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THEORETICAL GRAMMAR OF ENGLISH

Теоретична грамати́ка англійської мови

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ВСТУП

Методична розробка з курсу «Теоретична граматики англійської мови» міст опорні конспекти лекцій з курсу, які допоможуть студентам покращити і систематизувати свої знання з теоретичної граматики англійської мови, а також розвинути навички англійської вимови.

Рекомендації складаються з 13 конспектів опорних лекцій. Після кожної лекції містяться питання не лише для перевірки отриманих знань і розуміння матеріалу, а й для пошуку додаткової самостійної інформації для поглиблення знань з теоретичної граматики. Завдяки цьому студенти навчаються як засвоювати запропоновану лекційну інформацію та ініціативно підходити до більш глибокого її опрацювання через практичні заняття.

Запропоновані для обговорення питання мають на меті заохотити студентів до дискусії, що сприяє розвитку комунікативних навичок та творчого мислення.

Lecture 1

Language and Speech Levels

Problems to be discussed

- language and speech levels
- primary and secondary levels
- units of levels
- the difference between language and speech

Language (Speech) is divided to certain strata or levels. The linguists distinguish basic and non-basic (sometimes they term them differently: primary and secondary) levels. This distinction depends on whether a level has got its own unit or not. If a level has its own unit then this level is qualified as basic or primary. If a level doesn't have a unit of its own then it is a non – basic or secondary level. Thus the number of levels entirely depend on how many language (or speech) units in language. There's a number of conceptions on this issue: some scientists say that there are four units (phoneme/phone; morpheme/morph; lexeme/lex and sentence), others think that there are five units like phonemes, morphemes, lexemes, word -combinations (phrases) and sentences and still others maintain that besides the mentioned ones there are paragraphs, utterances and texts. As one can see there's no unity in the number of language and speech units. The most wide – spread opinion is that there are five language (speech) units and respectively there are five language (speech) levels, they are: phonetic/phonological; morphological; lexicological, syntax – minor and syntax – major. The levels and their units are as follows:

1. phonological/phonetical level: phoneme/phone
2. morphological level: morpheme/morph
3. lexicological level: lexeme/lex
4. Syntax – minor: sentence
5. Syntax – major: text

Thus, non – basic or secondary level is one that has no unit of its own. Stylistics can be said to be non – basic (secondary) because this level has no its own unit. In order to achieve its aim it makes wide use of the units of the primary (basic) levels. The stylistics studies the expressive means and stylistic devices of languages.

“What then is a stylistic device (SD)? It is a conscious and intentional literary use of some of the facts of the language (including expressive means) in which the most essential features (both structural and semantic) of the language forms are raised to a generalized level and thereby present a generative model. Most stylistic devices may be regarded as aiming at the further intensification of the emotional or logical emphasis contained in the corresponding expressive means”.

When talking about the levels one has to mention about the distinction between language and speech because the linguistics differentiates language units and speech units. The main distinction between language and speech is in the following:

- 1) language is abstract and speech is concrete;
- 2) language is common, general for all the bearers while speech is individual;
- 3) language is stable, less changeable while speech tends to changes;
- 4) language is a closed system, its units are limited while speech tend to be openness and endless.

It is very important to take into account these distinctions when considering the language and speech units. There are some conceptions according to which the terms of “language levels” are substituted by the term of “emic level” while the “speech levels” are substituted by “ethic levels”. Veryoften these terms are used interchangeably.

The lowest level in the hierarchy of levels has two special terms: phonology and phonetics. Phonology is the level that deals with language units and phonetics is the level that deals with speech units. The lowest level deals with language and speech units which are the smallest and meaningless. So, the smallest meaningless unit of language is called phoneme; the smallest meaningless unit of speech is called phone. As it’s been said above the language units are abstract and limited in number which means that phonemes are abstract and that they are of definite number in languages. The speech units are concrete, changeable and actually endless. This means that language units (phonemes) are

represented in speech differently which depends on the person that pronounces them and on the combinability of the phoneme.

Phonemes when pronounced in concrete speech vary from person to person, according to how he has got used to pronounce this or that sound. In linguistic theory it is explained by the term “idiolect” that is, individual dialect. Besides, there may be positional changes (combinability): depending on the sounds that precede and follow the sound that we are interested in the pronunciation of it may be different, compare: *low* and *battle*. The sound “l” will be pronounced differently in these two words because the letter “l” in the first word is placed in the initial position and in the second word it stands after the letter “t”. So we face “light” (in the first word) and “dark” version (in the second case). These alternants are said to be in the complimentary distribution and they are called allophones (variants, options or alternants) of one phoneme. Thus allophone is a variant of a phoneme.

The second level in the hierarchy of strata is called morphological. There’s only one term for both language and speech but the units have different terms: morpheme for language and morph for speech. This level deals with units that are also smallest but in this case they are meaningful. So the smallest meaningful unit of language is called a morpheme and the smallest meaningful unit of speech is called a morph. The morphs that have different forms, but identical (similar) meanings are united into one morpheme and called “allomorphs”. The morpheme of the past tense has at least three allomorphs, they are. /t/, /d/, /id/ - Examples: worked, phoned and wanted. The variant of the morpheme depends on the preceding sound in the word.

The third level is lexicological which deals with words. Word may be a common term for language and speech units. Some linguists offer specific terms for language and speech: “lexeme” for language and “lex” for speech.

The correlation between “lexeme” and “lex” is the same as it is between “phoneme” and “phone” and “morpheme” and “morph”. “Lexeme” is a language unit of the lexicological level which has a nominative function. “Lex” is a speech unit of the lexicological level which has a nominative function.

Thus, both lexeme and lex nominate something or name things, actions

phenomena, quality, quantity and so on.

Examples: tree, pen, sky, red, worker, friendship, ungentlemanly and so on. An abstract lexeme “table” of language is used in speech as lex with concrete meaning of “writing table”, “dinner table”, “round table”, “square table”, and so on. There may be “allolexes” like allophones and allomorphs. Allolexes are lexes that have identical or similar meanings but different forms, compare: start, commence, begin.

To avoid confusion between “morpheme” and “lexemes” it is very important to remember that morphemes are structural units while lexemes are communicative units: morpheme are built of phonemes and they are used to build words – lexemes. Lexemes take an immediate part in shaping the thoughts, that is, in building sentences. Besides, lexemes may consist of one or more morphemes. The lexeme “tree” consists of one morpheme while the lexeme “ungentlemanly” consists of four morphemes: un – gentle – man – ly.

The next level is syntax – minor which deals with sentences. The term “Syntax – minor” is common one for both language and speech levels and their unit “sentence” is also one common term for language and speech units. The linguistics hasn’t yet worked out separate terms for those purposes.

The abstract notion “sentence” of language can have concrete its representation in speech which is also called “Sentence” due to the absence of the special term. Example: “An idea of writing a letter” on the abstract language level can have its concrete representation in speech: John writes a letter. A letter is written by John.

Since one and the same idea is expressed in two different forms they are called “allo – sentences”. Some authors call them grammatical synonyms. Thus, sentence is language and speech units on the syntax – minor level, which has a communicative function.

In the same way the level syntax – major can be explained. The unit of this level is text – the highest level of language and speech. “Syntax- major” represents both language and speech levels due to the absence of separate term as well as “text” is used homogeneously for both language and speech units.

The language and speech units are interconnected and interdependent. This can

easily be proved by the fact that the units of lower level are used to make up or to build the units of the next higher level: phones are used as building material for morphs, and morphs are used to build lexes and the latter are used to construct sentences. Besides, the homonyms that appear in the phonetical level can be explained on the following higher level, compare: - “er” is a homonymous morph. In order to find out in which meaning it is used we’ll have to use it on the lexicological level; if it is added to verbs like “teacher”, “worker” then it will have one meaning but if we use it with adjectives like “higher”, “lower” it will have another meaning. Before getting down to “the theoretical grammar” course one has to know the information given above.

Study questions

1. How is the word “level” translated into your mother tongue?
2. Why do we have to stratify language and speech?
3. What is the difference between primary and secondary levels?
4. Do all the linguists share the same opinion on the stratification of language?
5. How many basic or primary levels are there in language and speech?
6. What’s the difference between language levels and speech levels?
7. Are there special terms for language and speech levels?
8. What does phonetical – phonological level study?
9. What does morphological level study?
10. What does lexicological level study?
11. What does syntax – minor study?
12. What does syntax – major study?
13. Do the levels function separately in speech or they function as one body?
14. What is the function of the word “allo”?

Lecture 2

The Grammatical Structure of a Language

Problems to be discussed

- the meanings of the notion of “Grammatical Structure”
- the lexical and grammatical meanings
- the grammatical structure of languages from the point of view of general linguistics
- the morphological types of languages and the place of the English language in this typology
- the grammatical means of the English language
 - a) the order of words
 - b) the functional words
 - c) the stress and intonation
 - d) the grammatical inflections
 - e) sound changes
 - f) suppletion

The grammatical signals have a meaning of their own independent of the meaning of the notional words. This can be illustrated by the following sentence with nonsensical words: Woggles uggged diggles.

According to Ch. Fries the morphological and the syntactic signals in the given sentence make us understand that “several actors acted upon some objects”. This sentence which is a syntactic signal, makes the listener understand it as a declarative sentence whose grammatical meaning is actor – action – thing acted upon. One can easily change (transform) the sentence into the singular (A woggle uggged a diggle.), negative (A woggle did not ugg a diggle.), or interrogative (Did a woggle ugg a diggle?) All these operations are grammatical. Then what are the main units of grammar – structure.

Let us assume, for example, a situation in which are involved a man, a boy, some money, an act of giving, the man the giver, the boy the receiver, the time of the transaction

– yesterday...

Any one of the units man, boy, money, giver, yesterday could appear in the linguistic structure as subject. The man gave the boy the money yesterday.

The boy was given the money by the man yesterday. The money was given the boy by the man yesterday.

The giving of the money to the boy by the man occurred yesterday. Yesterday was the time of the giving of the money to the boy by the man. “Subject” then is a formal linguistic structural matter.

Thus, the grammatical meaning of a syntactic construction shows the relation between the words in it.

We have just mentioned here “grammatical meaning”, “grammatical utterance”. The whole complex of linguistic means made use of grouping words into utterances is called a grammatical structure of the language.

All the means which are used to group words into the sentence exist as a certain system; they are interconnected and interdependent. They constitute the sentence structure.

All the words of a language fall, as we stated above, under notional and functional words.

Notional words are divided into four classes in accord with the position in which they stand in a sentence.

Notional words as positional classes are generally represented by the following symbols: N, V, A, D. The man landed the jet plane safely

N V A N D

Words which refer to class N cannot replace word referring to class V and vice versa. These classes we shall call grammatical word classes.

Thus, in any language there are certain classes of words which have their own positions in sentences. They may also be considered to be grammatical means of a language.

So we come to a conclusion that the basic means of the grammatical structure of language are: a) sentence structure; b) grammatical word classes.

In connection with this grammar is divided into two parts: grammar which deals

with sentence structure and grammar which deals with grammatical word – classes. The first is syntax and the second – morphology.

W. Francis: “The Structure of American English”.

The Structural grammarian regularly begins with an objective description of the forms of language and moves towards meaning.

An organized whole is greater than the mere sum of its parts. (23), (30)

The organized whole is a structural meaning and the mere sum of its parts is a lexical meaning.

Five Signals of Syntactic Structure

- 1. Word Order** – is the linear or time sequence in which words appear in an utterance.
- 2. Prosody** – is the over-all musical pattern of stress, pitch, juncture in which the words of an utterance are spoken
- 3. Function words** – are words largely devoid of lexical meaning which are used to indicate various functional relationships among the lexical words of an utterance
- 4. Inflections** – are morphemic changes – the addition of suffixes and morphological means concomitant morphophonemic adjustments – which adopt words to perform certain structural function without changing their lexical meanings
- 5. Derivational contrast** – is the contrast between words which have the same base but differ in the number and nature of their derivational affixes

One more thing must be mentioned here. According to the morphological classification English is one of the flexional languages. But the flexional languages fall under synthetical and analytical ones. The synthetical-flexional languages are rich in grammatical inflections and the words in sentences are mostly connected with each-other by means of these inflections though functional words and other grammatical means also participate in this. But the grammatical inflections are of primary importance. The 12 substat languages are of this type.

The flexional-analytical languages like English and French in order to connect words to sentences make wide use of the order of words and functional words due to the limited number of grammatical flexions. The grammatical means – order of words – is of

primary importance for this type of languages.

Lexical and Grammatical Meaning

In the next chapter we shall come to know that some morphemes are independent and directly associated with some object of reality while others are depended and are connected with the world of reality only indirectly. Examples:

desk-s; bag-s; work-ed ...

The first elements of these words are not dependent as the second elements. Morphemes of the 1st type we'll call lexical and meanings they express are lexical.

The elements like -s, -ed, -d are called grammatical morphemes and meanings they express are grammatical.

Thus, lexical meaning is characteristic to lexical morphemes, while grammatical meanings are characteristic to grammatical morphemes.

Grammatical meanings are expressed not only by forms of word – changing, i.e. by affixation but by free morphemes that are used to form analytical word-form, e.g. He will study, I shall go.

The meaning of *shall*, *will* considered to be grammatical since comparing the relations of *invite – invited – shall invite* we can see that the function of shall is similar to that of grammatical morphemes -s, -ed.

Study questions

1. What do you understand by “grammatical structure of a language”?
2. What is the difference between synthetic and analytical languages?
3. What are the basic grammatical means of the English language?
4. Describe all the grammatical means of English.
5. Compare the grammatical structure of English with the grammatical structure of your native language?
6. What is the difference between lexical and grammatical meanings?

Lecture 3

The Morphemic Structure of the English Language

Problems to be discussed:

- what operation is called “Morphemic analysis?”
- language and speech levels and their corresponding units
- morpheme-morph-allomorph
- types of morphemes from the point of view of their:
 - a) function
 - b) number correlation between form and meaning.

There are many approaches to the questions mentioned above. According to Zellig Harris. “The morphemic analysis is the operation by which the analyst isolates minimum meaningful elements in the utterances of a language, and decides which occurrences of such elements shall be regarded as occurrences of “the same” element”.

The general procedure of isolating the minimum meaningful elements is as follows:

Step 1. The utterances of a language are examined (obviously) not all of them, but a sampling which we hope will be statistically valid. Recurrent partials with constant meaning (ran away in John ran away and Bill ran away) are discovered; recurrent partials not composed of smaller ones (way) are alternants or morphs. So are any partials not recurrent but left over when all recurrent ones are counted for. Every utterance is composed entirely of morphs. The division of a stretch of speech between one morph and another, we shall call a cut.

Step 2. Two or more morphs are grouped into a single morpheme if they:

- a) have the same meaning;
- b) never occur in identical environments and
- c) have combined environments no greater than the environments of some single alternant in the language.

Step 3. The difference in the phonemic shape of alternants of morphemes are

organized and stated; this constitutes morphophonemics. Compare the above said with the conception of Ch. Hockett.

Ch. Hockett (28):

Step 1. All the utterances of the language before (us) the analyst recorded in some phonemic notation.

Step 2. The notations are now examined, recurrent partials with constant meaning are discovered; those not composed of smaller ones are morphs. So are any partials not recurrent but left over when all recurrent ones are accounted for: therefore every bit of phonemic material belongs to one morph or another. By definition, a morph has the same phonemic shape in all its occurrences; and (at this stage) every morph has an overt phonemic shape, but a morph is not necessarily composed of a continuous uninterrupted stretch of phonemes. The line between two continuous morphs is a cut.

Step 3. Omitting doubtful cases, morphs are classed on the basis of shape and canonical forms are tentatively determined.

Step 4. Two or more morphs are grouped into a single morpheme if they fit the following grouping – requirements:

- a) they have the same meaning;
- b) they are in non-contrastive distribution;
- c) the range of resultant morpheme is not unique.

Step 5. It is very important to remember that if in this procedure one comes across to alternative possibilities, choice must be based upon the following order of priority:

- a) tactical simplicity
- b) morphophonemic simplicity
- c) conformity to canonical forms.

Thus the first cut of utterance into the smallest meaningful units is called morph. The morphs that have identical meanings are grouped into one morpheme. It means the morphs and morphemes are speech and language units that have both form (or shape) and

meanings. The smallest meaningful unit of language is called a morpheme while the smallest meaningful unit of speech is called a morph. There's a notion of allomorph in linguistics. By allomorphs the linguists understand the morphs that have identical meanings and that are grouped into one morpheme. There may be another definition of the allomorphs: the variants (or options, or alternants) of a morpheme are called allomorphs.

Compare the above said with Harris's opinion.

Some morphs, however, and some may be assigned simultaneously to two (or more) morphemes. An empty morph, assigned to no morpheme. (All the empty morphs in a language are in complementary distribution and have the same meaning (none). They could if there were any advantages in it, be grouped into a single empty morpheme (but one which had the unique characteristic of being tactically irrelevant), must have no meaning and must be predicable in terms of non-empty morphs. A portmanteau morph must have the meanings of two or more morphemes simultaneously, and must be in non-contrastive distribution with the combination of any alternant of one of the member morphemes and any alternant of the other (usually because no such combination occur).

The difference in the phonemic shape of morphs as alternants of morphemes are organized and stated; this (in some cases already partly accomplished in Step 1) constitutes morphophonemics.

In particular, portmanteaus are compared with the other alternants of the morphemes involved, and if resemblances in phonemic shape and the number of cases warrant, morphs of other than overt phonemic content are recognized, some of the portmanteaus being thus eliminated.

The Types of Morphemes

Morphemes can be classified from different view-points:

1. functional
2. number correlation between form and content

From the point of view of function they may be lexical and grammatical. The lexical morphemes are those that express full lexical meaning of their own and are associated

with some object, quality, action, number of reality, like: lip, red, go, one and so on. The lexical morphemes can be subdivided into lexical – free and lexical – bound morphemes. The examples given above are free ones; they are used in speech independently. The lexical-bound ones are never used independently; they are usually added to some lexical-free morphemes to build new words like- friend-ship, free-dom, teach-er, spoon-ful and soon. Taking into account that in form they resemble the grammatical inflections they may be also called lexical – grammatical morphemes. Thus lexical – bound morphemes are those that determine lexical meanings of words but resemble grammatical morphemes in their dependence on lexical – free morphemes. The lexical – bound morphemes are means to build new words.

The grammatical morphemes are those that are used either to connect words in sentences or to form new grammatical forms of words. The content of such morphemes are connected with the world of reality only indirectly therefore they are also called structural morphemes, e.g., shall, will, be, have, is, -Is, -Id and so on. As it is seen from the examples the grammatical morphemes have also two subtypes: grammatical – free and grammatical – bound. The grammatical – free ones are used in sentences independently (I shall go) while grammatical – bound ones are usually attached to some lexical – free morphemes to express new grammatical form, like: girl’s bag, bigger room, asked.

From the point of view of number correlation between form and content there may be overt, zero, empty and discontinuous morphemes.

By overt morpheme the linguists understand morphemes that are represented by both form and content like: eye, bell, big and so on.

Zero morphemes are those that have (meaning) content but do not have explicitly expressed forms. These morphemes are revealed by means of comparison:

ask – asks high -higher

In these words the second forms are marked: “asks” is a verb in the third person singular which is expressed by the inflection “s”. In its counterpart there’s no marker like “s” but the absence of the marker also has grammatical meaning: it means that the verb “ask” is not in the third person, singular number. Such morphemes are called “zero”. In the second example the adjective “higher” is in the comparative degree, because of the “-

er” while its counterpart “high” is in the positive degree, the absence of the marker expresses a grammatical meaning, i.e. a zero marker is also meaningful, therefore it’s a zero morpheme.

There are cases when there’s a marker which has not a concrete meaning, i.e. there’s neither lexical nor grammatical meaning like: statesman. The word consists of three morphemes: state – s – man. The first and third morphemes have certain meanings. But “s” has no meaning though serve as a connector: it links the first morpheme with the third one. Such morphemes are called empty. Thus empty morphemes are those that have form but no content.

In contemporary English there are cases when two forms express one meaning like:

He is writing a letter

Two morphemes in this sentence “is” and “ – ing” express one meaning: a continuous action.

Such morphemes are called discontinuous.

Thus there are two approaches to classify morphemes: functional and number correlation between form and content.

Study questions

1. What operation is called “morphemic analysis?”
2. What are the procedures for revealing morphemes suggested by Z. Harris and Ch. Hockett?
3. What is a morpheme?
4. What is a morph?
5. What is an allomorph?
6. What are the criteria to classify morphemes?
7. What morphemes do you know according to the functional classification?
8. What types of morphemes are distinguished according to the criterion of number correlation between form and content?

Lecture 4

The Grammatical Categories

Problems to be discussed:

- what is categorization
- what linguistic phenomenon is called a “grammatical category”?
- what is “opposition”?
- the types of grammatical categories.

More specifically the grammatical category is a system of expressing a generalized grammatical meaning by means of paradigmatic correlation of grammatical forms.

The paradigmatic correlations of grammatical forms in a category are exposed by the so – called “grammatical oppositions”.

The opposition (in the linguistic sense) may be defined as a generalized correlation of lingual forms by means of which a certain function is expressed. The correlated elements (members) of the opposition must possess two types of features:

common features and differential features. Common features serve as the basis of contrast while differential features immediately express the function in question.

The grammatical categories are better to explain by comparing them with logical categories. The grammatical categories are opposed to logical ones. The logical categories are universal for all the languages. Any meanings can be expressed in any language. For instance there’s a logical category of possession.

The doctrines mentioned above one – side approach to the problem. It is a rather complicated issue in the general linguistics. But unfortunately we don’t have universally acknowledged criteria to meet the needs of individual languages.

A grammatical category there must be the following features:

- general grammatical meaning;
- this meaning must consist of at least two particular meanings;

- the particular meanings must be opposed to each – other:
- the particular meanings must have constant grammatical means to express them.

Thus, any linguistic phenomenon that meets these requirements is called a grammatical category. English nouns have a grammatical category of number. This category has all the requirements that are necessary for a grammatical category:

1. it has general grammatical meaning of number;
2. it consists of two particular meanings; singular and plural;
3. singular is opposed to plural, they are antonymous;
4. singular and plural have their own constant grammatical means:

singular is represented by a zero morpheme and plural has the allomorphs like (s), (z), (iz). There are some other means to express singular and plural in English but they make very small percentage compared with regular means.

In English adjectives there's one grammatical category – the degrees of comparison. What features does it have?

1. It has a general grammatical meaning: degrees of comparison;
2. The degrees of comparison consist of three particular meanings: positive, comparative and superlative;
3. They are opposed to each – other;
4. They have their own grammatical means depending on the number of syllables in the word.

If in the category of number of nouns there are two particular meanings, in the grammatical category of degrees of comparison there are three.

Thus, a grammatical category is a linguistic phenomenon that has a general grammatical meaning consisting of at least two particular meanings that are opposed to each – other and that have constant grammatical means of their own to express them.

Study questions

1. Why do we categorize the grammatical meanings?
2. Is there one conception of grammatical categories that is shared by all the scientists or

are there many approaches?

3. Whose conceptions on grammatical category do you know?
4. What are the main requirements for the grammatical category?
5. Comment the grammatical categories of case of nouns; voice, aspect, order of verbs.
6. What types of grammatical categories do you know?

Lecture 5

The Parts of Speech

Problems to be discussed:

- brief history of grouping words to parts of speech
- contemporary criteria for classifying words to parts of speech
- structural approach to the classification of words (the doctrine of American descriptive School)
- notional and functional parts of speech

A thorough study of linguistic literature on the problem of English parts of speech enables us to conclude that there were three tendencies in grouping English words into parts of speech or into form classes:

1. Pre – structural tendency;
2. Structural tendency;
3. Post – structural tendency;

1. Pre – structural tendency is characterized by classifying words into word – groups according to their meaning, function and form. To this group of scientists H. Sweet, O. Jespersen, O. Curme, B. Ilyish and other grammarians can be included.

2. The second tendency is characterized by classification of words exclusively according to their structural meaning, as per their distribution. The representatives of the tendency are: Ch. Fries, W. Francis, A. Hill and others.

3. The third one combines the ideas of the two above-mentioned tendencies. They classify words in accord with the meaning, function, form; stem-building means and distribution (or combinability).

4. One of the central problems of a theoretical Grammar is the problem of parts of speech. There is as yet no generally accepted system of English parts of speech. Now

we shall consider conceptions of some grammarians.

H. Sweet's classification of parts of speech is based on the three principles (criteria), namely meaning, form and function. All the words in English he divides into two groups: 1) noun-words: nouns, noun-pronouns, noun-numerals, infinitive, gerund; 2) verbs: finite verbs, verbals (infinitive, gerund, participle)

I. Declinable Adjective words: adjective, adjective pronouns, adjective-numeral, participles

II. Indeclinable: adverb, preposition, conjunction, interjection

As you see, the results of his classification, however, reveal a considerable divergence between his theory and practice. He seems to have kept to the form of words. Further, concluding the chapter he wrote: "The distinction between the two classes which for convenience we distinguish as declinable and indeclinable parts of speech is not entirely dependent on the presence or absence of inflection, but really goes deeper, corresponding, to some extent, to the distinction between head – word and adjunct-word. The great majority of the particles are used only as adjunct-words, many of them being only form-words, while declinable words generally stand to the particles in the relation of headwords.

O. Jespersen.

According to 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 (with doubts as to the inclusion of "Verbids")
5. Particles (comprising what are generally called adverbs, prepositions, conjunctions-coordinating and subordinating – and interjections).

As it is seen from his classification in practice only one of those features is taken into consideration, and that is primarily form. Classes (1-4) are declinable while particles not. It reminds Sweet's grouping of words. The two conceptions are very similar.

Tanet R. Aiken kept to function only. She has conceived of a six-class system, recognizing the following categories: absolute, verb, complement, modifiers and connectives.

Ch. Fries' classification of words is entirely different from those of traditional grammarians. The new approach – the application of two of the methods of structural linguistics, distributional analysis and substitution – makes it possible for Fries to dispense with the usual eight parts of speech. He classifies words into four form – classes, designated by numbers, and fifteen groups of function words, designated by letters. The form-classes correspond roughly to what most grammarians call noun and pronouns (1st class), verb (2nd class), adjective and adverbs, though Fries warns the reader against the attempt to translate the statements which the latter finds in the book into the old grammatical terms.

The group of function words contains not only prepositions and conjunctions but certain specific words that more traditional grammarians would class as a particular kind of pronouns, adverbs and verbs. In the following examples:

1. Woggles ugged diggles
2. Uggs woggledubs
3. Diggles diggled diggles

The woggles, uggs, diggles are “thing”, because they are treated as English treats “thing” words – we know it by the “positions” they occupy in the utterances and the forms they have, in contrast with other positions and forms. Those are all structural signals of English. *So Fries comes to the conclusion that a part of speech in English is a functioning pattern.*¹ All words that can occupy the same “set of positions” in the patterns of English single free utterances (simple sentences) must belong to the same part speech.

Fries' test-frame-sentences were the following:

Frame A

Frame B The concert was good (always)

Frame C The clerk remembered the

Frame D tax (suddenly) The team

Frame E went there

Fries started with his first test frame and set out to find in his material all the words that could be substituted for the word concert with no change of structural meaning (The materials were some fifty hours of tape-recorded conversations by some three hundred different speakers in which the participants were entirely unaware that their speech was being recorded):

The concert

Was

Good food

Coffee

Taste

The words of this list he called class I words.

The word "was" and all the words that can be used in this position he called class 2 words. In such a way he revealed 4 classes of notional words and 15 classes of functional words.

These four classes of notional words contain approximately 67 per cent of the total instances of the vocabulary items. In other words our utterances consist primarily of arrangements of these four parts of speech.

We find another approach of those authors to the words of English. All the words are divided into two main classes:

notional words and function – words: connectives, determinatives

Function words are those which do not have full lexical meaning and cannot be used as an independent part of sentences. According to their function these words, as has been mentioned, are subdivided into connectives and determinatives:

1. connectives form phrases as to believe in something or as in the hall. To connectives authors refer: prepositions, conjunctions, modal and link verbs;

2. determinatives are words which define the lexical meaning of notional words (they either limit them, or make them more concrete). These words include articles and particles.

Lecture 6

The Noun

Problems to be discussed:

- nouns as a part of speech
- the grammatical categories of nouns
 - a) number
 - b) case
- the meaning of gender in Modern English
- gender and sex

In most cases in treating parts of speech in English we shall keep to the conception of scientists that we refer to post-structural tendency. It's because they combine the ideas of traditional and structural grammarians.

The noun is classified into a separate word – group because:

1. they all have the same lexical – grammatical meaning:
substance / thing
2. according to their form – they've two grammatical categories:
number and case
3. they all have typical stem-building elements:
- er, - ist, - ship, - merit, -hood ...
4. typical combinability with other words:
most often left-hand combinability
5. function – the most characteristic feature of nouns is – they can be observed in all syntactic functions but predicate.

Some words about the distribution of nouns. Because of the fact that nouns express or denote substance / thing, their distribution is bound with the words which express the quality of substance, their number, their actions and their relation to the other words /nouns/ in English.

When the quality of nouns are described we make use of adjectives:

big

red apple

energetic

crisis

a long,

dusty track and others.

When the quantity and order of nouns are described the numerals are to be used:
the six continents 25th anniversary 12 students....

When we denote the action of substances we make use of the verbs:

An apple-tree grows in the garden

Ukraine assisted

India in Mounting

Bokaro Steel Plant

When the relation of nouns to other words are described we make wide use of prepositions
a window of the school

to the park

at the construction of the bridge

In all these cases with the exception of verbs the noun is characterized with left-hand combinability / in overwhelming majority/. So far as to the verbs are concerned they may both precede and follow them.

The Number and Case in Modern English Nouns

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 -/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” children;
homonymous forms for both sing and plural: sheep – sheep
deer – deer swine – swine

This type of formation of plurality was a norm for the whole group of words in Old English, but in Modern English only some words have been preserved.

Non-productive type of number we find in some borrowed words from Latin and Greek, such as: datum – data

basis – bases /si:z/

memorandum – memoranda

crisis – crises /si:z/

formula – formulae /i: /

analysis – analyses /si:z/

These words form their plural as per the norms of Latin and Greek languages, though some of them form their plural according to English: formulas, memorandums.

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.

The lexical and grammatical morphemes of a word linked together so closely that sometimes it seems impossible to separate them. The relation between foot and feet, goose and geese, man and men is similar to the relation between.

Bag – bags; desk – desks

The examples above remind us the facts of the Arabic language. In this language lexical morphemes are usually consist of consonants. They are united with vocalic morphemes grammatical in character and occurring between consonants, e.g.,

Ktb

ktaab – a

book

kutub – books

katab – he wrote

kaatib – clerk

kattab – he dictated.

In these examples consonants Ktb are lexical morphemes as well as English f...t, g...s, m...n and so on. But there are two different things here to be distinguished. Arabic is a Semitic synthetic language while English is an Indo-European analytical one. If a discontinuous lexical morpheme is characteristic to the system of Arabic, for English it is an exception. English forms its plural forms by - /e/ s.

Some linguists consider the case as above as internal inflection inserted into a lexical one / -u- / and / - i : - /

/ as it is in Arabic / and others think of vowel change / u > i: /. To be consistent we'll regard nouns above as follows:

sing. Man – pl /man + s/ = men

The group of pluralia tantum is mostly composed on nouns which express things as objects consisting of two or more parts, e.g. trousers, scissors. Nouns like clothes, sweets must also be referred to pluralia tantum since they denote collective meaning. The – s, here is lexicalized and developed into an inseparable part of the stem. The suffix here is no longer a grammatical morpheme.

In compound nouns both the 1st and 2nd components may be pluralized: father-in-law / 1st /, suitcase / 2nd /, Manservant—menservants etc.

The Category of Case in Nouns

The problem of the number of cases in English has given rise to different theories which were based on the different ways of approaching the description of English grammatical structure.

Case is an indication of a relation in which the noun stands to some other word.

H. Sweet's conception of the number of cases in English doubtful. He is not sure whether in English there are five or two cases. He writes: "English has only one inflected case, the genitive /man's, men's/, the uninflected base constituting the common case / man, men /, which is equivalent to the nominative, vocative, accusative and dative of such a language as Latin".

As we see he is under a certain influence of the Latin grammar. If we treat the English language out of the facts of Latin, then we'll really have to acknowledge the existence of five cases. But the facts of English made Sweet identify only two.

O. Curme considers that of many case endings once used English has preserved only one, - *Ist* of the genitive. Apart from the genitive relation, these grammatical relations are now indicated by the position of the noun with regard to the verb or prepositions which have taken the place of the old inflectional endings / He distinguishes four cases:

1. Nominative-performs 3 functions:

subject, predicate and direct object

2. Accusative – performs 3 functions: object, adverbial modifier, predicate. The dog bit my brother /obj./

He stayed an hour /adverbial acc/I believed to be him /predicate/

3. Dative: When an action directed toward smb:

He makes coat for John.

4. Genitive: girl's ...

O. Jespersen distinguishes two cases: common and genitive. M. Bryant is of the same opinion:

H. Whitehall distinguishes two cases in nouns on analogy with the pronouns which can substitute for them: nominative and objective.

He says: "The so-called possessive case is best thought of as a method of transforming a noun into a modifier" ...

Study questions

1. What peculiar features of nouns do you know?
2. How many grammatical categories of nouns do you know?
3. What do you understand by regular and irregular formation of plural of nouns?
4. What means of irregular formation of plural meaning do you know?
5. Does English have the grammatical category of case?
6. What conceptions on the category of case do you know?
7. Is the category of case in English nouns is as stable as it is in your native language?
8. Is there a grammatical category of gender in English nouns?
9. What is the difference between the terms “gender” and “sex”?
10. Compare the gender meanings in English and your native language?

Lecture 7

The Adjectives

Problems to be discussed:

- the characteristic features of the adjectives as a part of speech
- the types of adjectives
- the grammatical category of degrees of comparison
- the means of formation of the degrees of comparison of adjectives
- general characteristics of this class of words
- the difference between pronouns and other parts of speech
- the personal pronouns
- the possessive pronouns
- the reflexive pronouns

The characteristic features of the adjective as a part of speech are as follows:

1. their lexical-grammatical meaning of attributes or we may say that they express property of things /persons/;
2. from the morphological view point they have the category of degrees of comparison;
3. from the point of view of their combinability they combine with nouns, as it has already been stated above, they express the properties of things. The words that express things we call nouns. It seems to be important to differentiate the combinability of a word with other words and reference of a word of a part of speech to another part of speech. We put this because adjectives modify nouns but they can combine with adverbs, link verbs and the word "one": a white horse. The horse is white.

The sun rose red. The sun rose extremely red.

4. the stem-building affixes are: -ful, -less, -ish, -ous, -ive, -ir, un-, -pre-, in-....;
5. their syntactic functions are: attribute and predicative

It is important to point out that in the function of an attribute the adjectives are in most cases used in pre-position; in post- position they are very seldom: time immemorial;

chance to come.

The category of comparison of adjectives shows the absolute or relative quality of a substance.

The Grammatical Category of Degrees of Comparison

Not all the adjectives of the English language have the degrees of comparison. From this point of view they fall under two types:

- 1) comparable adjectives
- 2) non-comparable adjectives

The non-comparable adjectives are relative ones like golden, wooden, silk, cotton, raw and so on.

The comparable ones are qualitative adjectives. The grammatical category of degrees of comparison is the opposition of three individual meanings:

- 1) positive degree
- 2) comparative degree
- 3) superlative degree

The common or basic degree is called positive which is expressed by the absence of a marker. Therefore we say that it is expressed by a zero morpheme. So far as to the comparative and superlative degrees they have special material means. At the same time we'll have to admit that not all the qualitative adjectives form their degrees in the similar way. From the point of view of forming of the comparative and superlative degrees of comparison the qualitative adjectives must be divided into four groups. They are:

1) One and some two syllabic adjectives that form their degrees by the help of inflections –er and -est respectively,

short – shorter – the shortest

strong – stronger – the strongest

pretty – prettier – the prettiest

2) The adjectives which form their degrees by means of root-vowel and final consonant change:

many – more – the most

much – more – the most

little – less – the least

far – further – the furthest (farther – the farthest)

3) The adjectives that form their degrees by means of suppletion

good – better – the best

bad – worse – the worst

Note: The two adjectives form their degrees by means of suppletion. It concerns only of the comparative degree (good – better; bad – worse). The suppletive degrees of these adjectives are formed by root – vowel and final consonant change (better – the best) and by adding “t” to the form of the comparative degree (in worse – the worst).

4) Many – syllabic adjectives which form their degrees by means of the words “more” and “most”:

interesting – more interesting – the most interesting

beautiful – more beautiful – the most beautiful

So far we have not been referring to the works of grammarians on the problem since the opinions of almost all the grammarians coincide on the questions treated. But so far as to the lexical way of expressing the degrees is concerned we find considerable divergence in its treatment. Some authors treat more beautiful, the most beautiful not as a lexical way of formation of the degrees of comparison but as analytical forms. Their arguments are as follows:

1. More and -er identical as to their meaning of “higher degree”;

2. Their distribution is complementary. Together they cover all the adjectives having the degree of comparison.

Within the system of the English Grammar we do not find a category which can be formed at the same time by synthetic and analytical means. And if it is a grammatical category it cannot be formed by several means, therefore we consider it to be a free syntactic unit which consists of an adverb and a noun.

As has been stated we do not think that there are two homonymous words: most – functional word; most – notional word.

There is only one word – notional /adverb/ which can serve to express the superlative degree by lexical means and since it's a free combination of three notional words any article can be used according to the meaning that is going to be expressed. The difference in the meaning of the examples above is due to the difference in the means of the definite and indefinite articles.

Study questions

1. What are the most important characteristic features of adjectives?
2. Why do we have to differentiate the qualitative and relative adjectives?
3. How are the comparative and superlative of adjectives formed?
4. What adjectives form their degrees by both inflections and words more and most?
5. Are there adjectives that form their degrees of comparison by means of suppletion?
6. What do you understand by substantivization?
7. Are the words “more” and “most” lexical or grammatical means when, they form the degrees of comparison of adjectives?
8. What adjectives form their comparative and superlative by root-vowel and final-consonant change?

Lecture 8

The Verb

Problems to be discussed:

- the characteristic features of verbs as a part of speech
- verbs are morphologically most developed part of speech
- the types of verbs
- the grammatical categories of verbs: voice, mood, tense, number and others.

Verb as a Part of Speech

Words like *to read*, *to live*, *to go*, *to jump* are called verbs because of their following features:

1. they express the meanings of action and state;
2. they have the grammatical categories of person, number, tense, aspect, voice, mood, order and posteriority most of which have their own grammatical means;
3. the function of verbs entirely depends on their forms: if they in finite form they fulfill only one function – predicate. But if they are in non-finite form then they can fulfill any function in the sentence but predicate; they may be part of the predicate;
4. verbs can combine actually with all the parts of speech, though they do not combine with articles, with some pronouns. It is important to note that the combinability of verbs mostly depends on the syntactical function of verbs in speech;
5. verbs have their own stem-building elements. They are: postfixes: -fy (simplify, magnify, identify...)
-ize (realize, fertilize, standardize...)
-ate (activate, captivate...) prefixes: re- (rewrite, restart, replant...)
mis- (misuse, misunderstand, misstate...) un- (uncover, uncouple, uncrown...)
de- (depose, depress, derange...) and so on.

The Types of Verbs

The classification of verbs can be undertaken from the following points of view:

- 1) meaning
- 2) form – formation;
- 3) function.

I. There are three basic forms of the verb in English: infinitive, past indefinite and PII. These forms are kept in mind in classifying verbs.

II. There are four types of form-formation:

1. affixation: reads, asked, going ...
2. variation of sounds: run – ran, may – might, bring – brought ...
3. suppletive ways: be – is – am – are – was; go – went ...
4. analytical means: shall come, have asked, is helped ...

There are productive and non-productive ways of word-formation in present-day English verbs.

Affixation is productive, while variation of sounds and suppletion are non-productive.

Notional and Functional Verbs

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 of lacking lexical meaning of their own. They cannot be used independently in the sentence; they are used to furnish certain parts of sentence (very often they are used with predicates).

Function verbs are divided into three: link verbs, modal verbs, auxiliary verbs.

Link verbs are verbs which having combined with nouns, adjectives, prepositional

phrases and so on add to the whole combination the meaning of process.

In such cases they are used as finite forms of the verb they are part of compound nominal predicates and express voice, tense and other categories.

Modal verbs are small group of verbs which usually express the modal meaning, the speaker's attitude to the action, expressed by the notional verb in the sentence. They lack some grammatical forms like infinitive form, grammatical categories and so on. Thus, they do not have all the categories of verbs. They may express mood and tense since they function as parts of predicates. They lack the non-finite forms.

Besides in present-day English there is another group of verbs which are called auxiliaries. They are used to form analytical forms of verbs. Verbs: to be, to do, to have and so on may be included to this group.

Regular and Irregular Verbs

From the point of view of the formation of the Past Tense verbs are classified into two groups: majority of verbs refer to this class.

Irregular verbs form their basic forms by such non-productive means as:

a) variation of sounds in the root:

should – would – initial consonant change

begin – began – begun – vowel change of the root

catch – caught – root – vowel and final consonant change

spend – spent – spent – final consonant change;

b) suppletion:

be – was / were go – went

c) unchanged forms: cast – cast – cast put – put – put

By suppletion we understand the forms of words derived from different roots.

There are following conditions to recognize suppletive forms of words;

1. when the meaning of words are identical in their lexical meaning.
2. when they mutually complement one another, having no parallel opposeemes.

3. when other words of the same class build up a given opposemes without suppletivity, i.e. from one root. Thus, we recognize the words *be – am, bad – worse* as suppletive because they express the same grammatical meanings as the forms of words: *light – lighter, big – bigger, work – worked*.

Transitive and Intransitive Verbs

Verbs can also be classified from the point of view of their ability of taking objects. In accord with this we distinguish two types of verbs: transitive and intransitive. The former type of verbs are divided into two:

- a) verbs which are combined with direct object: to have a book to find the address
- b) verbs which take prepositional objects: to wait for, to look at, talk about, depend on...

To the latter type the following verbs are referred:

- a) verbs expressing state: be, exist, live, sleep, die ...
- b) verbs of motion: go, come, run, arrive, travel ...
- c) verbs expressing the position in space: lie, sit, stand ...

As has been told above in actual research work or in describing linguistic phenomena we do not always find hard-and-fast lines separating one phenomenon from the other. In many cases we come across an intermediate stratum. We find such stratum between transitive and intransitive verbs which is called causative verbs, verbs intransitive in their origin, but some times used as transitive: *to fly a kite, to sail a ship, to nod approval ...*

The same is found in the construction “cognate object”: *to live a long life, to die the death of a hero ...*

The Grammatical Categories of Verbs

In this question we do not find a generally accepted view-point.

L. Bachynsky is distinguish only the following grammatical categories: voice, order, aspect, and mood. Further they note, that the finite forms of the verb have special

means expressing person, number and tense.

B. Birov: out of the eight grammatical categories of the verb, some are found not only in the finites, but in the verbids as well.

Two of them-voice (ask – be asked), order (ask – have asked) are found in all the verbids, and the third aspect (ask – to be asking) – only in the infinitive.

They distinguish the following grammatical categories: voice, order, aspect, mood, posteriority, person, number.

The Category of Voice

By the category of voice we mean different grammatical ways of expressing the relation between a transitive verb and its subject and object.

The majority of authors of English theoretical grammars seem to recognize only two voices in English: the active and the passive.

H. Sweet, O. Curme recognize two voices. There are such terms, as inverted object, inverted subject and retained object in Sweet's grammar.

The Inverted object is the subject of the passive construction. The Inverted subject is the object of the passive constructions.

The rat was killed by the dog. O. Jespersen calls it "converted subject".

But in the active construction like: "*The examiner asked me three questions*" either of the object words may be the subject of the passive sentence.

I was asked 3 questions by the examiner. Three questions were asked by the examiner.

Words me and three questions are called retained objects.

H. Poutsma besides the two voices mentioned above finds one more voice – reflexive. He writes: "It has been observed that the meaning of the Greek medium is normally expressed in English by means of reflexive or, less frequently, by reciprocal pronouns". It is because of this H. Poutsma distinguishes in Modern English the third voice. He transfers the system of the Greek grammar into the system of English. He gives the following examples: *He got to bed, covered himself up warm and fell asleep.*

H. Whitehall

This grammarian the traditional terms indirect and direct objects replaced by inner and outer complements (words of position 3 and 4) consequently. The passive voice from his point of view is the motion of the words of position 3 and 4 to position one. The verb is transformed into a word-group introduced by parts of *be*, *become*, *get* and the original subject is hooked into the end of the sentence by means of the preposition *by*.

The Grammatical Category of Mood

The problem of the category of mood i.e., the distinction, between the real and unreal expressed by the corresponding forms of the verb is one of the most controversial problems of English theoretical grammar. The main theoretical difficulty is due:

1) to the coexistence in Modern English of both synthetical and analytical forms of the verb with the same grammatical meaning of unreality and

2) to the fact that there are verbal forms homonymous with the Past Indefinite and Past Perfect of the Indicative Mood which are employed to express unreality. Another difficulty consists in distinguishing the analytical forms of the subjunctive with the auxiliaries *should*, *would*, *may* (*might*) which are devoid of any lexical meaning.

Opinions differ in the establishment of the number of moods in English. Below we'll consider views of some grammarians on the problem.

H. Sweet: "By the moods of a verb we understand grammatical forms expressing different relations between subject and predicate".

1. There are two moods in English which oppose to each other

Thought-form fact mood

The thought-form is divided into 3 moods:

1. conditional mood-the combination of *should* and *would* with the infinitive, when used in the principle clause of conditional sentences.

2. permissive mood-the combination of *may/might* with the infinitive.

3. compulsive mood-the combination of the finite form of the verb "to be" with the supine.

If it were to rain I do not know what shall we do.

G.O. Curme: "Moods are the changes in the form of the verb to show the various ways in

which the action or state is thought of by the speaker”.

He distinguishes three moods:

1. Indicative Mood. This form represents something as a fact, or as in close relation with reality, or in interrogative form inquires after a fact.
2. Subjunctive Mood. There are two entirely different kinds of subjunctive forms: the old simple subjunctive and newer forms consisting of a modal auxiliary and a dependent infinitive of the verb to be used.
3. The function of the Subjunctive is to represent something not as an actual reality, but as formed in the mind of the speaker as a desire, wish, volition, plan, conception, thought, sometimes with more or less hope of realization. The present subjunctive is associated with the idea of hopelessness, likelihood, while the past subjunctive indicates doubt, unlikelihood, unreality;

I desire that he go at once.

I fear he may come too late.

I would have bought it if I had had money.

Mood is the grammatical category of the verb reflecting the relation of the action expressed by the verb to reality from the speaker's point of view. The three moods: indicative, imperative and subjunctive are found in almost all the grammars of Ukrainian grammarians:

- in the indicative mood the speaker presents the action as taking place in reality;
- in the imperative mood the speaker urges the listener to perform some action.
- in subjunctive mood the speaker presents the action as imaginary.

As to the number of mood we do not find common opinion: O.Jespersen and some others speak of six moods (indicative, imperative, subjunctive I, subjunctive II, conditional and suppositional).

O.Jespersen argues against Sweet's definition of Mood; he writes that it would be more correct to say that mood expresses certain attitudes of the mind of the speaker towards the contents of the sentence.

O.Whitehall: “Although the subjunctive is gradually dying out of the language, English is rich in devices for expressing one's psychological moods toward happenings

that are imaginary”.

Other Categories of Verbs

Besides the already discussed categories of the verb, there are some other categories like aspect, order, posteriority, tense and others.

These categories are very often mixed up: most authors consider them within the tense category. To illustrate this we'll view the conception of Henry Sweet.

To H. Sweet there are three tenses in English. “Tense is primarily the grammatical expression of distinctions of time”.

Every occurrence, considered from the point of view of time, must be either past (I was here yesterday), present (he is here today), or future (he will be here tomorrow).

Simple and Compound Tenses: The present, preterite and future are simple tenses. All the perfect tenses are referred by him to compound tense. These tenses combine present, past and future respectively with a time anterior to each of these periods:
present perfect = preterite + preterite; pluperfect (past p.) = pre-preterite + preterite; future perfect = pre – future + future

Primary and secondary Tenses: He writes: “When we speak of an occurrence as past, we must have some point of time from which to measure it.

When we measure the time of an occurrence from the time when we are speaking, that is, from the present, the tense which expresses the time of the occurrence is called a primary tense. The present, preterite, future and perfect (the present perfect) are primary tenses.

A secondary tense on the other hand, is measured not from the time when we are speaking, but from some past or future time of which we are speaking and consequently a sentence containing secondary tense makes us expect another sentence containing a verb in a primary tense to show the time from which that of the secondary tense is to be measured. The pluperfect and future perfect are both secondary tenses.

He will have informed his friends by the time they (the quests) arrived. He had informed his friends when the quests arrived.

Complete and Incomplete Tenses. The explanation of this classification of tenses by H. Sweet is vague and confused because he mixes up the lexical and grammatical means, compare:

I have lived my life.

I have lived here a good many years.

The first is complete and second is incomplete. As one can see there's no difference in the form of verbs. He makes his division because of different distribution of the tense forms. But one point is clear in his conception. He considers continuous tense to be also incomplete as for instance:

The clock is striking twelve while. The clock has struck twelve. (complete)

Continuous Tenses are opposed to Point-Tenses: I've been writing letters all day. We set out for Germany.

Though even here we observe some confusion. Such examples are also considered to be continuous or recurrent:

He goes to Germany twice a year.

Definite and Indefinite Tenses: the shorter a tense is, the more definite it generally is in duration. Long times (continuous and recurrent) – are generally more indefinite: I write my letters in the evenings. I am writing a letter.

After-past time: I know of no language which possesses a simple tense for this notion. A usual meaning "obligation" in English most often is expressed by "was to": Next year she gave birth to a son who was to cause her great anxiety.

After future. This has a chiefly theoretical interest, and I doubt very much whether forms like I shall be going to rewrite (which implies nearness in time to the chief future time is of very frequent occurrence).

The Continuous tenses he calls expanded ones: is writing, will be asking, will have been asking ... or composite tense-forms.

The categories of tense, aspect and order characterize an action from different points of view.

The tense of a verb shows the time of the action; the aspect of a verb deals with the development of the action, while order denotes the order of the actions.

When discussing grammatical categories we accepted that a grammatical category is a grammatical meaning which has a certain grammatical means to be expressed.

The analyses of the following example will help us to make certain conclusions: *When you come he will have been writing his composition.* The predicates of the sentence are in the indicative mood. And, as has been stated, it is in this mood all the grammatical categories of the verb are expressed. The tense is future and it is expressed by the auxiliary word/verb *will*. The order is prior and it is expressed by the auxiliary verb *have* + *-en* or *-ed*. The aspect is continuous and it is expressed by the auxiliary verb *be* + *ing*.

Since all these categories have their own means we may call them grammatical ones. And as any category must have certain opposition (while defining the grammatical categories we defined it as “at least having two individual forms”).

The category of tense is orientated with regard to the present tense. The tense category is the system of three-member opposition. So the present tense may be called as the point of measurement or orientation point.

The category of order is a system of two-member opposition: prior and non-prior. Compare: I work – I have worked.

So the prior order marker *have* + *ed* is opposite to the zero of non-prior. As in English there are three tenses. This grammatical category can be expressed in all of them. Present: I work – I have worked. Past: I worked – I had worked. Future: I shall work – I shall have worked.

The category of aspect is a system of two-member opposition: Continuous – Non-continuous: I work – I am working.

To be – *ing* is the morpheme of the continuous meaning. This category is found in all the three tenses.

Present: I work – I am working

Past: I worked – I was working.

Future: I'll work – I'll be working.

The means of expression of these categories are arranged in a certain sequence. In the active voice they are arranged in the following way:

Tense is expressed in the first component of the predicate: order – in first or second

(second if it is in the future tense), aspect – in the second or third components. The order means always precede the aspect means if both are found in the predicate.

If the predicate is in the passive voice the tense is again expressed by the first component of it while the means of the passive voice follows the means of the aspect and order categories.

Note: In the future tense the passive meaning and the aspect (continuous) is incompatible.

Study questions

1. What are the most important features of verbs?
2. Why do some scientists say that verbs are “System of systems”?
3. Why do they say that verbs are morphologically most developed part of speech?
4. What are the criteria for classification of verbs?
5. What is the difference between finite and non-finite forms of the verb?
6. What verbs are called non-finite?
7. What verbs are called irregular?
8. How many basic forms of the verb do you know?
9. What is the difference between terminative and non-terminative verbs?
10. What is the difference between notional and functional verbs?
11. What functional verbs do you know?
12. What is the difference between auxiliary and link-verbs?
13. What are the peculiar features of modal verbs? Why are they called defective?
14. How many grammatical categories of the verb do you know?
15. Which grammatical category of the verb is the most intricate and why?
16. Do English verbs have the reciprocal and reflexive voices?

Lecture 9

The Adverb

Issues to be discussed:

- what words are called adverbs
- the types of adverbs
- the grammatical category of degrees of comparison
- about the constituents of phrasal verbs like “give up”

The adverb is separated into a special part of speech because of the following facts:

1. Meaning: they express the degree of a property, property of an action, circumstances under which an action takes place.
2. Form: they have the degrees of comparison.
3. Stem-building elements: -ly, -ways, -wards, ...
4. Combinability: bilateral combinability with verbs, adjectives, adverbs, less regularly with adlinks: e.g. He was hard asleep.
5. Function: Adverbial modifiers.

According to the meaning adverbs fall under three subclasses:

1. qualitative
2. quantitative
3. circumstantial

Qualitative adverbs usually modify verbs.

Adverbs like: badly, quickly, slowly, steadily, comparatively may be referred to this type of adverbs. They denote the quality of actions:

Ex: Clay collapsed on the sand beside Cathie, a wet arm playfully snatching her towel.

I want to go home, she said determinedly.

The Qualitative adverbs are derived from the adjectives by the help of productive adverb forming suffix –ly. Like adjectives the qualitative adverbs have distinctions of degree. These adverbs can both precede and follow the verbs.

Quantitative adverbs show the degree, measure, quantity of an action and state. To this subclass adverbs like *very, rather, too, nearly, greatly, fully, hardly, quite, utterly* may be referred. Ex. She had told herself before that it would be foolish to fall in love with Rob. And she had finally done it.

Her gaze trailed around the room again, stopping at the partially opened double doors that led into the parlour.

Some part of her was walking with him because of that strange, intimate look they had exchanged – a look that Cathie would rather forget, but warmth was too fresh. J. Daiby.

If the combinability of the qualitative adverbs is bound with verbs only the combinability of the quantitative adverbs are more extensive: they can modify verbs, the words of category of state, adjectives, adverbs, numerals and nouns.

Circumstantial adverbs serve to denote in most cases local and temporal circumstances attending an action.

Accordingly they are divided into two groups:

- a) adverbs of time and frequency /today, tomorrow, often, again, twice .../.
- b) adverbs of place and direction: upstairs, behind, in front of, ... Ex. They stood outside the door, giving me directions. Now and then they deliberately refused to jump up and find himself something to do when the unpleasant sensations clutched at him.
- c) She waited in front of the window and when he came down he thrust a small dark blue box into her hands. L. Wright

Thus, circumstantial adverbs denote the time and place the action took place. Therefore unlike the previous subclasses the circumstantial adverbs can occupy any position in the sentence.

Some circumstantial adverbs can have the degrees of comparison: often, late, near and so

on.

Special attention should be given to the fact that some circumstantial adverbs may be preceded by prepositions: from now on, up to now, from there and so on.

The So-Called Phrasal Verbs

One of the fundamental problems within the adverbs is the problem connected with such groups of verbs as: to give in, to get down, to dream about and so on. In most cases the meaning of such groups as above does not depend on the meaning of their components.

The thing here is: are

the second elements prepositions, adverbs or some other parts of speech? This problem has become acute in Modern English.

They are not adverbs because other adverbs do not fulfill such functions, i.e. they do not change the meaning of the preceding word; they are not postpositives, because postpositives in other languages do not serve to build new words, and at last they are not grammatical morphemes and consequently the whole group can not be a word since in English no discontinuous word is found as, for instance, bring them up. The word them breaks the unity. The problem remains unsolved. For the time being, the most acceptable theory is the theory expressed by B.A. Ilyish in his latest grammar. He refers them very cautiously, with doubts, to phraseology and thus it should be the subject-matter of the lexicology.

Some foreign Grammarians give different treatment to phrasal verbs. According to their opinion phrasal verb is an umbrella term for different kinds of multi – word verbs (including phrasal – prepositional and prepositional verbs). Such verbs are of typical and frequent occurrence in all types of English, but most especially in every day spoken English.

Phrasal verbs are often of particular difficulty experienced by learners of English. There are several reasons for this. One reason is that in many cases, even though students may be familiar with both the verb in phrasal verb and with the particle, they may not understand the meaning of the combination, since it can differ greatly from the meanings

of the two words used independently. The fact that phrasal verbs often have a number of different meanings adds to this complexity additional difficulty.

There are some particular grammatical problems associated with phrasal verbs. For example, there are restrictions on the positions in which an adverb can be placed in relation to the object of a verb. Some particles, such as *about*, *over*, *round* and *through* can be used as both adverbs and prepositions in particular phrasal verbs combinations, although in other combinations they are used either as adverb or preposition. Some phrasal verbs are not normally used with pronouns as objects, others are normally used with pronouns as objects.

There are other difficulties such as the fact that there are frequently strong collocation associations between phrasal verbs and other words. Thus, in some cases a particular word or small set of words is the only one normally found as the subject or object of a particular verb.

According to our classification all phrasal verbs fall under 3 main types (and 6 subtypes- from the viewpoint of verb transitivity):

1. free nonidiomatic constructions, where the individual meaning of the components are preserved as in look over (=inspect), set up (=organize). The individuality of the components appears in possible contrastive substitutions: *bring in* (out), *take in* (out) etc.

2. “Semi-idiomatic” constructions which are variable but in a more limited way. The relation between the verb and particle is similar to between a stem and an affix in form formation in that the substitution of one verb for another, or one particle for another, is constrained by limited productivity. In phrasal verbs like *find over* (“discover”), *cut up* “cut into pieces” the verb keeps its meaning, whereas the meaning of the particle is less easy to isolate. In contrast, it is the particle which establishes a family resemblance.

3. “Highly idiomatic” constructions such as *bring up*, *come by*, *turn up*. These are thoroughly idiomatic in that there is no possibility of contrastive substitution: *bring/down*, *come by /past/through*, *turn up/ down*, etc.

In such combinations there is no possibility of contrastive substitution: there are no pairs such as *bring up/down*, *put off/on*, *give up/down*, *give in/out*, etc. for this subclass.

The adverbial, lexical values of the particles have been lost, and the entire verb+particle combination has acquired a new meaning.

It is often said that phrasal verbs tend to be rather colloquial or informal and more appropriate to spoken English than written, and even that it is better to avoid them and choose single – word equivalents or synonyms instead. Yet in many cases phrasal verbs and their synonyms have different ranges of use, meaning, or collocation, so that a single – word synonym cannot be substituted appropriately for a phrasal verb. Single – word synonyms are often much more formal in style than phrasal verbs, so that they seem out of place in many contexts, and students using them run the risk of sounding pompous or just unnatural. Besides, these are phrasal verbs, like get away with and run of, which do not have one word paraphrases. Second, these are nonidiomatic combinations, such as go across (= cross), go past (=pass), and sail around (=circumnavigate) which do have such paraphrases.

The set of English phrasal verbs is constantly growing and changing. New combinations appear and spread. Yet these new combinations are rarely made on a random basis, but from patterns which can to some extent be anticipated. Particles often have particular meanings which they contribute to a variety of combinations, and which are productive; that is these fixed meanings are used in order to new combinations.

The Collins COBUILD Dictionary of Phrasal Verbs (45) list over three thousand combinations of verbs with adverbs or prepositions, explaining over five and a half thousand different meanings.

These are the combinations which are in common use in everyday modern English.

Study questions

1. What are the main features of adverbs?
2. Why the term “adverb” chosen to name this group of words?
3. What sub-types of adverbs do you know?
4. Do adverbs have any grammatical category? If the answer is positive which adverbs have it?

5. Why do some grammarians consider such verbal phrases as “give up”, “dream about” within the adverbs?
6. What is the main problem within this group of words?

Lecture 10

The Functional Parts of Speech

- the difference between the notional and functional words
- the different approaches of linguistics to this issue
- the ways of classifying of functional parts of speech

Now, when we have viewed all the notional words we may get down to the study of structural or functional parts of speech. To this group of words traditionally prepositions, conjunctions, articles and some auxiliary words are referred. Some scholars include adverbs, link-verbs, and even modal-verbs (Fries). It is important to consider the conceptions of some pre- structural grammarians.

H. Sweet (42) in the sentence “The earth is round” differs two types of words: full words and form words or empty words: earth and round are full words while the and is are form words. He states that the and is are “form words because they are words in form only ... they are entirely devoid of meaning”. Is does not have a meaning of its own but is used to connect subject and predicate. Thus though it has no meaning of its own, independent meaning, it has a definite grammatical function – it is a grammatical form-word. But “the” has not even a grammatical function and serves only to show that earth is to be taken as terrestrial globe and therefore it is a part of the word as the derivational prefix un – in unknown. In treating form-words by Sweet one of the most valuable point is the following his conception. He states that very often a word combines the function of a form – word with something of the independent meaning of a full word. To this type of words he includes words like become in he became a prime minister. As full word it has the meaning of “change” and the function of the form – word is. The above sentence consists of “He changed his condition + he is a prime minister”. Now his conception schematically may be shown as follows:

full words - intermediate stratum - form – word.

Facts like these bear the proof that it is difficult to draw a definite line between full

words and form words.

O. Jespersen: suggests that adverbs, prepositions, conjunctions and interjections should be called particles. He sees a parallel in the relation between an adverb and a preposition and the relation between intransitive and a transitive verb. According to his statement there is the same difference between the verbs in *He sings, He plays* and *He sings a song, He plays the piano*. “Yet in spite of these differences in verb no one assigns them to different part of speech. Therefore why we should assign to different parts of speech words like on and since.

Put your cap on (adv.)

Put your cap on your head (preposition); and I have not seen her since (adv.)

I have not seen her since I arrived (preposition)

Because of these facts they may be termed by one word, i.e. “Particles”.

Function Words – 1

Some words in English have no inflectional or derivational ending.

They are simply tools for putting other words together. They perform a function in the system – outside the system they have little or no meaning whatever. These words fall into categories determined only on the basis of their position in grammatical structures they enter into. They are referred to by the collective term function words. The categories of function words are often called closed classes because new ones are rarely, ever, added to them. The list of function words in English is firmly established.

The relationship of function words to form class is often linked to that of mortar and bricks.

Major Categories of Function Words – 1

1. Determiners:

Function words which signal nouns.

They never appear except when followed by a noun and invariably signal its coming: a,

the, an, possessive pr-ns

2. Auxiliary verbs:

have and be. Modals are subcategories.

3. Qualifiers:

work with both adj. and adv.: more and most, very, quite, rather, less (intensifiers)

Function Words – 2

4. Prepositions

5. Conjunctions:

work as coordination of linguistic forms of syntactic units having

6. Subordinators:

Connect dependent clauses and include words like: because, after, as well as relative pronouns

7. Interrogatives:

Operate in the formation of questions and include words like when, where, why, how and so on: as well as – the interrogative pronouns which, what, who.

Lecture 11

Syntax

Problems to be discussed:

- subject – matter of syntax
- syntax-minor and syntax-major
- the types of syntactical relations
 - a) coordination
 - b) subordination
 - c) predication: primary and secondary predication
- the types of syntactical relations according to the form of the constituents
 - a) agreement
 - b) government
 - c) collocation
- word-combinations and their types

The Subject – matter of Syntax

It has been mentioned above that 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.

The term “Syntax – minor” is common one for both language and speech levels and their unit “sentence” is also one common term for language and speech.

The abstract notion “sentence” of language can have concrete its representation in speech which is also called “sentence” due to the absence of the special term. Example: “An idea of John’s writing a letter” on the abstract language level can have its concrete representation in speech: John writes a letter. A letter is written by John.

Since one and the same idea is expressed in two different forms they are called “allo – sentences”. Some authors call them grammatical synonyms. Thus, sentence is

language and speech units on the syntax – minor level, which has a communicative function.

The basic unit of syntax – minor i.e. sentence often consists of some word -groups (or word -combinations):

The roundness of the earth is known all over the world.

1 .The sentence consists of two distinct word – combinations: “the roundness of the earth”and “is known all over the world”. The same word – combinations may be used without any change in other sentences. The teacher explained the pupils the roundness of the earth. This means that word – combinations can be studied as a separate unit.

2. In utterances there may be simple sentences like “It was dark”, “It began to rain”. Sometimes they may be joined together, depending on the intentions of the speakers, as for example:

- (a) It was dark, and it began to rain.
- (b) When it was dark, it began to rain.

Though the structure of constituting sentences are identical when they are joined together the structure of joined units (a) and (b) are different. This means that such units (which are traditionally called composite or compound/complex sentences) may be also studied separately.

Thus syntax – minor deals with simple sentences, with a smaller unit than the simple sentence i.e. word combinations and with the bigger unit than the simple sentence – composite sentences.

In the same way the level syntax – major can be explained. The unit of this level is text – the highest level of language and speech. “Syntax- major” represents both language and speech levels due to the absence of separate term as well as “text” is used homogeneously for both language and speech units.

The Types of Linguistic Relations Between Words

There are two types of relations between words in languages: paradigmatic and syntagmatic.

1) paradigmatic bond is a connection among the classes of linguistic units/words combined by the existence of some certain common features, e.g.

- a) asking, sitting, barking, sleeping (all these words have common *-ing* ending);
- b) ask, asking, asks, asked, has asked, be asked (in this case it is stem “ask” is common);

2) Syntagmatic connection is a bond among linguistic units in a lineal succession in the connected speech.

Syntagmatic connection between words or group of words is also called a syntactic bond.

Types of Syntactic Relations

One of the most important problems of syntax is the classification and criteria of distinguishing of different types of syntactical connection.

L. Barkhudarov (3) distinguishes three basic types of syntactical bond: subordination, co-ordination, predication.

Subordination implies the relation of head-word and adjunct-word, as e.g. a tall boy, a red pen and so on.

The criteria for identification of head-word and adjunct is the substitution test.

Example:

- 1) A tall boy came in.
- 2) A boy came in.
- 3) Tall came in.

This shows that the head-word is “a boy” while “tall” is adjunct, since the sentence (3) is unmarked from the English language view point. While sentence (2) is marked as it has an invariant meaning with the sentence (1).

Co-ordination is shown either by word-order only, or by the use of form-words:

- 4) Pens and pencils were purchased.
- 5) Pens were purchased.
- 6) Pencils were purchased.

Since both (5), (6) sentences show identical meaning we may say that these two words are independent: coordination is proved.

Predication is the connection between the subject and the predicate of a sentence. In predication none of the components can be omitted which is the characteristic feature of this type of connection, as e.g.

7) He came ...

1. He ...

9) ... came or

10) I knew he had come

11) I knew he

12) I knew had come

Sentences (8), (9) and (11), (12) are unmarked ones.

H. Sweet (42) distinguishes two types of relations between words: subordination, coordination. Subordination is divided in its turn into concord when head and adjunct words have alike inflection, as it is in phrases this pen or these pens: and government when a word assumes a certain grammatical form through being associated with another word:

13) I see him, here “him” is in the objective case-form. The transitive verbs require the personal pronouns in this case.

14) I thought of him. “him” in this sentence is governed by the preposition “of”. Thus, “see” and “of” are the words that governs while “him” is a governed word.

B. Ilyish also distinguishes two types of relations between words: agreement by which he means “a method of expressing a syntactical relationship, which consists in making the subordinate word take a form similar to that of the word to which it is subordinated”. Further he states: “the sphere of agreement in Modern English is extremely small. It is restricted to two pronouns-this and that ...” government (“we understand the use of a certain form of the subordinate word required by its head word, but not coinciding with the form of the head word itself-that is the difference between agreement and government”)

e.g. Whom do you see

This approach is very close to Sweet's conception.

E. Kris considers two types of word-groups: close and loose.

i. Close group – when one of the members is syntactically the leading element of the group. There may be verb groups like *running quickly*, *to hear a noise* and nouns groups:

King Edward, *my book*

ii. Loose group – when each element is comparatively independent of the other members: *men and woman*; *strict but just* and so on.

Thus, if we choose the terms suggested by Barov S., then we may say all grammarians mentioned here are unanimous as to the existence in English the subordination and coordination bonds

So when speaking on the types of syntactic connections in English we shall mean the three bonds mentioned.

As one can see that when speaking about syntactic relations between words we mention the terms coordination, subordination, predication, agreement and government. It seems that it is very important to differentiate the first three terms (coordination, subordination and predication) from the terms agreement and government, because the first three terms define the types of syntactical relations from the standpoint of dependence of the components while the second ones define the syntactic relations from the point of view of the correspondence of the grammatical forms of their components. Agreement and government deals with only subordination and has nothing to do with coordination and predication. Besides agreement and government there is one more type of syntactical relations which may be called collocation when head and adjunct words are connected with each-other not by formal grammatical means (as it is the case with agreement and government but by means of mere collocation, by the order of words and by their meaning as for example: *fast food*, *great day*, *sat silently* and so on).

Study questions

1. What types of linguistic relations between words do you know?
2. What relation is called paradigmatic?
3. What relation is called syntagmatic?

4. What is agreement?
5. What is government?
6. What is collocation?
7. Are there agreement, government and collocation in your native language?
8. What relation between words are called syntactic?
9. What relation is called predicative?

Word-Combinations and Their Types

Word-combination (or phrase) is a syntactically connected group of notional words within the limits of sentence but which is not a sentence itself. (3), Ilyish defines it as follows: “Phrase is every combination of two or more words which is a grammatical unit but is not an analytical form of some word (as, for instance, the perfect forms of verbs)” and further Ilyish writes that “the difference between a phrase and a sentence is a fundamental one. A phrase is a means of naming some phenomenon or process, just as a word is. Each component of a phrase can undergo grammatical changes in accordance with grammatical categories represented in it. Without destroying the identity of the phrase.”.

“With a sentence things are entirely different. A sentence is a unit with every word having its definite form. A change in the form of one or more words would produce a new sentence”.

But if one takes into consideration that any phrase is a constituent of sentences then it is difficult to accept Ilyish’s concept of phrases. Any change in the structure of a phrase may result the change in the sentence to which this phrase refers. In this case that sentence will become another sentence as per the concept of the author.

Following L. Barak’s conception we distinguish three types of word-combinations:

1. Subordinate phrases the IC of which are connected by a subordination bond: cold water, reading a book, famous detective, smoked fish, and so on.

Z. Co-ordinate phrases the IC of which are connected by a coordination bond: slowly but steadily; pen and pencils.

2. Predicative phrases the IC of which are connected by a predication bond: for you to go; breakfast over...

When he turned his head the two behind could see his lips moving.

But phrases don't always consist of two elements; their IC may contain more than oneword, as e.g. three black dogs

In the same phrase we find 3 words. IC are connected by a subordination bond. When IC of two or more membered phrases are connected by a similar bond we'll call elementary phrase, e.g. mighty entertaining story; teaching English Grammar: men, women and children... But very often certain phrases in their turn fall under some other phrases, IC of which are connected by different bonds, as it is in the phrase. Red and blue pencils.

Here we find subordination and coordination. Such phrases are called compound phrases, e.g. brought pens and pencils. Subordinate phrases may be of different types which depend on the part of speech the head word is expressed by

The Types of Co-ordinate Phrases

The coordinate phrases may be of two types: syndetically connected (free and happy) and asyndetically connected coordinate phrases (hot, dusty, tired out). In the structure of the first type, there's always a word that connects the constituents of the phrase while in the second type there's no connector.

The Types of Subordinate Phrases

The subordinate phrases are classified according to the head word. Thus there are noun phrases (cold water), verb phrases (saw a house), adjective phrases (extremely red) and so on.

The Types of Predicative Phrases

The predicative phrases fall under:

Infinitive predicative phrases: I asked him to stay. Gerundial predicative phrases: I saw him running.

Absolute predicative phrases: Everybody stood up, glass in hand.

As it is seen from the examples the types of predicative phrases depend on what non-finite form of the verb verbal part of them is expressed by.

Study questions

1. What is phrase (word – combination)?
2. What is the difference between a word and a phrase?
3. What is the difference between a word and a phrase and a sentence?
4. What conceptions on phrase (word-combination) do you know?
5. What are the criteria to distinguish the types of phrases?
6. What types of phrases do you know according to the syntactic relations between the constituents of phrases?
7. What types of phrases do you know according to the word-groups constituting phrases?

Lecture 12

Sentence

Problems to be discussed:

- definition of sentence
- the types of sentences according to the different grouping requirements
- the problem of one-member sentences
- the problem of elliptical sentences

There are many definitions of the sentence and these definitions differ from each other because that the scientists approach from different view points to this question. Some of them consider the sentence from the point view of phonetics, others – from the point of view of semantics (the meaning of the sentence) and so on. According to the opinion of many grammarians the definition of the sentence must contain all the peculiar features of the smallest communicative unit.

Some of the definitions of a sentence are given below.

“The sentence is the immediate integral unit of speech built up of words according to a definite syntactic pattern and distinguished by a contextually relevant communicative purpose”

The definitions which are mentioned above prove that A. Ilko is quite right when he writes: “The notion of sentence has not so far received a satisfactory definition”.

“A sentence is a unit of speech whose grammatical structure conforms to the laws of the language and which serves as the chief means of conveying a thought. A sentence is not only a means of communicating something about reality but also a means of showing the speaker’s attitude to it.

The train moved out of the city. Are you ready?

Put down the book.

Thus, concluding the above mentioned conceptions, we can say that in any act of communication there are three factors:

1. The act of speech;
2. The speaker;
3. Reality (as viewed by the speaker).

1) from the point of view of language are constant because they are found in all acts of communication;

2) they are variable because they change in every act of speech.

Every act of communication contains the notions of time, person and reality.

The events mentioned in the communications are correlated in time and time correlation is expressed by certain grammatical and lexical means.

Any act of communication presupposes existence of the speaker and the hearer. The meaning of person is expressed by the category of person of verbs. They may be expressed grammatically and lexico-grammatically by words: I, you, he...

Reality is treated differently by the speaker and this attitude of the speaker is expressed by the category of mood in verbs. They may be expressed grammatically and lexically (may, must, probably...)

According to the same authors the three relations – to the act of speech, to the speaker and to reality – can be summarized as the relation to the situation of speech.

The relation of the thought of a sentence to the situation of speech is called predicativity. Predicativity is the structural meaning of the sentence while intonation is the structural form of it. Thus, a sentence is a communication unit made up of words /and word-morphemes/ in conformity with their combinability and structurally united by intonation and predicativity.

Within a sentence the word or combination of words that contains the meanings of predicativity may be called the predication.

My father used to make nets and sell them.

My mother kept a little day-school for the girls. Nobody wants a baby to cry.

A hospital Nursery is one of the most beautiful places in the world. You might say, it's a room filled with love.

Thus, by 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 Types of Sentences

There are many approaches to classify sentences. Below we shall consider only some of the B. Ilko classifies sentences applying two principles:

- 1) types of communication. Applying this principle he distinguishes 3 types of sentences: declarative, interrogative, imperative.
- 2) according to structure. Applying this principle he distinguishes two main types of sentences: simple and composite.

Ch. Fries gives an original classification of types of sentences. All the utterances are divided by him into Communicative and Non-communicative.

The Communicative utterances are in their turn divided into 3 groups:

- I. Utterances regularly eliciting “oral” responses only:
 - A) Greetings. B) Calls. C) Questions.
- II. Utterances regularly eliciting “action” responses, sometimes accompanied by one of a limited list of oral responses: requests or commands.
- III. Utterances regularly eliciting conventional signals of attention to continuous discourse statements.

The most important oppositions within the limits of simple sentences are the following two:

1. Imperative (request) and non-imperative sentences.
2. Elliptical and non-elliptical sentences.

Summarizing the issue about the classification of sentences in the English language, we can say that this can be done from different points of view. But the most important criteria so areas 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 under 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.

Below we shall consider these types of sentence.

Types of Sentences according to the Aim of the Speaker

The declarative sentences: This type of sentence 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 (kernel sentences).

- they convey some statement. Maybe because of this fact these sentences are called declarative.
- they usually have the falling intonation
- usually they have regular order of words with no inversion.

Interrogative Sentences

Interrogative sentences differ from the declarative or imperative ones by some their 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:

Are we staying here? Where are we staying?

Besides, the first one has a special (rising) intonation pattern. The second one (wh-

question) has interrogative words. But the intonation pattern of wh-questions is identical with that of the affirmative sentences.

And it is important to point out that the interrogative sentences require answers (if they are not rhetorical ones).

Exclamatory Sentences

The peculiar features of these sentences are:

1. exclamatory sentences usually express some sort of emotion, feeling or the spirit of the person who pronounces it;
2. in their structure they have such introductory words as *what* and *how*: Ex. What a lovely night! How beautiful it is here!
3. they are always in the declarative form;
4. there's usually no inversion;
5. they are pronounced with a falling intonation;

Imperative Sentences

The imperative sentences are opposed to non-imperative ones because.

1. In imperative sentences the predicate is used in only one form-in the imperative one, while in non-imperative sentences predicate may be used in any form except the imperative.
2. In imperative sentences no modal verb is used.
3. The imperative sentences are most often directed to the second person.
4. The subject of the imperative sentences are almost always represented by the zero alternant of you, that is, elliptically.
5. The imperative sentences urge the listener to perform an action or verbal response.

The above said is quite sufficient to characterize the structure of imperative sentences to be specific and distinct from that of the structure of non-imperative sentences.

Elliptical Sentences

The problem of elliptical sentences has been and still is one of the most important and at the same time difficult problems of syntax.

The problem is solved by different linguists in different way. According to H. Krise's concept "Any noun that is used to call a person may be looked upon as a sentence, or a sentence-word.

Some words regularly form a sentence, such as "yes" or "no"; but they do so only in connection with another sentence. Words used in a sentence with subject and predicate may also be alone to form a complete sentence, but again in connection with another sentence only..."

As we stated above elliptical sentences are also the result of transformation of kernel sentences. Since transforms are derived from kernel sentences they must be considered in connection with the latter.

L. Barak looks upon the sentences like «Вечір», «ранок» and so on as two-member sentences. Really, if we isolate such utterances from the language system it will not be divisible. If an investigator wants to be objective he cannot neglect the language system. Any unit of any language is in interdependence of the other units of the language. Since the overwhelming majority of sentences are two-member ones. as the above-mentioned utterances are also two-member ones.

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:

One was from Maine; the other from California.

If you have no idea where Clive might be, I certainly haven't.

2. Paradigmatically restored elliptical sentence – 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, e.g.

Stop and speak to me. (Galsworthy) You listen to me, Horace. (Steinback)

One -member Sentences

“A sentence is the expression of a self- contained and complete thought”. Quite often the terms are applied to linguistic forms lack completeness in one or more respects. It will of course be readily agreed that sentences like “All that glitters is not gold” and “Two multiplied by two are four”, are formally and notionally complete and self-contained.

But in everyday intercourse utterances of this type are infrequent in comparison with the enormous number which rely upon the situation or upon the linguistic context – to make their intention clear.

In the extract Strove asked him if he had seen Strickland. “He is ill”, he said. “Didn’t you know?” – “Seriously?” – “Very, I understand”, to Fries “Seriously” is a sentence – equivalent. They all seem to be a complete communication. But it can not be denied that each of them, either through pronouns (he, him) or through omissions, depend heavily on what has been said immediately before it is spoken; in fact the last three would be unthinkable outside a linguistic context. Properly speaking, therefore, omissions must be said to effect connection between sentences.

Sentences with syntactic items left out are natural, for omissions are inherent in the very use of language. “In all speech activities there are three things to be distinguished: expression, suppression, and impression.

Expression is what the speaker gives, suppression is what the speaker does not give, though he might have given it, and impression is what the hearer receives”.

Grammarians have often touched upon omissions of parts of sentences. But it is difficult to find an opinion which is shared by the majority of linguists.

When considering the types of sentences some grammarians recognize the existence of two-member, one-member and elliptical sentences. The two-member sentences are sentences which have the subject and the predicate. However, language is a phenomenon where one cannot fore say the structure of it without detailed analysis.

There are sentences which cannot be described in terms of two-member sentences. We come across to sentences which do not contain both the subject and the predicate. “There’s usually one primary part and the other could not even be supplied, at least not without a violent change of the structure of the sentence”, Fire! Night. Come on!

Infinitive sentences are also considered to be one special type of one-member sentences. In these sentences the main part is expressed by an infinitive. Such sentences are usually emotional:

Oh, to be in a forest in May! Why not go there immediately?

A. Ilko states that these sentences should not be considered as elliptical ones, since sentences like:

Why should not we go there immediately? – is stylistically different from the original one.

By elliptical sentence he means sentence with one or more of their parts left out, which can be unambiguously inferred from the context.

Study questions

1. What linguistic unit is called a sentence?
2. What are the main features of sentences?
3. What theories on sentence do you know?
4. What is the difference between primary and secondary predication?
5. What criteria are used to classify sentences?
6. What do you understand by structural classification of sentences?
7. What do you understand by the classification of sentences according to the aim of the speaker?
8. What do you understand by the classification of sentences according to the existence of the parts of the sentence?
9. What is the difference between one- and two-member sentences?
10. What sentences are called elliptical?
11. What is “syntagmatically restored” and “paradigmatically restored” elliptical sentences?

Lecture 13

Composite Sentences

Problems to be discussed:

- the difference between simple and composite sentences
- the types of composite sentences:
 - a) compound
 - d) complex
 - c) mixed (compound-complex) sentences

The word “composite” is used by H. Poutsma as a common term for both the compound and complex sentences.

There are three types of composite sentences in Modern English:

1. The compound sentence contains two or more independent clauses with no dependent one.
2. The complex sentence contains one dependent clause and one or more independent clauses. The latter usually tells something about the main clause and is used as a part of speech or as a part of sentence.

J. The compound-complex sentence combines the two previous types. The compound-complex sentences are those which have at least two independent clauses and at least one dependent (subordinate) clause in its structure: Blair found herself smiling at him and she took the letter he held out to her.

That there are three types of composite sentences in languages is contemporary approach to this issue. Historically not all the grammarians were unanimous in this respect. According to it H. Sweet (42) there are structurally two types of sentences: simple and complex.

“Two or more sentences may be joined together to form a single complex sentence ... In every complex there is one independent clause, called the principal clause together with at least one dependent clause, which stands in the relation of adjunct to the principal

clause. The dependent clause may be either coordinate or subordinate”.

As one can see in H. Sweets conception there's no place for compound sentences since even so-called “co-complex” there's subordination.

In this paper we shall classify the composite sentences into three types as has been mentioned above.

Compound Sentences

The compound sentence was not felt to be a sentence proper. There were at least three methods, as L. Iophic states, employed by the grammarians to find a way out of this difficulty: to explain it away by the complete independence and the possibility of isolating each member of a compound sentence without any change of its meaning or intonation; by employing new terms to express more exactly the grammatical peculiarity of this combination of sentences. The terms “double”, “triple” and “multiple” sentences were used by Kris in “A Hand-book of Present day English” and H.R. Stokoe by excluding this concept from the structural classification of sentences.

The analysis of compound sentences show that clauses of a compound sentence are usually connected more closely than independent sentences. According to M. Vite “in these sentences the clauses are arranged as units of syntactically equal rank, i.e. equipotent”. But more close examination of these type of sentences shows that:

1. The order of clauses is fixed.

1.1. He came at six and we had dinner together.

1.2. The two women understood one another very well, but Paul seemed to be left outside this conversation.

1.3. Every drawer in every room had been taken out, the contents spilled, the bed had been ripped apart, pictures were off their hooks and (they) were lying on the floor.

One cannot change order of the clauses in these sentences.

2. Between clauses of compound sentences there exist certain semantic relations. And these relations are defined by conjunctions and connectives:

2.1. Harmony or agreement (copulative relation):

Her lips trembled and she put up her hand as if to steady them with her fingers.

2.2. Contrast or opposition. This relation is usually expressed by adversative conjunctions but, yet: The conjunctions are not numerous but they are of very frequent occurrence.

2.3. The choice or alternation (disjunctive conjunction- or): Is that historically true or is it not?

2.4. Reason or consequence (or conclusion) for, so... E.g.

He had apparently been working, for the table was littered with papers. There's no car available, so I shall go on foot.

Complex Sentences

Linguists explain the complex sentences as units of unequal rank, one being categorically dominated by the other. In terms of the positional structure of the sentence it means that by subordination one of the clauses (subordinate) is placed in a dependent position of the other (principal). This latter characteristic has an essential semantic implication clarifying the difference between the two types, of polypredication in question. As a matter of fact, a subordinate clause, however important the information rendered by it might be for the whole communication, presents it as naturally supplementing the information of the principal clause, i.e. as something completely premeditated and prepared even before its explicit expression in the utterance.

The Types of Complex Sentences

The subordinate clauses are classified according to the two criteria: meaning and combinability. The clauses of a complex sentence form the unity, a simple sentence in which some part is replaced by a clause.

The subject clauses are used in the function of a primary part of the sentence. The peculiarity of the subject clause is its inseparability from the principal clause. It is

synsemantic; it can't be cut off from the rest of the sentence.

What he says is true.

The predicative clause fulfills the function of the notional predicate (the function of the predicative).

e.g. The thing is what we should do the next.

The Adverbial clauses serve to express a variety of adverbial relations:

action quality. Mike acted as though nothing had happened.

=manner. Everybody should love her as he did.

Some more complex sentences:

What the newspapers say may be false (subject clause). I don't remember what his name is. (object)

He thought that it might well be. (object)

The lot that is on the corner needs moving. (attributive) He is a man whom I have always admired. (attributive)

When Bill decided to leave, everyone expressed regret. (adverbial clause of time)

The Structural Approach to Composite Sentences

One of the representatives of structural linguists Ch. Fries considers two kinds of composite sentences: sequence sentences and included sentences. The sequence sentences consist of situation sentence and sequence sentence. Example:

1. The government has set up an agency called Future builders.
2. It has a certain amount of fund to make loans to social enterprises.

These two sentences are connected with each-other. The first sentence is a situation sentence and the second one is a sequence sentence since it develops the idea of the situation sentence.

In the following example "*The biggest loan has gone to M. Trust, which runs a school for handicapped children.*" There are also two sentences included into one but they are not separated by a period (full stop).

Thus, in both cases there are certain signals that serve to connect the constituents, they are “if” in the sequence sentence and “which” – in the included one.

The most significant difference between these function words as signals of “inclusion” and the forms given above as signals of sequence lies in the fact that these function words of inclusion at the beginning of a sentence look forward to a coming sentence unit, while the signals of sequence look backward to the preceding sentence unit.

When sentence units are included in larger units they can fulfill a variety of structural functions. In the structure of the larger sentence unit in which they are included they often operate as a single unit substitutable for one of the single part of the speech.

C.H. Fries, as we see, makes an attempt to reject the traditional classification and terms. He substitutes for the traditional doctrine his theory of included sentences and sequences of sentences. His attitude towards the traditional concept of the compound sentence is primarily a matter of the punctuation of written texts.

Study questions

1. What does the term “composite” mean?
2. What types of composite sentences do you know?
3. Specify the compound, complex and mixed type of composite sentences.
4. What are the problems connected with compound sentences?
5. How are the complex sentences are classified?
6. What does H. Sweet mean by “co-complex” and “sub- complex”?
7. What is the structural approach to the problem of composite sentences?

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