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ТЕОРЕТИЧНА ГРАМАТИКА ТА ФОНЕТИКА АНГЛІЙСЬКОЇ МОВИ
(для студентів, які вивчають англійську мову як другу іноземну)

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Пропоноване видання задумане для студентів німецького та французького відділень ФІФ, які вивчають англійську мову як другу іноземну, й ставить своєю метою ознайомлення студентів із основами цієї навчальної дисципліни.

Авторами окреслені ключові поняття та терміни дисципліни, подано теоретичну інтерпретацію загальних відомостей про специфіку фонетичної та граматичної побудови англійської мови, запропоновані питання, які спрямовані на здійснення контролю над засвоєнням основних аспектів теоретичного матеріалу.

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FOREWORD

The present method guide in theoretical grammar and phonetics of the English language is intended for the fourth-year day-time and third-year extra-mural students of the German and French philology departments. The material is to be used during the lecture course and preparation for the seminars.

The aim of the textbook is to help the students to acquire theoretical knowledge of phonetics and grammar of the English language within the limits envisaged by the syllabus in the lecture course “Theoretical Grammar and Phonetics of English”.

The method guide summarises and systematises the information on diverse grammatical and phonetical problems, gives a description of various linguistic facts and their possible theoretical interpretation. It will enable students to form judgments of their own on questions of grammatical and phonetical language study.

MODULE 1. THEORETICAL GRAMMAR

1. FUNDAMENTALS OF GRAMMAR THEORY

Language is a means of forming and storing ideas as reflections of reality and exchanging them in the process of human intercourse. Its main function is communicative. Language incorporates three constituent parts: phonological system, lexical system and grammatical system. Each of the aforesaid is studied by a particular linguistic discipline. **Grammar** can be regarded from the practical or theoretical point of view. The task of the **practical grammar** is to represent the existing laws or regularities in the use of the existing grammatical forms enabling a practical mastery of this language. A **theoretical grammar** pursues analytical aims. It gives a scientific analysis of the grammatical structures and exposes the intrinsic mechanisms of their functioning. The main **aim** of theoretical grammar is to present a theoretical description of the grammatical system of the English language.

Theoretical grammar is connected with phonology, which can be proved by the fact that a word stress may change a part of speech and a change of intonation may influence the communicative type of a sentence. Grammar is also related to lexicology: it is not indifferent as to the meaning of words: the meaning of a word may change the type of the predicate in a sentence.

As a system, language is subdivided into three basic subsystems, each of which is a system in its own turn. They are the phonological, lexical and grammatical systems. Only the unity of these subsystems forms a language. Grammatical system of the language consists of **morphology** and **syntax**.

Interactions between grammar and other subsystems of language are extremely essential being studied in synchronic and diachronic aspects. Lingual **synchrony** is interpreted as coexistence of lingual elements. **Diachrony** deals with different time periods in the development of lingual elements as well as language as a whole.

On the basis of discriminating synchrony and diachrony, the difference between language proper and speech proper can be defined. **Language** in the narrow sense is a system of means of expression, while **speech** 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 of —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.

Units of language are divided into **segmental** and **suprasegmental**. Segmental units consist of phonemes, they form phonemic strings of various status (syllables, morphemes, words, etc.). Suprasegmental units do not exist by themselves. They are realised together with segmental

units and express different modificational meanings. The segmental units of language form a hierarchy of levels.

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. 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. The third level in the segmental lingual hierarchy is the level of words, or **lexemic** level. The word, as different from the morpheme, is a directly naming (nominative) unit of language. The next higher level is the level of phrases (word-groups), or **phrasemic** level. Combinations of two or more notional words belong to the level-forming phrase types. The level of sentences, or **proposemic** level lies above the phrasemic level. The peculiar character of the sentence ("proposeme") as a unit of language 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. But the sentence is not the highest unit of language in the hierarchy of levels. Above the proposemic level there is a **supraproposemic** level. The supraproposemic construction is a combination of separate sentences forming a textual unity. Such combinations are subject to regular lingual patterning making them into syntactic elements.

Syntagmatic and **paradigmatic relations** between lingual units are crucial for the systemic description of language. Syntagmatic relations are immediate linear relations between units in a segmental sequence (string). Words and word-groups in the sentence, morphemes within words, phonemes within morphemes and words are syntagmatically connected. The combination of two words or word-groups one of which is modified by the other forms is known as syntactic **syntagma**. There are 4 main types of notional syntagmas: predicative, objective, attributive and adverbial. Paradigmatic relations exist between elements of the system of language outside the strings where they occur. Each linguistic unit is included in a set of connections based on different properties. This is evident in classical grammatical paradigms which express various grammatical categories (e. g. number, person, case, tense, aspect, mood).

human intercourse – спілкування людей

to incorporate - вміщувати

synchrony - синхронія

diachrony - діахронія

to expose – показувати, ознайомлювати

utterance - висловлювання

lingual unit – мовна одиниця

hierarchy - ієрархія

proposeme - пропосема

textual unity – єдність тексту

segmental sequence - сегментна послідовність

syntagma - синтагма

Answer the questions:

1. What is the subject-matter of theoretical grammar? 2. What is the difference between practical and theoretical grammar? 3. What basic subsystems is each language subdivided into? 4. Is there any interaction between grammar and phonetics? 5. What do you know about the synchronic and diachronic aspects in grammatical studies? 6. What is the difference between language and speech? 7. What is a hierarchy of levels that segmental lingual units form? 8. What are two fundamental types of relations between lingual units?

2. MORPHEMIC AND CATEGORIAL STRUCTURES OF THE WORD

The morpheme is the elementary meaningful lingual unit built up from phonemes and used to make words. It has meaning, but its meaning is abstract, significative, not concrete, or nominative, as is that of the word. The word is a nominative unit of language, formed by morphemes, which enters the lexicon of language as its elementary component. Together with other nominative units the word is used for the formation of the sentence. Stating the differences between the word and the morpheme, we have to admit that the correlation between the word and the morpheme is problematic. The borderlines between the morpheme and the word are by no means rigid.

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.

Besides these traditional types of morphemes, distributional morpheme types are distinguished in descriptive linguistics. They immediately correlate with each other in the following pairs. 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.

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.

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. In distinction to these, the root phonemes of grammatical interchange are considered as replacive morphemes, since they replace one another in the paradigmatic forms.

On the basis of *linear characteristic*, **continuous** (or linear) morphemes and **discontinuous** morphemes are distinguished. By the discontinuous morpheme, opposed to the, 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.

The classification of distributional morpheme types can be used to summarize and differentiate various types of word-building and word-changing, though not all of them are morphemic in the current mainstream understanding of the term morpheme.

The main notions of theoretical grammar are **grammatical form**, **grammatical meaning** and **grammatical categories**. The grammatical meaning is the essential part of a grammatical category, which is defined as a unity of a grammatical meaning and a morphological way of its expression. Grammatical meanings are very abstract, very general. The grammatical form serves a means of expressing grammatical meaning. It presents a division of the word on the principle of expressing a certain grammatical meaning.

The grammatical forms are classed into **synthetical** and **analytical forms**. Synthetical grammatical forms are realised by the inner morphemic composition of the word, while analytical grammatical forms are built up by a combination of at least two words, one of which is a grammatical auxiliary (word-morpheme), and the other, a word of substantial meaning. Synthetical grammatical forms are based on inner inflexion (vowel interchange inside the root, e.g.: goose – geese), outer inflexion (with the help of adding grammatical suffixes to the stems of the words, e.g.: cat – cats), and suppletivity (when different roots are combined within the same paradigm, e.g.: go – went).

As for analytical grammatical forms that are prevalent in English and have long made this language the representative of lingual analytism. They are built by the combination of the notional word with auxiliary words, e.g.: come – have come. Analytical forms consist of two words which together express one grammatical meaning, i.e. they are grammatically idiomatic: the meaning of the grammatical form is not immediately dependent on the meanings of its parts.

The grammatical category is a system of expressing a generalised grammatical meaning by means of paradigmatic correlation of grammatical forms. The ordered set of grammatical forms expressing a categorical 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. A grammatical category must be expressed by at least one opposition of forms.

morpheme - морфема

to correlate – знаходитися в співвідношенні

essential – необхідний, обов'язковий

overt – відкритий, явний

covert – прихований, завуальований

synthetical grammatical form – синтетична граматична форма

analytical grammatical form – аналітична граматична форма

inflection – флексія, закінчення

paradigm - парадигма

Answer the questions:

1. What is a morpheme? 2. What are the criteria to classify morphemes? 3. Can you characterize the fundamental notions of grammar theory? 4. How do we categorise grammatical forms? 5. What is the definition of the grammatical category? 6. Why is opposition the basis of the grammatical category?

3. GRAMMATICAL CLASSES OF WORDS

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**. It should be noted that this traditional term was developed by the Ancient Greek linguistics and reflects the fact that at that time there was no distinction between language as a system and speech, between the word as a part of an utterance and the word as a part of lexis. The term “parts of speech” is accepted by modern linguistics as a conventional, or non-explanatory term to denote the lexico-grammatical classes of words correlating with each other in the general system of language on the basis of their grammatically relevant properties. The system of parts of speech is historically changeable. There is as yet no generally accepted system of English parts of speech.

The attitude of the grammarians with regards to parts of speech and the basis of their classification have varied a good deal at different times. Henry Sweet, the author of the first scientific grammar of English, divided the words into two classes – **declinables** and **indeclinables**. Thus the main principle of classification for him is the morphologic criterion. Besides, H. Sweet distinguished word-classes taking into account their syntactic functioning. He grouped the words into noun-words (including nouns, noun-pronouns, noun-numerals, infinitive and gerund), adjective-words (adjectives, adjective-pronouns, adjective-numerals and participles) and verbs (finite and non-finite forms).

According to O. Jespersen, the division of words into certain classes in the main goes back to the Greek and Latin grammarians with a few additions and modifications. He argues against those who while classifying words kept to either form or meaning of words. He states that the whole complex of criteria, i.e. form, function and meaning should be kept in view. He gives the following classification: 1. Substantives (including proper names). 2. Adjectives (in some respects (1) and (2) may be classed together as "Nouns"). 3. Pronouns (including numerals and pronominal adverbs). 4. Verbs. 5. Particles (comprising what are generally called adverbs, prepositions, conjunctions (coordinating and subordinating) and interjections).

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 are: 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. Charles Fries introduced this classification and used the method of frames.

- e.g.: Frame A *The film was good.*
 Frame B *The employee remembered the tax.*
 Frame C *The family went there.*

Words that can substitute the words *film*, *employee*, *family*, *the tax* (e.g. *woman*, *food*, *coffee*, etc.) are Class 1 words. Class 2 words are *was*, *remembered* and *went*. Words that can take the position of *good* are Class 3 words. Words that can fill the position of *there* are called Class 4 words. What is really valuable in Charles Fries' classification is his investigation of 15 groups of function words (form-classes) because he was the first linguist to pay attention to some of their peculiarities.

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 subset of words constituting a given part of speech. This meaning is understood as the categorial 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 categorial 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**, which reflects their division in the earlier grammatical tradition into changeable and unchangeable. To the notional parts of speech of the English language belong the noun, the adjective, the numeral, the pronoun, the verb, the adverb. Words of incomplete nominative meaning and non-self-dependent mediatory functions in the sentence are functional parts of speech. These are the article, the preposition, the conjunction, the particle, the modal word, the interjection. 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 **subcategorisation** of parts of speech. Thus, nouns are subcategorised into proper and common, animate and inanimate, countable and uncountable, concrete and abstract, etc.

parts of speech – частини мови

declinable - відмінюваний

to vary – змінювати, відрізнятися

modification - видозмінення

frame - фрейм

combinability - поєднюваність

positional - позиційний

to discriminate – виділяти, розрізняти

conventionally - традиційно

mediatory – проміжний, посередницький

subcategorization - субкатегоризація

Answer the questions:

1. What are the existing approaches to the parts of speech problem? 2. What does the classical approach consist in? What principle served as the basis of classification? 3. What principle was H. Sweet's classification based on? 4. What are the merits and demerits of Ch. Fries's classification? 5. How many classes did Ch. Fries single out? 6. What is the difference between notional classes and functional words?

4. THE NOUN AND ITS GRAMMATICAL CATEGORIES IN MODERN ENGLISH. THE PROBLEM OF THE ARTICLE IN MODERN ENGLISH

The noun as a part of speech has the categorical meaning of “substance” or “thingness”. “Thingness” is a grammatical meaning that permits names of abstract notions, actions, and qualities to function in the same way with names of objects and living beings. Nouns may be derived from verbs and adjectives. Nouns directly name various phenomena of reality and have the strongest nominative force among notional parts of speech. The cited features are relevant for the division of the nouns into several subclass oppositions: **proper** and **common**, **animate** and **inanimate**, **human** and **non-human**, **countable** and **uncountable**.

Noun-forming derivational means are rather numerous. Formally, the noun is characterized by a specific set of word-building affixes and word-building models: suffixes of the doer (*teacher*, *painter*), suffixes of abstract notions (*happiness*, *cruelty*, *elegance*), special conversion patterns (*to blackmail – a blackmail*), etc. As for word-changing categories, the noun is changed according to the categories of number (*girl-girls*), case (*girl-girl's*), and article determination (*girl*, *a girl*, *the girl*). The noun is also characterized by specific combinability with verbs, adjectives and other nouns, introduced either by preposition or by sheer contact. It is the only part of speech which can be prepositionally combined with other words.

The most characteristic functions of the noun in a sentence are the function of a subject and an object, since they commonly denote persons and things as components of the situation. Besides, the noun can function as a predicative (a part of a compound predicate), as an adverbial modifier and as an attribute in the following cases: when it is used in the genitive case, when it is used with a preposition, or in contact groups of two nouns the first of which qualifies the second.

Number is a grammatical category of nouns which denotes the number of objects, expressed by a word. In English there are two numbers: **singular** and **plural**. The formal signal of the singular number is a zero morpheme, while the usual signal of plurality is *-e/s*. The formation of plural by means *-e/s* is considered to be productive, but in Modern English there are some non-productive types of plural number, as for instance: a) suffix *-en* : *ox - oxen* b) variation of vowels in the root of a word: *tooth-teeth*; *goose-geese*; *mouse-mice*; *man-men*, c) variation of vowels of the root + suffix- "ren": *child-children*; d) homonymous forms for both singular and plural: *deer-deer*. With regard to the category of number English nouns fall under two subclasses: **countable** and **uncountable**. The latter is again subdivided into those having no plural form and those having no singular. The former type is called Pluralia tantum: *clothes*, *goods*, the latter - singularia tantum: *milk*, *water*, etc.

The category of gender in English is a highly controversial subject in grammar. The majority of linguists stick to the opinion that the pure category of gender existed only in Old English. They maintain that in modern English, the biological division of masculine and feminine genders is rendered only by lexical means: special words and lexical affixes. Gender is a meaningful category for the whole class of the nouns in the English language, because it reflects the real gender attributes (or their absence/ irrelevance) of the referent denoted. It is realized through obligatory correspondence of every noun with the 3rd person singular pronouns – he, she, or it: man – he, woman – she, tree, dog – it.

In the course of linguistic investigation, **the category of case** in English has become one of the most vexed problems of theoretical discussion. Grammarians seem to be divided in their opinion as to the case-system. Four special views are considered as successive stages in the analysis of this problem. They are: 1) The theory of positional cases (J. Nesfield, M. Deutschbein, M. Bryant); 2) The theory of prepositional cases (G. Curme); 3) The limited case theory (H. Sweet, O. Jespersen) – most broadly accepted among linguists; 4) The theory of the possessive postpositions (H. Vorontsova).

The most common view is that the category is represented by the opposition of two forms: the common case and the genitive case.

The category of **article** determination shows the relations of the referent of the noun to the other referents of the same class. The article is a determiner, but unlike other determiners (the lexical means: this, that, some, any, very, etc.), it is so general, that it has become a grammatical means of determination in modern English. It is a determining unit of specific nature accompanying the noun in communicative collocations. The semantic purpose of the article is to specify the noun referent, to define it in the most general way, without any explicitly expressed contrasts.

Oppositionally the article determination of the noun is divided into two binary correlations connected with each other hierarchically. The opposition of the higher level differentiates the definite article by virtue of its identifying function with the two other forms. The opposition of the lower level contrasts the two types of generalization: relative (its strong member) and absolute (the weak member).

The definite article expresses the identification or individualization of the referent of the noun. The object that the noun denotes is taken as concrete and individual. **The indefinite article** expresses classification, or relative, classifying generalization of the referent, which means that this article refers the object denoted to a certain class. **The zero article** expresses absolute generalization, abstraction of the referent denoted by the noun.

The problem of article determination has given rise to much controversy; there is much dispute about the status of the article itself and its combination with the noun. It seems more plausible to interpret the article in terms of the general linguistic field approach as a lingual unit of an intermediary status between the word and the morpheme, as a special type of grammatical auxiliary, and its combination with the noun as an intermediary phenomenon between the word and the word-combination.

substance – речовина, речовинність

countable – злічувальний

predicative – предикатив

gender - рід

case - відмінок

homonymous - омонічний

controversial - суперечливий

vexed - спірний

to identify - ототожнювати

referent – те, до чого відноситься

intermediary – проміжний, посередній

Answer the questions:

1. What is the definition of the noun as a part of speech? 2. What are the syntactic functions of the noun? 3. How many grammatical categories of nouns do you know? 4. What do you understand by regular and irregular formation of plural of nouns? 5. What are the existing approaches to the case system of the English noun? 6. Does the category of gender exist in Modern English? What ways of expressing gender distinctions are there in English? 7. What are the peculiarities of the linguistic status of English articles?

5. THE VERB AS A PART OF SPEECH. THE GRAMMATICAL CATEGORIES OF THE FINITE VERB. THE PROBLEM OF THE NON-FINITE FORMS OF THE VERB IN ENGLISH

Grammatically verbs are the most complex part of speech. This is due to the central role they play in the expression of predicativity of the sentence, establishing the relationship between the target situation or event named in the utterance and the reality.

The general categorial meaning of the verb is process presented dynamically.

From the structural point of view verbs are characterized by specific forms of word-building, thus verbal stems may be: **simple** (*go, can, take*), **sound-replacive** (*food – feed*), **stress-replacive** (*import – to impórt*), **expanded** (*broaden, clarify, insure*), **composite** (*blackmail n – blackmail v*), **phrasal** (*to have a glance, to come in*). There are productive and non-productive ways of word-formation in present-day English verbs. Affixation is productive, while sound-replacive forms are non-productive.

From the point of view of their meaning verbs fall under two groups: **notional** and **functional**. Notional verbs have full lexical meaning of their own. The majority of verbs fall under this group. Function verbs differ from notional ones lacking lexical meaning of their own. They cannot be used independently in the sentence. Functional verbs show the connection between the nominative content of the sentence and reality. They include **auxiliary verbs, modal verbs, semi-notional verbid introducer verbs and link verbs**.

Linguists differentiate seven semantic classes of notional verbs. They are: activity verbs, communication verbs, mental verbs, causative verbs, verbs of occurrence, verbs of existence or relationship, and verbs of aspect.

Some of the aspectual meanings are inherent in the basic semantics of certain subsets of English verbs (verbs of instantaneity, termination, duration). The aspectual semantics of supercompletion, undercompletion, repetition can be rendered by means of lexical derivation, in particular, prefixation. Thus, the verbs can be divided into two classes. The basis of this division is constituted by the relation of the verbal semantics to the idea of processual limit. The verbs of the first order, presenting the process as potentially limited, can be called **limitive**. The verbs of the second order present a process as not limited by any border point and are called **unlimitive**.

Verbs traditionally fall into two sets of morphological classes: **regular** and **irregular verbs**, and **finite** and **non-finite verbs**. The main principle of the morphological classification of verbs is the way how they form simple past and past participle or participle II. Accordingly, verbs are divided into two large groups: regular and irregular verbs. Regular verbs form past simple and

past participle by adding the inflectional suffix –ed, while irregular verbs form these forms individually.

The categories of person and number are closely connected with each other. There is a concord between the subject of a sentence and its finite verb predicate. That is, the subject dominates the predicate determining the person and number of the predication, while the predicate dominates the subject, ascribing to it some action, state or quality (e.g.: *Ann plays the piano every day. We play the piano every day.*). This concord is particularly clear with the present tense of the verb “be” (I am; you are; he/she/it is; we/you/they are), while with the rest of the full verbs this concord is restricted to a contrast between the third person singular present and other persons or plural number.

The existence of the **category of tense** in Modern English is universally recognized but the very definition of it, the number of tenses and their meanings, mutual relation between the categories of tense and aspect are disputable matters.

Time is independent of language. Tense, which derives from the Latin word *tempus*, stands for a verb form used to express a time relation. Time can be expressed in language in two basic ways: 1) lexically; 2) grammatically. E.g. *John is in his study now.* This sentence expresses the present time in two ways: grammatically (*is*) and lexically (*now*).

All the lexical expressions of time are divided into present-oriented or **absolute** and non-present-oriented or **non-absolute**. The absolute time denotation distributes the perception of time among three spheres: the present, the past and the future. The non-absolute time denotation may be relative (correlating two or more events) and factual (directly stating the astronomical time).

In Modern English the grammatical expression of verbal time is effected in two correlated oppositions. At the 1st stage the process receives an absolute time characteristic by opposing the past tense to the present tense. At the 2nd stage the process receives relative time characterization by opposing future forms to the forms of no future marking. As a result of the combined working of the two oppositions two temporal categories are distinguished: **the category of primary time** and **the category of prospective time**.

The category of aspect is concerned with the internal character of the process denoted by the verb: the process can be durative (i.e. considered as continuing or as being in progress) or non-durative (i.e. considered as noncontinuing, or completed). The aspective meaning can be in-built in the semantic structure of the verb. In English, the various lexical aspective meanings have been generalised by the verb in its subclass division into limitive and unlimitive sets. On the other hand, the aspective meaning can also be represented in variable grammatical categories. Two systems of verbal forms – synthetic inflexion and analytical composition – should be evaluated in this light:

continuous forms and perfect forms. The continuous verbal forms are aspective, reflecting the inherent character of the process denoted by the verb. The categorical meaning discloses the nature of development of the verbal action and the category itself is called the aspective category of development. The perfect forms reflect a kind of timing, though in a purely relative way, coordinating two times. The opposition of perfect and non-perfect forms constitutes the category of retrospective coordination.

The category of voice presents a special linguistic interest. Most transitive verbs can occur in two voices: **active** and **passive**. The active form of the verb shows that the action described by the verb is performed by the subject of the sentence, while the passive form indicates that the action is performed upon the subject: E.g. *The butler murdered the detective* (active voice). *The detective was murdered by the butler* (passive voice). The active voice is the most common, unmarked voice while the passive is a marked member of the voice opposition as it is formed with the auxiliary be + the past participle of the main verb. Compared to the active voice, the passive voice reduces the importance of the agent (i.e. the doer of the action) and allows the receiver of the action to become the subject of the sentence. The big interest in connection with the voice identification presents the problem of **medial voices**, i.e. voice forms other than the active or passive: reflexive and reciprocal.

The category of mood is a morphological expression of modality, that is, it marks the modality of reality or unreality of an action or state as viewed by the speaker. It is the most controversial category of the verb. The most common view is that in Modern English there are three moods: Indicative, Imperative and Subjunctive. **The indicative forms** present predication as reality. Semantically it is a fact mood. Morphologically it is the most developed system including all the categories of the verb. **The imperative mood** serves to express requests which may range from categorical order or command to entreaties. It is a direct expression of one's will. The grammatical subject of the imperative mood is not formally indicated. Probably the only thing linguists are unanimous about with regard to **the subjunctive mood** is that it represents an action as a non-fact, as something imaginary. In all other respects opinions differ. That is because the system of the subjunctive mood in Modern English has been and still is in development. There are many elements in it which are rapidly falling into disuse and there are new elements coming into use.

Finite and non-finite forms of the verb differ both in the number of the categories they possess and in their syntactical functions. There are three **non-finite** forms of the verb: **the infinitive**, **the participle** (two forms of participle: participle I or present participle, which is formed with the help of inflectional suffix -ing: *dancing*, and participle II or past participle with the inflectional suffix -ed for regular verbs and other means of word-forming for irregular verbs:

danced, taken, etc.), and **the gerund**. Finite verbs have tense contrast (i.e. the distinction between present and past tenses: *She works hard. She worked hard.*), while non-finite verb forms don't have tense distinction, i.e. they don't have grammatical category of tense. Finite verbs have grammatical categories of person and number while non-finite verbs don't have any of these distinctions. Both, finite and non-finite verbs have different grammatical forms for aspect and voice distinction. Finite verbs have different forms to mark the grammatical category of mood (which requires a choice between the indicative, imperative and subjunctive mood) while non-finite verb forms are devoid of this grammatical category. Due to the above-mentioned grammatical categories of tense, person, number, aspect, voice and mood, finite verbs are capable to perform independently syntactic function of a simple predicate in a sentence. The number of these categories being restricted to aspect and voice, non-finite verb forms are devoid of this feature.

predicativity - предикативність

auxiliary verbs – допоміжні дієслова

link verbs – дієслова-зв'язки

concord – гармонія, злагожденість

mutual relations – взаємні відносини

voice - стан

mood - спосіб

aspect - вид

to constitute - складати

medial voices – медіальні стани

oblique moods – непрямі способи

non-finite forms – безособові форми

Answer the questions:

1. What are the most important features of verbs? 2. Why do they say that verbs are morphologically most developed part of speech? 3. What are the criteria for classification of verbs? 4. What verbs are called irregular? 5. How many basic forms of the verb do you know? 6. What is the difference between limitive and unlimitive verbs? 7. What is the difference between notional and functional verbs? 8. What functional verbs do you know? 9. What notional verbs do you know? 10. How many grammatical categories of the verb do you know? 11. Which grammatical category of the verb is the most intricate and why?

12. What do you know about the absolute and non-absolute time denotation? 13. What do you know about the problem of aspect in Modern English? 14. What does the grammatical category of voice show? 15. What are the different views on the number and kinds of moods in English? 16. What verbs are called non-finite? 17. What is the difference between finite and non-finite forms of the verb?

6. THE ADJECTIVE AND THE ADVERB IN MODERN ENGLISH

The adjective expresses the property of an entity. In the sentence, the adjective performs the functions of an attribute and a predicative. Derivationally, adjectives are related either to nouns or verbs. All the adjectives can be divided into two large groups: **gradable** and **non-gradable**. Gradable (also called qualitative) adjectives denote properties of entities that can be estimated quantitatively, or measured. Linguists generally attribute qualitative, or descriptive adjectives to gradable adjectives. Gradable adjectives can be further divided into stative and dynamic.

Non-gradable adjectives constitute three groups: 1) relative; 2) intensifying; 3) restrictive, or particularizing. Relative adjectives express the property of an entity related to some other entity. Intensifying adjectives constitute two groups: 1) emphasize; 2) amplifiers. Restrictive adjectives restrict the noun to a particular member of the class.

There is a class of words in English with the following morphological, semantic and syntactic characteristics: 1) The words of this type may be characterized by the prefix *a-*: e.g. *alive*, *asleep*, etc.; they generally do not form degrees of comparison; 2) The words of this type denote a temporary state; 3) The words of this type are used predicatively only, e.g. *He is awake*. Because of the said features, these words are regarded by some grammarians as a separate part of speech which has been variously referred to as the category of state words, adlinks, and **statives**.

The category of comparison of adjectives shows the absolute or relative quality of a substance. **The category of the degrees of comparison** expresses quantitative distinctions of qualities, it shows whether the adjective denotes the property of some substance absolutely (*the positive degree*), relatively, having the feature of restricted superiority between two elements (*the comparative degree*) and the highest amount of property, having the feature of unrestricted superiority (*the superlative degree*). There are three ways of forming degrees of comparison: synthetic, analytic, and suppletive. The synthetic way of forming degrees of comparison is by the inflections *-er*, *-est*; the analytic way, by placing *more* and *most* before the adjective. The third way of forming degrees of comparison is by the use of suppletive forms: e.g. *good-better-the best*.

The adverb is a part of speech with the lexico-grammatical meaning of qualitative, quantitative, circumstantial characteristics of actions, states or qualities. The adverb has the category of the degrees of comparison. As to their structure, adverbs may be **non-derived**, or simple (e.g. *here*, *there*, *now*, *then*, *so*, *quick*, *why*, *very*, *rather*) and **derived** (e.g. *slowly*, *sideways*, *clockwise*, *homewards*, *away*, *across*). We can also distinguish composite forms and phrasal forms of the adverb: e.g. *sometimes*, *nowhere*, *anyhow*; *at least*, *at last*, *to and fro*.

Semantically adverbs are commonly divided into **qualitative**, **quantitative** and **circumstantial**. Qualitative adverbs show the qualities of states or actions. In most cases the adverb is derived from the adjective with the help of the suffix *-ly*: *quickly, brightly, bitterly*. Quantitative adverbs like *very, rather, too, nearly, fully, hardly*, etc. show the degree, measure, quantity of an action, quality or state. Circumstantial adverbs serve to denote various circumstances (mostly local and temporal) attending the action. They are divided into notional and functional. The functional circumstantial adverbs are words of pronominal nature, used as syntactic connectives and question-forming functionals. Notional circumstantial adverbs include two basic sets: adverbs of time (*today, tomorrow, ever*) and adverbs of place (*near, far, aside*).

Special mention should be made of **preposition-adverb** like elements which form a semantic blend with verbs: *to give up, to give in, to give out, to set up, to set in, to look for, to look into*, etc. The verbs in such combinations are mostly one-syllable words; the most common adverbs are those denoting place, e.g. *in, out, on, off, over, up, down, through*, etc. Some scholars have treated the second element as a variety of adverbs, as preposition-like adverbs, as a special kind of adverbs called adverbial postpositon, as postverbal particle, as a postfix or postpositive affix, etc. The great variety of interpretations shows the complexity of the problem.

qualitative - якісний

gradable – той, який можна розташувати за ступенями, рангами, класами

relative - відносний

distinction - відмінність

the degrees of comparison

suppletive forms – суплетивні форми

composite forms – складні форми

circumstantial adverbs – обставинні прислівники

preposition - препозиція

postposition - постпозиція

to refer - відноситись

Answer the questions:

1. What is the definition of the adjective as a part of speech? 2. How are adjectives classified? 3. What is the classification of non-gradable adjectives? 4. What are the main forms of the degrees of comparison of adjectives? 5. What is the definition of the adverb as a part of speech? 6. What is the distinction between simple adverbs and derived ones? 7. What are the semantic groups of adverbs in Modern English?

7. SYNTAX. SYNTAGMATIC CONNECTIONS OF WORDS. SENTENCE-STRUCTURE. THE CLASSIFICATION OF SENTENCES

The syntactic level is divided into two: syntax – minor and syntax – major. The first one deals with sentence structure and the second – with text and its structure.

As it has been previously mentioned, there are two types of relations between words in languages: paradigmatic and syntagmatic. Paradigmatic bond is a connection among the classes of linguistic units/words combined by the existence of some certain common features: e.g. *asking, sitting, barking, sleeping* (all these words have common –ing ending). Syntagmatic connection is a bond among linguistic units in a lineal succession in the connected speech. Syntagmatic connection between words or a group of words is also called a syntactic bond.

English syntax is a many-layered organization of relatively few types of its basic units.

We should distinguish between: 1) syntagmatic groupings of notional words only – having a self-dependant nominative function, denoting complex phenomena and their properties (*a clever girl, very beautiful, sitting in an armchair*); 2) groupings of notional words with functional words – equivalent to separate words by their nominative function and being non-self-dependant (*in a low voice, with difficulty*); 3) syntagmatic groupings of functional words stand for separate functional words and are used as connectors and specifiers of notional elements (*so that, from out of*).

Syntagmatic groupings of notional words are divided into two types by their grammatical and semantic properties: **subordinate phrases, coordinate phrases**. Subordination implies the relation of head-word and adjunct-word, as e.g. *a tall boy, a red pen*, etc. Coordination is shown either by the word-order only, or by the use of form-words: E.g. *a) Pens and pencils were purchased; b) Pens were purchased; c) Pencils were purchased*. Since both a) and b) sentences show identical meaning we may say that these two words are independent: coordination is proved.

Syntactic processes and semantic aspects of syntax have become the main source of interest in grammatical studies. Studies of sentence-structure are relevant to a number of questions, such as deep grammar analysis, problems of text linguistics, the actual division of the sentence and problems of syntactic paradigms. One of the most important questions concerning the sentence which remains disputable to these days is the definition of the sentence as a linguistic unit. According to the opinion of many grammarians the definition of the sentence must contain all the peculiar features of the smallest communicative unit. By the **sentence** we understand the smallest communicative unit, consisting of one or more syntactically connected words that has primary

predication and that has a certain intonation pattern. The sentence is distinguished from all other units by its *predicativity*, i.e. reference to speech situation. The center of predication in a sentence of verbal type is a finite verb. The finite verb by its categorical forms reflects the corresponding category. The sentence is intonationally delimited. The intonation separates one sentence from another in the continual flow of uttered segments and participates in rendering essential communicative-predicative meanings.

The sentence as a syntactic structure is based on a certain structural pattern, carries information and is intended for communication in language as system. The phrase as a syntactic structure is also based on a certain grammatical pattern, but it is intended for nomination. Word-combinations are constructed according to the rules of the given language and function in the same way as the word. A sentence may contain one word.

The nominative meaning of the sentence reflects a processual situation or event as its dynamic center, the agent of the process, the objects of the process and also various conditions and circumstances of the process realization. This content is known as **the nominative division of the sentence**. The nominative parts of the sentence are: the subject, the predicate, the object, the attribute, the adverbial modifier, parenthetical enclosure, and addressing enclosure. The main parts of the sentence are the subject and the predicate, whose function is to make the predication.

There are many approaches to classify sentences. The most important criteria for sentence classification are as follows: 1. The criterion of the structure of sentences 2. The criterion of the aim of the speaker 3. The criterion of the existence of all parts of the sentence. From the point of view of the first criterion sentences fall under two subtypes: **simple** and **composite**. The difference between them is in the fact that simple sentences have one primary predication in their structure while composite ones have more than one. According to the criterion of the aim of the speaker sentences fall into **declarative**, **interrogative**, **imperative** and **exclamatory**. From the point of view of the existence of all parts of the sentence we differentiate **elliptical** and **non-elliptical** sentences.

Sentences with only one predication are called **simple** sentences. The subject-group and the predicate-group of the sentence are its constitutive parts. 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**. One-member sentences have no separate subject and predicate but only one main instead. In a two-member sentence the subject and the predicate are directly and explicitly expressed in the outer structure. We distinguish between nominal and verbal one-member sentences. The **composite** sentence is formed by two or more predicative lines. Being a polypredicative construction it expresses a complicated act of thought. According to the traditional view, all composite sentences are to be classed into **compound** sentences (coordinating their

clauses) and **complex** sentences (subordinating their clauses), syndetic and asyndetic types of clause connection being specifically displayed with both clauses.

The **declarative** sentences may be called basic, when compared with other types of sentences because all other types of sentences are the result of transformation of kernel sentences which are affirmative in their origin. They convey some statement, have the falling intonation and a regular order of words with no inversion.

Interrogative sentences differ from the declarative ones by some specific features. There are two structural types of interrogative sentences in Modern English - **general** questions (yes- or no- questions) and **special** (or wh-) questions. Both of them are characterized by having partial inversions. The interrogative sentences require answers (if they are not rhetorical ones).

The peculiar features of the **exclamatory** sentences are: 1. They express some sort of emotion, feeling or the spirit of the person who pronounces it; 2. They always occur in the declarative form; 3. There's usually no inversion; 4. They are pronounced with a falling intonation.

The **imperative** sentences are opposed to non-imperative. The predicate in the imperative sentences is used in one form and these sentences are most often directed to the second person. The subject of the imperative sentences is almost always represented by the zero alternant of you, i.e. elliptically. The imperative sentences urge the listener to perform an action or verbal response.

The problem of elliptical sentences has been and still is one of the most important and at the same time difficult problems of syntax. Elliptical (incomplete) sentences are defined as sentences with the subject or predicate missing. The classification of elliptical sentences may be based on the way of their explication. By explication we understand the replacement of the zero alternant of this or that word by the explicit one. There are two kinds of explication: 1. Syntagmatically restored elliptical sentences (when the explicit alternant of the elliptical sentence is found in the same context where the elliptical sentence is). 2. Paradigmatically restored elliptical sentences (when the explicit alternant of the zero form is not found in the context where the ellipsis is used but when it is found in similar language constructions). What is felt as implicit in elliptical sentences may be supplied from the immediate context or from the relevance to a complete grammatical construction of a given pattern. Elliptical sentences are an integral part of conversational English.

minor syntax – малий синтаксис

major syntax – великий синтаксис

syntagmatic grouping – синтагматична група

subordination - субординація

coordination - координація

actual division of the sentence – актуальне членування речення

composite sentence – складне речення

declarative sentence – розповідне речення

interrogative sentence – питальне речення

imperative sentence – наказове речення

exclamatory sentence – окличне речення

elliptical sentence – еліптичне речення

compound sentence – складносурядне речення

complex sentence – складнопідрядне речення

Answer the questions:

1. What is peculiar about paradigmatic and syntagmatic relations in syntax? 2. What is the definition of the sentence? 3. What are the properties of the sentence? 4. What is the difference between the sentence and the phrase? 5. Can you explain the nominative division of the sentence? 6. How can sentences be classified? 7. What are the structural types of sentences? 8. What is the difference between two-member and one-member sentences? 9. What are the peculiarities of elliptical sentences? 10. What do you know about coordination and subordination in composite sentences? 11. What are the peculiarities of interrogative sentences? 12. What sentences are considered to be exclamatory?

8. ACTUAL DIVISION OF THE SENTENCE. SENTENCE IN THE TEXT

Alongside of the nominative division of the sentence, the idea of so-called actual division has been put forward in theoretical linguistics. The purpose of it is to reveal the correlative significance of the sentence parts from the point of view of their actual informative role in an utterance. The actual division of the sentence exposes its informative perspective.

The main components of the actual division are the theme and the rheme. **The theme** expresses the starting point of the communication. It denotes an object or phenomenon about which something is reported. **The rheme** expresses the basic informative part of the communication, its contextually relevant center.

Sentences in continual speech are not used in isolation, they are interconnected and interdependent both semantically and syntactically. The general idea of the text includes two important notions: 1) it is a succession of written or spoken utterances; 2) it implies a strictly topical stretch of talk. Thus, the text is interpreted as a lingual element with semantic (topical) unity and semantico-syntactic cohesion.

From the point of view of the communicative direction of the component-sentences, sentential sequences are divided into **monologue sequences** (directed from one speaker to the listeners) and **dialogue sequences** (uttered by speakers-interlocutors in turn). The formation of one-direction sequence is based on the syntactic cumulation of sentences, thus a suprasentential construction of this type may be called a **cumuleme**. The formation of a two-direction sequence is based on its sentences being positioned to meet one another, i.e. on occursive connection, and such a construction may be called an **occurseme**.

There are two methodological approaches to the linguistic interpretation of the notion of text: structural and functional. From the structuralist viewpoint, text can be defined as a sequence of thematically interrelated well-formed sentences. According to this definition, the lower border of the text is restricted as it implies a sequence of at least two sentences. But the structural definition of the text leaves its upper (top) border open because of the varying diapason of the theme. On this basis, linguists differentiate structural types of texts into **microtexts** and **macrottexts**.

From the functionalist viewpoint, a verbal unit of any length, be it a sequence of thematically interrelated sentences, one simple sentence or even one single word can be defined as a text if it performs a communicative function. British scholar Halliday writes that text is language in use. It implies that text is a speech product whereas language exists as a system of virtual signs that represent building material for the text. In other words, language system provides

the speaker or the writer with abstract models by which they convert their ideas into a text. Text as a communicative verbal unit has its peculiar characteristics. Textual characteristics are first of all predetermined by a whole set of such factors as: the communicants (comprising both - the addresser and the addressee), the text with the help of which they interact, the place and the time of the communication, the correspondence between the textual-world and the object-world of reality and so on. This means, that while analyzing a text, we should focus on the features that completely differ from lingual units proper.

In linguistic literature **cohesion** is defined as the use of explicit linguistic devices to signal relations within a text or sentence. Cohesion can be defined as the links that hold a text together and give it meaning. There are two main types of cohesion: grammatical and lexical. Grammatical cohesion of the text is mainly achieved through co-reference, i.e. the relationship between the verbal signs designating the same entity in the “world” of the text. Co-referential items in English include: personal pronouns (he, she, it, they), demonstratives (this, that, these, those), the definite article, etc. Linguists identify three main types of the co-referential devices: a) looking backward, i.e. anaphoric reference, b) looking forward, i.e. cataphoric reference and c) looking outward, i.e. exophoric reference.

Anaphoric reference is the most common type of reference, used subconsciously in everyday conversation and writing. It occurs when the writer refers back to someone or something, that has been previously identified, in order to avoid repetition and be more compact.

Cataphoric reference which is the reverse of anaphoric reference and is relatively straightforward. It occurs when the reader is introduced to someone or something as an abstract entity until it is identified by a coreferring expression later.

Exophoric reference is mainly used to describe generic or abstract situations. It occurs when the speaker chooses not to identify a person or a thing but instead refers to them as abstract entities by generic words such as indefinite pronouns “everyone”, “everybody”, “everything”, etc.

to reveal – показувати, проявляти

rheme - рема

theme - тема

sentential sequence – послідовність речень

cumuleme - кумулема

occurseme - оккурсема

explicit – точний, детальний, експліцитний

cohesion - когезія

anaphoric - анафорний

cataphoric - катафорный

exophoric - экзофорный

Answer the questions:

1. What is meant by the actual division of the sentence? 2. How do we differentiate between the theme and the rheme? 3. How would you define the text? 4. What is the definition of the text from the functionalist viewpoint? 5. How do structuralists define the text? 6. What are textual characteristics predetermined by? 7. What is the difference between a cumuleme and an occurseme? 8. How do you understand the term text cohesion? 9. What are the main types of cohesion? 10. What are the co-referential devices?

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MODULE 2. PHONETICS

9. PHONETICS AS A SCIENCE, ITS BRANCHES, UNITS. CONNECTION OF PHONETICS WITH OTHER LINGUISTIC DISCIPLINES. ARTICULATORY BASIS

Phonetics is the science which studies the characteristics of human sound-making, especially those sounds used in speech, and provides methods of their description, classification and transcription.

Three **traditional branches** of the subject are generally recognized:

1) **articulatory** phonetics (артикуляторна фонетика) is the study of the way speech sounds are made (“articulated” by the organs of speech);

2) **acoustic** phonetics (акустична фонетика) studies the physical properties of speech sounds, as transmitted between mouth and ear;

3) **auditory** phonetics (аудитивна фонетика) studies the response to speech sounds by means of ear, auditory nerve and brain;

4) **functional** phonetics is concerned with the range and function of sounds in specific languages. It is usually referred to as **phonology**.

Phonetics is the study of how speech sounds are made, transmitted, and received.

Phonology is the study of segmental (speech sound types) and prosodic (intonation) features from the point of view of their use. Within phonology two branches of study are usually recognized: **segmental** and **supra-segmental**. Segmental phonology analyses speech into segments, such as phonemes; supra-segmental phonology analyses those features which extend over more than one segment, such as intonation contours.

There is a great variety in the way speech sounds are made and in their number in different languages. But as there is an abstract alphabet as the basis of writing, so there is an abstract set of sound-types as the basis of speech. These units are called **phonemes**. The complete set of phonemes is called the phonemic system of a language, and the realizations of phonemes in definite positions in words are called **allophones**. A phoneme is the smallest, indivisible sound language unit that differentiates words according to their meaning or the grammatical forms of one and the same word. For example: *bad* [bæd] – *bed* [bed], *man* [mæn] – [men]. The speech sound that we pronounce is always a variant of the phoneme or its allophone. Thus, a phoneme in speech is realized only in the form of its allophones. For example, the phoneme [t] is a forelingual, alveolar-apical, occlusive, plosive, aspirated, voiceless consonant sound. Some allophones of the phoneme [t] are as follows: *tea* (aspirated), *stake* (non-aspirated), *at the* (dental), *twice* (labialized), *tree* (post-alveolar).

The abstractional and material aspects of the phoneme have given rise to the appearance of transcription. **Transcription** is a visual system of notation of the sound structure of speech. It is also a generalization of a great variety of sounds that are uttered by a speaker of a given language.

Phonetics is connected with such branches of linguistics as **Lexicology**, **Grammar**, **Stylistics** etc. The connection of Phonetics with **Lexicology** lies in the fact that distinction of words is realized by the variety of their appearances. The phonetic course of a given language determines the sound composition of words.

Sound interchange is a very vivid manifestation of a close connection of Phonetics with **Morphology**. It can be observed in the category of number (man – men; goose – geese; foot – feet). Sound interchange also helps to distinguish basic forms of irregular verbs (sing-sang-sung), adjectives and nouns (strong-strength), verbs and nouns (to extend-extent).

Phonetics is closely connected with **Syntax**. Any partition of a sentence is realized with the help of pauses, sentence stresses, melody. Changes in pausation can alter the meaning of an utterance. For example: *One of the travelers / said Mr. Parker / was likeable (direct speech)*. If the pause is after “said”, then we have another meaning of this sentence: *One of the travelers said / Mr. Parker was likeable*. The rising/falling nuclear tone determines the communicative type of the sentence: *You know him – statement / You know him – general question*.

Phonetics is also connected with **Stylistics** through repetition of sounds, words and phrases. Repetition of this kind creates the basis of rhythm, rhyme and alliteration (repetition of sounds). Rhythm may be used as a special device not only in poetry but in prose as well.

Nowadays sociolinguistics has come to the fore of philology. It studies the ways in which pronunciation interacts with society (society is used in the broader sense: nationality, regional and social groups). We take care of the language and pronunciation when we talk to equals, superiors or subordinates, to male and female, to foreigners and countrymen, etc. Sociophonetics can answer the questions: *Who speaks? How old is this person? What is his/her profession? Education? Location?*

The **articulatory basis** may be defined as a complex of habitual for the given language articulatory characteristics which involve the movement of the lips and the tongue in speech as well as in silence.

The differences between the articulatory bases of English and Ukrainian are as follows:

In **English** the tip of the tongue is raised, hooved and does not touch anything in the mouth cavity. The root of the tongue is retracted far back. The corners of the lips are slightly spread in what we call “phonetic smile”. This articulation basis makes English national voice dull and nasal (глухий і назальний).

In **Ukrainian** in the position of silence the tip of the tongue is firmly pressed against the lower teeth. Almost the whole bulk of the tongue is in the front part of the mouth cavity. The lips may be protruded. The quality of Ukrainian national voice is resonant (дзвінкий).

sound-making – утворення звуків

auditory nerve – слуховий нерв

to transmit – передавати

to be concerned with – займатися

segmental phonology – сегментна фонологія

supra-segmental phonology – супра-сегментна фонологія

intonation contours – інтонаційний склад

to differentiate – розрізняти

variant of the phoneme – варіант фонем

distinction – розрізнення

sound composition – звуковий склад

manifestation – прояв

to come to the fore – вийти на перший план

habitual – звичний

to be retracted – бути відтягнутим

to be spread – бути розтягнутим

to be firmly pressed – бути міцно притиснутим

Answer the questions:

1. Give the definition of phonetics as a science. 2. What branches of phonetics are generally recognized? 3. What does phonology study? 4. What is a phoneme? Give examples. 5. What is an allophone? Give examples. 6. What is a phoneme? 7. What branches of linguistics is phonetics connected with? 8. Give the definition of articulatory basis. 9. What are the characteristic features of English articulatory basis? 10. What are the characteristic features of Ukrainian articulatory basis?

10. THE ORGANS OF SPEECH. CLASSIFICATION OF SPEECH SOUNDS

The human speaking apparatus consists of the following main parts which participate in the formation of speech sounds.

1. The upper and the lower lips.
2. The upper and the lower teeth.
3. The palate (or the roof of the mouth). It consists of the following parts: a) the alveoli (or the teeth-ridge – the part behind the upper teeth); b) the hard palate (the part behind the alveoli); c) the soft palate (the back of the palate); d) the uvula (the end of the soft palate).
4. The tongue. It is divided into the following parts: a) the tip of the tongue; b) the blade of the tongue (the part situated opposite the alveoli); c) the front of the tongue (the part situated opposite the hard palate); d) the back of the tongue (the part situated opposite the soft palate); e) the root of the tongue.
5. The windpipe (or the trachea).
6. The pharynx.
7. The larynx.
8. The vocal chords (stretched horizontally across the larynx). The space between the chords is called the glottis.
9. The upper and the lower jaws.
10. The mouth and nasal cavities.

Speech sounds in English are produced when we exhale. The flow of air passes through the **windpipe** from the **lungs** into the **larynx**. There are two **vocal chords** in the larynx which are tense when brought together or lax when drawn apart. When they are tense, the flow of air passing through the narrowed **glottis** causes the vocal chords to vibrate and produce voice (thus vowels and voiced consonants are formed). When the vocal chords are lax, the flow of air passes through the glottis freely and does not cause the vocal chords to vibrate (thus voiceless consonants are produced). From the larynx the air passes into the **pharynx**. Then, if the soft palate is raised, the air passes out through the **nasal** cavity.

The organs of speech which are movable and take an active part in the formation of sounds are called **active**. They are: the vocal chords, the tongue, the soft palate with the uvula, the lips, the lower jaw. The most movable organ of speech is the tongue. The immovable organs of speech are called **passive**. They are: the upper jaw, the alveoli, the hard palate, the teeth.

The work of the speech organs necessary for making speech sounds is called **articulation**. According to the specific character of their articulation speech sounds are divided into **vowels** and **consonants**.

Table 1.

In the articulation of vowels:	In the articulation of consonants:
<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. the flow of air passes freely (meets no obstruction); 2. the flow of air is weak; 3. all organs of speech are tense; 4. voice prevails over noise; 5. vowels are syllable-forming sounds. 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. the flow of air meets an obstruction; 2. the flow of air is strong; 3. the active organs of speech are tense only in the place of obstruction; 4. noise prevails over voice; 5. consonants are not syllable-forming sounds, as a rule.

There is an intermediate type called **sonants (sonorants)**. They have features common to both vowels and consonants. A sonorant is characterized by an obstruction, however the air passage is wide. In producing sonorants voice prevails over noise. Some English sonorants [l], [m], [n] can form a syllable when they are preceded by a consonant and if no vowel sound follows, e.g. *people* ['pi: - pl], *seldom* ['sel - dm], *taken* ['tei - kn].

human speaking apparatus – мовленнєвий апарат людини

speech sounds – звуки мовлення

flow of air – потік повітря

vowels – голосні

voiced consonants – дзвінкі приголосні

articulation – артикуляція

vowels – голосні

consonants – приголосні

obstruction – перешкода

syllable-forming sound – звук, що утворює склад

sonant – сонант

Answer the questions:

1. What parts does the palate (tongue) consist of? 2. Where are the vocal chords situated? 3. What are the conditions under which the flow of air causes the vocal chords to vibrate? 4. What speech sounds are produced when the vocal chords are apart (drawn together)? 5. What conditions make it possible for the flow of air to pass out through the mouth (nasal) cavity? 6. What active (passive) organs of speech do you know? 7. What is articulation? 8. Which speech sounds do we call vowels (consonants)? 9. What is a sonorant? 10. Which English sonorants can form a syllable and what are the necessary conditions?

11. ENGLISH VOWEL PHONEMES

Classification of English Vowels

In English the vowels are classified according to:

1. The stability of articulation (monophthongs, diphthongs, diphthongoids).
2. The tongue position (according to the horizontal movement of the tongue: front, front-retracted, central, back, back-advanced; according to the vertical movement of the tongue: close, or high; open, or low; mid-open, or mid vowels).
3. The lip position (rounded, unrounded vowels).
4. The length of the vowel (long, short vowels).
5. The degree of tenseness (tense – long vowels, lax – short vowels).

English Vowels

Table 2

		Horizontal movement of the tongue				
Vertical movement of the tongue	Variety	Front	Front retracted	Central	Back-advanced	Back
	Narrow	i:				u:
	Broad		ɪ, ɪ(ə)		ʊ, ʊ(ə)	
	Narrow	e, e(ɪ)		ɛ:		
	Broad			ə(ʊ)		ɔ:
	Narrow			ʌ		ɔ(ɪ)
	Broad	æ	a(ɪ) a(ʊ)		a:	ɔ

Articulation of English Vowels

Vowel phoneme № 1 [ɪ:]

In pronouncing the English [ɪ:] the tongue moves forward and upward. The tip of the tongue is near the lower teeth. The front of the tongue is raised to the hard palate. The air passage between the tongue and the hard palate is narrow. The lips are a bit spread revealing the upper and the lower

teeth. Thus the English [ɪ:] may be defined as a long, tense, non-labialized, front, closed vowel phoneme.

Vowel phoneme № 2 [ɪ]

In pronouncing the English [ɪ] the tongue moves forward. The blade and the front of the tongue are raised to the hard palate. The air passage between the tongue and the hard palate is rather narrow but it is wider than in pronouncing the English [ɪ:]. The tip of the tongue is near the lower teeth. The lips are neutral. The English [ɪ] is short. Thus the English [ɪ] may be defined as a short, lax, non-labialized, front, closed vowel phoneme.

Vowel phoneme № 3 [e]

In pronouncing the English [e] the tongue moves forward and upward. The tip of the tongue is near the lower teeth. The front of the tongue is raised to the hard palate but not as high as in [ɪ]. The air passage between the tongue and the hard palate is rather wide, the jaw is lowered. The distance between the upper and the lower teeth is wider than in pronouncing the English [ɪ]. Thus the English [e] may be defined as a short, lax, non-labialized, front, half-open vowel phoneme.

Vowel phoneme № 4 [æ]

In pronouncing the English [æ] the tongue moves forward. The tip of the tongue is near the lower teeth. The front of the tongue is slightly raised to the hard palate. The jaw is lowered. The lips are spread. Thus the English [æ] may be defined as a tense, non-labialized, front, open vowel phoneme.

Vowel phoneme № 5 [ʌ]

In pronouncing the English [ʌ] the back of the tongue is raised to the soft palate. The tip of the tongue is retracted from the lower teeth. The lips are neutral. The English [ʌ] is more advanced and narrow than the English [ɔ]. Thus the English [ʌ] may be defined as a short, lax, non-labialized, back advanced, half-open vowel phoneme.

Vowel phoneme № 6 [ɑ:]

In pronouncing the English [ɑ:] the tongue is retracted. The tip of the tongue is also retracted from the lower teeth. The tongue is very low down in the mouth. The back of the tongue is slightly raised to the soft palate. The jaw is a bit lowered. The lips are neutral. Thus the English [ɑ:] may be defined as a long, tense, non-labialized, back, open vowel phoneme.

Vowel phoneme № 7 [ɔ]

In pronouncing the English [ɔ] the tongue is retracted and lowered. The back of the tongue is raised to the back part of the soft palate. The jaw is lowered. The lips slightly rounded forming

a wide oval-shaped opening. Thus, the English [ɔ] may be defined as a short, lax, slightly labialized, back, open vowel phoneme.

Vowel phoneme № 8 [ɔ:]

In pronouncing the English [ɔ:] back of the tongue is raised higher to the soft palate than in pronouncing the English [ɔ]. The tongue is more retracted than in pronouncing the English [ɔ]. The tip of the tongue is retracted from the lower teeth. The lips are rounded. Thus, the English [ɔ:] may be defined as a long, tense, labialized, back, open vowel phoneme.

Vowel phoneme № 9 [u]

In pronouncing the English [u] back of the tongue is raised to the soft palate. The tip of the tongue is retracted from the lower teeth. The lips are rounded but not protruded. Thus, the English [u] may be defined as a short, lax, labialized, back, advanced, close vowel phoneme.

Vowel phoneme № 10 [u:]

In pronouncing the English [u:] back of the tongue is raised to the soft palate. The tip of the tongue is retracted from the lower teeth. The lips are rounded but not protruded. Thus, the English [u:] may be defined as a short, lax, labialized, back, advanced, close vowel phoneme.

Vowel phoneme № 11 [ɛ:]

In pronouncing the English [ɛ:] the tongue is flat. The tip of the tongue is near the lower teeth. The distance between the upper and the lower teeth is rather narrow. The lips are neutral. Thus, the English [ɛ:] may be defined as a long, tense, non-labialized, mixed, mid-open, vowel phoneme.

Vowel phoneme № 12 [ə]

In pronouncing the English [ə] the whole tongue is raised. [ə] is short. The lips are neutral. Thus, the English [ə] may be defined as a neutral, short, non-labialized, unstressed vowel phoneme.

Diphthong [eɪ]

The English diphthong [eɪ] begins as the English [e] and immediately proceeds in the direction of the English [ɪ]. In pronouncing the English [eɪ] the lips are spread for the nucleus and move to a more close position during the glide. The distance between the jaws which is rather wide at the beginning of the articulation becomes narrower during the glide.

Diphthong [aɪ]

The English diphthong [aɪ] begins as the English [a] and immediately proceeds in the direction of the English [ɪ]. In pronouncing the English [aɪ] the lips are neutral (or slightly spread). The distance between the jaws which is rather wide at the beginning of the articulation becomes narrower during the glide.

Diphthong [ɔɪ]

The English diphthong [ɔɪ] begins as the English [ɔ] and immediately proceeds in the direction of the English [ɪ]. In pronouncing the English [ɔɪ] the lips are neutral. The distance between the jaws which is rather wide at the beginning of the articulation becomes narrower during the glide.

Diphthong [aʊ]

The English diphthong [aʊ] begins as the front open [a] and proceeds in the direction of the English [u]. In pronouncing the English [aʊ] the lips are neutral. The distance between the jaws which is rather wide at the beginning of the articulation becomes narrower during the glide.

Diphthong [ɔʊ]

The English diphthong [ɔʊ] begins as the English [ɔ] and proceeds in the direction of [u]. In pronouncing the English [ɔʊ] the lips are neutral or a bit spread.

Diphthong [ɪə]

The English diphthong [ɪə] begins as the English [ɪ] and proceeds in the direction of the English neutral [ə]. In pronouncing the English [ɪə] the lips are neutral.

Diphthong [uə]

The English diphthong [uə] begins as the English [u] and proceeds in the direction of the English neutral [ə]. In pronouncing the English [uə] the lips are neutral or slightly spread.

Diphthong [ɛə]

The English diphthong [ɛə] begins as the English [ɛ] and proceeds in the direction of the English neutral [ə]. In pronouncing the English [ɛə] the lips are neutral.

12. ENGLISH CONSONANT PHONEMES

Classification of English Consonants

In English the consonants are classified according to:

1. The type of obstruction and the manner of the production of noise (occlusives (plosives and nasal sonorants)), constrictives (fricatives and constrictive sonants) and affricates).
2. The active speech organ and the place of obstruction (labial (bilabial, labio-dental), lingual (forelingual, mediolingual, backlingual), glottal).
3. The work of the vocal cords and the force of articulation (voiced – weak (lenis), voiceless – strong (fortis) consonants).
4. The position of the soft palate (oral, nasal consonants).

English Consonants

Table 3

According to the active speech organ		Labial		Lingual					Glottal
				Forelingual					
				According to the position of the tip of the tongue					
				Apical		Cacuminal			
				Dental	Alveolar	Palato-alveolar	Post-alveolar		
	plosives	p,b			t,d			k,g	
	nasal sonants	m						ŋ	
	fricatives		f,v	θ,ð	s,z	ʃ,ʒ			h
	constrictive sonants	w					r	j	
Affricates						tʃ, dʒ			

1. According to the active organ of speech consonants are divided into **labial** and **lingual**.

Labial consonants are further subdivided into:

a) **bilabial** (губно-губні). In the articulation of bilabial consonants the obstruction is formed by the two lips being brought together ([b], [p], [m], [w]);

b) **labio-dental** (губно-зубні). In the articulation of labio-dental consonants the obstruction is formed by the lower lip being pressed against the upper teeth ([f], [v]).

Lingual consonants are subdivided into **forelingual**, **mediolingual** and **backlingual**. In the articulation of **forelingual** consonants the obstruction is formed by the front part of the tongue. According to the position of the tip of the tongue **forelingual** consonants are subdivided into **apical** and **cacuminal**.

a) **Apical** (апикальні). In the articulation of apical consonants the obstruction is formed by the front part of the tongue including the tip of the tongue and by the alveoli or the upper teeth. Apical consonants are further subdivided into **dental** (зубні) ([θ], [ð]), **alveolar** (альвеолярні) ([t], [d], [n], [s], [z], [l]) and **palato-alveolar** (палато-альвеолярні) ([ʃ], [ʒ], [tʃ], [dʒ]).

b) **Cacuminal** and **post-alveolar** is the only sound [r]. In the articulation of [r] the tip of the tongue approaches the back of the alveoli.

In the articulation of **mediolingual** consonants the front part of the tongue is raised to the hard palate ([j]).

In the articulation of **backlingual** consonants the back of the tongue is raised towards the soft palate ([k], [g], [ŋ]).

In the articulation of the **glottal (pharyngeal)** [h] a narrowing of the air passage is formed between the root of the tongue and the back part of the pharynx.

2. According to the manner of production of noise (or the way of forming obstruction) English consonants are divided into **occlusive** (зімкнені), **constrictive** (щілинні), **affricates** (африкати).

a) In the articulation of **occlusive** consonants the active organs of speech form a complete obstruction. They are subdivided into:

plosives (вибухові) ([p], [b], [t], [d], [k], [g]), in the articulation of which the active organs of speech form a complete obstruction which is broken by the pressure of air and a kind of “explosion” is heard;

nasal sonants (носові сонанти) ([m], [n], [ŋ]), in the articulation of which the air passes through the nasal cavity.

b) In the articulation of **constrictive** consonants the organs of speech form a narrowing of the air passage. They are subdivided into:

fricatives (шумні) ([s], [z], [θ], [ð], [ʃ], [ʒ], [f], [v], [h]), in the articulation of which the air passes out with friction;

constrictive sonants (щілинні сонанти) ([w], [l], [r], [j]).

c) In the articulation of **affricates** the articulating organs of speech first form a complete obstruction and then they are slowly released forming a narrowing of the air passage ([tʃ], [dʒ]).

3. According to the work of the vocal chords consonants are subdivided into voiced (дзвінкі) and voiceless (глухі). Voiced consonants – [b], [d], [g], [ð], [z], [ʒ], [dʒ], [v]. Voiceless consonants – [p], [t], [k], [θ], [s], [ʃ], [tʃ], [f], [h].

4. In the articulation of the **nasal** consonants the soft palate is lowered and air passes out through the nasal cavity ([m], [n], [ŋ]).

Articulation of English Consonants

Consonant phonemes [k] and [g]

In pronouncing the English [k] and [g] the back of the tongue is raised to the soft palate. A complete obstruction is formed. Then the tension is released. The air breaks through the obstruction with plosion. In pronouncing the English [g] the vocal chords are made to vibrate. Thus, the English [k] may be defined as a backlingual, plosive, voiceless consonant phoneme. The English [g] is defined as a backlingual, plosive, voiced consonant phoneme.

Consonant phonemes [t] and [d]

In pronouncing the English [t] and [d] the tip of the tongue is pressed against the alveoli, forming a complete obstruction. The air breaks this obstruction with plosion. In pronouncing the English [d] the vocal chords are in vibration. The English [t] is aspirated especially before the stressed vowels. Thus, the English [t] may be defined as forelingual, plosive, voiceless consonant phoneme. The English [d] may be defined as forelingual, plosive, voiced consonant phoneme.

Consonant phonemes [p] and [b]

In pronouncing the English [p] and [b] a complete obstruction is formed by the lips. The lips are pressed together and the air breaks through this obstruction with plosion. In pronouncing the English [b] the vocal chords are in vibration. The English [p] is aspirated especially before the stressed vowels. Thus, the English [p] may be defined as bilabial, plosive, voiceless consonant phoneme. The English [b] may be defined as bilabial, plosive, voiced consonant phoneme.

Consonant phonemes [s] and [z]

In pronouncing the English [s] and [z] the tip and the blade of the tongue are raised to the alveoli. A round narrowing of the air passage is formed between the tip of the tongue and the alveoli. The air passes through this narrowing with friction. In pronouncing the English [z] the vocal chords are in vibration. Thus, the English [s] may be defined as a forelingual, alveolar apical,

fricative, voiceless consonant phoneme. The English [z] may be defined as a forelingual, alveolar apical, fricative, voiced consonant phoneme.

Consonant phonemes [f] and [v]

In pronouncing the English [f] and [v] the lower lip is raised to the upper teeth. The narrowing of the air passage is formed between the lower lip and the upper teeth. The air passes out through this narrowing with friction. In pronouncing the English [v] the vocal chords are in vibration. Thus, the English [f] may be defined as a labio-dental, fricative, voiceless consonant phoneme. The English [v] may be defined as a labio-dental, fricative, voiced consonant phoneme.

Consonant phonemes [θ] and [ð]

In pronouncing the English [θ] and [ð] the tip of the tongue occupies the position between the upper and the lower teeth (or the tip of the tongue is raised to the upper teeth). The air passes through the narrowing of the air passage formed between the upper teeth and the tip of the tongue with friction. In pronouncing the English [ð] the vocal chords are in vibration. Thus, the English [θ] may be defined as a labio-dental, fricative, voiceless consonant phoneme. The English [ð] may be defined as a labio-dental, fricative, voiced consonant phoneme.

Consonant phonemes [ʃ] and [ʒ]

In pronouncing the English [ʃ] and [ʒ] the blade of the tongue is raised to the hard palate. A narrowing of the air passage is formed between the tip of the tongue and the alveoli. The air passes out through this narrowing with friction. The lips are pushed forward. In pronouncing the English [ʒ] the vocal chords are in vibration. Thus, the English [ʃ] may be defined as a forelingual, post alveolar apical, fricative, voiceless consonant phoneme. The English [ʒ] may be defined as a forelingual, post alveolar apical, fricative, voiced consonant phoneme.

Consonant phonemes [tʃ] and [dʒ]

In pronouncing the English [tʃ] and [dʒ] the tip of the tongue is pressed to the back of the alveoli. Then the tip of the tongue proceeds to the position of the English [ʃ]. The narrowing of the air passage is formed between the front of the tongue and the back of the alveoli. In pronouncing the English [dʒ] the vocal chords are in vibration. Thus, the English [tʃ] may be defined as a forelingual, alveolar apical, affricate, voiceless consonant phoneme. The English [dʒ] may be defined as a forelingual, alveolar apical, affricate, voiced consonant phoneme.

Consonant phoneme [m]

In pronouncing the English [m] the soft palate is lowered. The air passes out through the nasal cavity. The front part of the tongue is lowered too. Thus, the English [m] may be defined as a bilabial, occlusive, nasal sonant.

Consonant phoneme [n]

In pronouncing the English [n] the tip of the tongue is pressed against the alveoli. The soft palate is lowered and the air passes out through the nasal cavity. Thus, the English [n] may be defined as a forelingual, occlusive, nasal sonant.

Consonant phoneme [ŋ]

In pronouncing the English [ŋ] the back of the tongue is raised to the soft palate. A complete obstruction is formed between the soft palate and the back of the tongue. The air passes out through the nasal cavity. The tip of the tongue is near the lower teeth. Thus, the English [ŋ] may be defined as a backlingual, occlusive, nasal sonant.

Consonant phoneme [l]

In pronouncing the English [l] the tip of the tongue is raised to touch the alveoli. The sides of the tongue are lowered and the air passes through the space which is formed between the sides of the tongue and the hard palate. The soft palate is raised. The vocal chords are made to vibrate. Thus, the English [l] may be defined as a forelingual, alveolar apical, lateral sonant.

Consonant phoneme [j]

In pronouncing the English [j] the central part of the tongue is raised to the hard palate. The tip of the tongue is lowered. A narrowing of the air passage is formed between the central part of the tongue and the hard palate. The soft palate is raised. The vocal chords are made to vibrate. The lips are neutral or a little spread. Thus, the English [j] may be defined as a mediolingual, palatal, constrictive sonant.

Consonant phoneme [w]

In pronouncing the English [w] the lips are protruded and rounded forming a small opening. The air passes out through this opening. The tip of the tongue is retracted from the lower teeth. The back of the tongue is raised to the soft palate. The vocal chords are in vibration. Thus, the English [w] may be defined as a bilabial, constrictive sonant.

Consonant phoneme [r]

In pronouncing the English [r] the tip of the tongue approaches the back of the alveoli. A spoon-shaped depression is formed in the front part of the tongue. The back of the tongue is raised to the soft palate. Thus, the English [r] may be defined as a forelingual, post alveolar, cacuminal, constrictive sonant.

Consonant phoneme [h]

In pronouncing the English [h] a narrowing of the air passage is formed between the root of the tongue and the back part of the pharynx. Thus, the English [h] may be defined as a pharyngeal, fricative, voiceless consonant phoneme.

13. SOUNDS IN CONNECTED SPEECH

Sounds in connected speech can undergo considerable changes under the influence of neighbouring sounds, stress and intonation. The main processes that reflect the change of the quality of sounds in the speech system are the following ones: a) reduction of vowels; b) assimilation of sounds; c) elision of sounds.

Sounds in connected speech can change their quality, quantity or even fall out when unstressed. This phenomenon is called **reduction**. We distinguish three degrees (types) of reduction:

1. **Quantitative reduction** is a change of the length of a vowel in an unstressed position, e.g. $[i:] - [i] \ [i]$.

2. **Qualitative reduction** is the change of the quality of a vowel in an unstressed position, e.g. $[fo:] - [fə]; [kæn] - [kən]$.

3. **Zero (complete) reduction** is the falling out of an unstressed vowel, e.g. $[kæn] - [kn]; [æm] - [m]$.

In English there are certain words which have two forms of pronunciation: 1. strong (full) form, when they are stressed; 2. weak (reduced) form, when they are unstressed. These words include articles, prepositions, auxiliary and modal verbs, some pronouns, conjunctions, particles, e.g. *He will be 'back at 'five.* $[hi \ wil \ bi \ 'bæk \ ət \ 'faɪv]$.

Strong and weak forms of the English functional words and some pronouns

Table 2

	STRONG FORMS	WEAK FORMS
The	[ðɪ:]	[ə] – (before consonants) [ɪ] – (before vowels)
A	[eɪ] – (before consonants)	[ə] – (before consonants)
An	[æn] – (before vowels)	[ən], [n] – (before vowels)
At	[æt]	[ət]
For	[fɔ:]	[fə]
From	[frɒm]	[frəm]
Of	[ɒv]	[əv]
To	[tu:]	[tə] – (before consonants)
Can	[kæn]	[kən], [kn]
Must	[mʌst]	[məst], [məs]
Shall	[ʃæl]	[ʃəl], [ʃl]
Do (auxiliary)	[du:]	[də], [də]
Does (auxiliary)	[dʌz]	[dəz]
Have (auxiliary)	[hæv]	[həv]
Has (auxiliary)	[hæz]	[həz]

Had (auxiliary)	[hæd]	[həd]
Be	[bi:]	[bɪ]
Am	[æm]	[əm]
Are	[a:]	[ə]
Was	[wɒz]	[wəz]
Were	[wɛ:]	[wə]
You	[ju:]	[jʊ]
He	[hi:]	[hɪ]
She	[ʃi:]	[ʃɪ]
We	[wi:]	[wɪ]
Some	[s^m]	[səm]
And	[ænd]	[ənd]
But	[b^t]	[bət]
Or	[ɔ:]	[ɒ]
As	[æz]	[əz]
To	[tu:]	[tə] – (before consonants) [tu] – (before vowels)

Words that preserve their strong form in an unstressed position

Table 3

To be (is, are) (as notional verbs)	[ɪz], [a:]
To do (do, does) (as notional verbs)	[du:], [d^z]
To have (have, has, had) (as notional verbs)	[hæv], [hæz], [hæd]
When, then (adverbs)	[wen], [ðen]
On, off, in	[ɒn], [ɒf], [ɪn]
Will (modal verb)	[wɪl]
That (demonstrative pronoun)	[ðæt]
Some (indefinite pronoun)	[s^m]

Sounds in connected speech within a word and at word boundaries undergo changes depending on the neighbouring sounds. The articulation of one sound may influence the articulation of a neighbouring sound so that both acquire similar features or even become identical. This phenomenon is called **assimilation**. According to its degree assimilation may be **complete** or **partial (incomplete)**. It is **complete** if the articulation of one sound changes entirely under the influence of another so that the articulation becomes identical.

e.g. *horse-shoe* [hɔ:fʃu:] (compare “horse” [hɔ:s] “shoe” [ʃu:])

Assimilation is **partial** if the articulation of one sound undergoes only certain changes under the influence of another, but the articulation is only similar.

e.g. *gooseberry* ['guzbəri] (compare “goose” ['gu:s] “berry” ['berɪ])

According to its direction assimilation may be **progressive** or **regressive**. In progressive assimilation the preceding sound influences the one following it. (A → B)

e.g. *What's this?* ‖ [ˈwɒts ðɪs] compare

What is this? [ˈwɒt ɪz ðɪs]

In regressive assimilation the preceding sound is influenced by the one following it.

(A ← B)

e.g. *newspaper* [ˈnjuːspeɪpə] (compare *news* [njuːz] *paper* [ˈpeɪpə])

Elision is the phenomenon of the complete loss of speech sounds which can be both vowels and consonants. This phenomenon is often found in English. As a rule, elision is minimal in slow literary speech and is widely manifested in quick conversational speech.

The examples of the **elision of vowels** are as follows: *phonetics* [ˈfnetiks], *fountain* [ˈfauntɪn], *symphony* [ˈsɪmfni]. The examples of **elision of consonants**: *jumped* [dʒʌmt], *lynx* [lɪŋs].

Complete loss of consonant in the quick conversational speech occurs in the following cases.

1) The consonant sound [h] very often can be lost in pronunciation of personal and possessive pronouns *he, his, her, him* and the forms of the auxiliary verb *have, has, had*. For example: *What has he done?* [ˈwɒt əz ɪ ðʌn].

2) [l] can be lost if it is preceded by [ɔ:]. For example: *always* [ˈɔ:lweɪz] – [ˈɔ:wɪz], *already* [ˈɔ:lredi] – [ˈɔ:redɪ].

3) A sound combination can lose the alveolar plosive consonants, if this sound combination is followed by a consonant sound. For example: *next day* [ˈneks ðeɪ], *just one* [ˈdʒʌs wʌn].

In very quick conversational speech the whole syllables can be omitted. For example: *library* [ˈlaɪbrɪ], *literary* [ˈlɪtrɪ].

Aspiration is a slight puff of breath that is heard after the plosion of a voiceless plosive consonant [p, t, k] before the beginning of the vowel immediately following. Aspiration is not heard in the following consonant clusters: [sp, st, sk].

When a word ending in the neutral sound [a:], [ɔ:] or [ɛ:] is followed by a word beginning with a vowel, the consonant [r] is often inserted at the end of it, joining it to the next word. When the spelling of the word ends in the letter “r”, the sound [r] is called the **linking [r]**.

reduction – редукція

quantitative reduction – кількісна редукція

qualitative reduction – якісна редукція

unstressed position – ненаголошене положення

strong (full) form – сильна форма

weak (reduced) form – слабка (редукована) форма

complete assimilation – повна асиміляція

partial (incomplete) assimilation – часткова асиміляція

progressive assimilation – прогресивна асиміляція

regressive assimilation – регресивна асиміляція

elision – елізія

elision of vowels – елізія голосних

elision of consonants – елізія приголосних

aspiration – аспірація

linking [r] – зв'язний [r]

Answer the questions:

1. What is reduction? 2. What degrees of reduction do you know? 3. When are the form words used in their strong (weak) form? 4. Which words can be used either in their strong or weak form? 5. What is assimilation? 6. What kinds of assimilation do you know? 7. What is elision? 8. What are the cases when the complete loss of consonant occurs in English? 9. What phenomenon is meant by aspiration? 10. What is linking [r]?

14. STRESS

Word stress is a greater prominence given to a syllable or syllables of a word in speech by phonetic means.

In English stress is dynamic, qualitative, quantitative and musical (i.e. English stressed and unstressed syllables differ in intensity, quantity, quality and pitch). Word stress in English may fall on any syllable, e.g. “*language*”, “*dic'tation*”, “*demon'stration*”, “*pronunci'ation*”. This type of stress is called free stress (compare it with fixed stress in Polish and French).

In word of two or more syllables one syllable is pronounced more distinctly and is said to be stressed. The other syllables in the word are pronounced less distinctly, they are unstressed. As a rule, in such syllables vowels change their quality, they become reduced. Stressed syllable is marked by means of the sign ' , which is placed before the stressed syllable: *busy* ['bizi], *again* [ə'gein].

In word of two or more syllables there are two degrees of stress. The stronger is called the primary (main) stress. The weaker is called the secondary stress, e.g. “*examination*”, “*conversation*” – [ig,zæmi'neɪʃn], [,konvə'seɪʃn].

Some words have the equally strong stress. They are: 1. the cardinal and ordinal numerals from 13 to 19; 2. compound adjectives: “*old-'fashioned*”, “*fair-'haired*”; 3. words with some prefixes: a) negative prefixes un-, in-, ir-, il-, im-, non-, dis-, under-, anti-, e.g. '*un'able*, '*incom'plete*, '*non-'final*; b) prefixes with different meanings (vice-, mis-), e.g. vice – “assistance”, mis – “wrong”, ex – “former”, re – “repetition”, pre – “before”, over – “too much”, half – “almost”, inter – among, ultra – “utmost”, e.g. '*vice-'chairman*, '*misunder'stand*, '*ex-'president*, '*re'tell*, '*pre-'war*, '*over'do*, '*half-'starved*, *international*, '*ultra'modern*; 4. in composite verbs: '*put'on*, '*take'off*.

The role of stress is extremely great as it can change the meaning of the word or its grammatical form, e.g.:

a 'black 'bird – a 'blackbird

a 'green 'house – a 'greenhouse

Word stress can differentiate various parts of speech:

Nouns:	Verbs:	Adjective:	Verb:
<i>'desert</i>	–	<i>de'sert</i>	<i>'frequent</i> – <i>fre'quent</i>
<i>'object</i>	–	<i>ob'ject</i>	

In English, as a rule, all semantically important words are stressed. They are: nouns, notional verbs, adjectives, adverbs, numerals, demonstrative pronouns, interrogative pronouns and absolute possessive pronouns.

Link, modal, auxiliary verbs, articles, possessive and reflexive pronouns, prepositions and conjunctions are unstressed.

There are special cases when usually unstressed words receive stress in a sentence under certain conditions.

1. Link, modal and auxiliary verbs are stressed:

a) at the beginning of a general or alternative question;

e.g. *'Is she a /teacher? || 'Must I 'read it /now | or 'shall I 'do it to\morrow? ||*

b) when they are followed by the contracted negative “n’t”;

e.g. *He 'isn't a \teacher. //*

c) in short answers to general and disjunctive questions;

e.g. *'Yes, he \is. //*

2. Personal and possessive pronouns are stressed in short answers to questions beginning with “who”, “which”, “whose”;

e.g. *'Who 'speaks \English? // \We do. || 'Whose \book is there? // \Mine is. //*

3. Reflexive pronouns used appositionally are stressed, e.g. *I my'self shall \do it.//*

4. Conjunctions are usually stressed at the beginning of a sense-group when they are followed by an unstressed word;

e.g. *'As it was 'very /far | we 'took a \taxi.//*

5. Many prepositions of two or more syllables standing before a pronoun at the end of a sense-group are stressed, e.g. *He 'went \after them.//* Prepositions of one standing before an unstressed pronoun at the end of a sense-group are usually unstressed but have their full form, e.g. *'Why are you \looking at [æt] them?||*

Stress has important semantic functions. The word which is the most important in the sentence is marked by logical stress while the words following it remain unstressed or half-stressed as they refer to something known.

e.g. *\I know it (not 'he or 'anybody \else)/*

The 'book is \in the bag (not 'on or \under it)/

phonetic means – фонетичні засоби

free stress – вільний наголос

fixed stress – нерухомий наголос

reduced – редукований

primary (main) stress – основний наголос

secondary stress – другорядний наголос

sense-group – смислова група, синтагма

Answer the questions:

1. What is word stress? 2. Name main characteristics of an English stress. 3. What words have equally common stress in English? 4. Why is the role of stress extremely great in English? 5. What parts of speech are usually stressed in an English sentence? 6. What parts of speech are unstressed? 7. Under what conditions usually unstressed parts of speech can receive stress? 8. What is meant by semantic functions of stress?

15. SYLLABLE FORMATION AND SYLLABLE DIVISION IN ENGLISH. RHYTHM

Syllable formation and syllable division in English

The **syllable** may be defined as one or more speech-sounds forming a single uninterrupted unit of utterance which may be a whole word (e.g. *man* [mæn], *I* [ai]) or part of it (e.g. *morning* [mɔ:-niŋ]). In English a syllable is formed by any vowel alone or in combination with one or more consonants and by a word-final sonorant (lateral or nasal) immediately preceded by a consonant.

For example: *are* [a:], *he* [hi:], *man* [mæn]

table [tei-bl], *taken* [tei-kn], *garden* [ga:-dn]

Sonorants in word-final position are not syllabic when they are preceded by a vowel sound (e.g. *sand* [sænd], *don't* [dount]).

The consonant standing between the vowels join the right-side syllable if it is preceded by a long vowel or diphthong. For example, *party* [pa:-ti], *native* [nei-tiv]. When the consonant is preceded by a short stressed vowel, the syllable ends after this consonant. For example, *better* [bet-ə], *sister* [sis-tə].

Answer the questions:

1. What is syllable? 2. How is syllable formed in English? 3. In what position are sonorants syllabic? 4. What are the main rules of syllable division in English?

Rhythm

Rhythm is a correlation in time of stressed and unstressed syllables in a sense-group. In English there is a tendency to alternate stressed and unstressed syllables at more or less regular (equal) intervals of time. Rhythm influences the length of vowels, word stress and sentence stress.

1. If there are many unstressed syllables in a sense-group they must be pronounced more quickly. The sounds in these syllables are somewhat shortened or reduced to their weak forms:

e.g. *I 'shouldn't have 'thought he could \do it.*||

I 'shouldn't have thought it 'possible to \do it.||

Compare the length of the vowel [ɔ:] in “thought” in these two sentences.

2. Under the influence of rhythm words with two stresses may lose one of them:

over-ripe ['ouvə 'raɪp]

an over-ripe apple [ən 'ouvəraɪp 'æpl]

examination [ɪg,zæmɪ'neɪʃn]

my first examination [maɪ 'fɜːst ɪgzæmɪ'neɪʃn]

3. Sometimes even grammatically important word influenced by rhythm may lose its stress in a sentence.

e.g. 'Jack and 'Jill went 'up the /hill|

To 'fetch a 'pail of \water||

'Jack fell 'down and 'broke his /crown|

And 'Jill came 'tumbling \after...

Answer the questions:

1. What is rhythm? 2. What is the most typical characteristic feature of English rhythm? 3. What does rhythm influence?

16. INTONATION

Intonation is a complex unity of variations in pitch (melody), stress, tempo and timbre. The pitch component (melody) is the changes in the pitch of the voice in connected speech. Sentence stress (accent) is a great prominence of one or more words among other words in the same sentence. Tempo is the relative speech with which sentences and sense-groups are pronounced in connected speech. Speech timbre is a special colouring of voice which shows the speaker's emotions.

In connected speech words are combined into sense-groups. A sense-group (syntagma) is a word or group of words organized syntactically and phonetically to express a thought-unit. Sense-group division depends on the meaning and structure of the sentence and the style of speech. The meaning expressed by a sense-group is not always complete. A sentence may consist of one or several sense-groups. Each sense-group is characterized by a definite intonation pattern. One sense-group is usually separated from another by a short pause indicated by a vertical line.

e.g. *It is \winter. \| 'Is it /raining? \|*

'Lesson 'six is \difficult, \| /isn 't it? \|

pitch – висота тону

timbre – тембр

tempo – темп

sense-group – смислова група, синтагма

intonation pattern – інтонаційна модель

vertical line – вертикальна лінія

Answer the questions:

1. What is intonation? 2. What are the main components of intonation? Define them.
3. What does the sense-group division depend on? 4. How is it indicated?

The Use of the Falling Tone

The falling tone in unemphatic speech is categoric and expresses completeness, assurance, finality and determination. It is used: 1. in statements (affirmative and negative sentences expressing a complete thought), e.g. *I 'felt \sorry. \|* 2. in special questions, e.g. *'What is your \name? \|* 3. in commands, e.g. *'Go a \way! \|* 4. in exclamations, e.g. *'That is 'very \interesting! \|* 5. in the second part of alternative questions, e.g. *'Do you 'study /English \| or \French? \|* 6. in the first part of

disjunctive questions (sometimes in the second too), e.g. *The 'text is \easy,| /isn't it?||* 7. in greetings on meetings, e.g. *'Good \morning!||*

The Use of the Rising Tone

The rising tone in unemphatic speech is uncategoric and expresses incompleteness, indetermination and doubt. It is used: 1. in general questions, e.g. *'Are you /tired? ||* 2. in statements which are grammatically finished but the sense of which is not complete, e.g. *She was /there...||* 3. in requests, e.g. *'Let me /go. ||* 4. in the first part of alternative questions, e.g. *'Shall we 'go 'home by /bus | or by \train? ||* 5. in the second part of disjunctive questions, e.g. *You are a 'first-year \student, | /aren't you? ||* 6. in sentences with enumeration (except for the last enumerated word), e.g. *'This is my \family: | my /wife, | my /son, | my /daughter and \I. ||* 7. in non-final sense-groups when they are closely connected with the following sense-groups, e.g. *When /angry| 'count a \hundred. ||* 8. on saying good-bye (parting), e.g. */Good-bye! ||*

completeness – завершеність

assurance – впевненість

determination – рішучість

statement – розповідне речення

affirmative – стверджувальний

negative – заперечний

request – прохання

alternative question – альтернативне запитання

disjunctive question – розділове запитання

commands – наказові речення, команди

exclamations – окличні речення

enumeration – перелік

Intonation of Different Types of Simple Sentences

According to the purpose of the utterance we usually distinguish four kinds of sentences:

1. The declarative sentences state the fact in the affirmative or negative form. In a declarative sentence the subject precedes the predicate. It is generally pronounced with the falling tone, e.g. *The 'weather in 'England can 'change 'very \quickly.||*

2. The interrogative sentence asks a question. It is formed by means of inversion, i.e. by placing the predicate (or part of it) before the subject. There are four kinds of questions:

a) general questions require answers “yes” or “no”. They are formed by placing the auxiliary or modal verb before the subject. They are usually pronounced with the rising tone.

e.g. *'Do you 'like /art?!*

If the predicate is expressed by the verbs “to be” or “to have” (possess) the question is formed by placing the predicate before the subject, e.g. *'Is he at /home?!* *'Have you 'many 'English /books?!*

b) Special questions begin with an interrogative word (When? Where? etc.). The order of words is the same as in general questions but the interrogative word precedes the auxiliary verb, e.g. *'Where do you \live?!*

When the interrogative word is the subject of the interrogative sentence or an attribute to the subject, no inversion is used (the order of words is that of a statement).

e.g. *'Who \lives here? 'Whose \book is on the shelf?*

c) Alternative questions indicate choice. The word order in the first part is the same as in general questions. The first part of the question is pronounced with the rising tone and the second part is pronounced with the falling tone.

e.g. *'Do you 'live in /town| or in the \country?!*

d) Disjunctive questions require the answer “yes” or “no”. They consist of an affirmative statement followed by a negative question (“tag”) or a negative statement followed by an affirmative question. The first part is pronounced with the falling tone and the second part – with the rising tone (if the answer is expected), e.g. *You 'speak \English,| /don't you?!*

If the answer is not expected (it is actually not a question) the second part is pronounced with the falling tone, e.g. *You are 'not \tired,| \are you?!*

3. The imperative sentence expresses a command, a request, an invitation, etc. Commands are pronounced with the falling tone, e.g. *'Stop \talking!!* Requests and invitations are pronounced with the rising tone, e.g. *'Open the /door!!*

4. The exclamatory sentence expresses some kind of emotion or feeling. It often begins with the words “what” and “how”. No inversion takes place. It is generally pronounced with the falling tone, e.g. *'What a 'lovely \day it is!!*

declarative sentences – розповідні речення

subject – підмет

predicate – присудок

attribute – означення

general questions – загальні питання

special questions – спеціальні питання

interrogative word – питальне слово

disjunctive questions – розділові питання

imperative sentences – наказові речення

exclamatory sentences – окличні речення

Answer the questions:

1. What are the main four kinds of sentences according to the purpose of utterance? 2. How many types of questions are there in English? 3. What is the intonation of general and special questions? 4. What is the intonation of alternative and disjunctive questions? 5. What can you say about the intonation of commands and requests?

17. INTONATION OF DIFFERENT PARTS OF AN ENGLISH SENTENCE

Intonation of Enumeration

In sentences with enumeration every enumerated word is pronounced with the rising tone except for the last one which is pronounced with the falling tone.

e.g. *There are 'many /theatres,| /cinemas,| /museums| and \libraries here.||*

Intonation of Adverbials

Adverbial phrases at the beginning of the sentence form a separate sense-group and are pronounced with the rising tone (as the non-final sense-group).

e.g. *In 'front of the /house| there is a 'green \lawn.||*

Adverbial phrases at the end of sentences do not form a separate sense-group, as a rule, and often remain unstressed.

e.g. *We are 'going \out tonight.||*

Intonation of Parentheses

Intonation of parenthetical words and phrases depends on their position in the sentence and the degree of semantic independence and importance attached to them. The speaker often uses these words and phrases in order to gain time for framing out his remark or they show the speaker's attitude (supposition, certainty, satisfaction, etc.). As a rule, at the beginning of the sentence parenthetical words and phrases form a separate sense-group and are generally pronounced with the rising tone.

e.g. *To 'tell you the /truth,| I 'don't 'want to \go there.|| /Well,| I \do.||*

They are pronounced with the falling or falling-rising tones if we want to attach more importance to them.

e.g. *By the \way,| I 'hear you are 'going a\broad this summer./*

When the speaker doesn't attach any importance to the parenthetical words and phrases at all, they do not form a separate sense-group and are often unstressed.

e.g. *'Well, I \do.|| Well, 'let's 'ask the \others.||*

In the middle or at the end of the sentence parenthetical words and phrases do not often form a separate sense-group and continue the melody of the preceding sense-group (being unstressed or half-stressed).

e.g. *You /know, of course,| he's my \brother. I'm 'not 'good at \languages, you know. ||*

Intonation of Direct Address

Intonation of direct address depends on its position in the sentence and on the style of speech. At the beginning of the sentence direct address forms a separate group, it is stressed and is pronounced with the falling tone in formal serious speech.

e.g. *'Ladies and \Gentlemen,| we must dis'cuss an im'portant \problem today. ||*

It is pronounced with the falling-rising tone to attract the listener's attention or in a friendly conversation.

e.g. *\Ma/ry,| 'come \here. ||*

In the middle or at the end of the sentence direct address does not form a separate sense-group and continues the melody of the previous sense-group (being unstressed or half-stressed). Sometimes it may be pronounced with the low-rising tone.

e.g. *'That's all /right, darling. || 'Good \morning, Mrs /Wood. ||*

Intonation of "Please"

Intonation of "please" depends on its position in the sentence. At the beginning of the sentence it is stressed but, as a rule, it doesn't form a separate sense-group.

e.g. *'Please, re'peat the 'nouns 'three \times. ||*

In the middle of the sentence "please" can be stressed or "unstressed" and it doesn't form a separate sense-group.

e.g. *'Will you 'please 'switch 'on the /tape-recorder? ||*

At the end of the sentence "please" is unstressed, it doesn't form a separate sense-group and is pronounced with the melody of the previous sense-group.

e.g. *'Will you 'read /louder, please? ||*

Intonation of "Thank you"

"Thank you" is pronounced with the rising tone to express formal politeness, e.g. */Thank you, Miss. Brown. ||*

“Thank you” is pronounced with the falling tone to express sincere gratitude, e.g. *You 'helped me 'so \much. \| Thank you!\|*

Intonation of Compound Sentences

Both clauses are usually pronounced with the falling tone if they are more or less independent and each expresses a complete thought. The first clause may be pronounced with the rising tone if the speaker wants to underline a close connection in meaning between the two clauses (non-final sense-group).

e.g. *Doctor 'Sanford's 'house is 'not \large,| but it is \comfortable.\|*

Intonation of Complex Sentences

The principal clause standing at the beginning of the sentence may take the falling or rising tone depending on the degree of semantic completeness of both clauses. It is usually pronounced with the falling tone.

e.g. *'Go to the \country| if you 'want to have a \rest.\|*

If the principal clause implies continuation and makes a separate sense-group it is pronounced with the rising tone.

e.g. *I'll 'tell him at /once| you 'want to \see him.\|*

If the subordinate clause precedes the principal one and makes a separate sense-group, it is usually pronounced with the rising tone as it implies continuation.

e.g. *If you 'want to have a /rest,| 'go to the \country.\|*

Intonation of the Author's Words

The author's words following the direct speech continue the melody of the preceding sense-group. They don't form a separate sense-group and are unstressed or half-stressed.

e.g. *"I'm 'not \ready," he said.\|*

Longer phrases may form a separate sense-group. In this case the author's words are stressed and are pronounced with the tone of the direct speech but on a lower pitch level.

e.g. *"I'm \sorry",| a'gain re'peated the \landlord.\|*

If the author's words form two or more sense-groups, the first of them doesn't form a separate sense-group. The second and the third are always stressed, pronounced on a low pitch level and the final sense-group is pronounced with the tone of the direct speech.

e.g. *“What a \pity!”*, *was all I said| when he 'broke a \glass.*||

The author's words introducing the direct speech form a sense-group and are usually pronounced with the falling tone or with the rising tone which is especially common for narration in reading aloud.

e.g. *He re'peated his \question: “Who 'told you \that?”*

He /said: “The 'play is \perfect”.

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