<p align="center">**Лекция 1.**</p>

Тема 1. The scope of theoretical grammar. Basic linguistic notions.

План

1. **Language as a semiotic system.**
2. **Theoretical grammar and its subject.**
3. **Basic unitsof language and speech.**
4. **Relationship of theoretical gramma to other branches of linguistic.**
5. **Methods of linguistic analysis.**

1. Language as a semiotic system.

Human language is a verbal means of communication; its function consists in forming, storing and exchanging ideas as reflections of reality. Language combines three constituent parts. They are the phonological system (phonological/phonetical level: phoneme/phone and morphological level: morpheme/morph), the lexical system (lexicological level: lexeme/lex), and the grammatical system (Syntax - major: text and Syntax - minor: sentence). So language is a complex semiotic system, consisting of several subsystems (levels, units).

These levels constitute the so-called "hierarchy of linguistic levels". A unit of a higher level consists of one or more units of a lower level.

Grammatical units enter into two types of relations: in the language system (paradigmatic relations) and in speech (syntagmatic relations).

This view of language was mainly worked out by the famous Swiss scholar F. de Saussure (1857-1913) and the Russian scholar Bodoin de Courtenay (1845-1929).

Jan Niecisław Ignacy Baudouin de Courtenay (13 March 1845 – 3 November 1929) was a Polish linguist and Slavist, best known for his theory of the phoneme and phonetic alternations.

For most of his life Baudouin de Courtenay worked at Imperial Russian universities: Kazan (1874–1883), Dorpat (as Tartu, Estonia was then known) (1883–1893), Kraków (1893–1899) in Austria-Hungary, and St. Petersburg (1900–1918), where he was known as Иван Александрович Бодуэн де Куртенэ (Ivan Aleksandrovich Boduen de Kurtene), and in Russia he is recognized as a Russian scientist. In 1919-1929 he was a professor at the re-established University of Warsaw in a once again independent Poland.

Ferdinand de Saussure (26 November 1857 – 22 February 1913) was a Swiss linguist and semiotician. His ideas laid a foundation for many significant developments in both linguistics and semiology in the 20th century. He is widely considered one of the founders of 20th-century linguistics and one of two major founders (together with Charles Sanders Peirce) of semiotics/semiology.

F. de Saussure also introduced the most important distinction between the notions Language and Speech. They are:

1) language is abstract and speech is concrete;

2) language is common, general for all the bearers while speech is individual;

3) language is stable, less changeable while speech tends to changes;

4) language is a closed system, its units are limited while speech tend to be openness and endless.

Language is a collective body of knowledge, it is a set of basic elements, but these elements can form a great variety of combinations. In fact the number of these combinations is endless. Speech is closely connected with language, as it is the result of using the language, the result of a definite act of speaking. Speech is individual, personal while language is common for all individuals. To illustrate the difference between language and speech let us compare a definite game of chess and a set of rules how to play chess.

Language is opposed to speech and accordingly language units are opposed to speech units. The language unit phoneme is opposed to the speech unit – sound: phoneme /s/ can sound differently in speech - /s/ and /z/). The sentence is opposed to the utterance; the text is opposed to the discourse.

2. Theoretical grammar and its subject.

In earlier periods of the development of linguistic knowledge, grammatical scholars believed that the only purpose of grammar was to give strict rules of writing and speaking correctly. But then their opinions changed.

Man is not well defined as "Homo sapiens" ("man with wisdom"). For what do we mean by wisdom? It has not been proved so far that animals do not possess it. Those of you who have pets can easily prove the contrary. Most recently anthropologists have started defining human beings as "man the toolmaker". However, apes can also make primitive tools. What sets man apart from the rest of animal kingdom is his ability to speak: he is "can easily object by saying that animals can also speak Homo loquens" – "man the speaking animal". And again, you, naturally, in their own way. But their sounds are meaningless, and there is no link between sound and meaning (or if there is, it is of a very primitive kind) and the link for man is grammar. Only with the help of grammar we can combine words to form sentences and texts. Man is not merely Homo loquens, he is Homo Grammaticus.

The term "grammar" goes back to a Greek word that may be translated as the "art of writing". But later this word acquired (приобрело) a much wider sense and came to embrace the whole study of language. Now it is often used as the synonym of linguistics.

Grammar may be practical and theoretical. The aim of practical grammar is the description of grammar rules that are necessary to understand and formulate sentences. The aim of theoretical grammar is to offer explanation for these rules. Generally speaking, theoretical grammar deals with the language as a functional system.

3. Basic units of language and speech.

By the present day the basic units of the European languages systems and speech have been defined and arranged into a hierarchy of the basic segmental units:

1. Phonology is the lowest level. Its basic unit is the phoneme (language unit) or phone (speech unit). It is the smallest distinctive unit of language system, which has no meaning of its own and serves only to distinguish between words: (Cf: card — hard — lard). Phonemes are represented by letters in writing. They are represented in speech differently which depends on the person that pronounces them and on the combinability of the phoneme.

Phonemes when pronounced in concrete speech vary from person to person, according to how he has got used to pronounce this or that sound. In linguistic theory it is explained by the term "idiolect" that is, individual dialect. Besides, there may be positional changes (combinability): depending on the sounds that precede and follow the sound that we are interested in the pronunciation of it may be different, compare: low and battle. The sound "1" will be pronounced differently in these two words because the letter "l" in the first word is placed in the initial position and in the second word it stands after the letter "t". So we face "light" (in the first word) and "dark" version (in the second case). These alternants are called allophones (variants, options or alternants) of one phoneme. Thus allophone is a variant of a phoneme.

2. The smallest meaningful unit of language is a morpheme (it always carries some lexical, lexico-grammatical or purely grammatical meaning) and of speech is a morph. Morphemes, as well as words, belong to the lexical (morphological level). In speech morphemes are represented by allomorphs. The morpheme of the past tense has at least three allomorphs, they are. /t/, /d/, /id/ - Examples: worked, phoned and wanted.

3. The third level is lexemic (lexicological) which deals with words ("lexeme" for language and "lex" for speech unit). The word is the smallest naming (номинативная) unit of language since it names things, their properties or actions and processes. In actual speech words are always represented by word-forms or word-combinations.

4. The next level is syntax – minor which deals with sentences. The sentence is the smallest unit of human communication since we usually communicate with one another with the help of sentences but not separate words or word-combinations. In speech sentence patterns are

represented by utterances.

5. Text is the unit of the highest level of language and speech - syntax – major level.

Any linguistic unit is a double entity. It unites a concept and a sound image. The two elements are intimately united and each recalls the other. Accordingly, we distinguish the content side and the expression side. The forms of linguistic units bear no natural resemblance to their meaning. The link between them is a matter of convention, and conventions differ radically across languages. Thus, the English word 'dog' happens to denote a particular four-footed domesticated creature, the same creature that is denoted in Russian by the completely different form. Neither form looks like a dog, or sounds like one.

4.   Relationship of TG to other branches of linguistic.

Theoretical grammar is related to other branches of linguistics. First of all it is related to practical grammar, but their purposes are different.

The purpose of practical grammar is to prescribe the rules of how to correctly build sentences, or the Past Indefinite forms, or the plural number forms, etc. And the main purpose of TG is to give a scientific description(описание) and analysis of the structure of Modern English and its grammatical categories along with the purpose of giving students a deeper insight into the mechanism, processes and tendencies in the grammatical structure of English.

Theoretical grammar is also connected with phonology, which can be proved by the fact that a word stress may change a part of speech. Cf: to impo'rt (v) — i'mport (n); to expo'rt (v) — e'xport (n), etc. A change of intonation may change the communicative type of a sentence.

Grammar is also related to lexicology: the meaning of a word may change the type of the predicate in a sentence. Cf.: a) He made a good report, b) He made a good reporter.

5.   Methods of linguistic analysis.

Grammar has at its disposal different methods of analysis: the traditional method of analysis, the immediate constituents (IC) method, the transformational method (T-method), distributional analysis, morphemic analysis, etc.

Traditional approachincludes division of sentences into simple & composite (complex, compound, but there may be 2 intermediate types-complex-compound: I know that Frank studies French & Gerry studies German. compound-complex my friend, who came to see me, was watching TV and I was making coffee). From point of view of this approach each sentence is divided in principle parts (subject, predicate) & secondary (attributes, objects, adv. modifiers). communicative types: declarative (affirmative, negative), interrogative, imperative. Also can be characterized from structural point of view: two-member & one-member, extended, unextended.

Distributional analysis, its goal is to study the units of the language in relation to their textual environment, which may be either left-hand or right-hand. The distribution of any unit in the sentence may be defined as the total of its environments.Distributional analysis may be done on the lexemic & phrasemic levels. I got to take care of myself.-got opens one syntactic valence for I(subject)& other for to take care.'tis the finite part of the compound verbal aspect predicate.

Transformational analysis,its aim isto establish the syntactic paradigm of the sentence that is to find the base pattern otherwise called kernel sentence, structure & their transforms. If we take interrogative sentence, it may be described as transformationally produced from a statement which is base pattern. Is the weather fine today?→the weather is fine today. Negative sentences are regarded as transforms of affirmative sentences. All complex structures may be presented as derived from one or more simple sentences. I saw him come in.→I saw him.& he came in./

Oppositional analysishelps to determine grammatical forms & paradigms of the constituent parts of the sentence. Danny lit a cigarette. VS Danny lights a cigarette. (tense) VS …was lighting… (aspect).

The theory of Immediate Constituents (IC) was originally elaborated as an attempt to determine the ways in which lexical units are relevantly related to one another. It was discovered that combinations of such units are usually structured into hierarchically arranged sets of binary

constructions. For example in the wordgroup a black dress in severe style we do not relate a to black, black to dress, dress to in, etc. but set up a structure which may be represented as a black dress / in severe style. Thus the fundamental aim of IC analysis is to segment a set of lexical units into two maximally independent sequences or ICs thus revealing the hierarchical structure of this set. Successive segmentation results in Ultimate Constituents (UC), i.e. two-facet units that cannot be segmented into smaller units having both sound-form and meaning. The Ultimate Constituents of the wordgroup analysed above are: a | black | dress | in | severe | style. The meaning of the sentence, word-group, etc. and the IC binary segmentation are interdependent. For example, fat major's wife may mean that either 'the major is fat' or 'his wife is fat'. The former semantic interpretation presupposes the IC analysis into fat major's | wife, whereas the latter reflects a different segmentation into IC's and namely fat | major's wife.

The morphemic analysis (sometimes also called morphological) is one of possible methods of analyzing word structure along with the word-building analysis. The morphemic analysis is a process of singling out morphs in a word and stating their meaning. To state the borders between morphemes correctly, it is necessary to study the word in a row of words which are structurally similar (words with the same root and suffixes).

The procedure of the morphemic analysis states the morphemic structure of the word. The procedure consists of two operations:

1) the stem is separated from the inflection by means of comparing wordforms of the word;

2) relations between morphemes in the stem are stated by means of comparing cognate words.

The morphemic analysis based on the distributional analysis gave rise to such notions as morph, allomorph, morpheme, etc.

Литература: [1 – P.7 – 11, 445 – 466;9 – P. 4 – 19; 10 – P. 4 – 8; 4 – P. 8 – 10;16; 7 – P. 8 – 13].

Тема 2.Grammatical meaning and categories. Morphemes.
1. **The notion of 'grammatical meaning'.**
2. **Types of grammatical meaning.**
3. **Grammatical categories. The notion of opposition.**
4. **Transposition and neutralization of morphological forms.**
5. **Types of morphemes. Classification.**

1. **The notion of 'grammatical meaning'.**
The word combines in its semantic structure two meanings – lexical and grammatical. Lexical meaning is the individual meaning of the word (e.g. table). Grammatical meaning is the meaning of the whole class or a subclass. For example, the class of nouns has the grammatical meaning of thingness. If we take a noun (table) we may say that its individual lexical meaning is a definite piece of furniture and the grammatical meaning of thingness (this is the meaning of the whole class). Grammatical meanings are very abstract, very general. Therefore the grammatical form is not confined to an individual word, but unites a whole class of words, so that each word of the class expresses the corresponding grammatical meaning together with its individual, concrete semantics. Grammatical meanings ranged in oppositions and presented in grammatical forms build grammatical categories.

Grammatical meaning:
- nouns: thingness, grammatical meaning of a subclass countableness.
- verb: verbiality(the ability to denote actions or states)
-adjective: qualitativeness (the ability to denote qualities)
- adverbs: adverbiality (the ability to denote quality of qualities)

Articles, particles, prepositions, etc. are devoid of any lexical meaning and possess the grammatical meaning only.

There are some classes of words that are devoid of any lexical meaning and possess the grammatical meaning only. This can be explained by the fact that they have no referents in the objective reality. All function words belong to this group – articles, particles, prepositions, etc.

2. Types of grammatical meaning.

The grammatical meaning may be explicit and implicit. The implicit grammatical meaning is not expressed formally (e.g. the word table does not contain any hints in its form as to it being inanimate). The explicit grammatical meaning is always marked morphologically – it has its marker. In the word cats the grammatical meaning of plurality is shown in the form of the noun; cat's – here the grammatical meaning of possessiveness is shown by the form 's; is asked – shows the explicit grammatical meaning of passiveness.

The implicit grammatical meaning may be of two types – general and dependent. The general grammatical meaning is the meaning of the whole word-class, of a part of speech (e.g. nouns – the general grammatical meaning of thingness). The dependent grammatical meaning is the meaning of a subclass within the same part of speech. For instance, any verb possesses the dependent grammatical meaning of transitivity/intransitivity, terminativeness/non-terminativeness, stativeness/non-stativeness; nouns have the dependent grammatical meaning of contableness/uncountableness and animateness/inanimateness. The most important thing about the dependent grammatical meaning is that it influences the realization of grammatical categories restricting them to a subclass. Thus the dependent grammatical meaning of countableness/uncountableness influences the realization of the grammatical category of number as the number category is realized only within the subclass of countable nouns, the grammatical meaning of animateness/inanimateness influences the realization of the grammatical category of case, teminativeness/non-terminativeness - the category of tense, transitivity/intransitivity – the category of voice.

3. Grammatical categories. The notion of opposition.

Grammatical categories are made up by the unity of identical grammatical meanings that have the same form (e.g. singular::plural). Due to dialectal unity of language and thought, grammatical categories correlate, on the one hand, with the conceptual categories and, on the other hand, with the objective reality.

It follows that we may define grammatical categories as references of the corresponding objective categories. For example, the objective category of time finds its representation in the grammatical category of tense, the objective category of quantity finds its representation in the grammatical category of number. Those grammatical categories that have references in the objective reality are called referential grammatical categories. However, not all of the grammatical categories have references in the objective reality, just a few of them do not correspond to anything in the objective reality.

They are called significational categories. To this type belong the categories of mood and degree. Speaking about the grammatical category of mood we can say that it has modality as its conceptual correlate. It can be explained by the fact that it does not refer to anything in the objective reality – it expresses the speaker's attitude to what he says.

The notion of opposition.

In discussing grammatical categories, we shall often have to mention oppositions, that is, pairs of grammatical forms opposed to each other in some way. The opposition may be defined as a generalized correlation of lingual forms by means of which a certain function is expressed. The correlated elements (members) of the opposition must possess two types of features: common features and differential features. Common features serve as the basis of contrast, while differential features immediately express the function in question.

The oppositional theory was originally formulated as a phonological theory. Three main qualitative types of oppositions were established in phonology: privative, gradual, and equipollent.

By the number of members contrasted, oppositions were divided into binary and more than binary (ternary, quaternary, etc.).

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

The binary privative opposition is formed by a contrastive pair of members in which one member is characterized by the presence of a certain differential feature (strong, marked, positive), while the other member is characterized by the absence of the feature (weak, unmarked, negative). Eg. voiced vs. devoiced consonants

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

(Eg. [ï: - i – e - ae] form a quaternary opposition by the degree of their openness)

The equipollent opposition is formed by a contrastive pair or group in which the members are distinguished by different positive features. (eg. [m] – [b], both bilabial consonants, form an equipollent opposition, [m] being sonorous nasalized, [b] being plosive.)

Any opposition can be reformulated in privative terms. Any positive feature distinguishing an oppositionally characterized element is absent in the oppositionally correlated element, so that considered from the point of view of this feature alone, the opposition, by definition, becomes privative.

The most important type of opposition in morphology is the binary privative opposition. The privative morphological opposition is based on a morphological differential feature which is present in its strong member and absent in its weak member (eg. present – past).

Speaking about morphological oppositions we need to keep in mind the fact that members of morphological oppositions unlike those of phonological oppositions possess both the plane of expression and the plane of content (eg. cat – cats). The meaning of the weak member is more general and abstract as compared with the meaning of the strong member, which is more particular and specific. Due to this difference in meaning, the unmarked member is used in a wider range of contexts than the marked member. For example, the present tense form of the verb, as different from the past tense, is used to render meanings much broader than those directly implied by the corresponding time-plane.

Equipollent oppositions in the system of English morphology constitute a minor type and are mostly confined to formal relations only (eg. am – are – is).

Gradual oppositions in morphology are not generally recognized. They can be identified as a minor type at the semantic level only (eg. strong – stronger – strongest).

In various contextual positions one member of an opposition can be used in the position of the other. This phenomenon can be referred to as reduction of oppositions: eg. US soldier goes to Iraq. The conference opens next week. (The weak member replaces the strong one.)

This oppositional reduction is stylistically indifferent. Use of the unmarked member does not transgress the expressive conventions of ordinary speech. This kind of oppositional reduction is called neutralization. Another type of oppositional reduction is called transposition. It is defined as contrastive use of the counter-member of the opposition (the strong one, as a rule): eg. She is always finding faults with me.

4. Transposition and neutralization of morphological forms.

Transposition is the use of a linguistic unit in an unusual environment or in the function that is not characteristic of it (He is a lion – 'He' is used with an animal!). In the sentence He is coming tomorrow the paradigmatic meaning of the continuous form is reduced and a new meaning appears – that of a future action. Transposition is based on the contrast between the members of the opposition, it may be defined as a contrastive use of the counter-member of the opposition. As a rule, it is the marked member of the opposition that is employed transpositionally, but not always so. Transposition always results in the neutralization of a paradigmatic meaning.

Neutralization is the reduction of the opposition to one of its members. Neutralization as a linguistic concept by which we mean suspension of otherwise functioning oppositions. The position

of neutralization is, as a rule, filled in by the weak member of the opposition due to its more general semantics. Neutralization is stylistically indifferent, the use of the unmarked member of the opposition in the position of the marked member does not transgress the expressive conventions of ordinary speech: e.g. The exhibition opens next week. The example presents a case of neutralization of the opposition "present vs. future". The present form "opens", which is the weak member of the opposition, is used in the position of the strong member and denotes a future action. Neutralization is possible due to the presence of the adverbial modifier of time ("next week"), which plays the role of the neutralizer in this case.

5. Types of morphemes. Classification.

Most word-forming morphemes are ambiguous, that is, they do not with certainty point to any definite part of speech but leave some choice which has to be decided by other criteria. The morpheme is one of the central notions of grammatical theory, without which no serious attempt at grammatical study can be made. Definition of a morpheme is not an easy matter, and it has been attempted many times by different scholars. Without going into particulars of the discussions that have taken place, we may briefly define the morphemes as the smallest meaningful units into which a word form may be divided.

For instance, if we take the form writers, it can be divided into three morphemes: (1) writ, expressing the basic lexical meaning of the word, (2) -er-, expressing the idea of agent performing the action indicated by the root of the verb, (3) -s, indicating number, that is, showing that more than one person of the type indicated is meant. Similarly the form advantageously can be divided into three morphemes: advantage + ous + ly, each with a special meaning of its own.

Two additional remarks are necessary here: (1) Two or more morphemes may sound the same but be basically different, that is, they may be homonyms. Thus the -er morpheme indicating the doer of an action as in writer has a homonym — the morpheme -er denoting the comparative degree of adjectives and adverbs, as in longer. Which of the two homonymous morphemes is actually there in a given case can of course only be determined by examining the other morphemes in the word. Thus, the morpheme -er in our first example, writer, cannot possibly be the morpheme of the comparative degree, as the morpheme writ- to which it is joined on is not the stem of an adjective or adverb, and so no comparative degree is to be thought of here.

(2) There may be zero morphemes, that is, the absence of a morpheme may indicate a certain meaning. Thus, if we compare the forms book and books, both derived from the stem book-, we may say that while books is characterised by the -s-morpheme as being a plural form, book is characterised by the zero morpheme as being a singular form.

In grammar, we are of course concerned with the grammatical, or structural, meaning of morphemes: we do not here study the meanings of root morphemes, which are necessarily lexical, and as to derivation morphemes, i.e. those which serve to build words, we are only interested in them in so far as they are grammatically relevant, and that is the case if they show that the word belongs to a certain part of speech, and if they serve to distinguish one part of speech from another. This grammatical significance of derivation morphemes, if it is there at all, is always combined with their lexical meaning. For instance, if we take this pair of words: write v. and writer n., the derivative morpheme –er has a grammatical significance, as it serves to distinguish a noun from a verb, and it has its lexical meaning, as the lexical meaning of the noun writer is different from that of the verb write.

Inflection morphemes have no lexical meaning or function. There is not the slightest difference in the way of lexical meaning between live and lived, or between house and houses. However, an inflection morpheme can acquire a lexical meaning in some special cases, for instance if the plural form of a noun develops a meaning which the singular form has not; thus, the plural form colours has a meaning, 'flag', which the singular form colour has not. These are cases of lexicalisation.

Литература: [2 – Р. 17 – 26;14; 15; 5 – Р. 8 – 16].

Тема 3. Morphemes. Parts of speech. The noun.

1. **Types and classification of morphemes.**
2. **Parts of speech. Principle of classification.**
3. **Notional and functional parts of speech.**
4. **The noun. General characteristics.**
5. **The category of number. The category of case.**
6. **The problem of gender in English.**

1.   Types and classification of morphemes.
Free and bound morphemes. Free morphemes may occur alone and coincide with word-forms or immutable words: at, by, water- (water, watery). Bound morphemes occur only in combination with other morphemes: dis- (dislike), -y (watery). Most roots are free but some are bound: cran- (cranberry). Affixes are always bound. Some morphemes occupy an intermediate position between free and bound:

1. semi-affixes: -man (postman), half- (half-eaten);
2. combining forms: tele- (television), graph (autograph);

By their frequency morphemes are classified into recurrent and unique. Recurrent morphemes are found in a number of words: sing-ing = sing- (singer, sing-song) + -ing (walking, drawing). Unique morphemes are found only in a given word: pock (pocket).

By their activity in the language affixes are subduvided into productive and non-productive. Productive affixes are used to build new words: -ism (escapism), - ize (nationalize). Non-productive affixes do not build new words: -th (growth), - ous (monotonous).

By their position in the word affixes are subdivided into prefixes and suffixes. A prefix stands before the root and modifies its lexical meaning: kind – unkind. In some cases it changes the word's grammatical or lexico-grammatical meaning: sleep (noun) – asleep (stative). A suffix follows the root, modifying its lexical meaning and changing the word's grammatical or lexico-grammatical meaning: appear (verb) – appearance (noun). The suffix renders a very general meaning and is often fused with the root semantically.

2.   Parts of speech. Principle of classification.
The parts of speech are classes of words, all the members of these classes having certain characteristics in common which distinguish them from the members of other classes. The problem of word classification into parts of speech still remains one of the most controversial problems in modern linguistics. The attitude of grammarians with regard to parts of speech and the basis of their classification varied a good deal at different times. Only in English grammarians have been vacillating between 3 and 13 parts of speech. There are four approaches to the problem:

1.   Classical (logical-inflectional)
2.   Functional
3.   Distributional
4.   Complex

The classical parts of speech theory goes back to ancient times. It is based on Latin grammar. According to the Latin classification of the parts of speech all words were divided dichotomically into declinable and indeclinable parts of speech. This system was reproduced in the earliest English grammars. The first of these groups, declinable words, included nouns, pronouns, verbs and participles, the second – indeclinable words – adverbs, prepositions, conjunctions and interjections. The logical-inflectional classification is quite successful for Latin or other languages with developed morphology and synthetic paradigms but it cannot be applied to the English language because the principle of declinability/indeclinability is not relevant for analytical languages.

A new approach to the problem was introduced in the XIX century by Henry Sweet. He took into account the peculiarities of the English language. This approach may be defined as functional. He resorted to the functional features of words and singled out nominative units and particles. To nominative parts of speech belonged noun-words (noun, noun-pronoun, noun-numeral, infinitive, gerund), adjective-words (adjective, adjective-pronoun, adjective-numeral, participles), verb (finite verb, verbals – gerund, infinitive, participles), while adverb, preposition, conjunction and interjection belonged to the group of particles. However, though the criterion for classification was functional, Henry Sweet failed to break the tradition and classified words into those having morphological forms and lacking morphological forms, in other words, declinable and indeclinable.

A distributional approach to the parts to the parts of speech classification can be illustrated by the classification introduced by Charles Fries. He wanted to avoid the traditional terminology and establish a classification of words based on distributive analysis, that is, the ability of words to combine with other words of different types. At the same time, the lexical meaning of words was not taken into account. According to Charles Fries, the words in such sentences as 1. Woggles ugged diggles; 2. Uggs woggled diggs; and 3. Woggs diggled uggles are quite evident structural signals, their position and combinability are enough to classify them into three word-classes. In this way, he introduced four major classes of words and 15 form-classes. Let us see how it worked. Three test frames formed the basis for his analysis:

Frame A - The concert was good (always);

Frame B - The clerk remembered the tax (suddenly);

Frame C – The team went there.

It turned out that his four classes of words were practically the same as traditional nouns, verbs, adjectives and adverbs. What is really valuable in Charles Fries' classification is his investigation of 15 groups of function words (form-classes) because he was the first linguist to pay attention to some of their peculiarities.

All the classifications mentioned above appear to be one-sided because parts of speech are discriminated on the basis of only one aspect of the word: either its meaning or its form, or its function.

In modern linguistics, parts of speech are discriminated according to three criteria: semantic, formal and functional. This approach may be defined as complex. The semantic criterion presupposes the grammatical meaning of the whole class of words (general grammatical meaning). The formal criterion reveals paradigmatic properties: relevant grammatical categories, the form of the words, their specific inflectional and derivational features. The functional criterion concerns the syntactic function of words in the sentence and their combinability. Thus, when characterizing any part of speech we are to describe: a) its semantics; b) its morphological features; c) its syntactic peculiarities.

The linguistic evidence drawn from our grammatical study makes it possible to divide all the words of the language into:

a)   those denoting things, objects, notions, qualities, etc. – words with the corresponding references in the objective reality – notional words;

b)   those having no references of their own in the objective reality; most of them are used only as grammatical means to form up and frame utterances – function words, or grammatical words.

It is commonly recognized that the notional parts of speech are nouns, pronouns, numerals, verbs, adjectives, adverbs; the functional parts of speech are articles, particles, prepositions, conjunctions and modal words.

The division of language units into notion and function words reveals the interrelation of lexical and grammatical types of meaning. In notional words the lexical meaning is predominant. In function words the grammatical meaning dominates over the lexical one. However, in actual speech the border line between notional and function words is not always clear cut. Some notional words develop the meanings peculiar to function words - e.g. seminotional words – to turn, to get, etc.

Notional words constitute the bulk of the existing word stock while function words constitute a smaller group of words. Although the number of function words is limited (there are only about 50 of them in Modern English), they are the most frequently used units.

Generally speaking, the problem of words' classification into parts of speech is far from being solved. Some words cannot find their proper place. The most striking example here is the class of adverbs. Some language analysts call it a ragbag, a dustbin (Frank Palmer), Russian academician V.V.Vinogradov defined the class of adverbs in the Russian language as мусорная куча. It can be explained by the fact that to the class of adverbs belong those words that cannot find their place anywhere else. At the same time, there are no grounds for grouping them together either. Compare: perfectly (She speaks English perfectly) and again (He is here again). Examples are numerous (all temporals). There are some words that do not belong anywhere - e.g. after all. Speaking about after all it should be mentioned that this unit is quite often used by native speakers, and practically never by our students. Some more striking examples: anyway, actually, in fact. The problem is that if these words belong nowhere, there is no place for them in the system of words, then how can we use them correctly? What makes things worse is the fact that these words are devoid of nominative power, and they have no direct equivalents in the Ukrainian or Russian languages. Meanwhile, native speakers use these words subconsciously, without realizing how they work.

Principles (criteria) of classification of words into parts of speech

The words of a language, depending upon various formal, semantic and other features may be divided into grammatical classes (groups) which are traditionally called "parts of speech"

In Modern linguistics parts of speech are distinguished on the basis of the following three main criteria: 1) semantic, 2) formal, 3) functional (on the level of the sentence and word combination). Grammatical combinabil- ity of words in word combinations is also taken into consideration.

The criterion of meaning (i.e., the semantic criterion) presupposes evaluation of the general implicit lexico-grammatical meaning (that is: the meaning of "substance" for nouns, the meaning of "action or process" for verbs, etc.) which is characteristic of all the words constituting a given part of speech. The criterion of form presupposes some specific word-building (derivational) features of the words constituting the part of speech. For instance, we can easily identify many nouns by their derivational suffixes: - hood, - ity, - dom, etc.) even if we don't know the meaning of the words. Nouns are also characterized by such formal (= grammatical) categories as the categories of number and case; verbs - by the categories of tense, aspect, etc.

Every part of speech is also characterized by its functionin the sentence. For instance, the main function of the verb is that of the predicate, nouns usually function as subjects or objects (sometimes as attributes), etc.

Grammatical combinability is also an important feature of parts of speech. For example, the noun as a part of speech is characterized by the left- and right hand combinatility with verbs (to read — a book, a book — to read); left hand combinability with articles (a — book), zero combinability with interjections, etc.).

There exists a number of classifications of words into parts of speech but none of them is perfect because classification of words is a very difficult task. But one thing is clear: several criteria of classification should be applied simultaneously in order to achieve more or less reliable results.

3. Notional and functional parts of speech.

Both the traditional and the syntactico-distributional classifications divide parts of speech into notional and* functional. Notional parts of speech are open classes — new items can be added to them, they are indefinitely extendable. Functional parts of speech are closed systems, including a limited number of members. As a rule, they cannot be extended by creating new items.

The main notional parts of speech are nouns, verbs, adjectives and adverbs. Members of these four classes are often connected by derivational relations: strength — strengthen, strong — strongly.

Functional parts of speech are prepositions, conjunctions, articles, particles. The distinctive features of functional parts of speech are: 1) very general and weak lexical meaning; 2) obligatory combinability; 3) the function of linking and specifying words.

Pronouns constitute a class of words which takes an intermediary position between notional and functional words. On the one hand, they can substitute for nouns and adjectives, on the other hand, pronouns are used as connectives and specifiers.

There may be also groups of closed-system items within an open class (notional, functional and auxiliary verbs).

A word in English is very often not marked morphologically and it is easy for words to pass from one class to another (round as a noun, adjective, verb, preposition). Such words are treated either as lexico-grammatical homonyms or as words belonging to one class.

4.   The noun. General characteristics.

The noun is the central lexical unit of language. It is the main nominative unit of speech. As any other part of speech, the noun can be characterised by three criteria: semantic (the meaning), morphological (the form and grammatical catrgories) and syntactical (functions, distribution).

Semantic features of the noun. The noun possesses the grammatical meaning of thingness, substantiality. According to different principles of classification nouns fall into several subclasses:

1.   According to the type of nomination they may be proper and common;

2.   According to the form of existence they may be animate and inanimate. Animate nouns in their turn fall into human and non-human.

3.   According to their quantitative structure nouns can be countable and uncountable.

This set of subclasses cannot be put together into one table because of the different principles of classification.

Morphological features of the noun. In accordance with the morphological structure of the stems all nouns can be classified into: simple, derived (stem + affix, affix + stem – thingness); compound (stem+ stem – armchair) and composite (the Hague). The noun has morphological categories of number and case. Some scholars admit the existence of the category of gender.

Syntactic features of the noun. The noun can be used un the sentence in all syntactic functions but predicate. Speaking about noun combinability, we can say that it can go into right-hand and left-hand connections with practically all parts of speech. That is why practically all parts of speech but the verb can act as noun determiners. However, the most common noun determiners are considered to be articles, pronouns, numerals, adjectives and nouns themselves in the common and genitive case.

5.   The category of number. The category of case.

The grammatical category of number is the linguistic representation of the objective category of quantity. The number category is realized through the opposition of two form-classes: the plural form :: the singular form. The category of number in English is restricted in its realization because of the dependent implicit grammatical meaning of countableness/uncountableness. The number category is realized only within subclass of countable nouns.

The grammatical meaning of number may not coincide with the notional quantity: the noun in the singular does not necessarily denote one object while the plural form may be used to denote one object consisting of several parts. The singular form may denote:

a)   oneness (individual separate object – a cat);

b)   generalization (the meaning of the whole class – The cat is a domestic animal);

c)   indiscreteness (or uncountableness - money, milk).

The plural form may denote:

a)   the existence of several objects (cats);
b)   the inner discreteness (pluralia tantum, jeans).

To sum it up, all nouns may be subdivided into three groups:

1.   The nouns in which the opposition of explicit discreteness/indiscreteness is expressed : cat::cats;

2.   The nouns in which this opposition is not expressed explicitly but is revealed by syntactical and lexical correlation in the context. There are two groups here:

A.   Singularia tantum. It covers different groups of nouns: proper names, abstract nouns, material nouns, collective nouns;

B.   Pluralia tantum. It covers the names of objects consisting of several parts (jeans), names of sciences (mathematics), names of diseases, games, etc.

3.   The nouns with homogenous number forms. The number opposition here is not expressed formally but is revealed only lexically and syntactically in the context: e.g. Look! A sheep is eating grass. Look! The sheep are eating grass.

The category of case.

Case expresses the relation of a word to another word in the word-group or sentence (my sister's coat). The category of case correlates with the objective category of possession. The case category in English is realized through the opposition: The Common Case :: The Possessive Case (sister :: sister's). However, in modern linguistics the term "genitive case" is used instead of the "possessive case" because the meanings rendered by the "`s" sign are not only those of possession. The scope of meanings rendered by the Genitive Case is the following :

a)   Possessive Genitive : Mary's father – Mary has a father,
b)   Subjective Genitive: The doctor's arrival – The doctor has arrived,
c)   Objective Genitive : The man's release – The man was released,
d)   Adverbial Genitive : Two hour's work – X worked for two hours,
e)   Equation Genitive : a mile's distance – the distance is a mile,
f)   Genitive of destination: children's books – books for children,
g)   Mixed Group: yesterday's paper; Nick's school - cannot be reduced to one nucleus.

To avoid confusion with the plural, the marker of the genitive case is represented in written form with an apostrophe. This fact makes possible disengagement of –`s form from the noun to which it properly belongs. E.g.: The man I saw yesterday's son, where -`s is appended to the whole group (the so-called group genitive). It may even follow a word which normally does not possess such a formant, as in somebody else's book.

There is no universal point of view as to the case system in English. Different scholars stick to a different number of cases.

1.   There are two cases. The Common one and The Genitive;

2.   There are no cases at all, the form `s is optional because the same relations may be expressed by the 'of-phrase': the doctor's arrival – the arrival of the doctor;

3.   There are three cases: the Nominative, the Genitive, the Objective due to the existence of objective pronouns me, him, whom;

4.   Case Grammar. Ch.Fillmore introduced syntactic-semantic classification of cases. They show relations in the so-called deep structure of the sentence. According to him, verbs may stand to different relations to nouns. There are 6 cases:

1)   Agentive Case (A) John opened the door;

2)   Instrumental case (I) The key opened the door; John used the key to open the door;

3)   Dative Case (D) John believed that he would win (the case of the animate being affected by the state of action identified by the verb);

4)   Factitive Case (F) The key was damaged (the result of the action or state identified by the verb);

5)   Locative Case (L) Chicago is windy;

6)   Objective case (O) John stole the book.

6. The problem of gender in English.

Gender plays a relatively minor part in the grammar of English by comparison with its role in many other languages. There is no gender concord, and the reference of the pronouns he, she, it is very largely determined by what is sometimes referred to as 'natural' gender for English, it depends upon the classification of persons and objects as male, female or inanimate. Thus, the recognition of gender as a grammatical category is logically independent of any particular semantic association.

According to some language analysts (B.Ilyish, F.Palmer, and E.Morokhovskaya), nouns have no category of gender in Modern English. Prof.Ilyish states that not a single word in Modern English shows any peculiarities in its morphology due to its denoting male or female being. Thus, the words husband and wife do not show any difference in their forms due to peculiarities of their lexical meaning. The difference between such nouns as actor and actress is a purely lexical one. In other words, the category of sex should not be confused with the category of sex, because sex is an objective biological category. It correlates with gender only when sex differences of living beings are manifested in the language grammatically (e.g. tiger – tigress). Still, other scholars (M.Blokh, John Lyons) admit the existence of the category of gender. Prof.Blokh states that the existence of the category of gender in Modern English can be proved by the correlation of nouns with personal pronouns of the third person (he, she, it). Accordingly, there are three genders in English: the neuter (non-person) gender, the masculine gender, the feminine gender.

Литература: [9 – P. 14 – 34; 3 – P. 146 – 158; 4 – P. 18 – 24, 30 – 33;15; 12 – P. 1 – 27].

Тема 4. Verb. General characteristics. Categories of tense.
1. **A general outline of the Verb.**
2. **Classification.**
3. **The category of tense.**
4. **The problem of the future-in-the-past.**
5. **The category of aspect.**
6. **The category of person and number.**

1. A general outline of the Verb.

Grammatically the verb is the most complex part of speech. First of all it performs the central role in realizing predication - connection between situation in the utterance and reality. That is why the verb is of primary informative significance in an utterance. Besides, the verb possesses quite a lot of grammatical categories. Furthermore, within the class of verb various subclass divisions based on different principles of classification can be found.

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

1. they express the meanings of action and state;

2. they have the grammatical categories of person, number, tense, aspect, voice, mood, order and posteriority most of which have their own grammatical means;

3. the function of verbs entirely depends on their forms: if they in finite form they fulfill only one function –predicate. But if they are in non-finite form then they can fulfill any function in the sentence but predicate;they may be part of the predicate;

4. verbs can combine actually with all the parts of speech, though they do not combine with articles, withsome pronouns. It is important to note that the combinability of verbs mostly depends on the syntacticalfunction of verbs in speech;

5. verbs have their own stem-building elements. They are:

postfixes: -fy (simplify, magnify, identify…)

-ize (realize, fertilize, standardize…)

-ate (activate, captivate…)

prefixes: re- (rewrite, restart, replant…)

mis- (misuse, misunderstand, misstate…)

un- (uncover, uncouple, uncrown…)

de- (depose, depress, derange…) and so on.

Semantic features of the verb. The verb possesses the grammatical meaning of verbiality - the ability to denote a process developing in time. This meaning is inherent not only in the verbs denoting processes, but also in those denoting states, forms of existence, evaluations, etc.

Morphological features of the verb. The verb possesses the following grammatical categories: tense, aspect, voice, mood, person, number, finitude and phase. The common categories for finite and non-finite forms are voice, aspect, phase and finitude. The grammatical categories of the English verb find their expression in synthetical and analytical forms. The formative elements expressing these categories are grammatical affixes, inner inflexion and function words. Some categories have only synthetical forms (person, number), others - only analytical (voice). There are also categories expressed by both synthetical and analytical forms (mood, tense, aspect).

Syntactic features. The most universal syntactic feature of verbs is their ability to be modified by adverbs. The second important syntactic criterion is the ability of the verb to perform the syntactic function of the predicate. However, this criterion is not absolute because only finite forms can perform this function while non-finite forms can be used in any function but predicate. And finally, any verb in the form of the infinitive can be combined with a modal verb.

The categories of the verbs.

The verb is usually characterized as the most complex part of speech, because it has more word-changing categories than any other notional part of speech. It is changed according to the categories of person and number, tense, aspect, voice and mood

Number - count verbs have singular and plural forms. The plural form is marked by the inflexion -(e)s.

Correlation - an action expressed by a perfect form, proceeds some moment in time. /perfect, non-perf/

Aspect - shows the way or manner in which an action is performed, that is whether the action is: perfective, imperfective, momentary (однократное), durative. /common, continuous/

Voice - denoting the relationship between the action expressed by the verb and the person or non-person denoted by the subject of the sentence. /active, passive/

Mood - expresses the relation of the action denoted by the verb to reality from the speaker's point of view. /indicat, imperat, oblique moods (Subj I,II; Suppositional)/

Tense - expresses the relationship between the time of the action and the time of speaking. /past, pres, future/

Person - expresses the relation of the action and its doer to the speaker, showing whether the action is performed by the speaker (the 1st person), someone addressed by the speaker (the 2nd person) or someone/something other than the speaker or the person addressed (the 3rd person).

2.   **Classification.**

According to different principles of classification, classifications can be morphological, lexical-morphological, syntactical and functional.

A. Morphological classifications.

I. According to their stem-types all verbs fall into: simple (to go), sound-replacive (food - to feed, blood - to bleed), stress-replacive (import - to im port, transport - to transport, expanded (with the help of suffixes and prefixes): cultivate, justify, overcome, composite (correspond to composite nouns): to blackmail), phrasal: to have a smoke, to give a smile (they always have an ordinary verb as an equivalent). 2.According to the way of forming past tenses and Participle II verbs can be regular and irregular.

B. Lexical-morphological classification is based on the implicit grammatical meanings of the verb. According to the implicit grammatical meaning of transitivity/intransitivity verbs fall into transitive and intransitive. According to the implicit grammatical meaning of stativeness/non-

stativeness verbs fall into stative and dynamic. According to the implicit grammatical meaning of terminativeness/non-terminativeness verbs fall into terminative and durative. This classification is closely connected with the categories of Aspect and Phase.

C. Syntactic classifications. According to the nature of predication (primary and secondary) all verbs fall into finite and non-finite. According to syntagmatic properties (valency) verbs can be of obligatory and optional valency, and thus they may have some directionality or be devoid of any directionality. In this way, verbs fall into the verbs of directed (to see, to take, etc.) and non-directed action (to arrive, to drizzle, etc.).

D. Functional classification. According to their functional significance verbs can be notional (with the full lexical meaning), semi-notional (modal verbs, link-verbs), auxiliaries.

3.   The category of tense.

The Category of Tense - is a grammatical category which in the system of grammatical forms expresses the relation of an action to real time i.e. tense is grammatical expression of time. In other words tense as a grammatical category serves to express the time of an action in reference to moment of speech.. Therefore the grammatical category of tense is also of objective character. Thus the grammatical category of tense reflects time relation and an action expressed by a verb may erine-coincide with the moment of speech or it may precede it, or it may follow.

Accordingly there are three grammatical tenses: Present, Past, and Futur.

The difference between the lexical and grammatical expression of time lies in the following facts:

1) Lexically it is possible to name any definite moment of the period time. The grammatical meaning of tense is an abstraction from all the tr particular tenses: Present, Past, and Future.

2) Lexically any period of time is named directly (today, tomorrow, yesterday) whereas the grammatical indication of time is of an indirect character; That means that it is not time which is indicated by a verb, but an action the may either coincide with the moment of speech or precede it or follow it.

Some doubts have been expressed about the existence of the Future In definite tense in English. Otto Jespersen denies the existence of the Future tense in English on account of the fact that the verbs shall and will, which are said to be used to build up an analytical form of the Future tense, pre¬serve in his opinion their lexical meaning: the verb shall expresses obliga¬tion and the verb will expresses volition.

Professor B. Ilyish managed to prove that the reasons which were put forward by 0. Jespersen were not quite convincing. Thus Professor Ilyish shows that very often the context serves to stress the fact that the verbs shall and will may express only grammatical futurity and no modal meaning may be carried, e.g. I am afraid he will have to go there.

The very existence of the combination have to go excludes any possibility of expression of volition because this combination serves to express obligation and therefore the verb will may express only the grammatical meaning of the Future Tense. So the three main divisions of time are represented in the English verbal system by the three tenses and each of them may appear either in the common aspect or in the continuous aspect. Accordingly we have six tense-aspect forms

Present, Past, and Future Tenses of the Common Aspect.

The Common aspect represents an action as simply occurring without 'concretising it. actions of a more general, more abstract character referring to the present, past or future time (hence the term indefinite is not quitehappy in connection with past indefinite and future indefinite).

M.A.Ganshina and N.M.Vasilevskaya luckily call these tenses present (or past or future) tense of the common aspect.

Present, Past, and Future Tenses of the Continuous Aspect.

The continuous aspect shows a concrete action in its development at a given moment, i.e. it expresses an action going on (continuing) at a given moment present, past, or future or regularly repeated within a given period of time present, past or future.

Generally speaking, the major tense-distinction in English is undoubtedly that which is traditionally described as an opposition of past::present. But this is best regarded as a contrast of past:: non-past. Quite a lot of scholars do not recognize the existence of future tenses, because what is described as the 'future' tense in English is realized by means of auxiliary verbs will and shall. Although it is undeniable that will and shall occur in many sentences that refer to the future, they also occur in sentences that do not. And they do not necessarily occur in sentences with a future time reference. That is why future tenses are often treated as partly modal.

4.   The problem of the future-in-the-past.

In Modem English there are two correlated forms denoting future actions: future and future-in-the past. Future-in-the-past correlates an action not with the moment of speaking, but with a moment in the past, so it cannot be included into the system of tenses. Moreover, if it is treated as a tense-form, there will be two tenses, in one form (future and past), which is impossible. Scholars consider future-in-the-past as one of the mood forms.

Why do some scholars do not recognize the existence of future tense?

Quite a lot of scholars do not recognize the existence of future tenses, because what is described as the 'future' tense in English is realized by means of auxiliary verbs will and shall. Although it is undeniable that will and shall occur in many sentences that refer to the future, they also occur in sentences that do not. And they do not necessarily occur in sentences with a future time reference. That is why future tenses are often treated as partly modal.

5.   The category of aspect.

The problem of the category of aspect is connected with such forms as to write - to be writing or writes   - is writing, etc.

The category of aspect in English Grammar presents a very complicated question. There exists a great variety of opinions in connection with this problem. Some linguists mostly foreign such as Kennedy, Curme and some others consider that aspect is rather a semantic category. Some other linguists such as H. Sweet, O. Jespersen, N.F. Irtenyeva do not recognize the existence of this category in Modern English. They treat such forms as is writing, was writing, etc. as type frames to some other actions or situation.

Still other grammarians (Ivanova) though recognizing the existence of the category of aspect do not separate it from the category of tense. Thus they classify all the forms of the verb into two groups: Pure temporal forms such as Past Indefinite. Present Indefinite. Future Indefinite, and temperern aspective forms: Present Continuous. Past Continuous, and Future Continuous. But if we come to analyze such forms as wrote - was writing we see that these forms express one and the same time of an action, i.e. past. And it is the character of an action that is different in these pairs of forms. The forms was writing, was reading serve to express an action which is taken in its progress while the forms wrote and read indicate the mere statement of the fact of the action. Therefore, we may say that these forms differ in the expression of the character of an action. That is why such grammarians as Ilyish. Barhudarov. Yartseva. and some others recognize the existence of a special category which grammatically expresses the character of an action. They call this category of aspect. The grammatical category of aspect serves to express the way in which the action is shown to proceed. The category of aspect is the system of two opposimes. that is the forms of the type writes - wrote and the forms of the type is writing -was writing. The forms of the type is writing serve to express an action in its progress and are called the Continuous Aspect whereas the forms of the type writes express that the action is simply stated or that its nature is not specified and these forms are called the Common Aspect. Thus the continuous aspect is a marked member of the opposition both in its meaning and in its form as it is built up by means of the auxiliary verb to be - Participle I. The common aspect is an unmarked member of the opposition. Note should be made that the continuous aspect is not used with all the verbs of the English language. There are five groups of verbs that are usually not used in the continuous aspect:

1. Verbs expressing some relations as actions: to contain, to consist, to possess:

2.such as: to ucconic, to appear, to prove;

3. Verbs of physical perception: to see, to hear, to smell, to feel;

4. Verbs of mental perception: to dislike, to hate, to trust:

5. Verbs denoting actions of a very short duration: to jump, to break, to drop.

All these verbs are terminative by their nature. Ilyish calls this phenomenon as the neutralization of aspect relations.

Sometimes, however, even these verbs may be used in the continuous aspect to show the progress of an action at a given moment and stressing its temporary nature, e.g. I was hating her more and more while she spoke.

There is no strict correspondence between the continuous and the common aspects in English.

6. The category of person and number

As it can be seen, in Russian person is fully grammaticalized in the presenttense; grammatically, the personal pronouns are redundant: they merely reduplicatethe person information contained in the verb form.

In English, only the third person present tense singular form expressesperson grammatically; therefore, the verb forms are obligatorily associated withpersonal pronouns. Special mention should be made of the modal verbs and theverb be. Modal verbs, with the exception of shall/should and will/would, do notshow person grammatically.

The verb be is more grammaticalized in this respect: it takes an exception tothe other verbs.

As can be seen, it has two grammaticalized persons in the singular – first and thirdperson – and no grammaticalized persons in the plural. In the past tense, the verbbe does not distinguish person – without a personal pronoun we cannot say whichperson the form expresses.

To sum up, the category of person is represented in English by the twomemberopposition: third person singular vs. non-third person singular. Themarked member of the opposition is third person; the unmarked member is nonthirdperson (it includes the remaining forms – first person, second person forms –singular and plural). The opposition is privative both in the plane of content and inthe plane of expression.

This category has very few forms of expression in the modem English verb. These forms arc: the -s ending in the 3rd person singular of the Present Indefinite tense. The ending differentiates the 3rd person from the 1st and the 2nd. Besides there are different forms of the verb to be (is, am). The third way of expressing the category of person is the use of auxiliary verbs for different persons (shall, will, should, would- Future, Future in the Past, conditional mood). Though the category of person has very few forms of expression it is not disappearing and is widely used.

The category of number.

The category of number shows whether the process is associated with one doer or with more than one doer, e.g. He eats three times a day. The sentence indicates a single eater. The category of number is a two-member opposition: singular and plural. An interesting feature of this category is the fact that it is blended with person: number and person make use of the same morpheme. As person is a feature of the present tense, number is also restricted to the present tense John goes to college. vs. John went to college.

This category has the following forms of expression:

a) The verb to be in the present indefinite tense has for the plural the form are, and for the past indefinite tense plural were.

b) The verb to have for the plural in the present indefinite tense has the form have.

All English verbs with the exception of defective ones have the-.s ending in the 3rd person singular of the present indefinite tense and have no ending in the 3rd person plural of the same tense.

The ending -s- in the 3rd person singular expresses two grammatics categories: The category of person and number and as they are used with the verbs to he and to have which are

widely used as notional, semi-notion, auxiliaries, etc. these categories are found in modern English nearly in a: sentence.

Some verbs - modals - do not distinguish number at all.

The analysis of the examples demonstrates the weakness of the English verb as concerns the expression of person and number and its heavy reliance on the subject: it is the subject that is generally responsible for the expression of person and number in English.

Литература: [8 – P. 25 – 45; 3 – P. 5 – 48;4 – P. 55 – 66;15; 7 – P. 63 –79].

Тема 5. Verb. The category of voice and mood.
1.   The category of voice.
2.   The problem of the number of voices.
3.   Peculiarities of English passive constructions.
4.   The category of mood.
5.   Imperative.
6.   The problems of subjunctive.

1.   The category of voice.
Voice is the grammatical category of the verb that shows the direction of the process in regard to the subject: in the active-voice construction, the process issues from the Subject;

Ilyish points out two approaches to the definition of voice that used to exist:

1. The category of voice expresses the relation between the subject and the action.

2. The category of voice expresses the relation between the subject and the object of the action.

Now those definitions of voice are more widely accepted that indicate that the form of the verb shows the direction of an action in respect of the subject.

If the subject of a sentence is the agent of the action, or, the action comes from it, we speak of the Active Voice.

If the subject of a sentence is the recipient of the action, or, the action is directed upon it, we speak of the Passive Voice.

From the point of view of the oppositional theory the category of voice is built up on the opposition of the Active and Passive voice. The passive voice is the marked element of the opposition, the marker is the discontinuous morpheme BE + -EN. The form of the passive voice is a true analytical form.

The form of the verb may show whether the agent expressed by the subject is the doer of the action or the recipient of the action (John broke the vase – the vase was broken). The objective relations between the action and the subject or object of the action find their expression in language as the grammatical category of voice. Therefore, the category of voice reflects the objective relations between the action itself and the subject or object of the action:

The category of voice is realized through the opposition Active voice::Passive voice. The passive is marked both in meaning and in form and the active as unmarked both in meaning and in form.

The realization of the voice category is restricted because of the implicit grammatical meaning of transitivity/intransitivity. In accordance with this meaning, all English verbs should fall into transitive and intransitive. However, the classification turns out to be more complex and comprises 6 groups:

1. Verbs used only transitively: to mark, to raise;

2. Verbs with the main transitive meaning: to see, to make, to build;

3. Verbs of intransitive meaning and secondary transitive meaning. A lot of intransitive verbs may develop a secondary transitive meaning: They laughed me into agreement; He danced the girl out of the room;

4. Verbs of a double nature, neither of the meanings are the leading one, the verbs can be used both transitively and intransitively: to drive home - to drive a car;

5. Verbs that are never used in the Passive Voice: to seem, to become;

6. Verbs that realize their passive meaning only in special contexts: to live, to sleep, to sit, to walk, to jump.

2. The problem of the number of voices.

Some grammarians hold that the number of voices is more than two. Some of them count even five voices in Modern English, namely: the Active voice, the Passive voice, the Reflexive voice, the Middle voice, and the Reciprocal voice.

If we take the sentence: He shaved himself and left the house early. can we say that the verb shaved and the reflexive pronoun himself comprise the Reflexive voice? Evidently not. because in such sentences we deal with the lexical word combination in which reflexive pronouns are used in the function of a direct object to some transitive verbs imparting to them reflexive meaning.

The same case is observed in the so-called Reciprocal voice which is perceived by some grammarians in such sentences as: They saw each other only for a moment. The action here is reciprocal because of the meaning of a direct object, expressed by a reciprocal pronoun whereas the grammatical form of the verb does not show it. In fact, we deal here with an Active voice but not with the reciprocal one.

In the sentences like The paper burned, the door opened, etc. some grammarians find the so-called Middle voice. But hardly have we any ground to consider it as a special Middle voice, i.e. a grammatical category different from the active voice. The special meaning of the verb is expressed by lexical means and not by a special form of the verb.

3. Peculiarities of English passive constructions.

Passive constructions in English are used more frequently than in Russian. Firstly, in Russian relations denoted by passive voice may be expressed by cases:

The delegation was met at the station. Делегацию встретили ...

Secondly, in English not only transitive but also intransitive objective verbs have the category of voice. Here belong: 1) Ditransitive verbs with 2 direct objects:

He asked me a question.—>

(1) I was asked a question.

(2) A question was asked.

2) Ditransitive verbs with the direct and the indirect object:

He sent me a letter.-□

(1) I was sent a letter.

(2) A letter was sent me (to me).

In sentence (1) the indirect object becomes the subject of the passive construction and the direct object is retained in the passive construction.

3) Verbs taking a prepositional object:

He. was sent for.

4) Phraseological units of the type   to take, care of, to set fire to, to lose sight of: ,

Tlie house was set fire to.

5) Some intransitive subjective verbs followed by prepositional phrases: The house was not lived in.

Types of passive constructions.

According to the number of elements in a passive construction, the latter can be divided into:

1. a two-member passive construction

2. a three-member passive construction

A two-member passive construction includes the subject of the construction which isthe recipient of the action, and the second member is the action itself.

The child will be looked after.

A three-member passive construction consists of the subject of the construction which is the recipient of the action, the action itself and the agent of the action. This kind of the passive construction is considered emphatic and is usually used to emphasize the doer of the action.

There are several reasons why passive constructions are more extensively used in English than in Russian. The fact is that only one type of Passive exists in Russian in which a direct object of the active construction becomes the subject of the passive construction. And indirect object cannot be used as the subject of the passive construction.

Three types of passive constructions can be differentiated: 1) direct primary passive; 2) indirect secondary passive; 3) prepositional tertiary passive.

Some English verbs can admit only one object – the direct one: e.g. Mary saw him.

When such an object becomes the subject of a passive construction, the latter is called direct primary passive: e.g. He was seen by Mary.

There are many verbs in English that take two objects in the active construction (direct and indirect): e.g. I gave him a book. She told the story to her sister.

These verbs admit of two passive constructions:

a) A book was given to him. The story was told to her sister. (the direct primary passive)

b) He was given a book. Her sister was told the story. (the indirect secondary passive)

The indirect (secondary) passive is not infrequent in verb-phrases with the verb to give, such as: to give credit, to give command, to give a chance, to give a choice, to give an explanation, to give an opportunity, to give orders, to give shelter, and the like.

e.g. He was given a good to chance to argue.

She is given an opportunity to go to the south in summer.

Suppose, you are given a choice. What would you prefer? However, many verbs in English may take a direct and an indirect object in the active construction but admit only one passive construction — the direct passive, e.g.: to bring, to do, to play, to telegraph and many others. The list could be extended.

Next come constructions with the so-called prepositional or tertiary passive. The subject of the passive construction corresponds to the prepositional object of the active construction. This "detached" preposition retains its place after the verb.

4. The category of mood.

A great divergence of opinions on the category of mood is caused by the fact that identical mood forms can express different meanings and different forms can express similar meanings.

The category of mood expresses the relation of nominative content of the sentence towards reality. Hence there are two moods – one presenting the action as real and the other presenting the action as unreal. Real actions are expressed by the indicative mood and unreal are expressed by the oblique mood.

I go to university. vs. He suggests I (should) go to university.

I am a student again. vs. I wish I were a student again.

As for the imperative mood, traditionally it has been referred to as a separate mood. However, Prof. Blokh thinks that the imperative is a variety of the subjunctive. This can be shown by means of equivalent transformations:

Be off! _ I demand that you (should) be off.

Do be careful with the papers. _ My request is that you (should) be careful with the papers.

Do as I ask you! _ I insist that you (should) do as I ask you.

As it can be seen, the meaning of the imperative does not much differ from the meaning of the subjunctive. It expresses a directive which may or may not be translated into a fact. Thus if we agree with M. Blokh, we shall have only two moods – the indicative and the non-indicative, or spective.

Speaking of the system of oblique moods, linguists distinguish various semantic varieties: Subjunctive I, Subjunctive II, Conditional, Suppositional.

Subjunctive I   So be it. Long live the Queen.

Subjunctive II If I had / had had time

Conditional   I would go / would have gone there

Suppositional I demand that he should be present

These moods are distinguished on the basis of meaning which is coloured by the linguistic environment of the forms, i.e. these are 'modal' varieties of the subjunctive mood.

Subjunctive II and Conditional are used in a conditional period. They have two forms – either homonymous to Past Indefinite and Future-in-the-Past, or to Past Perfect and Future-Perfect-in-the-Past.

Prof. Khlebnikova analyzed the morphological system of the English verb on the basis of oppositions. She paid proper attention to the fact that all these forms are united by one meaning – that of unreality. Since the meaning is one, but forms are different, she made the conclusion that there is only one oblique mood presented by two subtypes.

Subjunctive II and Conditional are more important than the other two because they are indispensable and sufficient in the system, that is, one cannot do without them, but can easily do without the other two. Subjunctive II and Conditional express the same meaning and don't exist independently, so they can be united into one mood. Prof. Khlebnikova called this mood Conjunctive.

Subjunctive I and Suppositional are on the periphery of the system. The former is a remnant of history. It has fallen out of the system and is used in restricted contexts, such as religious hymns, slogans, etc. The latter is a new formation that has not entered into the system yet. It is used in specific syntactic structures, eg., after verbs 'demand', 'suggest', etc. Another indication that Subjunctive I and Suppositional are on the periphery of the system is that they are synonymous and interchangeable in the structure.

To sum up, the category of mood is represented by two oppositions: the indicative mood and the spective mood. The indicative mood is the basic mood of the verb. Morphologically it is the most developed system. Semantically, it is a fact mood; it is the least subjective of all the moods. The spective mood, which includes the traditional imperative and the subjunctive mood, represents a process as a non-fact, i.e. as something imaginary, desirable, problematic, contrary to reality. The imperative variety of the spective mood is morphologically the least developed mood: it is only expressed by the bare infinitive form.

Mood and Modality

A distinction should be made between grammatical mood and semantic modality. Mood is a matter of grammatical form, modality a matter of meaning. The main markers of modality in English are the modal auxiliaries can, may, must, will, shall, together with a few less central ones.

Three main kinds of modal meaning are distinguished:

- deontic,

- epistemic,

- dynamic.

Deontic modality is concerned with "influencing actions, states, or events" and typically has to do with such notions as obligation and permission, or – in combination with negation – prohibition. Deontic modal meaning also deals with threats, promises (commissive deontic modality), requests, commands, instructions (directive), desires, wishes and fears (volitive):

e.g. You must come in immediately (obligation).

You can have one more turn. (permission)

You can't have any more. (prohibition)

May he lose the race. (wish)

Epistemic modality is concerned with the speaker's judgement of the truth of the proposition embedded in the statement.

e.g. It was a mistake represents an unqualified assertion.

It must have been a mistake suggests that I am drawing a conclusion from evidence rather than asserting something of whose truth I have direct knowledge.

You may be right merely acknowledges the possibility that "You are right" is true.

Dynamic modality has nothing to do with the speaker, it is subject-oriented and generally concerns the properties and dispositions of persons, etc., referred to in the clause.

e.g. Liz can drive better than you. I asked Ed to go but he won't.

In these examples the speaker is concerned with Liz's driving ability and Ed's willingness to go.

All three kinds of modality are commonly expressed by other means than by modal auxiliaries: lexical verbs (You are obliged to do that), adjectives (You are likely to be fined), adverbs (Perhaps you are right), nouns (You have my permission to leave early).

5. Imperative.

Practically all the scholars recognize the opposition of 2 moods:' indicative and imperative.

Indicative is represented by a system of categories (tense, order, aspect, voice, etc.). It is a fact-mood or a direct mood. Imperative is represented by one form, which is used in sentences with implied subject.

Some scholars (G.N.Vorontsova) recognize the analytical form of the imperative, expressed by let+ infinitive.

In the sentence Let us let him do it.the first let is devoid of the lexical meaning and can be treated as part of the analytical form. However, the use of two negative forms (Don't let us and Let us not) shows that this structure takes an intermediary position between modal phrases and analytical forms.

The imperative mood in English is represented by one form only, viz. (come!).

It differs from all other moods in several important ways: it has no person, number, tense or aspect distinctions and is limited in its use to one type of sentence only, viz. imperative sentences. As a rule, a verb in the imperative has no pronoun acting as subject. However, the pronoun may be used in emotional speech: "But Tessie, –" he pleaded, going towards her. You leave me alone!" she cried loud loudly. These are the essential peculiarities distinguishing the imperative from the other moods. If one accepts the definition of mood given above, there would seem to be no ground to deny that the imperative is a mood.

6. The problems of subjunctive.

Problematic and unreal actions are expressed in Modern English by 4 sets of forms.

The form (he) be/come/take, expressing a problematic action, is the only form which differs from the forms of the indicative. There is one more form of the verb to be, different from the forms of the indicative: (he) were. But this difference disappears in all other verbs, and besides, fhe form (he) were is now being replaced by the form (he) was. The combinations (he) should be, (he) should have been do not differ from modal phrases.

Forms expressing unreal actions, are the same as the forms of the past indicative: (I) They were here.

(2) I wish they were here.

(3.) I said I should do it.

(4) In your place I should do it.

These forms are often treated as polysemantic, i.e. forms of the indicative, which express unreal actions in certain syntactic structures (R.Quirk, L.S.Barkhudarov). Forms of the past indicative denote actions, not connected with the moment of speaking, not "relevant" for the speaker, "not real" now. That is why they may be used to denote unreality. In this case

subjunctive will be represented by 2 forms of the verb to be: (he) be, (he), were and I form of other verbs: (he) do, come, go.

Литература: [1 – Р. 140 – 216;8 – Р. 25 – 45; 3 – Р. 77 – 110;15; 6 – Р. 14 – 28;7 – Р. 82 –110].

Тема 6. The adjective. The adverb.
1. **A general outline of the adjective. Semantic, morphological, syntactic features.**
2. **Classification of adjectives.**
3. **The problem of the stative.**
4. **The category of comparison.**
5. **A general outline of the adverb. Semantic, morphological, syntactic features.**
6. **Classification of adverbs.**

1. **A general outline of the adjective. Semantic, morphological, syntactic features.**

Semantic features. The adjective expresses the property of an entity. Typically, adjectives denote states, usually permanent states, although there are also adjectives which can denote temporary states. Adjectives are characteristically stative, but many of them can be seen as dynamic. The stative property of an entity is a property that cannot be conceived as a developing process, and the dynamic property of an entity is a property that is conceived as active, or as a developing process.

eg. John is very tall. vs.*John is being very tall today John is very careful today (unemphatic). vs. John is being careful today (emphatic).

Morphological features. Derivationally, adjectives are related either to nouns or verbs. Suffixes changing nouns to adjectives are: - (i)al, -ar, -ary or –ery, -ed, -en, -esque, -ful, -ic(al), -ish, -istic, -less, -like, -ly, -ous, -ward, -wide, -y. Suffixes changing verbs to adjectives are: -able or –ible, -ent or –ant, -ed, -ing, - ive, -(at)ory.

Syntactic features. In the sentence, the adjective performs the functions o an attribute (an adjunct) and a predicative. Of the two, the more typical function I that of an attribute since the function of a predicative can also be performed b other parts of speech.

Adjectives can sometimes be postpositive, that is, they can sometimes follow the item they modify. Adjectives can often function as heads of noun phrases. As such, they do not inflect for number and for the genitive case and must take a definite determiner. An adjective can function as a verbless clause (eg. Anxious, he dialed the number).

2. **Classification of adjectives.**

Semantic classification.

All the adjectives are traditionally divided into two large subclasses: qualitative and relative. Relative adjectives express such properties of a substance as are determined by the direct relation of the substance to some other substance.

E.g. mathematics — mathematical precision; history — a historical event.

Qualitative adjectives denote various qualities of substances which admit of a quantitative estimation, i.e. of establishing their correlative quantitative measure. The measure of a quality can be estimated as high or low, adequate or inadequate, sufficient or insufficient, optimal or excessive. The ability of an adjective to form degrees of comparison is usually taken as a formal sign of its qualitative character, in opposition to a relative adjective which is understood as incapable of forming degrees of comparison by definition.

However, in actual speech the described principle of distinction is not strictly observed. Substances can possess qualities that are incompatible with the idea of degrees of comparison. So adjectives denoting these qualities and incapable of forming degrees of comparison still belong to the qualitative subclass (extinct, immobile, deaf, final, fixed, etc.) On the other hand, some relative adjectives can form degrees of comparison. Cf.: a grammatical topic — a purely grammatical topic — the most grammatical of the suggested topics.

Prof. Blokh suggests that distinction be based on the evaluative function of adjectives. According as they actually give some qualitative evaluation to the substance referent or only point out its corresponding native property, all the adjective functions may be grammatically divided into "evaluative" and "specificative". One and the same adjective, irrespective of its being "relative" or "qualitative", can be used either in the evaluative function or in the specificative function. For instance, the adjective good is basically qualitative. On the other hand, when employed as a grading term in teaching, i.e. a term forming part of the marking scale together with the grading terms bad, satisfactory, excellent, it acquires the said specificative value; in other words, it becomes a specificative, not an evaluative unit in the grammatical sense. Conversely, the adjective wooden is basically relative, but when used in the broader meaning "expressionless" or "awkward" it acquires an evaluative force and, consequently, can presuppose a greater or lesser degree ("amount") of the denoted properly in the corresponding referent.

Thus, the introduced distinction between the evaluative and specificative uses of adjectives, in the long run, emphasizes the fact that the morphological category of comparison (comparison degrees) is potentially represented in the whole class of adjectives and is constitutive for it.

Adjectives that characterize the referent of the noun directly are termed inherent, those that do not are termed non-inherent.

eg. an old member of the club – the member of the club is old

Most adjectives are inherent, and it is especially uncommon for dynamic adjectives to be other than inherent.

Syntactic classification.

From a syntactic point of view, adjectives can be divided into three groups:

1) adjectives which can be used attributively and predicatively (a healthy man – the man is healthy);

2) adjectives which can be used attributively only (a complete idiot – *the idiot is complete);

3) adjectives which can be used predicatively only (*a loath man – the man is loath to agree with it).

Attributive adjectives constitute two groups:

1) intensifying;

2) restrictive, or particularizing (limiter adjectives).

Intensifying adjectives constitute two groups:

1) emphasizers;

2) amplifiers.

Emphasizers have a heightening effect on the noun (clear, definite, outright, plain, pure, real, sheer, sure, true); amplifiers scale upwards from an assumed norm (complete, great, firm, absolute, close, perfect, extreme, entire, total, utter).

Restrictive adjectives restrict the noun to a particular member of the class (chief, exact, main, particular, precise, principal, sole, specific). They particularize the reference of the noun.

3.   The problem of the stative.

There is a class of words in English with the following morphological, semantic and syntactic characteristics:

1) The words of this type denote "states" while adjectives denote "qualities";

2) The words of this type may be characterized by the prefix a- (it derives from the Middle English preposition an 'in, on'): alive, asleep, ajar, etc.;

3) The words of this type do not possess the category of the degrees of comparison;

4) The words of this type are used predicatively only, e.g. He is awake.

Because of the said features, these words are regarded by some grammarians as a separate part of speech which has been variously referred to as the category of state words, adlinks, and statives (B. Ilyish; B. S. Khaimovich and B. I. Rogovskaya). The number of such words does not

exceed several dozen. The traditional view of the stative, which separates temporary adjectives from other adjectives, does not seem to be convincing: temporary adjectives are part and parcel of the adjective class as a whole. At the same time, we must admit that these adjectives have features (meaning, function) that allow us to assign them to a separate subclass of the adjective. But the features examined are not sufficient for the distinction of the category of state within the adjective.

4. The category of comparison.

The category of comparison is constituted by the opposition of three forms of the adjective: the positive, the comparative, and the superlative.

Some grammarians have expressed the view that there are only two degrees of comparison. Otto Jespersen, for instance, argues that the positive degree cannot be regarded as a degree of comparison as it does not convey the idea of comparison.

According to A.I. Smirnitsky, the degrees of comparison include the positive degree and the relative degree which is subdivided into the comparative and the superlative degree.

There are three ways of forming degrees of comparison: synthetic, analytic, and suppletive. The synthetic way of forming degrees of comparison is by the inflections -er, -est; the analytic way, by placing more and most before the adjective. The synthetic way is generally used with monosyllabic adjectives and dissyllabic adjectives ending in -y, -ow, -er, -le and those which have the stress on the last syllable. However, in the dissyllabic group we can observe radical changes: adjectives formerly taking -er and -est are tending to go over to more and most , e.g. more common, most common; more cloudy, most cloudy; more fussy, most fussy; more cruel, most cruel; more quiet, most quiet; more clever, most clever; more profound, most profound; more simple, most simple; more pleasant, mostpleasant – all these were normally compared with -er and -est before the WWII. All this goes to show that English comparison is getting more and more analytic.

The question that linguists have been grappling with is: what is the linguistic status of analytic forms? Are more and most adverbs of quantity (degree) or grammatical word-morphemes? The problem is similar to the problem of the future in English. At present linguists are divided on this question: some linguists (A. I. Smirnitskyj, B. Khaimovich and B. Rogovskaya, B. Blokh) treat degrees of comparison with more and most as analytic constructions proper while others (V. N. Zhigadlo, L. S. Barkhudarov, D. A. Shteling,) treat them as free combinations of adverbs and adjectives.

To analytic forms of comparison M. Blokh also attributes less/least combinations. He calls them forms of reverse comparison. By the way, the forms less, least are generally used as an argument against the treatment of more and most as grammatical word-morphemes. So, for instance, B. Ilyish argues that if less and least are not grammatical word morphemes, more and most are not grammatical word-morphemes either.

As already pointed out, the third way of forming degrees of comparison is by the use of suppletive forms: good _ better, best; bad _ worse, worst; far _ farther/further, farthest/furthest; little _ less, least; much/many _ more, most.

In discussing the category of comparison, linguists generally mention such constructions as a most beautiful girl. This combination is a common means of expressing elative evaluations of substance properties. The indefinite article has nothing to do with comparison; it points to another problem, viz. the lexicalization of superlative forms: most no longer marks the superlative degree; it has turned into an adverb of degree whose meaning is the same as that of very.

Cf. also the best suit vs. a best suit; the best seller vs. a best-seller.

5. A general outline of the adverb. Semantic, morphological, syntactic features.

Semantic features. The adverb is usually defined as a word expressing either property of an action, or property of another property, or circumstances in which an action occurs. However, this definition fails to demonstrate the difference between the adverb and the adjective. To overcome this drawback, we should define the adverb as a notional word denoting a non-

substantive property, that is, a property of a non-substantive referent. This feature sets the adverb apart from the adjective which, as already known, denotes a substantive property.

Morphological features. As to their word-building structure adverbs may be non-derived, or simple (e.g. here, there, now, then, so, quick, why, how, where, when, very, rather) and derived (e.g. slowly, sideways, clockwise, homewards, away, ahead, apart, across). We can also distinguish composite forms and phrasal forms of the adverb: sometimes, nowhere, anyhow; at least, at most, at last, to and fro, upside down. A prolific source of adverbs is the adjective: many –ly adverbs are transformationally related to respective adjectives. The suffix –ly is a typical marker of the adverb. However, many adverbs related to adjectives may not be necessarily used with the suffix –ly, e.g. fast, late, hard, high, clean, clear, close, loud, tight, firm, quick, right, sharp, slow, wide, etc.

Special mention should be made of preposition-adverb like elements which form a semantic blend with verbs: to give up, to give in, to give out, to give away, to give over, etc; to set up, to set in, to set forth, to set down, etc.; to get on, to get off, to get through, to get about , etc. The verb-adverb combination goes by several names: two-part verbs, composite verbs, phrasal verbs. The verbs in such combinations are mostly one-syllable words; the most common adverbs are those denoting place, e.g. in, out, on, off, over, up, down, through, etc. Some of the adverbs may be separated by objective complements, e.g. Please hand in your papers. vs. Please hand your papers in. Others are non-separable, e.g. John called on me. vs. *John called me on.

In verb-adverb combinations the second element may:

a) retain its adverbial properties of showing direction (e.g. to go out, to go in, to go away);

b) change the aspect of the verb, i.e. mark the completeness of the process (e.g. to eat – to eat up; to stand – to stand up; to sit – to sit down; to lie – to lie down; to shave – to shave off; to speak – to speak out);

c) intensify the meaning of the process (e.g. to end – to end up; to finish – to finish up (off); to cut – to cut off; to talk – to talk away);

d) lose its lexical meaning and form an integral whole, a set expression (e.g. to fall out 'to quarrel'; to give in 'to surrender'; to come off 'to take place'; to leave off 'to stop'; to boil down 'to be reduced in quantity').

These combinations have been treated by different scholars in different ways. Some scholars have treated the second element as a variety of adverbs, as preposition-like adverbs (A. Smirnitsky, 1959, 376), as a special kind of adverb called adverbial postpositon (I. E. Anichkov, 1947), as postverbial particles (L. Kivimдgi et al., 1968: 35), as a special kind of form-word called postpositive (N. N. Amosova, 1963: 134), a postfix or postpositive affix (Y. Zhluktenko, 1954), a separate part of speech called postposition (B.A. Ilyish, 1948: 243 – 5). As for B. Ilyish, he later (1971:148) changed his view arguing that, since the second element does not indicate the circumstances in which the process takes place, the whole construction is a phraseological unit: the whole has a meaning different from the meanings of the components. According to M. Blokh, these elements form a special functional set of particles based on their functional character. He suggests the term "post-positives".

The great variety of interpretations shows the complexity of the problem. Apparently, the problem requires further research.

Syntactic features. Adverbs are characterized by combinability with verbs, adjectives and words of adverbial nature. The adverb performs the function of an adverbial modifier.

6. Classification of adverbs.

Adverbs are commonly divided into qualitative, quantitative and circumstantial.

Qualitative adverbs express immediate, inherently non-graded qualities of actions and other qualities. The typical adverbs of this kind are qualitative adverbs in -ly.

Quantitative adverbs are specific lexical units of semi-functional nature expressing quality measure, or gradational evaluation of qualities. They may be subdivided into several sets:

1. Adverbs of high degree ("intensifiers"): very, quite, entirely, utterly, highly, greatly, perfectly, absolutely, strongly, considerably, pretty, much.

2. Adverbs of excessive degree (direct and reverse) also belonging to the broader subclass of intensifiers: too, awfully, tremendously, dreadfully, terrifically.

3. Adverbs of unexpected degree: surprisingly, astonishingly, amazingly.

4. Adverbs of moderate degree: fairly, comparatively, relatively, moderately, rather.

5. Adverbs of low degree: slightly, a little, a bit.

6. Adverbs of approximate degree: almost, nearly.

7. Adverbs of optimal degree: enough, sufficiently, adequately.

8. Adverbs of inadequate degree: insufficiently, intolerably, unbearably, ridiculously.

9. Adverbs of under-degree: hardly, scarcely.

Although the degree adverbs are traditionally described under the heading of "quantitative", in reality they occupy an intermediate position between qualitative and quantitative words and therefore can be referred to qualitative adverbs. Thus, the latter are subdivided into qualitative adverbs of full notional value and degree adverbs – specific functional words.

Circumstantial adverbs are also divided into notional and functional. The functional circumstantial adverbs are words of pronominal nature. They include numerical adverbs, adverbs of time, place, manner, cause, consequence. Many of them are used as syntactic connectives and question-forming words (now, here, when, where, so, thus, how, why, etc.)

Notional circumstantial adverbs include two basic sets: adverbs of time and adverbs of place: today, tomorrow, already, ever, never, shortly, recently, seldom, early, late; homeward, eastward, near, far, outside, ashore, etc.

Just like adjectives, adverbs can be divided into evaluative and specificative, connected with the categorial expression of comparison. Each adverb subject to evaluation grading by degree words expresses the category of comparison. Thus, not only qualitative adverbs are included into the categorial system of comparison.

Литература: [1 – P. 217 – 244;3 – P. 179 – 186, 209 – 214;11 – P. 63 – 76, 106 – 110; 15; 12 – P. 27 – 36, 97 – 106].

Тема 7. Functional parts of speech.
1. **Functional parts of speech.**
2. **The preposition. Semantic, morphological, syntactic features.**
3. **The conjunction. Semantic, syntactic features.**
4. **The particle.**
5. **The place of particle in the sentence.**
6. **The interjection. Semantic, syntactic features.**
7. **Types of interjections.**
8. **The modal word. The list of all modal words.**

1. **Functional parts of speech.**

According to the criteria of form, meaning and function, all words are divided into notional and functional, which reflects their division in the earlier grammatical tradition into changeable and unchangeable.

Functional words are characterized by incomplete nominative meaning, they are non-self-dependent and they perform mediatory functions in the sentence.

On the principle of "generalized form" only unchangeable words are traditionally treated under the heading of functional parts of speech. As for their individual forms as such, they are simply presented by the list, since the number of these words is limited, so that they don't need to be identified on any general scheme.

To the basic functional series of words in English belong the article, the preposition, the conjunction, the particle, the modal word, the interjection.

2.   The preposition. Semantic, morphological, syntactic features.

It is common knowledge that prepositions are a most important element of the structure of many languages, particularly those which, like Modern English, have no developed case system in their nominal parts of speech. Prepositions in English are less closely connected with the word or phrase they introduce than, say, in Russian. This greater independence of English prepositions manifests itself in various ways.

Semantic features.

The preposition is traditionally defined as a word expressing relationsbetween words in the sentence. The weakness of the traditional definition is that itdoes not allow us to distinguish prepositions from subordinating conjunctions.

Cf. She never saw him after the concert. vs. She never saw him after he left town.

In traditional analysis, the preposition is used with the noun phrase, not withthe verb phrase. Such being the case, after in the first sentence is a preposition,while after in the second sentence is a conjunction. In other words, the status ofafter is determined by the linguistic status of the following phrase. Accepting thisapproach, we shall have to treat the two uses of after as homonyms.

A new approach to prepositions and subordinating conjunctions is to treatthe two traditional categories as prepositions (Geoffrey K. Pullum and RodneyHuddleston, 2002: 600). The said scholars include in the preposition category all ofthe subordinating conjunctions of traditional grammar with the exception ofwhether and that. Prepositions are taken as heads of phrases and are comparable toverbs, nouns, adjectives, and adverbs which also function as heads. This approachto prepositions makes it possible to combine prepositions and subordinatingconjunctions into one class and thus solve the problem of the discrimination ofprepositions and conjunctions.

Sometimes the boundary line between a preposition and another part ofspeech is not quite clear. Thus, with reference to the words like near there may bedoubtful cases from this viewpoint. For instance, there certainly is the adjectivenear, used in such phrases as the near future. On the other hand, there is thepreposition near, found in such sentences as They live near me.

Functionally, prepositions can be divided into grammatical, and nongrammatical(the latter are subdivided into spatial and non-spatial).

Grammatical prepositions have no identifiable meaning independent of thegrammatical construction in which they occur. Consider:

1. He was interviewed by the police.
2. They were discussing the speech of the President.
3. She sent the letter to John.

In all these examples the prepositions have no identifiable meaning of theirown: it is only in the co-text that we can say what meaning they express. In (1) bymarks the element that is the Agent; in (2) of marks the possessive relationshipbetween the speech and the president; in (3) to marks the Recipient.

In their grammatical functions, prepositions are similar to inflections insynthetic languages.

Cf. interviewed by the police: допрошены полицией;

the speech of the President: речь президента;

sent to John: отправила Джону.

As already indicated, non-grammatical prepositions can be divided intospatial and non-spatial, the term spatial including two types of space: non-temporaland temporal. Spatial non-temporal prepositions mark the position of entities withrespect to each other: one entity is treated as a reference point (the deictic centre)with respect to which another is located.

Morphological features.

Structurally, prepositions fall into two categories: simple, or one-word,prepositions (in, on, for, to, about, after, etc.) and composite, or two- or three-word,prepositions (ahead of, because of, according to; by means of, at the cost of, withreference to, etc.).

However, not all scholars recognize the existence of composite prepositions.According to Prof. Ilyish, we cannot term these groups prepositions, since apreposition is a word, not a word group, and it is essential to keep up thedistinction between words and word groups. The term "compound preposition" istoo vague and is not conducive to a clear and consistent grammatical theory.

Syntactic features.

As far as phrases are concerned, the function of prepositions is to connectwords with each other. On the sentence level: a preposition is never a part of asentence by itself; it enters the part of sentence whose main centre is the followingnoun, or pronoun, or gerund. It won't be correct to say that prepositions connectparts of a sentence. They do not do that, as they stand within a part of the sentence,not between two parts.

3.   The conjunction. Semantic, syntactic features.

Semantic features.

Every conjunction has its own meaning, expressing some connection orother existing between phenomena in extralinguistic reality.

When discussing prepositions, we noted that in a certain number of cases theuse of a given preposition is predicted by the preceding word: thus the verb dependcan only be followed by the preposition on (or upon), the adjective characteristiconly by the preposition of, etc. In such cases the preposition has no meaning of itsown. Conjunctions in this respect are entirely different. Their meaning isindependent of preceding words.

Syntactic features.

Two levels are distinguished — that of phrases and that of sentences.

On the phrase level it must be said that conjunctions connect words andphrases. It is the so-called co-ordinating conjunctions that are found here, and onlyvery rarely subordinating ones.

On the sentence level it must be said that conjunctions connect clauses (ofdifferent kinds). Here we find both so-called co-ordinating and so-calledsubordinating conjunctions.

In comparing prepositions with co-ordinating and subordinatingconjunctions we cannot fail to notice that while prepositions have nothing incommon with co-ordinating conjunctions, some prepositions are very close inmeaning to subordinating conjunctions, and in some cases a preposition and asubordinating conjunction sound exactly the same.

It should also be noted that the difference between prepositions andconjunctions is much less pronounced in Modern English than in Russian, whereprepositions are closely connected with cases, while conjunctions have nothingwhatever to do with them. In English, with its almost complete absence of cases,this difference between prepositions and conjunctions is very much obliterated.

4.   The particle.

Particles usually refer to the word (or, sometimes, phrase) immediatelyfollowing an give special prominence to the notion expressed by this word (orphrase), or single it out in some other way, depending on the meaning of theparticle.

Particles are function words that express grammatical relationships with other words. Function words are words that perform definite grammatical functions but that lack definite lexical meaning. Only one grammatical form can perform the grammatical function of particle in the English language: p-words. Similar in form to prepositions, p-words function as particles within three constructions in English:

- Phrasal verbs
- Quasi-modal verbs
- Determiner phrases

The following sections explain and exemplify the particle in English grammar.

Particles in Phrasal Verbs.

The first grammatical construction in the English language that contains a p-word that functions as a particle is the phrasal verb. Phrasal verbs consist of a verb followed by one or more p-words. The p-word of a phrasal verb functions as a particle. Examples of phrasal verbs include the following:

- call off (cancel)
- lay in on (criticize)
- let up (diminish, lessen)
- pass on (transmit)
- rule out (eliminate)
- throw up (vomit)

Particles in Quasi-modal Verbs.

The second grammatical construction in the English language that contains a p-word that functions as a particle is the quasi-modal verb. The modal verb — a term that encompasses both full modal verbs and quasi-modal verbs — is a distinct auxiliary verb form of the English language that differs from prototypical verbs in grammatical form and grammatical function. Three English quasi-modal verbs contain p-words that function as particles:

- ought (to)
- had better (had best)
- used to

Particles in Determiner Phrases.

The third grammatical construction in the English language that contains a p-word that functions as a particle is the determiner phrase. In English grammar, more than one determiner in the form of a determiner phrase can function as the determinative of a single word or phrase. The following italicized determiners are examples of determiner phrases:

- All three of the children refused to eat any of their vegetables.
- The thirteen books were each popular titles.
- All her many accomplishments impressed the many members of both of the search committees.

5.   The place of particle in the sentence.

The question of the place of a particle in sentence structure remainsunsolved. The following three solutions are possible:

(1) a particle is a separate secondary member of the sentence, which shouldbe given a special name;

(2) a particle is an element in the part of the sentence which is formed by theword (or phrase) to which the particle refers (thus the particle may be an elementof the subject, predicate, object, etc.);

(3) a particle neither makes up a special part of the sentence, nor is it anelement in any part of the sentence; it stands outside the structure of the sentenceand must be neglected when analysis of a sentence is given.

Each of these three views entails some difficulties and none of them can beproved to be the correct one, so that the decision remains arbitrary.

6.   The interjection. Semantic, syntactic features.

Interjections have for a long time been an object of controversy. There hasbeen some doubt whether they are words of a definite language in the same sensethat nouns, verbs, etc. are, and whether they are not rather involuntary outcries, notrestricted to any given language but common to all human beings as biologicalphenomena are.

Modern scholars consider interjections part of the word stock of a languageas much as other types of words. Interjections belonging to a certain language maycontain sounds foreign to

other languages. Thus, for instance, the Russianinterjection ax contains the consonant phoneme [x], which is not found in English,etc.

Semantic features.

The characteristic features which distinguish interjections from practicallyall other words lie in a different sphere. The interjections, as distinct from nouns,verbs, prepositions, etc., are not names of anything, but expressions of emotions.

Another characteristic feature of the meaning of interjections is, that whilesome of them express quite definite meanings (for instance, alas can never expressthe feeling of joy), other interjections seem to express merely feeling in general,without being attached to some particular feeling. The interjection oh, for example,may be used both when the speaker feels surprised and when he feels joyous, ordisappointed, or frightened, etc. The meaning of the interjection itself is thus veryvague.

Syntactic features.

On the sentence level the function of interjections is a controversial matter.The usual interpretation is that the interjection stands outside the structure of thesentence. Another view is that it is syntactically a kind of parenthesis at least insome cases. The controversy cannot be decided by objective investigation and theanswer only depends on what we mean by sentence structure on the one hand, andby some element or other being outside the sentence structure, on the other.

7. Types of interjections.

Interjection is divided into following types on the basis of way to express interjections in the sentence such as greeting, joy, surprise, approval, sorrow, attention, and calling.

Interjections for Greeting. This type of interjection is used in the sentence to indicate the emotion of warmth to the person meeting with such as hey, hello, hi, etc.For example:Hey! Nice to see you here in the party.Hello! I am Pooja.

Interjections for Joy. This type of interjection is used in the sentence to indicate immediate joy and happiness on any happy occasion occurred such as hurrah, wow, hurray, etc.For example:Wow! You are looking gorgeous.Hurray! We successfully won this football match.

Interjections for Approval. This type of interjection is used in the sentence to express the strong sense of approval or agreement for something that has happened such as well done, bravo, brilliant, etc.For example:Well done! You win the race.Bravo! The first rank is yours this year.

Interjections for Attention. This type of interjection is used in the sentence to draw attention of someone such as look, behold, listen, hush, etc.For example:Look! You so arrogant.Listen! I have never copied you.Behold! Someone strange is there.

Interjections for Surprise. This type of interjection is used in the sentence to express the strong sense of surprise about something that has happened such as ha, what, hey, ah, oh, eh, etc.For example:What! You failed.Oh! Really you completed the task, I can't believe.Ah! I got new job.

Interjections for Sorrow. This type of interjection is used in the sentence to express the emotion of sadness about something unfortunate has happened such as alas, ouch, ah, oh, etc.For example:Alas! He is no more.Ouch! It's very paining.

Interjections for Understanding/Misunderstanding. Interjections of understanding and misunderstanding are used to express ones understanding of a subject being talked about or something which wasn't well understood before the moment.

Other Interjections(Interjections of Anger/Annoyance/Frustration/Disappointment/Dismissive). Apart from the Interjections that we have studied in the preceding chapters there are many other Interjections which are used to express different kinds of emotions.

8. The modal word. The list of all modal words.

The modal word, occupying in the sentence a more pronounced or lesspronounced detached position, expresses the attitude of the speaker to the reflectedsituation and its parts. Here

belong the functional words of probability (probably,perhaps, etc.), of qualitative evaluation (fortunately, unfortunately, luckily, etc.),and also of affirmation and negation.

Modal words stand in a special relation to the sentence. They are notsentence members, since giving an evaluation of the entire situation presented inthe sentence, they stand on the outside. For instance, in the sentence Perhaps,dimly, she saw the picture of a man walking up a road (Christie) the modal wordperhaps is not a sentence member, but if we remove it, the meaning of theutterance will change – it will be just a statement of the fact.

Academician Shcherba states that there are some words that do not belong toany part of speech. Prof. Ilyish regards the words yes, no and please as standingoutside the part of speech system. This point of view is also supported by Prof.Smirnitsky.

Литература: [<u>9 – P. 89 – 97</u>; <u>3 – P. 215 – 228;13</u>; <u>15</u>; <u>12 – P. 107 – 128</u>; <u>6 – P. 36 – 44</u>].

Тема 8. The sentence and the utterance.
1.   **Different approaches to the study of the sentence.**
2.   **The utterance.**
3.   **Informative structure of the utterance.**
4.   **Functional typology of utterances.**

1.   **Different approaches to the study of the sentence.**
A sentence can be defined as a complete structure, or as a completed representation of athought, or as a completed and independent unit of speech. Completeness here means only that theunit we call a sentence is presented as complete. If so, there should be certain indicators of the factthat the speaker presented us with what he thinks is enough, and thus complete.

The function of the sentence is to model some fragment of the world. This model should bereferred to the original, to a fragment of the world. It means that a sentence is to be referred toreality. This property of sentence was first proposed and described by V.V. Vinogradov in the late1930s. V.V. Vinogradov named this feature predicativity and showed that predicativity meansreference of the content of the sentence to reality indicating its time in relation to the moment ofspeech, the degree of probability of the fact described in the sentence, and its relation to theparticipants of communication. The when-component of predicativity is known as the temporalsystem and is shown by the grammatical category of tense. The how-true-component ofpredicativity is represented by modality and shown by the grammatical category of mood and someother modal elements. The who- or what-about-component shows whether the statement is madeabout the speaker or the listener or somebody or something else and is formalized as a personal component of predicativity.

a) Principal and secondary parts of the sentence
b) Immediate constituents of the sentence. IC analysis

To grasp the real structure of the English sentence, one must understand not only words thatoccur but also the principles of their arrangement. Each language has its own way of structuralgrouping. English has dichotomous phrase structure, which means that the phrase in English canalways be divided into two elements (constituents) until we get down to the single word. All groupsof words are arranged in levels. The name given by linguists to these different levels of relationshipis immediate constituents.

Thus, one way of analyzing a sentence is to cut it to its immediate constituents, that is, tosingle out different levels of meaning.

It is obvious that dividing a sentence into ICs does not provide much information.Nevertheless, it can sometimes prove useful if we want to account for the ambiguity of certainconstructions.

c) Oppositional analysis

The oppositional method in syntax means correlating different sentence types: they possesscommon features and differential features. Differential features serve the basis for analysis.

d) Constructional analysis.

According to the constructional approach, not only the subject and the predicate but also allthe necessary constituents of primary predication constitute the main parts because they areconstructionally significant. Therefore, the secondary parts of the sentence are sometimes asnecessary and important as the main ones. The structural sentence types are formed on the basis ofkernels (basic structures). Three main types of propositional kernels may be distinguished: N V, Nis A, N is N.

2. The utterance.

The utterance as opposed to the sentence is the unit of speech. The main categories of the utterance from the point of view of its informative structure are considered to be the theme andthe rheme. They are the main components of the Functional Sentence Perspective (FSP) – actual division of the sentence (most language analysts stick to the term "sentence" but actually they mean "utterance").

3. Informative structure of the utterance.

In English, there is a "standard" word order of Subject + Verb + Object: The cat ate the rat– here we have a standard structure (N1 + V + N2). However, there are numerous other ways in which the semantic content of the sentence can be expressed:

1. The rat was eaten by the cat.
2. It was the cat that ate the rat.
3. It was the rat that the cat ate.
4. What the cat did was ate the rat.
5. The cat, it ate the rat.

Which of these options is actually selected by the writer or the speaker will depend on the context in which the utterance occurs and the importance of the information. One important consideration is whether the information has already been introduced before or it is assumed to be known to the reader or listener. Such information is referred to as giveninformation or the theme. It contrasts with information which is introduced for the first time and which is known as new information orthe rheme.

Informative structure of the utterance is one of the topics that still attract the attention of language analysts nowadays. It is well recognized that the rheme marking devices are:

1.Position in the sentence. As a rule new information in English generally comes last: The cat atethe rat.

2. Intonation.

3. The use of the indefinite article. However, sometimes it is impossible (as in 1): A gentlemanis waiting for you.

4. The use of 'there is', 'there are'. There isa catin the room.

5. The use of special devices, like 'as for', 'but for', etc.: As forhim, I don't know.

6. Inverted word order: Here comes the sun.

7. The use of emphatic constructions: It wasthe catthat ate the rat.

However, sometimes the most important information is not expressed formally: The cat ate the rat after all. The rheme here is 'the rat'. At the same time there is very important information which is hidden or implicit: the cat was not supposed to do it, or – it was hard for the cat to catch the rat, or – the cat is a vegetarian (this hidden information will depend on the context or situation). In other words, we may say that this sentence contains two informative centres, or two rhemes – explicit and implicit.

4. Functional typology of utterances.

Actional utterance: N + Vact. + Complement – actional predicate

Performative utterance: I + Vperf./Vsay – performative predicate
Characterizing utterance: N + Vbe + A/Q – characterizing predicate

Литература: [2 – P. 236 – 300;9 – P. 164 – 280; 4 – P. 80 – 129;5 – P. 50 – 60; 6 – P. 67 – 75].