

# «Назарий грамматика» фани маъруза матни

## 1-мавзу Language and Speech Levels

### The actual definition of grammar

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|--|--|
| ■ <b>Practical grammar</b>                                       | ■ <b>Theoretical grammar</b>   |
| ■ gives practical rules of the use of the linguistic structures. | ■ gives an analysis of the structures in the light of general principles of linguistics and the existing schools and approaches. |

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

Thus, non - basic or secondary level is one that has no unit of its own. Stylistics can be said to be non - basic (secondary) because this level has not its own unit. In order to achieve its aim it makes wide use of the units of the primary (basic) levels. The stylistics studies the expressive means and stylistic devices of languages. According to I.R.Galperin «The expressive means of a language are those phonetic means, morphological forms, means of word - building, and lexical, phraseological and syntactical form, all of which function in the language for emotional or logical intensification of the utterance. These intensifying forms of the language, wrought by **social** usage and recognized by their semantic function have been fixed in grammars, dictionaries)).

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

When talking about the levels one has to mention about the distinction between language and speech because the linguistics differenelates language units and speech units.

The main distinction between language and speech is in the following:

- 1) language is abstract and speech is concrete;
- 2) language is common, general for all the bearers while speech is individual;
- 3) language is stable, less changeable while speech tend to changes;

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

It is very important to take into account these disjunctions when considering the language and speech units. There are some conceptions according to which the terms of «language levels» are substituted by the term of «emic level» while the «speech levels» are substituted by «ethic levels». Very often these terms are used interchangeably. ; .

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

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

The second level in the hierarchy of strata is called morphological. There's only one term for both language and speech but the units have different terms: morpheme for language and morph for speech. This level deals with units that are

also smallest but in this case they are meaningful. So the smallest meaningful unit of language is called a morpheme and the smallest meaningful unit of speech is called a morph. The morphs that have different forms, but identical (similar) meanings are united into one morpheme and called «allomorphs». The morpheme of the past tense has at least three allomorphs, they are. *ft/, /d/, /id/* - Examples: worked, phoned and wanted. The variant of the morpheme depends on the preceding sound in the word .

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

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

Thus, both lexeme and lex nominate something or name things, actions phenomena, quality, quantity and so on.

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

To avoid confusion between «morpheme» and «lexemes» it is very important to remember that morphemes are structural units while lexemes are communicative units: morpheme are built of phonemes and they are used to built words - lexemes. Lexemes take an immediate part in shaping the thoughts, that is, in building sentences. Besides, lexemes may consist of one or more

morphemes. The lexeme «tree» consists of one morpheme while the lexeme «ungentlemanly» consist of four morphemes: un - gentle - man - ly.

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

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

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

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

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

### **Grammatical Structure of a Language**

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

Woggles ugged diggls (Fries)

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

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

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

The man gave the boy the money yesterday.

The boy was given the money by the man yesterday.

The money was given the boy by the man yesterday.

The giving of the money to the boy by the man occurred yesterday.

Yesterday was the time of the giving of the money to the boy by the man.

«Subject» then is a formal linguistic structural matter.

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

We have just mentioned here grammatical meaning». Grammatical meaning is opposed to lexical meaning. Lexical meaning is closely connected with notional words while grammatical meaning is connected with functional words and grammatical categories. Unlike the notional

words which are very numerous the functional words are limited in number. Charles Fries states that there are 154 functional words in Modern English.

In the above sentence we do not find any functional words; but there are three nonsensical words (woggle, -ugg, diggle) filled in instead of notional words, that can easily be replaced by notional words and signals of grammatical categories (Ns,- ed, Ns). So we understand the sentence because of the existence of those signals.

Thus, the sentence given above is clear to us from the point of view of Grammar but it is vague from lexical view point.

Suppose, that we want to express by means of the English language the idea

1. First we choose the necessary notional words

John live London

2. But to express the idea mentioned above mere collocation of words is not enough. These words are to be connected as per the norm of the English language.

a) We keep to the word - order: John live London

b) We choose the proper forms of words John lives London

c) We choose a function - word to connect live and John lives in London.

d) We choose a proper intonation - pattern.

Thus any language has certain means to connect notional words in the utterance. The whole complex of linguistic means made use of grouping words into utterances is called a grammatical structure of the language.

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

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

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

Notional words as positional classes are generally represented by the following symbols: N, V, A, D.

3) The man landed the jet plane safely N V A N D

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

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

So we come to a conclusion that the basic means of the grammatical structure of language are:

a) sentence structure; b) grammatical word classes.

In connection with this grammar is divided into two parts: grammar which deals with sentence structure and grammar which deals with grammatical word -classes. The first is syntax and the second - morphology.

W. Francis: «The Structure of American English».

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

An organized whole is greater than the mere sum of its parts.

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

### **Five Signals of Syntactic Structure**

1. Word Order-

is the linear or time sequence in which words appear in an utterance .

2. Prosody -

3. Function words -

4. Inflections -

5. Derivational -

is the over-all musical pattern of stress, pitch, juncture in which the words of an utterance are spoken are words largely devoid of lexical meaning which are used to indicate various functional relationships among the lexical words of an utterance are morphemic changes - the addition of suffixes and morphological means concomitant morphophonemic adjustments - which adopt words to perform certain structural function without changing their lexical meanings contrast is the contrast between words which have the same base but differ in the number and nature of their derivational affixes

### ***Problems to be discussed***

- Language and speech levels
- Primary and secondary levels
- Units of levels
- The difference between language and speech

### **Study questions**

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

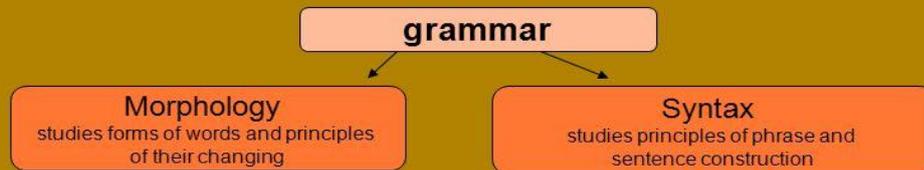
## **Language and speech levels and their units**

- **Phonological** level is the lowest language level. The phonological level unit is the **phoneme**. **Phonetic level** – the lowest speech level. Its unit is **phone**.
- **Morphological** level:
  - a) '**morpheme**' – the smallest meaningful unit of language (*teach - teacher*);
  - b) '**morph**' – the smallest meaningful unit of speech.
- **Lexicological level** deals with nominative meaning.
  - a) '**lexeme**' (word) – language unit;
  - b) '**lex**' (word) – speech unit.
- **Syntactical** level consists of two sublevels:
  - a) syntax-minor: **word combinations and sentences are its study units**
  - b) syntax-major: **discourse (text) is the unit of this sublevel.**

# Subject matter of theoretical grammar of the English language

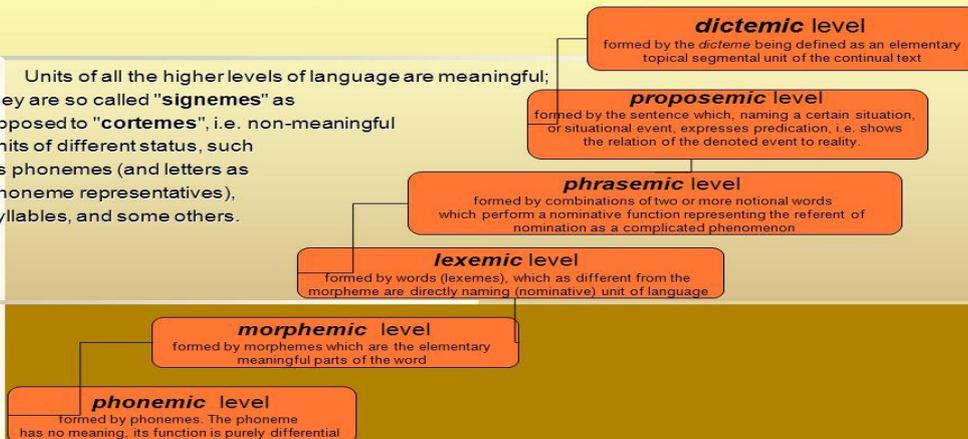
**Grammar** is a branch of linguistics which studies principles of word formation, of phrase and sentence construction.

- 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. The result of this "prescriptive" approach was that alongside quite essential and useful information, non-existent "rules" were formulated that stood in sheer contradiction with the existing language usage, i.e. lingual reality; **structural and descriptive scholars**
- In **modern trends** grammar is considered as a system of interrelated elements which can be segmental and suprasegmental. Theoretical grammar is aimed at analysis of the language system in order to describe different phenomena of the language and explain their uniqueness; **semantic and functional scholar**.



# Language as a system

- Units of all the higher levels of language are meaningful; they are so called "signemes" as opposed to "corèmes", i.e. non-meaningful units of different status, such as phonemes (and letters as phoneme representatives), syllables, and some others.



#### 4-мaвзy The Problem of Parts of Speech

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

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

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

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

3. The third one combines the ideas of the two above mentioned tendencies. They classify words in accord with the meaning, function, form, stem - building means and distribution (or combinability). To this group of scientists we can refer most Russian grammarians such as: Khaimovitch and Rogovskaya, L.Barkhudarov and Shteling and others.

One of the central problems of a theoretical Grammar is the problem of parts of speech.. There is as yet no generally accepted system of English parts of speech. Now we shall consider conceptions of some grammarians.

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

I. Declinable

II. Indeclinable Verb:

Adjective words: adjective, adjective pronouns, adjective-numeral, participles finite verb, verbal (inf.g.p.) Adverb, preposition, conjunction, interjection (particles)

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

O. Jespersen. The Philosophy of Grammar.

According to Jespersen the division of words into certain classes in the main goes back to the Greek and Latin grammarians with a few additions and modifications.

He argues against those who while classifying words kept to either form or meaning of words, he states that the whole complex of criteria, i.e. form, function and should be kept in view. He gives the following classification:

- 1) Substantives (including proper names)
- 2) Adjectives In some respects (1) and (2) may be classed together as «Nouns».
- 3) Pronouns (including numerals and pronominal adverbs)
- 4) Verbs (with doubts as to the inclusion of «Verbids»)
- 5) Particles (comprising what are generally called adverbs, prepositions, conjunctions-coordinating and subordinating - and interjections).

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

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

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

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

1. Woggles ugged diggles
2. Uggs woggled diggs
3. Diggles diggled diggles

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

Fries' test-frame-sentences were the following:

Frame A

The concert was good (always)

Frame B

Frame C

The clerk remembered the tax (suddenly)

The team went there

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

For the next large class of words he takes those that can be substituted in the position following the three already explored.

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

Functional words are identified by Fries by letters

A

The concert was good the a/an every no my our one all both that some John's

All the words appearing in this position (Group A) serve as markers of Class 1 words. Sometimes they are called «determiners».

The author enumerates fourteen more groups of function words among which we find, according to the traditional terminology

Group B - modal Verbs Group I - interrogative pr-ns and adverbs

The difference between the four classes of words and function words are as follows:

1. The four classes are large in number while the total number of function words amounts to 154.

2. In the four classes the lexical meanings of the separate words are rather clearly separable from the structural meanings of the arrangements in which these words appear. In the fifteen groups it is usually difficult if not impossible to indicate a lexical meaning apart from the structural meanings which these words signal.

3. Function words must be treated as items since they signal different structural meanings:

The boys were given the money. The boys have given the money.

Russian Grammarians in classifying words into parts of speech keep to different concepts;

A.I. Smirnitsky identifies three criteria. The most important of them is the syntactic function next comes meaning and then morphological forms of words. In his opinion stem-building elements are of no use.

The consideration of conceptions of different grammarians shows that the problem of parts of speech is not yet solved. There's one point which is generally accepted: in M-n English there are two classes of words-notional and functional -which are rather distinct.

#### Functional Parts Of Speech.

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

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

full words -

intermediate stratum -«full form - word»

form - word

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

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

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

Because of these parts they may be termed by one word, i.e. «Particles».

#### Function Words - 1

Some words in English have no inflectional or derivational ending. They are simply tools for putting other words together. They perform a function in the system - outside the system they have little or no meaning whatever. These words fall into categories determined only on the basis

of their position in grammatical structures they enter into. They are referred to by the collective term function words. The categories of function words are often called closed classes because they are rarely, ever, added to them. The list of function words in English are firmly established.

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

**Problems to be discussed:**

- Brief history of grouping words to parts of speech
- Contemporary criteria for classifying words to parts of speech
- Structural approach to the classification of words (the doctrine of American descriptive School)
- Notional and functional parts of speech

**The 8 Parts of Speech Help You**

- Understand clearly what is being said in a sentence.
- Know how and when to use words correctly.
- Reflect more accurately on the English language.



**What are the Parts of Speech? Parts of Speech Definition and Examples**

Part of Speech	Definition	Example Words
<b><i>NOUN</i></b>	a person, place, thing, or idea	pen, dog, work, music, town, London, teacher, John
<b><i>VERB</i></b>	action or state of being	(to) be, have, do, like, work, sing, can, must
<b><i>ADJECTIVE</i></b>	a quality of a noun	some, good, big, red, interesting
<b><i>ADVERB</i></b>	describes a verb, adjective, or another adverb	quickly, silently, well, badly, very, really
<b><i>PRONOUN</i></b>	stands in for a noun	I, you, he, she, we, they, your
<b><i>PREPOSITION</i></b>	links a noun to another word	to, at, after, on, before, around, over, of, in, for, with, throughout, from, beneath
<b><i>CONJUNCTION</i></b>	joins words, clauses, and sentences	and, but, when, or, however, although, nevertheless, therefore, yet, so
<b><i>INTERJECTION</i></b>	short exclamation, sometimes inserted into a sentence	oh, ouch, hi, well