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**MORPHOLOGY AND SYNTAX
OF MODERN ENGLISH**

**МОРФОЛОГИЯ И СИНТАКСИС
СОВРЕМЕННОГО АНГЛИЙСКОГО ЯЗЫКА**

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Учебное пособие включает обзор теоретических вопросов грамматики современного английского языка, обзорные вопросы, глоссарий и список источников. Цель настоящего пособия – обеспечить студентов материалом для самостоятельной работы, подготовки к практическим занятиям и экзамену по дисциплине «Теоретическая грамматика».

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УСЛОВНЫЕ ОБОЗНАЧЕНИЯ

-  – issues to consider / изучаемые темы.
 – recommendations: questions for study, sources / методические рекомендации: вопросы к занятию, теоретические источники.
 – Theory sources / теоретические источники.
 – Check questions / контрольные вопросы.

СОКРАЩЕНИЯ

- AD – anno domino
Adj. – adjective
Adv. – adverb
art. – article
aux. – auxiliary
B.C. – before Christ
Ex., E.g. – for example
ME – Middle English
Mod. E. – Modern English
N. – noun
NE – New English
NG – nominative group
Num. – numeral
OE – Old English
pl. – plural
prep. – preposition
prn – pronoun
sg – singular
SVO – subject, verb, object
V – verb

ПРЕДИСЛОВИЕ

Изучение теоретической грамматики является важной частью профессиональной подготовки лингвистов, поскольку дает основу понимания структуры языка, его развития и организации, позволяет приступить к решению профессиональных задач в сфере лингвистики. В частности, это самостоятельное научное исследование грамматической организации речи, осуществление грамматически правильного перевода, понимание синтаксически осложненных высказываний и др.

Грамматика как наука имеет давнюю историю. Традиционная грамматика была первоначально основана на европейских языках, особенно на латинском и греческом. Это самая распространенная грамматика, она широко используется в преподавании языков. В то время как традиционная грамматика хорошо разработана, современные лингвисты отмечают ряд слабых сторон традиционных подходов к рассмотрению грамматического строя языка.

Исследователи XX–XXI веков были особенно активны в изучении новых аспектов грамматики: изучении речи, социальных и когнитивных функций языка. Хотя эти подходы нашли отражение в учебниках и учебных пособиях по теоретической грамматике, но, тем не менее, существует необходимость систематизации различных грамматических теорий, существующих на данный момент развития лингвистики. Это позволяет студентам выбрать наиболее адекватную и современную методику исследования грамматического аспекта языка и речи в процессе профессиональной подготовки.

Особо следует отметить связь теоретической грамматики с теорией перевода. Помимо изучения грамматических аспектов перевода грамматическая теория предложила ряд принципиальных подходов к исследованию языка. В частности, теория переводческих преобразований выросла из трансформационной грамматики. В пособиях по теоретической грамматике в основном не учитывается переводческая направленность профессиональной подготовки и не уделяется особое внимание этим теориям.

Все вышесказанное обуславливает необходимость издания учебного пособия, которое могло бы отвечать указанным требованиям к современной профессиональной подготовке лингвистов-перевод-

чиков. В настоящем пособии сделана попытка систематизировать самые современные теории изучения теоретической грамматики. Особое внимание уделяется современному речевому материалу, который позволяет проиллюстрировать самые последние тенденции в развитии грамматики английского языка.

Данное пособие предназначено для студентов бакалавриата, обучающихся по направлению подготовки высшего профессионального образования 45.02.03 «Лингвистика» для изучения дисциплины «Теоретическая грамматика».

Цель настоящего пособия – обеспечить студентов материалом для самостоятельной работы, подготовки к семинарским занятиям и экзамену по теоретической грамматике.

Дисциплина «Теоретическая грамматика» знакомит студентов с основными направлениями в изучении грамматики английского языка, методами исследования грамматических характеристик лингвистических единиц, а также дает студентам представление о функциональном и переводческом аспектах теоретической грамматики.

Цель дисциплины – систематизировать знания по теоретической морфологии и синтаксису и сформировать навыки прикладных методов исследования грамматического аспекта языка и речи.

Дисциплина призвана ознакомить студентов с тенденциями современной грамматики; сформировать системное представление об истории, развитии и структуре английской грамматики; сформировать навыки анализа и систематизации научного материала.

Дисциплина основывается на теоретических знаниях, полученных студентами по курсам теоретической фонетики, грамматики и лексикологии английского языка. Она является необходимой базой для изучения таких дисциплин, как «Стилистика и основы редактирования», «Перевод в СМИ», «Устный перевод», «Коммерческий перевод».

Настоящее учебное пособие «Морфология и синтаксис современного английского языка» является частью учебно-методического комплекса для преподавания дисциплины «Теоретическая грамматика». В нем представлен теоретический материал для изучения данной дисциплины. Оно может быть использовано в ходе преподавания вместе с учебно-методическим пособием “Seminars

in Theoretical Grammar of English” (автор Т.Г. Никитина; Тольятти : ТГУ, 2013. – 116 с.).

В пособии отражены предусмотренные учебной программой темы:

- Grammar as a science, approaches to its study;
- Grammatical structure of Old English, Middle English, New English;
- Morphemic and categorial structure of the word;
- Parts of speech classification;
- Syntagmatic connection of words;
- Syntagmatic connection of sentences in a super-phrasal unit;
- Classification of sentences;
- Text and discourse theory.

Пособие решает многообразные задачи преподавания указанной дисциплины. При изучении данной дисциплины расширяется терминологический запас, приобретаются навыки представления научного сообщения, навыки работы с научной литературой. Материал пособия дает студентам возможность овладеть фундаментальными теоретическими знаниями для успешного написания рефератов, курсовых и дипломных работ по актуальным проблемам грамматики. Иллюстративный материал пособия позволяет познакомиться с особенностями грамматических средств, используемых в разных стилистических регистрах речи для достижения определенных коммуникативных задач.

В ходе применения пособия студенты учатся интерпретировать таблицы, диаграммы, графики; понимать основное содержание учебных текстов в пределах программного материала, выделять значимую информацию; понимать основное содержание аутентичных текстов для поиска необходимого иллюстративного материала по тематике курса; пользоваться специализированными терминологическими словарями и уметь адекватно переводить грамматические термины на русский язык; проводить логический, критический анализ лингвистических и переводческих проблем.

Пособие также способствует формированию программных навыков: навыка обобщения новейших публикаций по актуальным проблемам грамматики английского языка; навыка определения грамматических понятий и выделения соответствующих им речевых явлений.

Структура пособия

Пособие включает теоретический материал по изучаемым темам с вопросами для проверки знаний, список обязательной и дополнительной литературы, глоссарий терминов.

Каждая глава снабжена списком подтем, которые освещаются в теоретической части. Теория, кратко описывающая основные аспекты английской грамматики, сопровождается вопросами, позволяющими проверить полученные знания. Пособие снабжено глоссарием и списком литературы, которой можно пользоваться для проведения обзора теории по теме исследования и углубления знаний по определенной тематике.

В конце пособия предлагается тренировочный тест для повторения изученного материала.

В качестве иллюстративного материала в пособии использованы тексты произведений классиков английской и американской литературы, тексты средств массовой информации, тексты сценариев художественных фильмов.

Основные темы пособия представлены в приложении в виде диаграмм и таблиц. В каждой главе есть ссылка на приложение.

При изучении теоретических тем рекомендуется пользоваться дополнительными источниками, чтобы углубить свои знания по теме. Эти источники также можно использовать для подготовки докладов, рефератов, обзоров, курсовых и дипломных работ.

◆ Chapter 1

INTRODUCTION INTO THE COURSE OF THEORETICAL GRAMMAR

Issues to consider

- History of grammar as a science.
- English grammar tradition.
- Definition of grammar.
- Basic notions of grammar.
- Discourse markers in speech.
- Functional grammar in a narrow meaning.
- Pragmatic aspects of grammar.
- The study of transposition.
- Colloquial grammar.
- Grammar and translation.

English grammar was born and developed within the frame of international linguistic tradition. Philosophers reflected on the essence of language already in the distant past. Special interest to language arises when attention is focused on the basic language units and rules of their usage in speech.

At present the term *grammar* is understood as:

- 1) the set of rules that explain how words are used in a language (a definition, referring to prescriptive understanding of grammar);
- 2) *a branch of linguistics*, studying classes of words, their inflections, and their functions and relations in the sentence, the principles of utterance construction (a definition of theoretical grammar);
- 3) a study of what is to be preferred and what avoided in inflection and syntax (a stylistic definition of grammar);
- 4) a grammar textbook, describing speech or writing evaluated according to its conformity to grammatical rules (applied grammar);
- 5) the principles or rules of an art, science, or technique ex. “*a grammar of the theater*”; *also* : a set of such principles or rules in any field (a non-linguistic definition). Thus in its development grammar was interpreted differently.

Grammar is based on the basic notions. The most general of them is the notion of **language and speech**. Edward Sapir defined language and speech as two sides of one phenomenon.

Speech is a human activity that varies without assignable limit as we pass from social group to social group, because it is a purely historical heritage of the group, the product of long-continued social usage. Speech is a non-instinctive, acquired, “cultural” function.

Language is a purely human and non-instinctive method of communicating ideas, emotions, and desires by means of a system of voluntarily produced symbols. These symbols are, in the first instance, auditory and they are produced by the so-called “organs of speech.”

Speech is not a simple activity that is carried on by one or more organs biologically adapted to the purpose. It is an extremely complex and ever-shifting network of adjustments—in the brain, in the nervous system, and in the articulating and auditory organs—tending towards the desired end of communication. Language may be looked upon as an instrument capable of running a gamut of psychic uses. Language is primarily an auditory system of symbols.

Summarizing this description of language and speech we can say that language is an abstract system that our mind possesses while speech is realization of our communicative aims with the help of this system.

Another important notion of grammar is **paradigm**.

It is a set or list of all the inflectional forms of a word or of one of its grammatical categories: the paradigm of an irregular verb. Thus the following forms can be considered paradigms of the verbs:

Ex.:

Animate – animated – animates – animating

Enlighten – enlightened – enlightens – enlightening

Enter – entered – enters – entering

Eat – ate – eaten – eats – eating

The class of all items that can be substituted into the same position (or slot) in a grammatical sentence (are in paradigmatic relation with one another) Late Latin *paradigma* “pattern, example”, especially in grammar, from Greek.

Thus the paradigm is based on grammatical principle. **Paradigmatic** consequently means “based on classifying principle”. We can speak about

paradigmatic relations between language units, ex. relations between nouns, verbs within a class. The opposite of this term is **syntagmatic**, that is “related in speech”.

Thus in a sentence *When it comes to height, Dutch men and Latvian women tower over all other nationalities, a study reveals.* the words *comes, tower, reveals* are related paradigmatically in a grammatical class of verbs. The words *it* and *comes* are connected syntagmatically in a line of this sentence.

Another important notion is a **linguistic unit**. It is one of the natural units into which speech could be segmented. Such unit could be a phoneme, syllable, morpheme, word, phrase, syntagma, sentence, supra-phrasal unit, text, discourse.

These units are accordingly distributed in all language levels:

Phonemic;

Morphemic;

Lexemic;

Phrasemic;

Syntaxemic.

Grammar basically involves the study of all units and levels.

Two traditional divisions of grammar are **morphology** and **syntax**. The former being the study of morphemic structure and parts of speech, the latter studying combinations of words into different syntactic units.

Grammar is subdivided into theoretical and practical or applied grammar. Contemporary grammar studies the language structure at a definite period of time. Historical grammar looks into the past of the language. General grammar studies grammar patterns typical for all languages, that is language universals. English grammar is focused on English language only.

Grammar is one of the most ancient disciplines of study. Let us make a short survey of its development.

One of the most ancient linguistic traditions appeared in ancient India. It influenced formation and development of linguistic ideas in many countries, it affected formation of English grammar, though indirectly. The most famous expression of grammatical idea was the manuscript “Ashtadhyayi” by Pāṇini (5 or 4 century B.C.). The description of language here follows a strictly synchronic principle. Pāṇini’s sphere of study ranges from communicative aim and transferred meaning to selection of lexical

morphemes (roots) and then syntactic patterns. The book was a reflection of Indian philosophy. Ancient Indians considered language a higher deity. In Veda pantheon some gods were in charge of language activity: the goddess of Speech Vach, the goddess of sacred speech Bharati, the goddess of true speech Varuna. The tradition of considering grammar a philosophical discipline continued in many cultures that contacted Indian culture.

The European culture borrowed this idea from ancient Greeks. Grammar created by Greeks became the foremother of all European grammars. Plato distinguishes a word and the sentence (“the smallest speech”). For the first time he distinguishes two of its components – the subject and a predicate. Noun and verb are differentiated. Another Greek scientist Aristotle investigates polysemy of cases and other grammatical forms. He allocates four categories of words (names, verbs, connectives and pronouns together with prepositions). He also distinguishes affirmative and negative statements.

Grammar of Middle Ages was an applied discipline commenting on antique (basically Roman) texts. In 12-14 centuries there appears a big number of universities (Cambridge, Oxford among them). To them from monastic schools passes a role of the main things educational and scientific institutes. The well-known linguist of that time Robert Kilwardeby studied regular principles of structure and operation in language. He introduced the concept of universal grammar. The same idea about universal grammar was followed by Roger Bacon, who considered grammar to be unified in all languages. But in general the prevailing principle in grammar study was introduced by prescriptive grammar.

Linguistic prescription (or **prescriptivism**) is the practice of elevating one variety or manner of language use over another. Prescription presupposes an authority whose judgment may be followed by other members of a speech community. This may be a prominent writer or educator such as Henry Fowler, whose *Modern English Usage* defined the standard for British English for much of the 20th century.

English prescription was based on the norms of Latin grammar. A classic example from 18th-century England is Robert Lowth’s tentative suggestion that preposition stranding in relative clauses sounds colloquial. From this grew a grammatical dogma that a sentence should never end with a preposition.

In the end of 70th of 19-20 centuries development of **comparative-historical linguistics** and linguistic comparativism as a whole was marked by transformation of linguistics into rather exact science with the complex methodological devices and strict techniques of analysis.

The basic theoretical and methodological principles of linguistics in the 20 century were formed by such scientists as Jan Baudouin de Courtenay and Ferdinand de Saussure. Baudouin de Courtenay (1845–1929) offered an opportunity to see the past in the present condition of language and traces of its future. He stated the systemic principle to be the main in the development of language, trying to search for oppositions, investigating social and communicative functions of language. This term gave the name to **systemic grammar**. He distinguished three levels in language: “a phonetic structure of words and sentences”, “a morphological structure of words” and “a morphological structure of sentences”. Syntax belonged to the highest level. He also distinguished a minimal syntactic unit – syntagma.

Ferdinand de Saussure (1857–1913) qualifies language as system of signs all connected by oppositive, relative, negative relations. Followers of de Saussure developed different versions of dichotomy nature of language and speech:

social – individual,
virtual – actual,
abstract – concrete,
paradigmatics – syntagmatics,
synchronism – diachronism,
norm – style,
system – realization of system,
competence – performance.

Models of systemic grammar have found application in modern research of syntax and semantics, on methods of teaching and theories of translation and communication.

One of the important directions was an approach of **neogrammarians**. This trend appeared in Germany and influenced the development of grammar in general. Neogrammarians focused on studying the speaking person, treated language as the individually-mental phenomenon providing dialogue and understanding. They began to define language not as natural phenomenon, but as a public establishment which does not exist for itself, but only for the individual.

In the end of 20th in the USA arises and actively develops **descriptive linguistics** presented by group of pupils and followers of Leonard Bloomfield (1887–1949).

The main difference of descriptive linguistics in general from the European directions of structuralism was following the traditions of field research. This school developed **distributional analyses**. It represents diagnostic system breaking statements into minimally possible segments with the help of substitution, that helps to distinguish independent and analogous units and to establish distributive classes of phonemes, morphemes and words.

Descriptive linguistics developed grammar of phrase structures. Another method of analysis is **immediate constituents analysis** is directly applied to syntax. This method is directed from the higher to the lower levels of speech, from the whole pattern to its components. The analysis comes to final components (ultimate constituents).

Z. Harris introduced the method of **transformation analysis** serving to the purposes of studying syntax. This method as a whole is close to operational tests for omission, replacement, addition and rearrangement of language elements in a certain context. It has been modified in generative transformational grammar by Noam Chomsky.

The descriptive linguistics rendered significant influence on world linguistics. Descriptive linguists made a huge contribution to development of theoretical grammar by applying methods of logics and mathematics. They enriched the world linguistics with numerous terms.

Even criticism of this approach produced such theories of syntactic semantics, the pragmatist, psycholinguistics, sociolinguistics, the analysis of a discourse, cognitive linguistics, etc.

In 40th of the 20 century the London school of conceptualism, associated with the name of John Rupertom Fersom, have proclaimed, that the society, language and the person form an indissoluble complex; the **functional approach** is necessary for their studying. The school of conceptualism investigates the following basic problems: a place and functions of language in a society; functional stratification of language; interrelations of language and culture; functioning of language in different situations; mutual relation of language and the person; motive powers of development of language; a structure of language; system of linguistic terms.

The context of a situation is defined as a typical and constant environment of the given element (collocation) if we speak about meaning, in the grammatical aspect it is combination of grammatical forms (colligation).

This is pragmatic concepts of speech, that studies how the speakers use and interpret linguistic forms and patterns to achieve successful interaction.

Language performs different functions. They are cognitive and communicative. Functional grammar studies communicative process, organization of utterance, its coherence. In functional grammar every linguistic unit is in syntagmatic connection with other elements of speech. Every unit performs not only those functions, that are allotted to it in a language system, but also those that appear in a particular communicative context. Structural patterns of utterances can realize a variety of meanings according to the communicative effect desired. Functional grammar is focused on such syntactic patterns.

Functional grammar covers linguistic and a sociological dimension. For functional linguistics, linguistic categories can be defined in different ways. Functional explanation of different phenomena involves motivation, routinization, diachrony, theme of the utterance, grammaticalization, typology of grammatical relations.

The term “functional grammar” can be understood in two ways. In the narrow sense it is the study of grammatical structure of utterance in terms of the role of participants, syntactic functions (subject, predicate etc.), theme and rheme, that is those elements of utterance structure that determine pragmatic aspect.

The other meaning of “functional grammar” is pragmatic aspect of grammar, that makes grammar interconnected with stylistics, theory of translation. Functional grammar here studies pragmatically determined kinds of speech activity.

In linguistics of second half 20 century **generative linguistics** marked the beginning of a new epoch in a science about language. Generative linguistics as one of branches of a formal direction in linguistics has arisen thanks to ideas of Naom Chomsky. For the first time they were stated in his work “Syntactic structures” (1957). The main unit of language was considered to be not a phoneme or a morpheme, but an utterance, viewed

in the processes of its generation from elementary abstract units on the basis of strict rules.

Another field that attracted attention of linguists in the second half of the 20 century was research of the semantic aspect of language. It brought to the appearance of **semantic syntax**. It considered specification of semantic actants, differentiation of a proposition and modus, distinction of subject and actants. Opportunities of syntactic semantics brought to the study of pragmatic aspects (communicative, or illocutive; presupposition, speech cooperation etc.).

The theory of speech acts (the theory of speech actions) has arisen from the study of everyday speech in the works of Ludwig Vitgenstein, J. L. Austin and J. R. Searle. In this theory they presented an explanation how we speak (according to Austin, how to do things with words).

The theory of speech acts made a great contribution into pragmatics. This theory is widely used for development of artificial intellect.

If to speak about development of English grammar properly, we can see that it started as an applied discipline based on prescriptive rules.

The **history of English grammars** begins late in the sixteenth century with the *Pamphlet for Grammar* by William Bullokar. Many English grammars at that time were to be written in Latin; this was especially so for books whose authors were aiming to be scholarly. Lindley Murray, the author of another popular grammar of that period, was having to cite “grammatical authorities” to bolster the claim that grammatical cases in English are different from those in Ancient Greek or Latin.

Later greater British role in international trade created demand for English grammars for speakers of other languages. Many such grammars were published in various European languages in the second half of the seventeenth century. English grammars began to reach a wider audience even within Britain itself. Robert Lowth, Bishop of Oxford and thereafter of London, was the first and the best known of the widely emulated grammarians of the 18th century. He published *A Short Introduction to English Grammar, with critical notes* (1762). His influence extended, through the works of his students Lindley Murray and William Cobbett, well into the late 19th century. During the nineteenth century that modern-language studies became systematized.

Another prominent trend in applied grammar is connected with the need for studying English as international language, that posed challenges for English didactics. The most productive principle of teaching was a communicative one. The ability to communicate effectively in any situation involves the skills of listening and responding appropriately to messages. That is: comprehending. This word gave name to comprehensive approach and comprehensive grammar. This ability to perform language functions effectively is often referred to as **communicative competence**. People with good communication skills have a better chance of success in both the workplace and life in general. Communicative grammar based on communicative competence, which can be defined as **language use for meaningful communication marked by fluency, as well as grammatical appropriateness**. Thus grammarians focused on those aspects of grammar that helped speakers to communicate effectively in both oral and written contexts.

A Comprehensive Grammar of the English Language is a descriptive grammar of English written by Randolph Quirk, Sidney Greenbaum, Geoffrey Leech, and Jan Svartvik. It was first published by Longman in 1985. Later appeared *The Cambridge Grammar of the English Language*.

Modern grammar is connected with many spheres of science, we can find its methods applied for the study of artificial intelligence, computer programming, communication theory and many important and actual problems.

One of spheres of modern functional grammar is, for example, the study of grammatical metaphor, when the transfer of meaning is performed by different grammatical construction. For example, a phrase conveys the meaning of a clause.

Ex.: His overrapid downhill driving caused brake failure.
his overrapid downhill driving of the bus = He drove over-rapidly downhill.
brake failure = The brakes failed.

Similar metaphoric transfer can be modal metaphors:

I should think there would be a better chance. = There will probably be a better chance.

Metaphors can also concern syntactic functions: *Who do you think you are? = I don't respect you.*

Who knows? = I don't know.

Grammatical metaphors can create stylistic effects, thus grammatical units are transposed into a particular context, ex. literary and acquire new stylistic functions.

For example, **personal pronouns** *we, you, they* can be employed in the meaning different from the dictionary meaning (i.e. identification of the speakers in a communicative process). Personal pronouns *we, you, they* can convey an idea of the indefinite.

Ex.: We never know, you never know, they say...

The personal pronoun *we* may serve as a substitute of *you* in order to unite the speaker and the listener.

Ex.:

Why are we crying? How are we feeling today?

We can be as *the plural of majesty* (Pluralis Majestatis) in royal speech: *We, the queen...*

We as *the plural of modesty* (Pluralis Modestiae), is used in scientific works instead of *I*: *We consider this theory correct.*

You can render negative connotation in imperative sentences: *You, come here.*

The archaic forms of English pronouns (*thou, ye*) can create the elevated and solemn effect in poetry or render historical coloring.

Ex.:

*Thou still unravish'd bride of quietness,
Thou foster-child of silence and slow time,
Sylvan historian, who canst thus express
A flowery tale more sweetly than our rhyme:
What leaf-fring'd legend haunts about thy shape
Of deities or mortals, or of both,
In Tempe or the dales of Arcady?*

...

*Heard melodies are sweet, but those unheard
Are sweeter; therefore, ye soft pipes, play on;*

...

*Than ours, a friend to man, to whom thou say'st,
"Beauty is truth, truth beauty,—that is all
Ye know on earth, and all ye need to know."*

(from Ode on a Grecian Urn by John Keats)

Functional grammar studies also development of spoken grammar, because all the trends that appear in spoken English, show real development of the language.

These are, for example, omissions of auxiliaries and link verbs:

He all right.

And Alvin, he kind of big, you know?

She at home. The club on one corner, the Bock is on the other.

He been married.

She be working all the time.

(Ebonics)

I been mean, ain't I?

Know what he done Christmas?

I seen her give Slim the eye.

I done a bad thing.

(From Of Mice and Men, by John Steinbeck)

Another tendency is the use of unusual or excessive negations.

I ain't step on no line.

I said, "I ain't run the stop sign," and he said, "you ran it!"

I ain't believe you that day, man.

Ain't nobody talkin' to you!

Can't nobody beat 'em

Can't nobody say nothin' to dem peoples!

Don' nobody say nothing after that.

Wasn't nobody in there but me an' him.

(Ebonics)

Well, we ain't got no ketchup.

They don't belong no place.

It wasn't nothing.

(From Of Mice and Men, by John Steinbeck)

Here we can also observe the tendency to violate the rules of using tense forms:

Ex.:

I think I knowed from the very first.

(From Of Mice and Men, by John Steinbeck)

Incorrect agreement of subject and predicate in number:

Ex.:

Says we was here when we wasn't.

so I comes running

Me an' him goes ever' place together.

You wasn't big enough.

(From Of Mice and Men, by John Steinbeck)

Such patterns are regular and systematic and can be regarded as tendencies in language development.

Another pragmatic aspect of grammar is connected with translation. It studies translational operations, needed to adjust original sentence to the language of translation. Such operations are called transformations.

For example, the following transformations of sentence structure help to make Russian translation conform to the norms of Russian language.

Substitution: *he had a notion that – он считал, что*

Transposition (positional arrangement): *She doesn't really love the roses. – В сущности, она не любит розы.*

Omission: *I came across such an expression in a newspaper. – Мне попало в газете такое выражение.*

Addition: *She saw it clearly – Она увидела это совершенно ясно.*

Antonymic translation: *The bank wasn't too far. – Банк казался довольно близко.*

Functional aspect of grammar also studies the ways of translating particular structures and grammatical forms. For example, the study of grammar problems in translation lead to working out recommendations for translating grammar elements. For example, in translating gerundial forms into Russian the following recommendations should be taken into account:

Simple forms of a gerund in various functions can be translated into Russian as a noun with preposition, infinitive, a special verbal construction (деепричастный оборот) or a subordinate clause. The way of translation depends on meaning and word combinability in Russian. Passive and perfect forms of a gerund are translated by a subordinate clause.

Ex.:

They made their decision after being told ... – Они приняли решение после того, как им сказали...

The gerund in function of adverbial modifier, denoting time, after preposition *before* and *in* can be translated usually by a subordinate clause, after *on (upon)* and *after* – by a special verbal construction.

Ex.:

After making this statement the minister said...

Сделав заявление, премьер министр сказал, что...

If a gerund acts as adverbial modifiers of manner, it can be translated by a noun or a special verbal construction (деепричастный оборот).

Ex.:

It can be done by sending deputations to MPs.

Это можно сделать, послав представителей в парламент.

Это можно сделать путем выдвижения представителей в парламент.

The gerund in function of definition followed by preposition *of* is translated by an infinitive or a noun.

Ex.:

...he has been insisting on the importance of negotiating...

...он настаивал на важности переговоров...

In function of subject or predicate gerund, as a rule, is translated by a noun or an infinitive.

Ex.:

Solving Britain's economic difficulties, is a question of

Преодоление экономических трудностей Британии – это вопрос ...

The combination of the construction *there is* with gerund is translated into Russian by the impersonal sentence.

Ex.:

There is no denying that ... – Нельзя не согласиться, что ...

CONCLUSION:

Grammar is one of the most important branches of linguistics. It concerns the study of all linguistic units and all levels, but mostly is concerned with the rules of grammatical organization of utterances.

In its historical development grammar has been studied through philosophical and linguistic methods. Grammarians made an important contribution into development of linguistics by introducing important rules and methods of study.

Modern grammar is an important science that studies spoken English in real speech environment.

Grammar operates general linguistic terms, but also specific grammar terms. Some of them were borrowed into other branches of science.

👉 **Recommendations for study**

📖 *Sources for study*

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Chart 1. Language levels in European linguistics.

Check questions

1. What are the main approaches to the study of grammar?
2. In what way an object of grammar study changed?
3. What is a paradigm?
4. What is paradigmatic relations?
5. What is syntagmatic relations?
6. What are language units?
7. What levels in language study can you distinguish?
8. What markers are used for presenting information?
9. What markers are responsible for attitude expression?
10. What is the meaning of the term “functional grammar”?
11. What aspects does functional grammar study?
12. What are the features of colloquial grammar?
13. What is a transformation in translation?
14. What are recommendations to translate gerund into Russian?
15. What is a grammatical metaphor?
16. What is transposition in stylistics?

◆ Chapter 2

DIACHRONIC VIEW OF ENGLISH GRAMMAR DEVELOPMENT

Issues to consider

- Classification of languages.
- Diachronic approach to the study of languages.
- Old English grammar.
- Middle English grammar.
- Modern English grammar.

English grammar is not a stable system, it has changed during different historical periods. The change of grammar is studied by Historical Grammar via a diachronic approach. According to Ferdinand de Saussure, (1857–1913) the synchronic approach analyses the similarities and differences of languages at a given point of time by focusing on their structural features and characteristics and by using phonological, morphological and syntactic explanations including semantic and pragmatic aspects.

The study of English in different periods shows its change of general organization, that is, typology. In modern linguistics type of language can be distinguished on several principles, two of them grammatical – that is morphological and syntactic. Morphological typology of languages is based on the way morphemes are connected and structured.

Traditionally two types of languages are distinguished – **analytical and synthetic**.

In analytical languages grammatical meaning is expressed by special words, auxiliaries, and notional words, that together form analytical word clusters (*will do, would make*).

In synthetic languages grammatical meaning is expressed by affixes in structure of a word form, these affixes are added to the root and have a status of grammatical morphemes.

Certainly, distinction between analytism and synthetism is a disputable question in case of a certain language, in most cases one can speak about the mixture of features. It is especially visible in Modern English.

If the expression of grammatical meaning is taken into account, then one can distinguish the following types of languages: **isolating, agglutinative, inflectional and incorporating**. The type of expression of grammatical

meaning should not be confused with the type of morphological structure. Two of these parameters partly correlate, but are logically independent.

Isolating (or amorphous) languages – here morphemes are completely different. Isolating language is for example, Chinese. It demonstrates absence of word change, grammatical importance of a word order, weak opposition of notional and functional words. English also demonstrates features of isolation in the use of separate auxiliary words and fixed word order.

Agglutinative languages – here morphemes are semantically and formally different, but are united in words. They have a developed system of word-formation and inflectional affixation, uniform type of declination and conjugation. Examples can be found in Russian and in English: *cat-cats*, *дом, дома*.

Inflectional languages – here one can observe inflectional fusing, when both semantic, and formal borders between morphemes are hardly distinguished. Inflectional languages are for example, Slavic or Baltic. Polyfunctionality of grammatical morphemes, a big number of non-motivated types of declination and conjugation are characteristic for such languages. One can see sound change in morphemes. Ex. *Man-men*, *братъ – беры*.

Incorporating languages – here language can produce complex structures that serve as words and sentences. In English these are rare cases of complex attributes like *Never-do-it-again warning in her eyes*.

As it is clear, Modern English is polytypological in this respect. It has features of all types.

The syntactic typology takes into account verbal actants; order of components; dependence of elements in a word-combination. Its main principle is morphosyntactic alignment, that presupposes nominative–accusative patterns and ergative–absolutive one. The classification depends on the subject, the verb transitivity and the object. (Ex.: *Mary cooks dinner. Dinner is cooked by Mary.*)

Active languages divide of nouns on “active” and “inactive”, verbs on “active” and «stative», adjectives usually are absent: modern Chinese, Proto-Indo-European. etc.

Nominative languages – showing opposition of subject and object if a verb is transitive, absence of object if the verb is intransitive, opposition of active and passive – are the majority modern Indo-European languages (including Russian and English)

Ergative languages – have a special ergative construction with subject in ergative case, transitive verb and object in the absolutive case – North Caucasian languages, this phenomenon was observed in Old English (*methinketh* – ср. *мне думается*).

In practice each language to some extent recedes from the given strict classification. Many languages show mixed accusative and ergative behaviour. In particular, in a number of Indo-European languages (for example, in English) morphological distinction between a nominative and accusative is lost (except for pronouns, where the system is conservative enough), therefore these cases are allocated in context, depending on their syntactic role.

Another syntactic principle of classifying languages is subject–verb–object positioning. These labels usually appear abbreviated as “SVO”, and may be called “typologies” of the languages to which they apply. Languages with strict preference of SVO pattern have a fixed order of words. Some languages split verbs into an auxiliary and an infinitive or participle, and put the subject and/or object between them. For instance, German (“*Ich habe einen Fuchs im Wald gesehen*”). Some languages show freedom in their constituent order. Thus, for instance, Russian is widely considered an SVO language, as this is the most frequent word order, but all sorts of variations are possible, so, as there is no clear preference under the described conditions, the language is considered to have flexible word order. Other terms for word order are also direct and indirect.

Synchronic and diachronic variations.

Synchronic variations are those variants that appear in some aspect of language at a certain period of time. Thus, for some time one can observe the presence of two or more variants of expressing the same idea (*Ex. In modern English: Have you.. ?or Do you have..?*). After some time variants can disappear, shift their stylistic status or acquire new meanings and functions. Thus, comparing one and the same language in different periods of time, one can see diachronic variations. It can be exemplified by the use of the 2nd person pronouns. In the course of historical development the following changes occurs in the use of these pronouns:

- 1) plural became polite form for singular addressees;
- 2) complete disappearance of the old singular forms in standard English;
- 3) introduction of *youse* as 2-nd pers. pl. in some English dialects;
- 4) introduction of *yall* (= *you all*) as 2-nd pers. pl. in some Southern American dialects.

At present in English there are four variants of this pronoun: *ye*, *you*, *thou*, *thee*. Though some variants are not standard, they, nevertheless, exist in a language and are understood by all members of language community.

Variations appear due to different factors: territorial variation; social variation (social class; ethnic group; sex; age; profession or occupation), contacts with other languages.

For example, in Modern English there are such territorial differences between British and American variants: various syntactic structures – *A is different to B* vs *A is different than B*.

In lower strata of language, in comparison with the normative language, specific grammar patterns are used. In working class sociolect the following structures are observed: verbs in 3rd person singular present tense without *-s*:

Ex.:

She like him very much. – He don't know a lot, do he? – It go ever so fast.

In Afro-American English one can notice the use of double negatives (*He don't know nothing.*); omission of habitual and linking *be*:

Ex.:

John be happy. Vs. John is always happy.

John happy. vs. John is happy now.

He be late. vs. He is habitually late.

He late. vs. He is late this time.

Synchronic and diachronic variations serve as a mechanism for language development.

English language in its development is presented in three periods:

Old English (450-1100 AD) – OE,

Middle English (1100-circa 1500 AD) – ME,

New English or Modern English (since 1500) – NE or Mod.E.

The development of English was a result of historical events. During the 5th Century AD three Germanic tribes (Saxons, Angles, and Jutes) came to the British Isles from various parts of northwest Germany as well as Denmark. Saxons, Angles and Jutes mixed their Germanic dialects and produced Old English or Anglo-Saxon.

Around 878 AD Danes and Norsemen, also called Vikings, invaded the country and English. The Vikings spoke *Old Norse*, which was just a Germanic language. It had a great influence on grammar of English.

William the Conqueror, the Duke of Normandy, invaded and conquered England in 1066. The Old French took over as the language of the court, administration, and culture. Meanwhile, The English language, as the language of the now lower class, was considered a vulgar tongue. By about 1200, England and France had split. English changed a lot, because it was mostly being spoken instead of written for about 300 years. The use of English came back, but with many French words added.

Modern English developed after William Caxton established his printing press at Westminster Abbey in 1476. Printing brought standardization to English. The language had become clearly recognizable as Modern English.

OE was a synthetic, or inflected type of language; it showed relations between words and expressed other grammatical meanings mainly with the help of simple (synthetic) grammatical forms. In building grammatical forms OE employed grammatical endings, sound interchanges in the root, grammatical prefixes, and suppletive formation.

The parts of speech to be distinguished in OE are as follows: the noun, the adjective, the pronoun, the numeral, the verb, the adverb, the preposition, the conjunction, and the interjection. Inflected parts of speech possessed certain grammatical categories displayed in formal and semantic correlations and oppositions of grammatical forms.

There were five nominal grammatical categories in OE: number, case, gender, degrees of comparison, and the category of definiteness/indefiniteness.

The OE noun had two grammatical or morphological categories: number and case. In addition, nouns distinguished three genders, but this distinction was not a grammatical category; it was merely a classifying feature accounting, alongside other features, for the division of nouns into morphological classes.

The category of number consisted of two members, singular and plural. They were well distinguished formally in all the declensions (change in number and case), there being very few homonymous forms.

The noun had four cases: Nominative, Genitive, Dative and Accusative. The vague meaning of cases was of great consequence for the subsequent changes of the case system.

The most remarkable feature of OE nouns was their elaborate system of declensions, which was a sort of morphological classification. The

total number of declensions, including both the major and minor types, exceeded twenty-five. All in all there were only ten distinct endings (plus some phonetic variants of these endings) and a few relevant root-vowel interchanges used in the noun paradigms; yet every morphological class had either its own specific endings or a specific succession of markers. Historically, the OE system of declensions was based on a number of distinctions: the stem-suffix, the gender of nouns, the phonetic structure of the word, phonetic changes in the final syllables.

In the first place, the morphological classification of OE nouns rested upon the most ancient (IE) grouping of nouns according to the stem-suffixes. Another reason which accounts for the division of nouns into numerous declensions is their grouping according to gender. OE nouns distinguished three genders: Masculine, Feminine, and Neuter. Though originally it was a semantic division In Indo-European languages, in OE already gender was not always associated with the meaning of nouns.

The system of noun declensions lacked consistency and precision. There were many polyfunctional and homonymous markers in the paradigms. The distinction between morphological classes was not strict. Towards the end of the OE period formal variation grew and the system tended to be re-arranged according to gender on the basis of the most influential types: a-stems, n-stems and s-stems.

For example The a-declension contained only masculine and neuter nouns.

Ex.: Paradigms of bearn (modern child); ðæt bān (modern bone); ðæt rīce (modern kingdom):

Singular.

Nominative. Accusative. bearn bān rīc-e

Genitive. bearn-es bān-es rīc-es

Dative. Instrumental. bearn-e bān-e rīc-e

Plualr.

Nominative. Accusative. bearn bān rīc-u

Genitive. bearn-a bān-a rīc-a

Dative. Instrumental. bearn-um bān-um rīc-um

OE pronouns were distributed into almost the same main classes as modern pronouns; personal, demonstrative, interrogative and indefinite. As for the other groups – relative, possessive and reflexive – they were not

yet fully developed and were not always distinctly separated from the four main classes.

OE personal pronouns had three persons, three numbers in the 1st and 2nd p. (two numbers – in the 3rd) and three genders in the 3rd p. Ex.:

Table 1

Declension of Personal Pronouns First person

Case	Singular	Dual (the two)	Plural (more than two)
<i>Nom.</i>	<i>ic</i>	<i>wit</i>	<i>we</i>
<i>Gen.</i>	<i>min</i>	<i>uncer</i>	<i>ure,</i>
<i>Dat.</i>	<i>me</i>	<i>unc</i>	<i>user us</i>
<i>Acc.</i>	<i>mec, me</i>	<i>uncit</i>	<i>usic, us</i>

Demonstrative pronouns were frequently used as noun determiners and through agreement with the noun, indicated its number, gender and case.

The adjective in OE could change for number, gender and case. Those were dependent grammatical categories or forms of agreement of the adjective with the noun it modified or with the subject of the sentence if the adjective was a predicative.

Most adjectives in OE could be declined in two ways: according to the weak and to the strong declension. The difference between the strong and the weak declension of adjectives was not only formal but also semantic. Unlike a noun, an adjective did not belong to a certain type of declension. Most adjectives could be declined in both ways. The choice of the declension was determined by a number of factors: the syntactical function of the adjective, the degree of comparison and the presence of noun determiners. The adjective had a strong form when used predicatively and when used attributively without any determiners.

Like adjectives in other languages, most OE adjectives distinguished between three degrees of comparison: positive, comparative and superlative.

The OE verb was characterized by many peculiar features. Though the verb had few grammatical categories, its paradigm had a very complicated structure: verbs fell into numerous morphological classes and employed a variety of form-building means.

The verb-predicate agreed with the subject of the sentence in two grammatical categories: number and person. Its specifically verbal categories were mood and tense.

The strong verbs formed their stems by means of vowel gradation (ablaut) and by adding certain suffixes; in some verbs vowel gradation was accompanied by consonant interchanges.

The weak verbs derived their Past tense stem and the stem of Participle II from the Present tense stem with the help of the dental suffix *-d-* or *-r-*; normally they did not change their root vowel, but in some verbs suffixation was accompanied by a vowel interchange. Ex.:

Table 2

Morphological Classification of Old English Verbs

Strong	Weak	Minor groups
Seven classes with different gradation series	Three classes with different stem-suffixes	Preterite-presents Suppletive Anomalous

There were about three hundred strong verbs in OE. The number of weak verbs in OE by far exceeded that of strong verbs.

The most important group of these verbs were the so-called “preterite-presents” or “past-present” verbs. Originally the Present tense forms of these verbs were Past tense forms (or, more precisely, IE perfect forms, denoting past actions relevant for the present). Two OE verbs were suppletive. OE *habban* (NE *have*) and *beon* (NE *be*).

Example of some forms of a strong verb declension

Infinitive – findan (modern find)

Indicative Present tense Singular

1st p. finde

2nd p. fintst

3rd p. fint

Plural findað

Past tense Singular

1st fond

2nd funde

3rd fond

Plural fundon

In OE texts we find a variety of word phrases. The order of words in the OE sentence was relatively free. The position of words in the sentence was often determined by logical and stylistic factors rather than by grammatical constraints.

Ex.:

Ðā fōr hē... – Then went he...

In Early ME the differences between the regional dialects grew. In addition to economic, geographical and social conditions, dialectal differences in Early ME were accentuated by some historical events, namely the Scandinavian invasions and the Norman Conquest. Scandinavians were absorbed into the local population both ethnically and linguistically. Due to the contacts and mixture with Old Scandinavian, the Northern dialects (Northumbrian and East Mercian) had acquired Scandinavian features.

The Norman Conquest was a great event in the history of the English language. The Norman conquerors of England had originally come from. They spoke the Northern dialect of French, which differed in some points from Central, Parisian French. Their tongue in Britain is often referred to as “Anglo-French” or “Anglo-Norman. The most immediate consequence of the Norman domination in Britain is to be seen in the wide use of the French language **in** many spheres of life. For all that, England never stopped being an English-speaking country. The use of a foreign tongue as the state language, the diversity of the dialects and the decline of the written form of English created a situation extremely favourable for increased variation and for more intensive linguistic change.

Of greatest linguistic consequence was the activity of John Wyclif (1324–1384), the forerunner of the English Reformation. His most important contribution to English prose was his (and his pupils’) translation of the BIBLE completed in 1384.

In Middle English there were serious changes in grammatical structure. They are connected with phonetic shifts that happened in this period.

Old English inflectional vowels, which were all short and unaccented, weakened in early Middle English to *e*. This *e* in Modern English is frequently dropped. *Ex.:*

Table 3

Some examples of ME declensions

OLD ENGLISH	MIDDLE ENGLISH	MODERN ENGLISH
stān-as	ston-es	stones
sun-u	sun-e	son
sun-a	sun-e	sons
ox-an	ox-en	oxen

The development of English in this period could be called evolution. The grammatical system of the language underwent profound alteration. Since the OE period the very grammatical type of the language has changed; from what can be defined as a synthetic or inflected language, with a well developed morphology English has been transformed into a language of the “analytical type”, with analytical forms and ways of word connection prevailing over synthetic ones. Between the 10th and the 16th c, that is from Late OE to Early NE the ways of building up grammatical forms underwent considerable changes. In OE all the forms which can be included into morphological paradigms were synthetic. In ME and Early NE, grammatical forms could also be built in the analytical way, with the help of auxiliary words. The proportion of synthetic forms in the language has become very small, for in the meantime many of the old synthetic forms have been lost and no new synthetic forms have developed.

The growth of analytical grammatical forms from free word phrases was not equally productive in all the parts of speech: it has transformed the morphology of the verb but has not affected the noun.

The main direction of development for all parts of speech in all the periods of history can be defined as morphological simplification. Some nominal categories were lost – Gender and Case in adjectives, Gender in nouns; the number of forms distinguished in the surviving categories was reduced—cases in nouns and noun-pronouns, numbers in personal pronouns. Morphological division into types of declension practically disappeared. In Late ME the adjective lost the distinction of number and the distinction of weak and strong forms.

The evolution of the verb system was a complicated process. The decay of inflectional endings affected the verb system. The verb acquired the categories of Voice, Time Correlation (or Phase) and Aspect. Within the

category of Tense there developed a new form – the Future Tense; in the category of Mood there arose new forms of the Subjunctive. The infinitive and the participle lost many nominal features, developed verbal features. Other important events in the history of English grammar were the changes in syntax, the rise of new syntactic patterns of the word phrase and the sentence; the growth of predicative constructions; the development of the complex sentences and of diverse means of connecting clauses.

The OE *Gender*, being a classifying feature (and not a grammatical category proper) disappeared together with other distinctive features of the noun declensions. *Example of Middle English declension:*

Singular fish,

Plural fishes,

The reduction in the number of cases was linked up with a change in the meanings and functions of the surviving forms.

The development of the definite article is usually connected with the changes in the declension of adjectives, namely with the loss of distinctions between the strong and weak forms. Originally the weak forms of adjectives had a certain demonstrative meaning resembling that of the modern definite article. The decay of adjective declensions speeded up their transition into articles.

Another factor which may account for the more regular use of articles was the changing function of the word order. Relative freedom in the position of words in the OE sentence made it possible to use word order for communicative purposes, e. g. to present a new thing or to refer to a familiar thing already known to the listener. After the loss of inflections, the word order assumed a grammatical function – it showed the grammatical relations between words in the sentence; now the parts of the sentence, e. g. the subject or the objects, had their own fixed places.

The strong and weak forms of adjectives were often confused in Early ME texts. In the 14th c. the difference between the strong and weak form is sometimes shown with the help of the ending *-e*. Ex.:

Table 5

Some forms of adjective declension

Kinds of adjectives	sing	<i>plural</i>
Strong	blind	blinde
Weak	blinde	blinde

The loss of final *-e* in the transition to NE made the adjective **an** entirely uninflected part of speech.

The degrees of comparison is the only set of forms which the adjective has preserved through all historical periods.

The Late ME period witnessed the growth of a new verbal known in modern grammars as the *Gerund*. In the course of time the sphere of the usage of the Gerund grew: it replaced the Infinitive and the Participle in many adverbial functions; its great advantage was that it could be used with various prepositions,

The growth of analytical forms of the verb is a common Germanic tendency, is known as the process of “grammaticalization”. Some verb phrases have been completely grammaticalized e.g. the Perfect forms. In the OE language there was no form of the Future tense. The category of Tense consisted of two members; Past and Present. In ME the use of modal phrases, especially with the verb *shall*, became increasingly common. *Shall* plus Inf. was now the principal means of indicating future actions In any context.

In OE the forms of the Subjunctive Mood, like other forms of the verb, were synthetic. In the course of ME and Early NE there sprang up several new analytical forms of the Subjunctive Mood.

In order to indicate improbable events in the past, a new set of forms came to be used: the Past Perfect forms which did not differ from the forms of the Indicative Mood.

In ME the verb *ben* plus Past Participle developed into an analytical form. Now it could express not only a state but also an action. The formal pattern of the Passive Voice extended to many parts of the verb paradigm: it is found in the Future tense, in the Perfect forms, in the Subjunctive Mood and in the non-finite forms of the verb. The new Passive forms had a regular means of indicating the doer of the action or the instrument with the help of which it was performed.

Ex.:

For sefenn winnterr haffde he ben in Egypte – ‘For seven winters he had been in Egypt’

(from Ormulum)

The evolution of English syntax was tied up with big changes in morphology; the decline of the inflectional system was accompanied by the growth of the functional load of syntactic means of word connection. The

structure of the sentence and the word phrase, on the one hand, became more complicated, on the other hand, were stabilized and standardized.

Modern English is a language that illustrates different features of synthetic structure, they are the remnants of Old English structure.

Suppletion is presented by suppletive verbs: *is, am, be, was, were*.

Also we can find suppletion in comparative forms – *good – better*.

Synthetic features system like in plural of nouns are either traces of Old English:

ox – oxen

mouse – mice

louse – lice

foot – feet

tooth – teeth

one sheep – two sheep

a swine – several swine

a deer – two deer

Or they are traces of borrowings from other languages:

analysis – analyses

axis – axes

fungus – fungi, funguses

genus – genera, genuses (E)

criterion – criteria

aquarium – aquariums (E), aquaria

equilibrium – equilibriums (E), equilibria

index – indexes (E), indices

The same traces can be seen in irregular verb forms:

Awake awakened / awoke awakened / awoken

Bear bore born / borne

Beat beat beaten / beat

Bind bound bound

Bite bit bitten

Bleed bled bled

Blow blew blown

CONCLUSION:

English is a language that demonstrate features of many types of languages.

In its historical development it has changed grammatical system from the synthetic to an analytical one. Old English was a language with developed morphology, various types of declension for nouns, adjectives, pronouns. It also had different kinds of conjugation for verbs. In the course of historical development, influenced by Scandinavian and Norman contacts, the language simplified its morphemic structure and developed new analytical ways of rendering grammatical meanings.

At present English is a polytypical language with some remnants of Old English features.

📖 Recommendations for study

📖 Sources for study

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Chart 2. The place of English in Indo-European family of languages in Supplement.

 **Check questions**

1. What classifications of languages do you know?
2. What class can English be attributed to?
3. Explain why OE can be called a “synthetic” or “inflected” language.
4. What form-building means were used in OE?
5. Compare the historical productivity of different form-building means: synthetic (inflections, sound interchanges), analytical, suppletive.
6. Point out traces of OE verbs in modern verbs.
7. Why are noun declensions in OE referred to as “stems”?
8. Explain the difference between the grouping of nouns into declensions and the two declensions of adjectives.
9. Prove that the non-finite forms in OE had more nominal features than they have today.
10. Which part of speech has lost the greatest number of grammatical categories in Middle English? Which part of speech has acquired new categories?
11. Define and exemplify analytical and synthetic features in Modern English

◆ Chapter 3 BASICS OF ENGLISH MORPHOLOGY

📄 *Issues to consider*

- Meaning, form and function in the structure of the word.
- Classification of morphemes based on structural and semantic principle.
- The ways of marking grammatical form in English.
- Categories of English words.
- Parts of speech classification.

Every linguistic unit has three sides – meaning, form and function. Meaning can be revealed at a dictionary level. One can say that this meaning exists in the speaker's memory and always comes to the speaker's mind first. Thus this is a meaning that exists at a language level. All words or morphemes have a meaning like that. It is part of the language knowledge that every member of the language community has.

Meaning can also appear in context. This is an occasional, contextual meaning that appears if the word is surrounded by particular environment. Such context can be phraseological.

Ex.:

a pack rat – someone who collects things that they do not need
Joe Six-pack – creates the image of a man, who drinks six cans or bottles of beer in the evening. A lower-middle-class male.

pack a punch – to have a powerful effect or influence

pack a wallop – to provide a burst of energy, power, or excitement.

pack on the pound – to put on weight quickly

(from The Free Dictionary <http://idioms.thefreedictionary.com>)

The context can specify a particular meaning of a polysemantic word.

Ex.:

I want to pack some warm clothes for the trip.

A pack of wolves had been killing livestock in the area.

I had to carry many books to school in my pack.

She had been working for twelve hours before her boss told her to pack it up and go home.

There are two types of meaning – grammatical and lexical. Lexical meaning is individual for every word but in componental analyses reveals elements that can be found not only in one word, but in groups of words.

Such meaning can be called categorial. Grammatical meaning can be seen in identical sets of individual forms of different words.

Meaning is studied by semantics (word and sentence meaning). But grammar is also concerned with meaning, because it investigates grammatical meanings that are closely connected with form and expressed by formal means.

Form is the other side of any linguistic unit. It can be a sound form, a spelling form. Form can be also presented as structure of a word or its grammatical form. Form in grammar is understood as a structure, studied by morphology and syntax. The sphere of form study thus is called syntactics, it studies form of the word as the basis of grammatical meaning and form of utterance as the basis of verbal reasoning. Thus morphology is the set of rules that govern how the words operate in grammatical structure of language. Syntax is the collection of rules that govern how words are assembled into meaningful sentences.

The third side of a linguistic unit is function. This is the sphere of pragmatics. Pragmatics is the study of how language is used and how the different usage of language determines semantics and syntactics. The function of words is performed in a particular context. The function of words in grammar is connected with their syntactic roles in a sentence. The study of morphemic and categorial structure of the word in English is, consequently, the study of meaning, form and function.

Morpheme is the smallest indivisible language unit which means an association of a certain meaning with a certain sound-form. Morpheme is the smallest meaningful unit of the language.

The structure of the word can be presented by description of morphemes that constitute it. Structurally the word can be divided into stem and inflexion. Inflexion is a changeable part of the word, the stem is closely connected with the word meaning. The stem can include the root, in which the main meaning of the word is fixed, and affixes, that can slightly modify it. Affixes can stand before the root (prefixes) and after the root (suffixes). At present in English the majority of words are simple, they consist of only one root.

A synthetical process combines morphemes into larger words.

Ex.:

work, works, worked

stop, stops, stopped

read, readable, unreadable

analyze, analyzable

The same item can, in fact, be used in several functions and its classification is only possible in a particular context. The word *table*, for example, can be a noun, an adjective or a verb:

We sat down at the same table.

He bought a table lamp.

It was his turn to table a proposal.

The same concerns morphemes. In English many morphemes are polyfunctional.

A synthetical process in which all morphemes are monofunctional is called agglutination. A synthetical process in which the morphemes are polyfunctional is called inflection. A process in which morphemes are not combined into larger words but stand as words by themselves is an analytical process and is called isolation.

Structurally morphemes fall into three types: **free**, **bound** and **semi-free** morphemes. A free morpheme is defined as one that coincides with the stem or a word-form. A great many root-morphemes are free morphemes, for example, the root-morpheme *instruct* – of the noun *instruction* is naturally qualified as a free morpheme because it coincides with one of the forms of the word *instruct*.

A bound morpheme can be used in speech only as a constituent part of a word. Affixes are, naturally, bound morphemes, for they always make part of a word, e.g. the suffixes *-ness*, *-ship*, *-ise* (*-ize*), etc., the prefixes *un-*.

Semi-bound morphemes can function in a morphemic sequence both as an affix and as a free morpheme. For example, the morpheme *well* and *half* on the one hand occur as free morphemes that coincide with the stem and the word-form in utterances like *sleep well*, *half an hour*, on the other hand they occur as bound morphemes in words like *well-known*, *half-eaten*, *half-done*.

Morph is the smallest meaningful phonetic segment of a real utterance (on the level of speech), phonetic representation of a morpheme.

Eg.:

Morpheme –s in the word doors, morph {z}.

If two or more morphs have the same meaning but different distribution – they are *allomorphs* of one morpheme. **Allomorph** is a contextual variant of a morpheme in pronunciation or in spelling.

E.g.:

-{s}, {-z} and {-iz} are all morphs and at the same time they are allomorphs of Eng. plural morpheme

{-s}. {-iz}, {-id} and {-ing} are all morphs but they are not allomorphs of one Eng. morpheme.

Eng. plural morpheme {-s} has alternative allomorphs {-s}, {-z}, {-iz} as in words: *docks, digs, forces*

A negative prefix *-un* is allomorph to variant spellings *-in, -ir, -il, -im* as in *intangible, illegal, irresponsible, uneatable, inedible, unreadable, illegible, unlawful, illegal*.

Semantically morphemes are subdivided into **lexical, lexico-grammatical** and **grammatical** ones.

Lexical morphemes carry the meaning. These are root morphemes and some affixes, for example, negative prefixes.

Grammatical morphemes are morphemes that carry grammatical meaning, i.e. they are used to express grammatical relationships between a word and its context. Inflectional morphemes signal grammatical relationships (e.g. plural, tense, gender, possession) and do not change the grammatical class of the stems they are attached to.

English grammatical morphemes are:

-s 3 p. sing.;

-s Plural;

-s Possessive;

-ed Past;

-ing Progressive;

-er Comparative;

-est Superlative.

Grammatical morphemes are also called inflectional. They have some typical features:

1. Do not change lexical meaning or part of speech, e.g., *big, bigg-er, bigg-est* are all adjectives with a particular meaning.

2. Express grammatically-required features or indicate relations between different words in the sentence. Thus in *Jane love-s Mike*: *-s* marks the 3rd person singular present form of the verb, and also relates it to the 3rd singular subject *Jane*.

3. Are productive. Inflectional morphemes typically combine freely with all members of some large class of morphemes. Thus the plural morpheme can be combined with nearly any noun, usually in the same form, and usually with the same effect on meaning.

4. Are used after derivational morphemes. Thus in *ration-al-iz-ation-s* the final *-s* is inflectional, and appears at the very end of the word, outside the derivational morphemes *-al*, *-iz*, *-ation*.

Lexico-grammatical morphemes help to determine grammatical class of words and bring a specification of lexical meaning.

Some common adjective-making morphemes include the following suffixes:

-able: being 'able' movable, portable;

-al: relating to global, manual;

-en: made of golden, wooden;

-ful: full of – hopeful, wishful – *-ic* – characteristic, domestic;

-ive: – tending to – sensitive, selective;

-less: – lack of, without – endless, powerless;

-ous: – full of – enormous, mysterious;

-y: – state, having – windy, slowly.

Noun suffixes:

-hood: condition of being childhood, statehood, falsehood;

-ness: condition or state of happiness, peacefulness, fairness;

-ist, *-ian*, *-or*, *-eer*: one who one who one who one who – pianist, balloonist, specialist librarian, historian, magician governor, editor, operator mountaineer, pioneer, commandeer, profiteer, engineer, musketeer;

-ology: study of – biology, ecology, mineralogy;

-ship: art or skill of, condition, rank, group of leadership, citizenship;

-age: result of an action marriage, acreage, pilgrimage;

-ment: state or act of payment, basement, improvement.

Verb suffixes:

-ate: become – eradicate;

-en: become – enlighten;

-ify, -fy: make or become – terrify;

-ize, -ise: become – civilize.

Thus such morphemes play an important grammatical role: they help to see a grammatical class of a word and also indicate grammatical form. It must be mentioned that in English grammatical form is marked not only by morphemes, but also by analytical forms and suppletion.

Suppletion is filling the gaps in the inflectional paradigm of a word by means of words that are unrelated historically and have different roots.

Ex.:

go, went;

good, better.

These pairs of words are considered word forms of a single lexeme.

Grammatical meaning, that was mentioned above in this chapter, becomes the basis of grammatical categories.

Grammatical categories convey a grammatical meaning, that can be found in groups of words, they are expressed by grammatical means – by morphemes, analytical means or suppletion. It differs grammatical categories from semantic categories that can be expressed by different means.

For, example, semantic category of multitude can be expressed by different lexemes with the corresponding meaning like *many, a lot, numerous, multitude*. These are numerals: *ten, twenty, hundred*. These can be syntactic structures of enumeration: *She took one pie, then one more and more*.

Grammatical categories in English are the following:

Person 1st, 2nd, 3rd;

Number sg, pl;

Case subjective, possessive, objective;

Gender masculine, feminine, neuter (this category has a disputable status);

Degree (comparison) – absolute, comparative, superlative;

Mood indicative, imperative, subjunctive;

Aspect perfect, imperfect, progressive, non progressive (or Perfect, Indefinite, Continuous, Perfect Continuous).

Categorial meaning can be presented as opposition of different kinds of meanings, where the members of opposition have different meanings. Every kind of semantics, expressed in a grammatical form, is called a member.

There are three types of oppositions: privative, gradual, equipollent, based on the numbers of oppositional semantics.

Oppositions are divided into binary and more than binary. In a binary opposition we can see two members, in more than binary – accordingly more than two.

The privative binary opposition is formed by two members in which one member shows the presence of a certain feature called the “mark”, while the other member is characterized by the absence of this differential feature.

Ex.: differential feature is the suffix “-(e)d”: “*work – worked*”: one member has this mark, the other hasn’t. The same can be seen in meaning: non-past (-) – past (+).

The gradual opposition is formed by the degree of presenting some feature of the opposition members.

Ex.: the category of comparison is expressed through the gradual morphological opposition: “*clean – cleaner – cleanest*”.

The equipollent opposition is formed by a contrastive group of members which are distinguished not by the presence or absence of a certain feature, but by a contrastive pair or group in which the members are distinguished by different positive (differential) features. The basis of morphological equipollent oppositions is suppletivity, i.e. the expression of the grammatical meaning by means of different roots united in one and the same paradigm.

Ex.: the correlation of the case forms of personal pronouns (*she // her, he // him*).

All oppositions may be reduced to a binary opposition, because in every category it is possible to distinguish two contrasting meanings.

The member of opposition that is distinguished by a formal element (for example, a morpheme), is called marked, that is contrasted, consequently, to the unmarked member. Also it is called strong and weak members.

Ex.: *Cat-cats*. *Cat* is a weak (unmarked) member, *cats* is strong (marked) member.

There is a close connection between morphemic form of the word and its categorical meaning. But in some cases the meaning and the form do not coincide. Here we deal with oppositional reduction. It is the usage of one member of an opposition in the position of the counter-member.

From the functional point of view there exist two types of oppositional reduction: neutralization of the categorial opposition and its transposition. In case of neutralization one member of the opposition becomes fully identified with its counterpart.

Ex.: Dog is friend of man. (singular form, but the meaning is plural).

Transposition takes place when one member of the opposition placed fulfils its own function and an additional one.

Ex.: He is the Forsyte.

The article here conveys the meaning of definiteness, also conveys the meaning “one of the class”, also conveys connotative color.

In stylistics both cases of oppositional reduction are called transposition.

Meaning and form are the basis for distributing all words into classes of **parts of speech**.

All parts of speech are distributed into notional, functional, some grammarians distinguish semi-notional parts of speech.

Notional parts of speech traditionally include nouns, adjectives, verbs, adverbs, pronouns and numerals. These parts of speech have an individual meaning, grammatical categories, morphemic elements that distinguish them and important roles as sentence parts.

To the basic functional series of words in English belong the article, the preposition, the conjunction, the particle, the modal word, the interjection. These words don't have an individual meaning or their meaning is weakened. These are words without inflexions or grammatical categories. In the sentence they have subordinate function and join notional words, phrases or clauses.

The article expresses the specific limitation of the substantive functions.

The preposition expresses the dependencies and interdependences of nominative elements.

The conjunction expresses connections of phenomena.

The particle unites the functional words of specifying and limiting meaning.

The modal word expresses the attitude of the speaker to the reflected situation and its parts.

The interjection is a signal of emotions.

The auxiliary indicates verb form.

The particle renders a modification of semantics.

Functional words appear due to a specific process that changes the status of a word. *Grammaticalization* is a type of semantic change by which a lexical item or construction changes into one that serves a grammatical function, or a grammatical item develops a new grammatical function.

This change is a gradual process and we can see it in such group as semi-notional words.

Modal verbs, on the one hand, have a developed semantics, on the other hand, lost grammatical forms and most of the categories, in a sentence have a subordinated role and a fixed place.

The same can be said about link verbs:

She is a doctor.

Ha had a bite.

Also there is a group of verbs that introduce infinitives and gerunds. They are called verbid introducers (seem, happen, turn out, try, manage, begin, continue, stop).

Some grammarians have a functional approach to classifying the words and distinguish, for example determiners or quantifiers.

Determiners “mark” nouns. The determiners are:

the articles (*an, a, the*);

possessive nouns (*Joe’s, the priest’s, my mother’s*);

possessive pronouns, (*his, your, their, whose, etc.*);

numbers (*one, two, etc.*);

indefinite pronouns (*few, more, each, every, either, all, both, some, any, etc.*); and demonstrative pronouns.

quantifiers are words that precede and modify nouns. They show quantity:

many trees

a little dancing

most of the trees/dancing

enough trees/dancing

CONCLUSION:

Morphemic and categorical structure of the word provides inseparable connection of form and meaning. Grammatical meaning is presented in grammatical categories and expressed by different grammatical

means. Meaning, form and function serve as a basis for parts of speech classification.

Notional parts of speech demonstrate it clearly. The function of notional parts of speech is determined by their role in the sentence. Functional parts of speech have weakened semantics, subordinated role in syntax.

Recommendations for study

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Chart 3. Parts of Speech in English in Supplement.

Check questions

1. What is a morpheme?
2. What are classes of morphemes?
3. Explain the difference between a semantic category and a grammatical category.
4. What are grammatical categories in English?
5. What kinds of categories do you know?
6. What is the difference between acquired and inherent categories?
7. What is oppositional reduction?
8. What are three main word groups?
9. What is a notional part of speech?
10. What is a functional part of speech?
11. What is grammaticalization?
12. Give short characteristics to all notional parts of speech.
13. What are syntactic functions of notional parts of speech?
14. Why are some words in English polyfunctional?

◆ Chapter 4

NOMINAL AND QUALIFYING PARTS OF SPEECH

📄 *Issues to consider*

- Noun general characteristics.
- Article determination.
- Adjective classification and categorical structure.
- Pronoun functions.
- Numerals classification.

In this chapter there is a short description of noun and those parts of speech that are closely connected with it. An adjective is a part of speech that is most often combines with noun. Numeral, pronoun can have a substituting function for noun and adjective, article forms a unity with the noun it modifies.

Noun is the major part of speech that carries a nominative function. It can give a name to any object, phenomenon, quality or action, this it has the greatest power of nomination of all parts of speech. Its meaning is ‘substance’ or ‘thingness’.

Structurally nouns are divided into simple (*book, name, sky*), derivative (formed with affixes such as *-ment, -tion, -sion, -age, -al, -ance/-ence, - (e)ry, -ure, etc. E.g. engagement, destruction, marriage, arrival, allowance, persistence, bribery, enclosure*), compound (formed of two roots like *top-model, father-in-law, cousin sister*).

There is also a specific class of words, called pronames . These are other parts of speech, phrases or even sentences, performing a nominative function in a particular context. Though pronames don’t have developed grammatical properties like usual nouns, they nevertheless can indicate plural and singular, masculine and feminine.

For example, the following phrases are all used in English to replace nouns when the speaker forgot or doesn’t know an exact name: *so-and-so, whatnot, whatsername, whatsizname, whatyoumame, whatyoucallem, whatyoucalte, whatyoucallim, whatyoucallit, youknow*.

Pronemes like *Mrs Whatsemame* and *President Whatnot* are used to speak about absent people. It is not polite to use it speaking to or about present people: *Hey, you, whatsyourname*.

Pronames can be also used instead of a taboo word: *He's a wicked old so-and-so.*

Pronames can be used for creating different stylistic effects:

Ex.:

He would answer to "Hi!" or to any loud cry,

Such as "Fry me!" or "Fritter my wig!"

To "What-you-may-call-um!" or "What-was-his-name!"

But especially "Thing-um-a-jig!"

(from Lewis Carroll, The Hunting of the Snark)

Valency of noun, that is its ability to combine with other parts of speech, is wide. It can combine with other nouns, pronouns, adjectives, articles, verbs, prepositions and conjunctions.

Ex.:

City gate

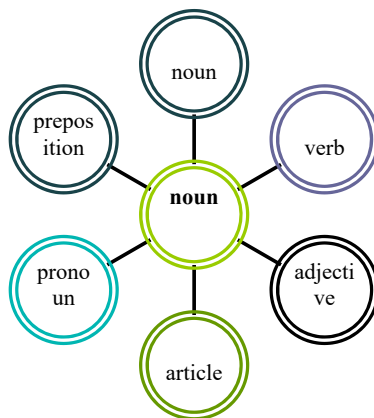
My name

Nice day

The book

To London

See Moscow



The noun is one of the most important parts of speech: its arrangement with the verb helps to express a predication, the core of the sentence. In majority of cases it can perform the role of a subject or object, but also can be an attribute, part of a compound nominal predicate or adverbial modifier.

Ex.:

We may need some kind of transition (attribute) period (object) to get there ...

There will need to be a transition to the new world (adverbial modifier) but this basic income support payment (subject) should be removed

But it has still taken aim (part of a compound predicate) at Israel.

(from the Guardian)

Nouns are semantically classified into the following groups:

Proper: *Moscow, James*;

Common: *ship, box*;

Concrete: *desk, room*;

Abstract: *winter, knowledge*;

Animate: *woman, pig*;

Inanimate: *clock, money*;

Human: *doctor, student*;

Non-human: *dog, monkey*;

Countable: pineapples, pears.

Uncountable: education, water.

The noun in English can be replaced by different pronouns:

Ex.:

mother, sister, girl – she;

father, brother, boy – he;

teacher, doctor, pupil, student, neighbour, – he or she;

animals, table – it.

Category of number of noun is presented by opposition of one – more than one.

The marked member of opposition has the ending –s:

map – maps

card – cards

match – matches

library – libraries

day – days

In the system of marking the plural there are still examples of Old English declension system:

man – men

woman – women

child – children

goose – geese

mouse – mice

Some nouns have double forms of plural, differentiated in stylistic use:

Brother – brothers, brethren.

English has also borrowed some foreign plurals, for example:

<i>analysis</i>	<i>analyses</i>
<i>appendix</i>	<i>appendixes/appendices</i>
<i>cactus</i>	<i>cactuses/cacti</i>
<i>criterion</i>	<i>criteria</i>
<i>datum</i>	<i>data</i>
<i>phenomenon</i>	<i>phenomena</i>
<i>syllabus</i>	<i>syllabuses/syllabi</i>
<i>thesis</i>	<i>theses</i>

They are gradually assimilated in English. For example *indexes* and *indices* for the noun *index* co-exist in Modern English, but differ in meaning.

Group nouns can be used in plural or in singular depending on the notion the noun conveys – a single entity or a collection of elements:

The team is here.

The team are well.

Other group nouns are: *class, herd, jury, army, council, family, group, audience and so on.*

English number category is specific in the use of two groups of nouns – Pluralia Tantum (nouns used in plural) and Singularia Tantum (always used in singular).

Pluralia Tantum includes instruments, devices and facilities (*scissors, clippers, pincers, binoculars, stairs, arm*), objects of two elements: *jeans, trousers, slack, dungarees, breeches and so on.*

Others, Singularia Tantum, on the contrary, have only the form of a singular, basically, these are uncountable nouns

Advice – advice,

progress – progress,

knowledge – knowledge,

information – information,

money – money,

news – news.

The suffix *-s* in the structure of some nouns, has merged with the root and does not indicate plural, such nouns are used in singular:

names of some games (*billiards, bowls, dominoes*),

fields of science and academic subjects (*physics, classics, linguistics, translation studies*),

names of sports (*athletics, aerobics, gymnastics*),

diseases and symptoms (*doldrums, jimjams, measles, delirium tremens*)

and so on.

Here we can also see double cases of using singular or plural, depending on meaning: *maths* (*расчет, вычисления (pl.) – математика (sing.)*); *phonetics* (*фонетика (sing.) – слышимость, акустика – (pl.)*).

The limitation of using some nouns only in singular is escaped in English by combining them with a special group of part nouns:

Ex.:

2 litres of water,

A glass of water,

1 kilogram of sugar,

A packet of sugar,

2 pieces of cake,

some water.

These nouns are also called unit or measure nouns. They form fixed collocations with the nouns they modify:

a bag of flour | rice | gold dust

a bar of chocolate | gold | soap

a can of cream | meat | tuna

a carton of ice-cream | orange juice | milk

a cup of hot chocolate | coffee | tea

a glass of beer | juice | water | wine

a grain of rice | sand | truth

an item of clothing | expenditure | news

a piece of advice | furniture | paper

In spoken everyday English one can also notice constructs such as “*where is my trousers*” or “*Where is my parents and mothers?*” or “*Ain’t nobody here talking*”. In these examples we can see that the category of number demonstrates loss of distinction between plural and singular.

The factors, determining this use, are stylistic (spoken grammar differing from written grammar), territorial (variants of English from different regional areas) or social (used by some social classes, immigrants).

The noun in English language has two cases: the Nominative (Common Case) and Possessive (Genitive) Case. In spite of the name “Possessive” this case can render not only relations of possession, but a wide range of semantic relations:

- 1) carrier and attribute, e.g. *Mary's vanity*;
- 2) agent and process, e.g. *the president's arrival*;
- 3) patient + process, e.g. *John's trial*;
- 4) agent + result, e.g. *Shakespeare's poem*;
- 5) circumstance + effected object, e.g. *yesterday's newspapers*.

The marked member of that opposition is formed by means of the ending -s before which there is an apostrophe or by an analytical construction:

the girl's bag, a bag of the girl.

Dickens' novels, Dickens's novels

workers' caps, caps of workers,

cats' paws paws of cats,

Shelly's and Byron's poems

Cases of the use of inanimate nouns in possessive case are also possible in some cases:

a mile's distance – distance in mile,

a month's holiday – a vacation for a month,

a five days' trip – a five-day trip,

the world's resources – world resources,

the Earth's rotation – rotation of the Earth

Possessive can be used also without a modified noun, it is the absolute use of possessive case:

a dog of my friend's – a dog of my friend,

at her grandmother's – at (its) grandmother,

at the baker's – in a bakery

The noun can serve as definition to other nouns, here Possessive is not necessary: *sugar cane, life insurance, payment agreement, cotton market, tin trade.*

In spoken English Possessive can be misused.

Ex.:

At the butchers

Antique's for Sale

fresh cucumber's

Welcome to the Smith's

(from <http://www.cjr.org>)

The category of gender in modern English is not grammatically relevant anymore, but there are some peculiarities of gender reference.

Only some human and animate nouns can be of feminine and masculine gender on the basis of meaning (*man, rooster, stag, mare, hen, doe,*), morphology (*landlord, goddess, landlady, tigress*) or context: *doctor, teacher, president* can be specified only by environment (*the president's house belongs to his wife*).

Using gender in speech now has become a stylistic problem, connected with political correctness and sexism. It concerns job titles (*fireman; barman or barmaid; chairman or chairwoman*), generic words for humans (*man*), honorifics (*Mr, Miss and Mrs*). The majority of editing houses, corporations, and government bodies have official policies in favor of gender-neutral language.

Quite a different picture can be seen in personification. Here inanimate objects and abstract notions can be personified and acquire gender. The choice of gender follows historical or some other traditions.

Ex.:

Our narrator, Death, introduces himself

Where is our ship?

***She** hasn't arrived yet.*

*Poland also sent **her** delegation to the conference.*

Take me back to my boat on the river

And I won't cry out anymore

*Time stands still as I gaze in **her** waters*

***She** eases me down, touching me gently (from the song *Boat on the River* by Styx)*

Show me that river, why don't you take me across,

Wash all my troubles away,

*I know that lucky old sun, **he's** got nothing to do,*

*But just roll around heaven all day (from the song “Lucky Old Sun”)
I think of Italy, with **her** ardent Fascisti, **her** renowned Chief.. (Winston Churchill, 1933.)*

*Russia to double the size of **her** army (Headline from the New York Times, 1915.)*

*... this is one of the best books yet to bring home the reality of what this illegal occupation is doing to Iraq and **her** people. (Amazon book review, 11 June 2007.)*

*Although technically the European Union has enlarged **her** borders, there still remains an East/West divide. (University of Glasgow course notes, published in 2004.)*

(from <http://forum.wordreference.com>)

The article is almost a constant companion of noun – That makes some grammarians consider it an expression of a category of article determination. The article speeds up the process of identification and, consequently, it speeds up the process of the comprehension of the text. Articles help to differentiate nouns from the other parts of speech, can render additional shades of meaning to nouns.

The use of articles is determined by different factors.

Traditional cases: *Did you go to **the** Black Sea or o **the** Volga? **the** Northern part of our country I've been neither to South Africa nor to North America. My name is Bond, James Bond.*

Semantics of singular (one, unique): ***The** sun is in **the** sky. **The** teacher is in **the** classroom. Will you be back in **an** hour?*

Communicative perspective (information introduced for the first or for the second time): *“I've got a very interesting book,” says Mike. “Please show me **the** book,” says Nick.*

Combination with other determiners and modifiers: *We are on **the** fourth floor. He is **the** best student in our group. It is **a** most interesting book. John's coat*

Phraseological factor (idioms, set expressions): *Most of **the** stories are very interesting. To tell the truth. A bee in the bonnet. You can get there in time if you go by train.*

Another modifier of noun is **adjective**. The adjective expresses the property, quality or state.

By structure adjectives can be simple (*blue, big, nice*), derivative (formed with suffixes: *-able or -ible, -ent or -ant, -ed, -ing, -ive, - (at) ory*. E.g. *navigable, sensible, dependent, frustrated, boring, attractive, congratulatory*).

A special kind of adjectives is compound adjectives:

This is a four-foot table.

Daniella is a part-time worker.

This is an all-too-common error.

Beware of the green-eyed monster.

He is a cold-blooded man.

I love this brightly-lit room!

Danny's dog is well-behaved.

You have to be open-minded about things.

There are different structural kinds of compound adjectives:

Num + N – three-second, five-day, six-week, four-year-old, twelve-storey, twenty-page.

Adj/ Adv + Past Participle – narrow-minded, well-behaved, old-fashioned, densely-populated, short-haired, widely-recognized, well-educated.

Adj | Adv | N + Present Participle – long-lasting, record-breaking, mouth-watering, thought-provoking, time-saving.

N+adj – ice-cold.

Adj+N – last-minute, full-length.

The valency of adjectives determines their syntactic roles. They combine with nouns and can play an attributive role.

Also adjectives can combine with link verbs to become part of compound nominal modifiers.

Ex.:

The plan is not final, but the official says the group may include former House speaker Newt Gingrich and former New York mayor Rudy Giuliani, both Trump allies.

(from The Guardian)

All the adjectives can be divided into two large groups: qualitative and relative. Qualitative adjectives (also called gradable) denote quality that can be graded:

Nice

Very nice

Extremely nice

A little bit nice

Gradable adjectives can be further divided into stative and dynamic.

Some qualities are stable, some are unstable:

Ex.: Ne is tall. He is tall (stative property) vs. He is careful (dynamic property) with this chemical substance.

Dynamic adjectives resemble activity verbs: like activity verbs, they can be used in the progressive and in the perfect form in combinations with link verbs.

E.g. He is being careful today, because yesterday he got a burn from this substance. He has been careful today, so no accidents happened in his laboratory.

Relative adjectives express the property of an entity typical for some entity. For instance, *wooden* is a typical characteristic of wood, the same can be said about such adjectives as *English, chemical, coloured, etc.* Relative adjectives express non-gradable properties.

Qualitative adjectives can be used attributively and predicatively: *e.g. a big house vs. the house is big.*

Adjectives denoting a temporary property, or state, are used only predicatively: *e.g. She is ill. He is asleep.*

Adjectives have only one category – comparison. It is expressed only with the help of qualitative adjectives.

It is based on the opposition of three forms: the positive, the comparative, and the superlative.

There are three ways of forming degrees of comparison: synthetic, analytical, and suppletive.

The comparative and superlative forms can be morphemic (bigger, biggest), analytical (more attentive, most attentive) or suppletive (good, better, the best).

The comparative degree and the superlative degree are formed by adding the suffixes *-er* and *-est* to the positive form of the adjective or by using *more* and *most* before the positive form of the adjective.

Monosyllable adjectives form the comparative and superlative degrees by adding the suffixes *-er* and *-est*: *black, blacker, blackest; cheap, cheaper, cheapest.*

Most two-syllable adjectives, including adjectives ending in the suffixes “*al, ant, ent, ish, ive, ic, ous, ful, less*”, form the comparative and superlative degrees with the help of *more* and *most*: *active, more active, most active*.

Two-syllable adjectives ending in “*y, er, ow*” often have 2 variants, including *more* and *most*: *lazy, lazier / more lazy, laziest / most lazy*.

Variants formed with the help of *-er and -est* are more traditional and more widely used than those with *more* and *most*.

Polysyllabic adjectives form the comparative and superlative degrees by using *more* and *most* before the adjective: *beautiful, more beautiful, most beautiful*.

The same concerns adjectives formed from participles: *annoying, more annoying, most annoying*.

Superlative form can have a noncomparative meaning “*very, extremely, highly*”.

She is a most beautiful woman.

They are most interesting people.

Yesterday I had a most strange dream.

I'm most pleased to see you here.

Uncomparable adjectives (*absent, full, sufficient, wooden and so on*) can nevertheless change their meaning in context and form degrees of comparison.

Ex. This cup is full.

But if we see a microscopical difference in the volume of the second cup, we'll see that it is *more full* than the first one.

Adjectives with the prefix *-a*, such as *afraid, alike, alive, alone, ashamed, asleep, awake, aware*, are used only predicatively after linking verbs, i.e., they are not used in the position before a noun.

Ex.: She is more afraid of him than of his father.

The quality can be not only increased, but also decreased. Such comparison is called reverse comparison or lower degree: *attentive, less attentive, least attentive; common, less common, least common*.

The comparison can become the basis of a specific parallel construction:

The more we learn, the more we know,

The more we know, the more we forget,

The more we forget, the less we know.

So, the more we learn — the less we know.

Hence, what's the reason to learn?

Another notional part of speech that is closely connected with nouns and adjectives is a pronoun.

Pronouns are a closed class of parts of speech that mostly have a substituting function. In the function of replacing nouns pronouns can operate in a wide range of syntactic functions (ex., as subject, object, attribute).

The following pronouns can substitute nouns, nominal word-combinations, nominal clauses or even sentences.

Ex. This is a new book. That is an old one.

Personal pronouns refer to the people involved in the act of communication.

Specific feature of pronoun usage in English is a limited use of the 2nd person singular pronoun *thou*. It is not completely extinct but belongs to strictly archaic usage. Its function is taken by the pronoun *you*.

To compensate for the loss of difference in singular and plural, colloquial English has developed ways to underline the idea of plurality, special forms of *you* like *y'all (you all)*, *yinz, you-uns (you ones)*, *you guys, you lot, yous/youse, ye*.

Reciprocal pronouns are used to express a 'two-way' relationship: each other, one another.

The following pronouns have an attributive function and can consequently substitute adjectives.

Demonstrative pronouns (*this/these, that/those*) express a contrast between 'near' and 'distant'.

Possessive pronouns express ownership, and have two forms: ordinary (*my, your, etc.*) and absolute (*mine, hers*).

3. Some pronouns can have both nominative and attributive function.

Interrogative pronouns are used to ask questions and thus represent either a nominal element or an attributive one: *who?, whom?, whose?, which?, what?*

The same can be said about relative pronouns, used to combine clauses in a complex sentence (*who, whom, whose, which, that*)

Reflexive pronouns, always ending in *-self* or *-selves (myself, etc.)*, 'reflect' the meaning of a noun or pronoun elsewhere in the clause: *They washed themselves*.

Indefinite pronouns express a notion of quantity. There are two main types. Compound pronouns consist of two elements: *every-, some-, any-*,

or no- + -one, -body, or - thing, as in someone and anything. Of-pronouns consist of several forms which may appear alone or be followed by *of* (*I've eaten all the cake/all/of the cake*). Their meanings range from the 'universal' sense of all and both to the 'negative' sense of none and few. Other items in this class include *each, much, many, more, most, less, fewer, some, and neither*.

Another class with a double syntactic function (attributive and nominal) is a **numeral**.

Numerals are parts of speech that denote numbers.

Numerals are divided into quantitative (Cardinal Numerals) and serial (Ordinal Numerals).

Cardinal numbers denote quantity of objects and consequently can be used alone in a nominative function (*One is the starting numeral*) or combine with nouns (*two books*).

Ordinal numerals denote the order of objects and perform either an attributive function (the third day) or a predicative function (*He was the second in line*).

Numerals can be simple (*0 – zero, 1 – one, 2 – two, 3 – three*)

Derivative (*14 – fourteen, 15 – fifteen, 16 – sixteen, 30 – thirty, 40 – forty*)

Composite (*fifty one, seventy two*)

Numerals are a limited group of words, but they are widely used in a number of functions. They are used as fractions. In simple fractions the numerator is designated by a cardinal number, and a denominator – serial.

1/3 a (one) third

1/5 a (one) fifth

0.2 (zero) point two

3.4 three point four

Dates: *July 25 (25th), 1976 The twenty-fifth of July*

Measure nouns: *1 inch, 2 centimeters, 1 foot, 3 ounces, 28 grams*.

Numerals can also be used in a substituting functions:

Would you like some rolls? – Give me two.

I'll take this place. I'll be the first.

CONCLUSION:

Noun is the main part of speech, that has a great nominative power, it enables noun to nominate any aspect of reality. Nouns are accompanied by modifiers that can be articles, adjectives, numerals or pronouns. Pronouns

and numerals can also have similar nominative roles in a sentence. Thus these are nominative and qualifying parts of speech.

Nouns and adjectives have developed categories. Categorical representation of pronouns is partly lost due to morphological simplification.

Numerals have lost categorial expressions. That makes pronoun and numeral a disputable part of speech. Articles are purely functional parts of speech.

In spoken English the use of categorial forms for the above mentioned parts of speech can violate the rules of normative grammar.

📖 **Recommendations for study**

📖 *Sources for study*

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Check questions

1. What is the connection of noun, adjective and article?
2. Give general characteristics of noun.
3. What are peculiarities of gender category in modern English?
4. What is Pluralia Tantum, Singularia Tantum?
5. What are foreign plurals in English?
6. What functions of Genitive case do you know?
7. What is the role of partitive and group nouns in realization of Number category?
8. What are specific features of noun categories in Modern English?
9. What are characteristics of English adjectives?
10. What is double comparison?
11. What is oppositional reduction of Comparison category?
12. What groups of pronouns demonstrate nominative and attributive functions?
13. What groups of numerals are there in English?
14. What are substituting functions of pronouns?

◆ Chapter 5 VERB AND ADVERB

📄 *Issues to consider*

- Definition of verb.
- Classification of verbs.
- Categories of verb.
- Adverb definition and classification.
- Adverb look-alikes.

Actional function is played by one of the major parts of speech – the verb. The verb is a notional part of speech denoting action, process or state.

Structurally verbs are subdivided into simple (*walk, play, eat*), derivative (*unleash, reread, replay*), compound (*underline, whitewash*) and composite.

Composite (phrasal) verbs consist of a verb and an adverb or a preposition (also called postpositive): *run in, fly away, get off, walk back, drive past, come over*.

One simple verb can become the basis for several phrasal ones.:

Ex.:

break down/ out/ in/ up

clear off/out

come about/ on/ off/ out/ to/ round/ up

fall off/ out/ through

get off/ on/ out/up

give in/ out! up

go off/ out/ round

look back/ in/ round/ out

pull in/out set off/ out

Phrasal verbs present varying degrees of cohesiveness and idiomaticity.

The following types are recognized: **non-idiomatic or fully idiomatic**.

Non-idiomatic phrasal verbs are free combinations:

The children went down to the beach

The bus stopped and we got on/got off.

Put all the books back on the shelf.

Fully idiomatic combinations are those in which the meaning of the whole is not easily deduced from the parts, although it may well be deduced from the context:

The conversation petered out after about ten minutes. (gradually came to an end)

The government has decided to crack down on antisocial behaviour. (impose sanctions).

The nonsense song caught on and was soon being heard everywhere. (become popular)

Catenative verbs serve for formation of complex verbal forms (*to be, to become, to remain, to grow, to get, to turn, to look, to keep and others*). A **catenative verb** controls a non-finite complement. ‘Catenative’ means ‘chaining’ and reflects the way that the verb can link recursively with other catenatives to form a chain, as in:

We decided to try to rent a house near the sea.

Catenative verbs include different patterns:

V + to-infinitive – I want to go

V + NG + to-infinitive clause with subject – He wants us to go

V + NG + bare infinitive – We let them go

V + -ing clause – I like listening to music

V + NG + -ing clause – I saw them waiting

V + NG + -en clause – We’ll get it mended

Verbs have a valency that allows them to combine with nouns as objects and subjects of action and adverbs as modifiers:

Jack reads

Reads a book

Reads silently

The function of the verb is predicative:

Ex.:

In July 2015, Israel raised the alert level on its southern border with Egypt’s Sinai region and deployed additional troops over fears that Sinai Province could threaten the country’s security or even launch an attempt to take control of the Gaza Strip, the Hamas-controlled enclave that borders both Israel and Egypt.

(from Newsweek)

This can be said about finite forms of the verb, but non-finite forms can have a wider range of functions. Gerund and infinitive could be called a verbal noun and act as noun in a sentence, participles are close to adjectives and can perform an attributive function.

Ex.:

The Egyptian branch of ISIS, known as the Sinai Province, ...
The 35-minute video shows an ISIS militant warning Israel that...
... the video's narrator was quoted as saying.
...the first elected president of Egypt.

(from Newsweek)

According to status the verbs can be notional, link verbs, modal verbs, auxiliary verbs, that is verbs have a wide range of semantics – from notional to functional.

According to semantics verbs are subdivided into actional and stative.

Action verbs (also called dynamic verbs) express activities, processes, momentary actions or physical conditions: *ache, arrive, ask, call, fall, feel, go, grow, help, say, shrink, sing, speak, talk, throw and so on.*

State verbs express states or conditions which are relatively static. They include verbs of perception, cognition, the senses, emotion and state of being: *appear, believe, belong, consider, hate, hear, have, know, remember, resemble, seem, suppose and so on.*

Some verbs can change their status in context and demonstrate an active or stative semantics.

Stative meaning:

Do you have a car? (own)

You are my best friend. (it's a fact)

That soup smells good. (has a good smell)

I don't hear well. (pick up with ears)

You look great! (your current appearance)

Active meaning:

They are having dinner at the moment. (eating)

She's being silly again. (behaving in a silly way)

He is smelling the soup. (sniffing at)

The judge will be hearing the evidence later this week. (listening to)

He was looking out the window when I saw him. (directing his eyes towards)

According to the nature of action, demonstrated by the verb it can be attributed to a limitive or unlimitive group.

Limitive verbs denote momentary, short-term action with an idea of finality: *to stop, to shut, to jump.*

Unlimitive verbs on the contrary denote prolonged action: to sleep, to live, to walk. In English such distinction is very approximate and the idea of durability or finality is conveyed by grammatical means.

Verbs are most often complemented by objects, they join nominal elements by means of preposition or without a preposition. Verbs, joined by objects are called transitive.

Ex.:

Republicans grow increasingly worried about a candidate considering whether to confront Trump about his approach to his presidential campaign.

refused to endorse Republican House speaker Paul Ryan

Republicans may be attempting an intervention

I'm in control of the things that the candidate wants me to control.

(from The Guardian)

Intransitive verbs are not joined by objects.

Ex.:

He smiled.

The sun set.

The parties agreed.

The boy walked in the park.

Everybody laughed.

Verbs are also subdivided into regular and irregular according to the way to form 3 basic forms:

Open – opened – opened

Take – took – taken.

Basic ways of formation for irregular verbs are:

Addition of the termination-t or-d with preservation or radical change of a vowel.

Ex.:

burn – burnt – burnt

keep – kept – kept

Change of a root vowel in 2-nd form and preservation or change of a root vowel with addition of the ending-e (n).

Ex.:

write – wrote – written

drive – drove – driven

Concurrence of all three forms.

Ex.:

cost – cost – cost

put – put – put

These patterns are the remnants of Old English conjugation system.

Categorial structure of the verb is complicated, it is presented by the categories of person and number, tense, aspect, voice and mood.

They are all presented through the same markers – endings, vowel interchange or analytical forms.

The person and number is not an innate category for the verb, it is a reflection of subject-predicate agreement, thus as the subjects have person and number, the verbs agreeing with them also have person and number.

This agreement is not marked in all forms, but it can be seen in forms of the verb to be:

I am. We are.

Thou art. You are.

He is. They are.

I was. We were.

Thou wast. You were.

He was. They were.

Also these are forms of the verb *to have* – *he has, I have*.

This agreement is also visible in the 3 person singular:

He performs a brave action.

Tense and aspect are closely connected. Tense is presented by forms of Present, Past, Future and Future in the Past. Tense indicates the location of an action in time.

Aspect indicates whether the action of a verb is complete or not and also duration of action, thus it serves as characteristics of the manner of action. Nevertheless, its function is closely connected with the tense category to create an idea of reference. There are three aspects: simple, perfect and progressive. **The indefinite (or simple) aspect** does not relate to the flow of time. **The perfect aspect** indicates that the action is complete. **The progressive (or continuous) aspect** indicates that the action is ongoing in the present.

Tense is the grammatical expression of the location of events in time. It anchors an event to the speaker's experience of the world by relating

the event time to a point of reference. The universal, unmarked reference point is the moment of speaking – speech time. In narrative, a point in past time is usually taken as the reference point.

Speech time is considered present. Past events take place before speech present, future events are thought of as taking place after it.

The location of the speaker at present serves as the point of reference.

The tense is not directly connected with the time of action and every tense form has several shades of meaning. Let's examine the Present Simple semantics. The basic meaning of the Present tense is to locate a situation at the present moment.

These are events which coincide, or are presented as coinciding, with speech time and have no duration beyond speech time:

_____ **now** _____

Ex.:

I promise I'll be careful.

I place the fruit in the blender, press gently, and then pour out the liquid.

Used with stative verbs, the Present refers to a single uninterrupted state, which began before the moment of speaking and may well continue after it.

_____ **then** _____ **now** _____ **in the future** _____

Ex.:

Jupiter is the largest planet in the solar system.

The Habitual Present denotes situations that occur habitually over time, even if the action is not being carried out at the moment of speaking.

_____ **then** _____ **in the future**

Ex.:

Tim works in an insurance company. It's his day off now.

The Present can be used to refer to past events in certain limited ways. We can see it in newspaper headlines, that speak about events referred as prior to the moment of publication.

Ex.:

Donald Trump insists campaign is greater than ever as Republicans plot 'intervention'

ISIS'S EGYPT AFFILIATE RELEASES VIDEO SAYING ISRAEL
WILL 'PAY A HIGH PRICE' SOON

National Trust calls for complete reform of British farm subsidies

The same concerns the use of aspect. The main function of the Present Continuous is to indicate a dynamic action in the process of happening.

Stative verbs are used in Continuous denotes a temporary state,

Ex.:

You are being far too optimistic, George.

Some verbs in Present Continuous change meaning into a dynamic one:

Ex.:

I'm seeing the doctor tomorrow. (consulting – programmed event)

Janet is seeing her friends off. (taking leave of)

With limitive momentary verbs such as *tap, kick, fire, sneeze, bounce, flash, hit* and in Continuous the situation is interpreted as repeated:

Ex.:

Someone is tapping on the wall next door.

With unlimitive verbs (*play, sing, work, talk, dance, rain, snow, etc.*), including verbs of bodily sensation (*ache, hurt, itch, feel cold*) Continuous forms create an effect of giving a perspective into the Future:

Ex.:

Something very strange is going on here.

Some unlimitive verbs (*die, fall, drop, arrive, sit down, stand up*) can make an effect of presenting a durative process before completion:

Ex.:

He is dying from AIDS.

In Colloquial English indication of time is often ignored, for example, the verb *to be* is often omitted and thus indication of tense is blurred.

I don't care what he say, you __ gon (going to) laugh.

I tell him to be quiet because he don't know what he __ talking about.

I mean, he may say something's out of place but he __ cleaning up behind it and you can't get mad at him.

The category of Mood is considered an expression of modality. Mood is a grammatical category which expresses the speaker's attitude toward the process, indicating whether it is regarded as a fact or as a non-fact, i.e. as a matter of supposition, desire, possibility, etc. Three forms of Mood are presenting an event in different factological light:

Indicative shows an event as a fact, if past or present forms are used:

Ex.:

As I walked along in the sun I remembered old Cotter's words and tried to remember what had happened afterwards in the dream. I remembered that I had noticed long velvet curtains and a swinging lamp of antique fashion.

(from Dubliners by James Joyce)

Future forms show an action as predicted or desirable:

Ex.:

Humanity will change more in the next 20 years than in all of human history.

By 2030 the average person in the U.S. will have 4.5 packages a week delivered with flying drones. They will travel 40% of the time in a driverless car, use a 3D printer to print hyper-individualized meals, and will spend most of their leisure time on an activity that hasn't been invented yet.

The world will have seen over 2 billion jobs disappear, with most coming back in different forms in different industries, with over 50% structured as freelance projects rather than full-time jobs.

(from futuristspeaker.com)

Subjunctive mood shows an action as possible or desirable:

Ex.:

Had he not been dead I would have gone into the little dark room... Perhaps my aunt would have given me a packet of High Toast for him, and this present would have roused him from his stupefied doze... as if I had been freed from something by his death.

(from Dubliners by James Joyce)

Imperative mood presents volition concerning the action, that is not, consequently, a fact:

Ex.:

Lift slowly and check the load often

Avoid standing in the line of force

Anticipate possible problems and take steps to avoid them.

Check to see if all safety measures have been taken to avoid the risk of injury and property damage from your application or system.

In addition to these tips, every Enerpac product comes with instructions spelling out specific safety information. Please read them carefully.

(from Safety instructions)

The category of voice is representation of the action through the reference of it to the agent and object of action.

Ex.:

The room through the lace end of the blind was suffused with dusky golden light amid which the candles looked like pale thin flames...

He had been confined.. I noticed how clumsily her skirt was hooked at the back and how the heels of her cloth boots were trodden down all to one side...

She seemed to be somewhat disappointed at my refusal and went over quietly to the sofa, where she sat down behind her sister...

‘There’s poor Nannie,’ said Eliza, looking at her, she’s wore out.

In the little room downstairs we found Eliza seated in his arm-chair in state.

(from Dubliners by James Joyce)

The Objective Complement can be different in meaning. It can be animate and inanimate participant in different roles:

Recipient (e.g. *John kissed Mary*),

Affected object: *The servant beats the carpet once a week.*

The passive construction allows the speaker to change the theme: *My father built this house. — The house was built by my father.*

Also it helps to achieve anonymity:

Republican National Committee chairman Reince Priebus is reported among a handful of high-profile Republicans considering whether to confront Trump about his approach to his presidential campaign.

The video is similar to that of other ISIS propaganda productions but its direct link to the group could not be independently verified.

All the money was spent on conservation, it said.

It cannot be done overnight.

The Bank of England is widely expected to cut UK interest rates for the first time since March 2009 on Thursday.

It is anticipated that Mark Carney, the Bank governor, will announce a reduction from 0.5% to 0.25% at noon.

A rate cut would be intended to boost the UK economy in the wake of the country's vote to leave the European Union.

The category of voice is based on transitive verbs. The passive voice is marked analytically: it is built up by means of the auxiliary verb *be* and the past participle of the given verb.

Formally, passive constructions present two types: full (non-elliptical) and elliptical. More common are elliptical passives, i.e. passives without the Agentive Adjunct. The meaning of the passive constructions can be active in some cases. For example, the sentence *The door was closed* is formally passive, but it can not be transformed into active.

Special cases are also reflexive construction, e.g. *He never shaves before lunch. John is shaving himself.*

The other voices distinguished in English are reciprocal and middle. The reciprocal voice is expressed with the help of reciprocal pronouns added to a verb, e.g. *They kissed each other.*

Middle voice can be illustrated by such sentences as:

The door opened.

The play acts well.

The book is selling excellently.

The fabric washes easily.

The door won't open.

Glass breaks easily.

Semantically, this sentence is passive, but formally it is active.

Finite forms of the verb represent all the verbal categories, but there are forms of the verb, that have a limited categorial characteristics. These are:

- the Infinitive;
- the Gerund;
- the Present Participle (Participle I);
- the Past Participle (Participle II).

These forms are said to be **non-tensed**. **Only some forms have categorial characteristics of voice and aspect.**

For example, paradigm of the infinitive is the following:

Simple infinitive in active voice: *to write*.

Continuous infinitive: *be writing*.

Perfect infinitive in active voice: *to have written*.

Perfect-continuous infinitive: *to have been writing*.

Simple infinitive in passive voice: *to be written*.

The Perfect infinitive in passive voice: *to have been written*.

To show, that action concerns to the future, the simple infinitive is used after modal verbs *may, must, should, ought to* and after verbs *to expect, to intend, to hope, to want*, etc. For example: *You may come tomorrow. You can come tomorrow.*

The infinitive in English language represents the impersonal form of an English verb: *to read, to speak*.

The gerund is an impersonal form of an English verb, uniting features of a noun and a verb: *playing, reading, walking*.

The Participle I present characteristics of object through verbal form: *That man shouting at the policeman*.

The same concerns Participle II: *The delivered goods will be stored in our warehouse*.

The difference between participles is not temporal, but is connected with the idea of finality.

Opening window – the action of opening is not completed.

Opened window – the action of opening is completed.

All non-finite forms are capable of creating specific constructions:

Ex.:

He wants us all to stay.

She told us to sit down.

He made them stand up.

He kept us waiting.

These constructions are syntactically contracted forms of complete sentences, that can be seen in transformations:

I heard two shots fired. – I heard that two shots were fired.

He was considered to hide a secret. – People considered that he was hiding a secret.

Adverb is part of speech that is closely connected with verb. Adverb denotes property of action or property of another property.

Ex.:

The film felt so authentic yet otherworldly, ...

When the house fell, Dorothy walked out from a sepia past into a colorful future, one that might seem more real and more fantastic all at once, taking entire audiences along with her.

I was again yanked from the Land of Oz, by a single streak that Vair didn't even seem to notice.

People everywhere were suddenly shifting in their seats and tapping on control panels. A badly dressed kid with huge foam hair stood up and yelled about how “statick” and “wheeled” the special effects were, to the enjoyment of at least two loser friends.

(from Caffeine by Ryan Grabow)

Adverbs can be simple and derivative by structure. Simple adverbs are those that consist of only root: *hard, clean, right, slow, etc.* Derivative adverbs are formed from adjectives by adding the suffix: *carefully, slowly, hardly, politely, considerably, constantly, shortly, etc.* Compound adverbs are formed by two roots: *downstairs, somehow.*

Semantically adverbs can be notional words, but some adverbs have weakened semantics and easily become conjunctive adverbs: *also, consequently, conversely, finally, however, similarly, still etc.*

Adverbs are classified into three groups: qualitative, quantitative and circumstantial.

Qualitative adverbs are also called gradable, they can show variable quality and can form degrees of comparison: *loudly, more loudly, the most loudly.*

Quantitative adverbs show gradation of quality indicated by adjectives or gradable adverbs. Degree that they denote can be different. Adverbs of degree are also called intensifiers and in the most general sense can be divided into amplifiers and downtoners. Amplifiers increase the quality: *perfectly, completely, by far.*

Ex.:

utterly oblivious

bitterly opposed

a great deal harder

Downtoners scale downwards: *almost, kind of, merely, scarcely.*

Ex.:

nearly drowned

quite alone

slightly exhausted.

barely enough

Adverbs of degree can be classified in a more particular way according to the degree they denote:

Negative degree: not, little, scarcely, hardly, etc.

Slight degree: a little slightly, somewhat, rather, etc.

Great degree: much, very, far, greatly, extremely, etc.

Excessive degree: exceedingly, too, too much, etc.

Completeness: quite, wholly, entirely, thoroughly, etc.

Sufficient degree: enough, exactly, etc.

Deficient degree: almost, nearly, partly, etc.

Circumstantial adverbs can denote different aspects of action: time, place, manner, degree, and mood. Adverbs of time, including frequency: *once, always, again, often, daily, seldom, frequently, sometimes, occasionally, etc.* Adverbs of place: *here, inside, upstairs, abroad, everywhere, up, down, etc.*

Adverbs have a lot of lookalikes and can be mistaken for adjectives.

Ex.:

Close friend – stand close

Daily papers – to issue daily

Early morning – to get up early

Live concert – to perform live

Right way – to say it right

Some adverbs can be confused with adjectives, because they are similar in form, but can be different in meaning.

Dead and deadly – *Dead* means ‘exactly’, ‘completely’ or ‘very’. *Ex.: I am dead certain that he is committing a mistake.*

Deadly is an adjective. It means ‘fatal’ or ‘causing death’. *Ex.: Cyanide is a deadly poison.*

Some adverbs can be similar in form, but different in meaning.

Free and freely – The adverb *free* means ‘without payment’. *Ex.: You can’t eat free in a restaurant.*

Freely means ‘without limit or restriction’. *Ex.: Speak freely – no one will harm you.*

Hard and hardly are a triple case. The adverb *hard* has a similar meaning to the adjective *hard*. *Ex.: Work hard if you want to succeed. It’s a hard case.*

Hardly means ‘almost not’. *Ex.: We have got hardly any rice left.*

CONCLUSION:

The verb is the main predicative part of speech. It can be used in different functions in the sentence. Categorical structure of the verb is quite developed, its numerous categories allow the verb to convey different shades of meaning in depicting action, process or state. Adverb is an immediate modifier of the verb.

📖 Recommendations for study

📖 Sources for study

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Check questions

1. What is a verb?
2. What are typical functions of the verb?
3. Explain classification of verbs.
4. What are innate and acquired categories of the verb?
5. What kinds of non-finite forms are there in English?
6. What is a back-shift?
7. What is reflexive voice?
8. What is the verb function in a sentence?
9. In what way is the mood category connected with modality?
10. Why are tense and aspect closely connected?
11. What is the source of verb polysemy and polyfunctionality?
12. What constructions are formed by verbals?
13. What is an adverb?
14. What are classes of adverbs?

◆ Chapter 6 FUNCTIONAL WORDS

📖 *Issues to consider*

- Definition of modal word.
- Classification of prepositions.
- Classes of conjunctions.
- The role of interjections.
- Semantics of particles.

Functional words play an important role in speech. They serve for connecting language units and modifying the utterance meaning. Each functional word has a dependant syntactic position. They accompany notional words or have a detached position in a sentence, indicated by punctuation marks.

Modal words serve for indicating modal meanings. The speaker may show the factual status of the event or express his attitude to it. Modal words can render modal meaning to a word, a phrase, a clause, or a sentence. Syntactically they are used as parenthesis, in this case they have a frontal, a terminal or a middle position and punctuation marks help to emphasize them.

Will you help me? *Certainly. Precisely* this. Except this man, *of course*.

Semantic classification of modal words includes the following groups:

1. Certainty/doubt (*certainly, of course, indeed, surely, decidedly, really, definitely, naturally, no doubt, etc.*).

Ex.:

Of course it impresses me.

Without another word, the two left me alone with my shock, anger and embarrassment: certainly not what I'd had in mind for acclimation, certainly not my idea of fun.

(from Caffein by Ryan Grabow)

2. Supposition (*perhaps, maybe, probably, obviously, possibly, evidently, apparently, etc.*).

Ex.:

What could they possibly want from me?

The man reminded me of the night manager at ZephyrTek: probably still in college, constantly running around tapping on panels and always seeming exhausted from the job.

(from Caffein by Ryan Grabow)

3. Estimate proper (good/bad) – (*luckily, fortunately, happily, unfortunately, unluckily, etc.*).

Ex.:

Fortunately, one of them tasted it and they decided it wasn't a communist secret weapon.

Unfortunately, with the heightened senses came a lot of useless stuff, too; light-noise and odd patterns which weren't in the construct itself, and sounds reverberating and decaying as I heard them.

(from Caffein by Ryan Grabow)

A preposition is a function word indicating a relation between two notional words. As a rule a preposition join nouns, but can also combine with pronouns, gerundial phrases or clauses: *for advantage, at five o'clock; at taking measures, he was surprised at what he saw.*

Many prepositions are polyfunctional (*in, to, for, at, from*).

Ex.:

People everywhere were suddenly shifting in their seats and tapping on control panels. – positional meaning.

I stepped into the hallway and waited for the fog to clear in my head, – positional metaphorical meaning.

... and for my eyes to stop burning in the dim lighting. – meaning of reason.

A few kids in full slunk-foamer regalia looked up and began to shout among themselves about who would get the vacated booth. – meaning of clothing.

(from Caffein by Ryan Grabow)

By origin prepositions are often formed by grammaticalizing notional words. Such prepositions may function as adverbs, adverbial postpositions, or conjunctions. The status of such words can be seen only in context.

He came *up* (postposition).

The water came *up* the bank (preposition).

He is *up at six every morning* (adverb).

The majority of prepositions are simple in structure: *out, in, for, on, about, but, against*.

Derived prepositions are formed from other words, mainly participles: *excepting, concerning, considering, following, including, during, depending, granted, past, except*.

Compound prepositions consist of two roots: *whereupon, herein, hereafter, withall*.

Composite prepositions consist of two or more words: *but for, because of, opposite to, in front of, with regard to, on behalf of, in line with, at variance with*.

Semantically prepositions are divided into numerous groups.

1. agentive – *the letter was sent by a friend of mine;*
2. attributive – *a drawing in crayon, the people in question;*
3. possessive and partial relations – *one of my friends, the roof of the we, a glass of brandy, a decline in waste, a rise in production;*
4. indicating origin, material, or source – *a girl from Brighton, ring of gold;*
5. objective relation – *don't be angry with me, look into the matter;*
6. indicating to whom the action is directed – *to show it to, to give lessons to the children;*
7. instrumental relation – *to write with a pencil, to cut with a knife;*
8. subordination – *to be secretary to a Minister;*
9. relation defining the sphere or field of activity – *the country exports for its food; Tom is good at football;*
10. various adverbial relations:
 - a) of manner, means, style and language – *with diligent telegram, in slang, in bad print, in a neat hand, in good brief;*
 - b) of purpose or aim – *to send for the doctor, he did it j the police were after the criminal;*
 - c) temporal relations. These may be subdivided into those of precedence, sequence, duration, etc. – *in good time, at 5 before the dawn;*
 - d) of cause or reason – *did it out of fear, through his ne, I despise you for this;*
 - e) spacial relation, including directional relation – *past by the window, across the river, at the gate;*
 - f) concessive relation – *in spite of the bad weather, despite protests, for all his attempts, with all her diligence.*

Usually a preposition stands between two words, but it can be also used in a special way. Prepositions are used for frames of special questions: *What are you driving at? Who shall I send it to?*

It can form frames for some clauses beginning with conjunctive and relative pronouns and in subordinate contact clauses:

What I am thinking of is how he got there.

The man I told you about is my relative.

They can form frames for exclamatory sentences: *What a nice place to live in!*

A **conjunction** is a functional word indicating the connection between two notional words, phrases, clauses, or sentences.

By structure conjunctions can be:

Simple: *and, or, but, till, after, that, so, where, when.*

Derived: *until, unless, seeing, supposing, provided.*

Compound: *whereas, wherever.*

Composite: *as well as, in case, for fear, on condition that.*

Correlative: *both ... and, either ... or, neither ... nor.*

Semantically conjunctions fall into two types: coordinating and subordinating.

The coordinating conjunctions join words, phrases or clauses of the same status.

Ex.:

People everywhere were suddenly shifting in their seats and tapping on control panels.

A badly dressed kid with huge foam hair stood up and yelled about how “static” and “wheeled” the special effects were, to the enjoyment of at least two loser friends.

I stepped into the hallway and waited for the fog to clear in my head, and for my eyes to stop burning in the dim lighting.

I was as hungry as I always was after thirty-two hours ascended, but I decided that I could wait until I got to the beach.

A few kids in full slunk-foamer regalia looked up and began to shout among themselves about who would get the vacated booth.

(from Caffein by Ryan Grabow)

Subordinating conjunctions introduce subordinate clauses. Some conjunctions are polyfunctional. For instance *that* may introduce subject

clauses, predicative clauses, appositive clauses, adverbial clauses of purpose and consequence.

Ex.:

You'll be happy to know that tonight's charge of fifty-five-forty-four ninety fulfills your Economic Stimulus requirement for this year."

It was a laugh that sounded far too familiar.

I looked and realized that the usual grouchy man wasn't watching the store.

Where there would always be names of managers and lengthy data on their state operator licenses, it now simply said: "Your friend was Erica."

I closed the file, deleted the file, reformatted the data space where the file had been, and tried to put it out of my mind and focus on where I was going.

As I pulled my ragged windbreaker tighter around me, cursing silently at the cold, another one of the pests came from beside me so abruptly that my heart nearly jumped into my throat.

(from Caffein by Ryan Grabow)

The subordinating conjunction *that* is very often omitted:

He said that John would come soon.

He said John would come soon.

He said that John would come soon and that he would take the car.

He said that John would come soon and he would take them

The particle is a part of speech that either emphasizes or limits the meaning of another word, or phrase, or clause. Particles refer to a word or a phrase. Particles may combine with any part of speech.

Ex.:

...it just gave the chilly wind more paths to take.

Just please just go away.

The PJX just isn't working for me like it used to.

I just have this nagging feeling like I should change something... it's weird.

It's just a star...

They come to the beach and talk about how much they love everything about it, complaining if the temperature is wrong or the waves are too loud or the UV-screen isn't working just right, then...

The law says you're just like everyone else: an irresponsible polluter who should be punished until he learns his lesson.

I'm telling you that I'll obey the law and that I'm saying more than just words.

(from *Caffein* by Ryan Grabow)

According to their meaning particles fall into six groups.

1. Intensifying particles:

just, even, yet, still, all, simply.

They emphasize the meaning of the word (or phrase, or clause) they refer to or give special prominence to the notion expressed by it.

The skirt comes *just below my knees*.

They *even offered* him higher wages.

The particles *all, still, yet*, mostly intensify the comparative degree of adjectives and adverbs.

Play *yet more softly*.

2. Limiting particles:

only, merely, solely, but, alone.

They single out the word or phrase they refer to or limit the idea (notion) expressed by them.

- I *only wanted to ask* you the time. Man cannot live *on bread alone*.

She is still *but a child*, she wants to play. Mr Green *merely hinted* at the possibility.

Just, merely, simply can be used at the beginning of imperative sentences.

You don't have to be present. *Just (merely, simply)* send a of explanation.

3. Specifying particles: *right, exactly, precisely, just.*

They make the meaning of the word or phrase they refer to precise.

Draw a circle *right in the middle* of the map

We were *just about to start* They arrived *precisely at ten*

The room looks *exactly as it did* when I was here last year

What exactly do you mean?

4. The additive particle *else*. It combines only with indefinite, interrogative and negative pronouns and interrogative adverbs. It is that the word it refers to denotes something additional to what has already been mentioned:

Something *else*, nobody *else*, what *else*, where *else*.

5. The negative particle *not*.

Not a word was said about it. *Not saying anything* was a bad idea. *Not everyone* likes this book. Do you want to go? – *Not me!*

6. Connecting particles: *also, too*, which may function as conjuncts.

Were you at the film? – I was *also* there. I went there *too*. Won't you come *too*!

The interjection is a part of speech which expresses emotions, without naming them. Interjections express different kinds of feelings, such as:

joy (*hurray, hurrah*),

grief, sorrow (*alas, dear me, dear, oh*),

approval (*bravo; hear, hear*),

contempt (*pooh, gosh, bosh, pah, bah, fie*),

triumph (*aha*),

impatience (*bother*),

anger (*damn*),

surprise or annoyance (*Goodness gracious, My God*).

Some interjections are used merely to attract attention (*hallo, hi, hey, here*).

Hallo! What's happening now?

Hey! Is anybody here?

Oh dear! I've lost my pen.

CONCLUSION

Functional words are a substantial class that has a lot of important functions in speech. It is hard to imagine a sentence without functional words. Many notional words form close combinations with functional words, for example, verbs are often used with the particle *to*, nouns are used with articles and so on.

Some functional words were a result of semantic weakening that notional words or phrases underwent, thus they still retain semantic features, but syntactically they are dependent and can not function on their own.

👉 Recommendations for study

📖 Sources for study

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Check questions

1. What is a modal word?
2. What is a place of modal word in a sentence?
3. What classes of prepositions are used?
4. What are polyfunctional prepositions?
5. What are preposition look-alikes?
6. What are classes of conjunctions?
7. What kinds of interjections are used in speech?
8. What is the role of particles?

◆ Chapter 7

WORD COMBINATIONS

📖 *Issues to consider*

- Definition of word-combination and its difference from word and sentence.
- Classification of word-combinations based on structural principle.
- Lexico-grammatical classification of word-combinations.
- Categories of word-combinations.
- Syntagma as a unit of syntax.
- Syntagmatic connection in some grammatical structures of English.

The word combination is a primary syntactic unit, the study of it belongs to the level of micro-syntax. It is any combination of meaningful words with particular grammatical and semantic parameters. All syntax is based on rules, that operate at the level of word combinations. Word combinations is the minimal grammatical and semantic unity in structure of the sentence.

The word combination differs from the sentence, though formally some cases of a word-combination can be equal to a simple sentence. The sentence is a communicative unit, and a word-combination is nominative. Word-combination and the sentence are concepts of different semantic spheres. They correspond to different forms of thinking. The word-combination has no grammatical features which would specify completeness of the utterance. The word-combination exists only in structure of the sentence, it serves as building material for communication. A word-combination can be called “a product of semantic extension of a word”.

Word-combinations are distinguished starting from combination of two notional words. According to the number of notional words word combinations can be two-componental and polycomponental.

country walk,
the dark blue sky
to love music.

The structure of word-combinations can also be presented as a representation of its morphological components:

I shall speak frankly – *prn + aux + V + Adv.*
the most dark blue sea – *art + Adj + Adj + N.*

the person of low growth – art + N + prep + Adj + N.

the girl of sixteen – art + N + prep + Num.

According to the key word in a word combination the following word combinations are distinguished:

1. Verbal.
2. Nominal.
3. Adverbial.

Verbal word-combinations have following models:

A verb + a noun or a pronoun (with a pretext or without a pretext):
to buy bread, to address to it, pay the commodity, replace them, require certification, has the right, participates in the process, are drawn up in the form, is indicated in clause.

A verb + an infinitive or a verbal adverb: *to ask to arrive, sit having reflected, agrees to buy, undertakes to pay, fails to give notice, wants to examine, refuse to perfume, is obliged to provide loading, try to settle.*

A verb + an adverb: *to act correctly, to repeat twice, pay in full, immediately notify, is made immediately, promptly repair the defective, unilaterally refuse, protect fully, sent in time.*

A verb + an adjective: *becomes valid, becomes effective, kept confidential.*

Nominal word-combinations can be: substantive and adjectival.

The basic models of substantive word-combinations:

adjective or possessive pronoun + a noun: *clear day, my world; legal entity, technical specification, manufacturing company, legal entity, separate type, inappropriate packaging, additional support, specific requirements, international standard.*

noun + noun: *city on fires, a fragment from a poem; buyer's invoice, goods delivery, producer's country, seller's failure, buyer's order, driver's manual, unit prices, terms of the contract.*

noun + adverb: *a step forward, holidays in winter; evidence thereof, part hereof, section hereof.*

noun + infinitive: *readiness to help, an occasion to talk.*

noun + participle: *Shipped equipment, party initiating, designated purposes, remaining amount, signed invoice, taken obligations.*

The basic models of **adjectival** word-combinations are:

adjective + adverb: *hardly audible; solely attributable.*

adjective + noun (pronoun): *broad in shoulders, indifferent to anger; liable for damages, intent on compensation.*

adjective + infinitive: *capable to organize, ready to resist, easy to read, ready to ship, not difficult to see.*

A sub-kind of such word-combinations has a numeral or a pronoun as the main word: *the two friends, two comrades, somebody in white, something especial, two originals, three copies, sixty days, twenty-four hour, twelve month.*

Word-combinations of **adverbial type** (with predicative and non-predicative adverbs) have 2 models:

adverb + adverb: very quickly, rather loudly;

adverb + noun: long before a holiday.

There is also a classification of word-combinations on a degree of cohesion of components:

1. Free.
2. Fixed.

Free word-combinations consist of the words that could be called informatively independent. Components of free word-combinations can be replaced, as syntactic links in them are alive and productive, for example: *late autumn, early ..., cold ..., rainy ...; late autumn, ... spring, ... love.* At the same time free word-combinations can include the components having limited lexical valency, for example: *to listen ... and to overhear ...*, that is reflected in quantity of variants of word-combinations with the same word.

Fixed word-combinations include informatively insufficient components with lost or weakened meaning: *blue stocking, Beg Ben, good bye.*

Another classification is based on lexico-grammatical principle. It analyses relations between components of word combinations. According to it all word combinations are distinguished into coordinative and dominational.

Groupings of the first type are constituted by words related to one another on an equal rank, so that, for a case of a two-word combination, neither of them serves as a modifier of the other. These combinations can be called “equipotent”: *prose and poetry; came and went; on the beach or in the water; quick but not careless; – no sun, no moon; playing, chatting, laughing; silent, immovable, gloomy; Mary’s, not John’s.*

Groupings of the second type are formed by words which are syntactically unequal in the sense that, for a case of a two-word combination, one of them plays the role of a modifier of the other. Due to this feature, combinations of the latter type can be called “dominational”.

In the cited examples, the constituents of the combinations form logically consecutive connections that are classed as coordinative. Alongside of these, there exist equipotent connections of a non-consecutive type, by which a sequential elements are unequal in character of nomination. The latter type of equipotent connections is classed as “cumulative”. *agreed, but reluctantly; quick – and careless; satisfied, or nearly so*

In dominational connection, one of the constituents of the combination is principal (dominating) and the other is subordinate (dominated).

The two basic types of dominational connection are bilateral (reciprocal, two-way) domination and monolateral (one-way) domination. Bilateral domination is realised in predicative connection of words, while monolateral domination is realised in completive connection of words.

The predicative connection of words, uniting the subject and the predicate, builds up the basis of the sentence. *The train arrived. → The arrival of the train.*

Alongside of fully predicative groupings of the subject and the finite verb-predicate, there exist in language partially predicative groupings formed by a combination of a non-finite verbal form (verbid) with a substantive element. Such are infinitival, gerundial, and participial constructions.

The pupil understands his mistake → for the pupil to understand his mistake → the pupil('s) understanding his mistake – the pupil understanding his mistake.

The completive, one-way connection of words (monolateral domination) is considered subordinative. All the completive connections fall into two main divisions: objective connections and qualifying connections.

Objective connections reflect the relation of the object to the process and are characterised as, on the whole, very close. By their form these connections are subdivided into non- and prepositional ones, He remembered *the man*. I won't stand *any more nonsense*. I sympathised *with the child*. They were working *on the problem*.

Qualifying completive connections are divided into attributive and adverbial.

Attributive connection unites a substance with its attribute expressed by an adjective or a noun. *E. g.: an enormous appetite; an emerald ring; a woman of strong character, the case for the prosecution; etc.*

Adverbial connection is subdivided into primary and secondary.

The primary adverbial connection is established between the verb and its adverbial modifiers of various standings. *E.g.*: to talk *glibly*, to come *nowhere*; to receive (a letter) *with surprise*; to throw (one's arms) *round a person's neck*; etc.

The secondary adverbial connection is established between the non-verbal kernel expressing a quality and its adverbial modifiers of various standings. *E.g.*: *marvellously* becoming; *very much* at ease; *strikingly* alike; *no longer* oppressive; *unpleasantly* querulous; etc.

Colligation level of syntagmatics includes studying structure of word-combinations, marked and unmarked forms of various morphological categories. There is also collocation a level of a word-combination, where they are considered from the point of view of lexicological and phraseological categories.

These categories are:

- category of connotativeness,
- category of clichéd expression,
- category of idiomaticity,
- category of conceptual integrity,
- category of sociolinguistic determination.

The category of connotativeness is based on opposition of units with emotive expressive power to those word-combinations which only contain denotational element in meaning. Connotation can be inherent in the meaning of the words that constitute word-combinations or can be adherent, that is contextual.

Ex. Very funny, extremely beautiful, awfully serious.

The category of clichéd expression provides opposition of units reproduced in speech on a regular basis to spontaneously created structures. Key parameters of this category – frequency of usage. Some kinds of texts have a lot of clichés, for example, business correspondence: *place an order, to direct the application, has the right to cancel, carries out loading, falls at nonworking day.*

The category of idiomaticity is based on opposition of word-combinations in which primary motivated meanings of words are used, on the one hand, to phraseological units, on the another hand. Here we can attribute idioms, based on a transfer of meaning, traditional set phrases, compound terms. Key parameter of the given category is loss of motivation. Motivated

combinations have open semantic structure and their meaning is a sum of meanings, belonging to the words, included into them. Unmotivated word-combinations, accordingly, have the meaning which is not deduced from the sum of word meanings. Ex.: *source of hope, a symphony of the healing, of body, mind and spirit, top notch, the wildest imagination.*

Category of conceptual integrity presupposes the presence at a word-combination of the certain conceptual basis. The best example of it could be terms, that being structurally complicated, denote one notion. Ex.: *Indelible paint, improper packing, improper preservation, material noncompliance, improper handling, unforeseeable circumstances, written notification, identical originals, shipping container, defective commodity.*

The category of social determination provides interrelation of word-combinations with background knowledge of the speakers. The best examples could be word combinations with cultural element in semantics. Ex.: *Commonwealth of Independent States, Arabian Gulf nations, The American Medical Association.*

Word-combinations is a compound formation consisting of two and more meaningful units in linear sequence. As we see the elements of word combination are connected grammatically and semantically, it corresponds to the concept of “syntagma”. Syntagma is an intonational morphosyntactic and semantic unity, which exists in a particular context and in a particular situation. It can be equal to one word, a group of words or even the whole sentence. In grammar syntagmas are studied at colligation and collocation levels.

In English syntagmas are determined by specific language features, such as

1. Analytical nature of English grammar.
2. The presence of grammatical homonymy.
3. Specific rhythmic structure of English speech.
4. The tendency for fusing words into set expressions.

There are grammatical structures that show features of intense syntagmatic connection. First of all these are constructions with gerund, participle and infinitive.

The Objective Participial construction

I heard him discussing something animatedly in the next room.

I consider him degrading as an artist.

Yesterday I had my hair cut.

The Subjective Participial construction or The Nominal Participial construction.

He was seen crossing the street

She was heard typing in the next room.

The city was found heavily damaged by the bombardment.

The Absolute construction.

The sun having set they made a fire.

He left the room the dog following him.

They walked in the park, with John smoking his pipe.

With the number of refugees increasing, Great Britain will soon face a serious of over population.

The Gerundial Construction

It resulted in his being arrested.

I insist on our customer's being invited to this discussion.

I hate animals being treated cruelly.

The Objective-with-the-Infinitive construction

I saw him cross the street.

I want you to do it at once.

She allowed our luggage to be left at her place.

The Nominative-with-the-Infinitive

He was seen to cross the street.

She was heard to sing merrily in the garden.

He is known to have been rich once.

The For-to-Infinitive construction

He waited for me to speak.

It is necessary for you to do it at once.

The plan was for him to join us in Switzerland.

Syntagmatic connection is also seen in prepositional word-combinations: the house of his own, hand of a man, castle for a princess.

Composite modifiers show stronger syntagmatic connection: *blue-sky law, red-light district, four-wheel drive, feel-good factor, buy-now pay-later purchase, stick-on label, roll-on roll-off ferry, a long-lasting affair, a far-reaching decision, tenth-storey window.*

Short unexpanded sentences can operate as syntagmas.

CONCLUSION

Word-combinations present a primary syntactic level. They are the units of speech, constructed for producing utterances. Nevertheless, word combinations can not be considered independent speech units, these are units of study, that help to understand laws of minor syntax. Like any linguistic unit word combinations have meaning, form and function. Structure and syntactic roles of word combinations are well-studied, but semantics is a difficult sphere of study. Meaning of phrases is studied with the help of a categorical approach.

📖 Recommendations for study

📖 Sources for study

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Chart 4. Structural classification of word-combinations

👉 Check questions

1. What is a word-combination?
2. What are typical features of word-combinations?
3. Explain the difference between a sentence and word-combination.
4. What are structural classes of word-combinations?
5. What kinds of connection between word can you describe?
6. What categories help to describe the meaning of word-combinations?
7. What is syntagma?
8. What grammatical structures in English demonstrate strong syntagmatic connection between elements?

◆ Chapter 8

STRUCTURAL ASPECT OF SENTENCE

📖 *Issues to consider*

- Sentence and its difference from a word and word-combination.
- Structural elements in a sentence.
- Classification of simple sentences or clauses.
- Classification of compound sentences.
- Classification of complex sentences.
- Transformations of sentence structure.

The sentence is a basic unit of syntax. The sentence expresses a final idea, it has a communicative aim, it is grammatically organized, intonationally arranged.

Sometimes it is difficult to draw a borderline between a word-combination, a word and a sentence, they can be distinguished only on the basis of context. A word and a word-combination are not independent in communication, but can be seen as part of a sentence. Nevertheless, there are cases when a word and a sentence can coincide. For example, such nominative sentences as *Winter. Dusk. Evening.* are presented by just one word. Sentences like *Wake up now. Open the door. Look at me.* by structure remind of word-combinations. Thus one must rely upon principle difference between these units.

First of all the word-combination consists of the main and dependent words (one can ask a question from the main word to the dependent one). A grammatical basis of the sentence is subject and a predicate.

The difference is also in function: the word-combination names an object, phenomenon, quality, action, while the sentence performs the function of informing, rendering a final idea that can contain such elements as names.

Another criterion is intonation. The word-combination does not possess, as the sentence, a complete intonation contour, where the final tone is used, in writing there are no punctuation marks showing the end of the sentence.

The word-combination is not used in speech in itself, but only in structure of the sentence.

The same criteria can be applied to the word.

Also one should take into account that visible sentences can be incomplete in structure. Many elements can be omitted, so it is necessary to reconstruct them to judge about structure.

Ex.:

A: Where is my watch?

B: Kitchen?

Thus the last sentence in this dialogue can be reconstructed to its complete form: *Probably your watch is in the kitchen?* In this complete form it is unmistakably a sentence.

The sentence consists of five basic elements of structure, called sentence parts. The main sentence parts are subject and predicate. Predicate can be simple verbal:

Ex.:

So the film ends too.

After all, Mozart and Mendelssohn were composing deathless music in their teens...

(from A Clockwork Orange by Anthony Burgess)

Compound verbal, consisting of different verbs:

Ex.:

If he can only perform good or only perform evil...

(from A Clockwork Orange by Anthony Burgess)

Compound nominal, containing a link verb and a nominative element (noun or adjective).

Ex.:

...he is a clockwork orange – meaning that he has the appearance of an organism lovely with colour and juice...

(from A Clockwork Orange by Anthony Burgess)

The main parts of the sentence form a predicative line, that can be presented by either subject or predicate or both.

Ex.:

“Language, language,”...

“It’s those others,” I creeched. “Georgie and Dim and Pete...”

Just look at the state of him.

Violence makes violence

(from A Clockwork Orange by Anthony Burgess)

Sometimes predicative line is hidden in the elliptical sentence and it is necessary to reconstruct it.

Ex.: Evening, inspector. Evening, sergeant. Evening, evening, all.
(from *A Clockwork Orange* by Anthony Burgess)

These sentences can be reconstructed to complete form with both subject and predicate:

Ex.:
It is a good evening, inspector. It is a good evening, sergeant. It is a good evening, It is a good evening, all.

Secondary parts of the sentence are object, attribute and adverbial modifier.

Ex.:
At eighteen old Wolfgang Amadeus had written concertos and symphonies and operas and oratorios and ... heavenly music.
(from *A Clockwork Orange* by Anthony Burgess)

Objects can be direct and indirect (attached to the verb without preposition or with the help of it). Adverbial modifiers are classed into different groups: modifier of place, time, manner and so on.

All parts of a sentence can be expressed by words or word-combinations.

Besides sentence parts a sentence can contain connecting elements (conjunctions), addressing enclosures, parenthetical enclosures, affirmative and negative words, interjections:

Ex.:
'Yes,' I said. 'Harmless. Yes, yes,..
'Eighteen, eh?' said Pete. 'As old as that. Well well well. Now,' he said, 'we have to be going.'
'Oh, of course,' said Pete, 'you wouldn't know Greg, would you?..
'No, boy, for me make it one small beer, right.'
I couldn't explain how it had got there, brothers, but it was a photograph I had scissored...

Because you are helping us.

"Be more respectful, boy, in addressing the Minister."

I could, of course, have demurred at this and taken my book elsewhere, but it was considered that he was being charitable in accepting the work at all, and that all other New York, or Boston, publishers would kick out the manuscript on its dog-ear.

(from *A Clockwork Orange* by Anthony Burgess)

Some sentences can contain two or more similar sentence parts, called homogenous:

Ex.:

The Thought Police identified and nurtured the seeds of writing, mathematics, and natural science.

(from Crystal Nights by Greg Egan)

If one analyses the structure of a sentence and define all the elements in it, it is possible to classify the sentence according to the structural principle.

According to the number of predicative lines sentences can be classified into simple and composite.

Simple sentences have only one predicative line:

Ex.:

A barren, rocky landscape stretched to the horizon.

Lucien was still visible in an inset.

The taxi was waiting.

He walked with her across the lobby.

(from Crystal Nights by Greg Egan)

Composite sentences have two or more predicative lines, thus they contain two or more clauses organized around these predicative lines:

Ex.:

^{1 PREDICATIVE LINE} Between the absence of fossils, Sapphire's limited biodiversity, and all the clunky external meddling that needed to be covered up, ^{2 PREDICATIVE LINE} it was hard for the Phites to reach a grand Darwinian view of biology, but their innate skill with beads gave them a head start in the practical arts.

^{1 PREDICATIVE LINE} The technology needed to reach it was going to take a while, ^{2 PREDICATIVE LINE} but that was all right; ^{3 PREDICATIVE LINE} Daniel didn't want them getting ahead of themselves.

(from Crystal Nights by Greg Egan)

On the basis of primary sentence parts sentences can be classified into one-member and two-member. One member sentences contain only subject or predicate, that can be also homogenous:

Ex.:

Evolution.

Take a seat.

Tell me.

(from Crystal Nights by Greg Egan)

Two-member sentences contain both primary sentence parts:

Ex.:

“This won’t be like natural selection.”

Daniel saw her mouth tightening, saw her struggling to measure her words before speaking.

(from Crystal Nights by Greg Egan)

The same classification can be applied to clauses in a composite sentence:

Ex.:

He called her a taxi, and they walked to the elevator.

(from Crystal Nights by Greg Egan)

On the basis of secondary and primary sentence parts present the sentence or clause can be called expanded and unexpanded. Unexpanded sentences have only subject, predicate or both, no secondary sentence parts.

Ex.:

It’s fresh, I promise.

Julie complied. (from Crystal Nights by Greg Egan)

An exquisite face. Dark skin and dark hair, brown eyes. Full lips.

(from The Beach by Alex Garland)

Expanded sentences have also secondary sentence parts:

Ex.:

Sadly, that second trait’s even rarer than the first

Please, hear me out

(from Crystal Nights by Greg Egan)

Unexpanded sentences should not be mixed with the elliptical ones, where elements of structure are hidden and can be reconstructed.

Ex.:

“More caviar?” – full sentence: Would you like more caviar?

They were not the equal of humans. Not yet. – full sentence: They were not yet the equal of humans.

(from Crystal Nights by Greg Egan)

Composite sentences are classified on the type of syntactic connection. If the clauses are joined by the principle of coordination, such sentences are called compound. Connection can be asyndetic (without conjunctions) or syndetic (with special coordinative conjunctions (for, and, nor, but, or, yet, and so, and nor, but nor, or nor, neither, no more, only) or correlative

conjunctions appearing in both clauses (either...or, not only...but (also), neither...nor, both...and, whether...or, just as...so, the...the, as...as).

Ex.:

Then he curled his finger and thumb into the O-shaped perfection sign, and pointed into the guest-house.

I wasn't planning on crime but I wanted to oblige his conspiratorial charm.

Just short of the ceiling, the walls stopped, and covering the space was a strip of metal mosquito netting.

(from The Beach by Alex Garland)

Clauses can be joined by different principle in a compound sentence.

Types of coordination are copulative, disjunctive, adversative, causative-consecutive. Each type of coordination is expressed by certain connectives.

Copulative coordination expresses simultaneous, parallel actions:

Ex.:

Then there was a loud sigh, the lock opened with a click, and his light came on.

(from The Beach by Alex Garland)

Adversative coordination denotes contrast. The second part contradicts to what is expressed in the first part:

Ex.:

For a while I did nothing but lie on the bed and look up at it.

Tourists can go to Ko Phelong on a special guided tour from Ko Samui, but... but they can only stay one night.

(from The Beach by Alex Garland)

Disjunctive coordination expresses choice:

Ex.:

Every so often we have to cut them back a bit, or it gets too gloomy.

(from The Beach by Alex Garland)

In a sentence with a causative-consecutive coordination one clause expresses the cause of the consequence which is to be found in another clause.:

Ex.:

For any vital truth is incapable of being applied to another case: the essential is unique.

(from The Beach by Alex Garland)

A complex sentence is a polypredicative construction built up on the principle of subordination. Clauses in a complex sentence may be linked syndetically, i.e. by means of subordinating conjunctions or connectives or asyndetically, i.e. without a conjunction or connective. A subordinate clause may follow, interrupt or precede the principal clause. Connectives are subordinate conjunctions: after, although, as, because, before, even if, even though, if, in order that, once, provided that, rather than, since, so that, than, that, though, unless, until, when, whenever, where, whereas, wherever, whether, while, why.

Subordinate clauses in a complex sentence are classified according to their syntactic function in the whole sentence, similar to five parts of sentence (subject, predicate, object, adverbial modifier and attribute).

According to this principle we distinguish the following clauses:

Subject:

Ex.: What I do have is a couple of snapshot images: the view from the pass looking back on the dope fields below us; and a more surreal one – surreal because it's a sight I could never have seen.

(from The Beach by Alex Garland)

Predicative:

Ex.: The odd thing was, she did it almost accidentally, simply by taking it for granted that we were going to try. That was how we got to Ko Samui.

(from The Beach by Alex Garland)

Object:

Ex.: Through them I could see he'd already moved beyond thoughts of practicality and consequence, and was hearing the sound of the windscreen folding in.

(from The Beach by Alex Garland)

Attributive:

Ex.:

He had a look in his eye that I recognized Following the path of the map had become something that could happen.

(from The Beach by Alex Garland)

Adverbial of time:

Ex.:

Most of the fun came when bottles were dropped, seeing the silvery explosion of glass, feeling the shards flick against our jeans.

(from The Beach by Alex Garland)

Adverbial of place:

Ex.:

He removed the file marked London from between the files Barcelona and Boston where it had been misplaced, and turned over the papers rapidly.
(from *Eeldrop and Appleplex* by T. S. Eliot)

Adverbial of cause:

Ex.:

As it is Saturday night, I shall return to my suburb.
(from *Eeldrop and Appleplex* by T. S. Eliot)

Adverbial of condition:

Ex.:

If Etienne was the one who turned the idea of finding the beach into a possibility, it was Françoise who made it happen.
(from *The Beach* by Alex Garland)

Adverbial of concession:

Ex.:

On a calm day you could skim them over the sea like flat pebbles, although if you chucked them too hard they tended to explode.
(from *The Beach* by Alex Garland)

Adverbial of result:

Ex.:

Eventually I'd wandered so far I didn't have a clue how to get back, so I caught a tuk-tuk.
(from *The Beach* by Alex Garland)

Adverbial of comparison:

Ex.:

Then we reveal ourselves as intelligent, and by doing so, subvert the prejudice more effectively than we would with an immediate barrage of intellect – which only causes confusion and, ultimately, resentment.
(from *The Beach* by Alex Garland)

In some complex sentences clauses become fixed expressions and thus turn into parenthetical structures, so they are called parenthetical clauses:

Ex.:

I am, I confess to you, in private life, a bank-clerk. ...
(from *Eeldrop and Appleplex* by T. S. Eliot)

I suppose a pale face would once have held some interest for him, but not now.

I doubt I'd have explored any further than the strip joints in Patpong.

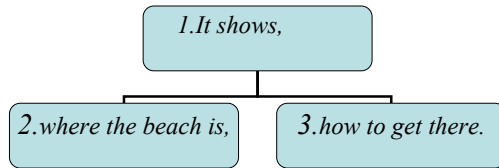
(from The Beach by Alex Garland)

Some sentences have both kinds of connection between clauses – subordination and coordination. So they are of mixed types.

Ex.:

It shows where the beach is, how to get there.

(from The Beach by Alex Garland)



Connection between clauses 1 and 2, 1 and 3 are subordinating. Connection between clauses 2 and 3 is coordinating.

Ex.:

(1) Appleplex, (2) who had the gift of an extraordinary address with the lower classes of both sexes, (1)questioned the onlookers, and usually extracted full and inconsistent histories: (3) Eeldrop preserved a more passive demeanor, listened to the conversation of the people among themselves, registered in his mind their oaths, their redundance of phrase, their various manners of spitting, and the cries of the victim from the hall of justice within.

(from Eeldrop and Appleplex by T. S. Eliot)

The scheme of subordination and coordination in this sentence looks like this:

(1) = (3)
↓
(2)

(1) It may be added (2) that Eeldrop was a sceptic, with a taste for mysticism, (3) and Appleplex a materialist with a leaning toward scepticism; (4) that Eeldrop was learned in theology, and that (5) Appleplex studied the physical and biological sciences.

(from Eeldrop and Appleplex by T. S. Eliot)

(1)

↙ ↓ ↓ ↘

(2) = (3) = (4) = (5)

Structural changes in the sentence include ellipsis, substitution and inversion or fronting.

They correspond to transformational operations of deleting, positional arrangement and lexical arrangement.

Connection between clauses can be parallel or chain.

Ellipsis is a frequent phenomenon in English speech, that can be explained by the need to accelerate communication by dropping the elements, easily reconstructed from communicative context.

Ex.:

'It is not hurting, Richard?'

'Nope (Reconstructed: Nope, it is not hurting). It's about how you hold it, like stinging nettles. You try.' (Reconstructed: *You try to hold it*)

I held out the jellyfish.

'No, I do not want to.' (Reconstructed: *I do not want to hold it*)

'It's fine. Go on.' (Reconstructed: *Go on and hold it*)

'Really?' (Reconstructed: *Really, should I hold it?'*)

'Yeah, sure. (Reconstructed: Yes, sure, hold it) Hold your hands like mine.'
(from *The Beach* by Alex Garland)

Inversion aims at focusing attention on the important element in the sentence. It can also be a conventional construction:

Ex.:

Here is an old laundry account which she left for you to pay...

(from *Eeldrop and Appleplex* by T. S. Eliot)

Inversion is required in questions, in the construction “there is, there are”, after “here” and “there”, “so” and “neither”, in conditional sentences, in some exclamatory sentences. Besides grammatical cases of inversion it can be stylistic, rendering expressiveness to the sentence.

Ex.:

“To me alone there came a thought of grief: A timely utterance gave that thought relief...”

(from William Wordsworth's poem “Ode: Intimations of Immortality from Recollections of Early Childhood”)

*“Blind, old, and lonely, when his country’s pride,
The priest, the slave, and the liberticide,
Trampled and mocked with many a loathed rite ...”*

(from Shelly)

*“Here by the rose-tree
they planted once
of Love in Jeopardy
an Italian bronze.”*

(from Humbert Wolfe’s poem “Love in Jeopardy”)

Substitution aims at exchanging a longer element into the shorter one.

Ex.:

I had the feeling that if I leant against one (substitute for wall) it would fall over and maybe hit another, and all the walls of the neighbouring rooms would collapse like dominoes.

(from The Beach by Alex Garland)

We can use many different words and phrases in substitution

<i>(a) little</i>	<i>each</i>	<i>less</i>	<i>one(s)</i>
<i>another</i>	<i>either</i>	<i>many</i>	<i>other(s)</i>
<i>all</i>	<i>enough</i>	<i>much</i>	<i>several</i>
<i>any</i>	<i>few</i>	<i>neither</i>	<i>some</i>
<i>both</i>	<i>half</i>	<i>none</i>	

Verbal elements are substituted by *do, do so, do it, so do I*. Modifiers of place and time is substituted by *here and there, now and then*.

Analyses of structure is an important part of translation and linguistic analyses. Analyzing the sentence, it is necessary to start from predicative lines.

Ex.:

People seemed complacent about Britain’s decline, reluctant to make the painful adjustments that might be necessary to reverse it.

It helps to understand that this sentence is:

- Composite
- Complex
- Subordinate attributive clause

Then it is necessary to determine parts of the sentence and classify clauses:

People seemed complacent about Britain's decline, reluctant to make the painful adjustments that might be necessary to reverse it.

Thus, it is clear that both clauses are 2-member, extended

This sentence contains substitution: adjustments – that.

CONCLUSION

Sentence is the main communicative unit. It differs from a word combination. Sentence is the main unit of syntax, thus it is the most actively investigated unit. Its structural aspect is important for understanding the mechanism of its creation and translation. Specific features of sentence in English are inversion, substitution and ellipsis.

📖 Recommendations for study

📖 Sources for study

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Chart 5. Example of a dendrogram in sentence analyses

Chart 7. Structural classification of sentences

Check questions

1. Give definition of the term “sentence”?
2. In what way can we differentiate word and sentence, word-combination and sentence?
3. What is a one-member, two-member sentence?
4. What is the way to expand sentences?
5. What are the main types of connecting clauses in a compound sentence?
6. What is the principle for classifying subordinate clauses?
7. What is ellipsis?
8. What is substitution?
9. What is inversion?

◆ Chapter 9 SEMANTIC ASPECT OF SENTENCE

📖 *Issues to consider*

- Theme and rheme organization of sentence.
- Means of emphasizing the rheme.
- Predicate and actant structure.
- Classification of predicates.
- Classification of actants.
- Predicativity and modality as major sentence categories.

The sentence has a semantic aspect, the study of which started in the 20 century in the sphere of semantic syntax. Semantic aspect of a sentence is viewed from the point of view of sentence categories (modality and predicativity), theme and rheme organization, propositional structure of the sentence and the theory of predicates and actants.

Predicativity and modality are two major categories that characterize the sentence. Predicativity is the key distinguishing feature of the sentence that differentiates it from other linguistic units. Predicativity carries the information about factual status of the events described. The theory of predicativity and modality was worked out by Ch.Bally. Predicativity expresses a reference of the sentence contents to reality. Grammatically it is expressed by categories of mood and time:

The sun shines.

The sun shone.

In a number of syntactic patterns “a landing plane”, “landing of a plane” and “the plane lands” only the last variant possesses special functional quality – predicativity, that is an expression of an object environment and situation.

Predicativity is created by agreement of subject and predicate, which is reflected in the form of the verb – in case of “the plane lands” the 3d person singular, present tense. Agreement is not always seen grammatically in English, since it lost most of its grammatical inflexions. Thus agreement is expressed also meaningfully, through lexically valid combinations.

Predicativity is indicating the highest levels of abstraction. That is, in predicativity one can see the model of reality, where real facts are presented logically through connection of subject and predicate.

Predicativity as the integral grammatical feature of any kind of sentence. Even when it is a one-member sentence, predicativity can be presented by intonation and logical completeness.

Predicativity is a language universal, it can be found in all languages.

The concept of modality is closely connected with the category of predicativity. Modality is a semantic and grammatical category expressing the attitude of the speaker to the event and the reference of this event to reality.

Modality is often defined as a functional-semantic category expressing different kinds of the attitude of the statement to reality (an objective modality), and also different kinds of subjective qualification of the statement (a subjective modality).

Charles Bally considered, that the modality plays an important role, being, alongside with predicativity, the basic category describing the sentence. If to insert the word-combination into the framework of objective modality and «syntactic time» the sentence starts to function. He considered modality that can be called objective, which expresses the factuality of the action described. Subjective modality, that expresses the speaker's attitude to the action, was not a centre of his attention.

The important role of modality is confirmed by the fact that this category stands between units of language which are stored in the speaker's memory, and those units of speech which demand creative process.

There is a whole class of lexical means which can have modal meaning. They are: pronouns, adverbs, adjectives, verbs, particles, interjections, word-combinations with modal shade, a wide range of lexemes which can express the attitude of the speaker.

Synthetic and analytical morphological forms of notional and functional words can also have modal semantics.

Semantics of a modality is usually described in such terms as ability, opportunity, probability, necessity, obligation, intention etc.

Semantics of a modality has quantitative characteristics, thus the degree of modality varies from zero and above. Zero modality is unmarked by any indicator.

A systematized classification of text modalities includes:

Aletic modality (showing an action as necessary, possible and impossible);

Axiological modality (showing an action positively or neutrally);

Deontic modality (showing that the action conforms to a certain norm, or is due to be done, or forbidden);

Epistemic modality (showing that the statement is known, unknown or believed to be true);

Temporal modality (the information on whether the described event occurred in the past, occurs in the present or will occur in the future);

Locative modality (the information about the actual place of action)

The actual division of the sentence is connected with its formal structure. From the point of view of formal structure the sentence has a subject and a predicate, the actual division presupposes description of its informative structure, analyses of information, that is already known to the interlocutor and can be understood easily, and the main information, the kernel of the statement, the purpose of communication, that is new. A basis of the sentence, old information is called a theme, and the kernel of the statement is the rheme. For example, in the statement “*The pipe was located above ground.*” a theme of the statement is “*The pipe*”, and rheme is “*was located above ground*”. As a rule, the border between a theme and rheme is between subject group and predicate group. In a complex sentence it is between the main and the subordinate clause.

theme rheme

Ex.: *You know, | they’re supposed to keep a clean kit.*

The theme helps to establish a communicative basis, often it is an unessential component, it is possible to omit it. There are sentences in which there is only theme or only rheme. There are sentences with both elements of actual division. The rheme can be emphasized with the help of intonational pause between theme and rheme. The theme also is allocated with increase of tone, and rheme – with its downturn.

Special emphatic constructions can emphasize the rheme.

It is above the ground that the pipe was located.

Inversion also can underline the rheme. Lexical means can serve the same purpose.

The pipe was really located above the ground.

Another attempt to understand semantics of the sentence was based on theory of predicates and actants. Actants are elements of the sentence, depicting entities, capable of action or participating in the action.

Predicates are elements, joining the actants into logical descriptions. Actants can be joined in different way in order to describe the real event:

Ex.:

Someone opened this door with that key.

That key opened this door.

This door was opened with that key.

The proposition is a two-componental structure consisting of a relational predicate and a quantity of predicate actants (in other way called semantic roles, semantic cases).

Predicates can be classified on the basis of semantics of a predicate; the number of actants joining the predicate.

On the basis of predicate semantics they can be classified into actional and state. Actional predicates reflect action or activity, while statal ones show a state or property. Actional predicates can answer the question *What does/did one do?* Statal predicate answers questions like about attitude or relations.

State predicates convey:

abstract relations (*The bridge connects the banks of the river; The kettle contains water*);

emotional and mental states (*She likes animals; He knows the answer; They understand it*);

sensual perception (*He hears their voices; She sees a picture*).

Predicates of sensual perception are presented by two subtypes. The first subtype is predicates of involuntary sensual perception (*to see, to hear*). The second subtype are predicates of intentional sensual perception (*to look, to watch, to listen*). The last type of a predicate it is qualified as actional.

Actional predicates represent an action of durable nature, state ones can not convey durability: *John was writing a letter; Bill was sitting on a bench, but John hated Bill; Bill knew the answer.*

Another difference is in parts of speech, presenting these predicaters.

These are correspondingly actional and stative verbs or even other parts of speech, indicating properties.

The number of actants determines classification of predicates into:

- avalent;
- monovalent;
- bivalent;
- polyvalent.

Avalent predicate is a specific type, it does join any actants. It concerns a very limited range of the phenomena covering some natural processes, for example: It's getting dark; It rains; It snows.

Other kinds of predicates can join one or more actants.

Ex.:

He ordered dinner – bivalent predicate

Men did work in those days – monovalent predicate

The hat had obviously been worn as a practical joke! – monovalent predicate

Each of these ladies held fans in their hands – polyvalent predicate

(from The Man of Property by John Galsworthy)

Charles Fillmore distinguished the following actants or role types:

Agent: the participant that initiates the action.

Ex.: David cooked the meat. The fox jumped out of the ditch.

Patient: the entity undergoing the effect of some action, often change of state

Ex.: Edna cut back these bushes. The sun melted the ice.

Theme: the entity which is moved by an action, or whose location is described.

Ex.: David passed the ball. The book is in the library.

Experiencer: the entity which is aware of the action or state described by predicate, but which is not in control.

Ex.: Edna felt ill. David saw the smoke. Fia heard the door shut.

Beneficiary: the entity for whose benefit the action was performed.

Ex.: David filled in the form for his grandmother. They baked me a cake.

Instrument: the means by which an action is performed or something comes about.

Ex.: She cleaned the wound with an antiseptic wipe. They signed the treaty with the same pen.

Goal: the entity towards which something moves.

Ex.: Edna handed her licence to the policeman. Fia told the joke to her friends.

Source: the entity from which something moves. The plane came back from Kinshasa. We got the idea from a magazine.

CONCLUSION:

Semantic aspect of the sentence is an important sphere that helps to understand how information is organized in the utterance. Existing approaches to the sentence structure help to see its functional perspective and refer a sentence to its environment.

Theme and rheme organization is also an important aspect of translating a sentence.

📖 **Recommendations for study**

📖 *Sources for study*

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Check questions

1. Give definition of the term “predicativity”?
2. What is modality and how is it expressed?
3. What are modal meanings?
4. In what way predicates and actants connected?
5. What kinds of predicates distinguished on the basis of meaning?
6. What are the predicates, distinguished on the principle of valency?
7. What is a semantic role?
8. What kinds of actants are distinguished by Ch.Fillmore?

◆ Chapter 10

COMMUNICATIVE ASPECT OF SENTENCE

📖 *Issues to consider*

- Sentence communicative types.
- Mixed communicative types of sentence.
- Sentence in communication process.
- Proposition and presupposition.
- Speech act.
- Illocution, perlocution, locution.

Besides structure and meaning the sentence is characterized by a communicative aim. This aspect of a sentence is functional and it is viewed through the study of communicative sentence types and the theory of speech acts.

Every sentence performs a communicative task, that can be expressed as: rendering information, seeking information, provoking a reaction. These are basic tasks that speakers need for communication. These three tasks are presented by three main types declarative, imperative and interrogative.

Declarative sentence is the sentence containing a statement which gives the reader or the listener some information about various events, activities or attitudes, thoughts and feelings. The events can be presented as real or unreal, possible, desirable, depending on the modal means in them.

Ex.:

He saw nothing that interested him.

He looked at his watch.

Crowley laughed at his own joke.

A few seconds passed and Bosch heard a couple of transfer clicks before his partner got on the line.

(from The Black Echo by Michael Connelly)

Declarative sentences can be affirmative and negative. Negation can be expressed by a wide range of negative elements (particles, adverbs, negative pronouns).

Ex.:

He did not look back, for he knew the enemy was behind him in the black mist.

He hadn't.

He detected no immediate indication of the fatal injury.

He found no tracks and nothing else of evidentiary value.

(from *The Black Echo* by Michael Connelly)

An emotional charge is added to a declarative sentence with the help of intonation, in writing – it is marked by exclamatory mark. Such a sentence is called exclamatory.

Ex.:

You people!

I took it!

(from *The Black Echo* by Michael Connelly)

"We got him!,"

"I like it! Jackie, you're the best in the West!"

(from *L.A. Confidential* by James Ellroy)

Interrogative sentence is the sentence containing a question. Communicative function of such a sentence is asking for information. Sentences can be general questions, special questions, alternative or disjunctive questions. In spoken English the order of words is often not inverted, but question pattern is marked by intonation or question mark.

Ex.:

"That's the stiff?"

Bosch nodded.

"Nothing, no address with his ID?"

(from *The Black Echo* by Michael Connelly)

And you're still friendly with the Morrrows?

In a hired-hand sort of way, sure. Why?

But you'll broach the subject?"

(from *L.A. Confidential* by James Ellroy)

General question is the question about the whole sentence which can be answered either positively or negatively. In the case of such a question the speaker is interested to know whether a phenomenon/event asked about exists or not.

Ex.:

And along those lines—was it bad at the station last night?"

Do you think it will blow over?

Do you think Miss Morrow will be amenable?

Did you partake?

Is Loew afraid of prosecuting?

(from L.A. Confidential by James Ellroy)

Pronominal question is the question asked to get more detailed and precise information about the phenomenon/event known to the speaker/reader. The question opens with an interrogative pronoun or a pronominal adverb.

Ex.:

What about Brownell and Helenowski?

How bad did they get it?

(from L.A. Confidential by James Ellroy)

Tag question is a short “yes-no” question added to a statement.

Ex.:

Well, he ended up in a tunnel, didn't he?

You're still here, aren't you?

(from The Black Echo by Michael Connelly)

You're twenty-two, aren't you, Ray?"

(from L.A. Confidential by James Ellroy)

Alternative question is the question which implies a choice between two or more variants of answer.

Ex.:

These guys get in after they raised the college requirement, or what?

Pitching or catching?

What is it, boss? The Senate or the statehouse?

(from The Black Echo by Michael Connelly)

Imperative sentence is the sentence which expresses a command which conveys the desire of the speaker to make someone (the listener) perform a certain action. Besides commands, such sentences can express requests, that can be differentiated from commands depending on the situation, context, wording and intonation.

Ex.:

Jack, lower your voice.

Cut! Wrap it!

Easy now. Tell me about the ruckus.

Sergeant, lower your voice.

(from L.A. Confidential by James Ellroy)

Each communicative type has a typical syntactic structure. Declarative sentences are two-member sentences with theme and rheme. Interrogative sentences have only a theme in their semantic structure. Their formal structure includes inversion of SVO organization in the pattern “auxiliary + subject + notional verb”. Imperative sentences contain infinitive and their semantic organization is presented by a rheme.

Nevertheless in real speech we come across numerous cases when the form of the sentence and its communicative aim do not coincide. Here we can speak about mixed types. For example, rhetorical question is the question containing a statement disguised as a question. Usually no answer to the rhetorical question is expected. We can see it if we transform these questions into statements.

Ex.:

Aren't you impressed? (= you must be impressed)

(from L.A. Confidential by James Ellroy)

Didn't he ever tell you to get the money first? (= he must have told you)

And so why aren't you out there with the boys? (= you must be out with the boys)

(from The Black Echo by Michael Connelly)

Boychik, why didn't you tell me?(= you had to tell me)

(from L.A. Confidential by James Ellroy)

Many requests are presented in the form of questions.

Ex.:

Will you tell us of any past association with or knowledge you had of the decedent.

(from The Black Echo by Michael Connelly)

Declarative sentences can provoke reaction just like imperative ones:

Ex.:

Jack, it's not the time to discuss this. (= stop discussing this)

(from The Black Echo by Michael Connelly)

Some patterns have acquired fixed communicative functions. For example, sentences, starting with “what if” are often used as expressions of defiance and challenge:

Ex.:

“So what if I do!”

“So what if I am!”

(from The Black Echo by Michael Connelly)

The following sentences became communicative clichés and are not loaded with the primary tasks, typical for their patterns:

Ex.:

Good night, Harry.

How do you do?

(from The Black Echo by Michael Connelly)

Yes, Captain?

Thanks for company.

(from The Black Echo by Michael Connelly)

The theory that helps to understand communicative load of the sentence better is connected with communication theory. Communication process starts with the idea, then is formed linguistically in our mind, then uttered in speech or written and perceived by the listener or reader. Communication operates with the notion of an utterance. An utterance is a natural unit of speech bounded by breaths or pauses. An utterance is a complete unit of talk, bounded by the speaker's silence. An utterance can be meaningful or meaningless, it is connected with the specific person, specific time or particular occasion. It could be a single phrase or even a single word.

Ex.:

Single mindedness.

This car, your car...

The relentless will.

(from the film "Cosmopolis")

A sentence is a string of words put together by the grammatical of rules of a language expressing a complete thought.

The information rendered in this process is coded in a sentence. Thus we can speak about proposition. A proposition is simply the meaning of a sentence. Entailment is a relation between sentence meanings, or propositions. Very often proposition is revealed on the basis of logical operations that interlocutors make in the process of communication.

Ex.:

Mary broke the window (thus we can deduce that the window broke).

The king of France is bald (thus we can deduce that there is a monarchy in France).

What Bill lost wasn't his wallet (Bill lost something).

He is an Englishman; he is therefore brave (all Englishmen are brave).

Some sentences in different context may have different propositions:

Ex.:

You are bad! (morality).

You are bad! (unskillful)

Presupposition is often viewed as something pragmatic, a relation between a speaker and a proposition. For example, an utterance of “John forgot to call Mary” typically has a presuppositional inference that John was supposed to call Mary. It is intuitively clear that this is not the main point the speaker wants to make by the utterance. Typically, the presuppositional inferences of an utterance are already known to be true and accepted by the conversational participants, or, at least, the speaker assumes so when the utterance is made.

Nevertheless, presuppositions can be only possibilities, but not necessarily true:

Ex.:

Mary’s brother bought three horses

1. *Mary is alive.*
2. *Her brother is alive.*
3. *She has one brother*
4. *He is rich.*

There are certain elements in the sentence that help to make such conclusions. They are called presupposition triggers:

Definite descriptions – *my son, the boss, Mike;*

Factive predicates – *count, make sense, matter, know, regret, resent, find out, discover, see, notice, be aware that, be proud that;*

Counter-factual conditionals – *If, unless, without;*

“Change of state” verbs – *begin, start, stop, finish, cease, continue, carry on, cease, take, leave, enter, come, go, arrive;*

Temporal clauses – *before, while, since, after, during, whenever;*

Cleft sentences – *It is/was which/whom/that...;*

Questions – *Who, what, when, ...*

Another approach to understanding sentence pragmatics is the theory of speech acts. It was developed by J.L. Austin and J.R. Searle. This analyses is evidently connected with pragmatics and in communication a sentence is studied by the speech-act theory, that is concerned with the ways in which sentence can carry out actions.

Speech-act theory considers the levels of action at which utterances are said to perform:

- Locutionary Acts
- Illocutionary Acts
- Perlocutionary Acts

In speech-act theory, a *locutionary act* is the act of making a meaningful utterance. Also known as *locution* or an *utterance act* or *propositional act* – *it is* the act of expressing a proposition.

An *illocutionary act* is the way in which a sentence is used to express an attitude with a certain function or “force”. *Illocutionary force* refers to a speaker’s *intention* in delivering an utterance or to the kind of **illocutionary act** the speaker is performing. Also known as *illocutionary function* or *illocutionary point*. From Searle’s view, there are only five illocutionary points that speakers can achieve on propositions in an utterance, namely:

The *representatives* – representing the state of things in the world.

The *directives* – *directing* hearers to do something.

The *expressives* – expressing attitudes about objects and facts of the world.

The *commissives* – committing to doing something.

The *declaratives* – saying about doing something.

For example, if a speaker says, “I’ll be there” and it is unclear whether it is a promise that has been made, the speaker can make it explicit by saying “I promise that I’ll be there”.

Speech acts are associated with typical utterances:

Representatives – assertions, claims, reports.

Ex.:

The president’s in town.

Our system is secure.

We’re impenetrable.

There’s no barber chair here.

(from the film “Cosmopolis”)

Directives – suggestions, requests commands.

Ex.:

Show me my car.

I want you to tell me that you still have the stamina to do this job.

Get the barber come to the office, get a haircut there or have the barber come to your car, just... get your haircut and go to the office.

(from the film “Cosmopolis”)

Expressives – apologies, complaint, thanks.

Ex.:

But I could definitely complain.

(from the film “Cosmopolis”)

Gentlemen, I’m sorry I’m so late.

(from L.A. Confidential by James Ellroy)

Commissives – promises, threats, offers.

Ex.:

No need to go cross town. Situation is unstable.

If they’re selling the chapel, I’ll keep it intact. Tell them!

We’ll hit traffic that speaks in quarter inches.

(from the film “Cosmopolis”)

Declaratives – declarations, decrees.

Ex.:

You’re under arrest

(from L.A. Confidential by James Ellroy)

A *perlocutionary act* is an action or state of mind brought about by, or as a consequence of, saying something. Also known as *perlocutionary effect*.

CONCLUSION:

Communicative aspect of the sentence is an important aspect, the study of which can help to understand how communicative task of the speaker is realized in a sentence. Understanding illocutionary power of the sentence can help to see the mechanism of rhetorical speech, mass media texts, internet communication.

📌 Recommendations for study

📖 Sources for study

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Chart 6. Communicative classification of sentences

👉 Check questions

1. Give definition of the term “proposition”?
2. In what way can we differentiate preposition and presupposition?
3. What is a communicative type of sentence?
4. What is the way to express communicative aim?
5. What are the main communicative types of sentence?
6. What is a mixed communicative type?
7. What is a speech act?
8. What is illocution?
9. What is illocutive force?

◆ Chapter 11

TEXT AS A UNIT OF SYNTAX

📖 *Issues to consider*

- Supra-phrasal units as components of the text.
- Sentence roles in the text.
- Theme and rheme organization of the text.
- Category of cohesion.
- Means of creating coherence.
- Modality of the text.

Study of the text is thoroughly prepared by functional syntax. The functional approach to studying syntactic units has enabled to single out units bigger than a sentence and understand their role in the text.

The **text** is a functional, semantical and structural unity with specific rules of construction. In the text maximal units of language (sentence) become a minimal unit. Sentences are united into blocks. On the basis of the sentences bigger units are formed – **supraphrasal units** (or syntactic unities). It is a semantico-syntactical text unit representing combination of two and more sentences, united in thematic and structural aspect. The supra-phrasal unit is organized through a theme-rheme sequence.

In the theme-rheme sequence one can see that themes turn into rhemes. Thus the theme of the whole text contains microthemes. Transition from one theme (microthemes) to another is a border of supra-phrasal units. Communicative continuity between components of the text is important. Each sentence of each supra-phrasal unit is connected with the previous one and advances the information from the known to the new. As a result the theme-rheme sequence is created. The text as communicative unit presupposes such connection of sentences that each of the subsequent units contains some minimal information which was already mentioned in the previous statement.

Ex.:

Let us suppose that you (Theme 1) are in New York, in New York, the most typically modern of great cities (Rheme 1). Stand in a busy street during working hours, (Theme 2-former Rheme 1) or on a main thoroughfare at a week-end, or at a dance of an evening; empty your mind of your own ego, and let the personalities of the strangers about you take possession of you one after another. (Rheme 2)

(From The Conquest of Happiness by Bertrand Russell)

Another mechanism of forming a supra-phrasal unit is distribution of sentence roles in the supra-phrasal unit. The main role is played by a topic sentence, called dicteme. Other sentences help to develop the idea of the topic sentence. They are called cumulemes. Sentences that do not correspond to the topic of a supraphrasal unit are called occursemes. Such sentences can be digressions from the main topic.

Ex.:

The causes of these various kinds of unhappiness lie partly in the social system, partly in individual psychology – which, of course, is itself to a considerable extent a product of the social system (dicteme). I have written before about the changes in the social system required to promote happiness (cumulemes). Concerning the abolition of war, of economic exploitation, of education in cruelty and fear, it is not my intention to speak in this volume (occurseme).

(From The Conquest of Happiness by Bertrand Russell)

Cumulation can be achieved through giving examples and facts:

Ex.:

Perhaps the best introduction to the philosophy which I wish to advocate will be a few words of autobiography. I was not born happy. As a child, my favourite hymn was: 'Weary of earth and laden with my sin'. At the age of five, I reflected that, if I should live to be seventy, I had only endured, so far, a fourteenth part of my whole life, and I felt the long-spread-out boredom ahead of me to be almost unendurable.

(From The Conquest of Happiness by Bertrand Russell)

Another way of development is contrasting ideas or finding analogy in them.

Ex.:

In adolescence, I hated life and was continually on the verge of suicide, from which, however, I was restrained by the desire to know more mathematics. Now, on the contrary, I enjoy life; I might almost say that with every year that passes I enjoy it more.

(From The Conquest of Happiness by Bertrand Russell)

Connection of sentences in the line of text can produce prospective effects or retrospective ones. Prospection directs attention of the reader further on. Retrospection on the contrary refers the sentence to the previous one.

Ex.:

The wise man will be as happy as circumstances permit and if he finds the contemplation of the universe painful beyond a point, he will contemplate something else instead. ← This is what I wish to prove in the present chapter.

And I gave my heart to know wisdom, and to know madness and folly: I perceived that this also is vexation of spirit. → For in much wisdom is much grief: and he that increaseth knowledge increaseth sorrow.

(From The Conquest of Happiness by Bertrand Russell)

He had changed since his New Haven years. ← Now he was a sturdy straw-haired man of thirty with a rather hard mouth and a supercilious manner.

I knew now why her face was familiar → – its pleasing contemptuous expression had looked out at me from many rotogravure pictures of the sporting life at Asheville and Hot Springs and Palm Beach. I had heard some story of her too, a critical, unpleasant story, but what it was I had forgotten long ago.

Reading over what I have written so far, I see I have given the impression that the events of three nights several weeks apart were all that absorbed me. On the contrary, they were merely casual events in a crowded summer, and, à until much later, they absorbed me infinitely less than my personal affairs.

(From The Great Gatsby by S.Fitzgerald)

Text organization, as it is clear, is mostly expressed in information arrangement. This arrangement is achieved through specific combination of textual categorial means.

The system of text categories is complicated, here **cohesion, coherence, integrity and modality** play the main role.

Integrity and connectivity – these, in essence, the basic, constructive attributes of the text – reflect substantial and structural essence of the text. Thus researchers, in particular, distinguish local connectivity and global connectivity. Local connectivity is a connectivity of linear sequences (statements, interphrase unities). Global connectivity is the one that provides unity of the text as the semantic whole, its internal integrity. Global connectivity leads to substantial integrity of the text, it is shown through keywords, thematically and conceptually uniting the text as a whole or its fragments. Local connectivity is defined by syntactic links (parenthetical enclosures, modal and pronominal words, aspectual-temporal forms of verbs, lexical repetitions, a word order etc.). Connectivity of the text is

shown through external structural parameters, through formal dependence of components of the text.

Connectivity in other words can be called cohesion, that is such a quality of the text that provides joining all elements on all levels. A text can be cohesive through the use of the following devices:

1. Repetition.

Ex.:

Animals are happy so long as they have health and enough to eat. Human beings, one feels, ought to be, but in the modern world they are not, at least in a great majority of cases. If you are unhappy yourself, you will probably be prepared to admit that you are not exceptional in this. If you are happy, ask yourself how many of your friends are so. And when you have reviewed your friends, teach yourself the art of reading faces; make yourself receptive to the moods of those whom you meet in the course of an ordinary day.

(From The Conquest of Happiness by Bertrand Russell)

2. Synonymy and antonymy. It is expressed at the lexical level, but also involves the use of similar grammatical forms or grammatical variation.

Ex.:

There have always been many pessimists whenever there have been many people whose income has diminished. Mr Krutch, it is true, is an American, and American incomes, on the whole, have been increased by the War, but throughout the Continent of Europe the intellectual classes have suffered terribly, while the War itself gave everyone a sense of instability. Such social causes have a great deal more to do with the mood of an epoch than has its' theory as to the nature of the world. Few ages have been more despairing than the thirteenth century, although that faith which Mr Krutch so regrets was then firmly entertained by everyone except the Emperor and a few great Italian nobles.

Gradually I learned to be indifferent to myself and my deficiencies; I came to centre my attention increasingly upon external objects: the state of the world, various branches of knowledge, individuals for whom I felt affection.

(From The Conquest of Happiness by Bertrand Russell)

3. Anaphoric repetition. Parallelism.

Ex.:

Swearing is wicked; drinking is wicked; ordinary business shrewdness is wicked; above all, sex is wicked.

The rivers run into the sea; yet the sea is not full. There is no new thing under the sun. There is no remembrance of former things.

There is no arguing with a mood; it can be changed by some fortunate event, or by a change in our bodily condition, but it cannot be changed by argument. I have frequently experienced myself the mood in which I felt that all is vanity; I have emerged from it not by means of any philosophy, but owing to some imperative necessity of action.

(From The Conquest of Happiness by Bertrand Russell)

4. Transitions – conjunctions or conjunctive adverbs to link sentences with particular logical relationships. There are many kinds of transitions.

Addition Transitions	Cause-Effect Transitions	Comparison Transitions	Contrast Transitions	Conclusion and Summary Transitions
and also besides first, second, third in addition in the first place, in the second place, in the third place furthermore moreover to begin with, next, finally	accordingly and so as a result consequently for this reason hence so then therefore thus	by the same token in like manner in the same way in similar fashion likewise similarly	but however in contrast instead nevertheless on the contrary on the other hand still yet	and so after all at last finally in brief in closing in conclusion on the whole to conclude to summarize

Coherence is a category, connected with clarity of the text for the reader. It is mostly achieved at the level of global connectivity, connectivity of ideas in the text. Nevertheless, there is a big class of linguistic means for that.

Reference and substitution: two linguistic elements are related in what they refer to or one linguistic element is not repeated but is replaced by a substitution item.

Ex.:

This man is perpetually incurring his own disapproval, which, if he is religious, he interprets as the disapproval of God. He has an image of himself as he thinks he ought to be, which is in continual conflict with his knowledge of himself as he is. If, in his conscious thought, he has long since discarded the maxims that he was taught at his mother's knee, his sense of sin may be buried deep in his unconscious, and only emerge when he is drunk or asleep. Nevertheless it may suffice to take the savor out of everything. At bottom he still accepts all the prohibitions he was taught in infancy. Daan loves strawberry ice-creams. He has one every day.

One of Mr. Krutch's most pathetic chapters deals with the subject of love. It appears that the Victorians thought very highly of it, but that we with our modern sophistication have come to see through it.

(From The Conquest of Happiness by Bertrand Russell)

Ellipsis: one of the identical linguistic elements is omitted.

Ex.:

I must not imagine that my tail is better than that, for that would be conceited, but oh, how I wish it were!

(From The Conquest of Happiness by Bertrand Russell)

Another way to achieve coherence is the use of theme and rheme not only at the level of a sentence, but also on the level of a supraphrasal unit. New information is born with rheme components of the sentences or supraphrasal units, they advance the information forward; thematic components fix starting points of statements, they fasten separate statements, connecting them in a single whole and providing continuity – informative, communicative, structural. The theme-rheme sequence also shows communicative coherence of the text as through it there is an accumulation of the information, its promotion. The connection between theme and rheme of the sentences is exercised through the use of linguistic elements, arranged in a particular way.

Modality is created on all levels of the text with the help of different means – modal words, modal verbs, parenthetical phrases and clauses of modal nature:

Ex.:

I mean the man who is absorbed in the consciousness of sin.

He does not, of course, abstain from any of these pleasures, but they are all poisoned for him by the feeling that they degrade him.

Perhaps their pride is like that of the fox who had lost his tail; if so, the way to cure it is to point out to them how they can grow a new tail.

Very few men, I believe, will deliberately choose unhappiness if they see a way of being happy.

Alexander, I daresay, envied Hercules, who never existed. You cannot, therefore, get away from envy by means of success alone, for there will always be in history or legend some person even more successful than you are.

(From The Conquest of Happiness by Bertrand Russell)

CONCLUSION:

Sentence remains the main unit of creating syntactic unities. It serves as a building block for supra-phrasal units and texts. Structure of the sentence, formal and semantic, becomes the basis for macro-syntax. The text is viewed as any linguistic unit. It has meaning, form and function, that are studied not only by grammar, but also by stylistics and text linguistics. Grammar focuses on grammatical aspect of text formation.

👉 Recommendations for study

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👉 Check questions

1. What is a text?
2. What is a supra-phrasal unit?
3. What are the main text categories?
4. What are the main means of cohesion?
5. What means are used for coherence?
6. What means are used for expressing modality?
7. What is the role of theme and rheme in text organization?

◆ Chapter 12

GRAMMATICAL ASPECT OF DISCOURSE

Issues to consider

- Discourse theory in linguistics.
- Discourse structures.
- Frame theory.
- Deixis category.
- Discourse markers in speech.

Discourse theory has a great impact on linguistics development in general and on grammar development in particular. The term “discourse” was born in sociology and was used for characterizing social and cultural parameters and of speech organization in interpersonal communication. Discourse is a set of principles, on the basis of which reality is processed, classified and represented in speech. These principles depend on place and time of a particular society development.

The term “discourse” was introduced by Emil Benvenist in his comparative-historical research. It originates in French: a French word “discourse” means “speech”. This term is widely used not only in sociology, but also in psychology and semantics.

In linguistics discourse is used in the meaning of a sequence of speech acts, or, to put it more simple, speech, determined by a particular situation of communication. This can be exemplified by dialogues and polylogues in oral communication, texts, united by common frame in written communication.

Discourse appears in special language environment in which language patterns are created. Thus, discourse is «language in language», it has specific lexicon, semantics, pragmatic parameters and syntax. They are subject to a certain ideology and can be represented in oral and written speech production.

Discourse can be viewed as a general theoretical notion, that helps to understand the nature of speech and gave birth to a discourse theory, nowadays practically a branch of linguistic study with its own methods and terms.

Discourse can be also understood as some categorized type of communication, based on parameters of stability in the use of lexicon, semantics, pragmatic parameters and syntax. For example – juridical

discourse, medical discourse, academic discourse. Jørgensen M. W. and Phillips L. J. defined discourse as the general idea that language is structured according to patterns which cause statements of people in various spheres of a social life.

The term “discourse” is also understood as a result of speech production. Thus, business discourse can mean the bulk of business correspondence, used in the interaction of business partners.

Since discourse is such a complicated phenomenon, it is studied by different branches of general linguistics, grammar being only one of them.

Discourse is understood as a complex system, based on hierarchy of linguistic and extralinguistic factors (knowledge of the world, opinions, installations, the purposes of the addressee, etc).

The information, exchanged in the course of communication, is expressed not only with the help of language, but also with the help of extralinguistic means, such as mimics, gestures, position of inrelocuters, background and so on. Extralinguistic means can illustrate, enhance or even contradict information, rendered by language.

To understand the nature of such a complicated phenomenon as discourse, it is necessary to focus on some important notions.

Speech act

As it was mentioned previously, this term was derived from the idea that speech is a way of actualizing thoughts, that determine the contents of communication. Speech act is a notion, based on the speaker’s intention. This intention, embodied in speech, can have a result in the form of action or speech reaction. Thus the utterance has a result like a real physical action. According to the purpose of communication speech acts can be classified as directives (directing people to perform some activities), permissives (granting permission to perform some activities), and so on. Speech acts can have a real acting power. Ex.: saying “I now pronounce you man and wife” enacts a marriage.

Frames

Frame theory was connected with study of language in real environments – casinos, hospitals, cafes and so on. Each environment determines the use of certain lexis, clichés, structures in speech. As G. Lakoff said in his lecture “Doctors are operating patients with scalpels” is an expression of such a frame. Frames can be general and specific. The most general frames are asking for information and informing. Minor frames correspond to

communicative microfunctions, such as identifying, reporting, correcting, remembering, forgetting, apologizing, approving, encouraging.

Thus, a party frame can consist of minor frames of getting acquainted, gossiping, reuniting and so on. Frames can also overlap in some points.

Deixis

Deixis concerns the way speakers refer to people and things in terms of time and space, all in relation to the moment and situation of speaking. Deixis refers to the way speakers orient themselves and their listeners in terms of person, time and space in relation to the immediate situation of speaking.

Discourse studies consider how speakers encode assumptions about what can be understood from the situation without being said, and what cannot. Discourse studies also describes how speakers package the information in their messages with the listener firmly in mind (e.g. by the use of headers, informative items that precede the conventional clause structure and make the clause easier to process): how speakers create interactive exchanges by the use of questions and tags (short structures typically found at the end of clauses, such as *You like mushrooms, don't you?* Deictic features occur in both written and spoken language.

Structure of discourse can be seen in any type of communication, but it is easier to exemplify it with the help of a dialogue from colloquial speech, where all relations between units of structure are more immediate.

The speakers interact with the help of utterances named stimulus and response. They, in turn, create cycles, the latter form themes.

Ex.:

<i>WILL: Is that Dr. Bennett's car?</i>	Stimulus 1	Cycle 1	Theme 1
<i>SANDRA: He's up with your father.</i>	Response 1		
<i>WILL: How is he?</i>	Stimulus 2	Cycle 2	Theme 2
<i>SANDRA: He's impossible. He won't eat.</i>	Response 2		
<i>And because he won't eat, he gets weaker.</i>			
<i>And because he's weaker, he doesn't want to eat.</i>			
<i>WILL: How much time does he have left?</i>	Stimulus 1	Cycle 3	
<i>SANDRA: You don't talk about those things. Not yet.</i>	Response 1		

(from the film "BIG FISH")

In this structure we can find special markers, that can render a lot of information about the participants of communication and their reference to the environment. The marker “that” denotes the position of the speakers to the object. The marker “and” denotes cause-and-consequence relations between events. The markers “he” denote two different persons outside communication. The marker “you” denotes “everyone”.

In the following conversation markers “OK, really” are used to parcel the story into pieces and show the listener’s support of communication. The same function is performed by echo question “What did he say?”

Ex.:

EDWARD: There was this panhandler who used to stop me every morning when I came out of this coffee shop near the office.

WILL: Okay.

EDWARD: And every day I gave him a quarter. Every day. Then I got sick and was out for a couple of weeks. And when I went back there, you know what he said?

WILL: What did he say?

EDWARD: You owe me three-fifty.

WILL: Really.

EDWARD: True story.

(from the film “BIG FISH”)

The markers can perform different functions.

References to the immediate situation are achieved by means of determiners such as *this, these, that, those*, adverbs such as *here, now, there, then, ago* and personal pronouns such as *I, we, him, us*. These words are called deictic words, because they are the main expression of deixis, pointing to the time, place, or situation in which a speaker is speaking and denoting participants of communication. Deictic words are necessary to see the interlocutors and persons outside communication, objects and phenomena within immediate situation or distanced from it and a time scheme. Thus these words can help the listener orient interpersonally (who is referred to), temporally (when) and spatially (where). The scope of a communicative situation thus can be inclusive and exclusive. Inclusive elements are here, now and take an immediate part in communication. Exclusive ones are distanced by time and space and include non-communicating participants of some situation. For example, the speakers (inclusive) can discuss the third person (exclusive).

Let's look at the use of some references.

This, that, these, those can refer to physical closeness and distance, but not only. *This* focuses or highlights new topics, making them more immediate and significant. It can also convey positive connotation, approval or acceptance. You can see it in the following examples, where *this* and *that* are used to express different attitude of two speakers – positive and negative. Also they are used for defining previously mentioned topics and ideas.

Ex.:

ANNIE: This is not about attitude. It's just the facts! My life hasn't turned it out the way I expected. I don't have any of those things that gives a person points in the world.

STEVE: I think that might be your problem. I think you read too many of those magazines. You don't need things to be someone. Tyra said that. Tyra Banks.

(from the film "BRIDESMAIDS")

Response tokens. These are words, used as a response to the speaker's utterances. They help to indicate the interlocutor's participation in communication, help to see that information is accepted or processed. These units include such words as *yes, OK, absolutely, certainly, definitely, fine, good, great, indeed, really*. In spoken grammar, the term 'response token' better describes their function of referring to a whole preceding utterance rather than their word-class identity as adjectives or adverbs:

Ex. 1:

TED: I just want to be honest right off the bat.

ANNIE: Yeah, yeah. Ok. Yeah. Yeah. I love that.

TED: I'm just so busy and I don't have time for another person...I...

ANNIE: Yeah, me too, I'm soo busy--

TED: And summer's coming--

ANNIE: Yeah, summer, exactly. It's a crazy season.

(from the film "BRIDESMAIDS")

Ex. 2:

LILLIAN: Well then, who better to be my Maid of Honor?

ANNIE: Oh my God! I don't know what to say!

LILLIAN: Annie, you're my best friend. Honestly I didn't even have to think about it.

ANNIE: Uh, wow. Yes! Of course! Yes! My God. I've never been in a wedding.

(from the film "BRIDESMAIDS")

Headers. Headers help to present information in portions, so the idea is introduced gradually in two or even more steps. This is achieved by placing nominative elements – nouns or nominative word-combinations in front position. They are detached elements of the utterance, separated by commas or even periods. A nominative word-combination is followed by one or more pronouns which refer back to the word-combination. In some grammar books this feature is called double subject.:

Yep then is fine 7.30 or 8.30 for ice age.

It's really getting me down just hanging around.

My friend, she is studying in Warwick, we've planned to go shopping...

(from Discourse of Text Messaging: Analysis of SMS Communication by Caroline Tagg p. 88)

Questions

Important role in discourse organization is played by questions. Intonation, used in questions, can convey a lot of information. Particularly rising and falling intonation may combine with question tags to produce a variety of meaning types.

Ex. 1: Thought you'd drop in, did you?

Why not, you paid for it, right?

(from the film "COSMOPOLIS")

Echo questions are those that repeat information, mentioned by one of the speakers. It helps to support the conversation and serves as stimulus for further development of the dialogue.

Ex. 1:

– *What about the chapel?*

– *What about it?*

– *I'll keep it intact.*

(from the film "COSMOPOLIS")

Ex. 2:

– *Of course. Or did I see it on TV?*

– *What?*

– *What? The wedding!*

(from the film "COSMOPOLIS")

Ex.3:

- *Let me see the thing.*
- *Let you see the thing?Okay.*

(from the film “COSMOPOLIS”)

Follow-up questions are also based on the previously based information, but their purpose is to clarify or extend the information received.

Ex. 1:

- *What does it mean to spend money?*
- *A dollar?*
- *A million?*
- *For a painting?*
- *For anything.*

(from the film “COSMOPOLIS”)

Ex.2:

HELEN: It’s the number one spot. So how many times have you been in the B.P?

ANNIE: I’m sorry, the what?

HELEN: Bridal Party?

(from the film “BRIDESMAIDS”)

Ex.3:

ANNIE: I’ve never even been in a wedding before.

HELEN: What!? I’ve never even heard of that. Tell them!

(from the film “BRIDESMAIDS”)

Sometimes follow-up questions can be used in clusters: Ex.: Keep it intact? Where? (from the film “COSMOPOLIS”)

Preface question is used to start a conversation and serves as a stimulus:

Ex.:

- *You ain’t heard?*
- *What?*
- *Brother Fez.*
- *What?*
- *Dead.*
- *No!*
- *What? Can’t be!*
- *Dead. Died. Earlier today.*

(from the film “COSMOPOLIS”)

Vague language

Being vague is an important feature of interpersonal meaning and is especially common in everyday conversation. It involves the use of words and phrases such as *thing, stuff, or so, like, or something, or anything, and so on, or whatever, kind of, sort of*.

Vague language softens expressions so that they do not appear too direct or unduly authoritative and assertive. It also is a strong indication of an assumed shared knowledge and can mark in-group membership: the referents of vague expressions can be assumed to be known by the listener.

Approximations

Information, presented in discourse is seldom exact. There is a wide range of expressions used enable speakers to present an approximate version of qualities, numbers, feelings. Exact representation gives an impression of being untactful or pedantic. Approximations help to make speech vague.

Adverbs are most commonly used to express approximation:

Ex.: Some fourteen or fifteen years ago, in an essay I called The Leader Follows – Where? I used his polarity to illustrate what I thought had happened to usin that form of liberalism which we call Progressivism.

(Brown U. Corpus G21 0260from Some as an Expression of Approximation in English: From Partitive to Approximative by Patrick J. Duffley)

I will be there in about an hour.

I will be there in around an hour.

I will be there in more or less an hour.

In discourse both speakers contribute to it's development and organization. **Pragmatic markers** are the units, that enable the speaker to exercise control in the discourse.

Opening up and closing down

Openings and closings help speakers to introduce and exclude, make pauses, deviations, re-opening previously closed or interrupted conversations. Some of the most common and frequent markers function to facilitate openings and closings of these kinds, for example, *so, (all) right, right then, now, good, well, okay, anyway, fine:*

Ex. 1:

ANNIE: Well you are very fortunate because you happen have the best maid of honor in the whole wide world, and--

(from the film “BRIDESMAIDS”)

Closings

Pre-closings and closings can also be facilitated by the use of discourse markers. These are: *(all) right, so, anyway, okay, well, fine, lovely, good, great:*

Ex.:

ANNIE: I'll see you next Monday. What time do I start?

TIM: Four a.m. You'll get used to it.

ANNIE: I won't be late.

TIM: Oh and I wanna try one of those moonpies.

ANNIE: Yeah. Ok.

(from the film "BRIDESMAIDS")

Sequencing

Relationships of sequence can be signaled by discourse markers. Such markers indicate explicitly the order in which things occur or how different segments of a discourse are being organized. They also mark how one thing leads to or leads back to another. Among the words and phrases which mainly signal such relationships in spoken language are:

and

in general

second

and then

in the end

secondly

finally

in the first place

so

first (of all) /

ast of all

there again

firstly

lastly

third(ly)

for a start

next

to sum up

going back to

on top of that

what's more

Ex.:

RICKY: When I was fifteen, my dad caught me smoking dope. He totally freaked and decided to send me to military school. I told you his whole thing about structure and discipline, right? (laughs) Well, of course, I got kicked out. Dad and I had this huge fight, and he hit me... and then the next day at school, some kid made a crack about my haircut, and... I just snapped. I wanted to kill him. And I would have. Killed him. If they hadn't pulled me off. That's when my dad put me in the hospital. Then they drugged me up and left me in there for two years.

(from the film "BRIDESMAIDS")

Focusing attention

Attention or focus can be directed to a topic or to a phase of the talk by a number of discourse markers. Common examples are now, hey, ah, oh and imperative verb forms (look, listen, just think, remember). The main function is to focus the attention of the listener on what the speaker feels is important:

Ex. 1:

TED: So listen Annie, I like you. So, I want to be up front with you. I'm not really looking for a relationship right now.

(from the film "BRIDESMAIDS")

Ex. 2:

Look, Mom, I really don't feel like having a Kodak moment here, okay?

(from the film "AMERICAN BEAUTY")

Diverting – avoiding the topic with the help of words like *Oh, anyway, well*.

Shifting. To shift from one topic to the other the speaker also uses special pragmatic markers.

Ex.:

Oh, and another thing. From now on, we're going to alternate our dinner music.

(from the film "AMERICAN BEAUTY")

Resuming. Pragmatic markers of resuming help the speaker to return to the interrupted line of thought.

Ex.:

Oh, and another thing. From now on, we're going to alternate our dinner music.

(from the film "AMERICAN BEAUTY")

Monitoring shared knowledge

Two of the most common discourse markers are you know and (you) see. Both these markers signal that speakers are sensitive to the needs of their listeners and are monitoring the state of shared knowledge in the conversation.

Ex.:

You know, this really doesn't concern you.

I mean, I think "lagoon," I think "waterfall", I think "tropical". This is a cement hole.

(from the film "AMERICAN BEAUTY)

Ex.:

You know, if you do go out with Bianca, you'd be set.

(from the film "TEN THINGS I HATE ABOUT YOU")

Hedges

Speakers are often careful not to sound too blunt, but more tactful, so a variety of markers exist to hedge. A range of expressions are used in everyday spoken language to downtone the assertiveness:

apparently kind of probably arguably like roughly by any chance maybe sort of I think perhaps surely just (about) presumably

Ex.:

I'm not exactly sure what it is, but I know I didn't always feel this... sedated.

You don't think it's weird and kinda fascist?

Last time I saw you, you looked kind of wound up.

I just love your tie! That color!

I just love your roses. How do you get them to flourish like this?

Because I'm not quite late enough.

Could you be just a little bit more dramatic, please, huh?

(from the film "AMERICAN BEAUTY)

Reformulating is expressing the same idea in other words. Here such discourse markers are used as: *In other words, Well, I mean, Or rather, By the way, So to speak, As it were, That is to say.*

Thus, discourse concerns grammar in the use of such grammatical classes as interjections, adverbs, affirmative words. Special means of discourse are of parenthetical nature and help interlocutors to structure discourse and refer it to the environment.

CONCLUSIONS:

Grammar aspect of discourse helps to understand functional side of sentence, it's role in a communicative perspective of a dialogue. Particular deictic units are used in the structure of discourse to provide effective communication. Grammar aspect of discourse is closely connected with the theory of speech acts and frames.

Recommendations for study

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Table 1. A short list of discourse markers.

 **Check questions**

1. What is the origin of the term “discourse”?
2. In what way different meanings of the term are connected?
3. What is a frame?
4. What is a speech act?
5. What are the main functions of deixis?
6. What are the main markers of discourse?
7. What markers are used for organizing speech?
8. What markers are used for presenting information?
9. What markers are responsible for attitude expression?

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 **ИСТОЧНИКИ ДЛЯ ПОИСКА ПРИМЕРОВ К ДОКЛАДАМ И РЕФЕРАТАМ**

Free literary sources:

1. <http://lib.ru>
2. <http://find-book.org>
3. <http://e-reading.club>
4. <http://proza.ru>
5. <https://books.google.ru>
6. <https://www.poetryfoundation.org>

Free mass media sources:

1. <http://www.bbc.com>
2. <https://www.theguardian.com>
3. <http://europe.newsweek.com>
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5. <http://www.bbc.com>
6. <http://www.cjr.org>
7. <http://www.linguisticsociety.org>
8. <http://www.hawaii.edu>
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Free film scripts:

10. <http://www.imsdb.com/>
11. <http://gointothestory.blcklst.com/free-script-downloads/>
12. <http://www.simplyscripts.com/>

Training test

Two main branches of theoretical grammar are _____	<p>syntax and theory of the text</p> <p>morphology and syntax</p> <p>normative and structural grammar</p> <p>prescriptive and comprehensive grammar</p>
Syntagmatic relations appear _____	<p>between any elements of the language</p> <p>between words united by common features</p> <p>between words in a line of speech</p> <p>between different grammatical forms</p>
Paradigmatic relations appear _____	<p>between morphemic elements within a word</p> <p>between words united by common features</p> <p>between words in a line of speech</p> <p>between any elements of the language</p>
Paradigm is _____ .	<p>all possible grammatical forms of the word</p> <p>all the possible derivative forms of the word</p> <p>all the possible phonetical forms of the word</p> <p>a grammatical element within one word</p>
Systemic approach to grammar study relies upon the notion that _____	<p>the language is a system of phonetical, grammatical and lexical signs</p> <p>language should be studied systematically</p> <p>language is a fixed, unchangeable system</p> <p>language is not a system</p>
Comprehensive grammar announced that _____ .	<p>the role of grammar in communication is primary</p> <p>the role of grammar in communication is determined by the speaker</p> <p>the role of grammar in communication is determined by understanding</p> <p>grammar helps to improve the environment</p>
Descriptive grammar announced that grammar should be studied on the basis of _____	<p>written text</p> <p>oral speech</p> <p>classical literature</p> <p>real speech situations</p>

Declension is _____ .	the change of nouns in case and number the change of nouns in gender and case the change of adjectives in comparison the change of verbs in tense, person and number
Conjugation is _____ .	the change of nouns in gender and case the change of nouns in case and number the change of verbs in tense, person and number the change of adjectives in comparison
Foreign grammatical morphemes came to English from _____	German French and Latin Italian Russian
Synthetic languages express grammatical forms _____	by means of syntax by means of morphemes by means of auxiliary words by means of morphemes and auxiliary words
Feature of analytical structure in Modern English is _____	foreign endings for plural fixed order of words suppletive forms auxiliaries
Feature of synthetic structure in Modern English is _____	fixed order of words suppletive forms foreign endings for plural derivative morphemes
Ablaut is _____ .	prefix interchange in the verb consonant interchange in the root of the verb vowel interchange in the root of the verb suffix interchange in the verb
Suppletion is _____ .	the the use of derivative forms for denoting grammatical classes the use of different words for denoting grammatical forms the use of synonymous forms for denoting grammatical classes the use of morphemic forms for denoting grammatical forms

The morpheme that denotes grammatical class and changes the meaning of the word is called _____	Grammatical lexical lexico-grammatical independent
Grammatical category carries _____.	the main lexical meaning the morphemes abstract meaning individual meaning
Grammatical category can be expressed by the _____	lexical means only grammatical means only phonetic means only any linguistic means
The structure of the number category can be presented as _____.	a system a unity an opposition a triple structure
The categories of English noun are _____.	plurality, gender, person plurality, number, case number, gender, case nominative case, genitive case
The categories of English verb are _____.	number, gender, case tense, aspect, person plurality, number, mood nominative case, genitive case
A unit of syntax, presenting a lexico-grammatical unity and separated by pauses is called _____.	a grameme a syntagma a word-combination a phrase
Asyndatic connection between units of syntax is performed _____.	with the help of prepositions through the absence of connecting elements with the help of communicative structure of the sentence through the use of connecting elements

<p>The main parts of the sentence are _____.</p>	<p>attribute, adverbial modifier, object subject and predicate articles parenthesis, addressing enclosure</p>
<p>Secondary parts of the sentence are _____.</p>	<p>subject and predicate attribute, adverbial modifier, object articles parenthesis, addressing enclosure</p>
<p>Additional elements of the sentence are _____.</p>	<p>attribute, adverbial modifier, object parenthesis, addressing enclosure articles subject and predicate</p>
<p>Theme is _____.</p>	<p>new information, the main point of communication old information, starting point of communication topic of a sentence topic of paragraph</p>

Explanatory glossary of grammar terms

actants – elements of the sentence, depicting entities, capable of action or participating in action.

action verbs (also called dynamic verbs) – express activities, processes, momentary actions or physical conditions.

actional predicates – depict actions.

active languages – divide nouns into “active” and “inactive”, verbs into “active” and «stative».

actual division of the sentence – theme and rheme.

adjective – expresses property, quality or state.

adverb – denotes property of action or property of another property.

adversative coordination – denotes contrast.

agglutinative languages – morphemes are semantically and formally different, but are united in words.

aletic modality – showing an action as necessary, possible and impossible.

allomorph – a contextual variant of a morpheme.

analytical languages – grammatical meaning is expressed by auxiliaries and notional words, that together form analytical word clusters.

approximations – present an approximate version of qualities, numbers, feelings.

article – helps to differentiate nouns from the other parts of speech, can render additional shades of meaning to nouns.

aspect – indicates whether the action of a verb is complete or not and also duration of action.

asyndetic connection – without conjunctions.

attributive connection – unites a substance with its attribute expressed by an adjective or a noun.

attributive – adjective which is placed before a noun and specifies a quality as in *his beautiful wife*.

avalent predicates – join no actants.

axiological modality – showing an action positively, negatively or neutrally.

binary opposition – based on two members.

bivalent predicates – join 2 actants.

bound morpheme – can be used in speech only as a constituent part of a word.

colligation – level of structure of word-combinations.

cardinal numbers – denote quantity of objects.

category if idiomaticity – based on opposition of primary motivated meanings to phraseological units.

category of clichéd expression – provides opposition of units reproduced in speech on a regular basis to spontaneously created structures.

category of conceptual integrity – presupposes the presence at a word-combination of the certain conceptual basis.

category of connotativeness – based on opposition of units with emotive expressive power to those word-combinations which only contain denotational element in meaning.

category of mood – expresses the speaker's attitude toward the process, indicating whether it is regarded as a fact or as a non-fact, i.e. as a matter of supposition, desire, possibility, etc.

category of number – presented by opposition of one – more than one.

category of social determination – provides interrelation of word-combinations with background knowledge of the speakers.

category of voice – representation of the action through the reference of it to the agent and object of action.

catenative verb – controls a non-finite complement.

causative-consecutive coordination – expresses cause and consequence.

circumstantial adverbs – can denote different aspects of action: time, place.

Clause – a syntactical unit which is smaller than a sentence.

coherence – a category, achieved at the level of global connectivity, connectivity of ideas in the text.

cohesion – quality of the text that provides joining all elements on all levels.

collocation – a level of a word-combination, where they are considered from the point of view of lexicological and phraseological categories.

comparative-historical linguistics – studies languages in different periods of development.

complex sentence – a polypredicative construction built up on the principle of subordination.

composite sentence – has two or more predicative lines, thus they contain two or more clauses organized around these predicative lines.

compound nominal predicate – containing a link verb and a nominative element (noun or adjective).

compound verbal predicate – consisting of different verbs.

conjugation – change of verbs in number, person and tense.

conjunct – word or phrases which acts as conjunction, used to link clauses, sentences and sometimes single words.

conjunction – a function word, indicating the connection of two notional words, phrases, clauses, or sentences.

copulative coordination – expresses simultaneous, parallel actions.

correlative conjunctions – appear in both clauses (either...or, not only...but (also)).

cumuleme – sentence, that helps to develop the idea of the topic sentence.

declarative sentence – contains a statement which gives the reader or the listener some information about various events, activities or attitudes, thoughts and feelings.

declensions – change of words in case and number.

deixis – category that concerns the way speakers refer to people and things in terms of time and space, all in relation to the moment and situation of speaking.

demonstrative pronouns – express a contrast between ‘near’ and ‘distant’.

deontic modality – showing that the action conforms to a certain norm.

descriptive linguistics – studies language in field research.

diachronic approach – analyses language in different periods of time.

diachronic variations – in different periods of time.

dicteme – the main role played by a topic sentence.

direct object – immediately joined to the verb, e.g. *he bought the book; she kissed the boy.*

discourse – categorized type of communication, based on parameters of stability in the use of lexicon, semantics, pragmatic parameters and syntax.

disjunctive coordination – expresses choice.

diverting – avoiding the topic.

dominational connection – combination of the principal (dominating) and the subordinate (dominated) constituents.

echo questions – repeat information, mentioned by one of the speakers.

ellipsis – dropping the elements, easily reconstructed from communicative context.

empty word – does not carry any meaning of its own but plays a role in indicating a grammatical category or expressing a syntactic relationship, e.g. *it* in *it's Patrick's turn to sing a song*.

entailment – a relation between sentence meanings, or propositions.

epistemic modality – showing that the statement is known or unknown.

equipollent opposition – formed by a contrastive group of members which are distinguished by different positive (differential) features.

equipotent combinations – constituted by words related to one another on an equal rank.

ergative languages – have a special ergative construction with subject in ergative case, transitive verb and object in the absolutive case.

expanded sentences – have also secondary sentence parts.

finite forms of the verb – represent all the verbal categories.

fixed word-combinations – include informatively insufficient components with lost or weakened meaning.

focusing attention – directing attention to a topic or to a phase of the talk by a number of discourse markers.

follow-up questions – clarify or extend the information received.

frame – the use of certain lexis, clichés, structures in speech in real environments

free morpheme – can be used independently.

free word-combinations – consist of the words that could be called informatively independent.

functional grammar – studies communicative process, organization of utterance, its coherence.

functional words – don't have an individual meaning or their meaning is weakened.

general question – the question about the whole sentence which can be answered either positively or negatively.

global connectivity – provides unity of the text as the semantic whole.

gradual opposition – formed by the degree of the presentation of one and the same feature of the opposition members.

grammar – *a branch of linguistics*, studying classes of words, their inflections, and their functions and relations in the sentence, the principles of utterance construction.

grammatical categories – expressed by grammatical means (by morphemes, analytical means or suppletion).

grammatical meaning can be seen in identical sets of individual forms of different words.

grammatical metaphor – the transfer of meaning is performed by different grammatical construction.

grammatical morphemes – morphemes that carry grammatical meaning,

grammaticalization – a type of semantic change by which a lexical item or construction changes into one that serves a grammatical function, or a grammatical item develops a new grammatical function.

headers – help to present information in portions, so the idea is introduced gradually in two or even more steps.

hedges – markers that help not to sound too blunt, but more tactful.

homogenous – similar sentence parts.

illocutionary act – the way in which a sentence is used to express an attitude with a certain function or “force”.

illocutionary force – speaker’s *intention* in delivering an utterance.

imperative sentence – expresses a command which conveys the desire of the speaker to make someone (the listener) perform a certain action.

incorporating language – can produce complex structures that serve as words and sentences.

indefinite pronouns – express a notion of quantity.

indirect object – joined by preposition.

inflection – a changeable part of the word.

interjection – part of speech which expresses emotions, without naming them.

interrogative pronouns – used to ask questions.

interrogative sentence — contains a question.

intransitive verbs — not joined by objects.

inversion — aims at focusing attention on the important element in the sentence.

language — method of communicating ideas, emotions, and desires by means of a system of voluntarily produced symbols.

lexical meaning — individual for every word.

lexico-grammatical morphemes — help to determine grammatical class of words and bring a specification of lexical meaning.

limitive verbs — denote momentary, short-term action with an idea of finality: to stop, to shut, to jump.

linguistic prescription (or prescriptivism) — the practice of elevating one variety or manner of language use over another.

linguistic unit — one of the natural units into which speech could be segmented.

local connectivity — a connectivity of linear sequences.

locative modality — the information about the actual place of action.

locutionary act — the act of making a meaningful utterance.

main sentence parts — subject and predicate.

marked member of opposition — is distinguished by a formal element

mixed types of sentences — have both kinds of connection between clauses — subordination and coordination.

modal words — refer to a word, a phrase, a clause, or a sentence to convey a modal meaning.

modality — semantic and grammatical category expressing the attitude of the speaker to the event and the reference of this event to reality.

monovalent predicates — join one actant.

morpheme — the smallest indivisible language unit which means an association of a certain meaning with a certain sound-form.

morphology — the study of the words and how they express grammatical categories.

neogrammarians — an approach, focused on studying the speaking person, treated language as the individually-mental phenomenon.

nominative languages — showing opposition of subject and object if a verb is transitive, absence of object if the verb is intransitive, opposition of active and passive.

non-finite forms – infinitive; gerund; present participle; past participle.

notional parts of speech – have an individual meaning, grammatical categories, morphemic elements that distinguish them and important roles as sentence parts.

noun – the major part of speech that has the meaning of ‘substance’ or ‘thingness’.

numerals – parts of speech that denote numbers.

objective connections – reflect the relation of the object to the process.

objective modality – expresses the factuality of the action described.

occurseme – sentence that does not correspond to the topic of a supraphrasal unit.

one-member sentence – contains only subject or predicate, that can be also homogenous.

opening and closing – help speakers to start and finish units of discourse.

ordinal numerals – denote the order of objects.

paradigm – a set or list of all the inflectional forms of a word or of one of its grammatical categories.

paradigmatic – based on classifying principle.

particle – a part of speech which either emphasizes or limits the meaning of another word, or phrase, or clause.

perlocutionary act – an action or state of mind brought about by saying something.

personal pronouns – refer to people involved in the act of communication.

pluralia tantum – nouns used in plural.

polytypological language – has features of different types.

polyvalent predicates – join 3 or more actants.

possessive pronouns – express ownership.

oppositional reduction – the usage of one member of an opposition in the position of the counter-member.

pragmatic markers – the units, that enable the speaker to exercise control in the discourse.

pragmatics – the study of mechanism of using the language.

predicates – elements, joining the actants into logical descriptions.

predicative connection – units subject and predicate.

predicative line – the main parts of the sentence, that can be presented by subject, predicate or both.

predicativity – expresses a reference of the sentence contents to reality.

preface question – used to start a conversation and serves as a stimulus.

preposition – a function word indicating a relation between two notional words.

presupposition – relation between a speaker and a proposition.

presupposition triggers – elements in the sentence that help to make such conclusions.

primary adverbial – connection, established between the verb and its adverbial modifiers of various standings.

privative binary opposition – formed by two members in which one member shows the presence of a certain feature called the “mark”, while the other member is characterized by the absence of this differential feature.

pronomes – other parts of speech, phrases or even sentences, performing a nominative function in a particular context.

pronominal question – the question asked to get more detailed and precise information about the phenomenon/event known to the speaker/reader.

pronouns – part of speech that mostly has a substituting function.

proposition – meaning of a sentence.

prospection – directs attention of the reader further on.

qualitative adjectives – denote quality that can be graded.

qualitative adverbs (gradable) – show variable quality and can form degrees of comparison.

quantitative adverbs – show gradation of quality indicated by adjectives or gradable adverbs.

reciprocal pronouns – used to express a ‘two-way’ relationship: each other, one another.

references – are the main expression of deixis, pointing to the time, place, or situation and denoting participants of communication.

reflexive pronouns – reflect the meaning of a noun or pronoun elsewhere in the clause.

relative pronouns – used to combine clauses.

response token – words, used as a response to the speaker’s utterances.

retrospection – refers the sentence to the previous one.
rheme – the kernel of the statement, new information.
rhetorical question – contains a statement disguised as a question.
secondary adverbial – connection, established between the non-verbal kernel expressing a quality and its adverbial modifiers of various standings.
semi-bound morphemes – can function in a morphemic sequence both as an affix and as a free morpheme.
sentence – the basic unit of syntax which contains at least a subject and a verb possibly with other complements.
sequencing markers – indicate the order in which things occur in discourse.
shifting – changing the topic.
simple – sentence which consists of only one clause.
singularia tantum – nouns used in singular.
speech – realization of our communicative aims.
speech act – a way of actualizing thoughts, based on the speaker's intention.
statal predicates – convey abstract relations, emotional and mental states, sensual perception.
state verbs – express states or conditions which are relatively static.
stem – closely connected with the word meaning.
subject – the constituent of a clause which is the primary complement of the verb.
subjective modality – expresses the speaker's attitude to the action.
subordination – relationship of dependence between two elements, units or phrases.
substitution – exchanging a longer element into the shorter one.
suppletive formation – the use of new words for different grammatical forms.
supra-phrasal unit – combination of two and more sentences, united in thematic and structural aspect.
SVO – subject–verb–object positioning.
synchronic approach – analyses the similarities and differences of languages at a given point of time.
synchronic variations – variants that appear in some aspect of language at a certain period of time.

syndetic – with conjunctions.

syntagma – an intonational morphosyntactic and semantic unity, which exists in a particular context and in a particular situation.

syntagmatic – related in a line of speech.

syntax – the investigation of the possible combinations of words in a language.

synthetic languages – grammatical meaning is expressed by affixes in structure of a word form, these affixes are added to the root and have a status of grammatical morphemes.

temporal modality – the information on the time of event.

tense – indicates the location of an action in time.

text – functional, semantic and structural unity with specific rules of construction, in it maximal units of language (sentence) become a minimal unit.

theme – old information.

transformation grammar – studies language through operational tests for omission, replacement, addition and rearrangement of language elements in the certain context.

transformation – 1. type of operation which showed a formal link between two types of sentence with more or less identical meaning, e.g. between active or passive sentences. 2. translational operation, needed to adjust original sentence to the language of translation.

transitions – conjunctions or conjunctive adverbs to link sentences with particular logical relationships.

transitive verbs – joining objects.

tree diagram – a method of representing the structure of a sentence so that the internal hierarchical organization is evident.

two-member sentence – contains both primary sentence parts.

unexpanded sentences have only subject, predicate or both, no secondary sentence parts.

universal – any feature or property observed in all languages.

unlimitive verbs – denote prolonged action.

utterance – a natural unit of speech bounded by breaths or pauses.

vague language – softens expressions so that they do not appear too direct or unduly authoritative and assertive.

valency – ability to combine with other parts of speech.

verb is a notional part of speech denoting action, process or state.
phrasal verb – a combination of a lexical verb and an adverb-like particle.
word order the arrangement of words in a linear sequence in a sentence.
word-combinations – the minimal grammatical and semantic unity in structure of the sentence.
zero modality – unmarked by any indicator.

English-Russian glossary of grammar terms

- act — акт, действие.
- actant — актант.
- action verbs (also called dynamic verbs) — глаголы действия.
- actional predicates — предикаты действия.
- active — 1 активный; 2 действительный.
- active languages — активные языки.
- actual division of the sentence — актуальное членение предложения.
- adjacent — а расположенный рядом, смежный.
- adjectival — адъективный, адъективированный.
- adjective — прилагательное; имеющий свойства прилагательного; относящийся к прилагательному.
- adjunct — дополнение, приложение; определение, обстоятельственное слово.
- adverb — наречие.
- adverbial modifier* — обстоятельственное придаточное:
- *of comparison* сравнения.
 - *of concession* уступки.
 - *of condition* условия.
 - *of manner* образа действия.
 - *of place* места.
 - *of purpose* цели.
 - *of reason* причины.
 - *of result* следствия.
 - *of time* времени.
- adversative coordination — противительное согласование.
- affirmative — утвердительный.
- affix — аффикс.
- agglutinative — агглютинативный.
- aletic modality — алетическая модальность.
- allomorph — алломорф.
- analytic(al) — аналитический.
- analytical language — аналитический язык.
- animate — одушевлённый.
- apposition — приложение.

approach – подход.
approximation – аппроксимация.
article – артикль.
aspect – 1 вид; 2 аспект.
asyndeton – асиндетон, бессоюзие
attribute – определение.
avalent predicates – ноль-валентные предикаты.
axiological modality – аксиологическая модальность.
binary – двучленный.
binary opposition – бинарная оппозиция.
binding – связывание.
bivalent predicates – бивалентные предикаты.
bound morpheme – связанная морфема.
branch – ветвь; род, семья.
colligation – калигация.
cardinal numbers – количественные числительные.
category – категория.
category of idiomaticity – категория идиоматичности.
category of clichéd expression – категория клишированности.
category of conceptual integrity – категория концептуальной обусловленности.
category of connotativeness – категория коннотативности.
category of mood – категория наклонения.
category of number – категория числа.
category of social determination – категория социальное обусловленности.
category of voice – категория залога.
catenative verb – глагол-связка.
causative-consecutive – причинно-следственная.
circumstantial adverbs – обстоятельственные наречия.
clause – элементарное предложение, клауза
coherence – когерентность.
coherent – когерентный, согласованный, цельный
cohesion – когезия, связность.
collocation – коллокация.
combination – сочетание.

common – именительный.
comparative-historical linguistics – сравнительно-историческая лингвистика.
complex sentence – сложноподчиненное предложение.
composite sentence – сложное предложение.
compound sentence – сложносочиненное предложение.
compound verbal predicate – составное глагольное сказуемое.
concession – уступка.
conjugation – спряжение.
conjunct – союзное слово.
conjunction – союз.
dangling – обособленный.
declarative sentence – повествовательное предложение.
declension – склонение.
deixis – дейксис.
demonstrative – указательный.
deontic modality – деонтическая модальность.
diachronic approach – исторический подход.
diachronic variations – диахронные варианты.
dicteme – диктема.
direct object – прямое дополнение.
discourse – дискурс.
discursive – дискурсивный.
disjunctive coordination – разделительное согласование.
diverting – отклонение темы.
dominational connection – подчинительная связь.
echo questions – вопрос-повтор.
ellipsis – 1. многоточие 2. эллипсис.
elliptic(al) – эллиптический, включающий эллипсис.
embedded – вставленный.
empty word – пустое слово.
entailment – воплощение.
epistemic modality – эпистемическая модальность.
- showing that the statement is known or unknown.
equipollent opposition – равнозначная оппозиция.
ergative languages – эргативные языки.

estimative – оценочный.
expanded sentences – распространенные предложения.
expression – 1 выражение; 2 выразительность, экспрессия.
expressive – экспрессивный.
extralinguistic – экстралингвистический, внеязыковой.
extraposition – вынесение.
finite forms of the verb – личные формы глагола.
fixed word-combinations – устойчивые словосочетания.
flexion – inflection – окончание.
focusing attention – привлечение внимания, концентрация внимания.
follow-up questions – уточняющие вопросы.
form – форма.
frame – рамка, фрейм.
free morpheme – свободная морфема.
free word-combinations – свободные словосочетания.
functional grammar – функциональная грамматика.
functional words – служебные слова.
general question – общий вопрос.
generative – порождающий, генеративный.
generativism – генеративизм.
genitive – родительный.
global connectivity – связность на уровне текста.
gradual – градуальный.
gradual opposition – градуальная оппозиция.
grammar – 1. грамматика 2. грамматический строй, правила 3. учебник грамматики 4. правильность, структура.
grammatical category – грамматическая категория.
grammatical meaning – грамматическое значение.
grammatical metaphor – грамматическая метафора.
grammatical morphemes – грамматическая морфема.
grammaticalization – грамматикализация.
homogenous – однородные.
homonymy – омонимия.
illocutionary act – иллокутивный акт.
illocution – иллокуция.

imperative – повелительный, относящийся к повелительному наклонению.

imperative – 1 повелительное наклонение; 2 императив.

inanimate – неодушевлённый.

indefinite pronouns – неопределённые местоимения.

indirect object – косвенное дополнение.

Indo-European – индоевропейский.

infinite – неличный (*о формах глагола*).

infinitival – инфинитивный.

infinitive – инфинитив, неопределённая форма глагола.

inflexion – окончание.

interjection – междометие.

interrogative sentence – вопросительное местоимение.

inversion – инверсия.

isolating – изолирующий.

language – язык.

lexical meaning – лексическое значение.

lexico-grammatical morphemes – лексико-грамматические морфемы.

limitive verbs – глаголы совершенного вида.

linear – линейный.

linguistic unit – языковая единица.

local connectivity – связность на уровне предложения.

locative modality – пространственная модальность.

locutionary act – локутивный акт.

main sentence parts – главные члены предложения.

marked member of opposition – маркированный член оппозиции.

modal – модальный.

modal words – модальные слова.

modality – модальность.

monovalent predicates – одновалентные предикаты.

morpheme – морфема.

morphemic – морфемный.

morphology – морфология.

negation – 1 отрицание; 2 отрицательная частица.

negative – отрицательный.

neogrammarians – младограмматики.
non-finite forms – неличные формы глагола.
notional parts of speech – значимые части речи.
noun – существительное.
numerals – числительное.
objective modality – объективная модальность.
oblique – косвенный.
occurseme – оккурсема.
one-member sentence – односоставное предложение.
opening and closing – начало и завершение темы.
ordinal numerals – порядковое числительное.
paradigm – парадигма.
paradigmatic – парадигматический.
participial – причастный; деепричастный.
participle – причастие.
particle – частица.
passive – 1 пассивный; 2 страдательный.
past – прошедшее время.
perfect – перфектный | перфект; перфектность.
Perlocutionary act – перлокутивный акт.
personal pronouns – личные местоимения.
polysyndeton – полисиндетон, многосоюзие.
polyvalent predicates – многовалентные предикаты.
possessive pronouns – притяжательные местоимения.
oppositional reduction – оппозиционная редукция.
pragmatic markers – дискурсивные маркеры.
pragmatics – прагматика.
predicate – 1. предикат 2. сказуемое.
predicative – предикативный | предикатив.
predicative connection – предикативная связь.
predicative line – основа предложения.
predicativity – предикативность.
predicator – предикатор.
preposition – предлог.
presupposition – пресуппозиция.
progressive – длительный.

pronominal – местоименный.
pronominal question – специальный вопрос.
pronoun – *местоимение*.
proposition – пропозиция.
qualitative adjectives – качественные прилагательные.
qualitative adverbs (gradable) – качественные наречия.
reciprocal pronouns – взаимные местоимения.
reflexive pronouns – возвратные местоимения.
related – связанный.
rheme – рема.
rhetorical question – риторический вопрос.
segment – сегмент.
sentence – предложение.
sequencing markers – организующие маркеры.
series – последовательность.
shifting – смена темы.
sign – знак, признак, символ.
simple sentence – простое предложение.
speech – речь.
speech act – речевой акт.
state verbs – глаголы состояния, статичные глаголы.
stem – основа слова.
structure – структура; организация.
subject – подлежащее.
subjective modality – субъективная модальность.
subordination – подчинительная связь.
substitution – 1 замена; замещение, субституция; 2 подстановка.
suppletive – супплетивный.
supra-phrasal unit – сверхфразовое единство.
SVO – формула прямого порядка слов.
synchronic approach – синхронный подход.
synchronic variations – синхронный вариант.
syndetic – союзный.
syntactic(al) – синтаксический.
syntagma – синтагма.
syntagmatic – синтагматический.

syntax – синтаксис.
synthetic languages – синтетические языки.
temporal – временной.
temporal modality – темпоральная модальность.
tense – время.
text – текст.
theme – тема.
transformation grammar – трансформационная грамматика.
transformation – трансформация, преобразование.
transitions – средства связности.
transitive verbs – транзитивные глаголы.
two-member sentence – двусоставное предложение.
typology – типология.
uncountable – неисчисляемый.
unexpanded sentences – нераспространенное предложение.
ungrammatical – неправильно построенное (*предложение*).
universal – универсальный | универсалия.
unlimitive verbs – глаголы несовершенного вида.
utterance – высказывание.
valency – валентность.
verb глагол.
word combination – словосочетание.
word order – порядок слов.

Chart 1. Language levels in European linguistics

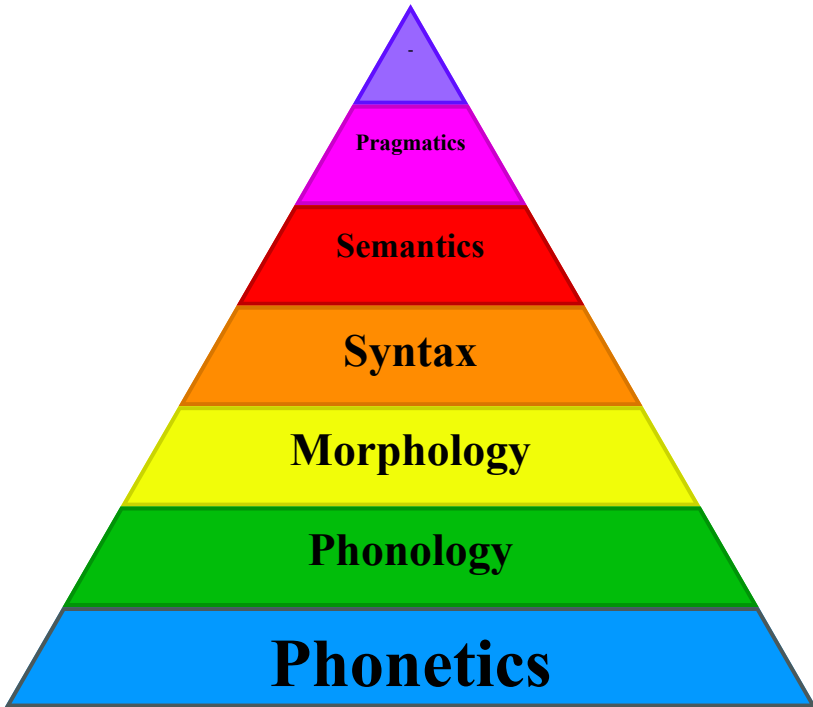


Chart 2. The place of English in Indo-European family of languages

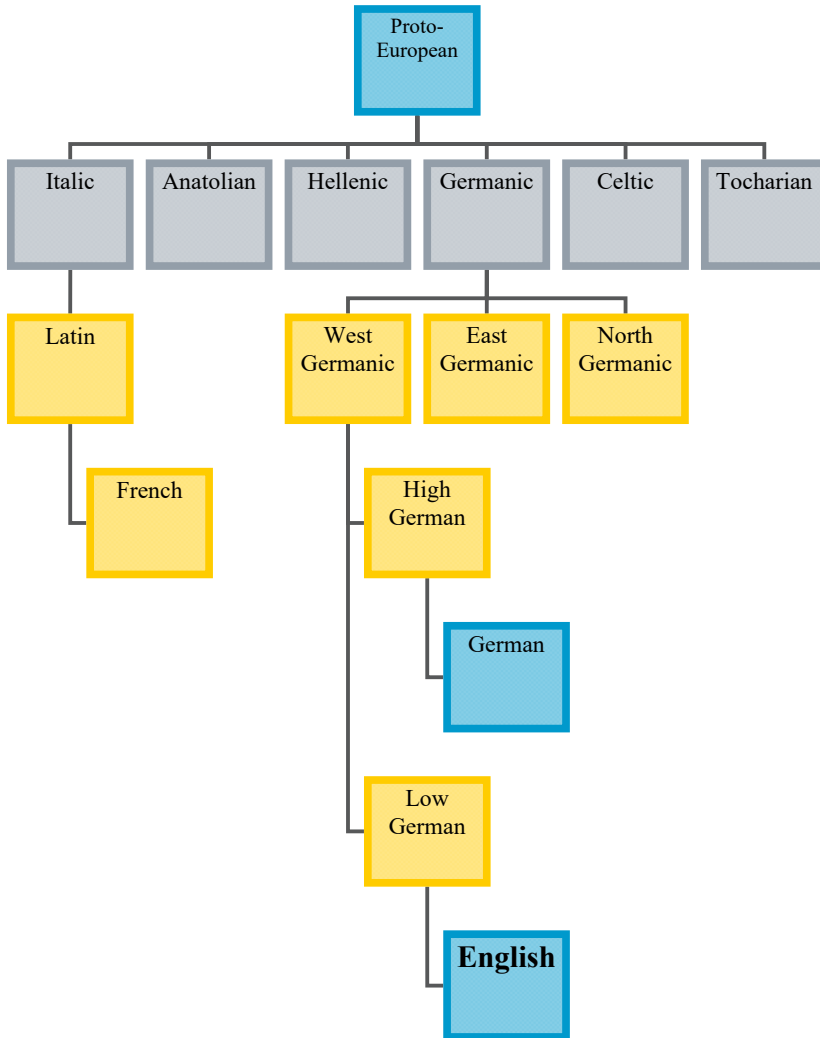


Chart 3. Parts of speech in English

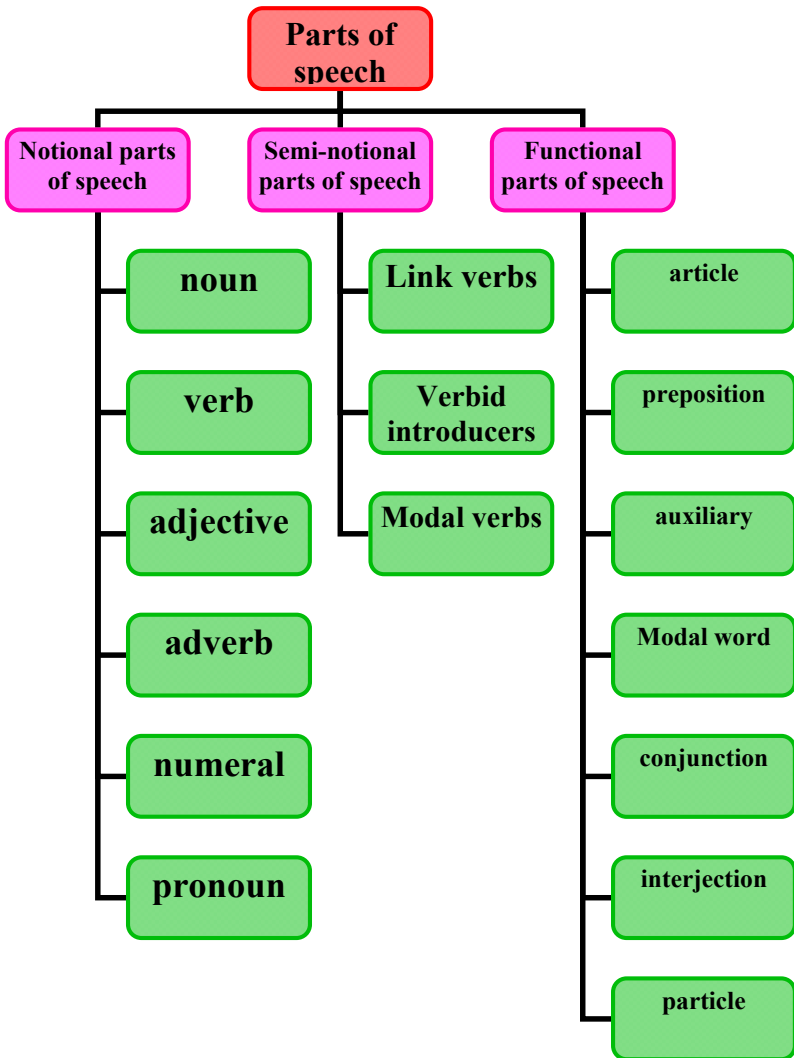


Chart 4. Structural classification of word-combinations

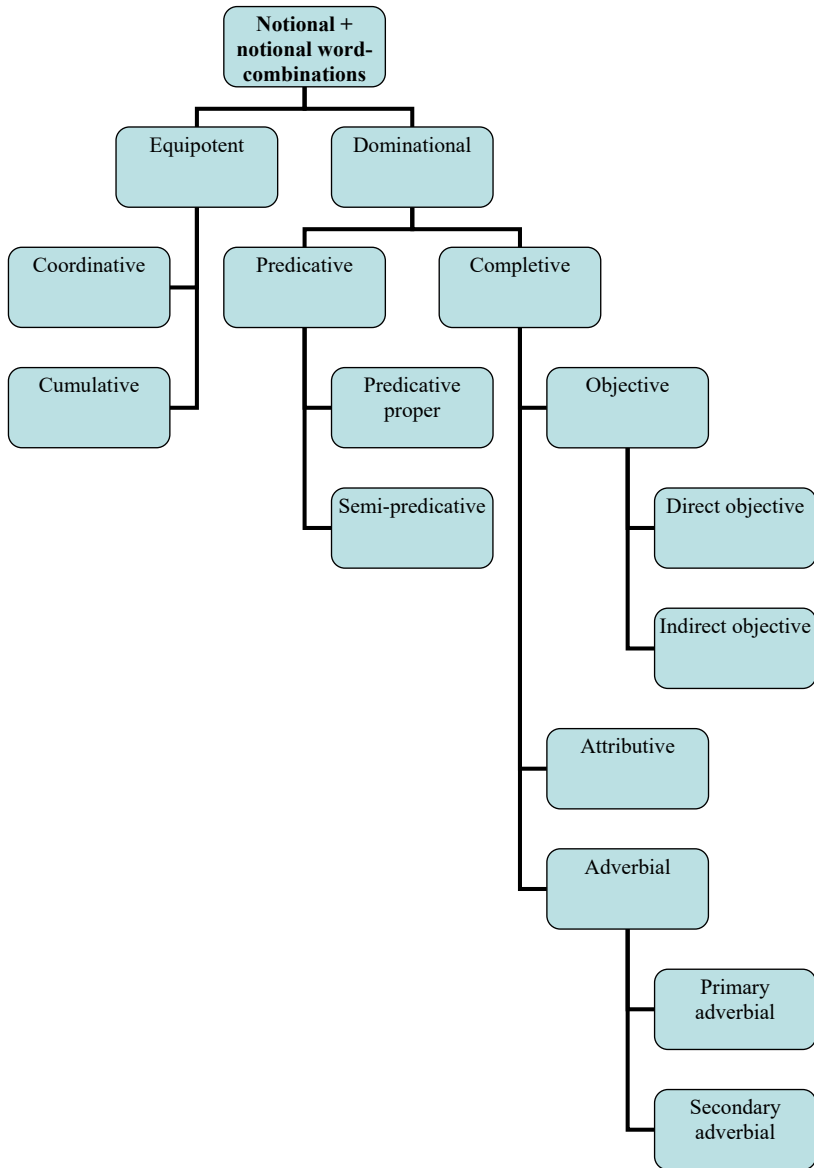


Chart 7. Structural classification of sentences

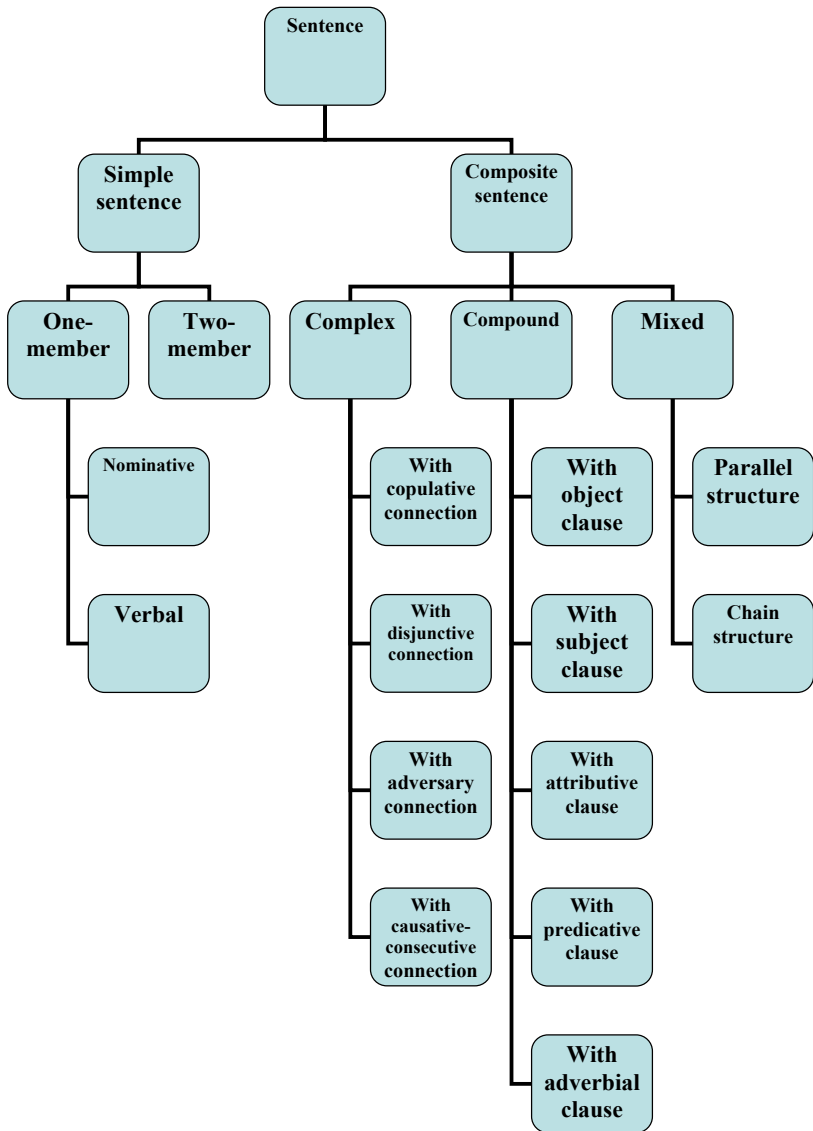


Table 1

A short list of discourse markers

Starting a conversation or talk –	right, okay, now.
Ending a conversation –	right, okay, anyway, fine, so.
Structuring discourse:	and, in general, second, to sum up, and then, in the end, what's more, next, for a start, on top of that.
Saying something in another way –	what I mean is, in other words, actually, well.
Shared knowledge –	You know, You see.
Discourse markers as responses –	absolutely, fine, okay, wow, yeah, certainly, great, really.
To show interest and to show that we want the speaker to continue –	yeah, right.
To show attitude –	actually, frankly, I think, (I'm) sorry, admittedly, hopefully, literally, surprisingly, amazingly, honestly, naturally, thankfully, really, unfortunately, sadly, fortunately.
To sound less direct – hedges:	apparently, kind of, perhaps, roughly, arguably, like, presumably, sort of/ kind of, I think, maybe, probably, surely, just.

(from <http://dictionary.cambridge.org/ru/discourse-markers-so-right-okay>)