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**THEORETICAL GRAMMAR OF ENGLISH
COURSE 3**

**EDUCATIONAL-METHODICAL
COMPLEX БЕКМУРАТОВА Р**

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LECTURE 1

GRAMMAR IN THE SYSTEMIC CONCEPTION OF LANGUAGE.

Plan:

1.1. The phonological system.

1.2. The Nature of Grammar.

Language is a means of forming and storing ideas as reflections of reality and exchanging them in the process of human intercourse. Language is social by nature; it is inseparably connected with the people who are its creators and users; it grows and develops together with the development of society. Language incorporates the three constituent parts ("sides"), each being inherent in it by virtue of its social nature.

These parts are the phonological system, the lexical system, the grammatical system. Only the unity of these three elements forms a language: without any one is no human language in the above sense.

The phonological system is the subfoundation language; it determines the material (phonetical) appearance of its significative units. The lexical system is the whole set of naming means of language, that is, words and stable wordgroups. The grammatical system is the whole set of regularities determining the combination of naming means in the formation of utterances as the embodiment of thinking process.

Each of the three constituent parts of Language is studied by a particular linguistic discipline. These disciplines, presenting a series of approaches to their particular objects of analysis, give the corresponding "descriptions" of language consisting in ordered expositions of the constituent parts in question

Thus, the phonological description of language is effected by the science of phonology; the lexical description of language is effected by the science of lexicology; the grammatical description of language is effected by the science of grammar.

Any linguistic description may have a practical or theoretical purpose. A practical description is aimed at providing the student with a manual of practical mastery of the corresponding part of language (within the limits determined by various factors of educational destination and scientific possibilities). Since the practice of lingual intercourse, however, can only be realized by employing language as a unity of all its constituent parts, practical linguistic manuals more often than not comprise the three types of description presented in a complex. As for theoretical linguistic descriptions, they pursue analytical aims and therefore present the studied parts of language in relative isolation, so as to gain insights into their inner structure and expose the intrinsic mechanisms of their functioning. Hence, the aim of theoretical grammar of a language is to present a theoretical description of its grammatical system, i.e. to scientifically analyze and define its grammatical categories and study the mechanisms of grammatical formation of utterances out of words in the process of speech making.

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 rigid regulations for the correct of expression for want of the profound understanding of the social natures of language, were often based on purely subjective and arbitrary judgments of individual grammar compilers. The result of this "prescriptive" approach was, that alongside of quite essential and useful information, nonexistent "rules" were formulated that stood in sheer contradiction with the existing language usage, i.e. lingual reality. Traces of this arbitrary prescriptive approach to the grammatical teaching may easily be found even in to-date's school practice.

To refer to some of the numerous examples of this kind, let us consider the well-known rule of English article stating that the noun which denotes an object "already known" by the listener should be used with the definite article. Observe, however, English sentences taken from the works of distinguished author directly contradicting this "rule"

According to the idea of their creator, the American scholar N.Chomsky, the first of the utterances, although nonsensical logically, was to be classed as grammatically correct, while the second one, consisting of the same words placed in the reverse order, had to be analyzed as a disconnected, "ungrammatical" enumeration, a "non-sentence". Thus, the examples, by way of contrast, were intensely demonstrative (so believed the scholar) of the fact that grammar as a whole amounted to a set of non-semantic rules of sentence formation.

However, a couple of years later this assessment of the lingual value of the given utterances was

disputed in an experimental investigation with informants- natural speakers of English, who could not come to a unanimous conclusion about the correctness or incorrectness of both of them. In particular, some the informants classed the second utterance as “sounding like poetry”.

To understand the contradictions between the bluntly formulated “rules” and reality, as well as to evaluate propformulated “rules” and reality, as well as to evaluate properly the results of informant tests like the one mentioned above, we must bear in mind that the true grammatical rules or regularities cannot be separated from the expression of meanings; on the contrary, they are themselves meaningful, namely they are connected with the most general and abstract parts of content inherent in the elements of language. These parts of content together with formal means through which they are expressed, are treated by grammarians in terms of “grammatical categories”. Such are, for instance, the categories of number or mood in morphology, the categories of communicative purpose or emphasis in syntax, etc. Since the grammatical forms and regularities are meaningful, the clues of grammar must be stated semantically, or, more specifically they must be worded functionally. For example, it would be fallacious to state without any further comment that the inverted word order in the English declarative sentence is grammatically incorrect. Word order as an element of grammatical form is laden with its own meaningful functions. It can express, in particular, the difference between the central idea of the utterance and the marginal idea, between emotive and unemotive modes of speech, between different types of style. Thus, if the inverted word order in a given sentence does express these functions, then it should be considered as quite correct. E. g.: In the centre of room, under the chandelier, as became a host, stood the head of the family, old Jolyon himself (J. Galsworthy).

The word arrangement in the utterance expresses a narrative description, with the central informative placed in the strongest semantic position in narration, i.e. at the end. Compare the same sort of arrangement accompanying a plainer presentation of subject matter. Inside on a wooden bunk lay a young Indian woman (E. Hemingway).

The nature of grammar as a constituent part of language is better understood in the light of explicitly discriminating the two planes of language, namely, the plane of content and the plane of expression.

The plane of content comprises the purely semantic elements contained in language, while the plane of language taken by themselves, apart from the material (formal) units of language taken by themselves, a part from the meanings rendered by them. The two planes are inseparably connected, so that no meaning can be realized without some material means of expression. Grammatical elements of language present a unity of content and expression (or, in somewhat more familiar terms, a unity of form and meaning). In this the grammatical elements are similar to the lexical elements, though the quality of grammatical meanings, as we have stated above, is different in principle from the quality of lexical meanings.

On the other hand, the correspondence between the planes of content and expression is very complex, and it is peculiar to each language of polysemy, homonymy, and synonymy.

In cases of polysemy and homonymy, two or more units of the plane of content correspond to one unit of the plane of expression. For instance, the verbal form of the present indefinite (one unit in the plane of expression) polysemantically renders the grammatical meanings of habitual action, action at the present moment, action taken as a general truth (several units in the plane of content). The morphemic material element -s /-es (in pronunciation [-s,-z,-iz]), i.e. one unit in the plane of expression (in so far as the functional semantics of the elements is common to all of them indiscriminately), homonymically renders the grammatical meanings of the third person singular of the verbal present tense, the plural of the noun, the possessive form of the noun, i.e. several units of the plane of content.

In cases of synonymy, conversely, two or more of the plane of expression correspond to one unit of the plane of content. For instance, the forms of the verbal future indefinite, future continuous, and present continuous, (several units in the plane of expression) can in certain contexts synonymically render the meaning of a future action (one unit in the plane of content).

Modern linguistics lays a special stress on the systemic character of language and its constituent parts. It accentuates the idea that language is a system of signs (meaningful units) which are closely interconnected and interdependent. Units of immediate interdependencies (such as classes and subclasses of words, various subtypes of syntactic constructions, etc.) form different microsystems (subsystems) within the framework of the global macrosystem (supersystem) of the whole of language

Each system is a structured set of elements related to one another by a common function. The common function of all the lingual signs is to give expression to human thoughts.

The systemic nature of grammar is probably more evident than that of any other sphere of language, since grammar is responsible for the very organization of the informative content of utterances. Due to this fact, even the earliest grammatical treatises, within the cognitive limits of their times, disclosed some system features of the described material. But the scientifically sustained and consistent principles of systemic approach to language and its grammar were essentially developed in the linguistics of the twentieth century, namely, after the publication of the works by the Russian scholar Beaudoin de Courtney and the Swiss scholar Ferdinand de Saussure. These two great men demonstrated the difference between lingual synchrony (coexistence of lingual elements) and diachrony (different time-periods in the development of lingual elements, as well as language as a whole and defined language as a whole) and defined language as a synchronic system of meaningful elements at any stage of its historical evolution.

On the basis of discriminating synchrony and diachronic, the difference between language proper and speech proper can be strictly defined, which is of crucial importance for the identification of the object linguistic science

Language in the narrow sense of the word is a system of means of expression, while speech in the same narrow sense should be understood as the manifestation of the system of language in the process of intercourse

The system of language includes, on the one hand the body of material units-sounds, morphemes, words wordgroups; on the other hand, the regularities.

ОПОРНЫЕ ПОНЯТИЯ

1. Phonological system
2. Grammatical system
3. Subfoundation
4. Pronological description
5. Linguistic description
6. Utterance
7. Phenomena
8. Homonymy
9. Constituent parts
10. Macrosystem

Question to the lecture

- 1) What can you say about the means of forming?
- 2) What is the phonological system?
- 3) What is the lexical system?
- 4) What is the phonological description?
- 5) What is the polysemy, homonymy?

LITERATURE.

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LECTURE 2 MORPHEMIC STRUCTURE OF THE WORD.

PLAN: 2.1. The morphological system of language

2.2. In traditional grammar the study of the morphemic structure of the word.

The morphological system of language reveals its properties through the morphemic structure of words. It follows from this morphology as part of grammatical theory the two segmental units: the morpheme and the word. But, as we have already pointed out, the morpheme is not identified otherwise than part of the word; the functions of the morpheme are effected only as the corresponding constituent of the word as a whole.

For instance, the form of the verbal past tense is built up by means of the dental grammatical suffix: train- ed [-d]; publish -ed[-t]; meditat -ed [-id]

However, the past tense as a definite type of grammatical meaning is expressed not by the dental

morpheme in isolation, but by the verb (i.e. word) taken in the corresponding form (realized by its morphemic composition); the dental suffix is immediately related to the stem of the verb and together with the stem constitutes the temporal correlation in the paradigmatic system of verbal categories. Thus, in studying the morpheme we actually study the word in the necessary details of its composition and functions

It is very difficult to give a rigorous and at the same time universal definition to the word, i.e. such a definition as would unambiguously apply to all the different word-units of the lexicon. This difficulty is explained by the fact that the word is an extremely complex and many-sided phenomenon. Within the framework of different linguistic trends and theories the word is defined as the minimal potential sentence, the minimal free linguistic form, the elementary component of the sentence, the articulate sound-symbol, the grammatically arranged combination of sound with meaning, the meaningfully integral and immediately identifiable lingual unit, the uninterrupted string of morphemes, etc., etc. None of these definitions, which can be divided into formal, functional, and mixed, has the power to precisely cover all the lexical segments of language without a residue remaining outside the field of definition.

The said difficulties compel some linguists to refrain from accepting the word as the basic element of language. In particular, American scholars-representatives of Descriptive Linguistics founded by L. Bloomfield- recognized not the word and the sentence, but phoneme and the morpheme as the basic categories of linguistic description, because these units are the easiest to be isolated in the continual text due to their "physically" minimal, elementary segmental character: the phoneme being the minimal formal segment of language, the morpheme, the minimal meaningful segment. Accordingly, only two segmental levels were originally identified in language by Descriptive scholars: the phonemic level and the morphemic level; later on a third one was added to these-the level of "constructions", i.e. the level of morphemic combinations

In fact, if we take such notional words as, say water, pass, yellow and the like, as well as their simple derivatives, e.g. watery, passer, yellowness, we shall easily see their definite nominative function and unambiguous segmental delimitation making them beyond all doubt into "separate words of language".

But if we compare with the given one stem words the corresponding composite formations, such as a weatherman, password yellowdusk, we shall immediately note that the identification of the latter as separate words is much complicated by the fact they themselves are decomposable into separate words. One could point out that the peculiar property distinguishing composite words from phrases is their indivisibility, i.e. the impossibility for them to be divided by a third word, but this would be rigorous criterion is quite irrelevant for analytical word forms, e.g. has met has never met, is coming- is not by any means or under any circumstances coming. As for the edition according to which the word is identified as a minimal sign capable of functioning alone (the word understood as the "smallest free form", or interpreted as the "potential minimal sentence") it is irrelevant for the bulk of functional words which cannot be used "independently" even in elliptical responses (to say nothing of the fact the very notion of ellipsis is essentially the opposite of self-dependence).

In spite of the shown difficulties, however, there remains the unquestionable fact that each speaker has at his disposal a ready stock of naming units (more precisely, units standing to one another in nominative correlation) by which he each quid up an infinite number of utterances reflecting the ever changing situations of reality.

This circumstance urges us to seek identification of the word as a lingual unit-type on other lines than the "strictly operational definition". In fact, we do find the clarification of the problem in taking into consideration the difference between the two sets of lingual phenomena: on the one hand, "polar" phenomena; on the other hand, intermediary phenomena.

Within a complex system of interrelated elements, polar phenomena are the most clearly unidentifiable, they stand to one another in an utterly unambiguous opposition. Intermediary phenomena are located in the system in between the polar phenomena, making up a gradation of transitions or the co-called "continuum". By some of their properties intermediary phenomena are

similar or near to one of the corresponding poles, while by other properties they are similar to the other, opposing pole. In this connection, the notional one-stem word and the morpheme should be described as the opposing polar phenomena among the meaningful segments of language; it is these elements that can be defined by their formal and functional features most precisely and unambiguously.

The nature of the element of any system is revealed in the character of its function. The function of words is realized in their nominative correlation with one another. On the basis of this correlation a number of functional words are distinguished by the “negative delimitation” (i.e. delimitation as a residue after the identification of the co- positional textualelements). E.g.; the/ people; to/ speak; be/ way/ of.

As we see, if the elementary character (indivisibility) of the morpheme (as asignificative unit) is established in the structure of words, the elementary character of the word (as a nominative unit) is realized in the system of lexicon. Summing up what has been said in this paragraph, we may point out some of the properties of the morpheme and the word which are fundamental from, the point of view of their systemic status and therefore require detailed investigations and descriptions.

The word is a nominative unit of language; it is formed by morphemes; it enters the lexicon of language as its elementary component (i.e. a component indivisible into smaller segment as regards its nominative function); together with other nominative units the word is used for the formation of the sentence—a unit of information in the communication process. In traditional grammar the study of the structure of the word was conducted in the light of the two basic criteria; positional (the location of the marginal morphemes in relation to the central ones) and semantic or functional (the correlative contribution of the morphemes to the general meaning of the word).

The combination of these two criteria in an integral description has led to the rational classification of morphemes that is widely used both in research linguistic work and in practical. The roots of notional words are classical lexical morphemes.

The affixal morphemes include prefixes, suffixes and inflexions (in the tradition of the English school grammatical inflexions are commonly referred to as “suffixes”).

The root, according to the positional content of the term (i.e. the border-area between prefixes and suffixes). Is obligatory any word, while affixes are not obligatory. Therefore one and the same morpheme segment of functional (i.e. non-notional) status, depending on various morpheme environments can in principle be used now as an affix (mostly, a prefix). Now as a root of; out —a root-word (preposition adverb, verbal postposition, adjective, noun verb) throughout —a composite word, in which —out serves as one of the roots (the categorical status of the meaning of both morphemes is the same). The morphemic composition of modern English words has a wide range of varieties in the lexicon of everyday speech the preferable morphemic types of stems are root-stems. The syntagmatic connections of the morphemes within the model from two types of hierarchical structure. The first is characterized by the original preaxial stem (e.g. prefabricated) , the second is characterized by the original suffixal stem. If we use the symbols St for stem R for root for prefix L for lexical suffix Gr for grammatical suffix and besides employ three graphical symbols of hierarchical grouping- braces, brackets and parentheses then the morphemic word structures can be presented as follows. W1= [Pr- (R-L)]-Gr] W2= [Pr-R)-L)] –Gr]

In the morpheme composition of more complicated words these model-types from different combinations.

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ОПОРНЫЕ ПОНЯТИЯ.

- 1) Morphological system
- 2) Morphemic structure
- 3) Morpheme
- 4) Constituent functions
- 5) Minimal potential sentence
- 6) Elementary component
- 7) To articulate
- 8) Morphemic combinations
- 9) Functional words
- 10) Elementary character.

QUESTIONS.

1. What is the morpheme?
2. What is the traditional grammar?
3. What is the syntagmatic composition of the morphemes?
4. What can you say about the inflexion?

LECTURE 3 MORPHOLOGY AS A PART OF GRAMMAR

Plan:

3.1. Categorial structure of the word

3.2. Morphemic features of the word

Notional words, first of all verbs and nouns, possess some morphemic features expressing grammatical (morphological) meanings. These features determine the grammatical form of the word.

Grammatical meanings are very abstract, very general. Therefore the grammatical form is not confined to an individual word, but unites a whole class of words, so that each word of the class expresses the corresponding grammatical meaning together with its individual, concrete semantics.

For instance, the meaning of the substantive plural is rendered by the regular plural suffix –(e)s, and in some cases by other, more specific means, such as phonemic interchange and a few lexeme-bound suffixes. Due to the generalized character of the plural, we find that different groups of nouns „take“ this form with strictly defined variations in the mode of expression, the variations being of more systemic (phonological conditioning) and less systemic (etymological conditioning) nature. Cf.: faces, branches, matches, judges; books, rockets, boats, chiefs, proofs; dogs, stars, toys, heroes, pianos, cantos; oxen, children, brethren, kine; swine, sheep, deer; cod, trout, salmon; men, women, feet, teeth, geese, mice, lice; formulae, antennae; data, errata, strata, addenda, memoranda; radii, genii, nuclei, alumni; crises, bases, analyses, axes; phenomena, criteria.

As we see, the grammatical form presents a division of the word on the principle of expressing a certain grammatical meaning.

The most general notions reflecting the most general properties of phenomena are referred to in logic as „categorial notions“, or „categories“. The most general meaning rendered by language and expressed by systemic correlations of word-forms are interpreted in linguistics as categorial grammatical meanings. The forms themselves are identified within definite paradigmatic series.

The categorial meaning (e.g. the grammatical number) unites the individual meanings of the correlated paradigmatic forms (e.g. singular-plural) and is exposed through them; hence, the meaning of the grammatical category and the meaning of the grammatical form are related to each other on the principle of the logical relation between the categorial and generic notions.

As for the grammatical category itself, it presents, the same as the grammatical „form“, a unity of form (i.e. material factor) and meaning (i.e. ideal factor) and constitutes a certain signemic system.

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

The ordered set grammatical forms expressing a categorial function constitutes a paradigm.

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

The opposition (in the linguistic sense) may be defined as a generalized correlation of lingual forms by means of which a certain function is expressed. The correlated elements (members) of the opposition must possess two types of features: common features and differential features. Common features serve as the basis of contrast. While differential features immediately express the function in question.

The oppositional theory was originally formulated as a phonological theory. Three main qualitative types of oppositions were established in phonology: „privative“, „gradual“, and „equipollent“. By the number of members contrasted, oppositions were divided into binary (two members) and more than binary (ternary, quaternary, etc.).

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

The binary privative opposition is formed a contrastive pair of members in which one member is characterized by the presence of a certain differential feature („mark“), while the other member is characterized by the absence of this feature. The member in which the feature is present is called the „marked“, or „strong“, or „positive“ member, and is commonly designated by the symbol+(plu); the member in which the feature is absent is called the „unmarked“, or „weak“, or „negative“ member, and is commonly designated by the symbol-(munis).

For instance, the voiced and devoiced consonants form a privative opposition [b,d,g-p,t,k]. The differential feature of the opposition is „voice“. This feature is present in the voiced consonants, so their set forms the marked member of the opposition. The devoiced consonants, lacking the feature, form the unmarked member of the opposition. To stress the marking quality of „voice“ for the opposition in question, the devoiced consonants may be referred to as „non-voiced“.

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

For instance, the front vowels [i:i-e-æ] form a quaternary gradual opposition, since they are differentiated by the degree of their openness (their length, as is known, is also relevant, as well as some other individualizing properties, but these factors do not spoil the gradual opposition as such).

The equipollent opposition is formed by a contrastive pair or group in which the members are distinguished by different positive features.

For instance the phonemes [m] and [b], both bilabial consonants, form an equipollent opposition, [m] being sonorous nasalized, [b] being plosive.

In various contextual conditions, one member of an opposition can be used in the position of the other, counter-member. This phenomenon should be treated under the heading of „oppositional reduction“ or „oppositional substitution“. The first version of the term („reduction“) points out the fact that the opposition in this case is contracted, losing its formal distinctive force. The second version of the term („substitution“) shows the very process which the opposition is reduced, namely, the use of one member instead of the other.

By way of example, let us consider the following case of the singular noun-subject: Man conquers nature.

The noun man in the quoted sentence is used in the singular, but it is quite clear that it stands not for an individual person, but for people in general, for the idea of „mankind“. In other words the noun is used generically, it implies the class of denoted objects as a whole. Thus, in the oppositional light, here the weak member of the categorial opposition of number has replaced the strong member.

Consider another example: Tonight we start for London.

The verb in this sentence takes the form of the present, while its meaning in the context is the future. It means that the opposition „present-future“ has been reduced, the weak member (present) replacing the strong one (future).

The oppositional reduction shown in the two cited cases is stylistically indifferent, the demonstrated use of the forms does not transgress the expressive conventions of ordinary speech. This kind of oppositional reduction is referred to as „neutralization“ of oppositions. The position of neutralization is, as a rule, filled in by the weak member of the opposition due to its more general semantics.

Alongside of the neutralizing reduction of oppositions there exists another kind of reduction, by which one of the members of the opposition is placed in contextual conditions uncommon for it; in other

words, the said reductional use of the form is stylistically marked. E.g.: That man is constantly complaining of something.

The form of the verbal present continuous in the cited sentence stands in sharp contradiction with its regular grammatical meaning „action in progress at the present time“. The contradiction is, of course, purposeful: by exaggeration, it intensifies the implied disapproval of the man's behaviour.

This kind of oppositional reduction should be considered under the heading of „transposition“. Transposition is based on the contrast between the members of the opposition, it may be defined as a contrastive use of the counter-member of the opposition. As a rule (but not exclusively) transpositionally employed is the strong member of the opposition, which is explained by its comparatively limited regular functions.

The means employed for building up member-forms of categorial oppositions are traditionally divided into synthetical and analytical; accordingly, the grammatical forms themselves are classed into synthetical and analytical, too.

Synthetical grammatical forms are realized by the inner morphemic composition of the word, while analytical grammatical forms are built up by a combination of at least two words, one of which is a grammatical auxiliary (word-morpheme), and the other, a word of „substantial“ meaning.

Synthetical grammatical forms are based on inner inflexion, outer inflexion, and suppletivity; hence, the forms are referred to as inner-inflexional, outer-inflexional, and suppletive.

Inner inflexion, or phonemic (vowel) interchange, is not productive in modern Indo-European languages, but it is peculiarly employed in some of their basic, most ancient lexemic elements. By this feature, the whole family of Indo-European languages is identified in linguistics as typologically „inflexional“.

Inner inflexion (grammatical „infixation“, see above) is used in English in irregular verbs (the bulk of them belong to the Germanic strong verbs) for the formation of the past indefinite and past participle: besides, it is used in a few nouns for the formation of the plural. Since the corresponding oppositions of forms are based on phonemic interchange, the initial paradigmatic form of each lexeme should also be considered as inflexional. Cf.: take-took-taken, drive-drove-driven, keep-kept-kept, etc. : man-men, brother-brethren, etc.

Suppletivity, like inner inflexion, is not productive as a purely morphological type of form. It is based on the correlation of different roots as a means of paradigmatic differentiation. In other words roots, and this, as we pointed out in the foregoing chapter, unites it in principle with inner inflexion (or, rather, makes the latter into a specific variety of the former).

Suppletivity is used in the forms of the verbs *be* and *go*, in the irregular forms of the degrees of comparison, in some forms of personal pronouns. Cf.: *be-an-are-is-was-were*; *go-went*; *good-better*; *bad-worse*; *much-more*; *little-less*; *I-me*; *we-us*; *she-her*.

The grammatical categories which are realized by the described types of forms organized in functional paradigmatic oppositions, can either be innate for a given class of words, or only be expressed on the surface of it, serving as a sign of correlation with some other class.

For instance, the category of number is organically connected with the functional nature of the noun; it directly exposes the number of the referent substance, e.g. one ship- several ships. The category of number in the verb, however, by no means gives a natural meaningful characteristic to the denoted process: the process is devoid of numerical features such as are expressed by the grammatical number. Indeed, what is rendered by the verbal number is not a quantitative characterization of the process, but a numerical featuring of the subject-referent. Cf.: The gril is smiling. –The girls are smiling. The ship is in the harbour. –The ships are in the harbour.

Thus, from the point of view of referent relation, grammatical categories should be divided into „immanent“ categories, i.e. categories innate for a given lexemic class, and „reflective“ categories, i.e. categories of a secondary, derivative semantic value. Categorial forms based on subordinative grammatical agreement (such as the verbal person, the verbal number)are reflective, while categorial

forms stipulating grammatical agreement in lexemes of a contiguous word-class (such as the substantive-pronominal person, the substantive number) are immament. Immanent are also such categories and their forms as are closed within a word-class, i.e. do not transgress its borders; to these belong the tense of the verb, the comparison of the adjective and adverb etc.

Another essential division of grammatical categories based on the changeability factor of the exposed feature. Namely, the feature of the referent expressed by the category can be either constant (unchangeable, „derivational“), or variable (changeable, „demutative“).

An example of constant feature category can be seen the category of gender, which divides the class of English nouns into non-human names, human male names, human female names, and human common gender names. This division is represented by the system of the thrid person pronouns serving as gender-indices (see further). Cf.:

It (non-human): mountain, city, forest, cat, bee, etc.

He (male human): man, father, husband, uncle, etc.

She (female human): woman, lady, mother, girl, etc.

He or *she* (common human): person, parent, child, cousin, etc.

ОПОРНЫЕ ПОНЯТИЯ

- 1)morphemic features
- 2)the regular plural suffixes
- 3)general notions
- 4)logical relation
- 5)grammatical form
- 6)the verbal present continuous
- 7)synthetical grammatical forms
- 8)inner inflexion
- 9)essential division
- 10)referent relation

LECTURE 4 Grammatical classes of words

- 4.1.The features of the numeral
- 4.2.The features of the pronoun
- 4.3.The features of the verb.

The words of language depending of various formal and semantic features, are divided into grammatically relevant sets or classes. The traditional grammatical classes of words are called “parts of speech “Since the word is distinguished not only by grammatical, but also by semantico-lexemic properties scholars refer to parts of speech as “lexic-grammatical” series of words, or as “lexico-grammatical categories” [Смирницкий, (1), 33, (2), 100]

It should be noted that the term “part of speech” is purely traditional and conventional, it can’t be taken as in any way defining or explanatory. This name was introduced in the sentence was not yet explicitly identified in distinction to the general idea speech, and where consequently, no strict differentiation was drawn between the word as a vocabulary unit and the word as a functional element of the sentence.

In modern linguistics parts of speech are discriminated on the basis of the three criteria: “formal and functional”. The semantic criterion presupposes the evaluation of the generalized meaning which is

characteristic of all the subsets of words constituting a given part of speech. This meaning is understood as the “categorical meaning of the part of speech”. The **formal** criterion provides for the exposition of the specific inflectional and derivational {word-building} features of all the lexemic subsets of a part of speech. The **functional** criterion concerns the syntactic role of words in the sentence typical of a part of speech. The said three factors of categorial characterization of words are conventionally referred to as, respectively, “meaning”, “form”, and “function”.

In accord with the described criteria, words on the upper level of classification are divided into notional and functional, which reflects their decision in the earlier grammatical tradition into changeable and unchangeable.

To the notional parts of speech of the English language belong the noun, the adjective, the numeral, the pronoun, the verb, the adverb.

The features of the noun within the identificational triad meaning-form-function “are, correspondingly, the following 1) the categorial meaning of substance (“thingness”); 2) the changeable forms of number and case; the specific suffixal forms of number and case; the specific suffixal forms of derivation (prefixes in English do not discriminate parts of speech

as such); 3) the substantive functions in the sentence (object, subject, substantival predicative): prepositional connections; modification by an adjective.

The features of the adjective: 1) the categorial meaning of property (qualitative and relative) 2) the forms of the degrees of comparison (for qualitative adjectives): the specific suffixal forms of derivation; 3) adjectival functions in the sentence (attribute to a noun adjectival predicative).

The features of the numeral: 1) The categorial meaning of number (cardinal and ordinal) 2) the narrow set of simple numerals; the specific forms of composition for compound numerals; the specific suffixal forms of derivation for ordinal numerals; 3. The functions of numerical attribute and numerical substantive.

The features of the pronoun: 1) the categorial meaning of indication (deixis); 2) the narrow sets of various status with the corresponding formal properties of categorial changeability and word-building; 3) the substantival and adjectival functions for different sets.

The features of the adverb: 1) the categorial meaning of the secondary property, i.e. The property of process or another property; 2) the forms of the degrees of comparison for qualitative adverbs; the specific suffixal forms of derivation; 3) the functions of various adverbial modifiers.

We have surveyed the identifying of the notional parts of speech that unite the words of complete nominative meaning characterized by self dependent functions in the sentence.

Contrasted against the notional parts of speech are words of incomplete nominative meaning and non-self-dependent, mediatory functions in the sentence. These are functional parts of speech. On the principle of “generalized form” only unchangeable words are traditionally treated under the heading of functional parts of speech. As for their individual forms as such, they are simply presented by the list since the number of these words is limited, so that they needn’t be identified on any general, operational scheme.

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

The **article** expresses the specific limitation of the substantive functions.

The **preposition** expresses the dependencies and interdependencies of substantive referents.

The **conjunction** expresses connections of phenomena. The **particle** unites the functional words of specifying and limiting meaning. To the series, alongside of other specifying words, should be referred verbal postposition as functional modifiers of verbs, etc.

The **modal word**, occupying in the sentence a more pronounced or less pronounced detached position, expresses the attitude of the speaker to the reflected situation and its parts. Here belong the

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

The **interjection**, occupying a detached position in the sentence, is a signal of emotions.

Each part of speech after its identification is further subdivided into subclasses in accord with various particular semantico-functional and formal features of the constituent words. The subdivision is sometimes called “subcategorization” of parts of speech.

Thus, nouns are subcategorized into proper and common, animate and inanimate, countable and uncountable, concrete and abstract, etc. Cj: Mary, Robinson, London, the Mississippi, Lake Erie - girl, person, city, river, lake;

Man, scholar, leopard, butterfly-earth, field, rose, machine:

Coin/coins, floor/ floors, kind/ kinds-news, growth, water, furniture.

Stone, grain, mist, leaf-honesty, love, slavery, darkness.

Verbs are subcategorized into fully predicative and partially predicative, transitive and intransitive, actional and statal, fictive and evaluative, etc. Cf.

Walk, sail, prepare, shine, blow-can, may, shall, be, become:

Take, put, speak, listen, see, give-live, float, stay, ache, ripen, rain.

Write, play, strike, boil, receive, ride-exist, sleep, rest, thrive, revel, suffer;

Roll, tire, begin, ensnare, build, tremble-consider, approve, mind, desire, hate, incline.

Adjectives are subcategorized into qualitative and relative, of constant feature and temporary feature (the latter are referred to as “statives” and identified by some scholars as a separate part of speech under the heading of “category of state”), factive and evaluative, etc. Compare:

Long, red, lovely, hobble, comfortable-wooden, rural, daily subterranean, orthographical;

Healthy, sickly, joyful, grievous, blazing-well, ill, glad, sorry, ablaze;

Tall, heavy, smooth, mental, native-kind, brave, wonderful, wise, stupid.

The adverb, the numeral, the pronoun are also subject to the corresponding subcategorizations.

We have drawn a general outline of the division of the lexicon into parts of speech classes developed by modern linguists on the lines of traditional morphology.

It is known that the distribution words between different parts of speech may by a certain extent differ with different authors. This fact gives cause to some linguists for calling in question the rational character of the speech classification as a whole gives them cause for accusing it of being subjective or “prescientific” in essence. Such nihilistic criticism, however, should be rejected as utterly ungrounded.

Indeed, considering the part of speech classification on its merits, one most clearly realize that what is above all important about it is fundamental principles of word- class identification, and not occasional enlargements or diminutions of the established groups, or re-distributions of words due to re-considerations of their subcategorial features. The very undertaken classification testifies to the objective nature of this kind of analysis.

For instance, prepositions and conjunctions can be combined into one united series of “connectives”, since the function of both is just to connect notional components of the sentence. In this case, on the second stage of classification, the enlarged word. Class of connectives will be subdivided into two main subclasses, namely, prepositional connectives and conjunctive connectives. Likewise, the articles can be included as a subset into the more general set of particles-specifiers. As is known, nouns and adjectives, as well as numerals, are treated in due contexts of description under one common class-term “names”, originally, in the Ancient Greek grammatical teaching they were not differentiated because they had the same forms of morphological change (declension). On the other

hand, in various descriptions of English grammar such narrow lexemic sets as the two words yes and no, the pronominal determiners of nouns, even the one anticipating pronoun it are given a separate class- them status –though in no way challenging or distorting the functional character of the treated units.

Alongside of the three-criteria principle of dividing the words into grammatical (lexical-grammatical) classes modern linguistics has developed another, narrow principle of word –class identification based on syntactic featuring of words only.

The fact is, that three-criteria principle faces a special difficulty in determining the part of speech status of such lexemes as have morphological characteristics of notional words, but are essentially distinguished from notional words by their playing the role of grammatical in phrases and sentences. Here belong, for instance, modal verbs together with their equivalents-suppletive fillers, auxiliary verbs, aspective verbs, intensifying adverbs, determiner pronouns. This difficulty, consisting in the intersection of heterogeneous properties in the established word-classes, can evidently be overcome by recognizing only one criterion of the three as decisive.

Worthy of note is the original Ancient Greek grammatical teaching which put forward the first outline of the part of speech theory, the division of words into grammatical classes was also based on one determining criterion only, namely, on the formal- morphological featuring. It means that any given word under analysis was turned into a classified lexeme on the principle of its relation to grammatical charge. In conditions of the primary acquisition of linguistic knowledge, and in connection with the study of a highly inflexional language this characteristic proved quite efficient.

Still, at the present stage of the development of linguistic science, syntactic characterization of words that has been made possible after the exposition of their fundamental morphological properties, is far more important and universal from the point of view of the general classificational requirements.

This characterization is more important, because it shows the distribution of words between different sets in accord with their functional destination. The role of morphology by this presentation is not underrated, rather it is further clarified from the point of view of exposing connections between the categorial composition of the word and its sentence-forming relevance.

This characterization is more universal, because it is not specially destined for the inflexional aspect of language and hence is equally applicable to languages of various morphological types.

On the material of Russian, the principles of syntactic approach to the classification of word stock were outlined in the works of A.M. Peshkovsky. The principles of syntactic (syntactico-distributional) classification of English words were worked out by L. Bloomfield and his followers Z. Harris and especially Ch. Fries.

The syntactico-distributional classification of words is based on the study of their combinability by means of substitution testing. The testing results in developing the standard model of four main “positions” of notional words in the English sentence: those of the noun (N), verbal (V), adjective (A), adverb (D). Pronouns are included into the corresponding positional classes as their substitutes as function words of various syntactic values.

Here is how Ch.Fries presents his scheme of English word classes [Fries]

For his materials he chooses tape- recorded spontaneous conversations comprising about 250.000 word entries (50 hours of talk). The words isolated from this corpus are tested on the three typical sentences (that are isolated from the records, too), and used as substitution test-frames:

Frame A: The concert was good (always)

Frame B: The clerk remembered the fax. (suddenly)

Frame C: The team went there.

The parenthesized positions are optional from the point of view of the structural completion of sentences.

As a result of successive substitution tests on the cited “frames” the following lists of positional words (“from-words, or “parts of speech”) are established;

Class 1. (A) concert, coffee, taste, container, difference, etc. (B) clerk, husband, supervisor, etc. Fax, food, coffee, etc. (C) team, husband, woman, etc.

Class 2 (A) was, seemed, became, etc. (B) remembered, wanted, saw, suggested, etc. (C) went, came, ran,... lived, worked, etc.

Class 3. (A) good, large, necessary, foreign, new, empty, etc.

Class 4, (A) there, here, always, then sometimes, etc. (B) clearly, sufficiently, especially, soon, etc. (C) there, back, out, etc Rapidly, eagerly confidently, etc.

All these words can fill in the positions of the frames without affecting their general structural meaning (such as “thing and its quality at a given time” –the first frame,” actor-action-thing acted upon-characteristic of the action”- the third). Repeated interchanges in the substitutions of the primarily identified positional (i.e. Notional) words in different collocations determine their morphological characteristics, i. E. Characteristics referring them to various subclasses of the identified lexemic classes. Functional words are exposed in the cited process of testing as being unable to fill in the positions of the frames without destroying their structural meaning.

The identified groups of functional words can be distributed among the three main sets. The words of the first set are used as specifiers of notional words. Here belong determiners of nouns, modal verbs serving as specifiers on notional verbs, functional modifiers and intensifiers adjectives and adverbs. The words of the second set play the role of interpositional elements, determining the relations of notional words to one another. Here belong prepositions and conjunctions. The words of the third set refer to the sentence as a whole. Such are question –words (what, how, etc.) inducement- words (lets, please, etc), attention-getting words, words of affirmation and negation, sentence introducers (it, there) and some others.

Comparing the syntactico-distributional classification of words with the traditional part of speech division of words, one cannot but see the similarity of the general schemes of the two; the opposition of notional and functional words, the four absolutely cardinal classes of notional words (since numerals and pronouns have no positional functions of their own and serve as pro- nounal and pro-adjectival elements), the interpretation of functional words as syntactic mediators and their formal representation by the list.

One of the major truths as regards the linguistic mechanism arising from the comparison of the two classifications is the explicit and unconditional division of the lexicon into the notional and functional parts. The open character of the notional part of the lexicon and the closed character of the functional part of it (not excluding the intermediary field between the two) receives the strict status of a formal grammatical feature.

The unity of notional lexemes finds its essential demonstration in an inter-class system of derivation that can be presented as a formal four-stage series permeating the lexicon and reflected in regular phrase correlations. Compare: a recognizing note-a notable recognition-to note recognizingly –to recognize notably; silent disapproval-disapproving silence-to disapprove silently-to silence disapprovingly; etc.

This series can symbolically be designated by the formula $st(n.v. a.d.)$ where St represents the morphemic stem of the series, while the small letters in parentheses stand for the derivational features of the notional word classes (parts of speech). Each stage of the series can in principle be filled in by a number of lexemes of the same stem with possible hierarchical relations between them. The primary presentation of the series, however, may be realized in a four-unit version as follows:

Strength-to strengthen-strong-strongly

Peace-to appease-peaceful-peacefully

Nation-to nationalize- national- nationally

Friend-to be friend-friendly-friendly, etc.

This derivational series that unites the notional word –classes can classes can be named the "lexical paradigm of nomination". The general order of classes in the series evidently corresponds to the logic of mental perception of reality, by which a person discriminates, first, objects and their actions, then the properties of the former and the latter. Still, as the actual initial form of a particular nomination paradigm within the general paradigmatic scheme of nomination can prove a lexeme of any word- class, we are enabled to speak about the concrete "derivational perspective" of this or that series, i.e. To identify nomination paradigms with a noun (N), verbal (V), adjectival (A) and adverbial (D) derivational perspectives. Compare:

N - power-to empower- powerful –powerfully

V - to suppose- → supposition-supposed-supposedly

A - clear-clarity-to clarity- clearly

D - out-outing-to out-outer

The nomination paradigm with the identical form of the stem for all the four stages is not represented on the whole of the lexicon; in this sense it is possible to speak of lexemes with a complete paradigm of nomination and lexemes with an incomplete paradigm of nomination. Some words may even stand apart from this paradigm, i.e. be nominatively isolated.

On the other hand, the universal character of the nomination paradigm is sustained by suppletive completion, both lexemic and phrasemic. Compare:

An –end- to end- final- finally

Good- goodness-well-to better

Evidence-evident –evidently –to make evident

Wise-wisely-wisdom- to grow wise, etc.

The role of suppletivity within the framework of the lexical paradigm of nomination (hence, within the lexicon as a whole) is extremely important, indeed. It is this type of suppletivity, i.e. Lexemic suppletivity, that serves as an essential factor of the open character of the notional lexicon of language.

Functional words re-interpreted by syntactic approach also reveal some important traits that remained discovered in earlier descriptions.

The essence of their paradigmatic status in the light of syntactic interpretation consists in the fact that the lists of functional words may be regarded as paradigmatic series themselves-which, in their turn, are grammatical constituents of higher paradigmatic series on the level of phrases and especially sentences/ as a matter of fact, functional words, considered by their role in the structure of the sentence, are proved to be exposures of various syntactic categories, i.e. They render structural meanings referring to phrases and sentences in constructional forms similar to derivational (word – building) and relational (grammatical) morphemes in the composition of separate words.

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ОПОРНЫЕ ПОНЯТИЯ.

- 1.Formal
- 2.Semantic features
- 3.grammatically relevant
- 4.functional element
- 5.formal criterion
- 6.categorial meaning
- 7.notional parts
- 8.nominative meaning
- 9.notional lexemes
- 10.morphemic stem

QUESTIONS

1. What are the features of the numeral? 2. What are the features of the pronoun?
3. What are the features of the verb? 4. What are the features adjective?
5. What are the features of the adverb? 6. What are the features of the noun?
7. What is the modal verb? 8. What is the article?

LECTURE 5 NOUN: GENERAL

PLAN: 5.1. Noun: Gender 5.2. Noun: Number 5.3. Noun; Case 5.4. Noun; Article Determination.

The noun as a part of speech has the categorial meaning of “substance” or “thingness”. It follows from this that the noun is the main nominative part of speech, effecting nomination of the fullest value within the framework of the notional division of the lexicon.

The noun has the power, by way of nomination, to isolate different properties of substances (i.e. direct and oblique qualities, and also actions and states as processual characteristics of substantive phenomena) and present them as corresponding self dependent substances.

The categorial functional properties of the noun are determined by its semantic properties.

The most characteristic substantive function of the noun is that of the subject in the sentence, since the referent of the subject is the person or thing immediately named. The function of the object in the sentence is also typical of the noun as the substance word. Other syntactic functions, i.e. attributive, adverbial, and even predicative, although performed by the noun with equal ease, are not immediately characteristic of its substantive quality as such. It should be noted that, while performing these non-substantive functions, the noun essentially differs from the other parts of speech used in similar sentence positions. This may be clearly shown by transformations shifting the noun from various non subject syntactic positions of the same general semantic value, which is impossible with other parts of speech.

Mary is flower-girl. The flower-girl (you are speaking of) is Mary. He lives in Glasgow. Glasgow is his place of residence. This happened three years ago. Three years have elapsed since it happened.

Apart from the cited sentence-part functions, the noun is characterized by some special types of combinability.

In particular, typical of the noun is the prepositional combinability with another noun, a verb, an adjective, an adverb, E.g.: an entrance to the house; to turn round the corner; red in the face; far from its destination.

The casual (possessive) combinability characterizes the noun alongside of its prepositional combinability with another noun E.g.: the speech of President-the president’s speech; the cover of the book- the book’s cover.

English nouns can also easily combine with one another by sheer contact, unmediated by any special lexemic or morphemic means. In the contact group the noun in preposition plays the role of a semantic qualifier to the noun in post-position. E.g.: a cannon ball; a log cabin; a sports event; film festivals.

The lexico-grammatical status of such combinations has presented a problem for many scholars, who were uncertain as to the linguistic heading under which to treat them: either as one separate word, or a word-group. In the history of linguistics the controversy about lexico-grammatical status of the constructions in question has received the half-facetious name “The cannon ball problem”.

The corresponding compound nouns (formed from substantive stems), as a rule, cannot undergo the isolability test with an equal ease. The transformations with the nounal compounds are in fact reduced to sheer explanations of their etymological motivation. The comparatively closer connection between the stems in compound nouns is reflected by the spelling. E.g.: fire- place- place where fire is

made: starlight -light coming from stars' story-teller-teller (writer, composer) of stories; theatres- goer –a person who goes to theatres.

Contact noun attributes forming a string of several words are very characteristic of professional language.

As a part of speech, the noun is also characterized by a set of formal features determining its specific status in the lexical paradigm of nomination. It has its word- building distinctions, including typical suffixes, compound stem models, conversion patterns. It discriminates the grammatical categories of gender, number, case. Article determination, which will be analyzed below.

There is a peculiarly regular contradiction between the presentation of gender in English by theoretical treatises and practical manuals. Whereas theoretical define the gender subcategorization of English nouns as purely lexical or “semantic” practical manuals of English grammar do invariably include the description instruction.

In particular, a whole ten pages of A. Smirnitsky's theoretical “Morphology of English” are devoted to proving the non- existence of gender in English either in the grammatical, or even in the strictly lexico-grammatical sense. On the other hand, the well-known practical “English grammar” by M.A. Ganshina and N.M. Vasilevskaya, after denying the existence of grammatical gender in English by way of introduction to the topic still presented a pretty comprehensive description of the would-be non-existed gender distinctions of the English noun as a part of speech

The category of gender is expressed in English by the obligatory correlation of nouns with the personal pronouns of the third person. These serve as specific gender classifiers of nouns, being potentially reflected on each of the noun in speech.

The category of gender is strictly oppositional. It is formed by two oppositions related to each other on a hierarchical basis.

One opposition functions in the whole set of nouns, dividing them into person nouns and non-person nouns. The other opposition functions in the subset of person nouns only, dividing them into masculine nouns and feminine nouns. Thus, the first, general opposition can be referred to as the upper opposition in the category of gender, while the second, partial opposition can be referred to as the lower opposition in this category.

A great many person nouns in English are capable of expressing both feminine and masculine person genders by way of the pronominal correlation in question. These are referred to as nouns of the “common gender”. Here belong such words as person, parent, friend, cousin, doctor, president, etc.

The capability of expressing both genders makes the gender distinctions in the nouns of the common gender into a variable category. On the other hand, when there is no special need to indicate the sex of the person referents of these nouns, they are used neutrally as masculine, i.e. they correlate with the masculine third person pronoun.

In the plural, all the gender distinctions are neutralized in the immediate explicit expression, though they are rendered obliquely through the correlation with the singular.

Alongside of the demonstrated grammatical (or lexico- grammatical, for that matter) gender distinctions, English nouns can show the sex of their referents lexically, either by means of being combined with certain notional words used as sex indicators, or else by suffixal derivation. Compare:

boy-friend, girl friend; man-producer, woman-producer; washer-man, washer-woman; landlord, landlady; bull-calf; cock-sparray, hen-sparray; he-bear; master, mistress; actor, actress; executor, executrix; lion, lioness; sultan, sultana; etc.

One might think that this kind of the expression **of sex** runs contrary to the presented gender system of nouns, since the sex distinctions inherent in the cited pairs of words refer not only to human beings (persons), but also to all the other animate beings. On closer observation, however, we see that this is not at all so. In fact, the referents of such nouns as jenny-ass, or pea-hen, or the like will in the

common use quite naturally be represented as it, the same as the referents of the corresponding masculine nouns rask-ass, pea-cock, and the like.

The category of number is expressed by the opposition of the plural form of the noun to the singular form of the noun. The strong member of this binary opposition is the plural, its productive formal mark being the suffix-(e) s [-z,-s,-iz] as presented in the forms dog-dogs, clock-clocks, box-boxes. The productive formal mark correlates with the absence of the number suffix in the singular form of the noun. The semantic connect of the unmarked form, as has been shown above, enables the grammarians to speak of the zero-suffix of the singular in English.

The other, non-productive ways of expressing the number opposition are vowel interchange in several relict forms (man-men, woman-women, tooth-teeth, etc), the archaic suffix-(e)n supported by phonemic interchange in a couple of other relict forms (ox-oxen, child-children, cow-kine, brother-brethren), the correlation of individual singular and plural suffixes in a limited number of borrowed nouns (formula-formulae, phenomenon-phenomena, alumnus-alumni, etc). In some cases the plural form of the noun is homonymous with the singular form (sheep, deer, etc).

The semantic nature of the difference between singular and plural may present some difficulties of interpretation.

On the surface of semantic relations, the meaning of the singular will be understood as simply “one” as opposed to the meaning of the plural as “many” in the sense of “more than one”. This is apparently obvious for correlations such as book-books, lake-lakes and the like. However, alongside of these semantically unequivocal correlations, there exist plurals and singulars that cannot be fully accounted for by the above ready-made approach. This becomes clear when we take for comparison such forms as tear (one drop falling from the eye) and tears (treadles on the cheeks as tokens of grief or joy), potato (one item of the vegetables) and potatoes (food) paper (material) and papers

(notes on documents), sky (the vault of heaven) and skies (the sky taken as a direct offigurative (background), etc. As a result of the comparison we conclude that the broader sememic mark of the plural, or “plurality” in the grammatical sense, should be described as the potentially dismembering reflections of the structure of the referent, while the sememic mark of the singular will be understood as the non-dismembering reflection of the structure of the referent, i.e. the presentation of the referent in its indivisible entirety.

The most general qualitative characteristics of individual words constitute the lexico-grammatical base for dividing the nounal vocabulary as a whole into countable nouns and uncountable nouns.

Since the grammatical form of the uncountable nouns of the singularia tantum subclass is not excluded from the category of number, as different from the, “correlative” or “common” singular of the countable nouns. The absolute singular excludes the use of the modifying numeral one, as well as the indefinite article.

The absolute singular is characteristic of the names of abstract notions (peace, love, joy, courage, friendship, etc), the names of the branches of professional activity (chemistry, architecture, mathematics, linguistics, etc), the names of mass materials (water, snow, steel, hair, etc), the names of collective inanimate objects (foliage, fruit, furniture, machinery, etc). Some of these words can be used in the form of the common singular with the common plural counterpart, but in this case they come to mean either different sorts of materials, or separate concrete manifestations of the qualities denoted by abstract nouns, or concrete objects exhibiting the respective qualities.

Case is the immanent morphological category of the noun manifested in the forms of noun declension and showing the relations of the nounal referent to other objects and phenomena. Thus, the case form of the noun, or contractedly its “case” (in the narrow sense of the word), is a morphological declensional form.

This category is expressed in English by the opposition of the form in -[s[-z,-s,-s,-z]], usually called the “possessive case, or more traditionally, the “genitive” case (to which term we will stick in the following presentation), to the unfeatured form of the noun, usually called the “common” case. The

apostrophized –s serves to distinguish in writing the singular noun in the genitive case from the plural noun in the common case, i.g. the man's duty, the President's decision, Max's letter, the boy's ball.

The genitive of the bulk of plural nouns remains phonetically unexpressed: the few exceptions concern only some of the irregular plurals. Thereby the apostrophe as the graphic sign of the genitive acquires the force of a sort of grammatical eroglyph. Cf. The carpenters' tools, the mates slates, the actresses dresses.

Four special views advanced at various times by different scholars should be considered as successive stages in the analysis of this problem.

The first view may be called the "the theory of positional cases". This theory is directly connected with the old grammatical tradition, and its traces can be seen in many contemporary text-books for school in the English-speaking countries.

In accord with the theory of positional cases, the unchangeable forms of the noun are differentiated as different cases by virtue of the functional positions occupied by the noun in the sentence. Thus, the English noun, on the analogy of classical Latin grammar, would distinguish, besides the inflectional genitive case, also the non-inflectional, i.e. purely positional cases; nominative, vocative, and accusative. The inflexional cases of the noun are taken to be supported by the parallel inflexional cases of the personal pronouns. The would-be cases in question can be exemplified as follows.

The nominative case (subject to a verb); Rain falls. The vocative case (address); Are you coming, my friend. The dative case (indirect object to a verb); I gave John a penny. The accusative case (direct-object, and also object to a preposition); The man killed a rat. The earth is moistened by rain. The second view may be called the "the theory of positional cases". This theory is directly connected with the old grammatical tradition, and its traces can be seen in many contemporary text-books for school in the English-speaking countries.

In accord with the theory of prepositional cases, the unchangeable forms of the noun are differentiated as different cases by virtue of the functional positions occupied by the noun in the sentence. Thus, the English noun, on the analogy of classical Latin grammar, would distinguish, besides the inflexional genitive case, also the non-inflexional, i.e. purely positional cases; nominative, vocative, dative, and accusative. The uninflexional cases of the noun are taken to be supported by the parallel inflexional cases of the personal pronouns. The would-be cases in question can be exemplified as follows.

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The second view may be called the "theory of prepositional cases". Like the theory of positional cases, it is also connected with the old school grammar teaching, and was advanced as a logical supplement to the positional view of the case.

In accord with the prepositional theory, combinations of nouns with prepositions in certain object and attributive collocations should be understood as morphological case forms.

To these belong first of all the "dative" case (to-Noun, for-Noun) and the "genitive" case (of- Noun). These prepositions, according to G. Gurme, are "inflexional prepositions", i.e. grammatical elements equivalent to case-forms. The would-be prepositional cases are generally taken (by the scholars who recognize them) as coexisting with positional cases, together with the classical inflexional genitive completing the case system of the English noun.

The prepositional theory, though somewhat better grounded than the positional theory, nevertheless can hardly pass a serious linguistic trial. As is well known from noun-declensional language, all their prepositions, and not only some of them, do require definite cases of nouns (prepositional case-government); this fact, together with a mere semantic observation of the role of prepositions in the phrase, shows that any preposition by virtue of its functional nature stands in essentially the same general grammatical relations to nouns. It should follow from this that only the of-, to-, and for – phrases but also the other prepositional phrases in English must be regarded as "analytical cases". As

a result of such an approach logical redundancy in terminology would arise: each prepositional phrase would bear than another, additional name of “prepositional case” the total number of the said “cases” running into dozens union dozens without any gain either to theory or practice.

The third view of English noun case recognized a limited inflexional system of two cases in English, one of them featured and the other one unfeatured. This view may be called the “limited case theory”.

Within the general functional semantic of appurtenance the English genitive expresses a wide range of relational meanings specified in the regular interaction of the semantic of the subordinating and subordinated elements in the genitive phrase, summarizing the results of extensive investigations in this field, the following basis semantic types of the genitive can be pointed out.

First, the form which can be the “**genitive of possessor**” (Lat, “genitivus possessor”). Its constructional meaning will be defined as “inorganic: possession, i. e. possessional relation (in the broad sense) of the genitive referent to the object denoted by the head-noun. E.g.; Christine’s living – room, the assistant manager’s desk; Dad’s earnings.

Second, the form which can be called the “genitive of integer” (Lat, “genetivus integri”). Its constructional meaning will be defined as “organic possession”, i.e. a broad possessional relation of whole to its part. E.g.; Jane’s busy hands; Patrick’s voice; the patient’s health.

The subtype of the integer genitive can be called the “genitive of received qualification”(lat. “genitivus qualifications receptae”).

Third, the “genitive of agent” (Lat. “genitivus agents”) The more traditional name of this genitive is “subjective” (Lat. “genitivus subjectivus”). The latter term seems inadequate because of its unjustified narrow application; nearly all the genitive types stand in subjective relation to the referents of the head-nouns. The general meaning of the genitive of agent is explained in its name; this form renders an activity or some broader processual relation with the referent of the genitive as its subject. E.g. the great man’s arrival. Peter’s insistence, the councilor’s attitude.

Article is determining unit of specific nature accompanying the noun in communicative collocation its special character is clearly seen against the background of determining words of halt-national semantics whereas the function of the determiners such as this, any some is to explicitly interpret the referent of the noun in relation to other object or phenomena of a like kind, the semantic purpose of the article is to specificity the nautical referent, as it were, altogether unostentatiously, to define in the most general way, without any explicitly expressed contrasts.

Another peculiarity of the article, as different from the determiners inquisition, is that, in the absence of a determiner, the use of the article with the noun is quite obligatory, in so far as cases of non use of the article are subject to no less definite rules than the use of it.

A mere semantic observation of the article in English, i.e. the definite **the** and the indefinite article **a/an**, at once discloses not two, but three meaningful characterizations of the nautical referent achieved by their correlative functioning, namely; one rendered by the definite article, one rendered by the indefinite article, and one rendered by the absence (or non use) of the article

The definite article express the identification or individualization of the referent of the noun; the less of this article shows that the object denoted is taken in its concrete, individual quality.

The indefinite article, as different from the definite article, is commonly interpreted as referring the object denoted by the noun to a certain class of similar object; in other words, the indefinite article expresses a classifying generalization of the nautical referent, or takes it in a relatively general sense. To prove its relatively generalizing functional meaning, we may use the diagnostic insertions of specifying-classifying phrases into the construction in question, we may also employ the transformation of implicit comparative constructions with the indefinite article into the corresponding explicit comparative constructions.

The essential points of the said classification are three in number.

First: The meaningful absence of the article before the countable noun in the singular signifies that the noun is taken in an abstract sense, expressing the most general idea of the object denoted. This meaning, which may be called the meaning of “**absolute generalization**”, can be demonstrated by inserting in the tested construction chosen generalizing modifier (such as in general, in the abstract, in the broadest sense).

Second. The absence of the article before the uncountable noun corresponds to the two kinds of generalization, both relative and absolute. To decide which of the two meanings is realized in any particular case, the described tests should be carried out alternately.

Third: The absence of the article before the countable noun in the plural, likewise, corresponds to both kinds of generalization, and the exposition of the meaning in each case can be achieved by the same semantic tests.

To distinguish the demonstrated semantic functions of the non-uses of the article by definition, we may say that the absence of the article with uncountable nouns, as well as with countable nouns in the plural, renders the meaning of “**uncharacterized generalization**”, achieved by the absence of the article with countable nouns in the singular.

The essential grammatical features of the article expressed in the above considerations and tests leave no room for misinterpretation at the final, generalizing stage of analysis.

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ОПОРНЫЕ ПОНЯТИЯ.

1. Categorical meaning
2. nominative case
3. Properties of substances
4. The categorical function
5. Substantive functions
6. Syntactic functions
7. Compound nouns
8. The category of gender
9. Opposition functions

QUESTIONS

1. What is the noun?
2. What are the categorial functional properties of the noun?
3. What syntactic functions do you know?
4. What is the lexico-grammatical status of the noun do you know?
5. What is the category of gender?

LECTURE 6 The ADJECTIVE

Plan:

- 6.1 Characteristics of the adjective
- 6.2. The semantically bound character of the adjective
- 6.3 . The functions of the adjective in the sentence
- 6.4. The degrees of comparison

The adjective expresses the categorial semantics of property of a substance. It means that each adjective used in the text presupposes relation to some noun the property of whose referent it denotes, such as its material, colour, dimensions, position, state, and other characteristics both permanent and temporary. It follows from this that, unlike nouns, adjectives do not possess a full nominative value.

Indeed, words like *long, hospitable, fragrant* cannot effect any self-dependent nominations; as units of informative sequences they exist only in collocations showing what is long, who is hospitable, what is fragrant.

The semantically bound character of the adjective is emphasized in English by the use of the pro-substitute one in the absence of the notional head-noun of the phrase. E.g.: I don't want a yellow balloon, let me have the green one over there.

On the other hand if the adjective is placed in a nominatively self-dependent position, this leads to its substantivization. E.g.: Outside it was a beautiful day, and the sun tinged the snow with red. Cf.: The sun tinged the snow with the red colour.

Adjectives are distinguished by a specific combinability with nouns, which they modify, if not accompanied by adjuncts, usually in pre-position, and occasionally in post-position: by a combinability with link-verbs, both functional and notional; by a combinability with modifying adverbs.

In the sentence the adjective performs the functions of *an attribute and a predicative*. Of the two, the more specific function of the adjective is that of an attribute, since the function of a predicative can be performed by the noun as well. There is, though, a profound difference between the predicative uses of the adjective and the noun which is determined by their native categorial features. Namely, the predicative adjective expresses some attributive property of its noun-referent, whereas the predicative noun expresses various substantival characteristics of its referent, such as its identification or classification of different types. This can be shown on examples analysed by definitional and transformational procedures. Examples:

You talk to people as if they were a group. → You talk to people as if they formed a group. Quite obviously, he was a friend. → His behaviour was like that of a friend.

Cf., as against the above:

I will be silent as a grave. → I will be like a silent grave. Walker felt healthy. → Walker felt a healthy man. It was sensational. → That fact was sensational fact.

When used as predicatives or post-positional attributes, a considerable number of adjectives, in addition to the general combinability characteristics of the whole class, are distinguished by a complementive combinability with nouns. The complement-expansions of adjectives are effected by means of prepositions. E.g. *fond of, jealous of (ревнивый), curious of suspicious of; angry with, sick with; serious about, certain about, happy about; grateful to, thankful to, etc.* Many such adjectival collocations render essentially verbal meanings and some of them have direct or indirect parallels among verbs. Cf.: *be fond of*- love, like: *be envious of*-envy; *be angry with*-resent; *be mad for, about-covet; be thank ful to*- thank.

Alongside of other complementive relations expressed with the help of prepositions and corresponding to direct and prepositional object-relations of verbs, some of these adjectives may render relations of addressee. Cf.: *grateful to, indebted to, partial to, useful for*.

To the derivational features of adjectives belong a number of suffixes and prefixes of which the important are: *ful* (hopeful), *-less* (flawless), *-ish* (bluish), *-ous* (famous), *-ive* (decorative), *-is* (basic); *un-*(unprecedented), *in-* (inaccurate), *pre-*(premature). Among the adjectival affixes should also be named the prefix *a-*, constitutive for the stative subclass which is to be discussed below.

All the adjectives are traditionally divided into two large subclasses: qualitative and relative.

Relative adjectives express such properties of a substance as are determined by the direct relation of the substance to some other substance. E.g.: wood-a wooden hut; mathematics-mathematical precision; history-a historical event; table-tabular presentation; colour-coloured postcards; surgery-surgical treatment; the Middle Ages-mediaeval rites.

Qualitative adjectives, as different from relative ones denote various qualities of substances which admit of a quantitative measure. The measure of a quality can be estimated as high or low, adequate or inadequate, sufficient or insufficient, optimal or excessive. Cf.: an awkward situation(неудобное положение)- a very awkward situation; a difficult task-too difficult a task; an enthusiastic reception-rather an enthusiastic reception; a hearty welcome-not a very hearty welcome;

In this connection, the ability of an adjective form degrees of comparison is usually taken as a formal sign of its qualitative character, in opposition to a relative adjective which is understood as incapable of forming degrees of comparison by definition. Cf.: a pretty girl—a prettier girl; a quick look — a quicker look; a hearty welcome — the heartiest of welcomes; a bombastic speech(дібдебели, аса кеткен) — the most bombastic speech.

However, in actual speech the described principle of distinction is not at all strictly observed, which is noted in the very grammar treatises putting it forward. Two typical cases of contradiction should be pointed out here.

In the first place, substances can possess such qualities as are incompatible with the idea of degrees of comparison. Accordingly, adjectives denoting these qualities, while belonging to the qualitative subclass, are in the ordinary use incapable of forming degrees of comparison. Here refer adjectives like extinct, immobile, deaf, final, fixed, etc.

In the second place, many adjectives considered under the heading of relative still can form degrees of comparison, thereby, as it were, transforming the denoted relative property of a substance into such as can be graded quantitatively. Cf.: a mediaeval approach—rather a mediaeval approach — a far more mediaeval approach; of a military design — of a less military design — of a more military design; a grammatical topic — a purely grammatical topic — the most grammatical of the suggested topics.

In order to overcome the demonstrated lack of rigour in the definitions in question, we may introduce an additional linguistic distinction which is more adaptable to the chances of usage. The suggested distinction is based on the evaluative function of adjectives. According as they actually give some qualitative evaluation to the substance referent or only point out its corresponding native property, all the adjective functions may be grammatically divided into "evaluative" and "specificative". In particular, one and the same adjective, irrespective of its being basically (i.e. in the sense of the fundamental semantic property of its root constituent) "relative" or "qualitative", can be used either in the evaluative function or in the specificative function.

For instance, the adjective good is basically qualitative. On the other hand, when employed as a grading term in teaching, i.e. a term forming part of the marking scale together with the grading terms bad, satisfactory, excellent, it acquires the said specificative value; in other words, it becomes a specificative, not an evaluative unit in the grammatical sense (though, dialectically, it does signify in this Case a lexical evaluation of the pupil's progress). Conversely, the adjective wooden is basically relative, but when used in the broader meaning "expressionless" or "awkward" it acquires an evaluative force and, consequently, can presuppose a greater or lesser degree ("amount") of the denoted property in the corresponding referent. E.g.:

Bundle found herself looking into the expressionless, wooden face of Superintendent Battle (A. Christie). The superintendent was sitting behind a table and looking more wooden than ever (Ibid).

The degrees of comparison are essentially evaluative formulas, therefore any adjective used in a higher comparison degree (comparative, superlative) is there by made into an evaluative adjective, if only for the nonce (see the examples above).

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

Among the words signifying properties of a noun referent there is a lexemic set which claims to be recognized as a separate part of speech, i.e. as a class of words different from the adjectives in its class-forming features. These are words built up by the prefix a- and denoting different states, mostly of temporary duration. Here belong lexemes like afraid, agog, adrift, ablaze. In traditional grammar these words were generally considered under the heading of "predicative adjectives" (some of them also under the heading of adverbs), since their most typical position in the sentence is that of a predicative and they are but occasionally used as pre-positional attributes to nouns.

Notional words signifying states and specifically used as predicatives were first identified as a separate part of speech in the Russian language by L. V. Sherba and V. V. Vinogradov. The two scholars called the newly identified part of speech the "category of state" (and, correspondingly, separate words making up this category, "words of the category of state"). Here belong the Russian

words mostly ending in -o, but also having other suffixes: тепло, зябко, одиноко, радостно, жаль, лень, etc. Traditionally the Russian words of the category of state were considered as constituents of the class of adverbs, and they are still considered as such by many Russian scholars.

On the analogy of the Russian "category of state", the English qualifying a-words of the corresponding meanings were subjected to a lexico-grammatical analysis and given the part-of-speech heading "category of state". This analysis was first conducted by B. A. Ilyish and later continued by other linguists. The term "words of the category of state", being rather cumbersome from the technical point of view, was later changed into "stative words", or "statives".

The part-of-speech interpretation of the statives is not shared by all linguists working in the domain of English, and has found both its proponents and opponents.

Probably the most consistent and explicit exposition of the part-of-speech interpretation of statives has been given by B. S. Khaimovich and B. I. Rogovskaya [Khaimovich, Rogovskaya, 199 ff]. Their theses supporting the view in question can be summarized as follows.

First, the statives, called by the quoted authors "ad-links" (by virtue of their connection with link-verbs and on the analogy of the term "adverbs"), are allegedly opposed to adjectives on a purely semantic basis, since adjectives denote "qualities", and statives-adlinks denote "states". Second, as different from adjectives, statives-adlinks are characterized by the specific prefix a-. Third, they allegedly do not possess the category of the degrees of comparison. Fourth, the combinability of statives-adlinks is different from that of adjectives in so far as they are not used in the pre-positional attributive function, i.e. are characterized by the absence of the right-hand combinability with nouns.

The advanced reasons, presupposing many-sided categorial estimation of statives, are undoubtedly serious and worthy of note. Still, a closer consideration of the properties of the analysed lexemic set cannot but show that, on the whole, the said reasons are hardly instrumental in proving the main idea, i.e. in establishing the English stative as a separate part of speech. The re-consideration of the stative on the basis of comparison with the classical adjective inevitably discloses the fundamental relationship between the two, -such relationship as should be interpreted in no other terms than identity on the part-of-speech level, though, naturally, providing for their distinct differentiation on the subclass level.

The first scholar who undertook this kind of re-consideration of the lexemic status of English statives was L. S. Bar-khudarov, and in our estimation of them we essentially follow his principles, pointing out some additional criteria of argument.

First, considering the basic meaning expressed by the stative, we formulate it as "stative property", i.e. a kind of property of a nounal referent. As we already know, the adjective as a whole signifies not "quality" in the narrow sense, but "property", which is categorially divided into "substantive quality as such" and "substantive relation". In this respect, statives do not fundamentally differ from classical adjectives. Moreover, common adjectives and participles in adjective-type functions can express the same, or, more specifically, typologically the same properties (or "qualities" in a broader sense) as are expressed by statives.

Indeed, the main meaning types conveyed by statives are: the psychic state of a person (afraid, ashamed, aware); the physical state of a person (astir, afoot); the physical state of an object (afire, ablaze, aglow); the state of an object in space (askew, awry, aslant). Meanings of the same order are rendered by pre-positional adjectives. Cf.: the living predecessor-the predecessor alive; eager curiosity-curiosity agog; the burning house-the house afire; a floating raft-a raft afloat; a half-open door-a door ajar; slanting ropes-ropes aslant; a vigilant man-a man awake; similar cases-cases alike; an excited crowd-a crowd astir.

It goes without saying that many other adjectives and participles convey the meanings of various states irrespective of their analogy with statives. Cf. such words of the order of psychic state as *despondent, curious, happy, joyful*; such words of the order of human physical state as *sound, refreshed, healthy, hungry*; such words of the order of activity state as *busy, functioning, active, employed*, etc.

Second, turning to the combinability characteristics of statives, we see that, though differing from those of the common adjectives in one point negatively, they basically coincide with them in the other points. As a matter of fact, statives are not used in attributive pre-position, but, like adjectives, they are

distinguished by the left-hand categorial combinability both with nouns and link-verbs. Cf.:

The household was all *astir*. -----The household was all *excited* It was strange to see the household *astir* at this hour of the day. It was strange to see the household *active* at this hour of the day.

Third, analysing the functions of the stative corresponding to its combinability patterns, we see that essentially they do not differ from the functions of the common adjective. Namely, the two basic functions of the stative are the predicative and the attribute. The similarity of functions leads to the possibility of the use of a stative and a common adjective in a homogeneous group. E.g.: Launches and barges moored to the dock were *ablaze* and *loud* with wild sound.

True, the predominant function of the stative, as different from the common adjective, is that of the predicative. But then, the important structural and functional peculiarities of statives uniting them in a distinctly separate set of lexemes cannot be disputed. What is disputed is the status of this set in relation to the notional parts of speech, not its existence or identification as such.

Fourth, from our point of view, it would not be quite consistent with the actual lingual data to place the stative strictly out of the category of comparison. As we have shown above, the category of comparison is connected with the functional division of adjectives into evaluative and specificative. Like common adjectives, statives are subject to this flexible division, and so in principle they are included into the expression of the quantitative estimation of the corresponding properties conveyed by them. True, statives do not take the synthetical forms of the degrees of comparison, but they are capable of expressing comparison analytically, in cases where it is to be expressed. Cf.:

Of us all, Jack was the one *most aware* of the delicate situation in which we found ourselves. I saw that the adjusting lever stood *far more askew* than was allowed by the directions.

Fifth, quantitative considerations, though being a subsidiary factor of reasoning, tend to support the conjoint part-of-speech interpretation of statives and common adjectives. Indeed, the total number of statives does not exceed several dozen (a couple of dozen basic, "stable" units and, probably, thrice as many "unstable" words of the nature of coinages for the nonce (Жигадло, Иванова, Иофик, 170]). This number is negligible in comparison with the number of words of the otherwise identified notional parts of speech, each of them counting thousands of units. Why, then, an honour of the part-of-speech status to be granted to a small group of words not differing in their fundamental lexico-grammatical features from one of the established large word-classes?

As for the set-forming prefix *a-*, it hardly deserves a serious consideration as a formal basis of the part-of-speech identification of statives simply because formal features cannot be taken in isolation from functional features. Moreover, as is known, there are words of property not distinguished by this prefix, which display essential functional characteristics inherent in the stative set. In particular, here belong such adjectives as *ill*, *well*, *glad*, *sorry*, *worth {while}*, *subject (to)*, *due (to)*, *underway*, and some others. On the other hand, among the basic statives we find such as can hardly be analysed into a genuine combination of the type "prefix+root", because their morphemic parts have become fused into one indivisible unit in the course of language history, e.g. *aware*, *afraid*, *aloof*.

Thus, the undertaken semantic and functional analysis shows that statives, though forming a unified set of words, do not constitute a separate lexemic class existing in language on exactly the same footing as the noun, the verb, the adjective, the adverb; rather it should be looked upon as a subclass within the general class of adjectives. It is essentially an adjectival subclass, because, due to their peculiar features, statives are not directly opposed to the notional parts of speech taken together, but are quite particularly opposed to the rest of adjectives. It means that the general subcategorisation of the class of adjectives should be effected on the two levels: on the upper level the class will be divided into the subclass of stative adjectives and common adjectives; on the lower level the common adjectives fall into qualitative and relative, which division has been discussed in the foregoing paragraph.

As we see, our final conclusion about the lexico-grammatical nature of statives appears to have returned them into the lexemic domain in which they were placed by traditional grammar and from which they were alienated in the course of subsequent linguistic investigations. A question then

arises, whether these investigations, as well as the discussions accompanying them, have served any rational purpose at all.

The answer to this question, though, can only be given in the energetic affirmative. Indeed, all the detailed studies of stative participles undertaken by quite a few scholars, all the discussions concerning their systemic location and other related matters have produced very useful results, both theoretical and practical.

The traditional view of the stative was not supported by any special analysis, it was formed on the grounds of mere surface analogies and outer correlations. The later study of stative participles resulted in the exposition of their inner properties, in the discovery of their historical productivity as a subclass, in their systemic description on the lines of competent inter-class and inter-level comparisons. And it is due to the undertaken investigations (which certainly will be continued) that we are now in a position, though having rejected the fundamental separation of the stative from the adjective, to name the subclass of stative participles as one of the peculiar, idiomatic lexemic features of Modern English.

ОПОРНЫЕ ПОНЯТИЯ

- 1)self-dependent nomination
- 2)substantivization
- 3)definitional procedures
- 4)relative adjectives
- 5)qualitative adjectives
- 6)evaluative formulas
- 7)predicatives
- 8)lexemic set
- 9)proponents
- 10)opponents

LECTURE 7 THE PRONOUN

Plan:

7.1. Classification of pronouns.

7.2.Different functions of pronouns.

The pronoun is a part of speech which points out objects and their qualities without naming them.

Classification of pronouns.

Pronouns fall under the following groups:

- 1.Personal pronouns: I, he,she,it,we,you,they;
- 2.Possessive pronouns: my,his,her,its,our,your,their;
mine,his,hers,ours,yours,theirs;
- 3.Reflexive pronouns:myself,himself,herself,itself,ourselves,
yourself(yourselves),themselves.
- 4.Reciprocal pronouns: each other, one another.
- 5.Demonstrative pronouns: this(these),that (those),such, (the)same.
- 6.Interrogative pronouns:who, whose,what ,which.
- 7.Relative pronouns: who, whose,which, that, as.
- 8.Conjunctive pronouns:who, whose, which, what.

9. Defining pronouns: each, every, everybody, everyone, everything, all, either, both, other, another.

10. Indefinite pronouns: some, any, somebody, anybody, something, anything, someone, anyone, one.

11. Negative pronouns: no, none, neither, nobody, no one, nothing.

The pronoun is a part of speech which points out objects and their qualities without naming them.

The personal pronouns have two cases:

The nominative case: I, he, she, it, we, you, they.

The objective case: me, him, her, it, us, you, them.

Personal pronouns may have different functions in the sentence, those of subject, object, predicative:

I was not free to resume the interrupted chain of my reflections till bed-time... (Ch. Bronte) (subject).

He arranged to meet her at the 96th Street station.... (Wilson) (object).

“Who is there?” “It’s me.” “Who is me?” “George Jackson, sir.” (predicative).

Possessive pronouns.

Possessive pronouns have the same distinctions of person, number, and gender as personal pronouns.

Possessive pronouns have two forms, namely the dependent (or conjoint) form and the independent (or absolute form).

Conjoint forms of possessive pronouns

Singular: my, your, his, her, its,

Plural: your, our, their.

Absolute forms of possessive pronouns

Singular: Mine, his, hers.

Plural: ours, yours, theirs.

Reflexive pronouns.

Reflexive pronouns have the categories of person, number, and gender in the third person singular.

Singular: myself, yourself, himself, herself, itself

Plural: ourselves, yourselves, themselves.

Reflexive pronouns refer to the subject of the sentence in which they are used, indicating that the action performed by the doer passes back to him or is associated with him.

In the sentence they are usually used as direct objects.

Reciprocal pronouns.

Reciprocal pronouns are the group-pronouns each other and one another. They express mutual action or relation. The subject to which they refer must always be in the plural.

Each other generally implies only two, one another two or more than two persons:

He had never heard his father or his mother speak in an angry voice, either to each other, himself, or anybody else.(Galsworthy)

Seated in a row close to one another were three ladies - Aunts Ann, Hester(the two Forsythe maids),and Julie (short for Julia)...(Galsworthy)

Reciprocal pronouns have two forms.

The common case of reciprocal pronouns is used as an object.

The genitive case of reciprocal pronouns may be used as an attribute.

Reciprocal pronouns preceded by a preposition are used as a prepositional indirect object.

Demonstrative pronouns.

The demonstrative pronouns are *this, that, such, (the)same*.

The demonstrative pronouns *this* and *that* have two numbers:

this-these; that – those.

This is used to point at what is nearer in time or space; *that* points at what is farther away in time or space.

This and *that* may be applied both to persons and things.

The pronoun *such*.

She wore a red ribbon in her hair, and was the only one of the white company who could boast of such a pronounced adornment.(Hardy)

The pronoun *same* is always used with the definite article.

The demonstrative pronouns *this* and *that* are used as subjects, predicatives, objects, and attributes.

Interrogative pronouns.

Interrogative pronouns are used in inquiry, to form special questions. They are: *who, whose, what, which*.

The interrogative pronoun *who* has the category of case: the nominative case is *who*, the objective case *whom*.

What when not attributive usually refers to things but it may be applied to persons when one inquires about their occupation.

Which has a selective meaning: it corresponds to the Russian *который из*(an individual of the group). It may refer to persons and things.

Relative pronouns.

Relative pronouns (*who, whose, which, that, as*)not only point back to a noun or a pronoun mentioned before but also have conjunctive power. They introduce attributive clauses.The word they refer to is called their accident.It may be a noun or pronoun.

Who is used in reference to human beings or animals.

Whose is mainly used in reference to human beings or animals.

Which is used in reference to things and animals.

That is mainly used in reference to animals and things.It may also be used in reference to human beings.

As usually introduces attributive clauses when the demonstrative pronoun *such* is used in the principal clause.

As may refer to living beings and things.

Conjunctive pronouns.

Conjunctive pronouns (who, what, whose, which) not only point back to some person or thing mentioned before but also have conjunctive power, introducing subordinate clauses.

In the clause they introduce they perform different functions, those of subject, predicative, attribute, object.

Defining pronouns.

The defining pronouns are: all, each, every, everybody, everyone, everything, either, both, other, another.

All is a generalizing pronoun, it takes a group of things or persons as a whole.

All may be used as subject, predicative, object, and attribute.

Both points out two persons, things or notions mentioned before.

The pronoun both may be used as subject, predicative, object, and attribute.

When preceded by a preposition both may be used as a prepositional indirect object.

Each may be used as subject, predicative, object, and attribute.

When preceded by a preposition each may be used as a prepositional indirect object.

Every is used only as an attribute.

Everybody, everyone refer to all the members of the group of persons mentioned before or taken one by one.

The pronouns everybody, everyone have two cases: the common case and the genitive case.

The common case may be used as subject and object.

The genitive case of the pronouns everyone and everybody is used as an attribute.

When preceded by a preposition everyone and everybody may be used as a prepositional indirect object.

Indefinite pronouns. Indefinite pronouns point out some person or thing indefinitely. The definite pronouns are **some, any, somebody, anybody, someone, anyone, something, anything, one**. The pronouns **somebody, anybody, someone, anyone, one** have two cases: the common case and the genitive case.

Some is chiefly used in affirmative sentences while any is used in negative and interrogative sentences and in conditional clauses.

Negative pronouns. Most of the indefinite pronouns correspond to negative pronouns: **some-no, none; something-nothing, none; somebody, someone-nobody, no one, none**.

The negative pronouns nobody, no one refer to human beings.

They correspond to the indefinite pronouns **somebody, someone** and to their defining pronouns **all, every, each, everybody**.

Nothing may be used as subject, predicative, or object.

The negative pronouns **nobody, none, nothing** are singular in meaning and when they are used as the subject of the sentence they require a verb in the singular.

TASK:1. I felt angry and frustrated when they rudely interrupted that which was being done purely for their own benefit.

Өзлериңиң пайдасына тайын болып питип турған исти турпайыларша бүлдіргенлиги ушын оларға ашығым келип қапа болып қалдым.

2. I felt sick and dirtied.

Қысылып терлеп мазам қашып атыр екенмен.

3. She didn't know anything about her nephew's love for the girl.

Ол өз жиенинің ол қызға ашық екенлиги хаққында хеш нәрсе билмейтуғын еди.

4. I looked at her for some moments before daring to open my mouth.

Мен оған бир нәрсе айтыўға батына алмай бетине тигилип тура бердим.

5. They didn't dare to attack us, did they?

Олар бизлерге хужим жасаўға шамасы келмейди қалды, солай емес пе?

6. He dared to meet his enemy face to face.

Ол өз душпаны менен жекпе-жек алысыўға уйғарды.

7. How dare you do such a thing?

Бундай ис ислеўге қалай кеўлиң барды? Сен буны ислеўге қалай жүрексиндиң?

TASK 2. Make up your own sentences using Pronouns and explain their usage in the sentence.

LECTURE 8

The English verb

8.1. Grammatical categories of the English verb.

8.2. Verb:Tense. Verb:Aspect

VERB: TENSE

1. The immediate expression of grammatical time, or "tense" (*Lat. tempus*), is one of the typical functions of the finite verb. It is typical because the meaning of process, inherently embedded in the verbal lexeme, finds its complete realisation only if presented in certain time conditions. That is why the expression or non-expression of grammatical time, together with the expression or non-expression of grammatical mood in person-form presentation, constitutes the basis of the verbal category of finitude, i.e. the basis of the division of all the forms of the verb into finite and non-finite.

When speaking of the expression of time by the verb, it is necessary to strictly distinguish between the general notion of time, the lexical denotation of time, and the grammatical time proper, or grammatical temporality.

The dialectical-materialist notion of time exposes it as the universal form of the continual consecutive change of phenomena. Time, as well as space are the basic forms of the existence of matter, they both are inalienable properties of reality and as such are absolutely independent of human perception. On the other hand, like other objective factors of the universe, time is reflected by man through his perceptions and intellect, and finds its expression in his language.

It is but natural that time as the universal form of consecutive change of things should be appraised by the individual in reference to the moment of his immediate perception of the outward reality. This moment of immediate perception, or "present moment", which is continually shifting in time, and the linguistic content of which is the "moment of speech", serves as the demarcation line between the past and the future. All the lexical expressions of time, according as they refer or do not refer the denoted points or periods of time, directly or obliquely, to this moment, are divided into "present-oriented", or "absolute" expressions of time, and "non-present-oriented", "non-absolute" expressions of time.

The absolute time denotation, in compliance with the experience gained by man in the course of his cognitive activity, distributes the intellectual perception of time among three spheres: the sphere of the present, with the present moment included within its framework; the sphere of the past, which precedes the sphere of the present by way of retrospect; the sphere of the future, which follows the

sphere of the present by way of prospect.

Thus, words and phrases like *now, last week, in our century, in the past, in the years to come, very soon, yesterday, in a couple of days*, giving a temporal characteristic to an event from the point of view of its orientation in reference to the present moment, are absolute names of time.

The non-absolute time denotation does not characterise an event in terms of orientation towards the present. This kind of denotation may be either "relative" or "factual".

The relative expression of time correlates two or more events showing some of them either as preceding the others, or following the others, or happening at one and the same time with them. Here belong such words and phrases as *after that, before that, at one and the same time with, some time later, at an interval of a day or two, at different times*, etc.

The factual expression of time either directly states the astronomical time of an event, or else conveys this meaning in terms of historical landmarks. Under this heading should be listed such words and phrases as *in the year 1066, during the time of the First World War, at the epoch of Napoleon, at the early period of civilisation*, etc.

In the context of real speech the above types of time naming are used in combination with one another, so that the denoted event receives many-sided and very exact characterisation regarding its temporal status.

Of all the temporal meanings conveyed by such detailing lexical denotation of time, the finite verb generalises in its categorial forms only the most abstract significations, taking them as dynamic characteristics of the reflected process. The fundamental divisions both of absolute time and of non-absolute relative time find in the verb a specific presentation, idiomatically different from one language to another. The form of this presentation is dependent, the same as with the expression of other grammatical meanings, on the concrete semantic features chosen by a language as a basis for the functional differentiation within the verb lexeme. And it is the verbal expression of abstract, grammatical time that forms the necessary background for the adverbial contextual time denotation in an utterance; without the verbal background serving as a universal temporal "polariser" and "leader", this marking of time would be utterly inadequate. Indeed, what informative content should the following passage convey with all its lexical indications of time (*in the morning, in the afternoon, as usual, never, ever*), if it were deprived of the general indications of time achieved through the forms of the verb — the unit of the lexicon which the German grammarians very significantly call "Zeitwort" — the "time-word":

My own birthday **passed** without ceremony. **I worked** as usual *in the morning* and *in the afternoon* **went** for a walk in the solitary woods behind my house. **I have never been** able to discover what it is that gives these woods their mysterious attractiveness. They are like no woods **I have ever** known (S. Maugham).

In Modern English, the grammatical expression of verbal time, i.e. tense, is effected in two correlated stages. At the first stage, the process receives an absolute time characteristic by means of opposing the past tense to the present tense. The marked member of this opposition is the past form. At the second stage, the process receives a non-absolute relative time characteristic by means of opposing the forms of the future tense to the forms of no future marking. Since the two stages of the verbal time denotation are expressed separately, by their own oppositional forms, and, besides, have essentially different orientation characteristics (the first stage being absolute, the second stage, relative), it stands to reason to recognise in the system of the English verb not one, but two temporal categories. Both of them answer the question: "What is the timing of the process?" But the first category, having the past tense as its strong member, expresses a direct retrospective evaluation of the time of the process, fixing the process either in the past or not in the past; the second category, whose strong member is the future tense, gives the timing of the process a prospective evaluation, fixing it either in the future (i.e. in the prospective posterior), or not in the future. As a result of the combined working of the two categories, the time of the event reflected in the utterance finds its adequate location in the temporal context, showing all the distinctive properties of the lingual presentation of time mentioned above.

In accord with the oppositional marking of the two temporal categories under analysis, we shall call

the first of them the category of "primary time", and the second, the category of "prospective time", or, contractedly, "prospect".

2. Verb: Aspect

The aspective meaning of the verb, as different from its temporal meaning, reflects the inherent mode of the realization of the process irrespective of its timing.

As we have already seen, the aspective meaning can be in-built in the semantic structure of the verb, forming an invariable, derivative category. In English, the various lexical aspective meanings have been generalized by the verb in its subclass division into limitive and unlimitive sets. On the whole, this division is loose, the demarcation line between the sets is easily trespassed both ways. In spite of their want of rigour, however, the aspective verb subclasses are grammatically relevant in so far as they are not indifferent to the choice of the aspective grammatical forms of the verb. In Russian, the aspective division of verbs into perfective and imperfective is, on the contrary, very strict. Although the Russian category of aspect is derivative, it presents one of the most typical features of the grammatical structure of the verb, governing its tense system both formally and semantically.

Two systems of verbal forms, in the past grammatical tradition analyzed under the indiscriminate heading of the "temporal inflexion" i.e. synthetic inflexion proper and analytical composition as its equivalent, should be evaluated in this light; the continuous forms and the perfect forms.

The aspective or non- aspective identification of the forms in question will, in the long run, be dependent on whether or not they express the direct, immediate time of the action denoted by the verb, since a general connection between the aspective and temporal verbal semantic is indisputable.

The continuous verbal forms analyzed on the principles of oppositional approach admit of only one interpretation, and that is aspective. The continuous forms are aspective because, reflecting the inherent character of the process. Performed by the, they do not and cannot, denote the timing of the process. The opposition constituting the corresponding category is effected between the continuous and the non-continuous (indefinite) verbal forms. The categorial meaning discloses the nature of development of the verbal action, on which ground the suggested name for the category as a whole will be "development". As is the with the it her categories, its expression is combined with other categorial expressions is one and the same verb-form, involving also the category that features the perfect. Thus, to be consistent in our judgments, we must identify, within the framework of the manifestations of the category of development, not only perfect continuous forms, but also the perfect indefinite forms.

ОПОРНЫЕ ПОНЯТИЯ

- 1) person and number
- 2) subsystems
- 3) morphemic mark
- 4) relative
- 5) factual
- 6) specific feature
- 7) aspective meaning
- 8) non-aspective
- 9) derivative
- 10) categorial expression

LECTURE 9 The English verb: Grammatical categories of the English verb.

Plan:

9.1. Verb: Voice /The verbal category of voice

9.2. Verb: Mood

9.3. The category of prospect expresses

The verbal category of voice shows the direction on the process as regards the participants of the situation reflected in the syntactic construction.

The voice of the English verb is expressed by the opposition of the passive form of the verb to the active of the verb. The sign marking the passive form is the combination of **the auxiliary be** with the past participle of the conjugated verb (in symbolic notation; be...en-see). The passive form as the strong member of the opposition leaves this meaning unspecified, i.e. it expresses "non-passivity".

The category of voice has a much broader representation in the system of the English verb than in the system of the Russian verb, since in English not only transitive, but also intransitive objective verbs, including prepositional ones can be used in the passive. Besides, verbs taking not one, but two objects, as a rule, can feature both of them in the position of the passive subject ex.:

I've just been rung up by the police. The diplomat was refused transit facilities through London. She was undisturbed by the frown of his face. The dress has never been tried on. I won't be talked to like this etc.

The category of voice differs radically from all the other hitherto considered categories from the point of view of its referential qualities. Indeed, all the previously described categories reflect various characteristics of processes, both direct and oblique, as certain facts of reality existing irrespective of the speaker's perception. For instance, the verbal category of person expresses the personal relation of the process. The verbal number, together with person, expresses its person-numerical relation. The verbal primary time denotes the absolute timing of the process, i.e. its timing in reference to the moment of the speech. The category of prospect expresses the timing of the process from the point of view of its relation to the plane of posteriority. Finally, the analyzed aspects characterize the perspective inner qualities of the process. So, each of these categories does disclose some actual property of the process denoted by the verb, adding more and more particulars to the depicted processual situation. But we cannot say the same about the category of voice.

As a matter of fact, the situation reflected by the passive construction does not differ in the least from the situation reflected by the active construction—the nature of the process is preserved intact, the situational participants remain in their places in their unchanged quality. What is changed, then, with the transition from the active voice to the passive voice, is the subjective appraisal of the situation by the speaker—the plane of his presentation of it. It is clearly seen when comparing any pair of constructions—one of which is the passive counterpart of the other. Cf. The guards dispersed the crowd in front of the Presidential Palace. The crowd in front of the Presidential Palace was dispersed by the guards.

In the two constructions, the guards as the doer of the action, the crowd as the recipient of the action are the same; the same also is the place of action, i.e. the space in front of the Palace. The presentation planes, though, are quite different with the perspective constructions, they are in fact mutually reverse. Namely, the first sentence, by its functional destination, features the act of guards, whereas the second sentence, in accord with its meaningful purpose, features the experience of the crowd.

This property of the category of voice shows its immediate connection with syntax, which finds expression in indirect transformational relations between the active and passive constructions.

The said fundamental meaningful difference between the two forms of the verb and the corresponding constructions that are built around them goes with all the concrete connotations specifically expressed by the active and passive presentation of the same event in various situational contexts. In particular, we find the object-experience-features achieved by the passive in its typical uses in cases the subject is unknown or is not to be mentioned for certain reasons, or when the attention of the speaker is centered on the action as such. Cf. Respectively:

Another act of terrorism has been committed in Argentina. Dinner was announced, and our conversation stopped. The defeat of the champion was very much regretted.

All the functional distinctions of the passive, both categorial and contextual-connotative, are sustained in its use with verb's.

For instance, in the following passive infinitive phrase the categorial object-experience-featuring is accompanied by the logical accent of the process characterizing the quality of its situational object.

The category of mood, undoubtedly, is the most controversial category of the verb. Of the face of it the principles of its analysis, the nomenclature, the relation to other categories, in particular, to tenses, all this has received and is receiving different presentations and appraisals with different authors.

The category of mood expresses the character of connection between the process denoted by the verb and the actual reality, either presenting the process as a fact that really happened, happens or will happen, or treating it as an imaginary phenomenon, i.e. the subject of a hypothesis, speculation, desire.

It follows from this that the functional opposition underlying the category as a whole is constituted by the forms of oblique mood meaning, i.e. those of unreality, contrasted against the forms of direct mood meaning, i.e. those of reality, the former making up the strong member, the latter, the weak member of the opposition.

The formal description of the category has its source in the traditional school grammar. It is through the observation of immediate differences in changeable forms that the mood distinctions of the verb were indicated by the forefathers of modern sophisticated descriptions of the English grammatical structure. These differences, similarity the categorial forms of person number, and time are most clearly pronounced with the unique verb be.

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ОПОРНЫЕ ПОНЯТИЯ

- 1). Situational semantics
- 2). Connected with
- 3). Personal denotation
- 4). Verbal semantics
- 5). Grammatical treating
- 6). Category of person
- 7). Subsystems
- 8). Universal system
- 9). Morphemic mark
- 10). Common system of person forms.

QUESTIONS.

1. What can you say categories of person and number?
2. What is the expression of the category of person?
3. What do you know about the relative expression of time?
4. What do you know about grammatical expression of time?
5. What is the verbal category of voice?

LECTURE 10 THE ADVERB

Plan:

- 10.1. The function of adverbial complement.

10.2. The category of degrees of comparison

The adverb is usually defined as a word expressing either property of an action, or property of another property, or circumstances in which an action occurs. This definition, though certainly informative and instructive, fails to directly point out the relation between the adverb and the adjective as the primary qualifying part of speech.

In an attempt to overcome this drawback, let us define the adverb as a notional word expressing a non-substantive property, that is, a property of a non-substantive referent. This formula immediately shows the actual correlation between the adverb and the adjective, since the adjective is a word expressing a substantive property.

Properties may be of a more particular, “organic” order, and a more properties, the adverb denotes those characterizing processes and other properties. Of the inorganic properties, the adverb denotes various circumstantial characteristics of processes or whole situations built around processes.

The above definition, approaching the adverb as a word of the secondary qualifying order, presents the entire class of adverbial words as the least self-dependent of all the four notional parts of speech. Indeed, as has been repeatedly pointed out, the truly complete nominative value is inherent only in the noun, which is the name of substances. The verb comes next in its self-relations of substances, i.e. their dynamic relational properties in the broad sense. After that follow qualifying parts of speech—first the adjective denoting qualifications of substances, and then the adverb denoting qualifications of non-substantive phenomena which find themselves within the range of notional signification.

As we see, the adverb is characterized by its own, specific nominative value, providing for its inalienable status in the system of the parts of speech. Hence, the complaints of some linguists that the adverb is not rigorously defined and in fact presents something like a “dump” for those words which have been rejected by other parts of speech can hardly be taken as fully justified. On the other hand, since the adverb does denote qualifications of the second order, not of the first one like the adjective, it includes a great number of semantically weakened words which are in fact intermediate between notional and functional lexemes by their status and often display features of pronominal nature.

In accord with their categorial meaning, adverbs are characterized by a combinability with verbs, adjectives and words of an adverbial nature. The functions of adverbs in these combinations consist in expressing different adverbial modifiers. Adverbs can also refer to whole situations; in this function they are considered under the heading of situation-“determinants”. Cf.: The woman was crying hysterically. (an adverbial modifier of manner, in left-hand contact combination with the verb-predicate) Wilson looked at him appraisingly. (an adverbial modifier of manner, in left-hand distant combination with the verb-predicate).

Adverbs can also combine with nouns acquiring in such cases a very peculiar adverbial-attributive function, essentially in post-position, but in some cases also in pre-position. E.g.:

The world *today* presents a picture radically different from what it was before the Second World War. Our vigil *overnight* was rewarded by good news: the operation seemed to have succeeded. Franklin D. Roosevelt, the *then* President of the United States, proclaimed the “New Deal”—a new Government economic policy.

The use of adverbs in outwardly attributive positions in such and like examples appears to be in contradiction with the functional destination of the adverb—a word that is intended to qualify a non-noun syntactic element by definition.

However, this seeming inconsistency of the theoretical interpretation of adverbs with their actual uses can be clarified and resolved in the light of the syntactic principle of nominalization elaborated within the framework of the theory of paradigmatic syntax (see further). In accord with this principle, each predicative syntactic construction paradigmatically correlates with a noun-phrase displaying basically the same semantic relations between its notional constituents. A predicative construction can be actually changed into a noun-phrase, by which change the dynamic situation expressed by the predicative construction receives a static name. Now, adverbs-determinants modifying in

constructions of this kind the situation as a whole, are preserved in the corresponding nominalized phrases without a change in their inherent functional status. Cf.:

The world that exists *today*. → The world *today*. We kept vigil *overnight*. → Our vigil *overnight*.
Then he was the President. → The *then* President.

These paradigmatic transformational correlations explain the type of connection between the noun and its adverbial attribute even in cases where direct transformational changes would not be quite consistent with the concrete contextual features of constructions. What is important here, is the fact that the adverb used to modify a noun actually relates to the whole corresponding situation underlying the nounphrase.

In accord with their word-building structure adverbs may be *simple* and *derived*.

Simple adverbs are rather few, and nearly all of them display functional semantics, mostly of pronominal character: *here, there, now, then, so quite, why, how, where, when*.

The typical adverbial affixes in affixal derivation are, first and foremost, the basic and only productive adverbial suffix – *ly* (*slowly, tiredly, rightly, firstly*), and then a couple of others of limited distribution, such as –*ways* (*sideways, crossways*), –*wise* (*clockwise*), –*ward(s)* (*Homewards, seawards, afterwards*). The characteristic adverbial prefix is *a* – (*away, ahead, apart, across*).

Among the adverbs there are also peculiar composite formations and phrasal formations of prepositional, conjunctive and other types: *sometimes, nowhere, anyhow; at least, at most, at last; to and for; upside down; etc.*

A peculiar set of converted notional adverbs is formed by adjective-stem conversives, such as *fast, late, hard, high, close, loud, tight, etc.* The peculiar of these adverbs consists in the fact that practically all of them have a parallel form in –*ly*, the two component units of each pair often differentiated in meaning or connotation. Cf.: to work hard–*hardly* to work at all; to fall flat into the water–to ref use *flatly*; to speak loud–to criticize *loudly*; to fly high over the lake–to raise a *highly* theoretical question; etc.

Among the adjective-stem converted adverbs there are a few words with the non-specific –*ly* originally in-built in the adjective: *daily, weekly, lively, timely, etc.*

Adverbs are commonly divided into qualitative, quantitative and circumstantial.

By qualitative such adverbs are meant as express immediate, inherently non-graded qualities of actions and other qualities. The typical adverbs of this kind are qualitative adverbs in –*ly*. E.g.:

The little boy was crying bitterly over his broken toy. The plainly embarrasses Department of Industry confirmed the fact of the controversial deal.

The adverbs interpreted as “quantitative” include words of degree. These are lexical units of semi-functional nature expressing quality measure, or gradational evaluation of qualities. They may be subdivided into several very clearly pronounced sets.

The first set is formed by adverbs of high degree. These adverbs are sometimes classed as “intensifiers”: *very, quite, entirely, utterly, highly, greatly, perfectly, absolutely, strongly, considerably, pretty, much*. The second set includes adverbs of excessive degree (direct and reverse) also belonging to the broader subclass of intensifiers: *too, awfully, tremendously, dreadfully, terrifically*. The third set is made up of adverbs of unexpected degree: *surprisingly, astonishingly, amazingly*. The fourth set is formed by adverbs of moderate degree: *fairly, comparatively, relatively, moderately, rather*. The fifth set includes adverbs of low degree: *slightly, a little, a bit*. The sixth set is constituted by adverbs of approximate degree: *almost, nearly*. The seventh set includes adverbs of optimal degree: *enough, sufficiently, adequately*. The eighth set is formed by adverbs of inadequate degree: *insufficiently, intolerably, unbearably, ridiculously*. The ninth set is made up of adverbs of under-degree: *hardly, scarcely*.

As we see, the degree adverbs, though usually described under the heading of “quantitative”, in reality constitute a specific variety of qualitative words, or rather some sort of intermediate qualitative-

quantitative words, in so far as they are-used as quality evaluators. In this function they are distinctly different from genuine quantitative adverbs which are directly related to numerals and thereby form sets of words of pronominal order. Such are numerical-pronominal adverbs like *twice, four, times, etc.; twofold, threefold, manyfold, etc.*

Thus, we will agree that the first general subclass of adverbs is formed by qualitative adverbs which are subdivided into qualitative adverbs of full notional value and degree adverbs-specific functional words.

Circumstantial adverbs are also divided into notional and functional.

The functional circumstantial adverbs are words of pronominal nature. Besides quantitative (numerical) adverbs mentioned above, they include adverbs of time, place, manner, cause, consequence. Many of these words are used as syntactic connectives and question-forming functionals. Here belong such words as *now, here, when, where, so, thus, how, why, etc.*

As for circumstantial adverbs of more self-dependent nature, they include two basic sets: first, adverbs of time; second, adverbs of place: *today, tomorrow, already, ever, never, shortly, recently, seldom, early, late; homeward, eastward, near, far, outside, ashore, etc.*

The two varieties express a general idea of temporal and spatial orientation and essentially perform deictic (indicative) functions in the broader sense. Bearing this in mind, we may unite them under the general heading of “orientative” adverbs, reserving the term “circumstantial” to syntactic analysis of utterances.

Thus, the whole class of adverbs will be divided, first, into nominal and pronominal, and the nominal adverbs will be subdivided into qualitative and orientative, the former including genuine qualitative adverbs and degree adverbs, the latter falling into temporal and local adverbs, with further possible subdivisions of more detailed specifications.

Among the various types of adverbs, those formed from adjectives by means of the suffix *-ly* occupy the most representative place and pose a special problem.

The problem is introduced by the very regularity of their derivation, the rule of which can be formulated quite simply: each qualitative adjective has a parallel adverb in *-ly*. E.g.: silent-silently, slow-slowly, tolerable-tolerably, pious-piously, sufficient-sufficiently, tired-tiredly, explosive-explosively, etc.

This regularity of formation accompanied by the general qualitative character of semantics gave cause to A.I. Smirnitsky to advance the view that both sets of words belong to the same part of speech, the qualitative adverbs in *-ly* being in fact adjectives of specific combinability.

The strong point of the adjectival interpretation of qualitative adverbs in *-ly* is the demonstration of the actual similarity between the two lexemic sets in their broader evaluative function, which fact provides for the near-identity of the adjectival and adverbial grammatical categories of comparison. On the whole, however, the theory in question is hardly acceptable for the mere reason that derivative relations in general are not all relations of lexico-grammatical identity; for that matter, they are rather relations of non-identity, since they actually constitute a system of production of one type of lexical units from another type of lexical units. As for the types of units belonging to the same or different lexemic classes, this is a question of their actual status in the system of lexicon, i.e. in the lexemic paradigm of nomination reflecting the fundamental correlations between the lexemic sets of language. Since the English lexicon does distinguish adjectives and adverbs; since adjectives are substantive-qualifying words in distinction to adverbs, which are non-substantive qualifying words; since, finally, adverbs in *-ly* do preserve this fundamental non-substantive-qualification character-there can't be any question of their being “adjectives” in any rationally conceivable way. As for the regularity or irregularity of derivation, it is absolutely irrelevant to the identification of their class-lexemic nature.

Thus, the whole problem is not a problem of part-of-speech identity; it is a problem of inter-class connections, in particular, of inter-class systemic division of functions, and, certainly, of the correlative status of the compared units in the lexical paradigm of nomination.

But worthy of attention is the relation of the adverbs in question to adverbs of other types and varieties, i.e. their intra-class correlations. As a matter of fact, the contrast to the *ly*-adverbs, are devoid of uniformity to such an extent that practically all of them fall into a multitude of minor non-productive derivational groups. Besides, the bulk of notional qualitative adverbs of other than *ly*-derivation have *ly*-correlatives (both of similar and dissimilar meanings and connotations). These facts cannot but show that adverbs in *-ly* should be looked upon as the standard type of the English adverb as a whole.

ОПОРНЫЕ ПОНЯТИЯ

- 1).informative and instructive 2).combinability with verbs
- 3).adverbial modifiers 4).adverbial affixes
- 5).composite formations 6). qualitative adjective
- 7).moderate degree 8).circumstantial adverbs 9).qualitative adverbs

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LECTURE 11 The Numeral.

Plan: **11.1.Cardinal numerals**

11.2.Ordinal numerals

The numeral is a part of speech which indicates number or the order of persons and things in a series.

Accordingly numerals are divided into cardinals(cardinal numerals) and ordinals (ordinal numerals).

Cardinal numerals. Cardinal numerals indicate exact number, they are used in counting. As to their structure, the cardinal numerals from 1 to 12 and 100, 1000, 1,000,000 are simple words (one, two, three, etc., hundred, thousand, million); those from 13 to 19 are derivatives with the suffix *-teen* (thirteen, fourteen, etc.); the cardinal numerals indicating tens are formed by means of the suffix *-ty* (twenty, thirty, etc.). The numerals from 21 to 29, from 31 to 39, etc. are composite: twenty-two, thirty-five, etc. Such cardinal numerals as hundred, thousand, million may be used with articles (a hundred, a thousand, a million); they may be substantivized and used in the plural (hundreds, thousands, millions). When used after numerals they do not take *-s* (two hundred times, thirty thousand years etc.). The word million may be used with or without *-s* (two million, two millions). When the word million is followed by some other cardinal numeral only the first variant is possible: two million five hundred inhabitants.

The functions of cardinal numerals in a sentence.

Cardinal numerals are used in the function of subject, predicative, object, adverbial modifier and attribute (apposition).

...the young man opposite had long since disappeared. Now the other two got out. (Mansfield) (subject)

Earle Fox was only fifty-four, but he felt timeless and ancient. (Wilson) (predicative)

And again she saw them, but not four, more like forty laughing, sneering jeering...

(Mansfield) (object)

At eight the gang sounded for supper. (Mansfield) (adverbial modifier)

Four men in their shirt-sleeves stood grouped together on the garden path. (attribute)

And he remembered the holidays they used to have the four of them, with a little girl, Rose, to look after the babies. (Mansfield) (apposition)

Cardinals are sometimes used to denote the place of an object in a series. Cardinals are used in reading indications: line 23, page 275, Chapter X, No 49, etc.

...but from the corner of the street until she came to No 26 she thought of those four flights of stairs. (Mansfield)

Class nouns modified by a numeral in post-position are used without articles.

All he wanted was to be made to care again, but each night he took up his briefcase and walked home to dinner at 117th Street and Riverside Drive, apartment 12D. (Wilson)

Ordinal numerals

Ordinal numerals show the order of persons and things in a series.

With the exception of the first three (first, second, third) the ordinal numerals are formed from cardinal by means of the suffix -th.

In ordinal groups only the last member of the group takes the ordinal form:

(the) sixty-fifth, (the) twenty-third. Ordinal numerals are generally used with the definite article (the first, the fifth, the tenth, etc.). Ordinal numerals may be used with the indefinite article when they do not show a definite order of persons and things in a series:

“I’ve torn simply miles and miles of the frill,” wailed a third. (Mansfield)

The functions of ordinal numerals in a sentence.

As a rule ordinal numerals are used as attributes.

“No, this is my first dance,” she said. (Mansfield)

Almost immediately the band started and her second partner seemed to spring from the ceiling. (Mansfield)

But they may also be used as subject, as predicative and as object.

Then, advancing obliquely towards us, came a fifth. (Wells) (subject)

Sooner or later, someone is going to tell you about that damned river, so I might as well be the first. (Wilson) (predicative)

...she noted a scar on his cheek, another that peeped out from under the hair of the forehead, and a third that ran down and disappeared under the starched collar. (object).

In fractional numbers the numerator is a cardinal and the denominator is a substantivized ordinal: *two-thirds*, *three-sixths*.

Decimal fractions are read in the following way: 7.58- seven point(decimal) five eight.

ОПОРНЫЕ ПОНЯТИЯ

- 1).cardinal and ordinal
- 2).subject
- 3).predicative
- 4).indications
- 5).post-position
- 6).attribute
- 7). fractional numbers
- 8).decimal fractions
- 9).denominator
- 10).numerator

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LECTURE 12 FUNCTIONAL WORDS

Plan:

12.1. Notional and functional parts of speech, their differences.

12.2. Prepositions Article. Grammatical characteristics of small classes of words

1)The preposition is a part of speech which denotes the relations between objects and phenomena. It shows the relations between a noun or a pronoun and other words.

Usually the preposition is not stressed and stands before the word it refers to.

Desert moved quickly to the windows. Sometimes, however, a preposition may be separated from the word it refers to and placed at the end of the sentence or clause. In that case it is stressed. But he sounds as though he knows what he's talking about. (*Wilson*)

The preposition may be weakly stressed before a pronoun.

Example: She wrote the words **to** them herself, and other poems. (*Galsworthy*) The preposition is stressed when its meaning is emphasized. The book was **in** the table, not **on** it.

As to their morphological structure prepositions fall under the following groups: **1.simple** (*in, on, at, for, with, etc.*); **2.derivative** (*behind, below, across, along, etc.*); **3.compound** (*inside, outside, within, without, etc.*); **4.composite** (*because of, in front of, in accordance with, etc.*). According to their **meaning** prepositions may be divided into prepositions of **place** and **direction** (*in, on, below, under, between, etc.*), time (*after, before, at, etc.*), prepositions expressing abstract relations) (*by, with, because of, with a view to*) The lexical meaning of some prepositions is quite concrete (e. g. *in, below, between, before, after, till, etc.*), while that of some other prepositions may be weakened to a great extent (e.g. *to, by, of*).

For instance, the preposition **to** generally indicates direction or movement towards something:

Every night Sissy went **to** Rachel's lodging, and sat with her in her small neat room.

But in some cases the lexical meaning of the preposition **to** is weakened.

... all the house belongs **to** me, or will do in a few years. (*Ch. Bronte*)

Some prepositions are polysemantic and may express different relations; e. g. *for*:

Never once had Erik sensed the struggle **for** life. (*Wilson*)(purpose)

Even when their eyes had met and her sister had approached the bed, Louisa lay **for** minutes looking' at her in silence... (*Dickens*)(time)

She could scarcely move her head **for** pain and heaviness, her eyes were strained and sore, and she was very weak. (*Dickens*)(cause)

Some prepositions are homonymous with adverbs and conjunctions.

For instance, the prepositions *after* and *before* are homonymous with the adverbs *after* and *before* and with the conjunctions *after* and *before*.

Example: 1. There is an old saying that if a man has not fallen in love before forty, he had better not fall in love **after**. (ADVERB) *2.* When he got back to Ann Arbor, he found Savina in a state of excitement because Trasker had heard from Regan **after** Erik had left. (conjunction)

3. "Where do you intend to stay tonight?" she asked **after** a moment. (preposition)

4. The colour rushed into Bassinet's face, but soon receded, leaving it sallow-brown as **before**. (ADVERB) *5.* He did not write to her, and it was almost a year **before** he began to see her again. (*Wilson*) (CONJUNCTION) *6.* This letter seemed to afford her peculiar satisfaction; she read it through twice

before replying to the landlady. (preposition)

Though identical in form, adverbs, prepositions, and conjunctions are different parts of speech. The adverb, unlike the preposition and conjunction, serves as part of the sentence, e. g. *after* is an adverbial modifier of time, etc.

Some prepositions (*on, in, by, over, off, up*) are homonymous with postpositions.'

A preposition as well as a postposition does not perform any independent function in the sentence. But while a preposition denotes the relation between objects and phenomena, a postposition is part of a composite verb. A preposition is not usually stressed, while a postposition usually bears the stress. We've got to live **on** what we earn. (*Cronin*) (PREPOSITION) He liked Erik more than any of the assistants the department had taken **on** in a long time, as much as he could like one of the younger men.

2)The particle is a part of speech giving modal or emotional emphasis to other words or groups of words or clauses. A particle may join one part of the sentence to another (connecting particles). Particles have no independent function in the sentence.

According to their meaning particles fall under the following main groups:

1. Limiting particles: *only, just, but, alone, solely, merely, barely, etc.*

*I only wanted to make you speak. **Just** one question, Mrs. Dartie*

Are you still fond of your husband?)

*Soames was **but** following in the footsteps of his father.*

Her name alone was almost enough for one who was terribly susceptible to the charm of words. (Galsworthy) He had taken up with it solely because he was starving. (London) She (Ruth) thought she was merely interested in him (Martin) as an unusual type possessing various potential excellences, and she even felt philanthropic about it.

*They were spreading not **merely** on the surface, but within. (Galsworthy) He **barely** acknowledged the young fellow's salute.*

2. Intensifying particles: *simply, still, just, yet, all, but, only, quite, even, etc.*

*He made plans to renew this time in places **still** more delightful.*

*He **just** did dislike him. They did not **even** know that he was married.*

*If Jo were **only** with him! But out there' he'll **simply** get bored to death.*

3. Connecting particles: **too, also.** Pickering comes in. He **also** takes off his hat and overcoat. (*Shaw*) He (James) was silent. Soames, **too**, was silent.

4. Negative particles: **not, never**. No, he was **not** afraid of that. She looked round her. Nothing — **not** a thing, no tiniest disturbance of her hall, nor of the dining room.

I **never** spoke to him except to ask him to buy a flower off me.

Some of the particles are polysemantic, for instance **just, only**.

That's **just** his way of talking. (LIMITING, PARTICLE)

Why, I think, that's a terrible price to ask for it, **just** awful. (*eiser*) (Intensifying particles)

French people **only** come to England to make money. **Limiting particles**

If **only** there was a joyful future to look forward to! . Intensifying particles

Almost all the particles are homonymous with other parts of speech, chiefly with adverbs (*simply*), but also with conjunctions (*but*), pronouns (*all*), and adjectives (*only*). The particles *else, solely, merely* have no homonyms.

TASKS: 1. Peculiarities of usage Prepositions and their connection with other parts of speech.

2. Explain the place of particles in the sentence.

3. Write your own examples using modal words, interjections, conjunctions.

. **Modal words.** The modal words express the attitude of the speaker to the reality, possibility or probability of the action he speaks about.

According to their meaning modal words fall under the following main groups:

- (1) words expressing certainty (*certainly, surely, assuredly, of-course, no doubt, apparently, undoubtedly, etc.*);
- (2) words expressing supposition (*perhaps, maybe, possibly, probably, etc.*);
- (3) words showing whether the speaker considers the action he speaks about desirable or undesirable (*happily — unhappily; luckily—unluckily; fortunately—unfortunately*).

In the sentence modal words are used as parentheses. sometimes they are used as sentence-words.

Certainly you'll admit we could finish all this in a month.

"Will you allow me to detain you one moment,"¹ said he. "Certainly," replied the unwelcome visitor.

Most modal words have developed from adverbs, so very often there exists a formal identity between modal words and adverbs. For instance such modal words as *certainly, surely, happily* are homonymous with the adverbs *certainly, surely, happily*.

Such modal words as *possibly, probably, Indeed*, also derived from adverbs, have no corresponding homonymous adverbs because the latter ceased to be used in Modern English.

Modal words used as sentence-words are similar to the words *yes* and *no* expressing affirmation and negation, which are also sentence-words.

Though formally identical with adverbs, modal words differ from them in meaning and syntactical function.

If he were not married as *happily* as he was, might not something come of it? (ADVERB)

Performing their semantic functions, words in an utterance form various syntagmatic connections with one another.

One should distinguish between syntagmatic groupings of notional words alone, syntagmatic groupings of notional words with functional words, and syntagmatic groupings of functional words alone.

Different combinations of notional words (notional phrases) have a clearly pronounced self-dependent nominative destination, they denote complex phenomena and their properties in their inter-connections, including dynamic interconnections (semi-predicative combinations). *Cf.*: a sudden trembling; a soul in pain; hurrying along the stream; to lead to a cross-road; strangely familiar; so sure of their aims.

Combinations of a notional word with a functional word are equivalent to separate words by their nominative function. Since a functional word expresses some abstract relation, such combinations, as a rule, are quite obviously non-self-dependent; they are, as it were, stamped as artificially isolated from the context. *Cf.*: in a low voice; with difficulty; must finish; but a moment; and Jimmy; too cold; so unexpectedly.

We call these combinations "formative" ones. Their contextual dependence ("synsemantism") is quite natural; functionally they may be compared to separate notional words used in various marked grammatical forms (such as, for instance, indirect cases of nouns). *Cf.*: *Eng.* Mr. Snow's — of Mr. Snow; him — to him; *Russ.* Иванов — к Иванову; лесом — через лес.

Expanding the cited formative phrases with the corresponding notional words one can obtain notional phrases of contextually self-dependent value ("autosemantic" on their level of functioning). *Cf.*: *Eng.* Mr. Snow's considerations — the considerations of Mr. Snow; gave it him — gave it to him; *Russ.* позвонили Иванову — позвонили к Иванову; шли лесом — шли через лес.

In this connection we should remember that among the notional word-classes only the noun has a full nominative force, for it directly names a substance. Similarly, we may assert that among various phrase-types it is the noun-phrase that has a full phrasal nominative force (see further).

As for syntagmatic groupings of functional words, they are essentially analogous to separate functional words and are used as connectors and specifiers of notional elements of various status. *Cf.*: from out of; up to; so that; such as; must be able; don't let's.

Functional phrases of such and like character constitute limited groups supplementing the corresponding subsets of regular one-item functional words, as different from notional phrases which, as free combinations, form essentially open subsets of various semantic destinations.

semantic properties.

Groupings of the first type are constituted by words related to one another on an equal rank, so that,

for a case of a two-word combination, neither of them serves as a modifier of the other. Depending on this feature, these combinations can be called "equipotent".

Groupings of the second type are formed by words which are syntactically unequal in the sense that, for a case of a

two-word combination, one of them plays the role of a modifier of the other. Due to this feature, combinations of the latter type can be called "dominational".

Equipotent connection in groupings of notional words is realised either with the help of conjunctions (syndetically), or without the help of conjunctions (asyndetically). *Cf.*: prose and poetry; came and went; on the beach or in the water; quick but not careless; — no sun, no moon; playing, chatting, laughing; silent, immovable, gloomy; Mary's, not John's.

In the cited examples, the constituents of the combinations form logically consecutive connections that are classed as coordinative. Alongside of these, there exist equipotent connections of a non-consecutive type, by which a sequential element, although equal to the foregoing element by its formal introduction (coordinative conjunction), is unequal to it as to the character of nomination. The latter type of equipotent connections is classed as "cumulative".

The term "cumulation" is commonly used to mean connections between separate sentences. By way of restrictive indications, we may speak about "inner cumulation", i. e. cumulation within the sentence, and, respectively, "outer cumulation".

Cumulative connection in writing is usually signalled by some intermediary punctuation stop, such as a comma or a hyphen. *Cf.*: *Eng.* agreed, but reluctantly; quick — and careless; satisfied, or nearly so. *Russ.* сѣт, но не очень; согласен, или почти согласен; дал — да неохотно.

Syndetic connection in a word-combination can alternate with asyndetic connection, as a result of which the whole combination can undergo a semantically motivated sub-grouping. *Cf.*: He is a little man *with irregular features, soft dark eyes and a soft voice, very shy, with a gift of mimicry and a love of music* (S. Maugham).

In enumerative combinations the last element, in distinction to the foregoing elements, can be introduced by a conjunction, which underlines the close of the syntagmatic series. *Cf.*: All about them happy persons were enjoying the good things of life, talking, laughing, *and* making merry (S. Maugham).

The same is true about combinations formed by repetition. *E. g.*: There were rows of books, books *and* books everywhere.

Dominational connection, as different from equipotent connection, is effected in such a way that one of the constituents of the combination is principal (dominating) and the other is subordinate (dominated). The principal element is commonly called the "kernel", "kernel element", or "headword"; the subordinate element, respectively, the "adjunct", "adjunct-word", "expansion".

Dominational connection is achieved by different forms of the word (categorical agreement, government), connective words (prepositions, i. e. prepositional government), word-order.

Dominational connection, like equipotent connection, can be both consecutive and cumulative. *Cf.*: a careful observer -----an observer, seemingly careful; definitely out of the point — — out of the point, definitely; will be helpful in any case will be helpful — at least, in some cases.

The predicative connection of words, uniting the subject and the predicate, builds up the basis of the sentence. The reciprocal nature of this connection consists in the fact that the subject dominates the predicate determining the person of predication, while the predicate dominates the subject, determining the event of predication, i. e. ascribing to the predicative person some action, or state, or quality. This difference in meaning between the elements of predication, underlying the mutually opposite directions of domination, explains the seeming paradox of the notion of reciprocal domination, exposing its dialectic essence. Both directions of domination in a predicative group can be demonstrated by a formal

test.

The domination of the subject over the predicate is exposed by the reflective character of the verbal category of person and also the verbal category of number which is closely connected with the former.

The English grammatical forms of explicit subject-verb agreement (concord) are very scarce (the inflexion marking the Third person singular present, and some special forms of the verb *be*). Still, these scarce forms are dynamically correlated with the other, grammatically non-agreed forms. Cf.: he went — he goes ----- I went — I go.

But apart from the grammatical forms of agreement, the predicative person is directly reflected upon the verb-predicate as such; the very semantics of the person determines the subject reference of the predicative event (action, state, quality). Thus, the subject unconditionally dominates over the predicate by its specific substantive categories in both agreed, and non-agreed forms of predicative connection.

As for the predicate dominating the subject in its own sphere of grammatical functions, this fact is clearly demonstrated by the correlation of the sentence and the corresponding noun-phrase. Namely, the transformation of the sentence into the noun-phrase places the predicate in the position of the head-word, and the subject, in the position of the adjunct. Cf.: The train arrived. → The arrival of the train.

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

The predicative person is expressed in the infinitival construction by the prepositional *for*-phrase, in the gerundial construction by the possessive or objective form of the substantive, in the participial construction by the nominative (common) form of the substantive. Cf.: *The pupil* understands mistake —» *for the pupil* to understand his mistake —» *the pupil('s)* understanding his mistake — *the pupil* understanding his mistake.

In the cited semi-predicative (or potentially-predicative) combinations the "event"-expressing element is devoid of the formal agreement with the "person"-expressing element, but the two directions of domination remain valid by virtue of the very predicative nature of the syntactic connection in question (although presented in an incomplete form).

Thus, among the syntagmatic connections of the reciprocal domination the two basic subtypes are distinguished: first, complete predicative connections, second, incomplete predicative connections (semi-predicative, potentially-predicative connections).

The completive, one-way connection of words (monolateral domination) is considered as subordinative on the ground that the outer syntactic status of the whole combination is determined by the kernel element (head-word). Compare:

She would be reduced to a nervous wreck. → She would be reduced to a wreck. → She would be reuced. That woman was astonishingly beautiful. → That woman was beautiful.

In the cited examples the head-word can simply be isolated through the deletion of the adjunct, the remaining construction being structurally complete, though schematic. In other cases, the head-word cannot be directly isolated, and its representative nature is to be exposed, for instance, by diagnostic questions. Compare.: Larry greeted the girl heartily. —» Whom did Larry greet? → How did Larry greet the girl?

The questions help demonstrate that the verb is presupposed as the kernel in its lines of connections, i.

e. objective and adverbial ones.

All the completive connections fall into two main divisions: objective connections and qualifying connections.

Objective connections reflect the relation of the object to the process and are characterised as, on the whole, very close. By their form these connections are subdivided into non-prepositional (word-order, the objective form of the adjunct substantive) and prepositional, while from the semantico-syntactic point of view they are classed as direct (the immediate transition of the action to the object) and indirect or oblique (the indirect relation of the object to the process). Direct objective connections are non-prepositional, the preposition serving as an intermediary of combining words by its functional nature. Indirect objective connections may be both prepositional and non-prepositional. Since, on the other hand, some prepositional objective connections, in spite of their being indirect, still come very near to direct ones in terms of closeness of the process-substance relation expressed, all the objective connections may be divided into "narrow" and "broader". Semantically, narrow prepositional objective connections are then to be classed together with direct objective connections, the two types forming the corresponding subclasses of non-prepositional (direct) and prepositional (indirect) narrow objective connections of words. Cf.:

He remembered *the man*. I won't stand *any more nonsense*. I sympathised *with the child*. They were working *on the problem*. Etc.

Cf. examples of broader indirect objective connections, both non-prepositional and prepositional:

Will you show *me* the picture? *Whom* did he buy it *for*? Tom peeped *into the hall*. Etc.

Further subdivision of objective connections is realised on the basis of subcategorising the elements of objective combinations, and first of all the verbs; thus, we recognise objects of immediate action, of perception, of speaking, etc.

Objective connection may also combine an adjunct substance word with a kernel word of non-verbal semantics (such as a state or a property word), but the meaning of some processual relation is still implied in the deep semantic base of such combinations all the same. Cf.: *aware* of John's presence → *am aware*; *crazy* about her → *got crazy* about her; *full* of spite → *is full* of spite; etc.

Qualifying completive connections are divided into attributive and adverbial. Both are expressed in English by word-order and prepositions.

Attributive connection unites a substance with its attribute expressed by an adjective or a noun.

E. g.: an *enormous* appetite; an *emerald* ring; a woman of *strong character*, the case *for the prosecution*; etc.

Adverbial connection is subdivided into primary and secondary.

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

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

Different completive noun combinations are distinguished by a feature that makes them into quite special units on the phrasemic level of language. Namely, in distinction to all the other combinations' of words they are directly related to whole sentences, i. e. predicative combinations of words. This fact was illustrated above when we described the verbal domination over the subject in a predicative grouping of words

Compare some more examples given in the reverse order:

The arrival of the train → The train arrived. The baked potatoes → The potatoes are baked. The gifted pupil → The pupil has a gift.

Completive combinations of adjectives and adverbs (adjective-phrases and adverb-phrases), as different from noun combinations (noun-phrases), are related to predicative constructions but indirectly, through

the intermediary stage of the corresponding noun-phrase. Cf.: utterly neglected — utter neglect — The neglect is utter; very carefully — great carefulness — The carefulness is great; speechlessly reproachful — speechless reproach — The reproach is speechless.

These distinctions of completive word combinations are very important to understand for analysing paradigmatic relations in syntax.

The preposition is a part of speech which denotes the relations between objects and phenomena. It shows the relations between a noun or a pronoun and other words.

Usually the preposition is not stressed and stands before the word it refers to.

Desert moved quickly to the windows. Sometimes, however, a preposition may be separated from the word it refers to and placed at the end of the sentence or clause. In that case it is stressed. But he sounds as though he knows what he's talking about. (*Wilson*)

The preposition may be weakly stressed before a pronoun. She wrote the words to them herself, and other poems. (*Galsworthy*) The preposition is stressed when its meaning is emphasized. The book was in the table, not on it. As to their morphological structure prepositions fall under the following groups: **1. simple** (*in, on, at, for, with, etc.*); **2. derivative** (*behind, below, across, along, etc.*); **3. compound** (*inside, outside, within, without, etc.*); **4. composite** (*because of, in front of, in accordance with, etc.*). According to their meaning prepositions may be divided into prepositions of place and direction (*in, on, below, under, between, etc.*), time (*after, before, at, etc.*), prepositions expressing abstract relations (*by, with, because of* ^with a view to, The lexical meaning of some prepositions is quite concrete (e. g. *in, below, between, before, after, till, etc.*), while that of some other prepositions may be weakened to a great extent (e.g. *to, by, of*).

For instance, the preposition *to* generally indicates direction or movement towards something: Every night Sissy went to Rachel's lodging, and sat with her in her small neat room. But in some cases the lexical meaning of the preposition *to* is weakened.

... all the house belongs to me, or will do in a few years. (*Ch. Bronte*)

Some prepositions are polysemantic and may express different relations; e. g. *for*:

Never once had Erik sensed the struggle for life. (*Wilson*)(purpose)

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Though identical in form, adverbs, prepositions, and conjunctions are different parts of speech. The adverb, unlike the preposition and conjunction, serves as part of the sentence, e. g. *after* is an adverbial modifier of time, etc.

Some prepositions (*on, in, by, over, off, up*) are homonymous with postpositions.'

A preposition as well as a postposition does not perform any independent function in the sentence. But while a preposition denotes the relation between objects and phenomena, a postposition is part of a composite verb A preposition is not usually stressed, while a postposition usually bears the stress. We've got to live on what we earn. (*Cronin*) (PREPOSITION) He liked Erik more than any of the assistants the department had taken on in a long time, as much as he could like one of the younger men.

The particle is a part of speech giving modal or emotional emphasis to other words or groups of words or clauses. A particle may join one part of the sentence to another (connecting particles). Particles have no independent function in the sentence.

According to their meaning particles fall under the following main groups:

1. Limiting particles: *only, just, but, alone, solely, merely, barely, etc.*

I only wanted to make you speak. Just one question, Mrs. Dartie

Are you still fond of your husband?) Soames was but following in the footsteps of his father.

Her name alone was almost enough for one who was terribly susceptible to the charm of words. (Galsworthy) He had taken up with it solely because he was starving. (London) She (Ruth) thought she was merely interested in him (Martin) as an unusual type possessing various potential excellences, and she even felt philanthropic about it.

They were spreading not merely on the surface, but within. (Galsworthy) He barely acknowledged the young fellow's salute.

2. Intensifying particles: *simply, still, just, yet, all, but, only, quite, even, etc.*

He made plans to renew this time in places still more delightful. He just did dislike him. They did not even know that he was married. If Jo were only with him! But out there' he'll simply get bored to death.

3. Connecting particles: *too, also.* Pickering comes in. He also takes off his hat and overcoat. (*Shaw*) He (James) was silent. Soames, too, was silent.

4. Negative particles: *not, never*. No, he was not afraid of that. She looked round her. Nothing — not a thing, no tiniest disturbance of her hall, nor of the dining room.

I never spoke to him except to ask him to buy a flower off me.

Some of the particles are polysynaptic, for instance *just, only*.

That's just his way of talking. (LIMITING, PARTICLE)

Why, I think, that's a terrible price to ask for it, just awful. *eiser*) (. Intensifying particles)

French people only come to England to make money. **Limiting particles**

If only there was a joyful future to look forward to! . Intensifying particles

Almost all the particles are homonymous with other parts of speech, chiefly with adverbs (*simply*), but also with conjunctions (*but*), pronouns (*all*), and adjectives (*only*). The particles *else, solely*,

merely have no homonyms.

. Modal wordsThe modal words express the attitude of the speaker to the reality, possibility or probability of the action he speaks about.

According to their meaning modal words fall under the following main groups:

(1) words expressing certainty (*certainly, surely, assuredly, of-course, no doubt, apparently, undoubtedly, etc.*);

(2) words expressing supposition (*perhaps, maybe, possibly, probably, etc.*);

(3) words showing whether the speaker considers the action he speaks about desirable or undesirable (*happily — unhappily; luckily—unluckily; fortunately—unfortunately*).

In the sentence modal words are used as parentheses. sometimes they are used as sentence-words.

Certainly you'll admit we could finish all this in a month.

"Will you allow me to detain you one moment,"¹ said he. "Certainly," replied the unwelcome visitor

Most modal words have developed from adverbs, so very often there exists a formal identity between modal words and adverbs. For instance such modal words as *certainly, surely, happily* are homonymous with the adverbs *certainly, surely, happily*.

Such modal words as *possibly, probably, Indeed*, also derived 'from adverbs, have no corresponding homonymous adverbs because the latter ceased to be used in Modern English.

Modal words used as sentence-words are similar to the words *yes* and *no* expressing affirmation and negation, which are also sentence-words.

Though formally identical with adverbs, modal words differ from them in meaning and syntactical function.

If he were not married as *happily* as he was, might not something come of it? (ADVERB)

Lecture 13 Communicative types of sentences

Plan:

13.1. Simple sentence.

13.2. Composite sentences.

The domination of the subject over the predicative is exposed by the reflective character of the verbal category of person and also the verbal category of number which is closely connected with the former.

The English grammatical forms of explicit subject - verb agreement (concord) are very scarce (The inflexion marking the third person singular) present, and some special forms of the verb be). Still, these scarce forms are dynamically correlated with the other, grammatically non - agreed forms. Cf.: he went - he goes - I went - I go.

But apart from the grammatical forms of agreement, the predicative person is directly reflected upon the verb - predicate as such: the very semantics of the person determines the subject reference of the predicative event (action, state, quality). Thus, the subject unconditionally dominates over the predicate by its specific substantive categories in both agreed, and non-agreed forms of predicative connection.

As for the predicate dominating the subject in its own sphere of grammatical functions, this fact is clearly demonstrated by the correlation of the sentence and the corresponding noun-phrase. Namely, the transformation of the sentence into the noun-phrase places the predicate in the position of the head-word, and the subject, in the position of the adjunct.

Cf.: the train arrived - The arrival of the train.

The sentence is the immediate integral unit of speech built up of words according to a definite syntactic pattern and distinguished by a contextually relevant communicative purpose. Any coherent connection of words having an informative destination is effected within the framework of the sentence. Therefore the sentence is the main object of syntax as part of the grammatically theory.

The sentence, being composed of words, may in certain cases include one word of various lexico-grammatical standing. Cf.: Night. Congratulations. Away! Why? Certainly.

The actual existence of one- word sentences, however, does not contradict the general idea of the sentence as a special syntactic combination of words, the same as the notion of one- element set in mathematics does not contradict the general idea of the set as a combination of certain elements. Moreover, this fact cannot lead even to the inference that under some circumstances the sentence and the word may wholly coincide: a word- sentence as a unit of the text is radically different from a word-lexeme as a unit of lexicon, the differentiation being inherent in the respective places occupied by the sentence and the word in the hierarchy of language levels. While the word is a component element of the word-stock and as such is a nominative unit of language the sentence, linguistically, is a predicative utterance - unit. It means that the sentence not only names some referents as the help of its word- constituents, but also, first presents these referents as marking up a certain situation, or more specifically, a situational event, and second, reflects the connection between the nominal denotation of the went on the one hand, and objective reality on the other, showing the time of the event, its being real or unreal, desirable or undesirable, necessary or unreal, desirable or undesirable, necessary or unnecessary, etc.

The notional parts of the sentence referring to the basic elements of the reflected situation from, taken together, the nominative meaning of the sentence. For the sake of terminological consistency, the division of the sentence into notional parts can be just so called- the "grammatical division" of the "syntactic division". The discrimination of the nominative division of the sentence is traditional: it is this type of division that can conveniently be shown by a syntagmatic model, in particular, by a model of immediate constituents based on the traditional syntactic analysis.

Alongside of the nominative division of the sentence, the idea of the so called actual division of the sentence has been put forward in theoretical linguistics. The purpose of the actual division of the sentence, called also the "functional sentence perspective", is to reveal the correlative

significance of the sentence parts from the point view of their actual informative role in an utterance i.e. from the point of view of the immediate semantic contribution they make to the total information conveyed by the sentence in the context of connected speech. In other words, the actual division of the sentence in fact exposes its informative.

The main components of the actual division of the are the theme and the rheme. The theme expresses the starting point of the communication, i.e. it denotes an object or a phenomenon about which something is reported. The rheme expresses the basic informative part of the communication, its contextually relevant centre. Between the theme and the rheme are positioned intermediary, transitional parts of the actual division of various degrees of informative value (these parts are sometimes called "transition").

The theme of the actual division of the sentence may or may not coincide with the subject of the sentence. The rheme of the actual division, in its turn, may or may not coincide with the predicate of the sentence- either with the whole the predicate group or its part, such as the predicative, the object, the adverbial. Thus, in following sentence of various emotional character the theme is expressed by the subject, while the rheme is expressed by the predicate.

Max bounded forward. Again Charlie is being too clever! Her advice can't be of any to us.

In the list of the above sentences the theme coincides with the whole predicate group. In the second the adverbial introducer again can be characterized as a transitional element, i.e. an element informational intermediary between the theme and the rheme, the latter being expressed by the rest of the predicate group. The main part of the rheme - the "peak" of informative perspective is rendered in this sentence by the intensified predicative too clever. In the third the addressee object to us is more or less transitional, while the informative peak, as in the previous example is expressed by the predicative of any help.

In the following sentences the correlation between the nominative and actual divisions in the reverse: the theme is expressed by the predicative or its part, while the rheme is rendered by the subject.

Through the open window came the pull of an approaching motor car. Who is coming late but John? There is a difference of opinion between the parties.

Historically the theory of actual division of the sentence is connected with the analysis of the proposition. The principal parts of the proposition, as is known, are the logical subject and the logical predicate. These, like the theme and the rheme, may or may not coincide, respectively, with the subject and the predicate of the sentence. The logical categories of subject and predicate are prototypes of the linguistic categories of theme and rheme. However, if logic analyses its categories of subject and predicate as the meaningful components of certain forms of thinking, linguistics analyses the categories of theme and rheme as the corresponding means of expression used by speaker for the rendering of the informative content of his communications.

The sentence is a communicative unit, therefore the primary classification of sentences must be based on the communicative principle. This principle is formulated in traditional grammar as the "purpose of communication".

The purpose of communication by definition, refers to the sentence as a whole, and the structural features connected with the expression of this sentential function belong to the fundamental, constitutive qualities of the sentence as a linguistic unit.

In accord with the purpose of communication three cardinal sentence types have long been recognized in linguistic tradition: first, the declarative sentence; second, the imperative (include) sentence; third, the interrogative sentence.

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LECTURE – 14. COMPLEX SENTENCE.

PLAN:

14.1. Compound sentence.

14.2. Syntagmatic structure of the sentence and word-combination.

The complex sentence is a polypredicative construction built up on the principle of subordination. It is derived from two or more *base sentences* one of which performs the role of a matrix in relation to the others, the *insert sentences*. The matrix function of the corresponding base sentence may be more rigorously and less rigorously pronounced, depending on the type of subordinative connection realized.

When joined into one complex sentence, the matrix base sentence becomes the principal clause of it and the insert sentence, its subordinate clauses.

The complex sentence of minimal composition includes two clauses – a principal one and a subordinate one. Although the principal clause positionally dominates the subordinate clause, the two form a semantico – syntactic unity within the framework of which they are in fact interconnected, so that very existence of either of them is supported by the existence of the other.

The subordinate clause is joined to the principal clause either by a subordinating connector (subordinator), or, with some types of clauses, *asyndetically*. The functional character of the subordinative connector is so explicit that even in traditional grammatical descriptions of complex sentences this connector was approached as a transformer of an independent sentence into the subordinate sentence. Compare:

Moyra left the room. --- (I do remember quite well) that Moyra left the room. --- (He went on with his story) after Moyra left the room. --- (Fred remained in his place) though Moyra left the room. -- (The party was spoilt) because Moyra left the room. (It was surprice to us all) that Moyra left the room...

This paradigmatic scheme of the production of the subordinate clause vindicates the possible interpretation of contact – clauses in *asyndetic* connection as being joined to the principal clause by means of the «Zero» - connector. Compare:

--- (How do you know) \emptyset Moyra left the room?

Needless to say, the idea of the zero – subordinator simply stresses the fact of the meaningful (functional) character of the *asyndetic* connection of clauses, not denying the actual absence of connector in the *asyndetic* complex sentence.

The minimal, two – clause complex sentence is the main volume type of complex sentences. It is the most important type, first, in terms of frequency, since it's textual occurrence by far exceeds that the multi – clause complex sentences, second in terms of it's paradigmatic status, because a complex sentence of any volume is analyzable into a combination of two – clause complex sentence units.

The structural features of the principal clause differ with different types of subordinate clauses. In particular, various types of subordinate clauses specifically affect the principal clause from the point of view of the degree of its completeness. The principal clause is markedly incomplete complex sentences with the subject and predicative subordinate clauses. Example:

And why we descend to their level is a mystery to me. (The gaping principal part outside the subject clause: «- is a mystery to me».) Your statement was just what you were expected to say. (The gaping principal part outside the predicative clauses: «Your statement was just - »)

Of absolutely deficient character is the principal clause of the complex sentence that includes both subject and predicative subordinate clauses: its proper segment, i. e. the word – string standing apart from the subordinate clauses is usually reduced to a sheer finite link – verb. Compare:

How the managed to pull through is what baffles me. (The principal clause representation: «- is - »)

A question arises whether the treatment of the subject and predicative clauses is genuinely subordinate ones is relational at all. Indeed, how can the principal clause be looked upon as

syntactically (positionally) dominating such clauses as perform the functions of its main syntactic parts, in particular, that of the subject? How can the link – verb itself just a little more than auxiliary element, be taken as the «governing predicative construction» of a complex sentence? However, this seeming paradox is to be definitely settled on the principles of paradigmatic theory. Namely, to understand the status of the «deficiently incomplete and gaping» principal clause we must take into consideration the matrix nature of the principal clause in the sentence: the matrix presents the upper – level positional scheme which is to be completed by predicative constructions on the lower level. In the case of such clauses as subject and predicative, these are all the same subordinated to the matrix by way of being its embedded elements, i. e. the fillers of the open clausal positions introduced by it.

The principal clause dominates the subordinate clause positionally, but it doesn't mean that by its syntactic status it must express the central informative part of the communication. The information perspective in the simple sentence doesn't repeat the division of its constituents into primary and secondary, and likewise the information perspective of the complex sentence is not bound to duplicate the division of its clauses into principal and subordinate.

When we discussed the problem of the actual division of the sentence, we pointed out that in a neutral context the rheumatic parts of the sentence tends to be placed somewhere near the end of it. This holds true both for the simple and complex sentence, so that the order of clauses plays an important role in distributing primary and secondary information among them.

The formation of compound sentence

1. The compound sentence is a composite sentence built on the principle of coordination. Coordination, the same as subordination, can be expressed either syndetically (by means of coordinative connectors) or asyndetically.

The main semantic relations between the clauses connected coordinatively are copulative, adversative, disjunctive, causal, consequential, resultative. Similar semantic types of relations are to be found between independent, separate sentences forming a continual text. As is known, this fact has given cause to some scholars to deny the existence of the compound sentence as a special, regular form of the composite sentence.

The advanced thesis to this effect states that the so-called "compound sentence" is a fictitious notion developed under the school influence of written presentation of speech; what is fallaciously termed the "compound sentence" constitutes in reality a sequence of semantically related independent sentences not separated by full stops in writing because of an arbitrary school convention.

To support this analysis, the following reasons are put forward: first, the possibility of a falling, finalising tone between the coordinated predicative units; second, the existence, in written speech, of independently presented sentences introduced by the same conjunctions as the would-be "coordinate clauses"; third, the possibility of a full stop-separation of the said "coordinate clauses" with the preservation of the same semantic relations between them.

By way of example, let us take a textual sequence of independent monopredicative units:

Jane adored(очень любить) that actor. Hockins could not stand the sight of him. Each was convinced(убеждать) of the infallibility of one's artistic judgment. That aroused prolonged arguments.

In particular, the following arrangement of the predicative units into two successive compound sentences is quite justified from the semantico-syntactic point of view:

→ Jane adored that actor, but Hockins could not stand the sight of him. Each was convinced of the infallibility of one's judgment, and that aroused prolonged arguments.

As different from this, the version of arranging the same material given below cannot be justified in any syntactic or semantic sense:

→ Jane adored that actor. But Hockins could not stand the sight of him, each was convinced of

the infallibility of one's judgment. And that aroused prolonged arguments.

On the other hand, some *subordinate* clauses of a complex sentence can also be separated in the text, thus being changed into specific independent sentences. Still, no one would seek to deny the existence of complex sentence patterns based on optional subordinative connections.

Ex: Suddenly Laura paused *as if she was arrested by something invisible from here*. → Suddenly Laura paused. *As if she was arrested by something invisible from here*.

The compound sentence is derived from two or more base sentences which, as we have already stated above, are connected on the principle of coordination either syndetically or asyndetically. The main coordinating conjunctions, both simple and discontinuous, are: *and, but, or, nor, neither, for, either ... or, neither ... nor*, etc. The main adverbial coordinators are: *then, yet, so, thus, consequently, nevertheless, however*, etc.

LECTURE 15 Lexical and grammatical aspects of words

Plan:

15.1. Word classes.

15.2. The lexical meaning of words

The word is a nominative unit of language; it is formed by morphemes; it enters the lexicon of language as its elementary component (i.e. a component indivisible into smaller segment as regards its nominative function); together with other nominative units the word is used for the formation of the sentence a unit of information in the communication process.

In traditional grammar the study of the structure of the word was conducted in the light of the two basic criteria; positional (the location of the marginal morphemes in relation to the central ones) and semantic or functional (the correlative contribution of the morphemes to the general meaning of the word).

The combination of these two criteria in an integral description has led to the rational classification of morphemes that is widely used both in research linguistic work and in practical.

The roots of notional words are classical lexical morphemes.

The affixal morphemes include prefixes, suffixes and inflexions (in the tradition of the English school grammatical inflexions are commonly referred to as "suffixes").

The root, according to the positional content of the term (i.e. the border-area between prefixes and suffixes). Is obligatory any word, while affixes are not obligatory. Therefore one and the same morpheme segment of functional (i.e. non-notional) status, depending on various morpheme environments can in principle be used now as an affix (mostly, a prefix). Now as a root of; out –a root-word (preposition adverb, verbal postposition, adjective, noun verb) throughout –a composite word, in which –out serves as one of the roots (the categorical status of the meaning of both morphemes is the same). The morphemic composition of modern English words has a wide range of varieties in the lexicon of everyday speech the preferable morphemic types of stems are root-stems.

Synthetical grammatical forms are based on inner inflexion, outer inflexion, and suppletivity; hence, the forms are referred to as inner-inflexional, outer-inflexional, and suppletive.

Inner inflexion, or phonemic (vowel) interchange, is not productive in modern Indo-European languages, but it is peculiarly employed in some of their basic, most ancient lexemic elements. By this feature, the whole family of Indo-European languages is identified in linguistics as typologically „inflexional“.

Inner inflexion (grammatical „infixation“, see above) is used in English in irregular verbs (the bulk of them belong to the Germanic strong verbs) for the formation of the past indefinite and past participle: besides, it is used in a few nouns for the formation of the plural. Since the corresponding oppositions of forms are based on phonemic interchange, the initial paradigmatic form of each lexeme should also

be considered as inflexional. Cf.: take-took-taken, drive-drove-driven, keep-kept-kept, etc. : man-men, brother-brethren, etc.

Suppletivity, like inner inflexion, is not productive as a purely morphological type of form. It is based on the correlation of different roots as a means of paradigmatic differentiation. In other words roots, and this, as we pointed out in the foregoing chapter, unites it in principle with inner inflexion (or, rather, makes the latter into a specific variety of the former).

Suppletivity is used in the forms of the verbs be and go, in the irregular forms of the degrees of comparison, in some forms of personal pronouns. Cf.: be-an-are-is-was-were; go-went; good-better; bad-worse; much-more; little-less; I-me; we-us; she-her.

The grammatical categories which are realized by the described types of forms organized in functional paradigmatic oppositions, can either be innate for a given class of words, or only be expressed on the surface of it, serving as a sign of correlation with some other class.

For instance, the category of number is organically connected with the functional nature of the noun; it directly exposes the number of the referent substance, e.g. one ship- several ships. The category of number in the verb, however, by no means gives a natural meaningful characteristic to the denoted process: the process is devoid of numerical features such as are expressed by the grammatical number. Indeed, what is rendered by the verbal number is not a quantitative characterization of the process, but a numerical featuring of the subject-referent. Cf.: The girl is smiling. –The girls are smiling. The ship is in the harbour. –The ships are in the harbour.

Thus, from the point of view of referent relation, grammatical categories should be divided into „immanent“ categories, i.e. categories innate for a given lexemic class, and „reflective“ categories, i.e. categories of a secondary, derivative semantic value. Categorial forms based on subordinative grammatical agreement (such as the verbal person, the verbal number)are reflective, while categorial forms stipulating grammatical agreement in lexemes of a contiguous word-class (such as the substantive-pronominal person, the substantive number) are immanent. Immanent are also such categories and their forms as are closed within a word-class, i.e. do not transgress its borders; to these belong the tense of the verb, the comparison of the adjective and adverb etc.

Another essential division of grammatical categories based on the changeability factor of the exposed feature. Namely, the feature of the referent expressed by the category can be either constant (unchangeable, „derivational“), or variable (changeable, „demutative“).

An example of constant feature category can be seen the category of gender, which divides the class of English nouns into non-human names, human male names, human female names, and human common gender names .

Questions

- 1 .What is the semantic means of words?
2. What is the predicative connection of words?
- 3.What is the notional words?

LECTURE 16 SIMPLE SENTENCE: CONSTITUENT STRUCTURE

16.1.Grammatical structure of the simple sentence.

16. 2. Compound sentence.

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

The basic predicative meanings of the typical English sentence, as has already been pointed out, are expressed by the finite verb which is immediately connected with the subject of the sentence. This predicative connection is commonly referred to as the “predicative line” of the sentence. Depending on their predicative complexity, sentences can feature one predicative line or several (more than one)

predicative line; in other words, sentences may be, respectively, “monopredicative” and “polypredicative”. Using this distinction, we must say that the simple sentence is a sentence in which only one predicative line is expressed. E.g.: Bob has never *left* the stadium. Opinions *differ*. This *may happen* any time. The offer *might have been* quite fair. Etc.

The simple sentence, as any sentence in general is organized as a system of function-expression positions, the content of the functions being the reflection of a situational event.

The nominative parts of the simple sentence, each occupying a notional position in it, are subject, predicate, object, adverbial, attribute, parenthetical enclosure, addressing enclosure; a special, semi-notional positioning is occupied by an interjectional enclosure. The parts are arranged in a hierarchy, wherein all of them perform some modifying role. The ultimate and the highest object of this integral modification is the sentence as a whole, and through the sentence, the reflection of the situation.

Thus, the subject is a person – modifier of the predicate. The predicate is a process-modifier of the subject person. The object is a substance – modifier of a processual part (actional or stative). The adverbial is a quality modifier (in a broad sense) of a processual part or the whole of the sentence. The attribute is a quality modifier of a substantive part. The parenthetical enclosure is a detached speaker-bound modifier of any sentence-part or the whole of the sentence. The addressing enclosure is a substantive modifier of a destination of the sentence and hence, from its angle, a modifier of the sentence as a whole. The interjectional enclosure is a speaker-bound emotional modifier of the sentence.

2. The classification of simple sentences is based on two principles:

A) according to the purpose of the utterance; B) according to the structure.

According to the purpose of the utterance we distinguish four kinds of sentences,

The declarative sentence. The declarative sentence states a fact in the affirmative or negative form. In a declarative sentence the subject precedes the predicate. It is generally pronounced with a falling intonation.

1- Charles Dickens was born at Landport, Portsmouth.

They don't want anything from us- not even our respect

There is a great difference between English and Russian negative sentences. Whereas in English the predicate of a sentence can have only one negation, in Russian and in our native Language it can have more than one.

He **never** goes anywhere. - Он **никуда** не ходит.

The interrogative sentence. An interrogative sentence asks a question. It is formed by means of inversion, by placing the predicate before the subject.

There are four kinds of questions;

A) general questions; B) Special (Where do you live?) Who. Whose

C) Alternative Do you live in town or in the country?

D) Disjunctive questions requiring the answer **yes** or **no** and consisting of an affirmative statement followed by a negative question, or a negative statement followed by an affirmative question. The first part is spoken with a falling intonation and the second part with a rising intonation. You are not tired, are you? You are a student, aren't you? You don't speak French, do you?

Sentences having one verb-predicate and more than one subject to it, if the subjects form actually separate (though interdependent) predicative connections, cannot be considered as simple, either. E.g.: *The door* was open, and also *the front window*.

Thus, the syntactic feature of strict monopredication should serve as the basic diagnostic criterion for identifying the simple sentence in distinction to sentences of composite structures of various systemic standings.

§ 2. The simple sentence, as any sentence in general, is organised as a system of function-expressing positions, the content of the functions being the reflection of a situational event. The nominative parts of the simple sentence, each occupying a notional position in it, are subject,

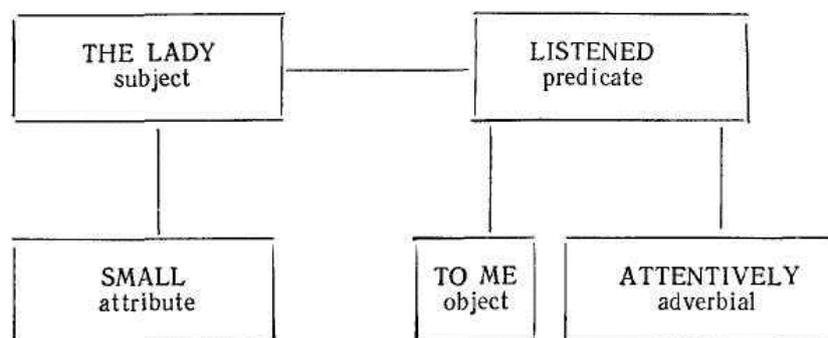
predicate, object, adverbial, attribute, parenthetical enclosure, addressing enclosure; a special, semi-notional position is occupied by an interjectional enclosure. The parts are arranged in a hierarchy, wherein all of them perform some modifying role. The ultimate and highest object of this integral modification is the sentence as a whole, and through the sentence, the reflection of the situation (situational event).

Thus, the subject is a person-modifier of the predicate. The predicate is a process-modifier of the subject-person. The object is a substance-modifier of a processual part (actional or statal). The adverbial is a quality-modifier (in a broad sense) of a processual part or the whole of the sentence (as expressing an integral process inherent in the reflected event). The attribute is a quality-modifier of a substantive part. The parenthetical enclosure is a detached speaker-bound modifier of any sentence-part or the whole of the sentence. The addressing enclosure (address) is a substantive modifier of the destination of the sentence and hence, from its angle, a modifier of the sentence as a whole. The interjectional enclosure is a speaker-bound emotional modifier of the sentence.

All the said modifiers may be expressed either singly (single modifiers) or collectively, i.e. in a coordinative combination (co-modifiers, in particular, homogeneous ones).

The traditional scheme of sentence parsing shows many essential traits of the said functional hierarchy. On the scheme presented graphically, sentence-parts connected by bonds of immediate domination are placed one under the other in a successive order of subordination, while sentence-parts related to one another equipotently are placed in a horizontal order. Direct connections between the sentence-parts are represented by horizontal and vertical lines.

By way of example, let us take an ordinary English sentence featuring the basic modifier connections, and see its traditional parsing presentation (Fig. 3): The small lady listened to me attentively.



The scheme clearly shows the basic logical-grammatical connections of the notional constituents of the sentence. If necessary, it can easily be supplemented with specifying linguistic information, such as indications of lexico-grammatical features of the sentence-parts the same as their syntactic sub-functions.

However, observing the given scheme carefully, we must note its one serious flaw. As a matter of fact, while distinctly exposing the *subordination ranks* of the parts of the sentence, it fails to consistently present their genuine *linear order* in speech.

LECTURE 17 WORD ORDER

Plan:

17.1. *Word order in English.*

17.2. *Word order in the sentence*

Word order in English is of much greater importance than in Russian. Due to the wealth of inflexions word order in Russian is rather free as the inflexions show the function of each word in a sentence. As English words have hardly any inflexions and their relation to each other is shown by

their place in the sentence and not by their form, word order in English is fixed. We cannot change the position of different parts of the sentence at will, especially that of the subject and the object. To illustrate this we shall try to change the order of words in the following sentence.

Mrs. Winter sent the little boy with a message to the next village one
December day.

If we put the direct object in the first place and the subject in the third, the meaning of the sentence will change all together because the object, being placed at the head of the sentence, becomes the subject, being placed after the predicate, becomes the object.

The little boy sent Mrs. Winter with a message to the next village one
December day. In Russian such changes of word order are in most cases possible.
Моя сестра видела замечательный фильм в Москве.
Замечательный фильм видела моя сестра в Москве.

So due to the absence of case distinctions word order is practically the only means of distinguishing between the subject and the direct object.

The above sentence may serve as an example of direct word order in an English declarative sentence.

1.The subject;2.The predicate; 3.Object; 4.Adverbial modifiers.

Inverted order of words

The order of words in which the subject is placed after the predicate is called inverted order or inversion. Haven't you any family? (Du Maurier)

Certain types of sentences require the inverted order of words. There are;

1. Interrogative sentences. In most of them the inversion is partial as only part of the predicate is placed before the subject, viz. the auxiliary or modal verb.

Where did they find her?(Du Maurier)

Can I show you my library(Greene)

The whole predicate is placed before the subject when it is expressed by the verb to be or to have/

Is he at home? Have you many friends?

Note._ No inversion is used when the interrogative word is the subject of the sentence or an attribute to the subject; Who is in the room? Who speaks English here? What photos are lying on the table?

2.Sentence introduced by there.

There is nothing marvelous in what Jam is going to relate.(Dickens)

Into the lane where he sat three opened three or four garden gates.(Dickens)

3.Compound sentences, their second part beginning with so or neither.

"Most of these military men are good shots," observed Mr. Snodgrass, calmly; "but so are you, ain't you?" (Dickens)

Their parents, Mr. and Mrs. R., escaped unhurt, so did three of their sons. (Daily Worker)

4.Simple exclamatory sentences expressing wish.

Be it so!

Gentle reader, may you never feel what I then felt. May your eyes never shed such stormy, heart-wrung tears as poured from mine. (Ch. Bronte)

The inverted order of words is widely used when a word or a group of words is put in a prominent position, i. e. when it either opens the sentence or is withdrawn to the end of the sentence so as to produce a greater effect. So word order often becomes a means of emphasis, thus acquiring a stylistic function.

In this case inversion is not due to the structure of the sentence but to the author's wish to produce a certain stylistic effect.

1.Inversion occurs when an adverbial modifier opens the sentence.

Here we must distinguish the following cases:

- (a) Adverbial modifiers expressed by a phrase or phrases open the sentence, and the subject often has a lengthy modifier.

In an open barouche, the horses of which had been taken out, stood a stout old gentleman in a blue coat and bright buttons. (Dickens)

On a chair-a shiny leather chair displaying its horsehair through a hole in the top left hand corner- stood a black dispatch case. (Galsworthy)

- (b) An adverbial modifier with a negative meaning opens the sentence. Here belong such adverbial modifiers as: in vain, never, little, etc. In this case the auxiliary do must be used if the predicate does not contain either an auxiliary or a modal verb.

In vain did the eager Luffey and the enthusiastic strugglers do all that skill and experience could suggest. (Dickens)

Little had I dreamed, when I pressed my face longingly against Miss Minns's low greenish window-panes, that I would so soon have the honour to be her guest. (Gronin)

Never before and never since, have I known such peace, such a since of tranquil happiness. (Gronin)

(c) Adverbial modifiers expressed by such adverbs as so, thus, now, then, etc. placed at the head of the sentence, if the subject is expressed by a noun.

So wore the day away. (London)

Thus spoke Mr. Pickwick edging himself as near as possible to the portmanteau. (Dickens)

Now was the moment to act.

Then across the evening stillness, broke a blood-curdling yelp, and Montmorency left the boat. (Jerome)

If the subject is a pronoun inversion does not take place.

Thus he thought and crumpled up and sank down upon the wet earth. (London)

Adverbial modifiers of manner expressed by adverbs placed at the head of the sentence may or may not cause inversion. In case of inversion the auxiliary do must be used if the predicate does not contain either an auxiliary or a modal verb.

Silently and patiently the moon appeared, young and tender, floating up

On her back from behind a tree. (Galsworthy)

Speedily that worthy gentleman appeared. (Dickens)

An adverbial modifier preceded by so is placed at the head of the sentence.

So beautifully did she sing that the audience burst into applause.

2 Inversion occurs when the emphatic article only, the adverbs hardly, scarcely (correlated with the conjunction when), the adverb no sooner (correlated with the conjunction than), or the conjunction nor open the sentence. If there is inversion the auxiliary do must be used if the predicate does not contain either an auxiliary or a modal verb.

Only once did he meet his match in tennis.

In only one respect has there been a decided lack of progress in the domain of medicine, that is in the time it takes to become a qualified

Practitioner. (Leacock)

I do not care to speak first. Nor do I desire to make trouble for another.

No sooner had aunt Julie received this emblem of departure than a

Change came over her... (Galsworthy)

Scarcely was one long task completed when a guard unlocked our Door. (London)

Inversion occurs when the sentence begins with the word *here* which is an adverbial modifier of place but has some demonstrative force.

“Here is my card , Sir,” replied Mr. Pickwick. (Dickens)

<<Вот моя визитная карточка, сэръ>>, --- ответил мистер Пиквик.

Here comes my brother John.

Вот идет мой брат Джон.

If the subject is expressed by a personal pronoun the order of words is direct.

“Here he is!” said Sam rising with great glee. (Dickens)

<<Вот он!>> – радостно сказал Сэм, вставая.

“Here we are!” exclaimed that gentleman. (Dickens)

<< Вот и мы >>- воскликнул этот джентльмен.

4. Inversion occurs when postposition denoting direction open the sentences and the subject is expressed by a noun. Here belong such words as in, out, down, away, up, etc. This order of words makes the speech especially lively.

Out went Mr. Pickwick’s head again/ (Dickens)

The wind carries their voices_ away fly the sentences like little

Narrow ribbons. (Mansfield)

Suddenly in bounced the landlady: “ There’s a letter for you, Miss

Moss.” (Mansfield)

But if the subject is a pronoun there is no inversion: ***Down he fell.***

Her skirt flies up above her waist; she tries to beat it down, but it is no use- up it flies. (Mansfield)

5 Inversion occurs when an object or an adverbial modifier expressed by a word-group with not a...., or many a... opens the sentences.

In case of inversion the auxiliary do must be used if the predicate does not contain either an auxiliary or a modal verb.

Not a hansom did I meet with in all my drive. (London)

Not a hind, however, did she drop about sending me to school.

Many a dun had she talked to and turned away from her father’s door. (Thackeray)

Many a time had he watched him digging graves in the churchyard. (Dickens)

I hated that man, many a time had my fingers longed to tear him. 6. Inversion often occurs when a predicative expressed by an adjective or by a

Noun modified by an adjective or by the pronoun such opens the sentence

(in case the subject is a noun or an indefinite pronoun).

Violent was Mr. Weller’s indignation as grass that is cut down, and put into

The oven and baked. (Jerome) Sweet was that evening. (Ch. Bronte)

Inversion is very common in clauses of concession where the predicative

Is followed by the conjunction as.

Great as was its influence upon individual souls, it did not seriously affect

The main current of the life either of the church or of the nation. (Wakeman)

However, when the subject is expressed by a personal pronoun, the link verb follows the subject.

LECTURE 18 Sentence in the text

Plan:

18.1. General semantic connections between sentences. 18.2. The place of words in the sentence

We have repeatedly shown throughout the present work that sentences in continual speech are not used in isolation; they are interconnected both semantically-topically and syntactically.

Inter-sentential connections have come under linguistic investigation but recently. The highest lingual unit which was approached by traditional grammar as liable to syntactic study was the sentence; scholars even specially stressed that to surpass the boundries of grammar.

In particular, such an outstanding linguist as L. Bloomfield, while recognizing the general semantic connections between sentences in the composition of texts as linguistically relevant, at the same time pointed out t that the sentence is the largest grammatically arranged linguistic form, i.e. it is not included into any other linguistic form, by a grammatical arrangement.

However, further studies in this field have demonstrated the inadequacy of the cited thesis. It has been shown that sentences in speech do come under broad grammatical arrangements, do combine with one another on strictly syntactic lines in the formation of larger stretches of both oral talk and written text.

It should be quite clear that, supporting the principle of syntactic approach to arrangement of sentences into a continual text, we do not assert that any sequence of independent sentences forms a syntactic unity. Generally speaking, sentences in a stretch of uninterrupted talk may or may not build up a coherent sequence, wholly depending on the purpose of the speaker. E.g.;

Barbara. Dolly: don't be insincere. Cholly: fetch your concertina and play something for us (B. Shaw). The cited sequence of two sentences does not form a unity in either syntactic or semantic sense, the sentences being addressed to different persons on different reasons. A disconnected sequence may also have one and the same communication addressee, as in the following case:

Duchess of Berwic... I like him so much. I am quite delighted he's gone! How sweet you're looking! Where do you get your gowns? And now I must tell you how sorry I am For you, dear Margaret (O. Wilde).

But disconnected sequences like there are rather an exception than the rule. Moreover, they do not contradict in the least the idea of a continual topical text as being formed of grammatically interconnected sentences. Indeed, successive sentences in a disconnected sequence mark the corresponding transitions of thought, so each of them can potentially be expanded into a connected sequence bearing on one unifying topic. Characteristically, an utterance of a personage in a work of fiction marking a transition of thought (and breaking the syntactic

connection of sentences in the sequence) is usually introduced by a special author's comment. E.g.:

"You know, L.S., you're rather a good sport." Then his tone grew threatening again. "It's a big risk I'm taking. It's the biggest risk I've ever had to take" (C.P. Snow).

As we see, the general idea of a sequence of sentences forming a text includes two different notions. On the one hand, it presupposes a succession of spoken or written utterances irrespective of their forming or not forming a coherent semantic complex. On the other hand, it implies a strictly topical stretch of talk, i.e. a continual succession of sentences centering on a common informative purpose. It is this latter understanding of the text that is syntactically relevant. It is in this latter sense that the text can be interpreted as a lingual element with its two distinguishing features: first, semantic (topical) unity; second, semantico-syntactic cohesion. The primary division of sentence sequences in speech should be based on the communicative direction of their component sentences. From this point of view monologue sequences and dialogue sequences are to be discriminated.

In a monologue, sentences connected in a continual sequence are directed from one speaker to his one or several listeners. Thus, the sequence of this type can be characterized as a one-direction sequence. E.g.: We'll have a lovely garden. We'll have roses in it and daffodils and a lovely lawn with a swing for little Billy and little Barbara to play on. And we'll have our meals down by the lily pond in summer (K. Waterhouse and H. Hall).

The first scholars who identified a succession of such sentences as a special syntactic unit were the Russian linguists N.S. Pospelov and L.A. Bulakhovsky. The former called the unit in question a "complex syntactic unity", the latter, a "super-phrasal unity". From consistency considerations, the corresponding English term used in this book is the "supra-sentential construction". As different from this, sentences in a dialogue sequence are uttered by the speakers-interlocutors in turn, so that they are directed, as it were, to meet one another; the sequence of this type, then, should be characterised as a two-direction sequence. E.g.: "Annette, what have you done?" — "I've done what I had to do" (S. Maugham).

It must be noted that two-direction sequences can in principle be used within the framework of a monologue text, by way of an "inner dialogue" (i.e. a dialogue of the speaker with himself). E.g.: What were they jabbering about now in Parliament? *Some two-penny-ha'penny tax!* (J. Galsworthy).

On the other hand, one-direction sequences can be used in a dialogue, when a response utterance forms not a rejoinder, but a continuation of the stimulating utterance addressed to the same third party, or to both speakers themselves as a collective self-addressee, or having an indefinite addressee. E.g.:

St. Erth. All the money goes to fellows who don't know a horse from a haystack.

—Canyng (profoundly). And care less. Yes! We want men racing to whom a

horse means something (J. Galsworthy). Elyot. I'm glad we didn't go out tonight. Amanda. Or last night. El-yot. Or the night before. Amanda. There's no reason to, really, when we're cosy here (N. Coward).

Thus, the direction of communication should be looked upon as a deeper characteristic of the sentence-sequence than its outer, purely formal presentation as either a monologue (one man's speech) or a dialogue (a conversation between two parties). In order to underline these deep distinguishing features of the two types of sequences, we propose to name them by the types of sentence-connection used. The formation of a one-direction sequence is based on syntactic cumulation of sentences, as different from syntactic composition of sentences making them into one composite sentence. Hence, the supra-sentential construction of one-direction communicative type can be called a cumulative sequence, or a "cumuleme". The formation of a two-direction sequence is based on its sentences being positioned to meet one another. Hence, we propose to call this type of sentence-connection by the term "occursive", and the supra-sentential construction based on occursive connection, by the term "occurseme".

Furthermore, it is not difficult to see that from the hierarchical point of view the occurseme as an element of the system occupies a place above the cumuleme. Indeed, if the cumuleme is constructed by two or more sentences joined by cumulation, the occurseme can be constructed by two or more cumulemes, since the utterances of the interlocutors can be formed not only by separate sentences, but by cumulative sequences as well. *E.g.:*

"Damn you, stop talking about my wife. If you mention her name again I swear I'll knock you down." — "Oh no, you won't. You're too great a gentleman to hit a feller smaller than yourself" (S. Maugham).

LECTURE 19 **The main parts of the sentence**

19.1. The place of subject in the sentence.

19.2. Ways of expressing of the subject.

19.3. The place of predicate in the sentence

The **subject** is the principal part of a two-member sentence. Which is grammatically independent of the other parts of the sentence and on which the second principal part (the predicate) is grammatically dependent, i. e. in most cases it agrees with the subject in number and person.

Note.- These are cases, however when there is no agreement in number The subject can denote a living being, a lifeless thing or an idea.

Ways of expressing the subject.

The subject can be expressed by a single word or a group of words. Thus it can be expressed by;

1. A noun in the common case.

The sulky **waiter** brought my tea. (Du Maurier)

Marcellus slowly turned this head.(Douglas)

Note.- Occasionally a noun in the possessive case is used as the subject of the sentences.

Mrs. Gummidge's was a fretful disposition. (Dickens)

Oh, my dear Richard, **Ada's** is a noble heart.(Dickens)

2. A pronoun – personal, demonstrative, defining, indefinite, negative, possessive, interrogative.

After about an hour **I** heard Montgomery shouting my name. **That** set me thinking of my plan of action.(Wells)

All were clad in the same soft, and yet strong silky material.(Wells)

Everyone was silent for a minute.(Wells)

Nothing was said on either side for a minute or two afterwards.

Who tore this book? (Twain)

The subject is often expressed by the indefinite pronoun *one* or the personal pronouns *they, you, we*, which refer not to any particular person or persons but to people in general.

These sentences generally correspond to the same kind of sentences in Russian, but sometimes they are rendered by impersonal sentences, as will be seen in the examples given below.

Yes, muttered Jon, life's beastly short. **One** wants to live forever. Да, пробормотал Джон, жизнь чертовски коротка. Хочется жить вечно. A day is like a page in a book, **one** cannot read it without commas and periods. (Heym)

День напоминает страницу книги, ее нельзя читать без запятых и точек.

They say he's clever-they all think they're clever. (Galsworthy)

Говорят, что он умный –все думают, что они умные.

Howard, you introduce every statement with "they say". I want to know who is "they" . (Gow and D'Usseau)

Говард, ты каждое предложение начинаешь с "говорят". Я хочу знать, кто говорит.

Note.- *They* is used when the speaker is excluded, *one* when the speaker is Included.

There are some things you can't talk to anyone about.(Voynich)

Есть вещи , о которых никому не расскажешь.

It was good to be alive. Say what **you** like **you** couldn't beat it. Хорошо жить на свете. Что ни говори, а этого нельзя отрицать.

Every pleasure is transitory. **We** can't eat long. If we indulge in harmless fluids we get the dropsy, if in exciting liquids we get drunk. When I say "we", my dear, I mean mankind in general. (Dickens)

Всякое удовольствие преходяще. Нельзя есть долго. Если мы
Злоупотребляем безвредными напитками, мы заболеваем водянкой, если
Мы злоупотребляем спиртными напитками, мы пьянеем. Когда я
Говорю "мы", дорогой, я имею в виду человечество в целом.

3. A substantivized adjective or participle.

The Privileged have seen that charming and instructive sight. The wounded were taken good care of.

4. A numeral (cardinal or ordinal) .

Of course, the two were quite unable to do anything. (Wells)

The first and fourth stood beside him in the water. (Wells)

5. An infinitive phrase or construction.

To live is to work.

To be a rich man, Lieutenant, is not always roses and beauty. (Heym)

For him to come was impossible.

6. A gerund, a gerundial phrase or construction.

Lying doesn't go well with me. (Heym)

Winning the war is what counts. (Heym)

Annett's being French might upset him a little. (Galsworthy)

7. Any part of speech used as a quotation.

On is a preposition.

No is his usual reply to any request.

8. A group of words which is one part of the sentence, i. e.

a syntactically indivisible group.

Yet at this very time their friend and defender is darkly groping towards the solution. (Fox)
Here the subject represents one person.

The needle and thread is lost.

Here the needle and the thread are treated as one thing.

I don't like his "don't-talk-to-me-or-I'll-contradict-you" air.

Lice /Lais/ pl. of louse. or distance, and subject only makes the sentence structurally complete.

As a rule the predicate contains a finite verb which may express tense, mood, voice, aspect, and sometimes person and number. According to the structure and the meaning of the predicate we distinguish two main types: the simple predicate and the compound predicate.

The simple predicate.

The simple predicate is expressed by a finite verb in a simple or a compound tense form.

It generally denotes an action: sometimes, however, it denotes a state which is represented as an action.

Erik **arrived** at the lab next morning full of suppressed excitement. (Wilson)

And so, after all, the Padre had been thinking of letting him escape. (Voynich)

Mr. Rivarez, I **have been looking** for you everywhere. (Voynich)

Мне не нравится то, что у него такой вид, как будто он хочет сказать: «Не разговаривайте со мной а то я буду вам перечить».

He was being the boss again, using the it's-my-money-now-do-as-you're-told voice.

Он теперь снова был хозяином и говорил тоном, в котором слышалось: «Теперь деньги мои, делайте как вам велят».

An **apposition** is a special kind of attribute which is expressed by a noun (with or without accompanying words) which characterizes or explains the word modified by giving the person or thing another name. There are two kinds of apposition, the close apposition and the loose or detached apposition.

The close apposition.

A close apposition is not separated by commas and stands in close connection with the word modified. These word-groups generally consist either of the name of a person and a noun denoting a title, Rank, Profession, Or the name of a person and a noun denoting relationship, Or a geographical

When Mary **was brought in** he **gave** her the local anaesthesia. There is a special kind of predicate expressed by a phraseological unit, such as to get rid, to take care, to pay attention, to lose sight, to have a wash, to give a push, etc. ¹

When we clear the forests we **get rid** of such inconveniences. (Heym) I went to the bathroom and had a good wash for it had been a dusty joirney. (Du Maurier)

The characteristic feature of this predicate is that the first component, i.e. the finite verb, has lost its concrete meaning to a great extent and forms one unit with the noun, consequently the noun cannot be treated as an object to the verb. This can also be easily proved by the impossibility of putting a question to the second component.

Compare:

My friend gave me an interesting book to read.

The man gave a violent start.

There is a great difference of opinion as to the nature of this predicate. Most Soviet grammarians treat it as a subdivision of the simple predicate (Л. П. Винокурова; В.Н. Жигadlo, И. П. Иванова, Л.Л. Иофик; М.А. Ганшина и Н.М. Василевская), because it expresses one idea and its two components form an indivisible unit.

There is another view according to which it is a subdivision of the compound predicate. Some English grammarians call it a group-verb predicate.

Whereas in the first case we can easily put a question to the object (e.g. What did your friend give you?), in the second case this is impossible.

We shall treat this kind of predicate as a subdivision of the simple predicate. For the sake of convenience we shall call it a phraseological predicate'.

Whereas in the first case we can easily put a question to the object (e.g. What did your friend you?), in the second case this is impossible.

We shall treat this kind of predicate as a subdivision of the simple predicate. For the sake of convenience we shall call it a phraseological predicate.

We distinguish two types of the phraseological predicate.

1. **Word combinations of the following type; to have a smoke, to have swim, to have run, to give a laugh, to give a push, to take a look, to make a move, etc.** These combinations consist of a finite verb which has to a great extent lost its concrete meaning and a noun formed from a verb and mostly used with the indefinite article. This predicate denotes a momentaneous action. In Russian this shade of meaning is rendered by different prefixes and suffixes which express a momentaneous action.

He had a smoke.	Он покурil.
He gave a push.	Он толкнул.
He gave a start.	Он вздрогнул.
He had a wash.	Он вымылся. Помылся.
He gave a cry.	Он вскрикнул.

This type of phraseological predicate is characteristic of colloquial speech. Every now and then she **gave a half-glance** at the people on the pavement. (Lindsay) She **gave an unkind throaty laugh**. (Lindsay)

Troy said, 'First of all, sergeant, **have a drink**.'

He started, **made a short run** and stoppet and looked over his shoulder.

2. **Word combinations of the following type; to get rid, to get hold, to make use, to take care, to lose sight, to make fun, to pay attention, to make up one's mind, to change one's mind, to take part, etc.** (Make your own sentences using above words and word combinations)

The compound predicate

As can be seen from the term itself the compound predicate consists of two part: (a) finite verb and (b) some other part of speech: a noun, a pronoun, an adjective, a verbal (a participle, a gerund, an infinitive), etc. The second component is the significant part of the predicate.

The first part expresses the verbal categories of person? Number, tense, aspect, mood and voice: besides it has a certain lexical meaning of its own. The compound peedicate may be nominal or verbal.

The compound nominal predicate.

The compound nominal predicate denotes the state or quality of the person or thing expressed by **the** subject (e. g. He is tired, the book is interesting), or the class of persons or things to which this person or thing belongs (e. g. She is a student).

The compound nominal predicate consists of a link verb and a predicative (the latter is also called the nominal part of the predicate).

The link *verb* (or a verb of incomplete predication) expresses the verbal categories of person, number, tense, aspect, mood, some- times voice. All link verbs, as the result of a long development, times have partly lost their original concrete meaning. One link verb has lost its concrete meaning altogether: this is the verb *to be*, which can be called a pure link verb as it performs only a grammatical function and can be linked with a predicative expressed by any part of speech used in this function.

This is a picture of London.

Most link verbs to some extent preserve their meaning. The following are the most common of these link verbs: *grow, to continue, to feel, to keep, to look, to turn, to get, to turn out, to loom, to rank, to hold, smell, to taste, to fall, to stand, to go, to run, to*

His wife sighed and **remained** silent. (*London*)

Harris grew more cheerful. (*Jerome*)

At my age I get nervous. (*Galsworthy*)

He soon **fell** fast asleep in my arms, sobbing at longer intervals.

The boat seemed stuffy. (*Jerome*)

She for her part, **felt** recessive and thence evasive.

Many of these verbs can be used both as verbs of complete predication fully preserving their concrete meaning and as link verbs, to **be, to grow, to look, to come, to go.**

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Many of these verbs can be used both as verbs of complete predication full preserving their concrete meaning and as link verbs, to **be, to grow, The Attribute**

20.1. The formation of the attribute 20.2. Ways of expressing the attribute

to look, to feel, to come, to go

There are some verbs which, though fully preserving their concrete meaning, perform the function of link verbs: they are used with a predicative and form a compound nominal predicate. Here belong: *to lie, to sit, to die, to marry, to return, to leave, to come, to stand, to fall, to go, etc.* After many adventures I and a little girl **lay** senseless in the

Bad Lands. (*Haggard*) The poor woman **sat** amazed. (*Trollope*)

I stood transfixed with awe and joy. (*Haggard*)

LECTURE 20 The Attribute

20.1. The formation of the attribute 20.2. Ways of expressing the attribute

Plan:

The attribute is a secondary part of the sentence which qualifies a noun, a pronoun, or any other part of speech that has a nominal character. An attribute can be either in pre-position or in post-position to the word it modifies.

What did she do with herself... in **that little** hole? (*Galsworthy*)

Under a tree **opposite Knightsbridge Barracks**... he took out once more the morocco case. (*Galsworthy*)

As a result of the loss of inflexions, the attribute in English, as distinct from Russian, does not agree with the word it modifies in number, case, or gender.

Ways of expressing the attribute.

It can be expressed by:

1. An adjective (the most common way of expressing an attribute).

This **big** girl is very lazy.

I am speaking about the **big** girl, not the **little** one.

He seems a very **silent, awkward, bashful** lad. (*Thackeray*)

Meanwhile she was the **gayest** and **most admired** woman. (*Thackeray*)

2. A pronoun (possessive, defining, demonstrative, interrogative, relative).

His shrewd, steady eyes had lost none of their clear shining.

Each of these ladies held fans in their hands, and each, with some touch of colour, **some** emphatic feather or brooch, testified to the solemnity of the opportunity. (*Galsworthy*)

I looked at her- at her, and at none other, from **that** moment. (*Collins*)

James once went down to see for himself **what** sort of place this was

That they had come from. (*Galsworthy*)

In that great London, what time had they to be sentimental?

It should be kept in mind that possessive pronouns are often not translated into Russian/ On the other hand when translating from Russian into English one should often insert possessive pronouns.

He extended his hand to me.

Он протянул мне руку.

«Пойди вымой руки», - сказала мать.

“Go and wash your hands,” said mother.

3. A numeral (cardinal or ordinal).

In his final examinations he won six distinctions... (*Aldington*)

The second generation of Forsytes felt that he (*Bosinney*) was not greatly to their credit. (*Galsworthy*)

4. A noun:

(a) In the common case. One of the marked features of the English language is the wide use of nouns in the common case as attributes in pre-position; in Russian nouns are never used as attributes in pre-position.

I recognized him as Dougal Todd, the village painter and carpenter. (Я узнал Дугала Тодда, местного деревенского маляра и плотника,

He was pleased that girl seemed impressed because it showed business instinct. (*Galsworthy*)

Он был доволен, что на девушку это произвело впечатление, ибо это свидетельствовало о том, что у нее есть коммерческая жилка.

He wore a large straw hat.

На нем было большая соломенная шляпа.

As seen from the above examples the attributive nouns are rendered in Russian either by nouns in the genitive case used in postposition or by adjectives.

(b) In the genitive case. This kind of attribute is generally used in pre-position.

Her father's nerves would never stand the disclosure. (*Galsworthy*)

Нервы ее отца не выдержат этого известия.

However, an attribute expressed by the preposition of+a noun in the genitive case is used in post-position (the so-called Absolute Genitive): this clever joke of mother's a book of my brother's.

How could he go up to Oxford now, among all those chaps, those splendid friends of Crum's? (Galsworthy)

In this case the noun modified is always used either with the indefinite article or with a demonstrative pronoun. The latter makes it emphatic.

The same construction may be used with possessive pronouns in their absolute form: a friend of mine; that pretty sister of his.

5. A prepositional phrase.

To think that a man of his abilities would stoop to such a horrible trick as that! (Dreiser)

And the impressions of six years are not got over in such a space of time. (Thackeray)

Here it should be mentioned that the treatment of these pre-positional phrases in English syntax is different from their treatment in Russian syntax where most of them are regarded as prepositional objects.

The letter from her sister reassured her.

Письмо от сестры успокоило ее.

(from her sister is an attribute; от сестры is a prepositional object)

Very often in translating English of-phrases into Russian nouns in the genitive case without any preposition are used; they are mostly regarded as objects.

The captain of the ship-капитан корабля

(of the ship is an attribute; корабля is an indirect object)

a cup of tea- чашки чая

(of tea is an attribute; чая is an indirect object)

6. An adverb:

(a) In pre-position.

In Russian an attribute cannot be expressed by an adverb in pre-position. Consequently in translating these sentences into Russian we use adjectives: the then secretary-тогдашний секретарь.

In the light of after events one cannot but sympathize with them. (Fox)

В свете последующих событий им нельзя не сочувствовать.

(b) In post-position.

A voice inside said, "Come in."

Голос из комнаты сказал: «Войдите!»

The room above is large and light.

Комната наверху большая и светлая.

The man there is my brother.

Вон тот человек- мой брат.

Will it be a step on or a step back?

Это будет шаг вперед или шаг назад?

The above examples show that in Russian an adverb can also be used as an attribute in post-position. However, not every English attributive adverb in post-position can be rendered by an adverb in Russian.

7. Participles I and II or a participial phrase.

The participle in the function of an attribute can be used in pre-position and in post-position. In the latter case it is mostly used with accompanying words.

On the opposite side of the road to the site of the destroyed church is a fine avenue of old trees. (Abrahams)

It looks brighter over there. I think it is only a passing shower. (Du Maurier)

I was dazzled by the snow glittering on the tree tops. (Ch. Bronte')

8. A prepositional phrase or a prepositional construction with a gerund.

Sally hated the idea of borrowing and living on credit. (Prichard)

The thought of having it copied again set him to smiling. (Shaw)

The idea of its being barbarous to confine wild animals had probably never even occurred to his father instance... (Galsworthy)

(For ways of translating the gerund see Chapter VIII, The Gerund.)

9. An infinitive, an infinitive phrase, or an infinitive construction.

The infinitive as an attribute is always used in post-position.

They must have more companionship, more opportunity to broaden their life. (Dreiser)

All right, go back to your office, you've got work to do. (Heym)

But it was not easy to carry out the resolution never to approach her. (Hardy)

This is an English article for you to translate into Russian by to-morrow.

10. Quotation groups.

There are generally rendered in Russian by means of the conjunction *как будто*, *точно* and a clause which stands in post-position.

I don't like his "don't-talk-to-me-or-I'll-contradict-you" air.

Мне не нравится то, что у него такой вид, как будто он хочет сказать: «Не разговаривайте со мной а то я буду вам перечить».

He was being the boss again, using the it's-my-money-now-do-as-you're-told voice. (Wilson)

Он теперь снова был хозяином и говорил тоном, в котором слышалось: «Теперь деньги мои, делайте как вам велят».

An **apposition** is a special kind of attribute which is expressed by a noun (with or without accompanying words) which characterizes or explains the word modified by giving the person or thing another name. There are two kinds of apposition, the close apposition and the loose or detached apposition.

The close apposition.

A close apposition is not separated by commas and stands in close connection with the word modified. These word-groups generally consist either of the name of a person and a noun denoting a title, Rank, Profession, Or the name of a person and a noun denoting relationship, Or a geographical name and some common noun, e.g. *Professor Brown, Captain Marryat, Aunt Polly, President Roosevelt*, etc.

Even **Aunt** Ann was there. (Galsworthy)

Professor Sommerville practiced what he preached. (Carter)

In these word-groups the noun modified is the name of a person or a geographical name, the first component is a common noun in apposition.

Note- In case the common noun is preceded by a possessive or a demonstrative

pronoun, it becomes more important and acquires a stronger stress. Consequently the relation between the components of the word group is reversed. The first component is modified by the name of a person or a geographical name which is an apposition:

That boy **Peter** has a literary turn of mind. He is sure to become a writer.

Sometimes the apposition consists of the preposition of+ noun, e.g. the town **of Daventry**, the city **of London**.¹

¹ **The loose or detached apposition.**

A loose apposition is not so closely connected with the noun. It is always separated by commas and has a stress of its own.

Lecture 21 The Adverbial modifier

21.1. Kinds of adverbial modifier

21.2. The ways of expressing of the adverbial modifier.

The adverbial modifier is a secondary part of the sentence which modifies a verb, an adjective or an adverb. According to their meaning we distinguish the following kinds of adverbial modifiers.

1. The adverbial modifier of time.

We shall try it **to-morrow**. (Heym)

While dancing, Cowperwood had occasion to look at Aileen often... (Dreiser)

These preparations happily completed, I bought a house in Covent Garden Market. (Dickens)

After receiving the cheque back, there seemed to him to be something wrong somewhere. (Galsworthy)

2. The adverbial modifier of frequency.

Though they had **often** bothered him he had never bothered them. (London)

3. The adverbial modifier of place and direction.

Gains had spies **everywhere**. (Douglas)

Among the hills Martin and Ruth sat side by side. (London)

4. The adverbial modifier of manner.

Hendel Hull so **obviously** adored his wife. (Sanborn)

Their conversations were conducted **with icy formality**. (Douglas)

Marcellus accepted this information **without betraying his amazement**. (Douglas)

5. The adverbial modifier of attendant circumstances.

Then the gun rolled into the old town, clattering over the stones. (Heym)

Now I can go to bed at last **without dreading to-morrow**. (Show)

6. The adverbial modifier of degree and measure.

It is **rather** good.

It weighs **a pound**.

9 Грамматика англ, яз.

7. The adverbial modifier of **cause**.

The men were weary, **having** run behind the beasts all day. (Buck)

The doctor said operate, It can't do any harm but I have great fear of the knife for my poor boy, **his mother having died under it due to negligence**. (Greene)

8. The adverbial modifier of **result (consequence)**.

She is too fond of the child **to leave it**.

9. The adverbial modifier of **condition**. (It is very rare both in English and in Russian).

Mrs. Micawber thought that **with large means** her husband would have distinguished himself long ago (Dickens)

She never would have been able to make a success of the dining-room, **but for the kindness and assistance of the men** (Prichard)

10. The adverbial modifier of **comparison**.

Like all other Forsytes of a certain age they kept carriages of their own. (Galsworthy)

Judice is as white **as mud**. She's as perfect **as sin**. (Sanborn). And then his wife's face flushed and contracted **as though in pain**. (Gaskell)

He saw as if visible in the air before him in illuminated figures the whole sum. (London)

John plays the piano better **than Mary**.

11. The adverbial modifier of **concession**. (It is very rare.)

Notwithstanding the success achieved by Napoleon in the initial stage of the war of 1812 he was finally defeated.

Though frightened he carried it off very well. (Cronin)

12. The adverbial modifier of **purpose**.

Ham sometimes walked with us **to show us the boats and ships**. (Dickens)

They opened the way **for her to come to him**. (Douglas)

They cleared swamp growth **for planting**. (Eliot)

Ways of expressing the adverbial modifier.

It can be expressed by:

1. An adverb.

Rachel turned **instinctively** to prevent a possible intruder from entering. (Bennett)

2. A noun with or without accompanying words.

Next day the morning hours seemed to pass very slowly at Mr. Pellet's (E. Brontë)

They walked miles without finding any habitation.

3. A prepositional phrase.

The red dust spread up and **over everything**. (Wells)

I walked straight **up the lane**. (Bennett)

4. A noun, pronoun, adjective, infinitive, participle, or prepositional phrase with a subordinating conjunction.

Mary swims better **than her sister**.

My sister plays tennis better than I.

If necessary, she must see Mr. Bridgenorth. (Gaskell)

He shrank back, his arms lifted **as though to ward off** physical violence. (London)

While waiting for the water to boil, he held his face over the stove. (*London*)
Sometimes he (Martin), **when his her**, noted an unusual brightness in her eyes.
(*London*)

5 A participle or a participial phrase.

Having decided to accept his sister's counsel Marcellus was anxious to perform his unpleasant duty. (*Douglas*)

Turning away, she caught sight of the extra special edition of *The Signal*.
(*London*)

When questioned, she explained everything very carefully.

6. Absolute constructions.

(a) The Nominative Absolute Participial Construction.

He had wrapped her up with great care, **the night being dark and frosty**.
(*Dickens*)

Dehn burst in, **the terror of the streets written on his face**. (*Heym*)

(b) The Nominative Absolute construction.

He stopped and turned about, **his eyes brightly poud**. (*Douglas*)

(c) The Prepositional Absolute Participial Construction.

He looked at Mr. Micawber attentively, **with his whole fage breathing short and quick in every feature**. (*Dickens*)

(d) the Prepositional Absolute construction.

He rushed forward, **with fury in his looks, and fire in his eye**.

7. A prepositional phrase or construction with a gerund.

His father looked up **without speaking**. (*Lindsay*)

Nellman was arrested by the FBI ... **for "being a member of the Communist Party"**. (*Daily Worker*)

On her going to his house to thank him, he happened to see her through a window. (*Dickens*)

I left the room **without anybody noticing it**.

8. An infinitive, an infinitive phrase, or an infinitive construction.

They rose **to go into the drawing-room**. (*Galsworthy*)

So, on the following evening, wwe again assembled, to discuss and arrange our plans. (*Jerome*)

He put the picture on the table **for George to get a better view of it**. (*Maugham*)

It is not always easy to discriminate between different parts of the sentence expressed by prepositional phrases.

The following parts of the sentence are apt to be confused: (1) a prepositional indirect object and an adverbial modifier; (2) an attribute and an adverbial modifier.

1. A prepositional indirect object and an adverbial modifier of place and manner

Kate removed her eyes from the window and gazed directly **at Papa**. (*Cronin*)

Decimus had been born **in Rome**. (*Douglas*)

In the first example the prepositional phrase *at Papa* is a prepositional indirect

object as the noun denotes a living being.

In the second example the prepositional phrase *in Rome* is an adverbial modifier as the noun denotes an inanimate object and the question is: *Where had he been born?*

When the noun in the prepositional phrase denotes an inanimate object, very often two ways of analysis are possible.

His wife was sitting **before a very little fire.** (*Galsworthy*)

The prepositional phrase *before a very little fire* can be treated either as an adverbial modifier or an object.

2. An attribute and an adverbial modifier of place.

I thought you were going to a party **at the club.** (*Douglas*)

The party will take place **at the club.**

In the first example *at the club* is an attribute as it modifies a noun. It answers the question: *What party?*

In the second sentence the same prepositional phrase modifies a verbal group, consequently it is an adverbial modifier of place.

These examples do not cover all the dubious cases in analysis, they only serve to show that there are many border-line cases.

Detached parts of the sentence are those secondary parts which assume a certain grammatical and semantic independence. This phenomenon is due to their loose connection with the words they modify.

Loose connection may be due to the position of these words, the way they are expressed, their meaning, or the speaker's desire to make them prominent. In spoken language detached parts of the sentence are marked by intonation, pauses, and special stress; in written language they are generally separated by commas or dashes. Adverbial modifiers, attributes, and prepositional indirect objects may stand in loose connection to the word they modify, i. e. they may be detached (loose) parts of the sentence. The adverbial modifier is more apt to stand in loose connection than any other part of the sentence.

Any part of speech used in the function of an adverbial modifier may be detached, which accounts for the comma that separates it from the rest of the sentence.

The Corporal lit a pipe, carefully, because the enemy was close. In her excitement, Maria jammed the bedroom-door together.

One summer, **during a brief vacation at Knocke**, his visit had come to the notice of Harrington Brande... (*Cronin*)

An adverbial modifier expressed by the Nominative Absolute Participial Construction or any other absolute construction is generally detached.

The train coming in a minute later, the two brothers parted and entered their respective compartments. (*Galsworthy*)

With his face buried in his hands, he did not see enter the room. Of all the kinds of adverbial modifiers than of attendant circumstances is most apt most apt to become detached.

They drove on, **without speaking again**, to Stanhope Gate, He came in, with a large parcel under his arm. (*Collins*)

She had moved through its gaudiness and pettiness and glamour, **her head high and her lashes low**, clothed in an immaculate dignity.

Nicholas lay there, **his brow still contracted**, filled with perplexity and confusion. (*Cronin*)

Lecture 22 **The secondary parts of the sentence.**

22.1. The Place of Object in the sentence. 22.2. The ways of expressing of the Object

22.3. Kind of objects

The object is a secondary part of the sentence which completes or restricts the meaning of a verb or sometimes an adjective, a word denoting state, or a noun.

Havilland closed **the door**. (*Wilson*)

I was very proud of .it. (*Braddon*)

He had never liked Soames.

He now held him responsible for

Bosinney's death. (*Galsworthy*)

"You are afraid of dying," said Bing. (*Heym*)

Ways of expressing the object.

The object is expressed by the following parts of speech:

1. A noun in the common case.

We ought to give him a present, too. (*Mansfield*)

2. A pronoun (personal in the objective case, possessive, defining, reflexive, demonstrative, indefinite).

"I must do my best for her," thought Jolson. (*Galsworthy*)

You ought to know all about statues and things. (*Galsworthy*)

What will you do with yourself? (*Galsworthy*)

"Who gave you that?" he asked. (*Bennett*)

.. she's alone in the world, and she must have someone to take care of her. (*Maugham*)

Here we must mention the peculiar use of the pronoun *it* in the function of an object, similar to its use in the function of the subject. Sometimes the pronoun *it* is used as a real (notional) object.

She pulled out a cigarette and let it dangle between her lips unlighted. (*Wilson*)

Она достала сигарету и “держала” ее во рту, не “зажигая”.

But sometimes *it* only introduces a real object expressed by an infinitive or gerundial phrase or by a subordinate clause. In this case it is a formal introductory object which is not translated into Russian. The

formal *it* is characteristic of literary style and is mostly used after certain verbs followed by adjectives (sometimes nouns). Here belong such verbs as *to think*, *to find*, *to consider*, *to make* etc.

He found *it* impossible to utter the next word. (*Keller*)

Он почувствовал, что не может произнести больше ни одного слова..

He made it a point to save so much every week. (*London*)

Он поставил себе целью каждую неделю откладывать определенную сумму.

She made *it* clear from the beginning that she had come with Bing. (*Sanborn*)

Она с самого начала ясно дала понять, что пришла с Бингом.

3. A substantives adjective or participle.

June Frosty always championed the unfortunate.

In old times nomadic tribes when moving to another place left the dying behind.

4. An infinitive, an infinitive phrase, or an infinitive construction.

The sergeant ordered his men to stop.

When he saw someone come toward them, he avoided him neatly. (*Sanborn*)

The old woman held the child tight and waited for the storm to pass. (*Dickens*)

5. A gerund, a gerundial! Phrase or a gerundial construction.

Could they prevent flying in war-time? (*Galsworthy*)

I remember seeing you at the opening of the Transport workers summer club., (*Shaw*)

He doesn't like him going away with Lord Illingworth. (*Wilde*)

6. Any part of speech used as a quotation.

Through the door in the hall leading to the basement he called "Hsst!" several times... (*Galsworthy*)

7. A prepositional phrase with a noun or a gerund.

Several times he had sought for a suitable opportunity to disclose his exciting secret. (*Bennett*)

They all approved of his not being beaten by that cousin of his. (*Galsworthy*) Do you object to my going away for a month?

Improving a husband! No. I shall insist upon my husband improving me, or else we part. (*Ch. Bronte*)

8. A group of words which is one part of the sentence, i. e. a syntactically indivisible group.

But it was only Mrs. Bunting who asked for a pinch of salt. (*Lindsay*)

He found a number of persons in the Morse home. (*London*)

Kinds of objects.

There are three kinds of objects in English: the direct object, the indirect object, and the cognate object.

The direct object.

The direct object is used after transitive verbs with which it is closely connected as it denotes a person or thing directly affected by the action of the verb. It is used without any preposition. Again I moved my head negatively. (*Braddon*)

If we compare Russian and English we shall see that in English there are more verbs taking a direct object than in Russian. This is due to the loss of case inflexions in English, the result of which is that the old Accusative and Dative have assumed the same form.

Thus, if a transitive verb takes only one object expressed by a noun or pronoun without a preposition, it is always a direct object. I help my brother in his work. Consequently very often the indirect object in Russian corresponds to the direct

object in English.

I helped him. Я помогал ему.

I envied him. Я завидовал ему.

It should be kept in mind that sometimes the prepositional object in Russian also corresponds to the direct object in English.

Он сел на лошадь. He mounted the horse.

Он играет в шахматы. He plays chess.

There are a few English verbs which can have two direct objects. I asked him his name. Forgive me this question. She taught them French.

The indirect object.

The indirect object denotes a living being to whom the action of the verb is directed. There are also cases when it denotes a thing.

There are two types of indirect object:

1. The indirect object of the first type, which expresses the addressee of action.

She gave *him* an interesting book to read.

Don't forget to buy him a toy on his birthday.

Не забудьте купить ему игрушку ко дню рождения.

Compare:

"I shall buy him," said the slave-owner.

«Я его куплю»-сказал рабовладелец.

THUS, WHEN *TRANSLATING* into English such Russian sentences as *дайте мне, покажите мне*, a direct object must be introduced, sentence either has no meaning at all, or its meaning is changed altogether.

Note. — There are three verbs which may take an indirect object without any direct

object. In this case the indirect object is used with the preposition *to*. These verbs are: *to read, to write, to sing*.

When I was ill she often read to me.

Won't you sing to me?

Write to me as often as you can.

There is, however, a tendency in Modern English to use no preposition with the verb *to write*.

Write me as often as you can.

As a rule the indirect object comes before the direct object.

In this case it is used without a preposition.

Much upset and without hope now she sent Soames the telegram.

When the direct object precedes the indirect object, the latter is used chiefly with the preposition *to* and sometimes *for*. These prepositions make the indirect object more prominent.

But sometimes we cannot change the order of at will, namely when the direct object is a pronoun and the indirect object, a noun. In this case the indirect object follows the direct object.

I sent him to *his mother*.

When the direct object is expressed by the pronoun *it*, it always precedes the indirect object.

Give it to him

In colloquial speech, when the indirect object is a pronoun, the preposition *to* is often not used: *Give it him*, but: *Give it to Mary*.

There are a number of verbs after which the indirect object is used with the preposition *to* even when it comes before the direct object. There are *to explain, to dictate, to suggest, relating, to announce, to ascribe, to attribute, to communicate, to introduce, to submit, to repeat-, to dedicate, to disclose, to interpret, to point out*.

Sometimes in the privacy of his bedroom James would reveal **to Emily the real suffering** that his son's misfortune caused him. (*Galsworthy*)

I shall dictate **to you** the names of books to be read for your examination.

He is not very bright; I attribute **to his diligence the progress** he has made in English in so short a time. The professor explained **to us some obscure passages** in Shakespeare's tragedy *Romeo and Juliet*-

This order of words is mostly found when the direct object is modified by an extended attribute.

2. The indirect object of the second type, which is more frequently used with intransitive verbs than with transitive ones and which does not always express the addressee of the action.

An idea had occurred **to Soames**. (*Galsworthy*)

My childhood was passed **with a grandmother**. (*Dickens*)

I want to thank you **for your kindness**.

Here lies one of the points of its difference from the indirect object of the first type which is used with or without a preposition depending upon its place with regard to the direct object. The indirect object of the second type can be called the **prepositional indirect object**. So in the sentence *she bought a piece of embroidery for me* — *for me* is an indirect object, whereas in the sentence *she did this piece of embroidery for me* — *for me* is a prepositional indirect object. In contrast to the indirect object of the first type, which is used only with the preposition *to* and seldom *for*, the use of the prepositional indirect object is not confined to any definite set of prepositions. Thus it can be used with any preposition.

The prepositional indirect object is used not only with verbs but also with adjectives, words denoting state, and nouns of verbal origin.

I am uneasy **about it**.

She was not aware **of his being there**.

Her behavior **to her friends** was irreproachable.

It is difficult sometimes to distinguish between an attribute and a prepositional indirect object.

Yates's mind was like a caldron in which boiled the general tension in town, the

expectation of getting to Yasha. (*Heym*)

The phrase *of getting to Yasha* can be treated both as an attribute and as a prepositional indirect object.

The complex object.

The direct and the prepositional indirect object may be simple and complex.

The complex object consists of two components, of which the second stands in predicate relation to the first. The two components form an indivisible unit and consequently must be regarded as one part of the sentence. The complex object can be non-prepositional and prepositional.

I observed **Agnes turn pale**. (*Dickens*)

Thus these two waited with impatience for **the three years to be over**. (*Buck*)

The first component of the complex object is a noun in the common case or in the possessive case, a personal pronoun in the objective case, or a possessive pronoun; the second is an infinitive, a participle, a gerund, seldom a noun, an adjective, a word denoting state, or a prepositional, and phrase.

He hated **her to work** in the boarding house. (*Prichard*) On looking towards her again, I perceived **her face clouded with embarrassment**. (*E. Bronte*)

He could see **the man and Great Beaver talking together**. (*London*)

She thinks **herself very clever**. As he spoke, he felt **himself unusually on edge**. (*Lindsay*)

All the predicative constructions when used in the function of an object due to their structure form a complex object. Thus we have a complex object expressed by a participial construction, a gerundial construction, an Objective-with-the-Infinitive Construction and a *for-to*-Infinitive Construction.

Dick found **himself walking** in the direction of his friend Mike's place.)

His new duties had kept **him occupied**. (*Douglas*) . My lady assures him **of his being worth** no complaint from her. (*Dickens*)

"Well," said Somas, "I want **you to come out to** the Stores, with me, and after that we'll go to the Park." (*Galsworthy*)

The cognate object. There is a special kind of object in English which has the following peculiarities.

1. It is used with intransitive verbs though it has no preposition.

2. It is expressed by a noun which is either of the same roots as the verb or is similar to it in meaning.

3. It is almost regularly attended by an attribute with which it forms a combination that is close in meaning to an adverbial modifier: *to live a happy life* — *to live happily*.

The cognate object is generally used in such combinations as: *to smile a sad smile, to laugh a bitter laugh, to die a violent death*, etc.

But she died a dreadful death, poor soul... (*Collins*)

Но она погибла ужасной смертью, бедняжка...

Үлкен оқытыўшы:

Р.Бекмуратова