

МИНИСТЕРСТВО ОБРАЗОВАНИЯ И НАУКИ РОССИЙСКОЙ ФЕДЕРАЦИИ

ФГБОУ ВО «ЛИПЕЦКИЙ ГОСУДАРСТВЕННЫЙ ПЕДАГОГИЧЕСКИЙ УНИВЕРСИТЕТ  
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ИНСТИТУТ ФИЛОЛОГИИ

**ТЕОРЕТИЧЕСКАЯ ГРАММАТИКА АНГЛИЙСКОГО ЯЗЫКА**

Практикум

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## **Lecture 1. THE SYSTEMIC CONCEPTION OF LANGUAGE**

1. Theoretical grammar vs traditional grammar.
2. The key notions of the structuralist model of language.
3. Language levels and language units.

### **1.**

The nature and purposes of Grammar as a branch of Linguistics are determined by the major stages in the history of Linguistics – pre-scientific and scientific. The grammar of the pre-scientific period (c. 4<sup>th</sup> c. BC – the mid 19<sup>th</sup> th c. AD) is called Traditional. The most typical characteristic of Traditional Grammar is its prescriptive character, i.e. prescribing rules of speaking and writing correctly and labelling certain forms as correct and others as ungrammatical (e.g. Practical Grammar).

Scientific grammars focus on a scientific analysis of grammatical phenomena. Their appearance was conditioned by the advent of Structural Linguistics in the early 20th c., which presented language as a system. As a kind of scientific grammar, Theoretical Grammar presents a theoretical description of the grammatical subsystem of language.

### **2.**

Structuralism originated in Linguistics in the late 19th c. Its founder was the Swiss linguist Ferdinand de Saussure. In the Course of General Linguistics Saussure makes four basic oppositions or dichotomies (a division / contrast between two mutually exclusive things):

- 1) signifier – signified;
- 2) synchrony – diachrony;
- 3) langue – parole;
- 4) syntagm – paradigm.

### **signifier – signified**

Saussure argued that language is a system of signs. A sign is any cultural symbol that conveys a meaning. The sign is made up of two elements – signifier and signified. The signifier indicates a signified. It is a sound or an image that signifies something. Thus the sign is the concrete relation between concept (signified) and sound / image (signifier). The sign is arbitrary. It means that there is no fixed set of signifiers corresponding to a fixed set of signifieds. In Linguistics the signified is also referred to as the plane of content, and the signifier – as the plane of expression.

### **synchrony – diachrony**

Linguistic synchrony is co-existence of language units at a particular point in time. Diachronic linguistics is the study of the history or evolution of language.

### **langue – parole (or language-speech dichotomy)**

Language is a system of means of expression. Speech is a manifestation of this system in the process of communication.

Language includes the body of material units (sounds, morphemes, words, word-groups) and a set of rules regulating their use. Speech includes the act of producing utterances and the utterances themselves.

### **syntagm –paradigm**

This dichotomy concerns the way signs relate to one another. Syntagmatic relations are immediate, linear (horizontal) relations existing between signs in a sequence. Syntagmatically connected are phonemes within morphemes, morphemes within words, words within word-groups and sentences, sentences within larger textual units.

e.g. The truest things are said in jest.

Unlike syntagmatic relations, paradigmatic relations are not immediate. They exist between elements of the system outside the sequences in which they co-occur.

e.g. The other students were informed earlier.

In the given example paradigmatic connections are observed between the definite article and the indefinite and zero article, the plural form 'students' and the singular form 'student', the comparative degree form 'earlier' and the positive and superlative degree forms of the same adverb etc.

The plane of the syntagm is that of the combination of 'this-and-this-and-this', whereas the plane of the paradigm is that of the selection of 'this-or-this-or-this'.

In Grammar, paradigmatic series express grammatical categorial meanings.

### 3.

The structuralist idea of language as a system also implies that

1) language is an integral unity of 3 subsystems – phonological, lexical and grammatical.

The phonological subsystem is a system of sounds which make up the material (phonetic) basis for the meaningful units of language. The lexical subsystem is a system of nominative language units. The grammatical subsystem is a system of regularities which determine the combination of nominative units in utterances.

Language is a hierarchical system which consists of language levels formed by the corresponding language units, and these levels are subordinated to one another.

I – phonemic. The unit of the level is the phoneme. The phoneme determines the material appearance of meaningful language units (signs). Phonemes have no meaning, their basic function is *differential* (phonemes differentiate morphemes).

II – morphemic, formed by morphemes. The morpheme is the elementary meaningful part of the word built up by phonemes. Unlike the word, the morpheme expresses an abstract, generalised meaning. Its function is *constitutive* (word-building).

III – lexemic, or the level of words. The word realises the function of *monomination* – it names simple referents (things and their relations).

IV – phrasemic, the unit is the phrase (word-group). The phrase performs the function of *polynomination* – it denotes complex referents (e.g. a thing and its quality, an action and its object etc.)

V – proposemic, formed by sentences. The sentence performs 2 functions – *nomination* (names a situation) and *predication* (relates the denoted event to reality)

VI – dictemic (supraproposemic) or the level of the text. The dicteme is an elementary topical unit of the text. It performs 4 functions – *nomination*, *predication*, *topicalisation* (develops a topic) and *stylisation* (gives the text a certain stylistic colouring).

The 6 levels mentioned above are formed by the so-called segmental units. Segmental units consist of phonemes (morphemes, words etc.). Suprasegmental units do not exist by themselves and are realised together with segmental units. They are intonation patterns, accents, pauses, word-order patterns.

Suprasegmental units do not form a hierarchy of levels. Their function is to express different shades of meanings realised by sequences of segmental units.

## **Lecture 2. MORPHOLOGY AND ITS BASIC NOTIONS**

1. The morphemic structure of the word.
2. The word as an object of Morphology.

### **1.**

Grammar (both practical and theoretical) is traditionally divided into Morphology and Syntax. Morphology is the branch of Grammar that deals with words, their structure, and how they are formed.

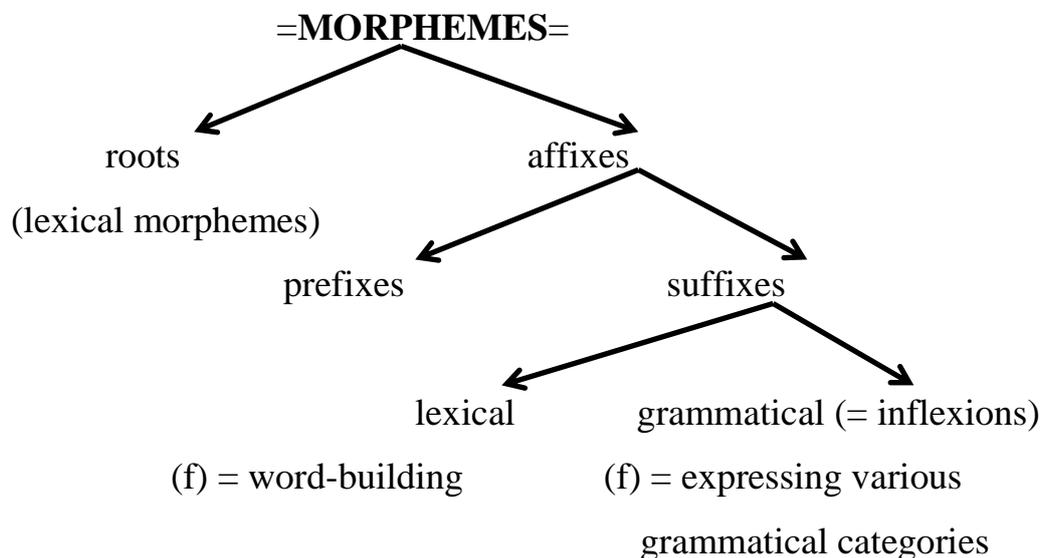
The basic unit of Morphology is the morpheme. The functional and structural complexity of the morpheme is revealed in a variety of its classifications.

**Functionally**, depending on whether morphemes are engaged in word-formation or expressing grammatical meanings/categories, they can be derivational and inflexional correspondingly (e.g. dis/cover/ed)

**Semantically**, depending on their correlative semantic contribution to the general meaning of the word, morphemes are classified into roots and affixes (re/read/s)

**Positionally**, depending on the location of marginal morphemes in relation to the central one, they are classified into suffixes and prefixes

The application of the abovementioned criteria results in the traditional classification of morphemes:



In Descriptive Linguistics the following classificational pairs of morphemes are identified:

- 1) free – bound;
- 2) overt – covert;
- 3) additive – replacive;
- 4) continuous – discontinuous.

Unlike **bound** morphemes, **free** morphemes can function as separate independent words.

e.g. tree / s → the morpheme *tree-* is free, whereas the morpheme *-s* is bound.

**Overt** morphemes are genuine explicit morphemes building up words. A **covert** morpheme is a contrastive meaningful absence of a morpheme expressing a certain function.

e.g. The word-form *tree* can be analysed as consisting of two morphemes – the overt morpheme *tree-* and a covert morpheme indicating the singular form of the noun in question:  $tree = tree- + -\emptyset_{sg}$ .

**Additive** morphemes are affixes. Thus, the morpheme *-s* in the word-form *trees* is additive – it is added to the root.

**Replacive** morphemes are root morphemes of grammatical interchange.

e.g. *man* – *men*, where the root morpheme *men* is replacive.

**Continuous** morphemes are expressed uninterruptedly. All the morphemes in the previous examples are continuous.

**Discontinuous** morphemes are two-element grammatical units which are identified in the analytical grammatical form and comprise an auxiliary word and a grammatical suffix.

e.g. **is talking**, where *is- ... -ing* is a discontinuous morpheme.

A morpheme is manifested as one or more morphs (surface forms) in different environments. These morphs are called allomorphs.

e.g. *book/s* – *dat/a* – *box/es* – *day/s*

Morphs can be **fused** and **amalgamated**. Fused morphs share 1 or more common phonemes (e.g. *real/ly*). Amalgamated morphs represent 2 or more morphemes simultaneously (e.g. *the girls' friends*).

In order to identify a morpheme, the following rules should be observed:

1) if two morphs occur in the same environments, but are different in form and meaning, they represent different morphemes. In this case they are said to be in contrastive distribution.

e.g. *speak/s* – *speak/ing*

2) if two morphs occur in the same environments, have different forms but render the same meaning, they represent one and the same morpheme. In this case they are said to be in non-contrastive distribution

e.g. learn/**ed** – learn/**t**

3) if two morphs occur in different environments, have different forms but render the same meaning, they are allomorphs/free variants of 1 and the same morpheme. In this case they are said to be in complementary distribution

e.g. criteri/**a** – desk/**s**

4) if one part of the word is identified as a morph, the remaining part is also a morph

e.g. sub/mit [**sub**divide, **sub**vert; **per**mit, **comm**it]

5) every word has at least one root morpheme; some have more than one (e.g. morphology)

6) one and the same sequence of phonemes can make up an independent morph or can be part of a morph. In order to see which case it is, it's necessary to establish systemic connections between the morphs of the word under analysis and the same morphs in other environments

e.g. teacher, thunder [teach-+-er (worker, interpreter, dancer); thunder – \*thund-+-er]

## 2.

The word is, by definition, the other basic object of Morphology, since it is its structure that Morphology studies.

Theoretical Grammar studies patterns of changes in the forms of a word necessary for adequate communication.

The regular/systemic character of these changes is conditioned by the fact that apart from lexical meaning, words render abstract generalised meanings, characteristic not of an individual word, but of a whole class of words (e.g. the idea of number/case/tense etc.). They are called *grammatical categorial meanings*. In every language there are special grammatical forms expressing these meanings.

A set of correlated grammatical forms expressing a categorial meaning is called a **paradigm**. A system of expressing a generalised grammatical meaning by means of paradigmatically correlated grammatical forms is called a **grammatical category**.

A grammatical paradigm consists of contrasted (mutually exclusive) grammatical forms, which means that any grammatical category is oppositional by nature and can be represented by a grammatical opposition.

A **grammatical opposition** is a generalised correlation of lingual forms by means of which some function is expressed. Any grammatical category is oppositional by nature.

e.g. past/present/future tense → past – non-past; present – non-present; future-non-future

According to their quality, oppositions can be **privative**, **gradual** and **equipollent**. By the number of members contrasted they are divided into **binary**, **ternary**, etc. The most important type is the privative binary opposition, as all the other types are reducible to it.

A privative binary opposition is formed by a contrasted pair of members one of which has a certain feature called “the mark”, while the other – the unmarked member – is characterised by the absence of this feature.

e.g. |b| - |p|; -day – days+

A gradual opposition is formed by a contrasted pair of members expressing the same feature but to a different degree.

e.g. big – bigger – the biggest

An *equipollent opposition* is formed by a group of members distinguished by different positive features

e.g. /t/ - /m/; he – they

In speech categorial oppositions are subjected to the process of oppositional reduction. Oppositional reduction (substitution) consists in the usage of one member of the opposition in the position of the countermember. Functionally, there are two types of oppositional reduction: neutralisation and transposition.

In the case of **neutralisation** one member of the opposition is placed in the contextual conditions typical of its countermember and, as a result, becomes fully identified with it, i.e. acquires its function.

e.g. The computer has changed our lifestyle.

In the case of **transposition** the transposed member retains its own function and simultaneously performs the function of its countermember. This explains why the phenomenon of transposition is always stylistically coloured.

e.g. You are always arguing with me.

The means employed to express categorial grammatical meanings are traditionally divided into synthetic and analytical, that's why grammatical forms are classified as synthetic and analytical correspondingly.

Synthetic grammatical forms are realised by inner morphemic composition of the word. They are based on

1) inner inflexion (vowel interchange)

e.g. woman – women, take – took;

2) suppletivity (grammatical interchange of word roots)

e.g. go – went;

3) outer inflexion (affixation)

e.g. think – thinks.

An analytical grammatical form is usually defined as a combination of an auxiliary word with a basic word. A number of linguists insist that analytical forms should necessarily be grammatically idiomatic. Pr. Ivanova puts forward the following criteria of idiomaticity:

1) the meaning of each element of an analytical form doesn't determine the meaning of the whole form;

2) there can't be any syntactic relations between the elements of an analytical form;

3) the elements of an analytical form can't have independent syntactic relations with the other sentence members.

Considered in this light, adjectival and adverbial AF of comparison are free word-combinations, since their elements retain their meanings.

Yet, some linguists claim that the basic differential feature of analytical grammatical forms is not grammatical idiomaticity but discontinuity of form.

### **Lecture 3. THE NOUN AND ITS CATEGORIES**

1. The noun as a part of speech.
2. The category of gender.
3. The category of number.
4. The category of case.
5. The category of article determination.

#### **1.**

The noun as a part of speech has the categorial meaning of substance/thingness, due to which the noun can isolate properties of substances (qualities, actions, states) and present them as substances.

e.g. useful information → the *usefulness* of the information, to arrive in time → a timely *arrival*, to feel elated → to feel *elation*

The most typical derivational suffixes of the English noun are *-er*, *-ness*, *-ity*, *-(t)ion*, *-ment*, *-ance*.

The inflexion *-s* marks the English noun in the categories of number and case. The category of article determination is non-inflexional (analytical). The category of gender in Modern English has lost its grammatical character.

English nouns combine with nouns in the common and genitive cases, adjectives, adverbs (rarely) and finite verbs, displaying 3 types of combinability – prepositional, non-prepositional and casual (possessive)

e.g. *to ask for help, to read a book, a dress rehearsal, the student's answer*

The typical syntactic functions of the Noun are those of the subject and object. But actually, the noun can perform any function in the sentence (except for the finite predicate, performed by a finite verb only), i.e. it can also perform the functions of the attribute, adverbial modifier and nounal predicative (the nominal part of a compound nominal predicate).

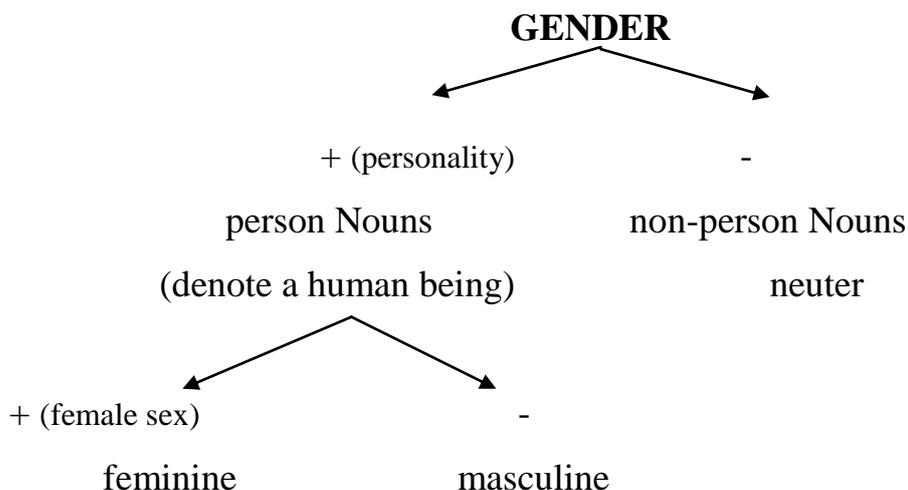
The class of nouns is further subdivided into five groups on the basis of their formal and semantic peculiarities:

- a) proper – common nouns (according to the type of nomination);
- b) animate – inanimate nouns (according to the type of existence);
- c) human – non-human (according to the form of existence);
- d) countable – uncountable nouns (according to their quantitative structure);
- e) concrete – abstract nouns (the latter denoting non-material objects).

2. The existence of the category of gender in English is denied by many linguists due to its semantic character. This category is called purely semantic because it has no grammatical forms of expression (like *-s* marking the plural form in the category of number or the discontinuous morpheme “*be ...-en*” marking the passive form in the category of voice, etc.)

In English the category of gender is expressed by means of the obligatory correlation of a noun with a 3<sup>rd</sup> person singular personal pronoun: *a mother* → *she*, *a husband* → *he*, *a road* → *it*. That's why 3<sup>rd</sup> person personal pronouns are considered

to be specific gender-classifiers of nouns. The category of gender in English is represented by two hierarchically arranged oppositions:



As a result of the double oppositional correlation a specific system of 3 genders arises: the neuter, the masculine and the feminine genders.

Some English nouns can express both the feminine and the masculine genders by means of pronominal correlation\*. They are called “common gender nouns”.

e.g. a colleague, a friend, a doctor

Besides, there are a few lexemes and lexical suffixes which can express gender distinctions of English nouns:

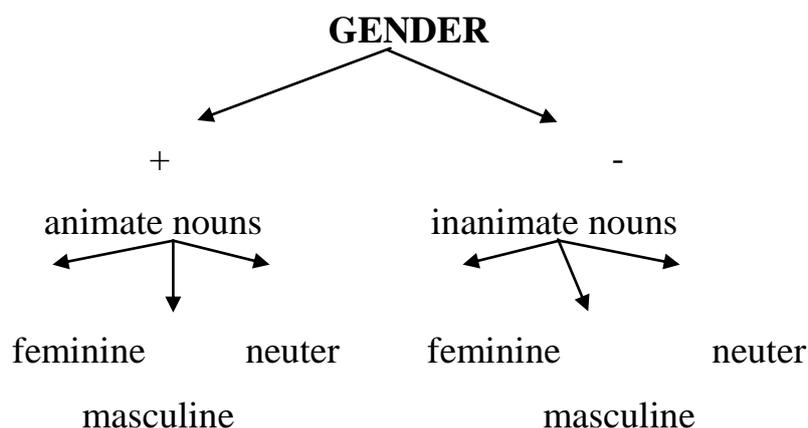
e.g. a **bull**-calf – a **cow**-calf (теленок – телка); a **boy**-friend – a **girl**-friend; an actor – an **actress**

(Yet, these are not grammatical means, that’s why the category of Gender in Modern English remains semantic.)

In Russian, the category of gender is also hierarchical, but its nature is different:

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\* pronominal correlation = correlation with a pronoun



As is seen from the pictures, in English the category of gender is meaningful, because it reflects the actual gender distinctions of the named objects. In Russian it is only partially meaningful, because the subdivision of the set of inanimate nouns into feminine, masculine and neuter is groundless.

### Oppositional reduction

#### *Neutralisation*

In the plural all gender distinctions are neutralised.

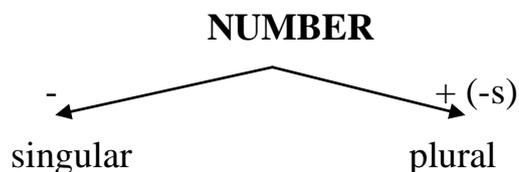
#### *Transposition*

The process of transposition takes place when non-person nouns are correlated with the personal pronouns “he” and “she”.

e.g. Nature generously shares **her** wealth with people.

This process is also called *personification*.

3. The English category of number is represented by the following opposition:



Traditionally, the meaning of the weak member of the opposition (the singular form) was interpreted as “one”, whereas the meaning of the strong member of the opposition (the plural form) – “more than one”.

Yet, this definition doesn't work in a number of cases. Thus, in the sentence *Here you can buy the best teas from all over the world* the lexeme "teas" can't mean "more than one tea". That's why in modern linguistics the meaning conveyed by the plural form is interpreted as **the denotation of the potentially dismembering reflection of the referent structure**. Correspondingly, the meaning of the singular – as **the non-dismembering reflection of the referent structure**.

The suffix *-s* is the standard marker of the strong member of the opposition, i.e. the plural. All the other suffixes indicating the plural (*oxen*, *criteria*, *formulae*, *nuclei*, etc.) are its free variants, i.e. allomorphs.

The interpretation of the categorial meaning of the plural mentioned above is very general. In fact, the plural can express various meanings depending on the context. There exist the following semantic varieties of the plural:

- 1) the standard plural (a class – classes);
- 2) the plural denoting a fixed set of objects (the eyes of a face, the hands of a clock);
- 3) the plural expressing various types of the referent (wine – wines);
- 4) the repetition plural, intensifying the idea expressed (miles and miles away, hundreds upon hundreds);
- 5) the descriptive plural, stressing the picturesqueness of the referent (the waters of the Atlantic);
- 6) the lexicalised plural, characterised by a notional difference in meaning (pain – боль, pains – усилия; a colour – цвет, colours – флаги);
- 7) Pluralia Tantum<sup>1</sup> nouns – or absolute plural nouns – nouns always used in the plural. Opposed to them are Singularia Tantum nouns, or absolute singular nouns, i.e. nouns always used in the singular. To express the idea of quantity with such nouns, the speaker should use the so-called partitives – countable nouns, showing the amount/number of the given object(s).

e.g. advice – 2 **pieces** of advice, bread – a **slice** of bread, trousers – 3 **pairs** of trousers, etc.

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<sup>1</sup> tantum (Latin) = only

## **Oppositional reduction**

### ***Neutralisation***

1) takes place when countable nouns begin to function as absolute singular nouns.

e.g. She had 5 aquarium fish (*countable*). – Do they serve fish (*uncountable, denoting a dish*) here?

2) takes place when countable nouns begin to function as absolute plural nouns.

e.g. The committee (*usually countable, in this sentence it functions as an absolute plural noun*) were unanimous in their decision.

3) takes place when a singular countable noun denotes the whole class of similar objects.

e.g. The tiger is a predator. (All tigers are predators)

### ***Transposition***

Here refer cases of using the descriptive and the repetition plural:

e.g. the sands of the desert (the descriptive uncountable plural is used as a countable noun in the plural form)

e.g. They searched house after house. (The repetition plural used here has 2 meanings: 1) more than one; 2) many, but 1 at a time).

**4.** In the discussion of the category of case in English 4 views are usually considered.

I – *the theory of positional cases* (теория позиционных падежей)

According to this theory, the English noun, by analogy with Latin Grammar, has the inflexional Genitive case and four non-inflexional, purely positional cases – Nominative (the case form of the noun performing the function of the subject in the sentence), Accusative (the case form of the noun performing the function of the direct or indirect prepositional object in the sentence), Dative (the case form of the noun performing the function of the indirect object in the sentence) and Vocative (the case form of the noun performing the function of the direct address in the sentence).

This theory is criticised because it mixes up the syntactic and the morphological characteristics of the noun.

## II – *the theory of prepositional cases* (теория предложных падежей)

In the light of this theory, combinations of nouns with prepositions in certain object and attributive collocations are understood as morphological case forms. In particular, it distinguishes the Dative case (to + N, for + N → to the family, for the people) and the Genitive Case (of + N → of the book), which are said to co-exist with the inflexional Genitive case and the 4 positional cases mentioned above.

The disadvantage of this theory is that it is inconsistent and limited in the scope of analysis, because it only studies for-to-of + Noun phrases and doesn't analyse other prepositional phrases which also express casual meanings\*.

## III – *the limited case theory*

It is the most widely spread view on the category of case in English. It recognizes the existence in English of a limited case system comprising the strong form - the Genitive case (which is treated as inflexional because -'s is considered to be a grammatical suffix) and the weak form – the Common case.

## IV – *the post-positional theory*

It is based on the assumption that in the course of its historical development the English noun lost the morphological category of case\*. That's why the traditional genitive case is treated as a combination of a noun with a postposition, i.e. as a grammatical form of the word with a particle. The following arguments are put forward to prove that -'s is not a grammatical suffix, but a particle:

1) -'s can be added not only to nouns, but also to phrases and even clauses

e.g. Eric's child (noun + -'s)

my elder brother Eric's child (phrase + -'s)

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\* with the knife – instrumental case, in the house – locative case, and so on

\* a morphological category means that certain inflexions are needed for its expression

The blonde I have been dancing with's name was Bernice something – Crabs or Krebs. (clause + -'s)

2) -'s is used not only with nouns, but also with adverbs and some pronouns

e.g. yesterday's newspaper, somebody else's answer

That's why -'s can't be treated as a grammatical suffix marking the category of case in NOUNS.

Prof. Blokh's treatment of the category of case is based on the advantages of the limited case system and the postpositional theory. According to it, in modern English there exists a 2-case system of the noun: the Common Case (which he terms the Direct Case) and the Genitive case (or the Oblique Case). Thus, unlike the supporters of the postpositional theory, the scholar doesn't deny the existence of the Genitive case in modern English. Yet, he agrees that the expression of the Genitive case is based on a particle, i.e. that -'s is not an inflexion but a particle.

The Oblique Case is subsidiary to the syntactic system of prepositional phrases, as the Genitive case is mostly used with nouns denoting human beings and animals, whereas *of-phrase* is not restricted in usage.

e.g. the child's hand or the hand of the child, BUT the hand of the clock (NOT the clock's hand)

Prof. Blokh claims that the Genitive case renders the categorial meaning of **appurtenance**, which is broader than the traditionally recognised meaning of possessiveness.

The categorial semantics of appurtenance is so wide in range that it is possible to single out several semantic types of the Genitive Case:

1) the Genitive of possessor

e.g. my uncle's house (= the house belongs to my uncle)

2) the Genitive of integer (or organic possession, i.e. a part organically belongs to a whole)

e.g. the hotel's lobby (= the lobby belongs to the hotel as its part), Madonna's voice

3) the Genitive of the agent (= the noun in the genitive case is the doer of the action implied)

e.g. the singer's arrival (= the singer arrived), the child's smile (= the child smiled)

4) the Genitive of the author

e.g. Pushkin's poem (= Pushkin is the author of the poem), the committee's report (=the committee has compiled/prepared the report)

5) the Genitive of patient (the noun in the genitive case is the recipient of the action)

e.g. the Titanic's tragedy (= the Titanic suffered a tragedy), the shop's owner (the shop is owned by a person)

6) the Genitive of destination (the noun in the genitive case denotes the addressee/destination of the action)

e.g. women's magazine (=a magazine published for women), children's clothes (=clothes produced for children)

7) the Genitive of quantity

e.g. an hour's delay (= a delay that lasted an hour), two months' time (a period of 2 months)

8) the Genitive of adverbial

e.g. yesterday's meeting (= the meeting that took place yesterday)  
and some others.

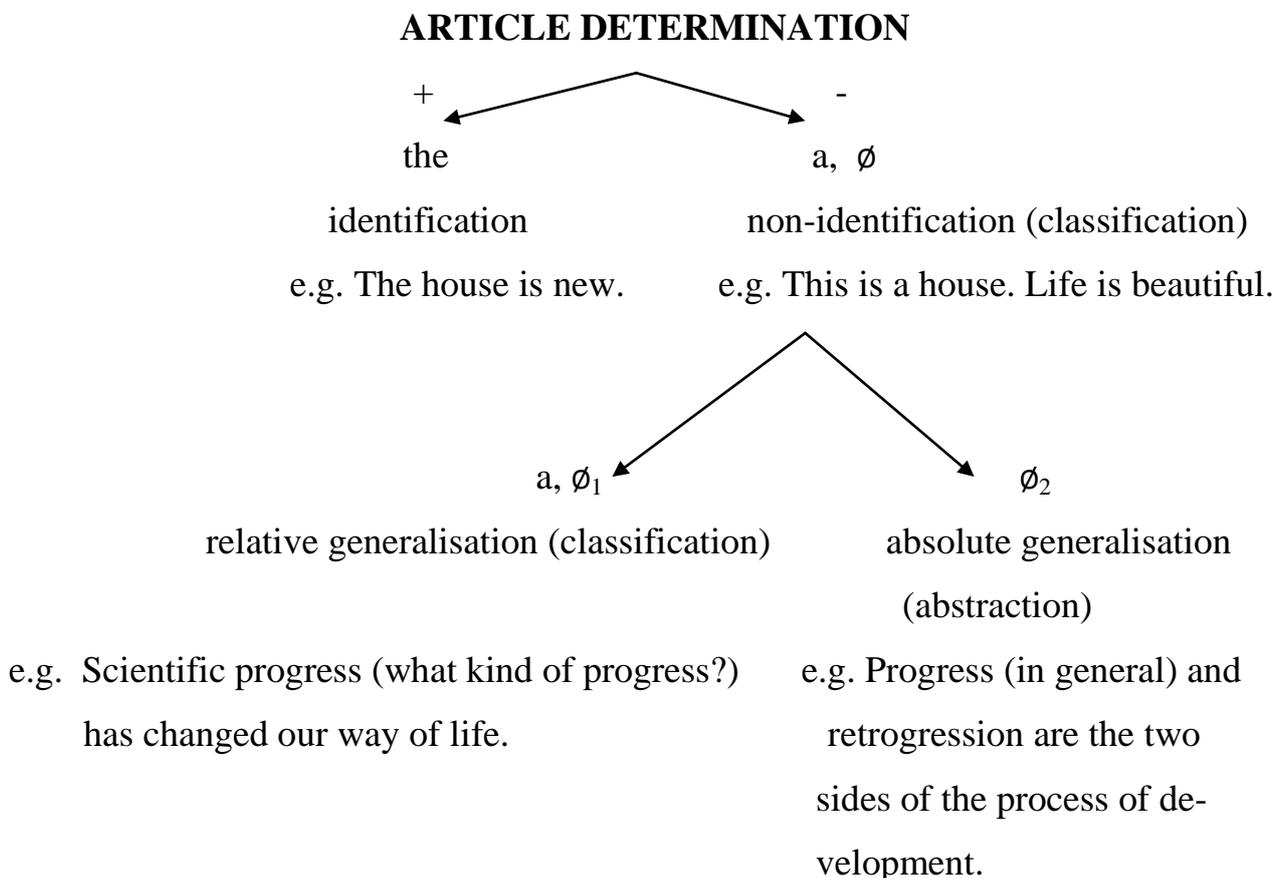
## 5.

Definiteness is a universal language category concerned with the grammaticalisation of identifiability and non-identifiability of referents on the part of a speaker. Definite identifiability indicates that a referent is in some way identifiable to both speaker and addressee. The referent is identifiable because of a shared knowledge or situation, including a previous mention of the referent.

Opposed to definiteness is indefiniteness, indicating that the referent(s) of an expression is not presumed to be identifiable. The referent is not identifiable because of a lack of shared knowledge or situation, including no previous mention of the referent.

Different languages have different means of expressing this category. Grammatically, the English category of definiteness/indefiniteness is realised through a system of articles. Expressed in this way, the category in question is sometimes called the category of article determination.

The category of article determination in English is represented by the following opposition:



As is seen from the picture, the system of articles in Modern English comprises 3 articles: the definite article, the indefinite article and the zero article.

The definite article conveys the meaning of identification or individualisation, i.e. it shows that the object denoted is taken in its concrete, individual quality.

e.g. Take the book ( =not any book, but the one you see/ I'm giving you/ I'm pointing at, etc.)

The indefinite article has the meaning of classification, i.e. it classifies/presents the denoted object as one of similar objects of the corresponding class of objects.

e.g. Take a pen (= any pen).

The zero article can effect both relative and absolute generalisation. In case of absolute generalisation the zero article expresses the most general idea of the object denoted.

Cf: Coffee or tea, Alice? (relative generalisation: a kind of beverage served at table is meant)

Coffee stimulates the function of the heart. (absolute generalisation: coffee in general)

Thus, the general function of the article consists in relating the denoted object to a stretch of reality represented in the given text. This explains why in speech any English noun is always modified by a certain article. In other words, any English noun in a textual stretch (a sentence, a text) is not only a word-form possessing numerical, gender and case features, but also a unit, characterised from the point of view of article determination. That's why the article is treated as a peculiar kind of grammatical auxiliary, expressing the category of article determination, so the combination Art + N is basically analytical.

Non-conventional use of articles with proper nouns is always transpositional.

e.g. It was not the Jane I used to know. → *A case of transposition in the category of article determination*

## Lecture 4. THE CATEGORIAL SYSTEM OF THE VERB

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

**1.** The categories of person and number are closely interconnected and thus should be studied together. The peculiarity of these categories is that they are reflective, i.e. they don't convey verbal semantics (which is process presented dynamically), but reflect in the verb the personal and numerical features of the subject referent.

Traditionally, linguists identify 3 verbal persons and 2 numbers. But the semantic and formal analysis of the person-number forms of 3 morphologically different groups of English verbs enables one to single out 6 person-number categorial forms. These groups are: 1) modal verbs, 2) the verb *to be*, 3) all the other verbs.

The first level of analysis aims to see how these categories are expressed formally, i.e. to find out what morphological forms (inflexions or analytical means) are used to express them. The analysis is restricted to the Present Indicative, because it is in this tense-mood form that person-number distinctions are clearly expressed.

### The analysis of the verbal categories of person and number on **formal** lines

	Person	Number
modal verbs	non-personal, because this category is completely neutralised or unexpressed in modal verbs	not grammatically featured

to be	2-personal, because it has 2 marked person forms in the system of the verb “to be” – “am” and “is”. The form “are” can’t be taken into account because it can mark the 1 <sup>st</sup> person (we) the 2 <sup>nd</sup> person (you) and the 3 <sup>rd</sup> person (they)	not grammatically featured, because the form “are” can refer both to the 2 <sup>nd</sup> person singular and the 2 <sup>nd</sup> person plural
all the other verbs	1-personal, because these verbs have only one marked form – the 3 <sup>rd</sup> person: e.g. he knows*	not grammatically featured, because the suffix –s expresses not only number, but also tense, mood and <u>person</u> distinctions of the verb*

On the second level of analysis the semantics (i.e. the meaning) of the person-number categorial forms is established. The category of person in verbs expresses the relation between the speaker, the listener(s) and other persons or things. The category of number expresses the quantity of the subjects (one or more than one).

Thus, 1<sup>st</sup> person singular is the denotation of the speaker by the speaker; 2<sup>nd</sup> person singular is the denotation of the listener by the speaker; 3<sup>rd</sup> person singular is the denotation of a person or thing that is neither the speaker nor the listener; 1<sup>st</sup> person plural denotes the speaker and the group of people, to which he/she belongs; 2<sup>nd</sup> person plural denotes the group of the speaker’s listeners; 3<sup>rd</sup> person plural denotes people or things that are neither the speaker nor the listener.

As each person-number form has its own semantics, 6 person-number forms can be identified. It means that in the paradigm *I speak /we speak/ you speak/ you speak / he (she, it) speaks / they speak* the seemingly identical verbal forms “speak” are grammatically different.

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\* the idea that –s marks the category of person and doesn’t mark the category of number is debatable, because the pre-eminence of the category of person to the category of number doesn’t seem grounded

2. The category of tense is an immanent verbal category, because the meaning of process rendered by the verb is fully realised only in certain time conditions. In an utterance these time conditions can be expressed both lexically and grammatically.

Lexical expression of time can be absolute (present-oriented) and non-absolute (non-present-oriented).

*Absolute time denotation* characterises the action as referring to the past (if it precedes the present moment, i.e. the moment of speech), to the present (if it includes the moment of speech) or to the future (if it follows the moment of speech).

e.g. *yesterday, soon, now, in the future*

*Relative time denotation* is not present-oriented. It means that it does not characterise an action depending on its orientation towards the present moment (i.e. the moment of speech). Relative time denotation correlates 2 or more events showing some of them as either preceding or following the others or happening at the same time with them.

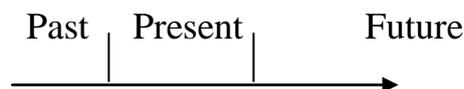
e.g. *after that, before that, at one and the same time with, some time later*

Relative time denotation can also be effected through astronomical time of an event or historical landmarks.

e.g. *in 2001, during WW II, in Mesozoic era*

Lexical expression of time is insufficient without grammatical time denotation, expressed by the verbal category of tense.

Traditionally, tenses are presented as linear forms, corresponding to the main stages of any process development:



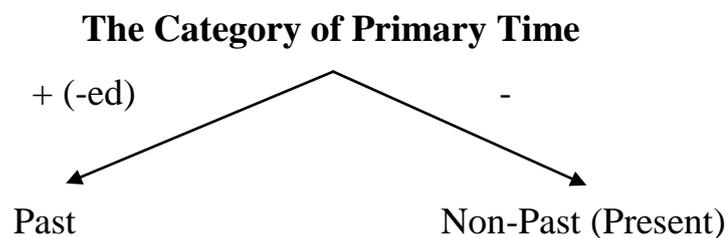
Yet, this interpretation can't explain the existence of the Future-in-the-Past. As the Future-in-the-Past is difficult to interpret, it is often excluded from the analysis of English tenses. Some linguists recognise only 2 tense forms – the past and the present (e.g. Prof. Barkhudarov), thus making the analysis of the Future-in-the-Past unneces-

sary. According to them, Future forms are not tense forms, but free word-combinations with modal shades of meaning (*will* expresses volition, determination, *shall* – promise, threat, warning). (Yet, not every *shall* / *will*+*V* combination has a modal meaning. Besides, *will* has a modal meaning only when it is used with a 1st person subject, and *shall* – with the 2<sup>nd</sup> and 3<sup>rd</sup> person subjects. Finally, *shall* and *will* as markers of future forms are often reduced to the contracted – ‘ll-form.)

Prof. Blokh’s interpretation of the category of tense doesn’t deny the independent status of Future tenses and explains the existence of the Future-in-the-Past.

According to the scholar, the category of tense in English is based on 2 categorial oppositions: 1) the category of primary time and 2) the category of prospective time.

The category of Primary time expresses a direct retrospective evaluation of the time of the process. This category is absolute – it is present-oriented, i.e. time denotation is effected with reference to the moment of speech.



## **Oppositional reduction**

### ***Transposition***

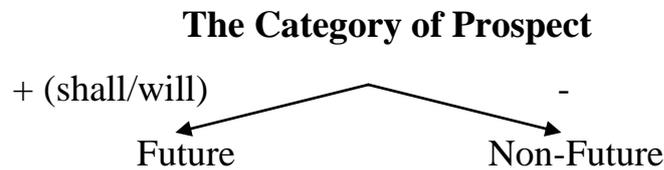
a) historic present (the speaker uses the present tense forms to describe a past event in order to make the description more vivid)

e.g. I looked out the window and there I see a group of people.

b) the ‘preterite of modesty (the speaker uses the past tense forms instead of the present tense forms in order to sound polite/less categorical).

e.g. I wondered if you remember me.

The category of **Prospective Time** (or Prospect) is relative, as it characterises the action from the point of view of its correlation with another action. This category gives the time process a prospective evaluation.



As the future tense can be relative either to the present or to the past, it can acquire 2 different forms: the Future-in-the-Present and the Future-in-the-Past.

### ***Oppositional reduction***

#### Neutralisation

- 1) the use of the Present instead of the Future when one is speaking about plans, schedules, etc.
- 2) cases of obligatory neutralization in subordinate clauses of time and condition, when Future tense forms are replaced by the Present.

**3.** Verbal aspective meanings can be rendered both lexically and grammatically. Lexical aspective meanings are in-built in the semantics of the verb.

Cf: to arrive, to reach (completion, achievement) – to exist, to sleep (non-completion, duration)

Grammatical aspective meanings are expressed by special morphological forms referring to the category of aspect. The category of aspect reflects the inherent mode of the realisation of the process irrespective of its timing.

Traditionally the category of aspect is associated with the opposition of Continuous and Indefinite forms. The categorial meaning of the Continuous is defined as “duration” or “action in progress”. As to the categorial meaning of the Indefinite, it is interpreted as a form of a vague content (Prof. Vorontsova), a form with no aspective

meaning (Prof. Ivanova) or as a form stressing the fact of the performance of the action (Prof. Smirnitsky).

Continuous forms were treated by different linguists

- a) as temporal forms (Proff. Sweet, Jespersen, Irtenyeva), with the categorial meaning of simultaneity of an action with another action. BUT
  - 1) if it's a tense form, how can 2 different tenses co-exist in 1 form of the Present/Past/Future Continuous?;
  - 2) the Continuous is not a tense form because it doesn't denote the timing of the action (*e.g. is speaking – was speaking → the forms only differ in the timing, their aspective characteristics being the same*);
  - 3) simultaneity with another action is only rendered by the Continuous when the narration refers to the past;
  - 4) the co-existence of the Perfect (always denoting priority) with the Continuous in Perfect Continuous forms would be impossible if the basic meaning of the Continuous was “simultaneity”, but not “action in progress”. (Otherwise, how can an action be prior and simultaneous at the same time?)
- b) as temporal-aspective forms (Prof. Ivanova). According to this interpretation, the category of aspect exists in Modern English in the form of the Continuous aspect, whereas Indefinite forms are not aspective. Thus, some Continuous verbal forms (Past/Present/Future Continuous) are said to be aspective-temporal, whereas Indefinite forms are called purely tense forms. BUT the expression of a grammatical category is oppositional, so the seeming absence of any categorial meaning in the Indefinite forms doesn't contradict the essence of the category of aspect. Moreover, the Continuous can't be identified as a categorial form without the Indefinite, serving as the basis for categorial contrast.
- c) aspective forms (Proff. Ilyish, Barkhudarov, Blokh). In the light of this approach, the opposition Continuous – Simple is strictly aspective, because it doesn't denote the timing of the process, but reveals its inherent characteristics.

The interpretation of Perfect/Non-Perfect forms is a disputable question in theoretical grammar. Linguists treated them as

a) tense forms with the categorial meaning of a secondary temporal characteristic of the action – it shows that the denoted action precedes some other action in the past/present/future (Sweet, Jespersen, Irtenyeva). On the one hand, it's a sound idea - enough to recollect the definitions of the Present/Past/Future Perfect forms: it's always the denotation of some action preceding another moment/action in the past/present/future.

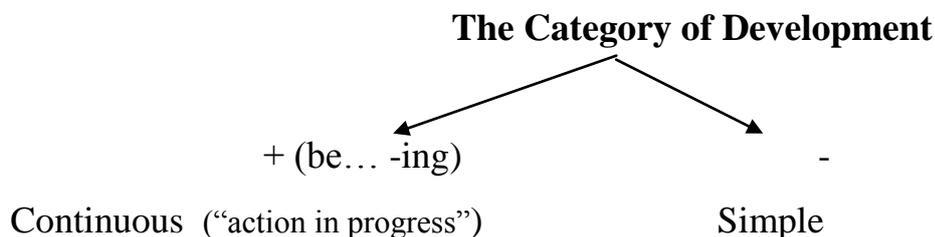
BUT 1) this approach underestimates the aspective function of the Perfect, which is presenting an action as successively connected with a certain time limit 2) if it's a tense form, then the Present/Past/Future Perfect would be a union of 2 tense forms, which is impossible.

b) aspective forms (Vorontsova, West) with the categorial meaning of transmission of a pre-situation to a post-situation. The Perfect conveys the meanings of result, completion. Yet, this approach underestimates the temporal meaning of the Perfect, which is rendered together with the meaning of result. Besides, if it's an aspective form, how can two aspects co-exist in one Perfect Continuous form?

c) tense-aspect forms, opposed to the Indefinite, which is devoid of any temporal and aspective functions (Ivanova)

d) a special category of correlation, represented by the opposition of Perfect – Non-Perfect forms (Prof. Smirnitsky). Acc. to Prof. Smirnitsky, the Perfect is neither a tense nor an aspect, and can't be reduced to either of them. It shows that an action denoted by a perfect form precedes some moment in time. The functioning of the category of correlation in the system of the English verb was shown by Prof. Smirnitsky as a three-dimensional parallelepiped.

According to Prof. Blokh, in Modern English there are 2 aspective categories – the category of Development and the category of Retrospective coordination.



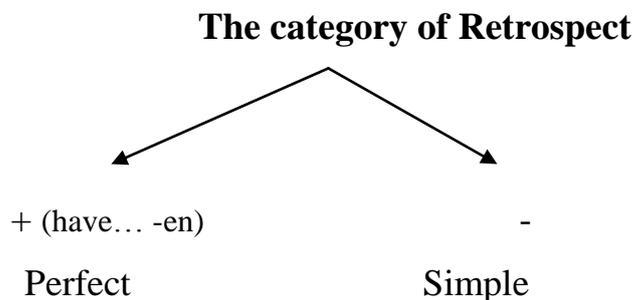
### ***Oppositional reduction***

#### Neutralisation

- a) unlimitive verbs (that is, verbs presenting a process as incomplete) are neutralised when the continuity of action is indicated by context.  
e.g. The night was silent. The snow fell in soft flakes.
- b) obligatory neutralisation of the verbs *to be*, *to have*, verbs of physical and mental perceptions (so-called “verbs never used in the Continuous”)

#### Transposition

- a) the use of the Continuous to denote habitual actions  
e.g. He is always losing his key.
- b) the continuous use of verbs never used in the Continuous



The Perfect has a mixed categorial meaning: 1) it expresses priority and 2) it shows the connection of a prior process with the time limit in a subsequent event.

## ***Oppositional reduction***

Neutralisation

a) the use of the Past Simple instead of the Present Perfect

e.g. I never met such people. (Instead of: I have never met such people.)

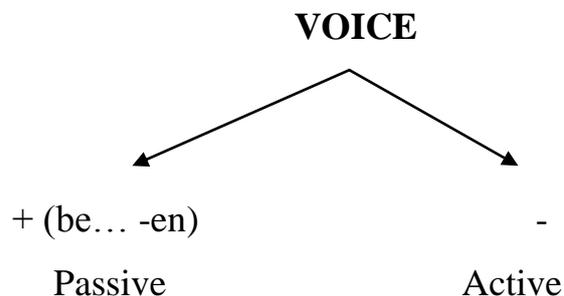
b) the use of the Present Simple instead of the Present Perfect with the verbs of physical and mental perceptions:

e.g. I hear you're going abroad? (Instead of: I have heard you're going abroad?)

## **The problem of the Perfect Continuous forms**

Previously linguists failed to interpret its meaning, because the Perfect Continuous seemed to be either marked twice in one and the same category (provided that both Continuous and Perfect forms were recognised as aspective) or to have a mixed temporal-aspective nature (if the Perfect was treated as a tense form). The recognition of two different aspective categories gives the Perfect Continuous a sound interpretation, according to which this form has 2 positive markers: one in the category of Development and one in the category of Retrospect.

5. The category of voice shows the direction of the process as regards the participants of the situation reflected in a sentence.



The category of voice has a wider representation in English than in Russian, because in English both transitive and intransitive can be passivised.

e.g. The house was not lived in.

At the same time, the passive form is alien to many verbs denoting the state of their subject (statal verbs) – *to exist, to have* etc. Thus, depending on their relation to the passive voice all the verbs can be divided into passivised and non-passivised.

The category of voice has a peculiar semantics which reveals the subjective evaluation of the situation by the speaker.

**Cf:** The father punished the boy. (The focus is on the father's action)

The boy was punished by the father. (The focus is on the boy's experience)

A vexed problem in connection with voice identification in English is the problem of the so-called “medial voices”. The following medial voices are recognised:

1) the reflexive voice (the subject is the object of the action)

e.g. The child dried himself.

2) the reciprocal voice (the actions are performed by subject constituents reciprocally)

e.g. They met each other.

3) the middle voice (the action is going on as if of its own accord”)

e.g. The door opened.

As is seen from the examples, the problem arises from the discrepancy between the meaning of the verb (passive) and its form (active).

Some linguists considered reciprocal and reflexive pronouns to be specific voice auxiliaries marking the reciprocal and reflexive voice correspondingly. But one should remember that these forms (the pronouns) are phrasal derivative, but not grammatically relevant.

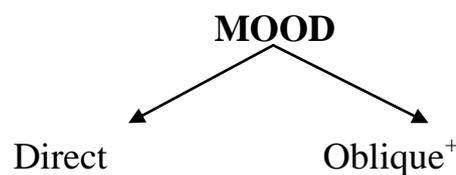
Today most scholars consider that the recognition of the medial voices is not well-grounded. Prof. Blokh treats the medial voices as cases of a peculiar neutralisation of the voice opposition. Its peculiarity is that the Active Voice form in the position of neutralisation does not fully coincide in function with the strong member (the

Passive form). In fact, it is located somewhere in between the functional borders of the opposition.

6. The category of mood expresses the character of connection between the process denoted by the verb and reality, either presenting the process as a fact that really happened, happens or will happen or treating it as an imaginary phenomenon which can be desirable/important/unbelievable, etc.

The best-known mood system of the English verb was worked out by Prof. Smirnitsky. He differentiates between the indicative, the imperative and the subjunctive mood. The indicative mood presents the action as real. The imperative mood expresses an urge to perform an action. The basic meaning of the subjunctive is non-reality.

Prof. Blokh suggests identifying the opposition of Direct and Oblique mood forms.



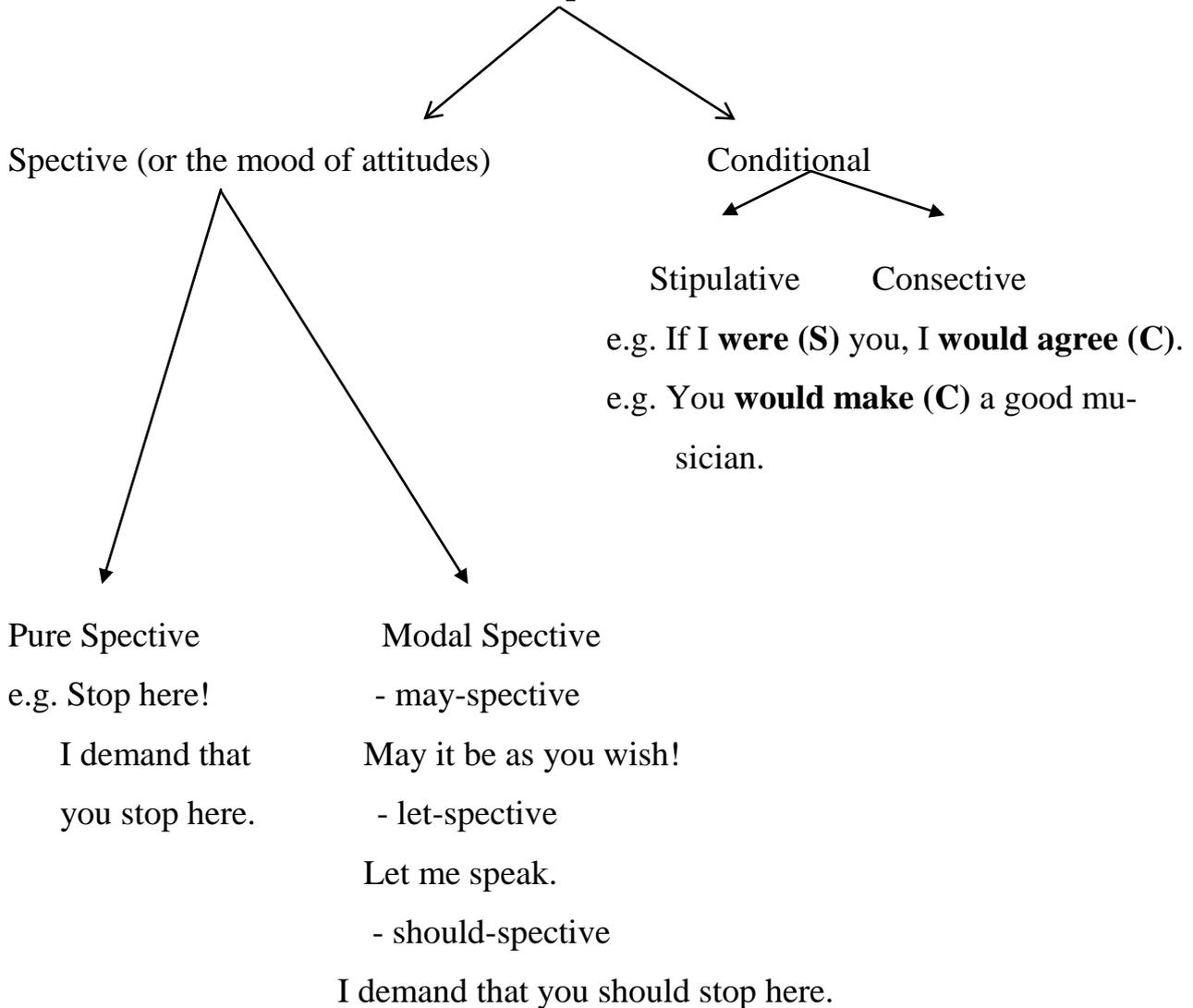
The Direct Mood is what is traditionally understood as the Indicative Mood. Its categorial meaning is reality. The strong member of the opposition – the Oblique Mood – comprises what is traditionally understood as the Imperative Mood and the Subjunctive Mood. Their categorial meaning is non-reality. The Oblique mood nature of the Imperative is clearly seen from the transformations of the type:

e.g. Come in. – I order you that you should come in.

Do as you are told! – I insist that you should do as you are told.

The system of Oblique mood forms in Prof. Blokh's interpretation can be represented as follows:

## Oblique Moods



The formal mark of the opposition is the tense-retrospect shift in the Subjunctive standing in opposition to the integral form of the indicative.

The shift consists in the perfect / imperfect aspect substituting for the past / present tense of the indicative.

## Lecture 5. MINOR SYNTAX. THE PHRASE

1. The phrase as the object of Minor Syntax
2. Types of syntactic relations and means of their expression
3. Structural approach to phrase study

### 1.

Syntax (from the Greek words *syn* (=together) and *tassein* (=arrange)) is the branch of Grammar that studies the rules by which words are combined to produce phrases and utterances. As is clear from the definition, the objects of Syntax are the phrase and the sentence. The grammatical study of the phrase is known as Minor Syntax. The grammatical study of the sentence is called Major Syntax.

In modern linguistics there is no clear-cut definition of the phrase. The widest possible interpretation of this term defines the phrase as a syntactically organised group of two or more words (which is not an analytical form of a word), whose constituents can be any part of speech and can be characterised by any kind of syntagmatic connections. The narrow definition of the phrase treats it as a syntactic group consisting of at least two notional words related to one another by means of subordination. This view excludes from analysis prepositional phrases, phrases based on coordination and predicative phrases. The phrase is also defined as a grammatical unit which is neither a word nor a clause/sentence. The demerit of this approach is that it doesn't characterise the phrase as an independent language unit.

The controversy over the definition of the phrase stems from its intermediate status between the word and the sentence. The phrase differs from the word in the following way:

- 1) in the function of nomination (mono- and polynomination);
- 2) the semantics of the phrase isn't a simple sum of the meanings of its constituents (e.g. black dress – black winter; a guest house [*a small house for guests on the property of a larger house*] – a house guest [*someone who is living with you in your house for a short time, for example a friend who is visiting you*]);

- 3) unlike the word, the constituents of a phrase may have syntactic functions outside a sentence (e.g. to buy flowers ).

The phrase differs from the sentence in the following way:

- 1) unlike the sentence, the phrase is a non-communicative unit as it has no communicative purpose and therefore no intonation of its own (Cf: the same phrase can be used in sentences with different communicative purpose – *Have you bought the flowers? I never buy flowers here. Do buy some flowers!*)
- 2) the phrase always consists of at least 2 words, whereas the sentence can consist of only 1 word (*Go!*)
- 3) unlike the phrase, the sentence reflects a fragment of reality and is related to it through the category of modality.

## 2.

Words in phrases (and sentences) are syntagmatically connected. Syntagmatic connections between words within word-groups are called syntactic relations. The major types of syntactic relations are coordination, subordination and predication.

**Coordination** arranges units as units of equal syntactic rank (i.e. they have similar grammatical features and do not depend on each other grammatically).

*e.g. brothers and sisters*

**Subordination** arranges units as units of unequal syntactic rank, i.e. they do not have similar syntactic functions, and one constituent of such a phrase (the head word/the kernel) subordinates the other(s) (the adjunct(s)).

*e.g. an interesting film*

**Predication** connects interdependent units. Predication can be of two kinds – primary and secondary. Primary predication is observed between the subject and the predicate of the sentence. Secondary predication is observed between non-finite forms of the verb and nominal elements, thus forming predicative phrases – gerundial, infinitive and participial word-groups.

*e.g. I'm reading // the lesson being over // good to know*

Types of syntactic connections shouldn't be confused with means of their expression. These are: agreement, government, adjoining (примыкание) and enclosure (замыкание).

In the case of **agreement** the head-word makes the adjunct (the subordinate word) take the same grammatical form.

*e.g. ясный день (м.р., ед.ч.) – ясная погода (ж.р., ед.ч.) – ясные глаза (м.р., мн.ч.)*

Agreement is widely spread in synthetic languages. In Modern English agreement is found in only phrases formed by nouns and demonstrative pronouns.

*e.g. this city – these cities*

Some grammarians argue that there is agreement between the subject and the predicate in the English sentence, but a careful analysis shows that this connection is more complicated than simple grammatical agreement. Prof. L.S. Barkhudarov suggests calling this phenomenon correspondence. It becomes particularly evident when the subject indicates plurality without any formal expression of the plural, and the verb corresponds to the semantics of the subject (or vice versa – when the singular form of the verb is used with the plural subject).

*e.g. The team were waiting for the coach.*

*Two months isn't a long time.*

In the case of **government** the use of a certain grammatical form of a subordinate word is required by the head-word, but this form doesn't coincide with the grammatical form of the head-word itself. The role of Government in Modern English is not very significant. It is observed in 3 cases:

1) when a personal pronoun is subordinate to a verb, it takes the objective case form

*e.g. they → to tell them*

2) when a noun serves as an attribute to another noun, it should take the form of the genitive case. Yet, often the noun is used in the common case.

*e.g. the government's plan – the government plan*

3) when the pronoun “who” is subordinate to a verb, it is used in the objective case (*whom*). Yet, in present-day English there is a strong tendency to use the form “who” instead of “whom”.

**Adjoining** (“примыкание”) was originally identified in Russian linguistics. It is defined as the absence of government and agreement.

*e.g. V+Adv (to study well) or Adv+Adv (terribly late) or Adv+Adj (very good)*

In the case of **enclosure** some elements are enclosed between 2 parts of a word-form.

*e.g. the old town, to strongly object*

To other means of expressing syntactic connections refer:

- prepositions;
- conjunctions;
- word-order.

### 3.

The structural approach to the study of the phrase takes into account morphological characteristics of the phrase constituents and the kind of syntactic relations they express.

Thus, according to the types of syntactic relations phrases can be *coordinate*, *subordinate* and *predicative*.

Coordinate phrases are characterised by a syntactic equality of their components: *ladies and gentlemen*.

Subordinate phrases are based on relation of dependence. Any subordinate phrase consists of a governing element which is called the head and the dependent element which is called the adjunct (in noun-phrases) or the complement (in verb-phrases).

According to the type of the head word, subordinate phrases fall into prepositional phrases (*in love*), noun phrases (*a new job*), verb phrases (*to like traveling*), adjective phrases (*full of joy*) adverbial phrases (*very carefully*) and pronoun phrases (*something new*).

Predicative word-groups based on interdependence consist of a nominal element (noun or pronoun) and a finite or a non-finite verb.

Another class of syntactic relations is determined by part-of-speech characteristics of phrase constituents and their combinability. To them refer: predicative (N+V), attributive (A+N), objective (V+N) and adverbial (V+Adv) syntactic relations. Correspondingly, they single out predicative, attributive, objective and adverbial phrases.

Another well-known structural classification of phrases is based on the part-of-speech characteristics of their constituents. It singles out the following types of phrases:

1) **N+N**

Depending on the case form of the 1<sup>st</sup> noun it's subdivided into two types:

a) **N+N**: the common case noun + N (speech sound)

b) **N's +N**: the genitive case noun +N (the child's parents)

Subtype A is used to denote one idea as modified by another in the broadest sense. Subtype B is restricted both in meaning and usage, its head word having the semantics of appurtenance.

2) **Adj + N** (a nice day)

This pattern denotes all possible kinds of things with their properties.

3) **V+N**

This type can express two different types of relations between an action and a thing:

a) action + object of the action (to study a language)

b) action + some measure of the action (to walk a mile)

4) **N+V** (the so-called 'predicative' phrase)

Some linguists recognise its existence, arguing that it should be studied like any other phrasal type (Prof. Ilyish). Others argue that the combination of a noun with a verb always forms a sentence (Prof. Vinogradov).

In modern Linguistics this phrasal type is analysed both on the phrase and on the sentence level.

e.g. they agree – they agreed

Studied on the phrase level, it is a word-combination whose components undergo grammatical changes. Taken on the sentence level, “they agree and “They agreed” are different sentences, because they nominate different situations.

5) **V+Adj** (to taste good)

6) **V+Adv** (to sit still)

7) **Adv + Adj** (terribly difficult)

8) **Adv+Adv** (very well)

9) **N+prep+N** (the quality of life)

10) **Adj+prep+N** (deep in thought)

11) **V+prep+N** (to look for trouble)

and some others.

Besides phrasal patterns consisting of several notional words with or without prepositions, linguists identify phrases consisting of 1 notional word and functional words.

e.g. in the daytime

A different classification based on the criterion of the nominative value of the phrase constituents was put forward by Pr. Blokh.

On the upper level all the phrases are subdivided into **notional** (consisting of notional words only → *a big window, to read a newspaper*), **formative** (made up of notional and functional words → *with joy, in class*) and **functional** (consisting of functional words alone or equivalent to functional elements → *out of, up to, so that*).

Notional phrases fall into 2 groups according to the syntactic rank of their constituents: **equipotent** (the phrase constituents are of equal rank → *brothers and sisters; smiles, flowers, greetings*) and **dominational** (the syntactic rank is not equal, because the constituents relate to one another as the modifier and the modified → *a good sign; to read a book*).

Dominational phrases fall into minor groupings according to the specific features of dominational connection: **predicative** (uniting the subject and the predicate as well as quasi-subjects and quasi-predicates presented by predicative constructions and phrases with verbids (*He is working ; for you to understand; a student, answering questions*)), **completive objective** (denoting the relation of the object to the process: *make notes, full of joy*) and **completive qualifying** (denoting the relation of the object / process to its property: *a large city; terribly interesting*).

## **Lecture 6. THE DIFFERENTIAL FEATURES OF THE SENTENCE**

A sentence can be defined as a syntactic construction which is the immediate integral unit of speech made up of words according to a definite syntactic pattern and distinguished by a contextually relevant communicative purpose.

Though the sentence has been an object of linguistic studies for many centuries, an ideal definition of the sentence doesn't exist. That's why modern linguists focus on characterising the differential features of the sentence instead. To them refer:

- 1) intonation
- 2) predicativity
- 3) modality
- 4) form

### **Intonation**

Every sentence has a definite intonation contour, unlike words and phrases, which, taken in isolation, have no intonation of their own.

## **Predicativity**

Predicativity inherent in the sentence makes up the main point of difference between the sentence, the word and the phrase. In modern linguistics predication is understood as the expression of the relation between the nominative content of the sentence and reality.

This definition stresses the necessity to consider the sentence as a 2-aspect unit, i.e. not only as a predicative but also as a nominative unit of language.

There is a great difference between the realisation of the nominative function by the word, the phrase and the sentence. This difference is conditioned by the nature of their referents.

The word performs the function of monomination. The phrase performs the function of polynomination, since it denotes a complex referent (e.g. an object and its quality, an action and its object etc.) The referent of the sentence is a situational event, whose constituents are the subject, the action itself, the qualities of the subject of the action and different kinds of circumstances of the action.

Naming the situational event the sentence reflects the connection between the nominal denotation of the event and the objective reality. This connection is marked by the time of the situational event as well as by its presentation as real/non-real, desirable/undesirable/forbidden, etc. (=the function of predication).

The obligatory correlation of the sentence with a fragment of reality explains one more point of difference between the word and the sentence: unlike the word, the sentence does not exist in the system of language as a ready-made unit (with the exception of phraseological utterances), it is created by the speaker in the process of communication.

Predicativity is realised through predication. The center of predication in a sentence of verbal type is a finite verb, expressing essential predicative meanings through the categories of tense and mood. With the help of these categories the verb predicates or assigns the denoted property/state/action to the subject as corresponding or not corresponding to reality together with certain temporal characteristics.

It is necessary to draw a dividing line between predication and **modality**. The general semantic category of modality is also defined as exposing the connection between the named objects and reality. Yet these notions are not identical.

Modality is a broader category relevant both to the grammatical elements of language and its lexical, i.e. purely nominal elements. In this sense, every word expressing a definite correlation between the object and reality is modal. To the means of expressing modality refer ‘modal’ words (e.g. *necessary, vital*), semi-functional words and phrases of probability and evaluation (e.g. *maybe, for sure*), modal verbs, word-particles of specifying modal semantics (*quite, just, even*).

Confined to the sentence, modality is a narrower notion. It embraces only syntactic modality (= predicativity) as the fundamental distinguishing feature of the sentence. Though modality expressed on the level of words adds to the general modality of the sentence.

When considering modality expressed by a sentence it is useful to distinguish between the **dictum** of the sentence (what is said) and the **modus** of the sentence (how it is said, i.e. the speaker's attitude towards the dictum)

e.g. A sentence can have the dictum: *It is a nice day*. And the modi: I think that it is a nice day. I believe that it is a nice day. I know that it is a nice day. I hope that it is a nice day. It must be a nice day. It could be a nice day etc.

## **Form**

The form of the sentence consists in a set of constituents used in a certain order. It is thanks to sentence form that we can identify the sequence “This is a house” as a sentence and “House a this is” as a non-sentence.

## Lecture 7. SENTENCE: STRUCTURAL ASPECT

1. The main structural types of the simple sentence in English
2. The traditional scheme of sentence parsing and IC analysis

### 1.

Classifying sentences on structural lines, linguists first of all identify *simple* and *composite* sentences. The simple sentence has only one predicative line (i.e. the immediate connection between the subject and the predicate).

According to their structure, simple sentences are further classified into one-member and two-member. Sentences with the grammatical subject denoting the doer of the action and with the grammatical predicate denoting the action are called *two-member sentences*. If a sentence has only one of these parts, it is described as *one-member*.

Sometimes the principal part of a one-member sentence is referred to as either the subject or the predicate. Yet, many linguists argue that it should be called '*the main part*', without specifying whether it is the subject or the predicate, because the identification of the subject in the absence of the predicate and vice versa is meaningless.

Another structural classification widely used in Grammar is the classification of simple sentences into *complete* and *elliptical*. There are different views on the notion of ellipsis.

Prof. B.A. Ilyish argues that any sentence with one or more parts left out but easily restored from the context is elliptical. He directly links the functioning of elliptical sentences to the processes of representation and substitution.

Representation and substitution embrace the cases when some element of the sentence essential to its meaning is missing, and its function is fulfilled by some other element. The means of representation comprise:

1) auxiliary verbs of analytical predicates

e.g. He likes football, he always **has** (liked football).

2) modal verbs

e.g. She can't drive a car, but I **can** (drive a car).

3) the particle "to" as the mark of the missing infinitive

e.g. I didn't say it, though I wanted **to** (say it).

Substitution is the usage of some other word to hint at the meaning of the missing word. The 2 substitution words in English are the verb 'to do' and the pronoun 'one'.

e.g. I don't like poetry, but she **does**.

Which pen will you take? – The black **one**.

Prof. L.S. Barkhudarov defines the elliptical sentence as a sentence in which at least one word is represented by a zero element (i.e. is missing).

e.g. Playing, children? → (Are you) playing, children?

According to the way of restoring the zeroed element, Prof. Barkhudarov classifies elliptical sentences into syntagmatically and paradigmatically restored, i.e. sentences in which the zero element can be restored from the context (through its previous mention) and sentences in which it can't be restored in that way.

To paradigmatically restored elliptical sentences the scholar refers:

- 1) imperative sentences with the zeroed subject (*(You) Stop here!*)
- 2) declarative sentences of the type *(It's) Two o'clock.*
- 3) interrogative sentences *(Are you) Going home?*
- 4) a specific subtype of elliptical sentences with a zeroed link-verb and exclamatory intonation of the kind *You (are) here!*
- 5) infinitival sentences *To think I should come to this! Well, what to do?*

Most linguists argue that the basic point of difference between 1-member and elliptical sentences is that the missing elements of an elliptical sentence are restored from the context easily and unambiguously, which is not the case with 1-member sentences. Yet, it's not always the case.

e.g. *Come on!* → *(You) come on!*

e.g. “Tom!” No answer. → There was no answer//Aunt Polly heard no answer  
//No  
answer followed etc.

That’s why Prof. Blokh suggests dividing simple sentences not into 1-member/2-member, but into 1-axis and 2-axis sentences (the term ‘axis’ denotes the subject group or the predicate group).

In a 2-axis sentence the subject and the predicate are explicitly expressed. In a 1-axis sentence only 1 axis is explicit.

1-axis sentences can be free and fixed. Free 1-axis sentences are restored from the context easily and unambiguously.

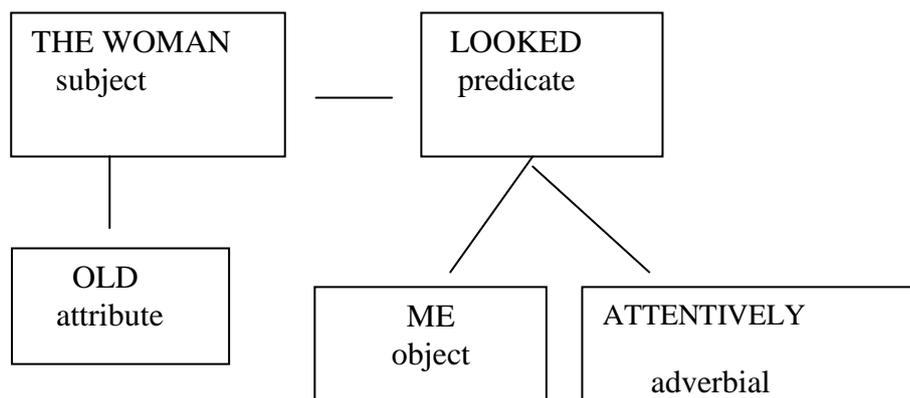
e.g. Recognise me? → *Do you* recognise me?

Fixed 1-axis sentences can’t be restored from the context as easily and unambiguously as free ones. Their subtypes include: 1) nominal constructions (e.g. Quiet evening.); 2) greeting formulas (e.g. Hi!); 3) affirmation and negation (e.g. No./Yes.); 4) formulas of introduction (e.g. Meet my friend John.); 5) excuses (e.g. Sorry.) and some others.

## 2.

Sentence parts are arranged in a hierarchy, which is graphically presented by the traditional scheme of sentence parsing.

e.g. The old woman looked at me attentively.

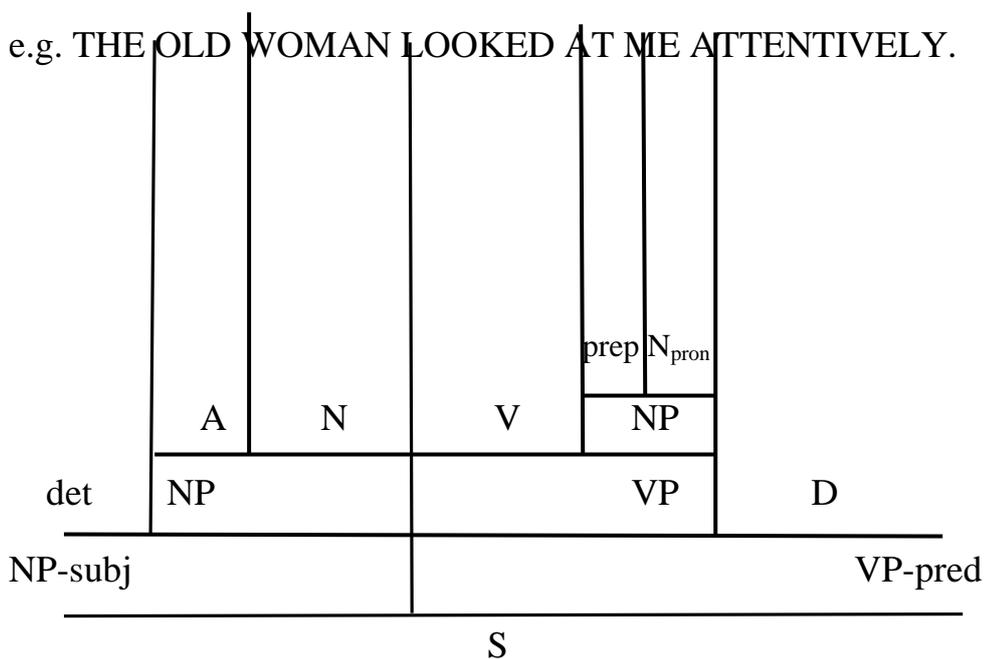


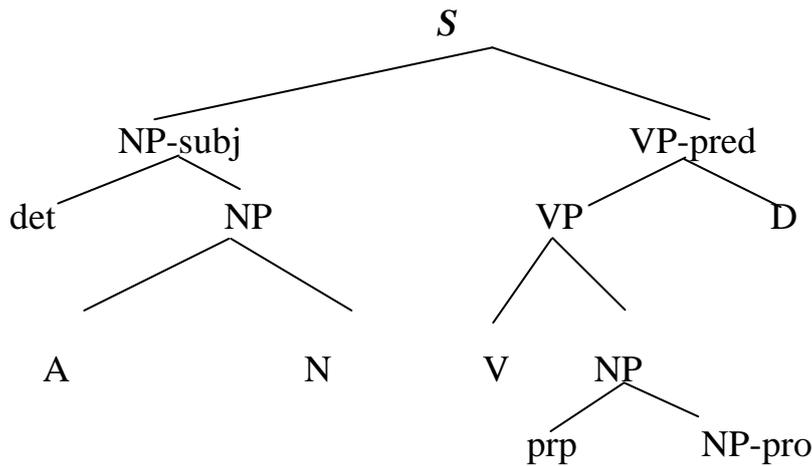
This scheme arranges sentence parts which are related to one another on an equal syntactical rank, when one constituent of a phrase doesn't dominate the other) horizontally. Sentence parts characterised by subordination are connected by vertical lines. The demerit of the scheme is that it fails to present the genuine linear order of the sentence parts in speech.

Another method of sentence analysis called immediate constituents analysis (IC analysis) is devoid of this disadvantage. IC analysis consists in dividing a sentence into 2 groups – that of the subject and that of the predicate, which, in turn, are divided into their subgroup constituents.

The IC-model explicitly exposes the binary hierarchical principle of subordinative connections. The described model has 2 basic versions – the analytical IC-diagram and the IC derivation tree.

### IC-diagram





S = a sentence; NP-subj = the subject noun-phrase; VP-pred = the predicate verb-phrase; det = a determiner; NP = a noun phrase; A = an adjective-attribute constituent; D = an adverbial constituent; VP = a verb phrase; prp = a preposition; N-pro = a pronominal constituent of a noun phrase.

### Lecture 8. SENTENCE: THE ACTUAL SENTENCE DIVISION

1. The actual sentence division
2. The actual sentence division in different communicative sentence types

#### 1.

There are usually two kinds of information in a sentence. One part of the sentence tells us something new, the other part tells us something that we were aware of already either from the previous sentences or from our general knowledge – given information. Given information provides the sentence theme. It is the starting point of communication. New information provides the sentence rheme. The rheme expresses the basic informative part of the sentence. It can consist of the informative cen-

tre/peak/focus and less informative parts. Some linguists recognise the existence of a third component of the ASD – so-called transition, placed between the theme and the rheme from the point of view of its informative value.

**tr-n TH RH peak**

e.g. Again,|you |have gone too far.

The theme and the rheme do not necessarily coincide with the subject group and the predicate group.

e.g. John is in town. [Th – Rh]

e.g. Peter is in town. – He isn't. John is. [Rh – Th]

Unlike the notional sentence division, which divides a sentence into notional parts represented by certain sentence members, the actual sentence division shows what immediate semantic contribution sentence parts make to the total information conveyed by the sentence.

Every language has a set of means marking the theme and the rheme.

## **LANGUAGE MEANS OF MARKING THE THEME IN ENGLISH**

1) the definite article

**TH RH**

e.g. **The** answer was obvious.

2) definite pronominal determiners

**TH RH**

e.g. **The** whole day was spent indoors.

3) loose parenthesis, introduced by the phrases “as to”/”as for”, “regarding”

**antetheme            TH                            RH**

e.g. **As for** the passers-by, they didn't notice anything.

There are numerous examples in which the word or the phrase representing the theme is placed at the beginning of the sentence as a loose part of it

**TH                    RH                    TH**

e.g. **That look**, how well I knew it.

4) the direct word-order pattern (in non-emphatic speech the theme is found at the beginning of the sentence)

5) fronting – moving to the beginning of the sentence an item which does not usually belong there. The item becomes the theme and carries extra prominence.

**TH                    RH**

e.g. **Across the road** they ran.

## **LANGUAGE MEANS OF MARKING THE RHEME IN ENGLISH**

1) the indefinite article

**RH                    TH**

e.g. **A man** called out to us through the window.

2) indefinite pronominal determiners

**RH                    TH**

e.g. **Any day** will be fine for the meeting.

3) inversion (complete and partial. Partial inversion makes the subject thematic)



1) a double-rheme construction in which two verbal elements correlate with one and the same theme in such a way that the second verbal element has its own relationship with the theme and is also connected with the 1<sup>st</sup> verbal element as its complement (obligatory modifier).

Th Rh<sub>1</sub> Rh<sub>2</sub>

e.g. He is likely to agree.

2) a double-rheme construction formed by verbs in the passive voice.

Th Rh<sub>1</sub> Rh<sub>2</sub>

e.g. They were asked to sit down.

3) double-rheme constructions formed by modal verbs.

Th Rh<sub>1</sub> Rh<sub>2</sub>

e.g. You mustn't agree to it.

By developing the infinitive group, one can build a triple-rheme construction.

Th Rh<sub>1</sub> Rh<sub>2</sub> Rh<sub>3</sub>

e.g. I was asked to come to help them.

The infinitive and the gerund can occupy the position of the theme, which is explained by their nominal character. In this case the theme implicitly contains a self-sufficient theme-rheme construction, which is zeroed.

Th Rh

e.g. Their coming tonight means a boring evening.

The theme contains the zeroed TH (*Their*) and the zeroed RH (*coming tonight*).

TH (TH<sub>0</sub>+RH<sub>0</sub>) → RH

## 2.

According to the purpose of utterance, three basic communicative sentence-types are recognised: the declarative sentence, the imperative sentence and the interrogative

sentence. Each of these types can be represented by 2 variants – exclamatory and non-exclamatory.

Each communicative sentence-type is characterised by its specific actual division.

### **The Declarative Sentence**

In a strictly declarative non-emphatic sentence isolated from the context the theme is expressed by the subject group, and the rheme – by the predicate group.

TH            RH

e.g. Kate is fond of music.

Yet, in declarative sentences included into a stretch of coherent text the theme-rheme distribution can be different:

RH            TH

e.g. Is Kate or is Jane fond of music? – Kate is fond of music.

### **The Imperative Sentence**

The imperative sentence is rhematic, its thematic subject is usually zeroed.

RH

e.g. Don't do it.

Sometimes the theme of an imperative sentence is explicitly expressed:

RH TH    RH

e.g. Let | her | speak.

RH TH    RH

e.g. Let' s | stop here.

TH                    RH

e.g. You go home and do nothing until I return.

TH

e.g. Forget it, Jack.

## The Interrogative Sentence

The theme of an interrogative sentence is expressed by its subject. The type of an interrogative sentence determines the peculiarity of its rheme. In **special questions** the rhematic peak is expressed by the interrogative pronoun.

peak RH TH RH

e.g. Where do you live?

The **alternative** question is informationally polyperspective.

RH<sub>1</sub> TH RH<sub>1</sub> RH<sub>2</sub> TH RH<sub>2</sub>

e.g. Is it your friend or your relative? = Is it your friend or is it your relative?

The **general** question (which is the implicit alternative question) is informationally monoperspective.

RH TH RH RH TH RH

e.g. Are you Spanish? = Are you Spanish or are you not Spanish?

## EXERCISES

### Exercise 1

#### I. Point out cases of lingual synchrony and diachrony:

##### A.

- 1) what, that, read, I, sing, you;
- 2) what, hwæt, that, thæt, I, ic;
- 3) sing, singan, will, wille;
- 4) Hwæt sceal ic singan?

##### B.

- 1) Категории русского существительного в древнерусский период.
- 2) Развитие категорий русского существительного в XVI-XIX вв.

#### II. State the type of oppositions:

- 1) /s/ – /z/; /f/ – /d/;
- 2) he – they; he – it
- 3) strong – stronger – the strongest
- 4) say – said
- 5) (it) does – (it) is done

#### III. Do the morphemic analysis of the words on the lines of the traditional and distributional classifications:

- 1) oxen's (bells) 2) overacted 3) teeth 4) wrathful 5) consume 6) trout (pl) 7) conceive – receive – deceive 8) finally 9) wrapper 10) thunder 14) (the) readers' (requests)

#### IV. Define the type of the morphemic distribution according to which the given words are grouped.

- 1) listed – fixed – fizzed

- 2) unexperienced – inexperienced
- 3) improbable – ineffective – irresolute – illegitimate
- 4) laughing – laughable – laughed – laughs

V. Group the words according to a particular type of morphemic distribution:

- a) learning – learns – learned – learnt; b) blessed – blesses – blessing – blest – bless

## Exercise 2

**Point out in the given sentences to the reduced grammatical forms, state the type of the oppositional reduction.**

**Model:** *The computer has changed our way of life.* The reduced form is the noun “computer”. It’s a case of neutralisation in the category of Number, when a singular countable noun stands for the whole class of objects.

1. The horse is a domestic animal.
2. And I say the Britisher doesn’t wear his heart on his sleeve. But he feels deeply.
3. Lester had a secret contempt for his brother’s persistent chase of the almighty dollar.
4. Are you a Mr. Jones? – Yes, I am.
5. Into this important commercial region the timid Carrie went.
6. What a cruel practical joke old Nature played when she flung so many contradictory elements together.
7. The board were thoroughly frightened. They were suffering from that special panic which affects all newspaper owners.
8. I wonder who it was who defined man as a rational animal.
9. They drew near to the city. Both were at the window looking for the cathedral. “There she is,” he cried. They saw the great cathedral lying couchant above the plain. “Ah!” she exclaimed. “So she is!”
10. What will you have? – Turkey.
11. The family were worried about their son.
12. Half-stunned, he struggled back aboard, to defend his ship like a fortress, because she was his life, his everything...
13. The sycamore is considered to be a symbol of curiosity in flower symbolism.
14. They thought that he had hidden the valuable letter in his study, so they went rummaging drawer after drawer.
15. I can also just make out the ghostly snows of Mt Storsteinen and its cable car.

### Exercise 3

**State the semantic type of the genitive in the following sentences:**

1. Do they sell children's clothes here? 2. Molly saw the children's clothes lying about in the room. "I wonder when they got back from school?" she thought. 3. How far is it? - An hour's drive. 4. I recognised Clare's voice in the distance. 5. The 1980s witnessed the Soviet Union's disintegration. 6. The company's bankruptcy was unexpected. 7. Charles's glasses were on a pile of books, as usual. 8. The president's speech impressed everyone. 9. The group's world tour was highly successful. 10. "I can see open skies lookin' in Jenny's eyes". 11. Top brands at low prices in Men's Shoes! 12. Relay stations were set up every 25 miles – 230 miles or an average day's journey on horse. 12. The final speakers at last week's panel moved the topic of history beyond style. 13. The waiter reached for the woman's hand, kissed it, bowed to both and walked away. 14. I question whether he would have had the opportunity to win one in today's game.

### Exercise 4

**Point out cases of oppositional reduction in verbal categories:**

1. Are you wanting my help? – Oh, no. I'm just waiting for Mr Grunwald.
2. Do you know the novel "Omon Ra" by V. Pelevin? – No, I didn't read anything by Pelevin.
3. There were few wedding presents... The doctor gave a cheque for £25. Mr. Prendergast gave Grimes a walking stick – "because he was always borrowing mine..."
4. Dr Gotier (*smiling*): Good evening
5. Sally: Were you wanting a room?
6. Dr Gotier (*slowly*): I am not sure.
7. He spoke in a sharp dry voice... After a few moments she realised she had been noticing how he looked, rather than listening to what he said...
8. I hear Rob's girl-friend has moved out?
9. I will drop you a line as soon as I find it out, ok?

10. I'm going to Paris next week. – Not for long, I hope?
11. Last week we went to do some shopping. A couple of French boys picked us up. In a café. Students. They were all right. so they chat us up. Then they want to drive out one day and see us.
12. Sam (*with awkward kindness*): I just wondered – like – Mr Ormud – whether there might be something I could do for you...
13. She got up from the chair, tip-toed to the door and opens it.
14. I wanted to tell you he is forever finding fault with me!
15. Their last CD sold an amazing 2 million copies.
16. What do you see there? – A boat approaching the shore.

## **Exercise 5**

### **A. Comment on the reduced morphological forms:**

1. The old man was soon asleep and dreamed of the ocean and his golden beaches.
2. What does a man risk his daily life for? 3. But Hamilton drinks too much and all this crowd of young people drink too much. 4. Has he any relatives in England? – Two aunts. A Mrs. Everard, who lives at Hampstead, and a Miss Daniels, who lives near Ascot. 5. The white lily is a symbol of purity and innocence. 6. The moon was rising, blood-red. The boy was looking at her thinking that he had never seen so red a moon. 7. Many families come back to our hotel year after year. 8. The audience were displeased with the production.

### **B. Analyse the morphemic structure of the words on the lines of the traditional and distributional classifications:**

mercifully, overruns, readers' (opinion)

### **C. State the type of morphemic distribution:**

formulas – formulae; formulae – pages; says - saying

## **Exercise 6**

**Dwell upon the actual division of the sentences and the language means marking it.**

1. She never complained. 2. Alice has cooked dinner for us. – No, Jenny has done it. Alice is at work. 3. What do you see? – Nothing. 4. Don't move! 5. Let me explain. 6. I must do something about it. 7. It was Mr. Eccles whom I particularly wanted to see. 8. Baxter Dowes he knew and disliked. 9. For me to get up early was simply impossible. 10. Who does it actually belong to? 11. Up went the rocket. 12. Sunday was a day off for Dad, not for Mum. 13. She was invited to attend the meeting to tell us about the incident. 14. Never before had I met such people. 15. As to Mark, he didn't support either of the sides. 16. I have never been told to come here to retype the papers. 17. There were a lot of people outside. 18. Show me the way to the nearest hotel, please. 19. It was in June that they took that decision. 20. John is said to have published a book. – Nonsense! He has never touched a pen in his life. His brother has done it. 21. This old silver brooch – how beautiful it was!

## **Exercise 7**

**Build IC-models of the given sentences:**

1. The noisy company soon entered a lovely French restaurant.
2. The amazed audience admired the indescribably beautiful portrait

## **Exercise 8**

**State the structural type of the sentences (according to the traditional classification and Prof. Barkhudarov's / Prof. Blokh's classifications where possible):**

1. Ben closed his eyes to think clearly for a moment. 2. "Two cups of coffee, please..." 3. "Why did you leave the baby in that mill?" – "Out of the rain." – "In her pram?" – "Naturally. She was asleep." 4. ... The mystery was awful and complete. Abandoned perambulator. Total disappearance of a baby. Rapine. Brigandage. Horror. Death... 5. Scene One. A room in Harley Street furnished as the Superintendent's office in a Nursing Home. 6. Have some bread and butter. 7. I meant to find her some day. – But you never did

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