15	*a quarter past nine*	*a quarter after nine*
9:25	*twenty-five past nine*	*twenty-five after nine*
9:30	*half past nine; half nine* (informal)	*half of ten*
9:35	*twenty-five to ten*	*twenty-five often* (or: *...before 1 till ten*)
9:45	*a quarter to ten*	*a quarter of ten* (or: *...before 1 till ten*)
9:50	*ten to ten*	*ten of ten* (or: *...before 1 till ten)*

The expression *o'clock* is only used at the hour. Cf.:

Wake me at six (o'clock). *Wake me at a quarter past six.*

In BrE, it is common to say *minutes past I to* for times between the five-minute divisions, e.g. *eight minutes past nine, three minutes to six.*

If necessary, times can be distinguished by using *in the morning/afternoon/evening.* In a more formal style, we can use *am,* also written *a.m.* or A.M. ("before midday", from the Latin *ante meridiem),* and *pm,* also written *p.m.* or P.M. ("after midday", from the Latin *post meridiem).* Note that speakers of English say *one a.m., two in the morning,* while speakers of Ukrainian say, перша/друга година після півночі.

The twenty-four hour clock, which is quite common in Ukraine, is rarely, if ever, referred to by speakers of English in ordinary conversation. It is sometimes found in timetables, programmes and official announcements: *arriving at 1700/17:00 hours* (read as *seventeen hundred hours).* Note also: *0100 hrs (oh one hundred hours); 0130 hrs (oh one thirty hours); 1815 hrs (eighteen fifteen hours).*

In time measurements (and, for that matter, in other types of measurements) containing two different units, the conjunction *and* is possible before the smaller, but is usually left out, e. g. *three hours (and) ten minutes.*

There are various ways of using numerals to refer to people's ages:

She is twenty-one (years old / years of age).
Mr. Ryan was a respectable man in his early/mid/late fifties.
Fourteen-year-olds should be given particular consideration by teachers and parents.
My father gave me a watch on my eighteenth birthday.
Their son is sixteen, getting on for seventeen.
Sheila is a well-preserved thirty.
Ted Davies, 36, was questioned by the police... (esp. in newspaper reporting)

The range of these expressions, illustrating some combinatory properties of numerals, could be enlarged by the addition of many more.

Infants' ages, from one month up to two years of age, are generally given as months: thirteen months old; eighteen months old (cf. Ukr.: *дитині рік і місяць, півтора роки,* etc.). The corresponding time periods are expressed in the same way, e. g. *eighteen months' sabbatical.*

The dollar sign ($) and the pound sign (£) are written before the numeral but said after the numeral: $475 —*four hundred and seventy five dollars;* £2.3m — *two point three million pounds.*

The abbreviations *p* (for "penny", "pence") and *¢*. (for "cent", "cents") are written solid after the numeral: 95p (read *ninety-five pence* or, informally, *ninety-five* p); 70*¢* (read *seventy cents).*

Prices are normally read as follows:

£10.25 — ten pounds twenty-five pence, ten pounds twenty-five, ten twenty-five, or ten pound twenty-five (informal).

Notice the use of singular nouns in attributive phrases like *a ten-dollar bill, a five-pound note,* and the use of the possessive case in numeric expressions with *worth: five dollars' worth of popcorn.*

Vulgar fractions are read as follows:

½	–	*a / one half,*
$^1/_3$	–	*a / one third,*
¼	–	*a / one quarter,*
$^1/_5$	–	*a / one fifth,*
$^2/_3$	–	*two thirds,*
$^7/_8$	–	*seven eighths,*
$3^3/_4$	–	*three and three quarters.*

When used attributively, simple fraction expressions retain the plural ending: *a two-thirds share* (cf. phrases with whole numbers: *a two-mile walk; two miles' walk).*

More complex fractions are expressed using the preposition *over:*

163/507 — one hundred and sixty three over five hundred and seven.

In decimal fractions, the whole numerals are read out in the usual way, but the numerals to the right of the decimal point (unless they are hundredths) are read out as single digits:

3.14159	– *three point one four one five nine*,
0.723	– *zero* (BrE also *nought*) *point seven two three*,
(0).45	– (zero) *point forty-five.*

With fractions and decimals below 1, we normally use of+singular noun: *three quarters of a mile;* 0.635 cm — *(nought / zero) point six three five of a centimetre.* However, decimals below 1 can also be followed directly by a plural noun: *(nought / zero) point thirty-four centimetres.* Fractions and decimals over 1 are normally followed by plural nouns: *one and a half miles;* 1.6 cm — *one point six centimetres.*

Common ways of saying calculations are:

2+2=4	*two and two is / are four* (informal) / *two plus two is / equals four* (formal);
8-3=5	*three from eight is / leaves five* (informal) / *eight take away three is / leaves five / eight minus three is / equals five* (formal);
3x4=12	*three fours are twelve* (informal) / *three times four is / makes twelve* (informal) / *three multiplied by four is / equals twelve* (formal);
12÷3=4	three(s) *into twelve goes four* (times) (informal) / *twelve divided by three is / equals four* (formal).

Raising to a power and extraction of roots can be read out as follows:

12^2 – *twelve squared*,
12^3 – *twelve cubed* (or: *raised to the third power*),
12^5 – *twelve raised to the fifth power*,
$\sqrt{2}$ – *the* (square) *root of two*,
$\sqrt[5]{2}$ – *the fifth root of two.*

Although the universal quantitative meaning of the numeral does not vary from one language to another, different cultures have adopted differing approaches to numbering things, and this is reflected in their languages.

In the first place, even within one language there can be differing conventions (e. g., those evolved by BrE and AmE) for writing and reading out some of the numerical expressions of measurement. In AmE, *a billion* is a thousand million; this is now generally true of BrE, but in Britain *a billion* used to mean a million million, and this could occasionally lead to a misunderstanding.

Second, a thing that is regarded as the first in a set by one culture may be regarded otherwise by another culture; this leads to further numeric discrepancies. For example, the *ground floor* of a British house corresponds to the *first floor* of an American or Ukrainian house; consequently, the British *first floor* corresponds to the American or Ukrainian *second floor,* etc. In English-language cultures, Sunday is regarded as the first day of the week, Monday the second, etc., while in the Ukrainian -language culture, *понеділок* (Monday) comes first, *вівторок* (Tuesday) second, etc. Furthermore, a speaker of English might say *There are five fingers on each hand,* or, alternatively, *There are four fingers and one thumb on each hand,* whereas the exact equivalent of the latter sentence would be inconceivable in Ukrainian.

Third, there may be a disparity between the use of cardinals and ordinals: where one language uses cardinals, another may prefer ordinals, particularly in an informal style. Cf.: *bus number six, a number six bus – шостий автобус; room (number) twelve – дванадцята аудиторія.* The Ukrainian language widely uses the ordinal number нулевой, while the English language, as has been mentioned, confines the use of the ordinal counterpart of zero to scientific contexts (a *zeroth-order differential equation);* moreover, it is hardly ever included in conventional English dictionaries. Where both languages would use ordinals, the position of the numeral in a noun phrase may be different, e. g. *Beethoven's Fourth Symphony – Четверта симфонія Бетховена.*

Fourth, certain things and events referred to numerically by one culture are not necessarily described in the same way by another culture. For instance, the American counterpart of the Ukrainian студент першого / другого / третього / четвертого is likely to be referred to as *a freshman I sophomore I junior I senior.* In describing the main meal of the day, the Russians often use the substantivized ordinals *перше, друге* and *третє,* while speakers of English use non-numeric designation for the successive parts of a meal: *the soup, the main course, the sweet* (AmE) / *dessert* (BrE). In terms of semantics we may say that the numerical meaning is expressed explicitly in the nominations adopted by one culture and remains implicit in those adopted by another culture. In the latter case it is revealed by means of a definition, e. g.: "sophomore" — *a second-year student in a four-year American college.* The list of such examples as these could be long.

Note how some of the Ukrainian numerical expressions can be rendered in English:

У січні тридцать один день. – January has thirty-one days (note the plural noun).

Я заробляю в два раиз більше, ніж моя сестра. – I earn double my sister's salary. I earn twice as much as my sister (does).

У минулому році з мене взяли двадцять доларів, а цим літом доводиться платити у три рази більше. – They charged me $20 last year; this summer, however, I've had to pay three times this amount (or.. .*three times as much).*

Населення цього містечка зараз у чотири рази менше, ніж раніше. – The town's population is now a quarter of what it used to be.

Африка у чотири рази більше Європи. – Africa is four times the size of Europe.

У нього пішло на це у три рази менше часу, ніж у мене. – He did it in one-third la third (of) *the time it took me.*

Цей сплав містить 60 % заліза. – This alloy contains 60 percent (of) *iron* (also written 60 per cent, abbr. p.c, pet, symbol %).

Площа вітальні — 5X5 *метрів* (15X15 футов). – *The sitting room is* 5X5 *metres* (15X15 feet) (read *five metres by five metres* or *five metres square; fifteen feet by fifteen feet* or *fifteen feet square).* But: *The total area of the sitting room is twenty-five square metres* (25 square feet).

Here are some of the numerous idiomatic expressions with cardinals and ordinals (the asterisk * marks informal expressions):

(all) *in one breath*
*all in one piece**
one way or another
on (the) *one hand*
one by one
one in a hundred / thousand
at first glance
at first; first of all
first come, first served
first things first
in the first place
on a first name basis with smb
of the first water
love at first sight
first thing in the morning
a bird in the hand is worth two in the bush (a proverb)
two's company; three's none / a crowd (a proverb)
to be at sixes and sevens
to divide / cut sth in two
to put two and two together
a game at which two can play
that makes two of us
to take smb down a notch / peg or two
to be in two minds about sth
second to none
on second thought
to play second fiddle to smb
second nature to smb
in the second place
in one's second childhood
*to get / give smb the third degree**
on all fours
six of one and half a dozen of the other
in seventh heaven
*to be behind the eight ball**
a nine to five job
dressed to the nines
nine times out often
ten to one (sth will happen)*
at the eleventh hour
an eleventh hour decision
to talk nineteen to the dozen
*to take I catch forty winks**

to split sth / divide sth / go fifty fifty
*to look like a million dollars**
*to zero in on sth**
zero option
zero hour
to come to naught

2. The Preposition

The preposition is a part of speech used to show a relationship between the two parts of a sentence. Most often prepositions show how the two parts are related in space *(in, on,* etc.) or in time *(during, at,* etc.). They can also show means (by, *with,* etc.), or some other relationship (for example, figurative relationships in phrases like *by heart* or *on time).*

English prepositions are open-class words. This means that new prepositions can be formed from other parts of speech, such as *considering, during, granted,* which are formed from participles, or *minus* and plus, which are formed from Latin adjectives. Sometimes such prepositions are termed "marginal" prepositions. The process of forming new prepositions is an extremely slow one, so the above-mentioned open-class characteristics should be viewed with reservations.

Lexical meaning in prepositions is a debatable question. Some of them are considered void of it, e.g. *by, of, to.* Other prepositions demonstrate very definite meanings, e. g. *above, between, into,* etc. According to the borderline point of view, prepositions as a class of words, represent a specific blending of lexical and grammatical meanings.

Morphologically English prepositions can be categorized into **simple** and **complex** prepositions.

Simple prepositions consist of one word (historically they can be complex words, though): *about, above, across, after, along, alongside, around, at, before, behind, below, beneath, beside, between, beyond, but,* by, *despite, down, during, following, for, from, inside, in{to), near, of, off, on(to), opposite, out, outside, over, past, round, save, since, through, to, toward(s), under(neath), up(on), with, within, without,* etc.

Complex prepositions consist of more than one word. These can be two-word prepositions, like *ahead of, apart from, because of, close to, due to, except for, from behind, from inside, from under, instead of, near to, out of,* etc. or three-word prepositions, e.g.: *as far as, by means of, in accordance with, in addition to, in front of, in spite of, in terms of, on top of, with reference to, with regard to, with respect to,* etc.

Complex prepositions are not necessarily composed of prepositions like in *out of.* Very often they are formed differently, i.e. are composed of different parts of speech, e.g. of an adverb and a preposition: *ahead of, away from;* or an adjective and a preposition: *due to;* a conjunction and a preposition: *because of;* a preposition, a noun and a preposition: *in front of, with reference to,* etc.

Prepositions express a variety of meanings:

1. Place, Position, Location (spatial).

Spatial prepositions include *at, (a)round, beside, by, on, in, above, below, in front of, after, between, behind, across, through, near, next to, opposite, off, over* and others.

In is used when a place is thought of as three-dimensional or as an area:

They are in the sitting-room.
Do you like swimming in the sea?
He lives with his family in Brooklyn.
There are hundreds of people in the streets and in the squares of the city.

Note that *in* is also used with the words *sky* and *tree. At* is used when a place is thought of as a point or when the building is thought of quite generally as a place where something happens:

I arrived at the station by the evening. Let's meet at the bus stop. Sarah is at home, but Fred is still at university. We decided to stay at the Holiday Inn.

In should be used when we think of a building itself:

There are seventy bedrooms in the Holiday Inn.

At is used with cities, towns and villages when the place is thought of as a point:

Passenger trains rarely stop at Lawrence. At is used with addresses, when the house number is given:

The US President lives at 1700 Pennsylvania Avenue.

Both *at* and *in* are used with buildings:

We decided to have dinner at I in a Chinese restaurant. She works at I in the post office.

On is used when a place is thought of as a surface or a line:

There are pictures on the walls and rugs on the floor of the room. Los Angeles, San Francisco and Seattle are on the West coast of the USA.

On is also used with the number of the floor:

Their apartment is on the last floor of the building, and there is no elevator.

Above and *over* both mean "higher than":

The sky is over our heads. He rules over a great tribe.

Below and *under* both mean "lower than":

There was a night club below my hotel room and I couldn't sleep because of the noise. Children under fourteen are not recommended to see this film.

Above and *below* are used when one thing is not directly over or under another:

His hut is just above the creek.
The creek was below the old man's hut.

Over is used to mean "covering", while *under* means "covered by":

He spread his handkerchief over his face to keep the flies off. He hid under the bedclothes.

Both *over* and *across* are used to mean "on/to the other side of":

My house is just across lover the street.
The Golden Gate Bridge over the strait linking San Francisco Bay with the Pacific is one of the most spectacular places in the city.

2. Place, Movement and Direction.

Prepositions showing movement or direction to or from an object **are** as follows: *away from, into, onto, out of, along, up, down, past, (a)round, to, toward(s), from, from...to, through*, etc.

It should be noted that with the verb *arrive, at* or *in* are used depending on the place of arrival. *In* is used when the destination is a country or town, while *at* is used with other places. The verb *get* in this meaning is used with the preposition *to:*

We arrived in New York on a cold windy day. We got to New York on a cold windy day. I arrived at the hotel early in the morning.

3. Time.

Many of the words which function as spatial prepositions also appear as temporal ones. They can either express some point of time (*at 5 o'clock, by next Monday, in August, on Monday)* or period of time *(for six weeks, during the weekend, until tomorrow).* Most commonly used prepositions of time are: *in, on, at, during, following, throughout, until, till, before, since, after, for, between, by.*

At is used to show a specific time of the day: *at 3 o'clock p.m., at noon, at lunchtime, at night, at midnight;* with the names of public holidays: *at Christmas, at Easter,* with the word *weekend(s): at the weekend, at weekends.*

In is used when a particular part of the day is mentioned, except *night: in the morning,* etc. *In* is also used with longer periods: *in August, in the summer, in 1492, in the 18th century;* or to denote the period of time which is to elapse before something is going to happen: / *hope to see you in a week.*

On is used with the names of the days of the week or with phrases which include the word *day: on Monday, on the day of his arrival.* Note that *on time* means "at exactly the right time" while *in time* means "early enough". Cf.:

The plane left New York at 11:00 a.m. and landed at San Francisco International Airport on time, (on schedule)

In my school classes always start on time, (in accordance with the timetable)

He discovered the fire in time to stop it spreading.

No preposition is used with the deictic expressions *last, this, next, before yesterday, today, tonight, tomorrow,* or with the quantifying word *every:*

Last year /month I week I time I met him at the Wilsons.
This year/month I week I don't go to the gym.
Next year /month /week /time I will be more careful.
What are you doing tomorrow evening?
Every morning she jogs in the park for exercise.

At the end is used to denote some point where something stops. *In the end* means "finally", "eventually". Cf.:

I saw light at the end of the tunnel.
At the end of the film I felt very bored.
At first I didn't like him, but in the end we became good friends.

Until and *till* are used to mean "up to the time when", the choice between them is chiefly a matter of personal preference, though *until* is often considered more formal.

By is used to mean "not later than":

I'll wait until ten o'clock.
He works from morning till night, day after day.
Now he is out, but he'll be back by midday.

Note the difference between the preposition *before* and the adverb *ago: before* is used to mean "before a past time", while *ago* means "before now":

This novel was published a couple of months ago.
Hemingway wrote his novel "A Farewell to Arms" in 1929; his first novel "The Sun Also Rises" had been written three years before.

4. Cause and Purpose.

These prepositions can express a variety of meanings: physical or psychological causes, reasons, purposes, targets, recipients, motives, and destination. They include: *because of, from, on account of, at, to, for, out of,* and some others:

People were shocked at the news, (cause)
He had to guess at the meaning of the word, (purpose)
He was fined for drunken driving, (reason)
Because of his bad leg, he could not walk as fast as the others. (reason)
She asked us not to be noisy, for fear of waking the baby, (motif)
The ship was making for the open sea. (destination)
It's a machine for cutting steel, (destination)
I have brought the books for you to examine, (recipient)
Give this book to me. (recipient)

5. Means.

These prepositions express such meanings as manner, instrument, and agency. They include: *as, with, without, by, in, like:*

To kill two birds with one stone, (means or instrument)
He makes a living by teaching, (means)
Leave it as it is. (manner)
Don't talk like that, (manner)
I can't translate this text without a good dictionary, (instrument)

Note that the preposition *by* is used to show how we travel: *by car / bus / bicycle / train / underground / ship / road / air / sea:*

I very rarely travel by air.

By is not used with *my, a, the* before *bus, car, bicycle,* etc.:

He usually goes to work in his car.

In is used with cars and *on* — with bicycles, motorbikes and public transport, e. g. with buses, trains:

He invited me for a ride on a motorbike.
She decided to go from Minneapolis to Kansas-City on the train.

6. Accompaniment.

The meaning "in the company of" or "together with" is expressed by the preposition *with:*

Is there anyone with you or are you alone?

7. Support and Opposition.
These two meanings are usually expressed by the prepositions *for, against, with:*
He who is not with me is against me. (support and opposition respectively)
We must vote for this plan, (support)
He always quarrels with his wife, (opposition)

8. Having.
The meaning of possession is usually expressed by the prepositions *of, with, without:*

She is a woman of great accomplishments.
She is a beautiful girl with huge blue eyes.
He was working without any hope of reward.

9. Concession.
This meaning is expressed by the prepositions *in spite of, despite, notwithstanding, for all, with all:*

Despite what she says, this is a remarkable book.
With all her faults he still liked her.
Notwithstanding the snowstorm, our plane left on time.

10. Reference.
These are quite formal prepositions, except for *as for, as to* and *as far as: with reference to, with regard to, with respect to, in accordance with, according to, in terms of, considering,* etc.:

As for you, I never want to see you again.
According to the timetable, the train is due here at 12:30.
With reference to your letter of 5 July, we are pleased to confirm your reservation at the Sheraton Hotel for the nights of 17, 18, 19 of July.

11. Exception and Addition.
These meanings are expressed by *excepting), except for, with the exception of, but, apart from, besides, as well as, plus, minus,* and some others:

No one but him showed much interest in the proposal.
The vacation was great, apart from the hotel room which was depressing.
I have two more brothers besides John.

The prepositional phrase
1. The preposition always syntactically governs a nominal phrase in the sentence, and normally it is not stressed. There are cases, however, when a preposition is separated from the word it is syntactically linked with and placed at the end of the sentence. In this case it is stressed:

I know what you are dreaming about. Nobody likes *to* be shouted *at.*

When the meaning of a preposition is emphasized, it may also be stressed:

It is outrageous! It is beyond my understanding.

Some prepositions are restricted in their frequency or style, especially those borrowed from foreign languages:
versus — "against", shortened to v or *vs* in print. It is used in law or sport, e. g.: *Robinson v Brown, Manchester United vs Nottingham Forest;*

circa — "about", shortened to c or *ca* in print. It is used when the exact date is unknown, e. g.: *He was born ca 150 BC.*

There are also some dialect uses, such as *towards* in British English vs *toward* in American English, etc.

Many English prepositions have homonyms among conjunctions, adverbs, and adverbial (postverbial) particles. For instance, in the sentence *Put the book on the table, on* is a preposition governing the noun *table* and relates the verb *put* to the phrase *the table*, indicating where the book should go, while in the sentence *Go on reading, on* is a particle and the form *go on is* a phrasal verb.

The fact that many English prepositions, conjunctions, adverbs, and adverbial (postverbial) particles are identical in form, may create for students of English some difficulties in interpreting the meaning of a sentence. It is necessary *to* differentiate between their respective functions. The adverb, unlike the preposition, conjunction, and postverbal particle, *is* a part of the sentence; postverbal particles and verbs form one single entity — phrasal verbs; differentiation between the preposition and conjunction is sometimes particularly complicated:

After dinner we went for a walk, (preposition)

After three hundred years Rembrandt is closer to the heart of the modern world than any other painter, (preposition)

After I wash the dishes, I'll join you in the sitting room, (conjunction)

I will look after your cat while you're on holiday, (part of a phrasal verb)

I'd *better not see you after,* (adverb)

I brought this book for you. (preposition)

For several years I did not hear from her. (preposition)

The compass is a very useful device, for it enables one to determine polarity, (conjunction) *What are you looking for?* (part of a prepositional verb)

The construction which follows the preposition in the sentence is called "prepositional complement":

It was not too far to walk home from the party, (noun) *He refused from what was offered to him.* (clause)

The combination of a preposition with its complement is called a "prepositional phrase" which can perform different syntactic functions. Its principal functions are:

a) **postmodifier** in the noun phrase: *Three Men in a Boat; Cat on a Hot Tin Roof; The Man in the Brown Suit;*

b) **adverbial:** *I arrived on the bus on Thursday, in the rain. They called me shortly after midday;*

c) **complementation of a verb:** *He lay on the floor; Are you going to apply for the job? Does this book belong to you?*

d) **complementation of an adjective: J** *am angry about all the mess you've made. I am not very good at mathematics. He is very different from his sister.*

Normally, a preposition is followed directly by its complement. In some cases, however, this does not happen and the preposition is deferred:

This news is much spoken about. Has the doctor been sent for? He is a nice person to deal with.

2. Prepositions can often be used figuratively: *in low waters; be wet behind the ears; be out of hand; pay through the nose* – these and lots of others should be learned individually as elements of idiomatic usage.

3. Note some typically used phrases with prepositions:

attitude to / toward(s)

to be angry / excited / worried / nervous / annoyed / furious about
to be pleased / disappointed / bored / happy / polite with
to be engaged / married to
to be keen on
to be good / bad at
to be surprised / shocked / astonished / amazed at / by
to be afraid / ashamed / aware / jealous / conscious / envious / capable / proud / suspicious / fond / full / short / tired of
to be similar to
a book on (English literature), but *a book of postage stamps*
a lesson/class in (English)
a lecture on I about (English Lexicology)
a seminar on (creative writing)
an answer / invitation to
by mistake I accident I chance
by credit card
to go on holiday / journey / trip / business
to dream about (while asleep)
to dream of(= imagine or consider)
to battle at
an argument /row over
to object to
a ticket to the theater / the cinema / a train / a plane, but / *for a show*
a view of (a lake, etc.)
in somebody's name (e.g. a letter)
a key to (a door)
to charge with, but *accuse of*
a trip I tour of I about the country

3. The Conjunction

The **conjunction** is a part of speech which denotes connections between objects and phenomena. It connects parts of the sentence, clauses, and sentences.

According to their **morphological structure** conjunctions are divided into the following groups:

1) **simple** conjunctions (*and, or, but, till, after, that, so, where, when,* etc.).

Some of the simple conjunctions are homonymous with prepositions, adverbs, and pronouns.

2) **derivative** conjunctions (*until, unless,* etc.).

3) **compound** conjunctions (*however, whereas, wherever*, etc.). These conjunctions are few.

4) **composite** conjunctions (*as well as, as long as, in case, for fear (that), on the ground that, for the reason that,* etc.).

Some conjunctions are used in pairs (correlatively): *both…and, either…or, neither…nor, not only…but (also), whether…or.*

As to their **function** conjunctions fall under two classes:

1) coordinating conjunctions;

2) subordinating conjunctions;

Coordinating conjunctions join coordinate clauses in a compound sentence, homogeneous parts in a simple sentence, homogeneous subordinate clauses in a complex sentence, or independent sentences.

Subordinating conjunctions generally join a subordinate or dependent clause to a principal clause or adverbial modifiers to the predicate in a simple sentence, or sometimes they join homogeneous parts.

The meaning of conjunctions is closely connected with the relations they express. Thus the classes

of coordinating conjunctions according to their meaning correspond to different types of compound sentences.

There are four different **kinds of coordinating conjunctions.**

1. **Copulative conjunctions** (*and, nor, as well as, both…and, not only…but (also), neither…nor*) denote not only simple addition, but sometimes express opposition, explanation, consequence. *Nor* expresses copulative connection and negative meaning at the same time, it very often correlates with negation in the preceding clause.

He *didn't doubt* it for a moment, *nor* had he any fears about the possible turn of the events.

Note 1: The coordinating conjunction *and* may be used in a somewhat different function if it joins the same nouns; the effect may be to suggest that different types of persons or objects should be distinguished:

*There are **teachers and teachers***. (There are good and bad teachers.)

If the noun is repeated more than once, the effect is to suggest a large number:

*There were **faces and faces and faces** all around him.*

The repetition of verbs produces an effect of continuous action or of increase in degree:

He talked and talked and talked.

Note 2: If the pronouns *you* and *I*, or their case forms are joined by the conjunction *and*, conventions of politeness require that *you* should always come first: *you and 1; you or me; you and they; you and them.*

2. **Disjunctive conjunctions** (*or, either…or, or else, else*) offer some choice between one statement and another.

*I'll call on you on Saturday **or** on Sunday.*

3. **Adversative conjunctions** (*but, while, whereas*) show that one statement of fact is contrasted with or set against another.

*He was tall **but** did not look it because of his broad shoulders.*
*They were silent, **but** there was no resentment on their faces.*

There is only one **causal conjunction** *for,* which denotes reason or cause, and one **resultative conjunction** *so.*

*He was never in the know of things, **for** nobody told him anything.*
*It was Saturday, **so** they were back from school early.*

Coordinating conjunctions connect homogeneous parts of a simple sentence (words, phrases), clauses of equal rank in a composite sentence or independent sentences. Some of them can only join coordinated clauses *(so, for),* others only homogeneous parts of simple sentences *{both ... and),* others are used to join both clauses and homogeneous parts of the sentence *(and, but, or, either ... or, nor, not only ... but also,* etc.).

Coordinating conjunctions always stand between the elements they join. The most common coordinating conjunction is *and:*

*Slowly **and** painfully he worked through the first volume.*

Subordinating conjunctions join subordinate clauses to main clauses, although some of them may join a word or a phrase within a simple sentence. They are positionally less fixed than coordinating conjunctions and need not necessarily be between the elements they join, but may precede both the subordinate and the main clauses.

Conjunctions which usually join subject, predicative, object attributive and appositive clauses *(that, whether, if)* are very vague in their meaning and may therefore be used to join clauses of different syntactic value. Other conjunctions retain their lexical meaning.

That the man didn't call the police surprised nobody.
*Somehow I felt **that** his feelings had changed.*

Conjunctions introducing adverbial clauses are conjunctions of **place** (*where, wherever, whence, wherein*):

Wherever he turned, he saw flowers.

time (*as, as soon as, as long as, when, whenever, while, now that, since, till, until, after, before, while, the moment, the time, the instant, directly, instantly,* etc.)

***When** I leave town I never tell my people about it.*
*What happened **after** I left you?*
*I wouldn't worry **as long as** I am not bothered.*
*She was feeling very cheerful **as** they walked from the station.*

reason or cause (*as, because, since, seeing, so ... that, lest, considering*)

*His work was of vital importance to him, **since** all his life was devoted to it.*
*One day, **because** the days were so short, he decided to give up algebra and geometry.*
***As** she had never heard of such stories, she was puzzled at first.*

condition (*if, unless, in case, provided, supposing (that), suppose (that), on condition (that)*)

***If** you tell this to anybody I'll never forgive you.*
*Tom simply could not work **unless** all the conditions were to his liking.*
*Vagabonds may get a bed there for a week, **provided** their papers are in order.*

purpose (*lest, that, in order that, so that, for fear that, so as, so.*)

*They made me hide **so that** the soldier should not see me.*
*He wanted to be great in the world's eyes **in order** that the woman he loved should be proud of him.*
*He rose gently to his feet **lest** he should disturb her.*

consequence (*that, so that*)

*The box was so heavy **that** I could not lift it.*

manner and comparison (*as, the way, as ... as, not so ... as, than, as if, as though*)

*And do you know why she carries herself **the way** she does?*
***As** quickly **as** he could he set forth.*
*He told him this **as though** his discovery was his own fault.*

concession (*though, although, as, that, even if, whether ... or*)

***Though** they were so poor, Christine and Andrew knew happiness.*

Most subordinating conjunctions introduce more than one kind of clause. For instance *that* may introduce subject clauses, predicative clauses, object clauses, appositive clauses, adverbial clauses of purpose and consequence. The conjunction *if* may introduce subject, object, predicative, appositive, and conditional clauses. The conjunction *whether* can introduce subject, predicative, object and appositive clauses and can also express a disjunctive coordinating connection when used with *or*. The conjunction *as* may introduce adverbial clauses of time, cause, concession and comparison. The conjunctions *as though, as* may introduce predicative and adverbial clauses *of* comparison.

The subordinating conjunction *that* is very often omitted:

*He said (**that**) John would come soon.*

Of all subordinating conjunctions only *if, though, while* and *when* may be used to link single words and phrases:

a pleasant if talkative child; a cosy, though somewhat dark room; a simple, though profound idea; he did it willingly, if sceptically; she moved quickly, though awkwardly; when at home, he never spoke about business.

Two conjunctions may be used alongside each other in two cases:

1) if each of them introduces a separate clause, and one of the clauses is inserted into the other:

*She knew **that unless** her calculations were all at fault he was not going to go.*

2) if both conjunctions are combined to express a complex relation:

*The butler took his time far more casually., far more naturally, **than if** Dicky had offered to shake hands with him.*
His father was a vigorous out-of-door man. who was never happier than when lie had a gun or a rod in his hands.

Alongside conjunctions there is a numerous group of **conjuncts.** They are words or phrases which like conjunctions are used to link clauses, sentences and sometimes single words. Conjuncts are mainly derived from adverbs:

further, moreover, again, besides, however, now, next, then, yet, still, though, nevertheless, notwithstanding, otherwise, else, therefore, thus, accordingly.

Three of them originated from particles: *also, too, only;* others are **phrases:** *on the contrary, at the same time, for all that,* etc. Many of conjuncts, unlike conjunctions, are less fixed as to their position and often occur in the middle of the sentence as a parenthesis. Conjuncts express more specific relations than conjunctions. Those expressing a **copulative connection** may be divided into several subgroups.

1**. Enumerative:** *first, second,* etc., *firstly, secondly,* etc., *next, then, last, lastly, finally, in the first place, in the second place,* etc.

First *he bought a reading lamp,* ***then*** *pens and books.*

2**. Additive.** Most of these suggest a reinforcement of what has already been said before: *again, also, further, furthermore, more, moreover, above all,* etc.

Her husband was told that he was too old to work. ***More****, he was discharged with no pension.*

3**. Equative,** suggesting similarity in characterization or content: *equally, likewise, too, also, similarly, in the same way.*

The boy was forbidden to go out. Younger children ***likewise*** *stayed at home.*

4**. Summative:** *then, thus, all in all, to sum up, then,* etc.
5**. Explanatory:** *namely, in other words, for example (e.g.), for instance, that is (i.e.), viz, to, wit, say.*
6**. Reformulatory:** *rather, better, in other words.*
7**. Transitional,** denoting temporal transition or indicating a continuation of the narration: *meantime, meanwhile, in the meantime, in the meanwhile, now, b\ the way, by the by.*

There is such a comic dignity about cats... ***Now*** *there is nothing haughty about a dog.*

Conjuncts do not express disjunctive connection.
Adversative conjuncts may be divided into the following subgroups:
1**. Concessive:** *however, nevertheless, nonetheless, notwithstanding, only, still, though, yet, in any case, at any rate, for all that, at the same time, all the same.*

Her voice still gave charm to her most commonplace remarks, ***yet*** *it was different from the voice he remembered.*
Such an answer would have satisfied any one; it had no effect at all, ***though****, on this shameless creature.*
He was received with respect. ***Nevertheless*** *he felt awkward.*

2**. Antithetic:** *instead, oppositely, on the contrary, on the one hand... on the other hand,* etc.

He could ask anyone about the house, ***instead*** *he sulkily went from one house to the other.*

3**. Inferential:** *else, otherwise, in that case,* etc.

The man evidently suspected something, ***else*** *he wouldn't have asked me all these questions.*

Consecutive conjuncts are not divided into subgroups. They form one indivisible group: *accordingly, consequently, hence, therefore, then, thus, as a result.*

She liked to be alone, ***hence*** *she hated Sundays when everybody was at home.*

Conjuncts often combine with conjunctions: *and so, but then, but though, or else, or again, and besides, and still, and yet, but still, but yet, and nevertheless, but nevertheless, because otherwise,* etc.

6. The Particle and the Interjection

The **particle** is a part of speech giving modal or emotional emphasis to other words, groups of words or clauses. A particle may join one part of the sentence to another (connecting particles).

Particles have no independent function in the sentence.

Particles may combine with any part of speech.

*Don't worry - that's **just** Aunt Fanny practising her balancing act.*
*- John is very proud of his daughter. - I should **just** think so.*
*Isn't that **just** beautiful?*
*She lives **just** round the corner.*
*I said **just** what I thought.*
***Just** as we thought the sun would sink, it grew still redder.*

Particles generally stand before the word they refer to but they may follow it.

This book is for advanced students only.

According to their meaning particles fall into six groups.

1. Intensifying particles: *just, even, yet, still, all, simply.* They emphasize the meaning of the word (or phrase, or clause) they refer to or give special prominence to the notion expressed by it.

*The skirt comes **just** below her knees.*
*They **even** offered him higher wages.*
*Maggie felt **all** the safer for that.*
*These days we're working with **still** greater efficiency.*
*We had **yet** another discussion.*

The particles *all, still, yet,* mostly intensify the comparative degree of adjectives and adverbs.

*Play **yet** more softly.*

2. Limiting particles: *only, merely, solely, but, alone.* They single out the word or phrase they refer to or limit the idea (notion) expressed by them.

*I **only** wanted to ask you the time.*
*Man cannot live on bread **alone**.*
*Time **alone** will show who was right.*
*She is still **but** a child, she wants to play.*
*Mr Green **merely** hinted at the possibility.*

Just, merely, simply can be used at the beginning of imperative sentences.

*You don't have to be present. **Just** (**merely**, **simply**) send a letter of explanation.*

3. Specifying particles: *right, exactly, precisely, just.* They make the meaning of the word or phrase they refer to more precise.

*Draw a circle **right** in the middle of the map* (точно, прямо посередині).
*We were **just** about to start* (як раз зібрались ...).
*They arrived **precisely** at ten* (рівно, точно о десятій).
*The room looks **exactly** as it did when I was here last year* (саме так, як).
What **exactly** do you mean (що саме...)?

4. *The* **additive particle** *else.* It combines only with indefinite, interrogative and negative pronouns and interrogative adverbs. It shows that the word it refers to denotes something additional to what has already been mentioned:

*Something **else**, nobody **else**, what **else**, where **else**.*

5. The negative particle *not.*

***Not** a word was said about it.*
***Not** saying anything was a bad idea.*
***Not** everyone likes this book.*
*Do you want to go? - **Not** me!*

6. Connecting particles: *also, too,* which may function as conjuncts

Were you at the film? - I was ***also*** there.
I went there ***too***.
Won't you come ***too****?*

Traditionally particles were classed with adverbs with which some are homonymous: *just, simply, yet, still, exactly, precisely, right, too, barely,* etc.

*She is old **too*** (particle).
*She is **too** old* (adverb).
He's **just** the man I'm looking for (particle).
*He has **just** arrived* (adverb).

Other particles are homonymous with adjectives *(only, even),* conjunctions *(but),* pronouns *(all),* statives *(alone).*

Only a doctor can do that (particle).
*She is the **only** person for the job* (adjective).

The **interjection** is a part of speech which expresses various emotions without naming them.

According to their **meaning** interjections fall under two main groups, namely **emotional** interjections and **imperative** interjections.

1. **Emotional interjections** express the feelings of the speaker. They are: *ah, oh, eh, bravo, alas,* etc.

2. **Imperative interjections** show the will of the speaker or his order or appeal to the hearer. They are: *here, hush, sh-sh, well, come, come,* etc.

Interjections express different kinds of feelings, such as:

joy *(hurray, hurrah),*
grief, sorrow *(alas, dear me, dear, oh),*
approval *(bravo; hear, hear),*
contempt *(pooh, gosh, bosh, pah, bah, fie),*
Triumph *(aha),*
impatience *(bother),*
anger *(damn),*
surprise or annoyance *(Goodness gracious, My God).*

Some interjections are used merely to attract attention *(hallo, hi, hey, here).*

***Hallo**! What's happening now?*

***Hey**! Is anybody here?*
***Oh dear**! I've lost my pen.*
*Mr Smith is ill again. "**Dear me**! I'm sorry to hear that."*
***Bother**! I've missed my train!*
***For goodness' sake**, stop misbehaving!*

The meaning of other interjections is very vague, they express emotion in general and the specific meaning depends either on the context, or the situation, or the tone with which they are pronounced Thus *Oh* may express surprise, joy, disappointment, anger, etc.

***Oh**! Really?* (surprise)
***Oh**! How glad I am to see you.* (joy)
***Oh**! I'm sorry!* (disappointment)
Oh! Don't be a stupid ass. (anger)

Interjections may be **primary** and **secondary.**

1. **Primary interjections** are not derived from other parts of speech. Most of them are simple words: *ah, eh, oh, pooh, fie, bravo, hush.* Only a few primary interjections are composite: *heigh-ho! hey-ho! holla-ho! gee-ho!*

2. **Secondary interjections** are derived from other parts of speech. They are homonymous with the words they are derived from. They are: *well, now, here, there, come, why,* etc. (Derivative interjections should not be confused with exclamation-words, such as *nonsense, shame, good,* etc.)

Derivative interjections may be simple: *well, here, there, come*, etc., and composite: *dear me, confound it, hang it,* etc.

Interjections are used as independent sentence-words or independent elements of the sentence.

Note that formulas of courtesy, greetings, etc. should not be regarded as interjections. Thus, *good-bye, thank you* are not interjections because they do not express emotion or will.

Check Yourself Test

1. Define the numeral as a part of speech.
2. What is the main subdivision of the numerals?
3. What are the other names for the cardinal numeral 0? Where are they used?
4. What are the syntactic functions of cardinal and ordinal numerals?
5. Define the preposition. What is its morphological structure?
6. What are the meanings of the prepositions?
7. Define the conjunction.
8. Characterize the morphological structure of the conjunctions.
9. How are conjunctions subdivided according to their function?
10. What kinds of coordinating conjunctions are distinguished?
11. What is a particle as a part of speech?
12. What groups of particles according to their meaning are to be distinguished?
13. What is an interjection?
14. How are interjections differentiated?

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Lecture 12

PHRASES

Plan

1. General preview of phrases.
2. Types of phrases.
3. Syntactical relations between the components of a phrase.
4. Phrases equivalent to prepositions and conjunctions.

1. General Preview of Phrases

We will term "**phrase**" every combination of two or more words which is a grammatical unit but is not an analytical form of some word (as, for instance, the perfect forms of verbs). The constituent elements of a phrase may belong to any part of speech.

We thus adopt the widest possible definition of a phrase and we do not limit this notion by stipulating that a phrase must contain at least two notional words. The inconvenience of restricting the notion of phrase to those groups which contain at least two notional words is that, for example, the group "preposition + noun" remains outside the classification and is therefore neglected in grammatical theory.

The difference between a phrase and a sentence is a fundamental one. A phrase is a means of naming some phenomena or processes, just as a word is. Each component of a phrase can undergo grammatical changes in accordance with grammatical categories represented in it, without destroying the identity of the phrase. For instance, in the phrase *write letters* the first component can change according to the verbal categories of tense, mood, etc., and the second component according to the category of number. Thus, *writes a letter, has written a letter, would have written letters,* etc., are grammatical modifications of one phrase.

With a sentence, things are entirely different. A sentence is a unit with every word having its definite form. A change in the form of one or more words would produce a new sentence.

It must also be borne in mind that a phrase as such has no intonation, just as a word has none. Intonation is one of the most important features of a sentence, which distinguish it from a phrase.

Last not least, it is necessary to dwell on one of the most difficult questions involved in the study of phrases: the grammatical aspect of that study as distinct from the lexicological.

The difference should be basically this: grammar has to study the aspects of phrases which spring from the grammatical peculiarities of the words making up the phrase, and of the syntactical functions of the phrase as a whole, while lexicology has to deal with the lexical meaning of the words and their semantic groupings.

Thus, for instance, from the grammatical point of view the two phrases *read letters* and *invite friends* are identical, since they are -built on the same pattern "verb + noun indicating the object of the action". From the lexicological point of view, on the other hand, they are essentially different, as the verbs belong to totally different semantic spheres, and the nouns too; one of them denotes a material object, while the other denotes a human being.

It is to the phrase level that the syntactical notions of agreement (or concord) and government apply.

In studying phrases from a grammatical viewpoint we will divide them according to their function in the sentence into (1) those which perform the function of one or more parts of the sentence, for example, predicate, or predicate and object, or predicate and adverbial modifier, etc., and (2) those which do not perform any such function but whose function is equivalent to that of a preposition, or conjunction, and which are, in fact, to all intents and purposes equivalents of those parts of speech. The former of these two classes comprises the overwhelming majority of English phrases, but the latter is no less important from a general point of view.

2. Types of Phrases

The type "noun + noun" is a most usual type of phrase in Modern English. It must be divided into two subtypes, depending on the form of the first component, which may be in the common or in the genitive case.'

The type "noun in the common case + noun" may be used to denote one idea as modified by another, in the widest sense. We find here a -most varied choice of semantic spheres, such as *speech sound, silver watch, army unit.* The first component may be a proper name as well, as in the phrases *a Beethoven symphony* or *London Bridge.*

The type "noun in the genitive case + noun" has a more restricted meaning and use, which has been dealt with while discussing the nounal category of case. Another very common type is "adjective + noun", which is used to express all possible kinds of things with their properties.

The type "verb + noun" may correspond to two different types of relation between an action and a thing. In the vast majority of cases the noun denotes an object of the action expressed by the verb, but in a certain number of phrases it denotes a measure, rather than the object, of the action. This may be seen in such phrases as, *walk a mile, sleep an hour, wait a minute,* etc. It is only the meaning of the verb and that of the noun which enable the hearer or reader to understand the relation correctly. The meaning of the verb divides, for instance, the phrase *wait an hour* from the phrase *appoint an hour,* and shows the relations in the two phrases to be basically different.

Other types of phrases include "verb + adverb", "adverb + adjective", "adverb + adverb", "noun + preposition + noun", "adjective + preposition + noun", "verb + preposition +- noun", etc.

An important question arises concerning the pattern "noun + verb". In our linguistic theory different opinions have been put forward on this issue. One view is that the phrase type "noun + verb" (which is sometimes called "predicative phrase") exists and ought to be studied just like any other phrase type such as we have enumerated above. The other view is that no such type as "noun -f- verb" exists, as the combination "noun + verb" constitutes a sentence rather than a phrase. This objection, however, is not convincing. If we take the combination "noun + verb" as a sentence, which is sometimes possible, we are analyzing it on a different level, namely, on sentence level, and what we can discover on sentence level cannot affect analysis on phrase level, or indeed take its place. Besides, there is another point to be noted here. If we take, for instance, the group *a man writes* on the phrase level, this means that each of the components can be changed in accordance with its paradigm in any way so long as the connection with the other component does not prevent this. In the given case, the first component, *man,* can be changed according to number, that is, it can appear in the plural form, and the second component, *writes,* can be changed according to the verbal categories of aspect, tense, correlation, and mood (change of person is impossible due to the first component, change of number is predetermined by the number of the first component, and change of voice is made impossible by its meaning). Thus, the groups, *a man writes, men write, a man wrote, men are writing, men have written, a man would have been writing,* etc., are all variants of the same phrase, just as *man* and *men* are forms of the same noun, while *writes, wrote, has written,* etc. are forms of the same verb. It is also important to note that a phrase as such has no intonation of its own, no more than a word as such has one. On the sentence level things are different. *A man writes,* even if we could take it as a sentence at all, which is not certain, is not the same sentence as *Men have been writing,* but a different sentence.

This example is sufficient to show the difference between a phrase of the pattern "noun + verb" and a sentence. The existence of phrases of this type is therefore certain. The phrase pattern "noun + verb" has very ample possibilities of expressing actions as performed by any kind of subject, whether living, material, or abstract.

Besides phrase patterns consisting of two notional words with or without a preposition between them, there are also phrases consisting of a preposition and another word, mainly a noun. Thus, such groups as *in the street, at the station, at noon, after midnight, in time, by heart,* etc. are prepositional phrases performing some function or other in a sentence. Some of these phrases are phraseological units (e. g. *in time, by heart),* but this is a lexicological observation which is irrelevant from the grammatical viewpoint.

Phrases consisting of two components may be enlarged by addition of a third component, and so forth, for instance the phrase pattern "adjective + noun" *(high houses)* may be enlarged by the addition of an adjective in front, so that the type "adjective + adjective + noun" arises *(new high houses).* This, in its turn, may be further enlarged by more additions.

3. Syntactical Relations between the Components of a Phrase

These fall under two main heads: (1) agreement or concord, (2) government.

By **agreement** we mean a method of expressing a syntactical relationship, which consists in making the subordinate word take a form similar to that of the word to which it is subordinate. In Modern English this can refer only to the category of number: a subordinate word agrees in number with its head word if it has different number forms at all. This is practically found in two words only, the pronouns *this* and *that,* which agree in number with their head word. Since no other word, to whatever part of speech it may belong, agrees in number with its head word, these two pronouns stand quite apart in the Modern English syntactical system.

As to the problem of agreement of the verb with the noun or pronoun denoting the subject of the action *(a child plays, children play),* this is a controversial problem. Usually it is treated as agreement of the predicate with the subject, that is, as a phenomenon of sentence structure. However, if we assume that agreement and government belong to the phrase level, rather than to the sentence level, and that phrases of the pattern "noun + verb" do exist, we have to treat this problem here.

The controversy is this. Does the verb stand, say, in the plural number because the noun denoting the subject of the action is plural, so that the verb is in the full sense of the word subordinate to the noun? Or does the verb, in its own right, express by its category of number the singularity or plurality of the doer (or doers)?

There are some phenomena in Modern English which would seem to show that the verb does not always follow the noun in the category of number. Such examples as, *My family are early risers,* on the one hand, and *The United Nations is an international organization,* on the other, prove that the verb can be independent of the noun in this respect: though the noun is in the singular, the verb may be in the plural, if the doer is understood to be plural; though the noun is plural, the verb may be singular if the doer is understood to be singular. Examples of such usage are arguments in favour of the view that there is no agreement in number of the verb with the noun expressing the doer of the action.

The fact that sentences like *My family is small,* and *My family are early risers* exist side by side proves that there is no agreement of the verb with the noun in either case: the verb shows whether the subject of the action is to be thought of as singular or plural, no matter what the category of number in the noun may be.

Thus, the sphere of agreement in Modern English is extremely small: it is restricted to two pronouns — *this* and *that,* which agree with their head word in number when they are used in front of it as the first components of a phrase of which the noun is the centre.

By **government** we understand the use of a certain form of the subordinate word required by its head word, but not coinciding with the form of the head word itself — that is the difference between agreement and government.

The role of government in Modern English is almost as insignificant as that of agreement. We do not find in English any verbs, or nouns, or adjectives, requiring the subordinate noun to be in one case rather than in another. Nor do we find prepositions requiring anything of the kind.

The only thing that may be termed government in Modern English is the use of the objective case of personal pronouns and of the pronoun *who* when they are subordinate to a verb or follow a preposition. Thus, for instance, the forms *me, him, her, us, them,* are required if the pronoun follows a verb (e.g. *find* or *invite)* or any preposition whatever. Even this type of government is, however, made somewhat doubtful by the rising tendency, to use the forms *me, him,* etc., outside their original sphere as forms of the objective case. The notion of government has also become doubtful as applied to the form *whom,* which is rather often superseded by the form *who* in such sentences as, *Who(m) did you see?*

As to nouns, the notion of government may be said to have become quite uncertain in present-day English. Even if we stick to the view that *father* and *father's* are forms of the common and the genitive case, respectively, we could not assert that a preposition always requires the form of the common case. For instance, the preposition *at* can be combined with both case forms: compare / *looked at my father* and / *spent the summer at my father's,* or, with the preposition *to: I wrote to the chemist,* and / *went to the chemist's,* etc. It seems to follow that the notion of government does not apply to forms of nouns.

There is another means of expressing syntactical connection which plays a significant part in Modern English. It may be called "**enclosure**" and its essence is this. Some element of a phrase is, as it were, enclosed between two parts of another element. The most widely known case of "enclosure" is the putting of a word between an article and the noun to which the article belongs. Any word or phrase thus enclosed is shown to be an attribute to the noun. As is well known, many other words than adjectives and nouns can be found in that position, and many phrases, too. It seems unnecessary to give examples of adjectives and nouns in that position, as they are familiar to everybody. However, examples of other parts of speech, and also of phrases enclosed will not be out of place here. *The then government* — here the adverb *then,* being enclosed between the article and the noun it belongs to, is in this Way shown to be an attribute to the noun.[1] In the phrase *an on-the-spot investigation* the phrase *on-the-spot* is enclosed between the article and the noun to which the article belongs, and this characterizes the syntactic connections of the phrase.

The unity of a phrase is quite clear if the phrase as a whole is modified by an adverb. It is a rather common phenomenon for an adverb to modify a phrase, usually one consisting of a preposition and a noun (with possible words serving as attributes to the noun). Here, first, is an example where the phrase so modified is a phraseological unit:

... that little thimbleful of brandy ... went sorely against the grain with her (Trollope).

The adverb *sorely* cannot possibly be said to modify the preposition *against* alone. So it is bound to belong to the phrase *against the grain* as a whole.

An adverb modifying a prepositional phrase is also found in the following example:

The funeral was well under way (Huxley).

The adverb *well* can only modify the phrase *under way,* as a phrase *well under* is unthinkable. This is possible because the phrase *under way,* which is a phraseological unit, has much the same meaning as *going on, developing,* etc.

A phrase may also be modified by a pronoun (it should be noted, though, that in our example the whole phrase, including the pronoun, is a phraseological unit):

Every now and again she would stop and move her mouth as though to speak, but nothing was said (A. Wilson).

It is clear that a phrase *every now* would not be possible. A similar case is the following:

Every three or four months Mr. Bodiham preached a sermon on the subject (Huxley).

It is quite evident that the whole phrase *three or four months* is here modified by the pronoun *every.* This may be to some extent connected with the tendency to take phrases consisting of a numeral and a noun in the plural indicating some measure of time or space as denoting a higher unit..

The phrase "noun + *after* + the same noun" may be a syntactic unit introduced as a whole by a preposition, thus:

She spent the Christmas holidays with her parents in the northern part of the State, where her father owned a drug-store, even though in letter after letter Eve Grayson had urged and begged her to

come to New Orleans for the holidays, promising that she would meet many interesting men while she was there (E. Caldwell).

That the preposition *in* introduces the whole phrase *letter after letter* is evident from the fact that it would not be possible to use the noun *letter* (alone) after the preposition without either an article or some other determinative, such as, for example, *her.*

In the following example the preposition *with* introduces, not a noun, but a phrase consisting of a noun, a preposition *(upon)* and the same noun repeated:

Brown varnished bookshelves lined the walls, filled with row upon row of those thick, heavy theological works which the second-hand booksellers generally sell by weight (Huxley).

That the preposition *with* introduces the phrase *row upon row* rather than the noun *row* alone, is evident from the fact that it would not be possible to say ... *filled with row of those* ... *works* ... The noun *row* could not be used without the article, to say nothing of the fact that one row of books was not enough to fill the walls of a room.

Sometimes a phrase of the pattern "adverb + preposition + noun" may be introduced by another preposition. Compare this sentence from Prof. D. Jones's Preface to his "English Pronouncing Dictionary":

For help in the preparation of this new edition I am particularly indebted to Mr P. A. D. MacCarthy, who supplied me with upwards of 500 notes and suggestions.

The phrase *upwards of 500 notes and suggestions* means the same as *more than 500 notes and suggestions,* and this may explain its use after the preposition *with.* But the fact remains that a preposition *(with)* is immediately followed by a prepositional phrase *(upwards of).*

4. Phrases Equivalent to Prepositions and Conjunctions

The treatment of units like as *apart from, with reference to, as soon as, so long as,* etc. in grammatical theory has been vague and often contradictory. Most usually they are treated as prepositions or conjunctions of a special type, variously described as compound, analytical, etc. This view ignores the basic difference between a word and a phrase and is therefore unacceptable. We will stick to the principle that a phrase (as different from a word) cannot be a part of speech and that phrases should be studied in Syntax.

Among phrases equivalent to prepositions we note the pattern "adverb -f preposition", represented, for instance, by *out of, apart from, down to,* as in the sentences:

"*I love you so," she answered, "but apart from that, you were right"* (R. West).

As the cool of the evening now came on, Lester proposed to Aram to enjoy it without, previous to returning to the parlour (Lytton).

All within was the same, down to the sea-weed in the blue mug in my bedroom (Dickens).

The phrases equivalent to prepositions (we may accept the term "prepositional phrases") perform the very functions that are typical of prepositions, and some of them have synonyms among prepositions. Thus, the phrase *apart from* is a synonym of the preposition *besides,* the phrase *previous to* a synonym of the preposition *before,* etc.

Another pattern of prepositional phrases is "preposition + noun + preposition", e.g. *in front of, on behalf of, with reference to, in accordance with,* as in the sentences:

His friend was seated in front of the fire (Black).

Caesar crossed in spite of this (Jerome K. Jerome).

It must be admitted that there may be doubts whether a group of this type has or has not become a prepositional phrase. Special methods can then be used to find this out. For instance, it may prove important whether the noun within such a phrase can or cannot be modified by an adjective, whether it can or cannot be changed into the plural, and so forth. Opinions may differ on whether a given phrase should or should not be included in this group. On the whole, however, the existence of such prepositional phrases is beyond doubt.

Other types of prepositional phrases ought to be carefully studied in a similar way, for example the phrase *of course,* which is the equivalent of a modal word, etc.

The number of phrases equivalent to conjunctions is rather considerable. Some of the more specialized time relations are expressed by phrases, e. g. *as soon as, as long as.* Phrases with other meanings also belong here, e.g. *in order that, notwithstanding that.* These phrases may be conveniently termed "conjunctional phrases", though this term is not so usual as the term "prepositional phrases".

There are several patterns of conjunctional phrases. One of them is "adverb + adverb + conjunction" *(as soon as, as long as, so long as).* The first component of the two former phrases is probably an adverb, though it might also be argued that it is a conjunction. We may say that the distinction between the two is here neutralized.

There is also the pattern "preposition + noun + conjunction", as in the phrase *in order that,* which is used to introduce adverbial clauses of purpose, or in the phrase *for fear that,* which tends to become a kind of conjunctional phrase introducing a special kind of clause of cause:

For fear that his voice might betray more of his feelings, which would embarrass the old lady so involved still with her voyage and getting away to where it would be quiet again, so without such sudden, sick floods of sentiment herself, he simply repeated again how good, good it was to see her... (Buechner).

It would appear that the treatment of such phrases attempted here does better justice both to their structure and function than a treatment which includes .them .under prepositions and conjunctions proper and thus obliterates the essential difference between words (parts of speech) and phrases (groups of words).

Check Yourself Test

1. Define the term “phrase”.
2. What is the difference between a phrase and a sentence?
3. Enumerate the types of phrases.
4. Define agreement.
5. Define government.
6. What other syntactical relations besides agreement and government do you know?
7. How are phrases equivalent to prepositions and conjunctions treated in theoretical grammar?

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Lecture 13

SENTENCE: GENERAL NOTIONS

Plan

1. Words and sentences.
2. Sentence categories.
3. Sentence as a unity of nominative and predicative functions.

1. Words and Sentences

The sentence is the immediate integral unit of speech built up of words according to a definite syntactic pattern and distinguished by a contextually relevant communicative purpose. Any coherent connection of words having an informative destination is effected within the framework of the sentence. Therefore the sentence is the main object of syntax as part of the grammatical theory.

The sentence, being composed of words, may in certain cases include only one word of various lexico-grammatical standings. Cf.:

Night.
Congratulations.
Away!
Why?
Certainly.

The actual existence of one-word sentences cannot lead even to the inference that under some circumstances the sentence and the word may wholly coincide: a word-sentence as a unit of the text is radically different from a word-lexeme as a unit of lexicon, the differentiation being inherent in the respective places occupied by the sentence and the word in the hierarchy of language levels. While the word is a component element of the word-stock and as such is a nominative unit of language, the sentence, linguistically, is a predicative utterance-unit. It means that the sentence not only names some referents with the help of its word-constituents, but also, first, presents these referents as making up a certain situation, or, more specifically, a situational event, and second, reflects the connection between the nominal denotation of the event, on the one hand, and objective reality, on the other, showing the time of the event, its being real or unreal, desirable or undesirable, necessary or unnecessary, etc. Cf.:

I am satisfied, the experiment has succeeded.
I would have been satisfied if the experiment had succeeded.
The experiment seems to have succeeded - why then am I not satisfied?

Thus, even one uninfected word making up a sentence is thereby turned into an utterance-unit expressing the said semantic complex through its concrete contextual and consituational connections:

1) Night. Night and the boundless sea, under the eternal star-eyes shining with promise. Was it a dream of freedom coming true?
2) Night? Oh no. No night for me until I have worked through the case.
3) Night. It pays all the day's debts. No cause for worry now, I tell you.

Whereas the utterance "night" in the first of the given passages refers the event to the plane of reminiscences, the "night" of the second passage presents a question in argument connected with the situation wherein the interlocutors are immediately involved, while the latter passage features its "night" in the form of a proposition of reason in the flow of admonitions.

It follows from this that there is another difference between the sentence and the word. Namely, unlike the word, the sentence does not exist in the system of language as a ready-made unit; with the exception of a limited number of utterances of phraseological citation, it is created by the speaker in the course of communication. Stressing this fact, linguists point out that the sentence, as different from the word, is not a unit of language proper; it is a chunk of text built up as a result of speech-making process, out of different units of language, first of all words, which are immediate means for making up contextually bound sentences, i.e. complete units of speech.

Being a unit of speech, the sentence is intonationally delimited. Intonation separates one sentence from another in the continual flow of uttered segments and, together with various segmental means of expression, participates in rendering essential communicative-predicative meanings (such as, for instance, the syntactic meaning of interrogation in distinction to the meaning of declaration). The role of intonation as a delimiting factor is especially important for sentences which have more than one predicative centre, in particular more than one finite verb. Cf.:

*The class **was over**, the noisy children **filled** the corridors.*
*The class **was over**. The noisy children **filled** the corridors*

Special intonation contours, including pauses, represent the given speech sequence in the first case as one compound sentence, in the second case, as two different sentences (though, certainly, connected both logically and syntactically).

2. Sentence Categories

The system of language proper taken separately, and the immediate functioning of this system in the process of intercourse, i.e. speech proper, present an actual unity and should be looked upon as the two sides of one dialectically complicated substance – the human language in the broad sense of the term. Within the framework of this unity, the sentence itself, as a unit of communication, also presents the two different sides inseparably connected with each other. Namely, within each sentence as an immediate speech element of the communication process, definite standard syntactico-semantic features are revealed which make up a typical model, a generalized pattern repeated in an indefinite number of actual utterances. This complicated predicative pattern does enter the system of language. It exists at its own level in the hierarchy of lingual segmental units in the capacity of a "linguistic sentence" and as such is studied by grammatical theory.

Thus, the sentence is characterized by its specific category of predication which establishes the relation of the named phenomena to actual life. The general semantic category of modality is also defined by linguists as exposing the connection between the named objects and surrounding reality. However, modality, as different from predication, is not specifically confined to the sentence; this is a broader category revealed both in the grammatical elements of language and its lexical, purely nominative elements. In this sense, every word expressing a definite correlation between the named substance and objective reality should be recognized as modal. Here belong such lexemes of full notional standing as "probability", "desirability", "necessity" and the like, together with all the derivationally relevant words making up the corresponding series of the lexical paradigm of nomination; here belong semi-functional words and phrases of probability and existential evaluation, such as *perhaps, may be, by all means,* etc.; here belong, further, word-particles of specifying modal semantics, such *as just, even, would-be,* etc.; here belong, finally, modal verbs expressing a broad range of modal meanings which are actually turned into elements of predicative semantics in concrete, contextually-bound utterances.

As for predication proper, it embodies not any kind of modality, but only syntactic modality as the fundamental distinguishing feature of the sentence. It is the feature of predication, fully and explicitly expressed by a contextually relevant grammatical complex, that identifies the sentence as opposed to any other combination of words having a situational referent.

The centre of predication in a sentence of verbal type (which is the predominant type of sentence structure in English) is a finite verb. The finite verb expresses essential predicative meanings by its

categorial forms, first of all, the categories of tense and mood (the category of person, as we have seen before, reflects the corresponding category of the subject). However predication is effected not only by the forms of the finite verb connecting it with the subject, but also by all the other forms and elements of the sentence establishing the connection between the named objects and reality, including such means of expression as intonation, word order, different functional words. Besides the purely verbal categories, in the predicative semantics are included such syntactic sentence meanings as purposes of communication (declaration – interrogation – inducement), modal probability, affirmation and negation, and others, which, taken together, provide for the sentence to be identified as a unit forming its own level of lingual hierarchy.

3. Sentence as a Unity of Nominative and Predicative Functions

The sentence as a lingual unit performs not one, but two essential signemic (meaningful) functions: first, substance-naming, or nominative function; second, reality-evaluating, or predicative function.

Since every predication is effected upon a certain nomination as its material semantic base, we gain a more profound insight into the difference between the sentence and the word by pointing out the two-aspective meaningful nature of the sentence. The semantics of the sentence presents a unity of its nominative and predicative aspects, while the semantics of the word, in this sense, is monoaspective.

Predicative meanings do not exhaust the semantics of the sentence; on the contrary, they presuppose the presence in the sentence of meanings of quite another nature, which form its deeper nominative basis. Predicative functions work upon this deep nominative basis, and as a result the actual utterance-sentence is finally produced.

On the other hand, we must also note a profound difference between the nominative function of the sentence and the nominative function of the word. The nominative meaning of the syntagmatically complete average sentence reflects a processual situation or event that includes a certain process (actional or statal) as its dynamic centre, the agent of the process, the objects of the process, and also the various conditions and circumstances of the realization of the process.

Any separate (notional) part of the sentence (subject, object, etc.) can denote a wide range of the elements of the reflected situation. For instance, the subject *of* the sentence, besides denoting the agent of the action (as in the example above), may point out the object of the action, the addressee of the action, the instrument with which the action is performed, the time and place of it, etc. Cf:

The ship was carefully steered by the pilot. The pilot was entrusted with the ship's safely. The rudder, obeying the helmsman, steadily directed the boat among the reefs. The quiet evening saw the boat sailing out into the open sea...

As is easily seen, no separate word, be it composed of so many stems, can express the described situation-nominative semantics of the proposition. Even hyperbolically complicated artificial words such as are sometimes coined for various expressive purposes by authors of fiction cannot have means of organizing their root components analogous to the means of arranging the nominative constituents of the sentence.

Quite different in this respect is a nominal phrase – a compound signemic unit made up of words and denoting a complex phenomenon of reality analysable into its component elements together with various relations between them. Comparative observations of predicative and non-predicative combinations of words have unmistakably shown that among the latter there are quite definite constructions which are actually capable of realizing nominations of proposemic situations. These are word combinations of full nominative value represented by expanded substantive phrases. It is these combinations that, by their nominative potential, directly correspond to sentences expressing typical proposemic situations.

In other words, between the sentence and the substantive word combination of the said full nominative type, direct transformational relations are established: the sentence, interpreted as an element of paradigmatics, is transformed into the substantive phrase, or "nominalized", losing its

processual-predicative character. Thus, syntactic nominalization, while depriving the sentence of its predicative aspect (and thereby, naturally, destroying the sentence as an immediate communicative unit), preserves its nominative aspect intact.

Taking into consideration the two-aspective character of the sentence as a signemic unit of language, predication should now be interpreted not simply as referring the content of the sentence to reality, but as referring the nominative content of the sentence to reality. It is this interpretation of the semantico-functional nature of predication that discloses, in one and the same generalized presentation, both the unity of the two identified aspects of the sentence, and also their different, though mutually complementary meaningful roles.

Check Yourself Test

1. Define the sentence.
2. What is the difference between words and sentences?
3. What category is the sentence characterized by?
4. What is predication?
5. What is the centre of predication in a sentence?
6. What are the two essential functions of a sentence?
7. What is the nominal phrase?

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Lecture 14

ACTUAL DIVISION OF THE SENTENCE COMMUNICATIVE TYPES OF SENTENCES

Plan

1. Actual division of the sentence.
2. Communicative types of sentences.

1. Actual Division of the Sentence

In studying the structure of a sentence, we are faced with the problem of dividing a sentence into two sections, one of them containing that which is the starting point of the statement, and the other the new information for whose sake the sentence has been uttered or written. This has been termed **functional perspective.** It cannot be said that every sentence must necessarily consist of two such sections. Some sentences (especially one-member sentences) cannot be divided up in this way.

The main components of the actual division of the sentence are the **theme** and the **rheme.** The theme expresses the starting point of the communication, i.e. it denotes an object or a phenomenon about which something is reported. The rheme expresses the basic informative part of the communication, its contextually relevant centre. Between the theme and the rheme are positioned intermediary, transitional parts of the actual division of various degrees of informative value (these parts are sometimes called **transition**).

In Modern English there are several ways of showing that a word or phrase corresponds either to the rheme or to the theme. We will consider the rheme first.

A method characteristically analytical is the construction *it is…that* (also *it is…who* and *it is…which*) with the word or phrase representing the rheme enclosed between the words *it is* and the word *that / who / which.* E.g.:

*For it is the **emotion** that matters* (Huxley).

Another means of pointing out the rheme in a sentence is a particle (*only, even*, etc.) accompanying the word or phrase in question. E.g.:

*Only **the children**, of whom there were not many, appeared aware and truly to belong to their surroundings* (Buechner).

It goes without saying that every particle has its own lexical meaning, and, besides pointing out the rheme, also expresses a particular shade of meaning in the sentence. Thus, the sentences *Only he came* and *Even he came* are certainly not synonymous, though in both cases the subject *he* is shown to represent the rheme by a particle referring to it.

Another means of indicating the rheme of a sentence may sometimes be the indefinite article. Owing to its basic meaning of "indefiniteness" the indefinite article will of course tend to signalize the new element in the sentence, that which represents the rheme. By opposition, the definite article will, in general, tend to point out that which is already known, that is, the theme. E.g.:

*Suddenly the door opened and **a little birdlike elderly woman in a neat grey skirt and coat seemed almost to hop into the room*** (A. Wilson).

The indefinite article before *little birdlike elderly woman* shows that this phrase is the centre of the sentence: we are told that when the door opened the person who appeared was a little birdlike elderly woman. This meaning is further strengthened by the second indefinite article, the one before *neat grey*

skirt and coat. Since the woman herself is represented as a new element in the situation, obviously the same must be true of her clothes.

Now let us replace the first indefinite article by the definite. The text then will be *Suddenly the door opened and the little birdlike elderly woman in a neat grey skirt and coat seemed almost to hop into the room.* This would mean that the woman had been familiar in advance, and the news communicated in the sentence would be, that she almost hopped into the room. The indefinite article before *neat grey skirt and coat* would show that the information about her clothes is new, i. e. that she had not always been wearing that particular skirt and coat. This would still be a new bit of information but it would not be the centre of the sentence, because the predicate group *seemed almost to hop into the room* would still be more prominent than the group *in a neat grey skirt and coat.* Finally, if we replace the second indefinite article by the definite, too, we get the text *Suddenly the door opened and the little birdlike elderly woman in the neat grey skirt and coat seemed almost to hop into the room.* This would imply that both the elderly little woman with her birdlike look and her grey skirt and coat had been familiar before: she must have been wearing that skirt and coat always, or at least often enough for the people in the story and the reader to remember it. In this way the whole group *the little birdlike elderly woman in the neat grey skirt and coat* would be completely separated from the rheme-part of the sentence.

There are also some means of showing that a word or phrase represents the theme in a sentence. Sometimes, as we have just seen, this may be achieved by using the definite article. But there are other means of pointing out the theme as well. One of them, which includes both grammatical and lexical elements, is a loose parenthesis introduced by the prepositional phrase *as for* (or *as to*), while in the main body of the sentence there is bound to be a personal pronoun representing the noun which is the centre of the parenthetical *as-for* phrase. This personal pronoun may perform different syntactical functions in the sentence but more often than not it will be the subject. E.g.:

As for the others, great numbers of them *moved past slowly or rapidly, singly or in groups, carrying bags and parcels, asking for directions, perusing time-tables…* (Buechner).

After the theme of the sentence has been stated in the prepositional phrase *as for the others,* the subject of the sentence, *great numbers of them,* specifies the theme (pointing out the quantitative aspect of *the others)* and the rest of the sentence, long as it is, represents the rheme, telling, in some detail, whatever the others were busy doing at the time.

Sometimes a word or phrase may be placed in the same position without *as for.* E.g.:

The manuscript so wonderfully found, so wonderfully accomplishing the morning's prediction, *how was it to be accounted for?* (J. Austen).

Here the first half of the sentence, from the beginning and up to the word *prediction,* represents the theme of the sentence, while the rest of it represents its rheme. The pronoun *it* of course replaces the long phrase representing the theme.

There are two more points to make concerning functional sentence perspective:

(1) The theme need not necessarily be something known in advance. In many sentences it is, in fact, something already familiar, as in some of our examples, especially with the definite article. However, that need not always be the case. There are sentences in which the theme, too, is something mentioned for the first time and yet it is not the centre of the predication. It is something about which a statement is to be made. The theme is here the starting point of the sentence, not its conclusion. This will be found to be the case, for example, in the following sentence:

Jennie leaned forward and touched him on the knee (A. Wilson).

which is the opening sentence of a short story. Nothing in this sentence can be already familiar, as nothing has preceded and the reader does not know either who Jennie is or who "he" is. What are we,

then, to say about the theme and the rheme in this sentence? Apparently, there are two ways of dealing with this question. Either we will say that *Jennie* represents the theme and the rest of the sentence, *leaned forward and touched him on the knee* its rheme. Or else we will say that there is no theme at all here, that the whole of the sentence represents the rheme, or perhaps that the whole division into theme and rheme cannot be applied here. Though both views are plausible the first seems preferable. We will prefer to say that *Jennie* represents the theme, and emphasize that the theme in this case is not something already familiar but the starting point of the sentence.

(2) Many questions concerning functional sentence perspective have not been solved yet and further investigation is required. It is by no means certain that every sentence can be divided into two clear-cut parts representing the theme and the rheme respectively. In many cases there are probably intermediate elements, not belonging unequivocally to this or that part, though perhaps tending rather one way or another.

2. Communicative Types of Sentences

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

The purpose of communication, by definition refers to the sentence as a whole, and the structural features connected with the expression of this essential function belong to the fundamental, constitutive qualities of the sentence as a lingual unit.

In accord with the purpose of communication three cardinal sentence types have long been recognized in linguistic tradition: first, the **declarative** sentence; second, the **imperative (inducive)** sentence; third, the **interrogative** sentence. These communicative sentence types stand in strict opposition to one another, and to one another, and their inner properties of form and meaning are immediately correlated with the corresponding features of the listener's responses.

Thus, the **declarative** sentence expresses a statement, either affirmative or negative, and as such stands in systemic syntagmatic correlation with the listener's responding signals of attention, appraisal (including agreement or disagreement) or fellow-feeling. Cf.:

"We live very quietly here, indeed we do; my niece here will tell you the same" – "Oh, come, I'm not such a fool as that," answered the squire (D. du Maurier).

The **imperative** sentence expresses inducement, either affirmative or negative. That is, it urges the listener, in the form of request or command, to perform or not to perform a certain action. As such, the imperative sentence is situationally connected with the corresponding **action response** (Ch. Fries) and lingually is systemically correlated with, or else rejected. Cf.:

"Then marry me." – "Really, Alan, I never met anyone with so few ideas" (J. Galsworthy).

Since the communicative purpose of the imperative sentence is to make the listener act as requested, silence on the part of the latter (when the request is fulfilled), strictly speaking, is also linguistically relevant. This gap in speech, which situationally is filled in by the listener's action, is set off in literary narration by special comments and descriptions. Cf.:

"Knock on the wood." - Retan's man leaned forward and knocked three times on the barrera (E. Hemingway).

The **interrogative** sentence expresses a question, i.e. a request for information wanted by the speaker from the listener. By virtue of this communicative purpose, the interrogative sentence is naturally connected with an answer, forming together with it a question-answer dialogue unity.

"What do you suggest I should do, then?" said Mary helplessly. - "If I were you I should play a waiting game," he replied (D. du Maurier).

Naturally, in the process of actual communication the interrogative communicative purpose, like any other communicative task, may sporadically not be fulfilled. In case it is not fulfilled, the question-answer unity proves to be broken; instead of a needed answer the speaker is faced by silence on the part of the listener, or else he receives the latter's verbal rejection to answer. Cf.:

"Why can't you lay off?" I said to her. But she didn't even notice me (R.P. Warren).

Alongside the three cardinal communicative sentence types, another type of sentences is recognized in the theory of syntax, namely, the so-called **exclamatory** sentence. In modern linguistics it has been demonstrated that exclamatory sentences do not possess any complete set of qualities that could place them on one and the same level with the three cardinal communicative types of sentences. The property of exclamation should be considered as an accompanying feature which is effected within the system of the three cardinal communicative types of sentences. * In other words, each of the cardinal communicative sentence types can be represented in the two variants, viz. non-exclamatory and exclamatory. For instance, with the following exclamatory sentences-statements it is easy to identify their non-exclamatory declarative prototypes:

What a very small cabin it was! (K. Mansfield) → *It was a very small cabin.*
How utterly she had lost count of events! (J. Galsworthy) → *She had lost count of events.*
Why, if it isn't my lady! (J. Erskine) → *It is my lady.*

Similarly, exclamatory questions are immediately related in the syntactic system to the corresponding non-exclamatory interrogative sentences. E.g.:

Whatever do you mean, Mr. Critchlow? (A. Bennett) → *What do you mean?*
Then why in God's name did you come? (K. Mansfield) → *Why did you come?*

Imperative sentences, naturally, are characterized by a higher general degree of emotive intensity than the other two cardinal communicative sentence types. Still, they form analogous pairs, whose constituent units are distinguished from each other by no other feature than the presence or absence of exclamation as such. E.g.:

Francis, will you please try to speak sensibly! (E. Hemingway) → *Try to speak sensibly.*
Don't you dare to compare me to common people! (B. Shaw) → *Don't compare me to common people.*
Never so long as you live say I made you do that! (J. Erskine) → *Don't say I made you do that.*

As is seen from the given examples, all the three pairs of variant communicative types of sentences (non-exclamatory - exclamatory for each cardinal division) make up distinct semantico-syntactic oppositions effected by regular grammatical means of language, such as intonation, word order and special constructions with functional-auxiliary lexemic elements. It follows from this that the functional-communicative classification of sentences specially distinguishing emotive factor should discriminate, at the lower level of analysis, between the six sentence types forming, respectively, three groups (pairs) of cardinal communicative quality.

Ways of expressing different purposes of communication of the speaker, i.e. his **communicative intentions,** are studied by the branch of linguistics called **pragmatic linguistics,** or contractedly **pragmalinguistics.** In accord with the principles of pragmalinguistics, communicative intentions of the speaker are realized in his **speech acts,** each of them characterized by a definite communicative intention underlying it. Such are statements of fact, conjectures, confirmations, refutations, agreements, disagreements, commands, requests, greetings at meetings, greetings at parting,

exhortations, recommendations, applications for information, supplications, promises, menaces, etc. Among such speech acts classified as pragmatic utterance types, two mutually opposed and crucially important types are pointed out, namely **constative utterances (constatives)** and **performative utterances (performatives).** Whereas constatives express the speaker's reflections of reality as they are, performatives render such verbal actions of the speaker as immediately constitute his social functions. In other words, the performative is the pronouncement by the speaker of such an action of his, as is embodied in the pronouncement itself: pronouncing this kind of utterance, the speaker **performs** his complete function; hence the term **performative utterance.** E.g.:

I declare the meeting open.
I disapprove of this decision!

The performative utterance includes (or implies) the pronoun of the first person singular (the direct indication of the speaker), while its verb is used only in the form of the present tense of the indicative mood active.

It is, no doubt, quite important and necessary to study the semantics of the sentence from the point of view of the speaker's intention inherent in it. However, it must be clearly understood that performative utterances are not to be looked upon as standing in absolute isolation from the rest of the sentence patterns of language. Far from being isolated, they are part and parcel of the syntactic system as a whole, forming regular structural and functional correlations with other predicative constructions. E.g.:

I declare the conference open. (Performative). – *I declared the conference open.* (Constative: real fact in the past). – *I would have declared the conference open if...* (Constative. unreal fact in the past). – *He declares the conference open.* (Constative: action of a third person in the present). Etc.

Thus, structural and functional considerations on purely linguistic lines (i.e. identifying and analysing lingual facts as *means* of expressing ideas) demonstrate that, peculiar as they might be from the logical point of view, performative utterances in the long run belong to the declarative type of sentences. Furthermore, the whole set of performative utterance types at any given level of generalization is subject to syntactic communicative sentence type identification based on the character of the actual division of the sentence shown above.

An early attempt to revise the traditional communicative classification of sentences was made by the American scholar Ch. Fries who classed them, as a deliberate challenge to the accepted routine, not in accord with the purposes of communication, but according to the responses they elicit [Fries 1953, 29-53].

In Fries's system as a universal speech unit subjected to communicative analysis was chosen not immediately a sentence, but an utterance unit (a "free" utterance, i.e. capable of isolation) understood as a continuous chunk of talk by one speaker in a dialogue. The sentence was then defined as a minimum free utterance.

Utterances collected from the tape-recorded corpus of dialogues (mostly telephone conversations) were first classed into **situation utterances** (eliciting a response), and **response utterances.** Situation single free utterances (i.e. sentences) were further divided into three groups:

1) Utterances that are regularly followed by oral responses only. These are greetings, calls, questions. E.g.:

Hello! *Dad!*
Good-bye! *What are you going to do for the summer?*

2) Utterances regularly eliciting action responses. These are requests or commands. E.g.:

Read that again, will you?

Oh, wait a minute.

3) Utterances regularly eliciting conventional signals of attention to continuous discourse. These are statements. E.g.:

I've been talking with Mr. Dixon – in the purchasing department about our type-writer. (– Yes?)

Alongside the described "communicative" utterances, i.e. utterances directed to a definite listener, another, minor type of utterances were recognized as not directed to any listener but, as Ch. Fries puts it, "characteristic of situations such as surprise, sudden pain, disgust, anger, laughter, sorrow" [Fries 1953, 53]. E.g.:

Oh, oh!	*My God!*
Goodness!	*Gosh!*

Such and like interjectional units were classed by Ch. Fries as **non-communicative** utterances.

Check Yourself Test

1. What is the functional perspective of a sentence?
2. Define the rheme and the theme.
3. What are the means of indicating the theme and the rheme in a sentence?
4. What are the cardinal sentence types?
5. What does pragmalinguistics study?
6. How do constatives differ from performatives? Define each of them.
7. How did Ch. Fries classify communicative types of sentences?
8. How do exclamatory sentences fit into the general classification of communicative types?

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Lecture 15

SIMPLE SENTENCE

Plan

1. Constituent structure.
2. Paradigmatic structure.

1. Constituent Structure

The basic predicative meanings of the typical English sentence are expressed by the finite verb, which is immediately connected with the subject of the sentence. This predicative connection is commonly referred to as the **predicative line** of the sentence. Depending on their predicative complexity, sentences can feature one predicative line or several predicative lines; in other words, sentences may be, respectively, **monopredicative** and **polypredicative.** Using this distinction, we must say that the simple sentence is a sentence in which only one predicative line is expressed. E.g.:

*This **may happen** any time.*

According to this definition, sentences with several predicates referring to one and the same subject cannot be considered as simple. E.g.:

*I **took** the child in my arms and **held him**.*

It is quite evident that the cited sentence, although it includes only one subject, expresses two different predicative lines, since its two predicates are separately connected with the subject. The content of the sentence reflects two closely connected events that happened in immediate succession: first – "*my taking the child in my arms*"; second – "*my holding him*".

Sentences having one verb-predicate and more than one subject to it, if the subjects form actually separate (though interdependent) predicative connections, cannot be considered simple, either. E.g.:

The door** was open, and also the **front window.

The nominative parts of the simple sentence, each occupying a notional position in it, are subject, predicate, object, adverbial, attribute, parenthetical enclosure, addressing enclosure; a special, semi-notional position is occupied by an interjectional enclosure. The parts are arranged in a hierarchy, wherein all of them perform some modifying role. The ultimate and highest object of this integral modification is the sentence as a whole, and through the sentence, the reflection of the situation (situational event).

Thus, the subject is a person-modifier of the predicate. The predicate is a process-modifier of the subject-person. The object is a substance-modifier of a processual part (actional or statal). The adverbial is a quality-modifier of a processual part or the whole of the sentence (as expressing an integral process inherent in the reflected event). The attribute is a quality-modifier of a substantive part. The parenthetical enclosure is a detached speaker-bound modifier of any sentence-part or the whole of the sentence. The addressing enclosure (address) is a substantive-modifier of the destination of the sentence and hence, from its angle, a modifier of the sentence as a whole. The interjectional enclosure is a speaker-bound emotional modifier of the sentence.

All the said modifiers may be expressed either singly (single modifiers) or collectively, i.e. in a coordinative combination (co-modifiers, in particular, homogeneous ones).

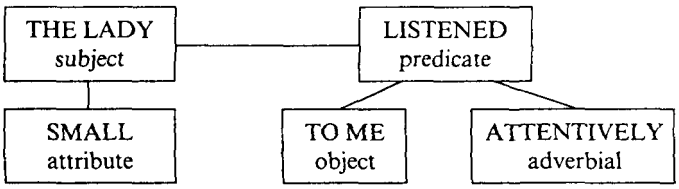
The traditional scheme of sentence parsing shows many essential traits of the said functional hierarchy. On the scheme presented graphically, sentence parts connected by bonds of immediate

domination are placed one under the other in a successive order of subordination, while sentence parts related to one another equipotently are placed in a horizontal order. Direct connections between the sentence parts are represented by horizontal and vertical lines.

By way of example, let us take an ordinary English sentence featuring the basic modifier connections, and see its traditional parsing presentation (Fig. 5):

Fig. 5

The small lady listened to me attentively.



The scheme clearly shows the basic logical-grammatical connections of the notional constituents of the sentence. If necessary, it can easily be supplemented with specifying linguistic information, such as indications of lexico-grammatical features of the sentence parts and their syntactic sub-functions.

However, observing the given scheme carefully, we must note its one serious flaw. As a matter of fact, while distinctly exposing the subordination ranks of the parts of the sentence, it fails to present consistently their genuine linear order in speech.

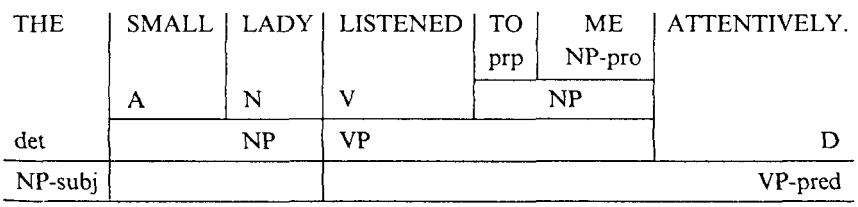
This drawback is overcome in another scheme of analysis called the **model of immediate constituents** (contractedly, the **IC-model**).

The model of immediate constituents is based on the group-parsing of the sentence which has been developed by traditional grammar together with the sentence-part parsing scheme. It consists in dividing the whole of the sentence into two groups: that of the subject and that of the predicate, which, in their turn, are divided into their sub-group constituents according to the successive subordinative order of the latter.

Thus, structured by the IC-model, the cited sentence at the upper level of analysis is looked upon as a united whole (the accepted symbol S); at the next lower level it is divided into two maximal constituents – the subject noun-phrase (NP-subj) and the predicate verb-phrase (VP-pred); at the next lower level the subject noun-phrase is divided into the determiner (det) and the rest of the phrase to which it semantically refers (NP), while the predicate noun-phrase is divided into the adverbial (DP, in this case simply D) and the rest of the verb-phrase to which it semantically refers; the next level stages of analysis include the division of the first noun phrase into its adjective-attributive constituent (AP, in this case A) and the noun constituent (N), and correspondingly, the division of the verb-phrase into its verb constituent (V or Vf – finite verb) and object noun-phrase constituent (NP-obj), the latter being, finally, divided into the preposition constituent (prp) and noun constituent (N). As we see, the process of syntactic IC-analysis continues until the word-level of the sentence is reached, the words being looked upon as the "ultimate" constituents of the sentence.

The described model of immediate constituents has two basic versions. The first is known as the **analytical IC-diagram**, the second, as the **IC-derivation tree.** The analytical IC-diagram commonly shows the groupings of sentence constituents by means of vertical and horizontal lines (see Fig. 6).

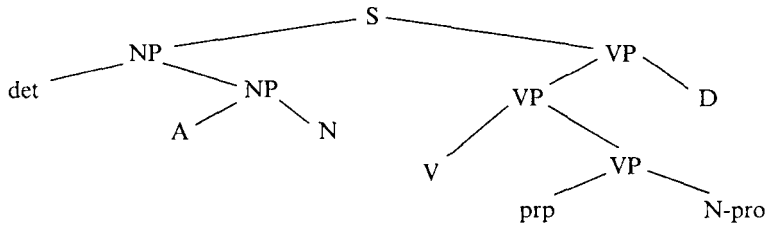
Fig. 6



The IC-derivation tree shows the groupings of sentence constituents by means of branching nodes:

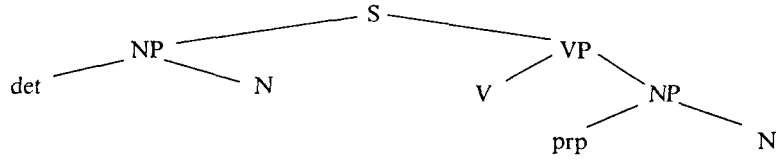
the nodes symbolize phrase-categories as unities, while the branches mark their division into constituents of the corresponding sub-categorial standings (see Fig. 7).

Fig. 7



When analysing sentences in terms of syntagmatic connections of their parts, two types of subordinative relations are exposed: on the one hand, **obligatory** relations, i.e. such as are indispensable for the existence of the syntactic unit as such; on the other hand, **optional** relations, i.e. such as may or may not be actually represented in the syntactic unit. These relations are at present interpreted in terms of syntactic valency (combining power of the word) and are of special importance for the characteristic of the verb as the central predicative organiser of the notional stock of sentence constituents. Comparing the IC-representation of the sentence with the pattern of obligatory syntactic positions directly determined by the valency of the verb-predicate, it is easy to see that this pattern reveals the essential generalized model of the sentence, its semantico-syntactic backbone. For instance, in the sited sentence this pattern will be expressed by the string *The lady listened to me*, the attribute *small* and the adverbial *attentively* being the optional parts of the sentence. The IC-model of this key-string of the sentence is logically transparent and easily grasped by the mind (see Fig. 8).

Fig. 8



In terms of valencies and obligatory positions, first of all the category of **elementary sentence** is to be recognized; this is a sentence all the positions of which are obligatory. In other words, this is a sentence, which besides the principal parts, includes only complementive modifiers; as for supplementive modifiers, they find no place in this type of predicative construction.

After that the types of expansion should be determined which do not violate the syntactic status of the simple sentence, i.e. do not change the simple sentence into a composite one.

Finally, bearing in mind that the general identification of obligatory syntactic positions affects not only the principal parts of the sentence but is extended to the complementive secondary parts, we define the **unexpanded simple sentence** as a monopredicative sentence formed only by obligatory notional parts. The **expanded simple sentence** will, accordingly, be defined as a monopredicative sentence which includes, besides the obligatory parts, also some optional parts, i.e. some supplementive modifiers which do not constitute a predicative enlargement of the sentence.

Proceeding from the given description of the elementary sentence, it must be stressed that the pattern of this construction presents a workable means of semantico-syntactic analysis of sentences in general. Since all the parts of the elementary sentence are obligatory, each real sentence of speech should be considered as categorially reducible to one or more elementary sentences, which expose in an explicit form its logical scheme of formation. As for the simple sentence, however intricate and expanded its structure might be, it is formed, of necessity, upon a single elementary sentence-base exposing its structural key-model. E.g.:

The tall trees by the island shore were shaking violently in the gusty wind (expanded simple sentence) → *The trees were shaking* (elementary sentence)

As we see, the notions "elementary sentence" and "sentence model" do not exclude each other, but, on the contrary, supplement each other: a model is always an abstraction, whereas an elementary sentence can and should be taken both as an abstract category and as an actual utterance of real speech.

The subject-group and the predicate-group of the sentence are its two constitutive "members", or, to choose a somewhat more specific term, its "axes". According as both members are present in the composition of the sentence or only one of them, sentences are classed into "two-member" and "one-member" ones.

All simple sentences of English should be divided into **two-axis** constructions and **one-axis** constructions.

In a two-axis sentence, the subject axis and the predicate axis are directly and explicitly expressed in the outer structure. This concerns all the three cardinal communicative types of sentences. E.g.:

The books come out of the experiences.
What has been happening here?
You better go back to bed.

In a one-axis sentence only one axis or its part is explicitly expressed, the other one being non-presented in the outer structure of the sentence. Cf.:

"Who will meet us in the airport?" – "Mary."

The response utterance is a one-axis sentence with the subject-axis expressed and the predicate-axis implied: → **Mary will meet us at the airport.* Both the non-expression of the predicate and its actual implication in the sub-text are obligatory, since the complete two-axis construction renders its own connotations.

Alongside the demonstrated free one-axis sentences, i.e. sentences with a direct contextual axis implication, there are one-axis sentences without a contextual implication of this kind; in other words, their absent axis cannot be restored with the same ease and, above all, semantic accuracy. Cf.:

"... I'm quite miserable enough already." – "Why? Because you're going away from Mrs Jennet?" – "No." – "From me, then?" No answer for a long time. Dick dared not look at her.

The one-axis sentence *"No answer for a long time"* is associated by variant lingual relations with the two-axis sentence *"There was no answer..."*. But on similar grounds the association can be extended to the construction *"He received no answer for a long time"* or *"No answer was given for a long time"* or some other sentence supplementing the given utterance and rendering a similar meaning. We class this type of utterances as **fixed one-axis sentences.**

Among the fixed one-axis sentences quite a few subclasses are to be recognized, including nominative (nominal) constructions, greeting formulas, introduction formulas, incentives, excuses, etc. Such one-axis sentence-formulas as affirmations, negations, certain ready-made excuses, etc. are by themselves not word-sentences, but rather sentence-representatives that exist only in combination with the full-sense antecedent predicative constructions. Cf.:

"You can't move any farther back?" – "No." (i.e. *"I can't move any farther back"*).

As for the isolated exclamations of interjectional type (*"Good Lord!", "Dear me!"* and the like), these are not sentences by virtue of their not possessing the inner structure of actual division even through associative implications.

The semantic classification of simple sentences should be effected at least on the three bases: first,

on the basis of the **subject categorial meanings;** second, on the basis of the **predicate categorial meanings;** third, on the basis of the **subject-object relation.**

Reflecting the categories of the subject, simple sentences are divided into **personal** and **impersonal.** The further division of the personal sentences is into **human** and **non-human;** human – into **definite** and **indefinite;** non-human – into **animate** and **inanimate.** The further essential division of impersonal sentences is into **factual** (*It rains, It's five o'clock*) and **perceptional** (*It smells of hay here*).

The differences in subject categorial meanings are sustained by the obvious differences in subject – predicate combinability.

Reflecting the categories of the predicate, simple sentences are divided into **process featuring (verbal)** and, in the broad sense, **substance featuring** (including substance as such and substantive quality – **nominal**). Among the process featuring sentences **actional** and **statal** ones are to be distinguished (*The window is opening – The window is glistening in the sun*); among the substance featuring sentences **factual** and **perceptional** ones are to be discriminated (*The sea is rough – The place seems quiet*).

Finally, reflecting the subject-object relation, simple sentences should be divided into **subjective** (*John lives in London*), **objective** (*John reads a book*) and **neutral** or **"potentially" objective** (*John reads*), capable of implying both the transitive action of the syntactic person and the syntactic person's intransitive characteristic.

2. Simple Sentence: Paradigmatic Structure

Traditional grammar studied the sentence from the point of view of its syntagmatic structure: the sentence was approached as a string of certain parts fulfilling the corresponding syntactic functions. As for paradigmatic relations, which, as we know, are inseparable from syntagmatic relations, they were explicitly revealed only as part of morphological descriptions, because, up to recent times, the idea of the sentence model with its functional variations was not developed. Moreover, some representatives of early modern linguistics, among them F. de Saussure, specially noted that it was quite natural for morphology to develop paradigmatic (associative) observations, while syntax "by its very essence" should concern itself with the linear connections of words.

Thus, the sentence was traditionally taken at its face value as a ready unit of speech, and systemic connections between sentences were formulated in terms of classifications. Sentences were studied and classified according to the purpose of communication, according to the types of the subject and predicate, according to whether they are simple or composite, expanded or unexpanded, compound or complex, etc.

In contemporary modern linguistics, paradigmatic structuring of lingual connections and dependencies has penetrated into the would-be "purely syntagmatic" sphere of the sentence. The paradigmatic approach to this element of rendering communicative information, marked a new stage in the development of the science of language; indeed, it is nothing else than paradigmatic approach that has provided a comprehensive theoretical ground for treating the sentence not only as a ready unit of speech, but also and above all as a meaningful lingual unit existing in a pattern form.

Paradigmatics finds its essential expression in a system of oppositions making the corresponding meaningful (functional) categories. Syntactic oppositions are realized by correlated sentence patterns the observable relations between which can be described as **transformations,** i.e. as transitions from one pattern of certain notional parts to another pattern of the same notional parts. These transitions, being oppositional, at the same time disclose derivational connections of several patterns. In other words, some of the patterns are to be approached as base patterns, while others, as their transforms.

For instance, a question can be described as transformationally produced from an affirmation. E.g.:

You are fond of the kid. → *Are you fond of the kid?*
You are fond of the kid. → *You are not fond of the kid.*

Similarly, a composite sentence, for still more evident reasons, is to be presented as derived from two or more simple sentences. E.g.:

He turned to the waiter. + The waiter stood in the door. → *He turned to the waiter who stood in the door.*

These transitional relations are implicitly inherent in the syntagmatic classificational study of sentences. But modern theory, exposing them explicitly, has made a cardinal step forward in so far as it has interpreted them as regular derivation stages comparable to categorial form-making processes in morphology and word-building.

And it is on these lines that the initial basic element of syntactic derivation has been found, i.e. a syntactic unit serving as a **sentence-root** and providing an objective ground for identifying syntactic categorial oppositions. This element is known by different names, such as the **basic syntactic pattern,** the **structural sentence scheme,** the **elementary sentence model,** the **base sentence,** though as the handiest in linguistic use should be considered the **kernel sentence** due to its terminological flexibility combined with a natural individualizing force.

Structurally the kernel sentence coincides with the elementary sentence. The difference is that the pattern of the kernel sentence is interpreted as forming the base of a paradigmatic derivation in the corresponding sentence pattern series.

Syntactic derivation is to be understood as paradigmatic production of more complex pattern constructions out of kernel pattern constructions as their structural bases. The description of this production ("generation") may be more detailed and less detailed, i.e. it can be effected in more and less generalized terms, depending on the aim of the scholar. The most concrete presentation concerns a given speech utterance analysed into its derivation history at the level of the word forms.

The derivation of genuine sentences lying on the "surface" of speech out of kernel sentences lying in the "deep base" of speech can be analysed as a process falling into sets of elementary transformational steps or procedures. These procedures make up six major classes.

The first class includes steps of **morphological arrangement** of the sentence, i.e. morphological changes expressing syntactically relevant categories, above all, the predicative categories of the finite verb: tense, aspect, voice, mood. The syntactic role of these forms of morphological change (systematized into morphological paradigms) consists in the fact that they make up parts of the more general syntactic-paradigmatic series. E.g.:

John + start (the kernel base string) → *John starts. John will be starting. John would be starting. John has started.* Etc.

The second class of the described procedures includes various uses of functional words (**functional expansion**). From the syntactic point of view these words are transformers of syntactic constructions in the same sense as the categorial morphemes (e.g. inflexions) are transformers of lexemes, i.e. morphological constructions. E.g.:

He understood my request. → *He seemed to understand my request.*
Now they consider the suggestion. → *Now they do consider the suggestion.*

The third class of syntactic derivational procedures includes the processes of **substitution.** Among the substitutes we find personal pronouns, demonstrative-substitute pronouns, indefinite-substitute pronouns and substitutive combinations of half-notional words. Cf.:

The pupils ran out of the classroom. → *They ran out of the classroom.*
I want another pen, please. → *I want another one, please.*

The fourth class of the procedures in question is formed by processes of **deletion**, i.e. elimination

of some elements of the sentence in various contextual conditions. As a result of deletion the corresponding reduced constructions are produced. E.g.:

Would you like a cup of tea? → A cup of tea?
It's a pleasure! → Pleasure!

The fifth class of syntactic derivational procedures includes processes of **positional arrangement,** in particular, permutations (changes of the word order into the reverse patterns). E.g.:

The man is here. → Is the man here?
Jim ran in with an excited cry. → In ran Jim with an excited cry.

The sixth class of syntactic derivational procedures is formed by processes of **intonational arrangement,** i.e. application of various functional tones and accents. This arrangement is represented in written and typed speech by punctuation marks, the use of different varieties of print, the use of various modes of underlining and other graphical means. E.g.:

We must go. → We must go? We? Must go?
*You care nothing about what I feel! → You care nothing about what **I** feel!*

The described procedures are all functionally relevant, i.e. they serve as syntactically meaningful dynamic features of the sentence. For various expressive purposes they may be applied either singly or, more often than not, in combination with one another. E.g.:

We finish the work. → We are not going to finish it.

Check Yourself Test

1. What is the predicative line of a sentence?
2. Characterize the model of immediate constituents.
3. What are the basic versions of the IC-model?
4. What are obligatory / optional subordinate relations in a sentence?
5. What is an elementary sentence?
6. How does the expanded simple sentence differ from the unexpanded one?
7. What is meant under "one-axis construction" / "two-axis construction"?
8. What type of utterances is called "fixed one-axis construction"?
9. How are simple sentences classified from the semantic / grammatic point of view?
10. Define the kernel sentence.
11. What are the procedures of derivation of genuine sentences out of the kernel sentence?

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Lecture 16

MULTIPLE SENTENCE AS A POLYPREDICATIVE CONSTRUCTION

Plan

1. Structural peculiarities of multiple sentences.
2. Complex sentence.
3. Compound sentence.

1. Structural Peculiarities of Multiple Sentences

The **multiple (composite)** sentence is formed by two or more predicative lines. Being a polypredicative construction, it expresses a complicated act of thought, i.e. an act of mental activity which falls into two or more intellectual efforts closely combined with one another. In terms of situations and events this means that the multiple sentences reflects two or more elementary situational events viewed as making up a unity. Each predicative unit in a composite sentence makes up a clause in it, so that a clause as part of a composite sentence corresponds to a separate sentence as part of a contextual sequence.

As is well known, the use of composite sentences, especially long and logically intricate ones, is characteristic of literary written speech rather than colloquial oral speech. This unquestionable fact is explained by three reasons: one relating to the actual **needs of expression;** one relating to the **possibilities of production;** and one relating to the **conditions of perception.**

That the composite sentence structure answers the special needs of written mode of lingual expression is quite evident. It is this type of speech that deals with lengthy reasonings, descriptions, narrations, all presenting abundant details of intricate correlations of logical premises and inferences, of situational foreground and background, of sequences of events interrupted by cross-references and parenthetical comments. Only a composite sentence can adequately and within reasonable bounds of textual space fulfill these semantic requirements.

Now, the said requirements, fortunately, go together with the fact that in writing it is actually possible to produce long composite sentences of complicated but logically flawless structure (the second of the advanced reasons). This is possible here because the written sentence, while in the process of being produced, is open to various alterations: it allows corrections of slips and errors; it can be subjected to curtailing or expanding; it admits of rearranging and reformulating one's ideas; in short, it can be prepared. This latter factor is of crucial importance, so that when considering the properties of literary written speech we must always bear it in mind. Indeed, from the linguistic point of view, written speech is above all prepared, or "edited" speech: it is due to no other quality than being prepared before its presentation to the addressee that this mode of speech is structurally so tellingly different from colloquial oral speech. Employing the words in their broader sense, we may say that literary written speech is not just uttered and gone, but is always more carefully or less carefully composed in advance, being meant for a future use of the reader, often for his repeated use. In contrast to this, genuine colloquial oral speech is uttered each time in an irretrievably complete and final form, each time for one immediate and fleeting occasion.

The third reason, referring to the conditions of perception, is inseparable from the former two. Namely, if written text provides for the possibility for its *producer* to return to the beginning of each sentence with the aim of assessing its form and content, of rearranging or recomposing it altogether, it also enables the *reader,* after he has run through the text for the first time, to go back to its starting line and re-read it with as much care as will be required for the final understanding of each item and logical connection expressed by its wording or implied by its construction. Thus, the length limit imposed on the sentence by the recipient's immediate (operative) memory can in writing be practically neglected; the volume of the written sentence is regulated not by memory limitations as such, but by the considerations of optimum logical balance and stylistic well-formedness.

Logic and style being the true limiters of the written sentence volume, two dialectically contrasted active tendencies can be observed in the sentence construction of modern printed texts. According to the first tendency, a given unity of reasons in meditation, a natural sequence of descriptive situations or narrative events is to be reflected in one *composite sentence*, however long and structurally complicated it might prove. According to the second, directly opposite tendency, for a given unity of reflected events or reasons, each of them is to be presented by one separate *simple sentence,* the whole complex of reflections forming a multisentential paragraph. The two tendencies are always in a state of confrontation, and which of them will take an upper hand in this or that concrete case of text production has to be decided out of various considerations of form and meaning relating to both contextual and con-situational conditions (including, among other things, the general purpose of the work in question, as well as the preferences and idiosyncrasies of its users).

Writing in a literary language acquires a relatively self-sufficient status in so far as a tremendous proportion of what is actually written in society is not meant for an oral reproduction at all: though read and re-read by those to whom it has been addressed, it is destined to remain "silent" for ever. The "silent" nature of written speech with all its peculiarities leads to the development of specifically written features of language, among which, as we have just seen, the composite sentence of increased complexity occupies one of the most prominent places. Now, as a natural consequence of this development, the peculiar features of written speech begin to influence oral speech, whose syntax becomes liable to display ever more syntactic properties directly borrowed from writing.

Moreover, as a result of active interaction between oral and written forms of language, a new variety of speech has arisen that has an intermediary status. This type of speech, being explicitly oral, is at the same time prepared and edited, and more often than not it is directly reproduced from the written text, or else from its epitomized version (theses). This intermediary written-oral speech should be given a special linguistic name, for which we suggest the term "scripted speech", i.e. speech read from the script. Here belong such forms of lingual communication as public report speech, lecturer speech, preacher speech, radio- and television-broadcast speech, each of them existing in a variety of subtypes.

Composite sentences display two principal types of construction: **hypotaxis (subordination)** and **parataxis (coordination).** Both types are equally representative of colloquial speech, be it refined by education or not. In this connection it should be noted that the initial rise of hypotaxis and parataxis as forms of composite sentences can be traced back to the early stages of language development, i.e. to the times when language had no writing.

By coordination the clauses are arranged as units of syntactically equal rank, i.e. equipotently; by subordination, as units of unequal rank, one being categorically dominated by the other. A subordinate clause, however important the information rendered by it might be for the whole communication, presents it as naturally supplementing the information of the principal clause. This is of especial importance for post-positional subordinate clauses of circumstantial semantic nature. Such clauses may often shift their position without a change in semantico-syntactic status. Cf.:

I could not help blushing with embarrassment when I looked at him. → *When I looked at him I could not help blushing with embarrassment.*

The board accepted the decision, though it didn't quite meet their plans. → *Though the decision didn't quite meet their plans, the board accepted it.*

As for coordinated clauses, their equality in rank is expressed above all in each sequential clause explicitly corresponding to a new effort of thought, without an obligatory feature of premeditation. In accordance with the said quality, a sequential clause in a compound sentence refers to the whole of the leading clause, whereas a subordinate clause in a complex sentence, as a rule, refers to one notional constituent (expressed by a word or a phrase) in a principal clause [Khaimovich, Rogovskaya, 278]. It is due to these facts that the position of a coordinate clause is rigidly fixed in all cases, which can be used as one of the criteria of coordination in distinction to subordination. Another probe of rank

equality of clauses in coordination is a potential possibility for any coordinate sequential clause to take either the copulative conjunction *and* or the adversative conjunction *but* as introducers. Cf.:

That sort of game gave me horrors, so I never could play it. → *That sort of game gave me horrors, and I never could play it.*

The excuse was plausible, only it was not good enough for us. → *The excuse was plausible, but it was not good enough for us.*

The means of combining clauses into a polypredicative sentence are divided into **syndetic,** i.e. conjunctional, and **asyndetic,** i.e. non-conjunctional.

Besides the classical types of coordination and subordination of clauses, we find another case of the construction of composite sentence, namely, when the connection between the clauses combined in a polypredicative unit is expressly loose, placing the sequential clause in a syntactically detached position. In this loosely connected composite, the sequential clause information is presented rather as an afterthought, an idea that has come to the mind of the speaker after the completion of the foregoing utterance. This kind of syntactic connection comes under the heading of **cumulation.** Its formal sign is often a semicolon, a dash, sometimes a series of periods.

It was just the time that my aunt and uncle would be coming home from their daily walk down the town and I did not like to run the risk of being seen with people whom they would not at all approve of; so I asked them to go on first, as they would go more quickly than I (S. Maugham).

There is good reason to interpret different parenthetical clauses as specific cumulative constructions, because the basic semantico-syntactic principle of joining them to the initially planned sentence is the same, i.e. presenting them as a detached communication, here - of an introductory or commenting-deviational nature. E.g.:

He was sent for very suddenly this morning, ***as I have told you already****, and he only gave me the barest details before his horse was saddled and he was gone* (D. du Maurier).

Unprecedented in scale and lavishly financed (£100,000 ***was collected in 1843 and 9,000,000leaflets distributed****) this agitation had all the advantages that the railways, cheap newspapers and the penny post could give* (A.L. Morton).

The whole domain of cumulation should be divided into two parts: first, the **continuative cumulation,** placing the cumulated clause in post-position to the expanded predicative construction; second, the **parenthetical cumulation,** placing the cumulated clause in inter-position to the expanded predicative construction. The inter-position may be made even into a preposition as its minor particular case (here belong mostly constructions introduced by the conjunction *as: as we have seen, as I have said*, etc.). This paradox is easily explained by the type of relation between the clauses: the parenthetical clause (i.e. parenthetically cumulated) only gives a background to the essential information of the expanded original clause. And, which is very important, it can shift its position in the sentence without causing any change in the information rendered by the utterance as a whole. Cf.:

He was sent for very suddenly this morning, ***as I have told you already.***
→ *He was sent for,* ***as I have told you already,*** *very suddenly this morning.*
→ ***As I have told you already,*** *he was sent for very suddenly this morning.*

Alongside these "completely" composite sentences, there exist constructions in which one explicit predicative line is combined with another one, the latter being not explicitly or completely expressed. These predicative constructions are analysed under the heading of **semi-composite sentences.** To such constructions belong, for instance, sentences with homogeneous predicates, as well as sentences with verbid complexes. Cf.:

*Philip **ignored** the question and **remained** silent.*
*I **have** never before **heard** her **sing**.*
*She **followed** him in, **bending** her head under the low door.*

That the cited utterances do not represent classical, explicitly constructed composite sentence-models admits of no argument. At the same time they cannot be analyzed as genuine simple sentences, because they contain not one, but more than one predicative lines, though presented in fusion with one another. This can be demonstrated by explanatory expanding transformations. Cf.:

... → Philip ignored the question, (and) he remained silent.
... → I have never before heard how she sings.
... → As she followed him in, she bent her head under the low door.

The performed test clearly shows that the sentences in question are derived each from two base sentences, so that the systemic status of the resulting constructions is in fact intermediary between the simple sentence and the composite sentence. Therefore these predicative constructions should by right be analyzed under the heading of semi-composite sentences.

2. Complex Sentence

The complex sentence is a polypredicative construction built up on the principle of subordination. It is derived from two or more **base sentences**, one of which performs the role of a **matrix** in relation to the others, the **insert sentences.** When joined into one complex sentence, the matrix base sentence becomes the principal clause of it and the insert sentences, its subordinate clauses. The subordinate clause is joined to the principal clause by a **subordinating connector (subordinator),** or with some types of clauses, asyndetically (by means of the **zero connector**).

The complex sentence of minimal composition includes two clauses - a principal one and a subordinate one. Although the principal clause positionally dominates the subordinate clause, the two form a semantico-syntactic unity within the framework of which they are in fact interconnected, so that the very existence of either of them is supported by the existence of the other.

The structural features of the principal clause differ with different types of subordinate clauses. In particular, various types of subordinate clauses specifically affect the principal clause from the point of view of the degree of its completeness. The principal clause is markedly incomplete in complex sentences with the subject and predicative subordinate clauses. E.g.:

And why we descend to their level is a mystery to me. (The gaping principal part outside the subject clause: " - is a mystery to me".)

Your statement was just what you were expected to say. (The gaping principal part outside the predicative clause: "Your statement was just - ")

Of absolutely deficient character is the principal clause of the complex sentence that includes both subject and predicative subordinate clauses: its proper segment, i.e. the word-string standing apart from the subordinate clauses, is usually reduced to a sheer finite link-verb. Cf.:

How he managed to pull through is what baffles me. (The principal clause representation: " - is - ")

The principal clause dominates the subordinate clause positionally, but it doesn't mean that by its syntactic status it must express the central informative part of the communication. The information perspective in the simple sentence does not repeat the division of its constituents into primary and secondary, and likewise the information perspective of the complex sentence is not bound to duplicate the division of its clauses into principal and subordinate. The actual division of any construction, be it simple or otherwise, is effected in the context.

Speaking of the information status of the principal clause, it should be noted that even in unemphatic speech this predicative unit is often reduced to a sheer introducer of the subordinate clause, the latter expressing practically all the essential information envisaged by the communicative purpose of the whole of the sentence. Cf.:

You see *that mine is by far the most miserable lot.*
Just fancy *that James has proposed to Mary!*
You know, kind sir, *that I am bound to fasting and abstinence.*

The principal clause introducer in sentences like these performs also the function of keeping up the conversation, i.e. of maintaining the immediate communicative connection with the listener. The function is referred to as **phatic.** Verbs of speech and especially thought are commonly used in phatic principals to specify "in passing" the speaker's attitude to the information rendered by their rhematic subordinates:

I think *there's much truth in what we hear about the matter.*
I'm sure *I can't remember her name now.*

Many of these introducer principals can be re-shaped into parenthetical clauses on a strictly equivalent basis by a mere change of position:

There's much truth, I think, in what we hear about the matter.
I can't remember her name now, ***I'm sure****.*

Two different bases of classification are considered as competitive in connection with the complex sentence: the first is **functional,** the second is **categorial.**

According to the **functional principle,** subordinate clauses are to be classed on the analogy of the positional parts of the simple sentence, since it is the structure of the simple sentence that underlies the essential structure of the complex sentence (located at a higher level). In particular, most types of subordinate clauses meet the same functional question-tests as the parts of the simple sentence.

According to the **categorial principle,** subordinate clauses are to be classed by their inherent nominative properties irrespective of their immediate positional relations in the sentence. The nominative properties of notional words are reflected in their part-of-speech classification. A question arises, can there be any analogy between types of subordinate clauses and parts of speech?

One need not go into either a detailed research or heated argument to see that no direct analogy is possible here. This is made clear by the mere reason that a clause is a predicative unit expressing an event, while a lexeme is a pure naming unit used only as material for the formation of predicative units, both independent and dependent.

On the other hand, if we approach the categorial principle of the characterization of clauses on a broader basis than drawing plain part-of-speech analogies, we shall find it both plausible and helpful.

From the point of view of their general nominative features all the subordinate clauses can be divided into three categorial-semantic groups. The first group includes clauses that name an event as a certain fact and is defined as **substantive-nominal:**

That his letters remained unanswered *annoyed him very much.* → ***That fact*** *annoyed him very much.*

The second group of clauses also name an event-fact, but this event-fact is referred to as giving a characteristic to some substantive entity (which, in its turn, may be represented by a clause or a phrase or a substantive lexeme). This group is called **qualification-nominal:**

The man ***who came in this morning*** *left a message.* → ***That*** *man left a message.*

Finally, the third group of clauses make their event-nomination into a dynamic relation characteristic of another event or a process or a quality of various descriptions. These clauses are called **adverbial.**

Describe the picture ***as you see it.*** → *Describe the* ***picture in the manner you see it.***

When comparing the two classifications in the light of the systemic principles, it is easy to see that only by a very superficial observation they could be interpreted as alternative (i.e. contradicting each other). In reality they are mutually complementary, their respective bases being valid at different levels of analysis.

Clauses of primary nominal positions – subject, predicative, object – are interchangeable with one another in easy reshufflings of sentence constituents. Cf.:

What you saw at the exhibition *is just* ***what I want to know.*** → ***What I want to know*** *is just* ***what you saw at the exhibition.*** → *I just want to know* ***what you saw at the exhibition.***

However, the specific semantic functions of the three respective clausal positions are strictly preserved with all such interchanges, so that there is no ground to interpret positional rearrangements like the ones shown above as equivalent.

The **subject clause,** in accordance with its functional position, regularly expresses the theme at the upper level of the actual division of the complex sentence. The thematic property of the clause is well exposed in its characteristic uses with passive constructions, as well as constructions in which the voice opposition is neutralized. E.g.:

Why he rejected the offer *has never been accounted for.*

Characteristic type of syntactic contamination of the subject-clause pattern is its use as a frame for an independent sentence. E.g.:

You just get yourselves into trouble *is what happens.*

As is known, the equivalent subject-clausal function can be expressed by the construction with an anticipatory pronoun (mostly the anticipatory *it*). The form of expression emphasizes the rheme-clause of the sentence.

How he managed to pull through *is a miracle* → ***It*** *is a miracle* ***how he managed to pull through.***

Some scholars analyse the clause introduced by the anticipatory construction as presenting two possibilities of interpretation which stand in opposition to each other. According tp the first and more traditional view, this is just a subject clause introduced by the anticipatory *it*, while in the light of the second, the clause introduced by *it* is appositive.

The **predicative clause** performs the function of the part adjoining the link-verb. The link-verb is mostly expressed by the pure link *be*, not infrequently we find here also the specifying links *seem* and *look*; the use of other specifying links is occasional. E.g.:

The trouble is ***that I don't know Fanny personally.***

Besides the conjunctive substitutes, the predicative clause, the same as other nominal clauses, can be introduced by some conjunctions (*that, whether, as if, as though*). The predicative clause introduced by the conjunctions *as if, as though* has an adverbial force, which is easily shown by contrast:

She looks ***as though she has never met him.*** → *She behaves* ***as though she has never met him.***

While considering subordinate clauses relating to the finite be in the principal clause, care should be taken to strictly discriminate between the linking and non-linking (notional) representations of the verb. Indeed, the linking *be* is naturally followed by a predicative clause, while the notional *be*, featuring verbal semantics of existence, cannot join a predicative. Cf.:

It's ***because he's weak*** *that he needs me.*
This ***was because he had just arrived.***

The predicative clause in a minimal complex sentence regularly expresses its rheme. E.g.:

The impression is ***that he is quite competent.***

Complex sentences featuring subordinate clauses in both subject and predicative positions are called **a complete balance.** E.g.:

How she gets there *is* ***what's troubling me*** (rheme → I am troubled).
What's troubling me *is* ***how she gets there*** (rheme → How is she to get there?).

The **object clause** denotes an object-situation of the process expressed by the verbal constituent of the principal clause. The semantic content of the object clause discriminates three types of backgrounds: first, an immediately substantive background; second, an adverbial background; third, an uncharacterized background of general event. This differentiation depends on the functional status of the clause-connector, that is on the sentence-part role it performs in the clause. Cf.:

We couldn't decide ***whom we should address.*** (substantive background)
The friends couldn't decide ***where they should spend their vacation.*** (adverbial-local background)

Object clauses of general event background are introduced by conjunctions:

Now he could prove ***that the many years he had spent away from home had not been in vain.***

An extremely important set of clause types usually included into the vast system of object clauses is formed by clauses presenting chunks of speech and mental-activity processes. These clauses are introduced by verbs of speech and mental activity, whose contextual content they actually expose. Cf.:

Who says ***the yacht hasn't been properly prepared for the voyage****?*

Not all the clauses introduced by the verbs in question belong to this type. In principle, these clauses are divided into the ones **exposing** the content of a mental action (as shown above) and the ones **describing** the content of a mental action, such as the following:

You may tell me ***whatever you like.***

As for the speech-rendering object clauses, they are treated in grammar books under the separate heading of **rules of reported speech.** separate heading of "rules of reported speech". Due to their semantic nature, they may be referred to as "reportive" clauses, and the same term will helpfully apply to the corresponding sentences as wholes. Indeed, it is in reportive sentences that the principal clause is more often than not reduced to an introductory phrase akin to a parenthesis of additionally specifying semantics, so that the formally subordinate clause practically absorbs all the essential information rendered by the sentence. *Cf.*\

Wainright said that Eastin would periodically report to him. → Periodically, ***Wainright said,*** Eastin would report to him (A. Hailey).

Subordinate clauses of secondary nominal positions include attributive clauses of various syntactic functions. They fall into two major classes: **descriptive attributive clauses** and **restrictive (limiting) attributive clauses.**

The **descriptive attributive clause** exposes some characteristic of the antecedent (i.e. its substantive referent) as such, while the **restrictive attributive clause** performs a purely identifying role, singling out the referent of the antecedent in the given situation. It should be noted that, since the difference between descriptive and restrictive clauses lies in their functions, there is a possibility of one and the same clausal unit being used in both capacities, depending on the differences of the contexts. Cf.:

At last we found a place ***where we could make a fire.*** (descriptive)
The place ***where we could make a fire*** *was not a lucky one.* (restrictive)

Descriptive clauses, in their turn, distinguish two major subtypes: first, **ordinary descriptive clauses;** second, **continuative descriptive clauses.**

The **ordinary descriptive attributive clause** expresses various situational qualifications of nounal antecedents. The qualifications may present a constant situational feature or a temporary situational feature of different contextual relations and implications. Cf.:

It gave me a strange sensation to see a lit up window in a big house ***that was not lived in.***

The **continuative attributive clause** presents a situation on an equal domination basis with its principal clause, and so is attributive only in form, but not in meaning. It expresses a new predicative event (connected with the antecedent) which somehow continues the chain of situations reflected by the sentence as a whole. Cf.:

In turn, the girls came singly before Brett, ***who frowned, blinked, bit his pencil, and scratched his head with it, getting no help from the audience,*** *who applauded each girl impartially and hooted at every swim suit, as if they could not see hundreds any day round the swimming pool.*

To attributive clauses belongs also a vast set of appositive clause which perform an important role in the formation of complex sentences. The appositive clause, in keeping with the general nature of apposition, does not simply give some sort of qualification to its antecedent, but defines or elucidates its very meaning in the context. Due to this specialization, appositive clauses refer to substantive antecedents of abstract semantics. Since the role of appositive clauses consists in bringing about contextual limitations of the meaning of the antecedent, the status of appositive clauses in the general system of attributive clauses is intermediary between restrictive and descriptive.

In accordance with the type of the governing antecedent, all the appositive clauses fall into three groups: first, appositive clauses of **nounal relation; second,** appositive clauses of **pronominal relation;** third, appositive clauses of **anticipatory relation.**

Appositive clauses of **nounal relation** can introduce information of a widely variable categorial nature, both nominal and adverbial. The characteristic antecedents of nominal apposition are abstract nouns like *fact, idea, question, plan, suggestion, news, information,* etc. Cf.:

The news ***that Dr. Blare refused to join the Antarctic expedition was sensational.***

The characteristic antecedents of adverbial apposition are abstract names of adverbial relations, such as *time, moment, place, condition, purpose,* etc. Cf.:

We saw him at the moment ***he was opening the door of his Cadillac.***

Appositive clauses of **pronominal relation** refer to an antecedent expressed by an indefinite or demonstrative pronoun. The constructions serve as informatively limiting and attention focusing means in contrast to the parallel non-appositive constructions. Cf.:

I couldn't agree with all ***that she was saying in her irritation.*** → *I couldn't agree with* ***what she was saying in her irritation.*** (Limitation is expressed.)

That ***which did strike us*** *was the inspector's utter ignorance of the details of the case.* → ***What did strike us*** *was the inspector's utter ignorance of the details of the case.* (Limitation of the desired focus of attention is expressed.)

Appositive clauses of **anticipatory relation** are used in constructions with the anticipatory pronoun (namely, the anticipatory it, occasionally the demonstratives *this, that*). There are two varieties of these constructions – subjective and objective. Cf.:

I would consider it (this) a personal offence ***if they didn't accept the forwarded invitation.*** → *It would be a personal offence (to me)* ***if they didn't accept the forwarded invitation.*** (Subjective)

You may depend on it ***that the letters won't be left unanswered.*** → *It may be depended on* ***that the letters won't be left unanswered.*** (Objective)

The whole system of adverbial clauses is to be divided into four groups.

The first group includes clauses of **time** and clauses of **place.** Their common semantic basis is to be defined as "localization" – respectively, temporal and spatial. Both types are subject to two major subdivisions, one concerning the local identification, the other concerning the range of functions.

Local identification is essentially determined by subordinators. According to the choice of a connector, clauses of time and place are divided into general and particularizing. The general local identification is expressed by the non-marking conjunctions *when* and *where.* Taken by themselves, they do not introduce any further specifications in the time or place correlations between the two local clausal events (i.e. principal and subordinate). As for the particularizing local identification, it specifies the time and place correlations of the two events localizing the subordinate one before the principal, parallel with the principal, after the principal, and possibly expressing further subgradations of these correspondences.

With subordinate clauses of time the particularizing localization is expressed by such conjunctions as *while, as, since, before, after, until, as soon as, now that, no sooner than,* etc. E.g.:

We lived here in London ***when the war ended.***

With clauses of place proper the particularizing localization is expressed but occasionally, mostly by the prepositional combinations *from where* (bookish equivalent – *whence*) and *to where.* E.g.:

The swimmers kept abreast of one another ***from where they started.***

For the most part, however, spatial specifications in the complex sentence are rendered not by place clauses proper but by adverbial-appositive clauses. Cf.:

We decided not to go back to the place ***from where we started on our journey.***

From the functional point of view, clauses of localization should be divided into **direct** (all the above ones) and **transferred,** the latter mostly touching on matters of reasoning. E.g.:

When you speak of the plain facts *there can't be any question of argument.*

A special variety of complex sentence with a time clause is presented by a construction in which the main predicative information is expressed in the subordinate clause, the actual meaning of temporal localization being rendered by the principal clause of the sentence. This type of complex sentence is known in linguistics as **inversive**; what is meant by the term, is semantics taken against the syntactic structure. E.g.:

Alice was resting in bed ***when Humphrey returned.***

The second group of adverbial clauses includes clauses of **manner** and **comparison.** The common semantic basis of their functions can be defined as "qualification", since they give a qualification to the action or event rendered by the principal clause. E.g.:

You talk to people ***as if they were a group.*** → *How do you talk to people.*

All the adverbial qualification clauses are to be divided into **factual** and **speculative,** depending on the real or unreal propositional event described by them.

The discrimination between manner and comparison clauses is based on the actual comparison which may or may not be expressed by the considered clausal construction of adverbial qualification. The semantics of comparison is inherent in the subordinators *as if, as though, than*, which are specific introducers of comparison clauses. On the other hand, the subordinator *as*, both single and in the combinations *as…as, not so…as*, is unspecific in this sense, and so invites for a discrimination test to be applied in dubious cases. It should be noted that more often than not a clausally expressed manner in a complex sentence is rendered by an appositive construction introduced by phrases with the broad-meaning words *way* and *manner*. E.g.:

Mr. Smith looked at me ***in a way that put me on the alert.***

Herein lies one of the needed procedures of discrimination, which is to be formulated as the transformation of the tested clause into an appositive *that*- or *which*-clause: the possibility of the transformation marks the clause of manner, while the impossibility of the transformation (i.e. the preservation of the original *as*-clause) marks the clause of comparison. Cf.:

Mary received the guests as nicely ***as Aunt Emma had taught her.*** → …in a (very) nice way that Aunt Emma had taught her. (manner)

Mary received the guests as nicely ***as Aunt Emma would have done.*** → …in as nice a way as Aunt Emma would have done. (comparison)

Clauses of comparison are subdivided into those of **equality** (subordinators *as, as…as, as if, as though*) and those of **inequality** (subordinators *not so…as, than*). The discontinuous introducers mark, respectively, a more intense rendering of the comparison in question. Cf.:

That summer he took ***a longer holiday than he had done for many years.***

The third and most numerous group of adverbial clauses includes clauses of different **circumstantial semantics,** i.e. semantics connected with the meaning of the principal clause by various circumstantial associations; here belong clauses of **attendant event, condition, cause, reason, result (consequence), concession, purpose.** Thus, the common semantic basis of all these clauses can be defined as "circumstance". The whole group should be divided into two subgroups, the first being composed by clauses of **attendant circumstance;** the second, by clauses of **immediate circumstance.**

Clauses of attendant circumstance are not much varied in structure or semantics and come near to clauses of time. The difference lies in the fact that, unlike clauses of time, the event described by a

clause of attendant circumstance is presented as some sort of background in relation to the event described by the principal clause. Clause of attendant circumstance are introduced by the conjunctions *while* and *as*. E.g.:

As (while) the reception was going on, *Mr. Smiles was engaged in a lively conversation with the pretty niece of the hostess.*

The construction of attendant circumstance may be taken to render contrast; so all the clauses of attendant circumstance can be classed into **contrastive** (clause of contrast) and **non-contrastive.** The non-contrastive clause of circumstance has been exemplified above. Here is an example of contrastive attendant circumstance expressed clausally:

Indeed, there is but little difference between us – that he wears fine clothes ***while I go in rags****, and that* ***while I am weak from hunger*** *he suffers not a little from overfeeding.*

Clauses of immediate circumstance present a vast and complicated system of constructions expressing different explanations of events, reasonings and speculations in connection with them. The system should relevantly be divided into **factual** clauses of circumstance and **speculative** clauses of circumstance depending on the real or unreal predicative denotations expressed. This division is of essential significance for complex sentences with conditional clause (real condition, problematic condition, unreal condition). Other types of circumstantial clauses express opposition between factual and speculative semantics with a potential relation to some kind of condition inherent in the deep associations of the syntactic constructions. E.g.:

Though she disapproved of their endless discussions, she had to put up with them. (Real concession) → ***Though she may disapprove of their discussions***, she will have to put up with them. (Speculative concession) → ***If she disapproved (had disapproved) of their discussions,*** why would she put up (have put up) with them? (Speculative condition)

The argument was so unexpected ***that for a moment Jack lost his ability to speak***. (Real consequence) → The argument was so unexpected ***that it would have frustrated Jack's ability to speak if he had understood the deep meaning of it***. (Speculative consequence, based on the speculative condition)

Certain clausal types of circumstance are closely related to non-circumstantial clausal types. In particular, this kind of connection is observed between conditional clauses and time clauses and finds its specifically English expression in the rise of the contaminated *if-and-when*-clauses:

If and when the discussion of the issue is renewed*,* both parties will greatly benefit by it.

Another important variety of clauses of mixed syntactic semantics is formed by concessive clauses introduced by the connectors ending in *-ever.* E.g.:

Whoever calls, *I'm not at home.*

The fourth group of adverbial clauses is formed by **parenthetical** or **insertive** constructions. Parenthetical clauses are joined to the principal clause on a looser basis than the other adverbial clauses; still, they do form with the principal clause a syntactic sentential unity. Cf.:

Jack has called here twice this morning, ***if I am not mistaken.*** → *(*)Jack has called here twice this morning.*

As is seen from the example, the elimination of the parenthesis changes the meaning of the whole

sentence from problematic to assertive: the original sense of the utterance is lost, and this shows that the parenthesis, though inserted in the construction by a loose connection, still forms an integral part of it.

As to the subordinative quality of the connection, it is expressed by the type of the connector used. In other words, parenthetical predicative insertions can be either subordinative or coordinative, which is determined by the contextual content of the utterance and exposed by the connective introducer of the clause. Cf. a coordinate parenthetical clause:

*Jim said, **and I quite agree with him**, that it would be in vain to appeal to the common sense of the organizers.*

Cf. the subordinate correlative of the cited clause:

*Jim said, **though I don't quite agree with him**, that it would be in vain to appeal to the common sense of the organizers.*

Parenthetical clauses distinguish two semantic subtypes. Clauses of the first subtype, illustrated by the first example, are **introductory,** they express different modal meanings. Clauses of the second subtype, illustrated by the latter example, are **deviational,** they express commenting insertions of various semantic character. Deviational parenthesis marks the loosest possible syntactic connection of clauses combined into a composite sentence.

Clauses in a complex sentence may be connected with one another more closely and less closely, similar to the parts of a simple sentence. For instance, a predicative clause or a direct object clause are connected with the principal clause so closely that the latter cannot exist without them as a complete syntactic unit. Thus, this kind of clausal connection is **obligatory**. Cf.:

*I don't know **what Mike is going to do about his damaged bike.** → (*) I don't know – …*

As different from this, an ordinary adverbial clause is connected with the principal clause on a looser basis, it can be deleted without destroying the principal clause as an autonomous unit of information. This kind of clausal connection is **optional.** Cf.:

*The girl gazed at him **as though she was struck by something extraordinary in his appearance.** → The girl gazed at him.*

The division of subordinative clausal connections into obligatory and optional was employed by the Russian linguist N.S. Pospelov (1950) for the introduction of a new classification of complex sentences. According to his views, all the complex sentences of minimal structure (i.e. consisting of one principal clause and one subordinate clause) should be classed as **one-member** complex sentences and **two-member** complex sentences. One-member complex sentences are distinguished by an obligatory subordinative connection, while two-member complex sentences are distinguished by an optional subordinative connection. The obligatory connection is determined both by the type of the subordinate clause (subject, predicate, object clauses) and the type of the introduction of the clause (demonstrative correlation). The optional connection characterizes adverbial clauses of diverse functions and attributive clauses of descriptive type. Semantically, one-member complex sentences are understood as reflecting one complex logical propositions connected with each other on the subordinative principle.

Speaking not only of the complex sentence of minimal composition, but in terms of complex sentences in general, it would be appropriate to introduce the notions of **monolythic** and **segregative** sentence structures. Obligatory subordinative connections underlie monolythic complexes, while optional subordinative connections underlie segregative complexes.

Monolythic complex sentences fall into four basic types.

The first of them is formed by **merger** complex sentences, i.e. sentences with subject and

predicative subordinate clauses. The subordinate clausal part of the merger monolyth complex is fused with its principal clause.

It was at this point ***that Bill had come bustling into the room.*** → *(*) It was at this point – …*

The second subtype of complex sentences in question is formed by constructions whose subordinate clauses are dependent on the obligatory right-hand valency of the verb in the principal clause. We can tentatively call these constructions **"valency" monolith** complexes. Here belong complexes with object clauses and valency-determined adverbial clauses: from the point of view of subordinative cohesion they are alike. Cf.:

Put the book ***where you've taken it from.*** → *(*) Put the book – …*

The third subtype of monolythic complex sentences is formed by constructions based on subordinative correlations – **"correlation" monolythic** complexes. E.g.:

You will enjoy such a sight ***as you are not likely to see again.***

Restrictive attributive clauses should be included into this subtype of correlation monolyths irrespective of whether or not their correlation scheme is explicitly expressed. Cf.:

This is the same report ***as was submitted last week.***

Finally, the fourth subtype of monolythic complex sentences is formed by constructions whose obligatory connection between the principal and subordinate clauses is determined only by the linear order of clausal positions. Cf.:

If he comes, *tell him to wait.* → *(*) If he comes – …*

As is easily seen, such **"arrangement" monolythic** complexes are not "organically" monolythic, as different from the first three monolyth subtypes; positional re-arrangement deprives them of this quality, changing the clausal connection from obligatory into optional:

Tell him to wait ***if he comes.*** → *Tell him to wait.*

The rest of the complex sentences are characterized by segregative structure, the maximum degree of syntactic option being characteristic of subordinative parenthetical connection.

Complex sentences which have two or more subordinate clauses discriminate two basic types of subordination arrangement: **parallel** and **consecutive.**

Subordinate clauses immediately referring to one and the same principal clause are said to be subordinated **in parallel** or **co-subordinated**. Parallel subordination may be both homogeneous and heterogeneous. For instance, the two clauses of time in the following complex sentence, being embedded on the principle of parallel subordination, are homogeneous – they depend on the same element (the principal clause as a whole), are connected with each other coordinatively and perform the same function:

When he agrees to hear me, and when we have spoken the matter over, *I'll tell you the result.*

Homogeneous arrangement is very typical of object clauses expressing reported speech. E.g.:

Mrs. Lewin had warned her ***that Cadover was an extraordinary place, and that one must never be astonished by anything.***

By heterogeneous parallel subordination, co-subordinate clauses mostly refer to different elements in the principal clause. E.g.:

The speakers ***who represented different nations and social strata*** *were unanimous in their call for peace* ***which is so ardently desired by the common people of the world.***

As different from parallel subordination, consecutive subordination presents a hierarchy of clausal levels. In this hierarchy one subordinate clause is commonly subordinated to another, making up an uninterrupted gradation. This kind of clausal arrangement may be called **direct** consecutive subordination. E.g.:

I've no idea ***why she said she couldn't call on us at the time I had suggested.***

Alongside direct consecutive subordination there is another form of clausal hierarchy which is formed without an immediate domination of one subordinate clause over another. This type of hierarchical clausal arrangement may be called **oblique** consecutive subordination. For instance, this is the case when the principal clause of a complex multi-level sentence is built up on a merger basis, i.e. includes a subject or a predicative clause. E.g.:

What he saw *made him wince* ***as though he had been struck.***

In the cited sentence the comparative subordinate clause is dominated by the whole of the principal clause which includes a subordinate propositional unit in its syntactic position of the subject. Thus, the subordinate structure of the sentence is in fact consecutive, though not directly consecutive. This type of hierarchical clausal arrangement may be called "oblique" consecutive subordination; it is of minor importance for the system of subordination perspective as a whole.

The number of consecutive levels of subordination gives the evaluation of the **depth** of subordination perspective – one of the essential syntactic characteristics of the complex sentence. In the first three examples cited here the depth is estimated as 1; in the fourth example (direct consecutive subordination) it equals 3; in the fifth example (oblique consecutive subordination) it equals 2. The subordination perspective of complex sentences used in ordinary colloquial speech seldom exceeds three consecutive clausal levels.

3. Compound Sentence

The compound sentence is a composite sentence built on the principle of coordination. Coordination, the same as subordination, can be expressed either syndetically (by means of coordinative connectors) or asyndetically.

The main semantic relations between the clauses connected coordinatively are copulative, adversative, disjunctive, causal, consequential, and resultative. Similar semantic types of relations are to be found between independent, separate sentences forming a continual text.

The base sentences joined into one compound sentence lose their independent status and become coordinate clauses – parts of a composite unity. The first clause is **leading** (the **leader** clause), the successive clauses are **sequential.**

The coordinating connectors, or coordinators, are divided into conjunctions proper and semi-functional clausal connectors of adverbial character. The main coordinating conjunctions, both simple and discontinuous, are: *and, but, or, nor, neither, for, either…or, neither…nor*, etc. The main adverbial coordinators are: *then, yet, so, thus, consequently, nevertheless, however*, etc. The adverbial coordinators, unlike pure conjunctions, as a rule can shift their position in the sentence (the exceptions are the connectors *yet* and *so*). Cf.:

Mrs. Jefferson stepped into the room, ***however*** *the host took no notice of it.*

→ *Mrs. Jefferson stepped into the room, the host,* ***however,*** *took no notice of it.*

The intensity of cohesion between the coordinate clauses can become loose, and in this case the construction is changed into a cumulative one. E.g.:

Nobody ever disturbed him while he was at work; it was one of the unwritten laws.

Such cases of cumulation mark the intermediary status of the construction, i.e. its place in syntax between a composite sentence and a sequence of independent sentences.

When approached from the semantico-syntactic point of view, the connection between the clauses in a compound sentence should be analysed into two basic types: first, the **unmarked** coordinative connection; second, the **marked** coordinative connection.

The **unmarked** coordinative connection is realized by the coordinative conjunction *and* and also asyndetically. The unmarked semantic nature of this type of connection is seen from the fact that it is not specified in any way. Each of the two series of compound predicative constructions falls into two principal subdivisions. Namely, the syndetic *and*-constructions discriminate, first, simple copulative relations and, second, broader, non-copulative relations. The asyndetic constructions discriminate, first, simple enumerative relations and, second, broader, non-enumerative relations.

You will have a great deal to say to her, and she will have a great deal to thank you for. She was tall and slender, her hair was light chestnut, her eyes had a dreamy expression.

The marked coordinative connection is effected by the pure and adverbial coordinators mentioned above. Each semantic type of connection is inherent in the marking semantics of the connector. In particular, the connectors *but, yet, still, however*, etc. express different varieties of adversative relations of clauses; the discontinuous connectors *both…and, neither…nor* express, correspondingly, positive and negative (exclusive) copulative relations of events; the connectors *so, therefore, consequently* express various subtypes of clausal consequence, etc.

In order to give a specification to the semantics of clausal relations, the coordinative conjunction can be used together with an accompanying functional particle-like or adverb-like word. In particular, the conjunction *but* forms the conjunctive specifying combinations *but merely, but instead, but also* and the like; the conjunction *or* forms the characteristic coordinative combinations *or else, or rather, or even,* etc. Cf.:

She was frank with him, ***or rather*** *she told him everything concerning the mere facts of the incident.*

The coordinative specifiers combine also with the conjunction *and*, thus turning the unmarked coordinative connection into a marked one. Among the specifiers here used are included the adverbial coordinators *so, yet, consequently* and some others. E.g.:

The two friends didn't dispute over the issue afterwards, ***and yet*** *there seemed a hidden discord growing between them.*

The length of the compound sentence in terms of the number of its clausal parts (its predicative volume), the same as with the complex sentence, is in principle unlimited; it is determined by the informative purpose of the speaker. The commonest type of the compound sentence in this respect is a two-clause construction.

On the other hand, predicatively longer sentences than two-clause ones, from the point of view of semantic correlation between the clauses, are divided into **open** and **closed** constructions. Copulative and enumerative types of connection, if they are not varied in the final sequential clause, form **open** constructions. These are used as descriptive and narrative means in a literary text. Cf.:

They visited house after house. They went over them thoroughly, examining them from the cellars in the basement to the attics under the roof. ***Sometimes*** *they were too large* ***and sometimes*** *they were too small;* ***sometimes*** *they were too far from the centre of things* ***and sometimes*** *they were too close…*

In the multi-clause compound sentence of a closed type the final part is joined on an unequal basis with the previous ones (or one), whereby a finalization of the expressed ideas is achieved. The most typical closures in such compound sentences are those effected by the conjunctions *and* (for an asyndetic preceding construction) and *but* (both for an asyndetic and copulative syndetic preceding construction). Cf.:

Pleasure may turn a heart to stone, riches may make it callous, ***but*** *sorrow – oh, sorrow cannot break it.*

The structure of the closed coordinative construction is most convenient for the formation of expressive climax.

Check Yourself Test

1. Define the multiple sentence.
2. Why is the use of composite sentences characteristic of literary written speech rather than colloquial oral speech?
3. What are the two principal types of constructions of composite sentences?
4. What are the means of combining clauses into a polypredicative sentence divided into?
5. Define cumulation. What are its types?
6. How do semi-composite sentences differ from completely composite ones?
7. What does a base sentence consist of?
8. What is the phatic function of communication?
9. How are complex sentences classified?
10. What complex sentences are called a complete balance?
11. What type of clauses are differentiated within a complex sentence?
12. What major classes do attributive clauses fall into?
13. What groups do appositive clauses fall into?
14. What groups are adverbial clauses divided into?
15. How are factual and speculative adverbial qualification clauses differentiated?
16. What differentiates parenthetical clauses from other adverbial clauses?
17. What are the subtypes of parenthetical clauses?
18. What kind of clausal connection is called obligatory, optional?
19. What is the difference between one-member and two-member complex sentences?
20. Define monolythic complex sentences. What are the basic types of this type of sentences?
21. Define segregative complex sentences.
22. What are the basic types of subordination arrangement of complex sentences?
23. What classes does a compound sentence consist of?
24. What is the marked, unmarked coordinative connection?
25. What are open and closed constructions in a long coordinate sentence?

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Lecture 17

SEMI-COMPOSITE SENTENCES
SENTENCE IN THE TEXT

Plan

1. Semi-complex sentence.
2. Semi-compound sentence.
3. Sentence in the text.

1. Semi-complex Sentence

The **semi-composite sentence** is defined as a sentence with more than one predicative lines which are expressed in fusion. For the most part, one of these lines can be identified as the leading or dominant, the others making the semi-predicative expansion of the sentence. The expanding semi-predicative line in the minimal semi-composite sentence is either wholly fused with the dominant (complete) predicative line of the construction, or partially fused with it, being weakened as a result of the fusing derivational transformation.

The semi-composite sentence displays an intermediary syntactic character between the composite sentence and the simple sentence. Its immediate syntagmatic structure (**surface** structure) is analogous to that of an expanded simple sentence, since it possesses only one completely expressed predicative unit. Its derivational structure (**deep** structure) on the other hand, is analogous to that of a composite sentence, because it is derived from two or more completely predicative units – its base sentences.

There are two different causes of the existence of the semi-composite sentence in language, each of them being essentially important in itself.

The first cause is the tendency of speech to be economical. As a result of this tendency, reductional processes are developed which bring about semi-blending of sentences. The second cause is that the semi-composite sentence fulfils its own purely semantic function, different from the function of the composite sentence proper (and so supplementing it). Namely, it is used to show that the events described in the corresponding sentence parts are more closely connected than the events described in the parts of the composite sentence of complete composition. This function is inherent in the structure – it reflects the speaker's view of reality, his presentation of it. Thus, for different reasons and purposes the same two or several events can be reflected now by one type of structure, now by another type of structure, the corresponding "pleni"- and semi-constructions existing in the syntactic system of language as pairs of related and, for that matter, synonymically related functions. E.g.:

***The sergeant gave a quick salute to me**, and then he put his squad in motion.* → ***Giving a quick salute to me**, the sergeant put his squad in motion.* → ***With a quick salute to me**, the sergeant put his squad in motion.*

According to the ranking structure of the semi-composite sentences, they should be divided into **semi-complex** and **semi-compound** ones. These constructions correspond to the complex and compound sentences of complete composition (i.e. respectively, **pleni-complex** and **pleni-compound** sentences).

The **semi-complex sentence** is a semi-composite sentence built up on the principle of subordination. It is derived from minimum two base sentences, one matrix and one insert. In the process of semi-complexing, the insert sentence is transformed into a partially depreciated construction which is imbedded in one of the syntactic positions of the matrix sentence. In the resulting construction, the matrix sentence becomes its dominant part and the insert sentence, its subordinate semi-clause.

The semi-complex sentences fall into a number of subtypes. Their basic division is dependent on

the character of predicative fusion: this may be effected either by the process of **position-sharing (word-sharing),** or by the process of direct **linear expansion.** The sentences based on position-sharing fall into those of **subject-sharing** and those of **object-sharing.** The sentences based on semi-predicative linear expansion fall into those of **attributive complication, adverbial complication,** and **nominal-phrase complication.** Each subtype is related to a definite complex sentence as its explicit structural prototype.

Semi-complex sentences of **subject-sharing** are built up by means of the two base sentences overlapping round the common subject. E.g.:

***The man** stood. + **The man** was silent. → **The man** stood silent.*
***The moon** rose. + **The moon** was red. → **The moon** rose red.*

From the syntagmatic point of view, the predicate of these sentences forms the structure of the **double predicate** because it expresses two essential functions at once: first, the function of a verbal type (the verb component of the predicate); second, the function of a nominal type (the whole combination of the verb with the nominal component).

In the position of the predicate of the construction, different categorial classes of words are used with their respective specific meanings and implications: nouns, adjectives, participles, both present and past. Cf.:

*They waited **breathless**.*
*She stood **bending over the child's bed.***

Apart from the described types of subject-sharing sentences there is a variety of them featuring the dominant verb in the passive. E.g.:

*The idea **has never been considered** a wise one.*
*The company **was ordered** to halt.*

Semi-complex sentences of **object-sharing** are built up of two base sentences overlapping round the word performing different functions in them: in the matrix sentence it is the object, in the insert sentence it is the subject. The complicator expansion of such sentences is commonly called the **complex object.** E.g.:

*We saw **him**. + He approached us. → We saw **him** approach us (approaching us).*
*They painted **the fence**. + **The fence** was (became) green. → They painted **the fence** green.*

Some dominant verbs of such constructions are not used in the same essential meaning outside the constructions, in particular, some causative verbs, verbs of liking and disliking, etc. Cf.:

I **made him. + He obeyed. → I **made** him obey.*

The adjunct to the shared object is expressed by an infinitive, a present or past participle, an adjective, a noun, depending on the structural type of the insert sentence (namely, on its being verbal or nominal).

As for the relations between the two connected events expressed by the object-sharing sentence, they are of the three basic types: first, relations of *simultaneity* in the same place; second, relations of *cause* and *result;* third, relations of *mental attitude* towards the event (events thought of, spoken of, wished for, liked or disliked, etc.). All these types of relations can be explicated by the corresponding transformations of the semi-complex sentences into pleni-complex sentences.

Simultaneity in the same place is expressed by constructions with dominant verbs of perceptions (see, *hear, feel, smell,* etc.). E.g.:

*He felt the morning breeze **gently touching his face**. → He felt the morning breeze **as it was gently touching his face.***
*I never heard the **word pronounced like that**. → I never heard the word **as it was pronounced like that**.*

Cause and result relations are rendered by constructions with dominant causative verbs taking three types of complex objects: an unmarked infinitival complex object (the verbs *make, let, get, have, help);* a nounal or adjectival complex object (the verbs *call, appoint, keep, paint,* etc.); a participial complex object (the verbs *set, send, keep,* etc.). Cf.:

*I helped Jo **find the photo**. → I helped Jo **so that he found the photo.***
*The cook beat the meat **soft**. → The cook beat the meat **so that it was (became) soft.***

Different mental presentations of the complicator event are effected, respectively, by verbs of mental perceptions and thinking *(think, believe, expect, find,* etc.); verbs of speech *(tell, ask, report, announce,* etc.); verbs of wish; verbs of liking and disliking. Cf.:

*You will find **many things strange here**. → You will find **that many things are strange here**.*
*I didn't mean **my words to hurt you**. → I didn't mean **that my words should hurt you.***

Semi-complex sentences of the object-sharing type are closely related to sentences of the subject-sharing type. Structurally this is expressed in the fact that they can be transformed into the passive, their passive counterparts forming the corresponding subject-sharing constructions. Cf.:

*We **watched the plane disappear** behind the distant clouds. → **The plane was watched to disappear** behind the distant clouds.*
*They **washed the floor clean**. → **The floor was washed clean**.*

Semi-complex sentences of **attributive complication** are derived from two base sentences having an identical element that occupies the position of the subject in the insert sentence and any notional position in the matrix sentence. The insert sentence is usually an expanded one. Cf.:

***The waves** sent out fine spray. + **The waves** rolled over the dam. → **The waves** rolling over the dam sent out fine spray.*

The attributive semi-clause may contain in its head position a present participle, a past participle and an adjective. The present participial attributive semi-clause corresponds to the attributive subordinate clause with a verbal predicate in the active. E.g.:

*We found dry ground at the base of a tree **looking toward the sun.** → We found dry ground at the base of a tree **that looked toward the sun.***

Naturally, the present participial semi-clause of the attributive type cannot express an event prior to the event of the dominant clause. So, an attributive clause of complete predicative character expressing such an event has no parallel in a participial attributive semi-clause. E.g.:

*The squad **that picked me up** could have been scouts. → (*) The squad **picking me up**...*

The past participial attributive semi-clause corresponds to the passive attributive subordinate clause. E.g.:

*You can never rely on the information **received from that office**. → You can never rely on the*

information ***which is received from that office.***

The adjectival attributive semi-clause corresponds to the nominal attributive subordinate clause. E.g.:

We admired the lilies, ***white against the blue water****.* → *We admired the lilies,* ***which were white against the blue water.***

A peculiar introducer or demonstrative construction whose attributive semi-clause has a finite verb predicate, is called the **apo-koinou** construction (Greek "with a common element"). E.g.:

It was you ***insisted on coming,*** *because you didn't like restaurants.*

Semi-complex sentences of **adverbial complication** are derived from two base sentences one of which, the insert sentence, is predicatively reduced and embedded in an adverbial position of the other one, the matrix sentence. E.g.:

The task was completed. *+ The task seemed a very easy one.* → *The task, when* ***completed,*** *seemed a very easy one.*

The subject of the insert sentence may be either identical with that of the matrix sentence (the first of the above examples) or not identical with it (the second example). This feature serves as the first fundamental basis for classifying the semi-complex sentences in question. It will be reasonable to call the adverbial semi-clause of the first type (i.e. referring to the subject of the dominant clause) the **conjoint** semi-clause. The adverbial complicator expansion of the second type (i.e. having its own subject) is known under the name of the **absolute construction (absolutive).**

The given classification may be formulated for practical purposes as the **rule of the subject**, which will run as follows: by adverbializing semi-complexing, the subject of the insert sentence is deleted if it is identical with the subject of the matrix sentence.

The other classificational division of adverbial semi-clauses concerns the representation of the predicate position. This position is only partially predicative, the role of the partial predicate being performed by the participle, either present or past. Thus, in accord with this feature of their outer structure, adverbial semi-clauses are divided into participial and non-participial. E.g.:

She spoke as if ***being in a dream.*** → *She spoke as if* ***in a dream.*** (The predicate can be deleted, since it is expressed by the existential *be*.)

The two predicate types of adverbial semi-clauses, similar to the two subject types, can be briefly presented by the **rule of the predicate** as follows: by adverbializing semi-complexing, the verb-predicate of the insert sentence is participialized, and may be deleted if it is expressed by *be*.

Conjoint adverbial semi-clauses are either introduced by adverbial subordinator conjunctions or joined to the dominant clause asyndetically. The adverbial semantics expressed is temporal, broader local, causal, conditional, comparative. Cf. syndetic introduction of adverbial semi-clauses:

He was silent ***as if not having heard the call.*** → ***...as if he had not heard the call.***

Asyndetic introduction of adverbial semi-clauses is characteristic of temporal and causal constructions. Cf.:

Working on the book*, the writer travelled much about the country.* → ***When working on the book...***

As for the absolutive adverbial semi-clauses, they are joined to the dominant clause either

asyndetically, or, mostly for the purpose of emphasis, by the conjunction with. The adverbial semantics of the absolutive complicator expansion is temporal, causal, and attendant-circumstantial. E.g.:

Two days having elapsed, *the travellers set out on their way.* → ***When two days had elapsed...***

The rule of the predicate is-observed in absolutive complicators the same as in conjoint adverbial complicators. Its only restriction concerns impersonal sentences where the link-verb is not to be deleted. Cf.:

It being very hot, *the children gladly ran down to the lake.* → ***As it was very hot...***

Semi-complex sentences of **nominal phrase complication** are derived from two base sentences one of which, the insert sentence, is partially nominalized (changed into a verbid phrase of infinitival or gerundial type) and embedded in one of the nominal and prepositional adverbial positions of the other sentence serving as the matrix. The nominal verbid constructions meet the demands both of economy and expressiveness, and they are widely used in all the functional orders of speech. The gerundial phrase is of a more substantive semantic character, the infinitival phrase, correspondingly, of a more processual semantic character. The gerundial nominalization involves the optional change of the noun subject into the possessive, while the infinitival nominalization involves the use of the preposition/or before the subject. E.g.:

For him to come so late *was unusual.* → *It was unusual* ***that he came so late.***

The rule of the subject exposed in connection with the adverbial semi-complexing (see above) applies also to the process of partial nominalization and is especially important here. It concerns the two types of subject deletion: first, its contextual identification; second, its referring to a general (indefinite) person. Thus, the rule can be formulated in this way: the subject of the verbid phrase is deleted when it is either identified from the context (usually, but not necessarily, from the matrix sentence) or denotes an indefinite person. Cf. the contextual identification of the subject:

Mary has recovered *so soon.* → ***For Mary to have recovered*** *so soon. -» Mary is happy* ***to have recovered so soon.***

Cf. the indefinite person identification of the subject:

One avoids *quarrels with strangers.* → ***One's avoiding*** *quarrels with strangers.* →***Avoiding*** *quarrels with strangers is always a wise policy.*
One loves *spring.* → ***For one to love*** *spring.* → *It's but natural* ***to love*** *spring.*

A characteristic function of the infinitive phrase is its use with subordinative conjunctions in nominal semi-clauses. The infinitive in these cases implies modal meanings of obligation, admonition, possibility, etc. E.g.:

I wondered ***where to go****.* → *I wondered* ***where I was to go****.*
The question is ***what to do next****.* → *The question is* ***what we should do next****.*

In contrast with nominal uses of infinitive phrases, gerundial phrases are widely employed as adverbial semi-clauses introduced by prepositions. Semi-clauses in question are naturally related to the corresponding adverbial pleni-clauses. Cf.:

In writing the letter *he dated it wrong.* → ***While he was writing the letter*** *he dated it wrong.*
She went away ***without looking back****.* → *As she went away* ***she didn't look back****.*

*I cleaned my breast **by telling you everything**.* → *I cleaned my breast **because I told you everything**.*

The prepositional use of gerundial adverbial phrases is in full accord with the substantival syntactic nature of the gerund, and this feature differentiates in principle the gerundial adverbial phrase from the participial adverbial phrase as a positional constituent of the semi-complex sentence.

2. Semi-compound Sentence

The **semi-compound sentence** is a semi-composite sentence built up on the principle of coordination. The structure of the semi-compound sentence is derivationally to be traced back to minimum two base sentences having an identical element belonging to one or both of their principal syntactic positions, i.e. either the subject, or the predicate, or both. By the process of semi-compounding, the sentences overlap round the identical element sharing it in coordinative fusion, which can be either syndetic or asyndetic.

The semi-compound sentence of predicate coordination is derived from minimum two base sentences having identical subjects. By the act of semi-compounding, one of the base sentences in most cases of textual occurrence becomes the leading clause of complete structure, while the other one is transformed into the sequential coordinate semi-clause (expansion) referring to the same subject. E.g.:

*He **tore the photograph in half.** + He **threw the photograph in the fire.** → He **tore the photograph in half and threw it in the fire.***

The rare instances contradicting the given rule concern inverted constructions where the intense fusion of predicates in overlapping round the subject placed in the end position deprives the leading clause of its unbroken, continuous presentation. Cf.:

***Before him lay** the road to fame. + The road to fame **lured him.** → Before him lay and lured him the road to fame.*

In the case of a nominal predicate, the sequential predicative complement can be used in a semi-compound pattern without its linking part repeated. E.g.:

*My manner **was matter-of-fact**, and **casual**.*
*The savage **must have been asleep or very tired.***

The same holds true about coordinated verbids related to a common finite verb in the function of an auxiliary or otherwise. *E.g.:*

*The tiger **was at large and burning** with rage.*
*He **could not recall** the face of the peasant girl or **remember** the feel of her.*

By the number of bases joined (and predicate phrases representing them), semi-compound sentences may be two-base (minimal) or multi-base (more than minimal two-base). The coordinated expansion is connected with the leading part either syndetically or asyndetically.

The syndetic formation of the semi-compound sentence expresses, first, copulative connection of events; then, contrast, either comparative or adversative; furthermore, disjunction (alternation), consequence, limitation, elucidation. The conjunctive elements effecting this syndetic semi-compounding of sentences are both pure conjunctions and also words of adverbial nature.

The pure conjunctions used for semi-compounding, besides the copulative *and*, are monoconjunctions *but, or, nor,* and double (discontinuous) injunctions *both ... and, not only... but also, either ...or, neither... nor.* The conjunctive adverbials are *then, so, just, only.*

Double-conjunctional formations express: disjunction, simple copulative relation, copulative

antithesis, copulative exclusion:

*They **either** went for long walks over the fields, **or** joined in a quiet game of chess on the veranda.*

Conjunctive-adverbial introduction of predicate expansion renders the functional meanings of action ordering (*then*), adversative-concessive relation (*yet*), consequence (*so*), limitation (*just*):

*He was the tallest and bravest, **yet** was among those to give up life.*

With semi-compound sentences, similar to pleni-compound sentences, but on a larger scale, conjunctions combine with particle-like elements of modal-adverbial description. These elements supplement and specify the meaning of the conjunction, so that they receive the status of sub-conjunction specifiers, and the pairs "conjunction plus sub-conjunctive" become in fact regular conjunctive-coordinative combinations. Here belong such combinations as and then, and perhaps, and probably, and presently, and so, and consequently, etc.; but merely, but only, but instead, but nevertheless, etc.; or else, or even, or rather, etc. The specifications given by the sub-conjunctives are those of change of events, probability evaluation, consequence in reasoning, concessive contrast, limiting condition, intensity gradation, and many others, more specific ones. E.g.:

*She lived entirely apart from the contemporary literary world **and probably** was never in the company of anyone more talented than herself.*

Of all the diversified means of connecting base sentences into a semi-compound construction the most important and by far the most broadly used is the conjunction *and*. It renders the widest possible range of syntactic relational meanings; as for its frequency of occurrence, it substantially exceeds that of all the rest of the conjunctives used for semi-compounding taken together.

The functional meanings expressed by the and-semi-compound patterns can be exposed by means of both coordinative and subordinative correlations. Here are some basic ones:

*The officer parked the car at the end of the terrace **and** went into the Mission.* → *The officer parked the car..., **then** went into the Mission* (Succession of events, inviting a coordinative exposition).

*Patterton gavelled for attention **and** speedily disposed of several routine matters.* → *Patterton gavelled for attention **so that** he could dispose and did dispose of several routine matters* (Purpose in successive actions, inviting a subordinative exposition).

*Her anger and emotion grew, **and** finally exploded.* → *Her anger and emotion grew **to the degree that** they finally exploded* (Successive actions in gradation, inviting a subordinative exposition).

*He just miscalculated **and** won't admit it.* → ***Though** he miscalculated, he won't admit it* (Concession in opposition, inviting a subordinative exposition).

*Mary promised to come **and** he was determined to wait.* → *He was determined to wait **because** Mary had promised to come* (Cause and consequence, inviting a subordinative exposition).

Among the various connective meanings expressed by the conjunction *and* in combination with the corresponding lexemic constituents of the sentence there are two standing very prominent, due to the regular correlations existing between such constructions and semi-complex patterns with verbid phrases - infinitival and participial.

The first construction expresses a subsequent action of incidental or unexpected character:

*He leaped up in time **to see the Colonel rushing out of the door*** (H.E. Bates). → *He leaped up in time **and saw the Colonel rushing out of the door.***

*Walker woke in his bed at the bourbon house **to hear a strange hum and buzz in the air*** (M. Bradbury). → *Walker woke in his bed at the bourbon house **and heard a strange hum and buzz in the air.***

The participial construction expresses a parallel attendant event that serves as a characteristic to the event rendered by the leading clause:

He sat ***staring down the gardens, trying to remember whether this was the seventh or eighth day since the attack had begun*** (H.E. Bates). → *He was sitting* ***and staring down the gardens, and was trying to remember...***

Rage flamed up in him, ***contorting his own face*** (M. Puzo). → *Rage flamed up in him* ***and contorted his own face.***

The asyndetic formation of the semi-compound sentence stands by its functional features close to the syndetic *and*-formation in so far as it does not give a rigorous characterization (semantic mark) to the introduced expansion. At the same time its functional range is incomparably narrower than that of the *and* -formation.

The central connective meaning distinguishing the asyndetic connection of predicative parts in semi-compound sentences is enumeration of events, either parallel or consecutive. In accord with the enumerative function, asyndetic semi-compounding more often than not is applied to a larger set of base sentences than the minimal two. E.g.:

He ***closed*** *the door behind him with a shaking hand,* ***found*** *the old car in its parking place,* ***drove*** *along with the drifting lights.*

They ***talked, laughed, were perfectly happy*** *late into the night.*

Asyndetic semi-compound sentences are often used to express gradation of intensity going together with a general emphasis. E.g.:

He would in truth ***give up the shop, follow her to Paris, follow her also to the chateau in the country*** (D. du Maurier).

He ***never took the schoolbag again, had refused to touch it*** (J. Updike).

Characteristic of enumerative and gradational semi-compound sentences is the construction where the first two parts are joined asyndetically, and the third part syndetically, by means of the conjunction *and.* In such three-base constructions the syndetic expansion finalizes the sentence both structurally and semantically, making it into an intensely complete utterance. E.g.:

He knows his influence, struts about ***and considers himself a great duellist****.*

They can do it, have the will to do it, ***and are actually doing it.***

Of the meanings other than enumerative rendered by the construction in question, the most prominent is elucidation combined with various connotations, such as consequence, purpose, additional characteristics of the basic event. Cf.:

The sight of him made me feel young again: ***took me back to the beaches, the Ardennes, the Reichswald, and the Rhine****. I put an arm round her,* ***tried to tease her into resting.***

The number of predicative parts in a semi-compound sentence is balanced against the context in which it is used, and, naturally, is an essential feature of its structure. This number may be as great as seven, eight, or even more.

The connection-types of multi-base semi-compound sentences are syndetic, asyndetic, and mixed.

The syndetic semi-compound sentences may be **homosyndetic** (i.e. formed by so many entries of one and the same conjunctive) and **heterosyndetic** (i.e. formed by different conjunctives). The most important type of homosyndetic semi-compounding is the *and*-type. Its functional meaning is

enumeration combined with copulation. E.g.:

*A harmless young man going nowhere in particular was **knocked down and trodden on and rose** to fight back **and was punched** in the head by a policeman in mistake for someone else **and hit** the policeman back **and ended** in more trouble than if he had been on the party himself.*

A series of successive events is intensely rendered by a homosyndetic construction formed with the help of the conjunctive *then*. E.g.:

*You saw the flash, then heard the crack, **then saw** the smoke ball distort and thin in the wind.*

Another conjunctive pattern used in homosyndetic semi-compounding is the *or*-type in its different variants. E.g.:

*After dinner we **sat** in the yard of the inn on hard chairs, **or paced** about the platform **or stumbled** between the steel sleepers of the permanent way.*

By heterosyndetic semi-compounding the parts of the sentence are divided into groups according to the meanings of the conjunctives. Cf.:

*A native woman **came and looked** at them, **but vanished** when the doctor addressed her.*

The asyndetic connections in semi-compound sentences, within their range of functions, are very expressive, especially when making up long enumerations-gradations. E.g.:

*He **had enjoyed** a sharp little practice in Split, **had meddled** before the war in anti-Serbian politics, **had found** himself in an Italian prison, **had been let out** when the partisans briefly "liberated" the coast, **had been swept up** with them in the retreat.*

In the mixed syndetic-asyndetic semi-compound sentence, various groupings of coordinated parts are effected. E.g.:

*He **spun** completely round, **then fell forward** on his knees, **rose** again **and limped** slowly on.*

In cases where multi-base semi-compound sentences are formed around one and the same subject-predicate combination, they are very often primitivized into a one-predicate sentence with coordinated secondary parts. Of these sentences, a very characteristic type is presented by a construction with a string of adverbial groups. This type of sentence expresses an action (usually, though not necessarily, a movement) or a series of actions continued through a sequence of consecutive place and time situations. E.g.:

*Then she took my hand, and **we went down the steps of the tower together, and through the court and to the walls of the rock-place*** (D. du Maurier).

3. Sentence in the Text

Sentences in continual speech are not used in isolation; they are interconnected both semantically-topically and syntactically. Inter-sentential connections have come under linguistic investigation but recently. Sentences in speech do come under broad grammatical arrangements, do combine with one another on strictly syntactic lines in the formation of larger stretches of both oral talk and written text.

It should be quite clear that, supporting the principle of syntactic approach to arrangement of sentences into a continual text, we do not assert that any sequence of independent sentences forms a syntactic unity.

Generally speaking, sentences in a stretch of uninterrupted talk may or may not build up a coherent sequence, wholly depending on the purpose of the speaker. E.g.:

BARBARA. Dolly: don't be insincere. Cholly: fetch your concertina and play something for us (B. Shaw).

As we see, the general idea of a sequence of sentences forming a text includes two different notions. On the one hand, it presupposes a succession of spoken or written utterances irrespective of their forming or not forming a coherent semantic complex. On the other hand, it implies a strictly topical stretch of talk, i.e. a continual succession of sentences centring on a common informative purpose. It is this latter understanding of the text that is syntactically relevant. It is in this latter sense that the text can be interpreted as a lingual entity with its two distinguishing features: first, **semantic (topical) unity**; second, **semantico-syntactic cohesion.**

The primary division of sentence sequences in speech should be based on the communicative direction of their component sentences. From this point of view monologue sequences and dialogue sequences are to be discriminated.

In a monologue, sentences connected in a continual sequence are directed from one speaker to his one or several listeners. Thus, the sequence of this type can be characterized as a one-direction sequence. E.g.:

We'll have a lovely garden. We'll have roses in it and daffodils and a lovely lawn with a swing for little Barbara to play on. And we'll have our meals down by the lily pond in summer (K. Waterhouse and H. Hall).

The first scholars who identified a succession of such sentences as a special syntactic unit were the Russian linguists N.S. Pospelov and L.A. Bulakhovsky. The former called the unit in question a **complex syntactic unity**, the latter, a **super-phrasal unity**. From consistency considerations, the corresponding English term will be the **supra-sentential construction**.

As different from this, sentences in a dialogue sequence are uttered by the speakers-interlocutors in turn, so that they are directed, as it were, to meet one another; the sequence of this type, then, should be characterized as a two-direction sequence.

"Annette, what have you done?" – "I've done what I had to do" (S. Maugham)

It must be noted that two-direction sequences can in principle be used within the framework of a monologue text, by way of an **inner dialogue** (i.e. a dialogue of the speaker with himself). E.g.:

What were they jabbering about now in Parliament? ***Some twopenny-ha'penny tax!*** (J. Galsworthy)

On the other hand, one-direction sequences can be used in a dialogue, when a response utterance forms not a rejoinder, but a continuation of the stimulating utterance addressed to the same third party, or to both speakers themselves as a collective self-addressee, or having an indefinite addressee. E.g.:

ELYOT. *I'm glad we didn't go out tonight*. AMANDA. *Or last night.* ELYOT. *Or the night before.* AMANDA *There's no reason to, really, when we're cosy here* (N. Coward).

The formation of a one-direction sequence is based on syntactic cumulation of sentences, as different from syntactic composition of sentences making them into one composite sentence. Hence, the supra-sentential construction of one-direction communicative type can be called a **cumulative sequence**, or a **cumuleme**. The formation of a two-direction sequence is based on its sentences being positioned to meet one another. Hence, we propose to call this type of sentence connection by the term

occursive, and the supra-sentential construction based on occursive connection, by the term **occurseme**.

As for the functional characteristic of the two higher segmental units of language, it is representative of the function of the text as a whole. The monologue text, or "discourse", is then a topical entity; the dialogue text, or "conversation", is an exchange-topical entity. The cumuleme and occurseme are component units of these two types of texts.

Sentences in a cumulative sequence can be connected either **prospectively** or **retrospectively**.

Prospective (epiphoric, **cataphoric)** cumulation is effected by connective elements that relate a given sentence to one that is to follow it. In other words, a prospective connector signals a continuation of speech: the sentence containing it is semantically incomplete. Very often prospective connectors are notional words that perform the cumulative function for the nonce. E.g.:

*I tell you, **one of two things** must happen. **Either** out of that darkness some new creation will come to supplant us as we have supplanted the animals, **or** the heavens will fall in thunder and destroy us* (B. Shaw).

The prospective connection is especially characteristic of the texts of scientific and technical works.

*Let me add **a word of caution** here. The solvent vapour drain enclosure must be correctly engineered and constructed to avoid the possibility of a serious explosion* (From a technical journal).

Retrospective (or **anaphoric**) cumulation is effected by connective elements that relate a given sentence to the one that precedes it and is semantically complete by itself. Retrospective cumulation is the more important type of sentence connection of the two; it is the basic type of cumulation in ordinary speech. E.g.:

*What curious "class" sensation was **this**? Or was **it** merely fellow-feeling with the hunted, a tremor at the way things found one out?* (J. Galsworthy).

On the basis of the functional nature of connectors, cumulation is divided into two fundamental types: **conjunctive cumulation** and **correlative cumulation.**

Conjunctive cumulation is effected by conjunction-like connectors. To these belong, first, regular conjunctions, both coordinative and subordinative; second, adverbial and parenthetical sentence connectors (*then, yet, however, consequently, hence, besides, moreover, nevertheless*, etc.). Adverbial and parenthetical sentence connectors may be both specialized, i.e. functional and semi-functional words, and non-specialized units performing the connective functions for the nonce. E.g.:

*There was an indescribable agony in his voice. **And** as if his own words of pain overcame the last barrier of his self-control, he broke down (S. Maugham).*

Correlative cumulation is effected by a pair of elements one of which, the **succeedent**, refers to the other, the **antecedent**, used in the foregoing sentence; by means of this reference the succeeding sentence is related to the preceding one, or else the preceding sentence is related to the succeeding one. As we see, by its direction correlative cumulation may be either retrospective or prospective, as different from conjunctive cumulation, which is only retrospective.

Correlative cumulation, in its turn, is divided into **substitutional connection** and **representative connection.** Substitutional cumulation is based on the use of substitutes. E.g.:

Spolding woke me with the apparently noiseless efficiency of the trained housemaid. She drew the curtains, placed a can of hot water in my basin, covered it with the towel, and retired (EJ. Howard).

A substitute may have as its antecedent the whole of the preceding sentence or a clausal part of it. Furthermore, substitutes often go together with conjunctions, effecting cumulation of mixed type. E.g.:

And as I leaned over the rail methought that all the little stars in the water were shaking with austere merriment. ***But*** *it may have been only the ripple of the steamer, after all* (R. Kipling).

Representative correlation is based on representative elements which refer to one another without the factor of replacement. E.g.:

She should be here soon. I must tell Phipps, I am not in to ***any one else*** (O. Wilde).
I went home. Maria accepted ***my departure*** *indifferently* (E.J. Howard).

Representative correlation is achieved also by repetition, which may be complicated by different variations. E.g.:

Well, the night was beautiful, and the great thing not to be a pig. ***Beauty*** *and* ***not being a pig!*** *Nothing much else to it* (J. Galsworthy).

A **cumuleme** (cumulative supra-sentential construction) is formed by two or more independent sentences making up a topical syntactic unity. The first of the sentences in a cumuleme is its "leading" sentence, the succeeding sentences are "sequential".

The cumuleme is delimited in the text by a finalizing intonation contour (cumuleme-contour) with a prolonged pause (cumuleme-pause); the relative duration of this pause equals two and a half moras ("mora" -the conventional duration of a short syllable), as different from the sentence-pause equalling only two moras.

The cumuleme, like a sentence, is a universal unit of language in so far as it is used in all the functional varieties of speech (fiction, newspaper article, scientific-technical report, poetical text, etc.). E.g.:

The boy winced at this. It made him feel hot and uncomfortable all over. He knew well how careful he ought to be, and yet, do what he could, from time to time his forgetfulness of the part betrayed him into unreserve (S. Butler).

The basic semantic types of cumulemes are "factual" (narrative and descriptive), "modal" (reasoning, perceptive, etc.), and mixed. E.g.:

She has not gone? I thought she gave a second performance at two? (S. Maugham) (A reasoning cumuleme of perceptional variety)

The general elementary unit-segment of text is being built either by a cumuleme or by a single sentence. This unit is called the **dicteme**. It must be noted that though the dicteme in written (printed) text is normally represented by a paragraph, these two units are not identical.

In the first place, the paragraph is a stretch of written (printed) literary text delimited by a new (indented) line at the beginning and an incomplete line at the close. As different from this, the dicteme is essentially a feature of all the varieties of speech, both oral and written, both literary and colloquial.

In the second place, the paragraph is a polyfunctional unit of written speech and as such is used not only for the written representation of a dicteme, but also for the introduction of utterances of a dialogue (dividing an occurseme into parts), as well as for the introduction of separate points in various enumerations.

In the third place, the paragraph in a monologue speech can contain more than one dicteme. For instance, the following paragraph is divided into three parts, the first formed by a separate semence (i.e.

by a sentence-dicteme), the second and third ones presenting cumulemes. For the sake of clarity, we mark the borders between the parts by double strokes:

When he had left the house Victorina stood quite still, with hands pressed against her chest. // She had slept less than he. Still as a mouse, she had turned the thought: "Did I take him in? Did I'-" And if not - what? // She took out the notes which had bought - or sold - their happiness, and counted them once more. And the sense of injustice burned within her (J. Galsworthy).

The shown division is sustained by the succession of the forms of the verbs, namely, the past indefinite and past perfect, precisely marking out the events described.

On the other hand, the dicteme cannot commonly be prolonged beyond the limits of the paragraph, since the paragraphal border-marks are the same as those of the dicteme, i.e. a characteristic finalizing tone, a pause of two and a half moras. Besides, we must bear in mind that both multidicteme paragraphs and one-sentence paragraphs are stylistically marked features of the monologue text. Thus, the paragraph, as a rule, represents a dicteme; the two units, if not identical, are closely correlative.

The introduction of the notions of dicteme and cumuleme in linguistics helps specify and explain the two peculiar and rather important border-line phenomena between the sentence and the sentential sequence.

The first of these is known under the heading of **parcellation**. The parcellated construction **(parcellatum)** presents two or more collocations **(parcellas)** separated by a sentence tone but related to one another as parts of one and the same sentence. In writing, the parts, i.e., respectively, the **leading parcella** and **sequential parcella**, are delimited by a full stop (finality mark). E.g.:

Why be so insistent, Jim? ***If he doesn't want to tell you.***

The second of the border-line phenomena in question is the opposite of parcellation, it consists in forcing two different sentences into one, i.e. in transposing a cumuleme into a sentence. The cumuleme-sentence construction is characteristic of careless and familiar speech; in a literary text it is used for the sake of giving a vivid verbal characteristic to a personage. E.g.:

I'm not going to disturb her ***and that's flat, miss.***

The transposition of a cumuleme into a sentence occurs also in literary passages dealing with reasoning and mental perceptions. E.g.:

If there were moments when Soames felt cordial, they were such as these. He had nothing against the young man; indeed, he rather liked the look of him; but to see the last of almost anybody was in a sense a relief; besides, there was this question of what he had overheard, and to have him about the place without knowing would be a continual temptation to compromise with one's dignity and ask him what it was (J. Galsworthy).

As is seen from the example, one of the means of transposing a cumuleme into a sentence in literary speech is the use of half-finality punctuation marks (e.g., a semicolon).

Paragraphs are connected within the framework of larger elements of texts making up different paragraph groupings. Thus, above the process of cumulation as syntactic connection of separate sentences, supra-cumulation should be discriminated as connection of dictemes-cumulemes and paragraphs into larger textual unities of the correspondingly higher subtopical status. Cf.:

... That first slip with my surname was just like him; and afterwards, particularly when he was annoyed, apprehensive, or guilty because of me, he frequently called me Ellis.

***So**, in the smell of Getliffe's tobacco, I listened to him as he produced case after case, sometimes incomprehensibly, because of his allusive slang, often inaccurately. He loved the law.*

In the given example, the sentence beginning the second paragraph is cumulated (i.e. supra-cumulated) to the previous paragraph, thus making the two of them into a paragraph grouping.

Moreover, even larger stretches of text than primary paragraph groupings can be supra-cumulated to one another in the syntactic sense, such as chapters and other compositional divisions. For instance, compare the end of Chapter XXIII and the beginning of Chapter XXIV of J. Galsworthy's "Over the River":

Chapter XXIII *…She went back to Condaford with her father by the morning train, repeating to her Aunt the formula: "I'm not going to be ill."*

Chapter XXIV *But she was ill, and for a month in her conventional room at Condaford often wished she were dead and done with. She might, indeed, quite easily have died...*

Thus, even in the course of a detailed study of various types of supra-sentential constructions, the linguist comes to the confirmation of the classical truth that the two basic units of language are the word and the sentence: the word as a unit of nomination, the sentence as a unit of predication. And it is through combining different sentence-predications that topical reflections of reality are achieved in all the numerous forms of lingual communication.

Check Yourself Test

1. How are semi-composite sentences classified?
2. Define the semi-complex sentence.
3. What is the classification of semi-complex sentences?
4. What is the structure of the double predicate?
5. What is the apo-koinou construction?
6. Characterize the absolute construction.
7. Speak on the rule of the subject.
8. Speak on the rule of the predicate.
9. What is the semi-composite sentence?
10. Characterize homosyndetic and heterosyndetic semi-compound sentences.
11. What are the two distinguishing features of the text?
12. Who was the first to identify a succession of sentences as a special syntactic unit?
13. What is the inner dialogue?
14. Define the cumulation sequence.
15. Define the occurseme.
16. How can sentences be connected in a cumulative sequence?
17. What are the types of cumulation?
18. Define the dicteme.
19. What is parcellation?

Literature

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Method-Guides and Plans for Seminars on the Course THEORETICAL GRAMMAR OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE

PREFACE

The present set of method-guides and plans for seminars on the course "Theoretical Grammar of the English language" is intended for the 3rd year students of the day-time and 4th year students of the extramural Department. It is based on the requirements for University Faculties of Foreign Languages. Its purpose is to introduce the students into the problems of up-to-date grammatical study of English on a systematic basis, sustained by demonstration of applying modern analytical techniques to various grammatical phenomena of living English speech.

The structure of these plans, the number of themes included and the interpretation of the material is determined by the standard syllabus of instruction and the up-to-date manuals in theoretical grammar. The list of recommended literature contains the most authoritative manuals and articles published on the topic.

The given description of the grammatical structure of English, naturally, is not to be regarded as exhaustive in any point of detail. The author's immediate aims were to supply students with such information as will enable them to form judgements of their own on questions of diverse grammatical intricacies (the practical mastery of English grammar is supposed to have been gained by the students at the earlier stages of tuition); to bring forth in the students a steady habit of trying to see into the deeper implications underlying the outward appearances of lingual correlations bearing on grammar, to teach them to independently improve their linguistic qualifications through reading and critically appraising the available works on grammatical language study; to foster their competence in facing academic controversies concerning problems of grammar. In preparing this set the author has tried to take into consideration the latest achievements in theoretical grammar and the other branches of linguistics it is linked with.

Seminar 1

GRAMMAR IN THE SYSTEMIC CONCEPTION OF LANGUAGE

Plan

1. Constituent parts of language.
2. Grammar vs meaning.
3. The plane of content vs the plane of expression.
4. Language as a system.
5. Units of language.
6. The morphological system of language
7. The morphemic structure of the word.
8. The application of the distributional analysis at the morphemic level.
9. Categorial grammatical meaning.
10. Notional and functional parts of speech.
11. Sudcategorization of parts of speech.
12. Syntactic classification of word stock.

Recommended Literature

1. Блох М.Я. Теоретическая грамматика английского языка (на англ. яз.): Учебник. – 4-е изд., испр. – М.: Высшая Школа, 2003. – 423с.
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GUIDELINES

The present seminar aims at facilitating the comprehension of grammar as one of the constituent parts of language together with the phonological and the lexical systems. All of them are interconnected and interdependent, i.e. only the unity of these three elements forms a language; without any one of them there is no human language. The students should realize that the prescriptive approach, according to which the only purpose of grammar is to give strict rules of writing and speaking correctly, is to be substituted by the communicative approach. In other words, the true grammatical rules cannot be separated from the expression of meanings and ought to be interpreted depending on the context. Learners of English should be aware of the correspondence between the planes of content and expression, i.e. such phenomena as polysemy, homonymy, synonymy, etc. The students are also to be able to differentiate between such notions as lingual synchrony and diachrony, syntagmatic and paradigmatic relations. Of special interest are language levels with their units. It is to be emphasized that the hierarchical relation is by no means reduced to the mechanical composition of larger units from smaller ones; units of each level are characterized by their own, specific functional features which provide for the very recognition of the corresponding levels of language. Besides learners of English should differentiate between allo-terms and eme-terms as well as different types of oppositions used in linguistic investigations. The students are to know that in modern linguistics parts of speech are discriminated on the basis of the three criteria: “semantic”, “formal”, and “functional”. Learners of English as a foreign language should be aware of the features of all the grammatical classes of words. The students are also to be able to differentiate between notional and functional parts of speech as well as different points of view on this problem, mentioning the strong and weak points of each of them. Of special interest and therefore of special importance is the further subdivision, also called “subcategorization” of parts of speech. Besides the knowledge of practical grammar, it is necessary to theoretically prove the existence/absence, necessity or lack of it in singling out a particular category or subcategory.

Seminar 2

GRAMMATICAL CATEGORIES OF NOUNS AND PRONOUNS

Plan

1. Noun: general considerations.
2. Noun: the category of gender.
3. Noun: the category of number.
4. Noun: the category of case.

5. Defining the article.
6. The usage of articles.
7. Situational assessment of the article uses.
8. Articles in the light of the oppositional theory.
9. Meaning and morphological structure of pronouns.
10. Classification of pronouns.
11. Pronoun: the categories of person and number.
12. Pronoun: the category of case.
13. Pronoun: the category of gender.

Recommended Literature

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GUIDELINES

This seminar is devoted to the description of two nominal parts of speech: the noun and the pronoun and one functional – the article. The noun is the central nominative lexemic unit of language as far as it can substantivize many parts of speech, among them adjectives, adverbs and participles (as verbal forms). Students should be able to classify nouns into several classes, subclasses as well as into oppositional pairs. The learners of English are to be aware of al the nounal categories, their formation and functional peculiarities. Grounds ought to be given for the existence of a wide range of relative meanings within the English case system, i.e. the differentiation of the semantic types of the genitive. Of special interest are the problems of discriminating between articles and determiners as well as the use of articles based on the assessment of the situation. The status of the pronoun should be made clear as far as some of them share the essential properties of nouns, while others have much in common with adjectives. Due to this some scholars refuse to recognize pronouns as a separate part of speech and distribute them between nouns and adjectives. Students should be aware of the structural peculiarities of pronouns, their syntactic functions, classification as well as their categories.

Seminar 3

GRAMMATICAL CATEGORIES OF VERBS: FINITE AND NON-FINITE

Plan

1. Grammatical categories of verbs.
2. Notional, semi-notional and functional verbs.

3. Actional, statal and processual verbs.
4. Aspective characteristics of verbs.
5. Types of valency.
6. The verbids: general characteristics.
7. The infinitive.
8. The gerund.
9. The participle.
10. The verbal categories of person and number.
11. The category of tense.
12. The category of aspect.
13. The category of voice.
14. The category of mood.

Recommended Literature

1. Блох М.Я. Теоретическая грамматика английского языка (на англ. яз.): Учебник. – 4-е изд., испр. – М.: Высшая Школа, 2003. – 423с.
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3. Каушанская В.Л., Ковнер Р.Л., Кожевникова О.Н., Прокофьева Е.В., Райнес Э.М., Сквирская С.Е., Цырлина Ф.Я. Грамматика английского языка (на англ. яз.): Учебник. – Л., 1973. – 320с.
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9. Иванова И.П., Бурлакова В.В.б Почепцов Г.Г. Теоретическая грамматика современного английского языка. – М., 1981.
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15. Irtenyeva N.F., Barsova O.M., Blokh M.Y., Shapkin A.P. A theoretical English Grammar. – Moscow, 1969.
16. Jespersen O. Essentials of English Grammar. – London, 1946.
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GUIDELINES

The seminar is devoted to the verbs as the most complex part of speech, which is due to the central role it performs in the expression of the predicative functions of the sentence, i.e. the functions establishing the connection between the situation named in the utterance and reality. Special attention should be paid to the general categorial meaning of the verb – process presented dynamically, i.e.

developing in time. This general processual meaning is embedded in the semantics of all the verbs, including those that denote states, forms of existence, types of attitude, evaluations, etc., rather than actions. Learners of English as a foreign language should be aware of the structural peculiarities of the verb, which find their expression in the category of finitude, dividing the verb into finite and non-finite forms, the categories of person, number, tense, aspect, voice, and mood. This complete set is revealed in every word-form of the notional finite verb. The students are to be able to distinguish between the set of verbs of full nominative value (notional verbs), and the set of verbs of partial nominative value (semi-notional and functional verbs). Grounds should be given for the singling out of these verbal categories.

Seminar 4

ADJECTIVE, ADVERB, NUMERAL, PREPOSITION, CONJUNCTION, PARTICLE, INTERJECTION

Plan

1. The adjective.
2. The adverb.
3. The numeral.
4. The preposition.
5. The conjunction.
6. The particle and the interjection.

Recommended Literature

1. Блох М.Я. Теоретическая грамматика английского языка (на англ. яз.): Учебник. – 4-е изд., испр. – М.: Высшая Школа, 2003. – 423с.
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12. Quirk R., Greenbaum S., Leech G., Svartvik J. A University Grammar of English / Под редакцией И.П. Верховской. – М.: Высшая Школа, 1982. – 391с.

GUIDELINES

This seminar aims at describing and explaining the different points of view on three notional and four functional parts of speech. Though all adjectives are divided into qualitative and relative, not only and not even all the qualitative adjectives can form degrees of comparison. Besides the comparative

and superlative, the so-called elative superlative is singled out. Another problem is the status of statives. Scholars differ in their interpretation. Reasons are advanced as to their treatment as a subclass of adjectives. Students should be able to classify adverbs according to different features and principles. It should be emphasized that unlike any other part of speech, numerals belong to two codes: the language code and the numerical (digital) code. Learners of English are to be aware of the functional peculiarities of English numerals as distinct from the Ukrainian analogues. The usage of prepositions presents a special difficulty for Ukrainian learners of English. That is why prepositions are to be classified semantically and the difference between English and Ukrainian equivalents should be stressed. Learners of English as a foreign language are to differentiate between coordinating and subordinating conjunctions as well as their kinds, their classification. Though particles and interjections present smaller classes of words than other parts of speech, still they are very important for giving modal or emotional emphasis to other words, groups of words or clauses. Thus, they are indispensable for a foreign speaker of English to sound natural in an English speaking society.

Seminar 5

PHRASES. SENTENCE: GENERAL NOTIONS

Plan

1. General preview of phrases.
2. Types of phrases.
3. Syntactical relations between the components of a phrase.
4. Phrases equivalent to prepositions and conjunctions.
5. Words and sentences.
6. Sentence categories.
7. Sentence as a unity of nominative and predicative functions.

Recommended Literature

1. Блох М.Я. Теоретическая грамматика английского языка (на англ. яз.): Учебник. – 4-е изд., испр. – М.: Высшая Школа, 2003. – 423с.
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GUIDELINES

The present seminar aims at pointing out the difference between a phrase and a sentence. Different types of phrases are singled out, which are essential for a foreign student. Various syntactic relations between the components of a phrase should be dwelt on as far as besides the well known agreement and government there is another means of expressing syntactical connection which plays a significant part in Modern English, and that is "enclosure". Of special interest is the treatment of phrases equivalent to prepositional conjunctions. Sentences ought to be understood as the immediate integral unit of speech built up of words according to a definite syntactic pattern and distinguished by a contextually relevant communicative purpose. Students are to know that the actual existence of one-word sentences cannot lead even to the inference that under some circumstances the sentence and the word may wholly coincide: a word-sentence as a unit of the text is radically different from a word-lexeme as a unit of lexicon, the differentiation being inherent in the respective places occupied by the sentence and the word in the hierarchy of language levels. Besides, learners of English must know the main sentence categories: that of predication and that of modality. It will facilitate their better understanding of English syntax and thus of the English language as a means of communication.

Seminar 6

ACTUAL DIVISION OF THE SENTENCE. SIMPLE SENTENCE: TYPOLOGICAL AND STRUCTURAL PECULIARITIES

Plan

1. Actual division of the sentence.
2. Communicative types of sentences.
3. Constituent structure.
4. Paradigmatic structure.

Recommended Literature

1. Блох М.Я. Теоретическая грамматика английского языка (на англ. яз.): Учебник. – 4-е изд., испр. – М.: Высшая Школа, 2003. – 423с.
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GUIDELINES

This seminar aims at facilitating the comprehension of the actual division of the sentence, also called "the functional sentence perspective", the purpose of which is to reveal the correlative significance of the sentence parts from the point of view of this actual informative role in an utterance, i.e. from the point of view of the immediate semantic contribution they make to the total information conveyed by the sentence in the context of connected speech. Students should know several ways of showing that a word or a phrase corresponds either to the rheme or the theme. Learners of English as a foreign language are to be aware that in accord with the purpose of communication three cardinal sentence types have long been recognized in linguistic tradition: first, the declarative sentence; second, the imperative (inducive) sentence; third, the interrogative sentence. Of special interest are speech acts and their division into constatives and performatives. Besides, Ch. Fries' classification of utterances

according to the responces they elicit, presents an interesting contribution to communicative linguistics.

Seminar 7

MULTIPLE SENTENCE AS A POLYPREDICATIVE CONSTRUCTION

Plan

1. Structural peculiarities of multiple sentences.
2. Complex sentence.
3. Compound sentence.
4. Semi-complex sentence.
5. Semi-compound sentence.
6. Sentence in the text.

Recommended Literature

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GUIDELINES

This seminar is devoted to the description and the revealing of peculiarities of multiple (composite) sentences, i.e. sentences formed by two or more predicative lines. They are of two kinds: complex and compound. Students are to know that the means of combining clauses into a polypredicative sentence are divided into syndetic, i.e. conjunctional, and asyndetic, i.e. non-conjunctional. An interesting and very important fact is that, though in a complex sentence the principal clause dominates the subordinate one positionally, it doesn’t mean that by its syntactic status it must express the central informative part of the communication. Usually it is vice versa: the principal clause acts as an introductory part, while the subordinate one presents the new information. Learners of English are to be aware of the different bases of classification of complex sentences: the functional and the categorial one. Of no less importance are compound sentences with their marked and unmarked coordinative connection. A rather controversial issue is the problem of semi-complex and semi-compound sentences and their subdivision into those of subject-sharing, object-sharing, those of attributive complication, adverbial complication and nominal-phrase complication. Finally, it should be borne in mind that sentences in continual speech are not used in isolation, they are interconnected both semantically-topically and syntactically.