МИНИСТЕРСТВО ОБРАЗОВАНИЯ И НАУКИ РОССИЙСКОЙ ФЕДЕРАЦИИ

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МОРФОЛОГИЯ

ПРИЛОЖЕНИЕ К УЧЕБНО-МЕТОДИЧЕСКОМУ КОМПЛЕКСУ ПО КУРСУ «ТЕОРЕТИЧЕСКАЯ ГРАММАТИКА СОВРЕМЕННОГО АНГЛИЙСКОГО ЯЗЫКА»

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Морфология. Приложение к учебно-методическому комплексу по курсу «Теоретическая грамматика современного английского языка / И.Н. Кабанова, В.И. Курышева, Л.М. Отрошко, Э.Н. Плеухина. – Н. Новгород, ФГБОУ ВПО «НГЛУ», 2014. – 53 с.

Приложение к учебно-методическому комплексу по курсу «Теоретическая грамматика современного английского языка» включает планы семинарских занятий по морфологии, контрольные задания и справочные материалы и предназначено для аудиторной и самостоятельной работы студентов, обучающихся по направлениям подготовки 035700.62 – *Лингвистика* и 050100.62 – *Педагогическое образование*. Предложения и отрывки, которые служат материалом упражнений, отобраны из современной англоязычной художественной литературы и представляют собой образцы, типичные как по лексическому наполнению, так и по грамматическим структурам.

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SEMINAR 1

Topic I. The History of English Grammar

1. The characteristic features of each period in the rise and development of a certain type of grammatical description.
2. Perspective grammar.
3. Classical scientific grammar.
4. Modern English grammar. Historicism. Structuralism. Generativism.

Key Words

Historicism, structuralism, functionalism, generativism, relativism, universalism.

Questions

1. What is historicism? How does it differ from evolutionism? What role have they both played in the formation of the 20th century linguistics?
2. In what way "structuralism" is opposed to "generativism"?
3. What is functionalism?

Topic II. Systemic conception of language

1. The notion of system. Language and speech.
2. Paradigmatic and syntagmatic relations.
3. Language units and language levels.

Key words

Paradigmatic and syntagmatic relations, a syntagma, a grammatical paradigm, segmental / suprasegmental units, hierarchial relations, language units, language levels.

Questions

1. What are the determining features of a system? How do they apply to language?
2. What is the functional relevance of the language unit?
3. What conceptual correlation is the language – speech dichotomy based on?
4. What is the correlation of syntagmatic and paradigmatic relations?

5. What language levels are identified in the language system?
6. What conditions the non-overlapping of language levels?
7. What functions do the language units, representatives of the language levels, perform?

Practice assignment

Say which of the strings are synchronic and which are diachronic:

1) gospel, the holy, as, say;
2) gospel, godspel, holy, haliȝ;
3) the, þxt, says, seȝð;
4) swæswā þxt hāliȝe godspel seȝð.

Reading material

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2. Biber D., Johansson S., Leech G., Conrad S., Finegan E. Longman Grammar of Spoken and Written English. London, 2000.
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SEMINAR 2

Topic I. Morphemic Structure of the Word

1. The notions of morph, allomorph, morpheme.
2. Traditional classification of morphemes.
3. The allo-emic theory.
4. Distributional classification of morphemes.
5. Three main types of distribution (contrastive, non-contrastive, complementary) in the distributional analysis.

Key Words

Morph, allomorph, morpheme, allo-emic theory, contrastive, non-contrastive, complementary distributions; overt, covert, bound, free, linear, additive, replacive, continuous, discontinuous morphemes.

Questions

1. What is the basic difference between the morpheme and the word as language units?
2. What is a morph?
3. What does the difference between a morpheme and an allomorph consist in?
4. What principles underline the traditional study of the morphemic structure of the word?
5. What principles in the distributional analysis of morphemes based on?
6. What are the determining features of the three types of distribution?

Practice assignment

I. Do the morphemic analysis of the words listed below on the lines of the traditional and distributional classifications.

MODEL: *The morphemic analysis of the word "inseparable".*

On the lines of the traditional classification the word "inseparable" is treated as a three-morpheme word consisting of the root "-separ-", the prefix "in-" and the lexical suffix "-able".

On the lines of the distributional analysis the root "-separ-" is a bound, overt, continuous, additive morpheme; the prefix "in-" is bound, overt, continuous, additive.

a) unmistakably, children's (books), disfigured, underspecified, surroundings, presume, kingdom, brotherhood, plentiful, imperishable, unprecedented, oxen, embodiment, outlandish;

b) hammer, student's (papers), sing-sang-singing-singer, really, proficient-deficient-efficient, gooseberry, unreproved, incomparable;

c) inconceivable, prefigurations, southernism, semidarkness, adventuresses, insurmountable, susceptibility, ineptitude, unfathomable, insufficiency, to prejudge, cranberry.

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

MODEL: *insensible – incapable*.

The morphs “-ible” and “-able” are in complementary distribution, as they have the same meaning but are different in their form which is explained by their different environments.

a) impeccable, indelicate, illiterate, irrelevant;
b) undisputable, indispatable;
c) published, rimmed;
d) seams, seamless, seamy.

III. Group the words listed below according to a particular type of morphemic distribution.

MODEL: *worked – bells – tells – fells – telling – spells – spelled – spelt – felled – bell.*

Spells-spelled: the allomorphs [-s] and [-ed] are in contrastive distribution (=fells – felled);

bell – bells: the allomorph [-s] and the zero allomorph are in contrastive distribution;

spelt – spelled: the allomorphs [-t] and [-ed] are in non-contrastive distribution;

worked – spelled: the allomorphs [t] and [d] are in complementary distribution, etc.

a) burning – burns-burned-burnt;
b) dig – digs – digging – digged – dug – digger;
c) light – lit – lighted – lighting – lighter;
d) worked – working – worker – workable – workaholic.

IV. Listed below are grammatical forms of words. Group them according to a particular type of morphemic distribution:

1) mice, leapt, appendices, kittens, cats, witches, leaping, children, leaped, leaps, formulae, stimuli, matrices, sanatoria;

2) geese, dogs, chickens, deer, mats, bade, bid, phenomena, formulae, formulas, genii, geniuses, scissors;

3) genera, brethren, brothers, trout, gestures, blessed, blest, tins, pots, matches, antennae, antennas;

4) anthems, classes, lice, handkerchiefs, handkerchieves, bereft, bereaved, grouse, cleared, cleft, clove.

Reading material

1. Lecture notes.
2. Blokh M. et al. A Course in Theoretical English Grammar. M., 2000. P. 18-27.

3. Blokh M. et al. Theoretical English Grammar. Seminars. M., 2007. P. 46-47.
4. Yule G. The Study of Language. Ch. 8. P. 74-79, 82.

Topic II. Categorial Structure of the Word. Grammatical Categories

1. The traditional conception of grammatical categories. Grammatical meaning and grammatical forms.
2. Grammatical categories as sets of oppositions of different grammatical forms (privative, gradual, equipollent oppositions).
3. Types of oppositional reduction: neutralization and transposition.
4. The role of analytical forms in English.

Key words

Grammatical meaning, grammatical form, opposition, paradigm, the categorial structure of the word, oppositional reduction.

Questions

1. In what way are the notions – "grammatical category" and "opposition" – interconnected?
2. What are the differential features of privative, gradual and equipollent oppositions?
3. What enables linguists to consider the privative binary opposition as the most important type of oppositions?

Practice assignment

I. Characterise the following oppositions (type, member, basis of contrast); identify the grammatical categories represented by the oppositions:

degree-degrees, sphere-spheres, he-him, they-them, she-her, passed-had passed, looked-did not look, seated-were seated, drew-did draw, read-was reading, gleams-gleamed, is-are, am – is – are, are – were, had come – had been coming.

MODEL: *play – played*.

The words "play-played" made up a binary privative opposition. The strong member is "played", its differential feature is the denotation of a past action. The marker of this categorial meaning is the grammatical suffix "-ed".

II. Build up the oppositions of the categorial forms and define the types of the oppositions:

difficult, have completed, they, he, move, difficult, ship, we, complete, the most difficult, are completed, I, ships, will complete.

III. Here are instances of oppositional reduction exemplified in each entry. Comment on their types.

1. There's many a pair respectable mother who doesn't get half the fussing and attention which is lavished on some of these girls.
2. He won't be retiring for another eighteen months.
3. In her grace, at once exquisite and hardy she was that perfect type of American girl that makes one wonder if the male is not being sacrificed to its, much as, in the last century, the lower strata in England were sacrificed to produce the governing class.
4. While it grew dark they drank and just before it was dark and there was no longer enough light to shoot, a hyena crossed the open on his way around the hill. "That bastard crossed there every night", the man said. "Every night for two weeks." "He's the one makes the noise at night. I don't mind it. They are a filthy animal thought."
5. Build up the oppositions of different grammatical categories and interpret the categorial properties of their members.

IV. Comment on the types of oppositional reduction exemplified in texts below:

A. In the cinema he could just see the fine edge of her features. He watched her, she watched the screen. Half an hour had passed before he put his arm around her shoulders. She made no move away but still she did not look at him, yet he could feel the tremor of her body. The smell of her hair freshly washed and of her tweeds was pleasant to him. They were seated in the back row, he had seen to that. Soon he put a hand under her chin and turned her gently toward to him. He kissed her. The eagerness of her response communicated to him something of her excitement.

"Darling", he said. Now she did draw apart from him, but let him keep her hand in his. (P. Johnson. The Good Listener).

B. Toby was reading History and what his future would hold he did not know. He did not expect a First Class Honours degree, and so might have to resign himself to teaching. He doubted whether he had the innate literary gift for publication.

"What are all those books?" Adrian asked him. Toby silently spread out Michelet, Carlyle, Mathez. "You see". Along the Cam the punts were still sliding. Over the bridge the stone spheres gleamed in the pure light and behind it

the college was stately. Such stateliness Toby and Bob had never known before they had come there. (P. Johnson)

Reading material

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SEMINAR 3

Topic. Grammatical Classes of Words

1. Parts of speech. Basis of traditional classification of words into parts of speech: meaning, form and function.
2. Modern classification of words: Ch. Fries's, O. Jespersen's, Frager and Smith's, W. Francis', B. Strang's, P. Robins', A. Hill's, R. Quirk's, M. Blokh's.
3. The dichotomy and trichotomy of subdivision of words.

Key Words

Notional, structural parts of speech, inserts, dichotomy, trichotomy, alterms, word-class, variables, invariables, open-class items, closed-system items.

Questions

1. What is the grammatical essence of the term "part of speech?"
2. What are the strong and weak points of the traditional (polydifferential) classification of words?
3. What are the advantages and disadvantages of the syntactico-distributional (monodifferential) classification of words (Ch. Fries')?

4. What principle does O. Jespersen consider to be major while differentiating between the three ranks of words?

5. What is meant by the terms “junction” and “nexus”?

6. How do the traditional parts of speech and O. Jespersen’s theory of ranks correlate? Is there any one-to-one correspondence between the traditional parts of speech and O. Jespersen’s three ranks? What are the advantages of the theory of ranks?

Practice assignments

On the basis of the text below:

1) characterize grammatical classes of words traditionally and in terms of modern classifications;

2) point out cases of transition from one part of speech into another;

3) define the typological character of Present-Day English on the basis of its morphological structure.

Texts for analysis

A. She opened the first letter.

Dearest Mother,

Lots of funny things I could tell you only I mustn’t. We’re putting up a good show, I think. Five German planes before breakfast is today’s market quotation. Bit of mess at the moment and all that but we’ll get there in the end. It’s the way they machine-gun the poor civilian devils on the roads that gets me. It makes us all see the red. Gus and Trundles want to be remembered to you. They’re still going strong. Don’t worry about me. I am all right. Wouldn’t have missed the show for the world. Love to old Carrot Top – have the WO given him a job yet?

Yours ever, Derek.

Tuppence’s eyes were very bright and shining as she read and re-read this. Then she opened the other letter.

Dearest Mum,

How’s old Aunt Gracie? Going strong? I think you’re wonderful to stick it. I couldn’t. No news. My job is very interesting but so hush-hush. I can’t tell you about it. But I really do feel. I’m doing something worth while. Don’t fret about not getting any war work to do… they only really want people who are young and efficient. I wonder how Carrots is getting on his job up in Scotland? Just fitting up forms, I suppose. Still he’ll be happy to feel he is doing something.

Lots of love, Debora.

*(*A. Christie)

B. For thirty years now I have been studying my fellow-men. I do not know very much about them. I should certainly hesitate to engage a servant on his face, and yet I suppose it is on the face that for the most part we judge the persons we meet. We draw our conclusions from the shape of the jaw, the look in the eyes, the contour of the mouth. I wonder if we are more often right than wrong. Why novels and plays are so often untrue to life is because their authors, perhaps of necessity, make their characters all of a piece. They cannot afford to make them self-contradictory, for then they become incomprehensible, and yet self-contradictory is what most of us are. We are a haphazard bundle of inconsistent qualities. In books on logic they will tell you that it is absurd to say that yellow is tubular or gratitude heavier than air; but in that mixture of incongruities that makes up the self yellow may very well be a horse and cart and gratitude the middle of next week. I shrug my shoulders when people tell me that their first impressions of a person are always right. I think they must have small insight or great vanity. For my own part I find that the longer I know people the more they puzzle me: my oldest friends are just those of whom I can say that I don't know the first thing about them. (S. Maugham)

Reading material

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3. Blokh M. et al. Theoretical English Grammar. Seminars. M., 2007. P. 79-109.
4. Бархударов Л.С. Очерки по морфологии современного английского языка. М., 1975. С. 49-67.
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8. Quirk R., Greenbaum S., Leech G., Svartvik J. A University Grammar of English. M., 1982.
9. Strang B. Modern English Structure. London, 1962.

REVISION

I. Give the definitions of the following notions: category, complementary distribution, contrastive distribution, grammatical meaning, morph, opposition, oppositional reduction.

II. Analyse the morphemic composition of the following words:

a) embodiment, conceive, multifarious;
b) impassable, marksmanship, genii;
c) unconsciously, strawberry, indistinguishable;
d) insubordination, impracticable, media.

III. Define the type of the morphemic distribution according to which the words below are grouped:

a) lice – houses;
b) ineffable – immortal;
c) transfusible – transfusable;
d) non-flammable – inflammable.

IV. Account for the oppositional reduction in the sentences given below:

1. "Oh," said Tuppence, "don't be an idiot."
   "I'm not being an idiot," Tommy had said.
   "I am just being a wise and careful husband." (A. Christie)

2. He raised his shoulders, spread his hands in a shrug of slow indifference, as much as to inform her she was an amateur and an impertinent nobody. (D.H. Lawrence)

SEMINAR 4

Topic. The Noun

1. The general characteristics of the noun as a notional part of speech. Classification of nouns.
2. The category of number. Traditional and modern interpretations of number distinctions of the noun. Singularia Tantum and Pluralia Tantum nouns.
3. The category of case: different approaches to its interpretation. The polysemy of the -'s inflection.
4. The category of article determination. The status of article in the language hierarchy.
5. The category of gender: the traditional and modern approaches to the category of gender. Gender in Russian and English.
6. The oppositional reduction of the noun categories: neutralization of oppositions and transposition of forms in the categories of number, of case, of article determination. The common gender.

Key words

The categorial meaning of "substance", syntactic properties, formal features, common gender, unexpressed / expressed discreteness.

Questions

1. What are morphological and syntactic properties of the noun?
2. What is the modern interpretation of the categorial semantics of the plural form of the noun?
3. What makes the category of case in English disputable?
4. What are the strong and weak points of the "prepositional" and "postpositional" case theories (the "particle case theory")?
5. What are the main approaches to the treatment of the article?
6. What does the oppositional representation of the articles reveal?
7. What are the categorial meanings of the three articles?

Practice assignment

I.

1. Give examples of Singularia Tantum and Pluralia Tantum nouns and comment on traditional and modern interpretations of number distinctions of these nouns.
2. Comment on the oppositional reduction of the categorial noun forms (neutralization and transposition).
3. Analyse different ways of expressing case relations in the system of nouns.
4. Comment on the polysemy of the -'s inflection.
5. Discuss syntactic relations between the components of N_1's N_2; N_1 N_2; N_1 of N_2.

Texts for Analysis

A. We always had the same meal on Saturday nights at Pencey. It was supposed to be a big deal, because they gave you steak.

I'll bet a thousand bucks the reason they did that was because a lot of guys' parents came up to school on Sunday, and old Thurmer probably figured everybody's mother would ask their darling boy what he had for dinner last night, and he'd say, "Steak." What a racket. You should've seen the steaks. They were these little hard, dry jobs that you could hardly even cut. You always got these very lumpy mashed potatoes on steak night, and for dessert you got Brown Betty, which nobody ate, except maybe the little kids in the lower school that didn't know any better – and guys like Ackley that ate everything. It was nice, though, when we got out of the dining room. There were about three inches

of snow on the ground, and it was still coming down like a madman. It looked pretty as hell, and we all started throwing snowballs and horsing around all over the place. It was very childish, but everybody was really enjoying themselves. (J. Salinger)

B. My attention wandered from replicas of St. Swithin's staff to their living counterparts. The personnel of the hospital seemed to be in a state of constant transition across the courtyard. The consultant physicians and surgeons could easily be picked out, for they always moved from one spot to another in public as if they were in a desperate hurry. This gave the impression that their services were urgently needed in many places at once, and was good for their professional reputations. The junior practitioners had quickly picked up the habit from their superiors. The housemen strode importantly across the courtyard, their' short white coats flying behind them, their stethoscopes trailing from their necks, wearing the look of grave preoccupation seen only in the faces of very fresh doctors. This drab, hurrying band of physicians was sprinkled with nurses in long mauve dresses and starched white caps that turned up at the back like the tails of white doves. They tripped smartly from one block to another and to the "Nurses' Home" in the rear. Of the people in the court they were the only ones genuinely in a hurry, for they had so little time to themselves they devoured their lives with a perpetual rush to get on and go off duty. (R. Gordon).

II. Comment on the oppositional reduction of the categorial noun forms in each entry below.

1. There's many a poor respectable mother who doesn't get half the fussing and attention.
2. But Hamilton drinks too much and all this crowd of young people drink too much.
3. He won't be retiring for another 18 months.
4. Michael saw Mrs. Dandy, not quite over her illness, rise to go and become caught in polite group after group.
5. While it grew dark they drank and just before it was dark and there was no longer enough light to shoot, a hyena crossed the open on his way around the hill. "That bastard crosses there every night," - the man said. "Every night for two weeks." "He's the one makes the noise at night. I don't mind it. They're a filthy animal though."
6. He entered the room, hat in hand.

III. Analyse the categorial features of the underlined nouns.

1. We had just finished the cocktails when the door was flung open and the Morstein's girl came in, followed by a boy.
2. The boy was devouring cakes, while the anxious-looking aunt tried to convince the Grahams that her sister's only son could do no mischief.

IV. Define the language means used to mark gender distinction of nouns in each entry below.

1. The tom-cat was sleeping on the window-still.
2. Next week we are going to speak about the continent of Australia: its climate and nature.
3. Australia and her people involve everyone's interest.
4. The tale says that the Mouse was courageous, he never let down his friends when they were in danger.
5. Something is wrong with my car, I can't start her.

Reading material

1. Lecture notes.
2. Blokh M. et al. A Course in Theoretical English Grammar. M., 2000. P. 48-83.
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SEMINAR 5

Topic 1. Adjective and Stative

1. A general outline of the adjective.
2. Classification of adjectives. Traditional and non-traditional classifications.
3. The category of adverbial comparison.
4. Substantivisation of adjectives. Adjectivisation of nouns.
5. The problem of the stative.

Key words

Qualitative, relative adjectives, adjectives proper, free adjectives, evaluative function of adjectives, specificative function, elative most-construction.

Questions

1. What categorial meaning does the adjective express? What makes it difficult to generalize on the part of speech features of the adjective?
2. What does the adjectival specific combinability find its expression in?
3. What proves the lack of rigid demarcation line between the traditionally identified qualitative and relative subclasses of adjectives?
4. What is the principle of differentiation between evaluative and specificative adjectives (Prof. Blokh's approach)?
5. What does the category of adjectival comparison express?
6. What problem is posed by the forms of reverse comparison?
7. What does the expressive peculiarity of the Elative Most-Construction consist in?
8. What are arguments in favour and against of the view that statives represent a separate part of speech?

Practice assignment

I. State the classification features (traditional and non-traditional according to Prof. Blokh) of the adjectives in the entries below.

MODEL: *I found myself weary and yet wakeful.*

"weary" – a qualitative evaluative adjective.

"wakeful" – a qualitative speculative adjective.

1. Rosemary Fell was not exactly beautiful. No, you couldn't have called her beautiful. Pretty? Well, if you took her to pieces… But why be so cruel as to take anyone to pieces? She was young, brilliant, extremely modern, exquisitely well dressed, amazingly well read in the newest of the new books, and her parties were the most delicious mixture of the really important people and……artists – quaint creatures, discoveries of hers, some of them too terrifying for words, but others quite presentable and amusing. (K. Mansfield)
2. He was in a great quiet room with ebony walls and a dull illumination that was too faint, too subtle, to be called a light. (S. Fitzgerald)

II. Comment on linguistic status of the following units and their first component:

dance floor, theatre door, church organ.

III. Comment on the use of the forms of the superlative degree of the adjective and the use of the words "more" and "most" in the sentences below.

1. The Fifth Symphony by Beethoven's is a most beautiful piece of music.
2. It was a most unhappy day for me when I discovered how ignorant I am. (W. Saroyan)
3. She is best when she is not trying to show off. (A. Bennett)
4. You're the most complete man I've ever known. (E. Hemingway)
5. Now in Hades – as you know if you ever had been there the names of the more fashionable preparatory schools and colleges mean very little. (S. Fitzgerald)
6. When Sister Cecilia entered, he rose and gave her his most distinguished bow. (A. Cronin)
7. And he thought how much more advanced and broad-minded the younger generation was. (A. Bennett)

IV. Comment on the linguistic status of the combinations

less / least + Adj

1. She was the least experienced of all. (A. Bennett)
2. "Then it is he whom you suspected?" "I dare not to go so far as that. But of the three he is perhaps the least unlikely." (C. Doyle)

V. Compare the properties of statives with those of adjectives in the texts below. Formulate your own opinion on whether statives should be regarded as a separate part of speech or a special subclass of adjectives.

A. She said that she did not believe he would go through with it. This seemed to him so preposterous a statement that he did not know how to answer her and was aware that he was merely sitting with her mouth open. Then she said that she loved him. It was the first time she had ever really loved anyone in her life. She did not know what to do about it, she did not know what either of them was going to do. But she could not stand her life and wouldn't be able to stand it better when she was the wife of a bloody don. She wanted Adrian. She wanted no one else, wanted nothing else. (P. Johnson)

B. He nodded to Skelton and without further ceremony left him. Skelton went to bed, but he could not sleep. Though the heat was oppressive, it was not the heat that kept him awake. There was something horrible about that house and those two people who lived in it. He didn't know what it was that affected him with this peculiar uneasiness, but this he knew, that he would be heartily thankful to be out of it and away from them. Grange had talked a good deal about himself, but he knew no more of him than he had learned at the first glance. To all appearances he was just the commonplace planter who had fallen upon evil days. (S. Maugham)

Reading material

1. Lecture notes
2. Blokh M. et al. A Course in Theoretical English Grammar. M., 2000. P. 197-214.
3. Иванова И.П., Бурлакова В.В., Почепцов Г.Г. Теоретическая грамматика английского языка. М., 1984. С. 41-32.
4. Frances W.N. The Structure of American English. P. 268-288.
5. Ilyish B. The Structure of Modern English. L., 1971. P. 58-65.
6. Quirk R., Greenbaum S., Leech G., Svartvik J. A University Grammar of English. M., 1982.

Topic 2. Pronouns. Numerals

1. A general outline of pronouns.
2. Classes of pronouns, their specific functions in language system.
3. The numeral, its subclasses.
4. Substantivization of numerals.
5. Connection of numerals with other nominal parts of speech.

Texts for Analysis

A. Finally, the blonde one got up to dance with me, because you could tell I was really talking to her, and we walked out to the dance floor. The other two girls nearly had hysterics when we did. I certainly must've been very hard up to even bother with any of them. But it was worth it. The blonde was some dancer. She was one of the best dancers I ever danced with. I'm not kidding, some of these very stupid girls can really knock you out on a dance floor.

(J. Salinger. The Catcher in the Rye)

B. On the first Tuesday after my appointment to the film I walked up the stairs to the theatre – students were not allowed to use the hospital lift – and went into the dressers' changing room. A row of jackets and ties hung under a notice in letters three inches high. Do not leave anything in your pockets. Everyone entering the theatre had to wear sterile clothing which was packed away in three metal bins opened by foot pedals. Using a pair of long sterile forceps I took an oblong cap from one: a mask from another, and a rolled white gown from the third. Unfortunately there was no indication of the size of these coverings, and the gown fell round my feet like a bridal dress while the cap perched on my head like a cherry on a dish of ice-cream. I pushed open the theatre door and stepped inside reverently, like a tourist entering a cathedral. Standing by the door, my hands clasped tightly behind me, all I wanted was completely to escape notice. I felt that even my breathing, which sounded in my ears like the bellows of a church organ, would disturb the sterile, noiseless

efficiency of the place. I was also a little uncertain of my reactions to outflesh and wanted to keep as far away from the scene of activity as possible.

(R. Gordon. Doctor in the House)

Practice assignment

On the material of the texts:

1) compare morphological and syntactic properties of different classes of pronouns;

2) find some examples of pro-words in the text, comment of their functional role;

3) illustrate the deictic function of pronouns;

4) comment on the meaning of "some" in "The blonde was some dancer", compare it with "some" used in "…some of these very stupid girls";

5) analyse the use of "one", "another", "the third" in the following sentence: "…I took an oblong cap from one, a mask from another, and a rolled white gown from the third". Make conclusions as to the relation between different nominal parts of speech.

SEMINAR 6

Topic I. A General Outline of the Verb as a Part of Speech

1. The Verb. The categorial features of the Verb. Finite verb forms.
2. Traditional and non-traditional classifications of verbs (M. Blokh's, D. Biber's). Criteria of the non-traditional classification of verb (M. Blokh's).
3. Verb valency (complementive / supplementive; transitive / intransitive verbs).

Key words

Full nominative value, partial nominative value, derivationally open / closed verbs, actional / statal verbs, obligatory / optional valency, complementive / supplementive verbs, objectivity, transitivity.

Questions

1. What are categorial features of the verb?
2. What are the bases of the traditional classification of verbs?
3. What are the bases of non-traditional classifications of verbs?

Practice assignment

Dwell upon the traditional and non-traditional classifications of verbs in the following sentences:

1. In one of my previously published narratives I mentioned that Sherlock Holmes had acquired his violin from a pawnbroker in the Tottenham Court Road, for the sum of 55 shillings. To those who know the value of a Stradivarius, it will be obvious that I was being less than candid about the matter. (Hardwick)
2. "Mr Holmes!" cried Mrs. Hudson indignantly. "How many times have I said that I won't tolerate your indoor shooting?" (Hardwick)

Topic 2. Grammatical categories of verbs

1. The categories of person and number.
2. The category of tense: traditional and modern conceptions of English tenses.
3. The category of phrase.
4. The category of aspect (traditional and modern conceptions).
5. The category of voice.
6. Language means of expressing modality. The category of mood.
7. The oppositional reduction of the verbal categories. Neutralisation and transposition of verbal forms.

Key words

Time correlation, phrase; middle, reflexive voices; immanent/reflexive categories, the category of prospective time, the category of retrospective coordination.

Questions

1. What are immanent and reflexive verbal categories?
2. What is specific to the categories of person and number in English?
3. What does the person-number deficiency of the finite regular verb entail?
4. What is the main weak point of the traditional "linear" interpretation of tenses?
5. What category do the perfect forms express (different approaches)?
6. What categorial meanings do continuous forms and non-continuous forms express?
7. What accounts for the peculiar place of the category of voice among the verbal categories?

8. What makes the expression of voice distinctions in English specific?
9. What does the category of mood express?
10. What complicates the analysis of English mood forms?
11. What problem is posed by analytical grammatical verb forms?
12. What is the oppositional reduction of morphological grammatical verb forms?

Practice assignment

I. On the material of the following texts:

1) comment on number and person in verbs;
2) discuss the problem of tense;
3) describe the morphological status of perfect forms;
4) speak on the category of aspect and different views on the problem;
5) comment on the problem of analytical grammatical verb forms;
6) account for the use of mood forms.

Texts for Analysis

A. Early next morning Mrs. Tower rang me up, and I heard at once from her voice that she was in high spirits.

"I've got the most wonderful news for you," she said. "Jane is going to be married."

"Nonsense."

"Her fiance is coming to dine here to-night to be introduced to me, and I want you to come too."

"Oh, but I shall be in the way."

"No, you won't. Jane suggested herself that I should ask you. Do come."

She was bubbling over with laughter.

"Who is he?"

"I don't know. She tells me he's an architect. Can you imagine the sort of man Jane would marry?"

I had nothing to do and I could trust Mrs. Tower to give me a good dinner.

When I arrived Mrs. Tower, very splendid in a tea-gown a little too young for her, was alone.

"Jane is putting the finishing touches to her appearance. I'm longing for you to see her. She's all in a flutter. She says he adores her. His name is Gilbert and when she speaks of him her voice gets all funny and tremulous. It makes me want to laugh." (S. Maugham)

B. The gong rang and we pushed him out. He went out slow. Walcott came right out after him. Jack put the left in his face and Walcott took it, came in under it and started working on Jack's body. Jack tried to tie him up and it was just like trying to hold on to a buzzsaw. Jack broke away from it and missed with the right. Walcott clipped him with a left-hook and Jack went down. He

went down on his hands and knees and looked at us. The referee started counting. Jack was watching us and shaking his head. At eight John motioned to him. You couldn't hear on account of the crowd. Jack got up. The referee had been holding Walcott back with one arm while he counted. (E. Hemingway)

II. Comment upon the grammatical value of the reduced verbal forms in the following sentences.

1. "I seem to tell that what you've been saying from the beginning is that human being doesn't live, but is lived." (W. Saroyan)
2. It went down very well in the States. They were liking that kind of thing just then. (A. Christie)
3. Mr. Hubber was coming at seven to take their photograph for the Christmas card. (J. Cheever)
4. The next morning at 11 o'clock when I was sitting there alone, an Uncle Tom shuffles into the hotel and asks for the doctor to come and see Judge Banks, who, it seems was the mayor and a mighty sick man. (O'Henry)
5. "OK! It's lovely. It's too good for me, though. You'll be wanting it yourself – " (A. Christie)
6. "Wouldn't you like something? Some tea or some coffee perhaps?..."

   "No, no, not even that. We shan't be stopping very much longer." (A. Christie)

Reading material

1. Lecture notes
2. Blokh M. et al. A Course in Theoretical English Grammar. M., 2000. P. 119-197.
3. Biber D., Johansson S., Leech G., Conrad S., Finegan E. Longman Grammar of Spoken and Written English. London, 2000.
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SEMINAR 7

Topic. A General Outline of Verbals: categorial semantics, grammatical categories, syntactic functions

1. The infinitive and its properties. The categories of the infinitive.
2. The gerund and its properties. The categories of gerund. The notion of the half-gerund (merged participle).
3. The present and past participles, their properties.

Key words

Finitude ['faɪnɪtjuːd], the split infinitive, the retroactive infinitive, a dual verb-type and noun-type valency, a lexico-grammatical category of processual representation, the category of modal representation.

Questions

1. What are the mixed lexico-grammatical features of the verbals reveald in?
2. What is peculiar to the predication expressed by the verbals?
3. Which of the verbals is considered the head-form of the whole paradigm of the verb?
4. What is the essence of the category of finitude?
5. What grammatical categories does the infinitive distinguish?
6. What grammatical categories does the gerund have?
7. What grammatical categories differentiate the present participle from the past participle?
8. What is the problem of the half-gerund?

Practice assignment

I. On the material of the following texts

a) find all the infinitives, comment on their semantic, morphological and syntactic features;
b) characterise semantic, morphological and syntactic features of gerunds;
c) comment on different forms of participles;
d) discuss controversial points arising in connection with verbals.

A. That evening Gwenda felt jumpy and nervous. Sitting in the drawing-room and trying to read, she was aware of every creak of the furniture. Once or twice she looked over her shoulder and shivered. She told herself repeatedly that there was nothing in the incident of the door and the path. They were just coincidences. In any case they were the result of plain common sense.

Without admitting it to herself, she felt nervous of going up to bed. When she finally got up and turned off the lights and opened the door into the hall, she found herself dreading to go up the stairs. (A. Christie)

B. Giles looked at her curiously. He was a little surprised. It might be kindly meant, but Miss Marple's action savoured very faintly of interference. And interference was unlike her. He said slowly: "Foster's far too old, I know, for really hard work."

"I'm afraid, Mr. Reed, that Manning is even older. Seventy-five, he tells me. But you see, I thought employing him, just for a few odd days, might be quite an adventageous move, because he used, many years ago, to be employed at Dr. Vannedy's." (A. Christie)

II. Point out participle I, gerund or verbal noun.

1. They invented the art of giving Christmas presents. Being wise, their gifts were no doubt wise once, possibly bearing the privilege of exchange in case of duplication. (O. Henry)
2. The stewardess announced that they were going to make an emergency landing. All but the child saw in their minds the spreading wings of the Angel of Death'. The pilot could be heard singing faintly ... (J. Cheever)
3. Soapy, having decided to go to the Island, at once set about accomplishing his desire. There were many easy ways of doing this. (O. Henry)
4. The loud groaning of the hydraulic valves swallowed up the pilot's song, and there was a shrieking high in the air, like automobile brake, and the plane hit flat on its belly in a cornfield and shook them so violently that an old man up forward howled, "Me kidneys! Me kidneys!" The stewardess flung open the door, and someone opened an emergency door at the back, letting in the sweet noise of their continuing mortality – the idle splash and smell of a heavy rain. (J. Cheever)
5. At that time me and Andy was doing a square, legitimate business of selling walking canes. If you unscrewed the head of one and turned it up to your mouth a half pint of good rye whisky would go trickling down your throat to reward you for your act of intelligence. (O. Henry)

Reading material

1. Lecture notes.
2. Blokh M. et al. A Course in Theoretical English Grammar. M., 2000. P. 99-119
3. Blokh M. et al. Theoretical English Grammar. Seminars. M., 2007. P. 140-147
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7. Ilyish B. The Structure of Modern English. L., 1971. P. 76, 130-131

SEMINAR 8

Topic I. The Adverb

1. A general outline of the adverb as a part of speech. The status of the adverb in the grammatical system.
2. Structural and semantic types of adverbs.

Key words

"Situation-determinants"; qualitative, quantitative, circumstantial, orientative adverbs; lexemic subcategorisation of adverbs.

Questions

1. What is the categorial meaning of the adverb?
2. What combinability are adverbs characterized by?
3. What is typical of the adverbial word-building structure?
4. What semantically relevant sets of adverbs can be singled out?

Practice assignment

State the categorial features of the adverbs used in the sentences below.

1. He was in a great quiet room with ebony walls and a dull illuminations that was too faint, too subtle, to be called a light. (S. Fitzgerald)
2. He was tall and homely, wore horn-rimmed glasses and spoke in a deep voice. (J. Cheever)
3. Medley had already risen hurriedly to his feet. The look in his eyes said he was going straight to his telephone to tell Doctor Llewellyn apologetically that he, Llewellyn was a superb doctor and he, Medley, could hear him perfectly. (A. Chronin)

Topic II. Form Words

1. A general outline of form words. Functional parts of speech in terms of different classifications. Inserts.
2. The problem of polysemy and homonymy with reference to functional parts of speech.
3. The preposition.
4. The conjunction.
5. The participle.
6. The article.
7. Modal words.
8. The interjection.

Key words

The category of article determination; closed system items; lexico-grammatical homonyms; inserts.

Questions

1. What are the general characteristics of form words?
2. What problems arise in connection with form words?
3. What is the status of the article in the parts of speech system?
4. What is the category of article determination?
5. What is peculiar to Modern English prepositions?
6. What are grammatical and structural characteristics of conjunctions?
7. What are defining characteristics of particles?
8. What problems arise in connection with modal words as a part of speech?

Practice assignments

Speak on peculiarities of form words using the texts below.

A. He was invited to lunch on a Saturday in February. Mausie's was going to Suffolk the night before but said that if he look the train to Sudbury she pick him up there.

The day was bright and sharp with a sprinkling of hoar frost like half-hearted Christmas decorations. When he rose he was exercised as to what he should wear. It was a country house: what would be appropriate? But all he had was a pair of flannel trousers, two pairs of blue jeans and two woolen sweaters hardened by much washing. He had been considering these during the watches

of the night which were not common watches with him. Indeed, he was not given to trivial anxieties.

The countryside was sweet as the train moved through it. The early frost had gone and the fields were sprinkled with dew. He passed through Haverhill. He felt unusually nervous. He was not bothered about his social manners: he had learned too much for them. But he was bothered by the thought of Mrs. Ferras, queenly in her floating drapery, and by the thought of the people he might meet. He hardly thought of Maisie at all. (P. Johnson)

B. "Take Nick out of the shanty, George," the doctor said. There was no need of that. Nick, standing in the door of the kitchen, had a good view of the upper bunk when his father, the lamp in one hand, tipped the Indian's head back. It was just beginning to be daylight when they walked along the logging road back toward the lake.

"I'm terribly sorry I brought you along; Nickie," said his father, all his post-operative exhilaration gone. "It was an awful mess to put you through."

"Do ladies always have such a hard time having babies?" Nick asked.

"No, that was very, very exceptional." (E. Hemingway)

Reading material

1. Lecture notes
2. Blokh M. et al. A Course in Theoretical English Grammar. P. 197-222.
3. Blokh M. et al. Theoretical English Grammar. Seminars. M., 2007. P. 220-222.
4. Иванова И.П., Бурлакова В.В., Почепцов Г.Г. Теоретическая грамматика современного английского языка. М., 1981. С. 34-39, 87-89.
5. Francis W.N. The Structure of American English. N.Y., 1958. P. 268-288.
6. Ilyish B. The Structure of Modern English. L., 1971. P. 58-65, 146-158
7. Quirk R., Greenbaum S., Leech G., Svartvik J. A University Grammar of English. M., 1982.

TEST

The following outline of text analysis in Theoretical Grammar embraces the main aspects of the course of Theoretical Grammar at the Dobrolyubov State Linguistic University.

The main aim of this written test consists in checking the student's ability to provide for the condition that, on finishing his study of the subject matter of this course, the student should progress in developing a grammatically-oriented mode of understanding facts of language, viz. in mastering that.

OUTLINE OF TEXT ANALYSIS IN THEORETICAL GRAMMAR

I. Introduction

General data on the text (compositional and structural peculiarities of the text: conversational, narrative, descriptive features).

II. Text linguistics

1. Semantic classification of cumulemes (factual, modal, mixed acc. to M.Y. Blokh).
2. Topic and comment sentences.
3. Types of cumulation and means of cohesion. Prospective and retrospective cumulation. Conjunctive and correlative cumulation.

III. Pragmatics

1. Types of presupposition.
2. Speech acts. Direct and indirect speech acts.

IV. Semantic Syntax

1. Types of predicates. Types of arguments.
2. Semantic configuration of the sentence.

V. Syntactic Level

1. Phrase level.

1.1. Traditional classification of phrases (predicative: primary and secondary; subordinate; coordinate). Types of syntactic subordination (agreement, government, adjoinment, enclosure).

1.2. Modern classifications of phrases (Barkhudarov's, Burlakova's, Bloomfield's, Jespersen's, Kruisinga's etc).

2. Sentence level.

2.1. The simple sentence. Communicative and structural types: affirmative / negative, exclamatory, one-member / two-member, full / elliptical, extended / unextended, definite / indefinite personal. The problem of principal and secondary sentence members. The theory of valency.

2.2. The compound sentence in terms of different approaches (Blokh's, Ivanova's).

2.3. The complex sentence in terms of different approaches – traditional and non-traditional (Blokh's, Pospelov's).

2.4. Cases of transition from simple to composite sentences (semi-compound and semi-complex).

2.5. Methods of sentence analysis. IC's analysis. FSP. Transformational method.

VI. Word Level

1. Grammatical categories realized through different types of oppositions. Types of oppositional reduction: neutralization and transposition.

2. The problem of classification of parts of speech: traditional – non-traditional (H. Sweet, O. Jespersen, Ch. Fries). Notional and functional parts of speech. Debatable parts of speech in terms of their semantic, morphological and syntactic features. Cases of transition from one part of speech into another.

3. Nouns. The categorial features of the noun. Number, gender, case, the category of article determination. Polysemy of the 's inflection. Lexicalization of the plural form.

4. Adjectives. The categorial features of the adjective. The category of adjectival comparison. The status of grammatical forms with "more", "most", "less", "least". The Elative Most-Construction. Substantivisation of adjectives. The problem of the stative.

5. Verbs. The categorial features of the verb. Analytical verb forms (tense, voice, the category of time correlation, aspect, mood, person, number). Valency of the verb (obligatory and optional). Objectivity. Transitivity. Complement. Supplementive and Complementive verbs.

6. Non-finite forms. Verbal and nominal features of infinitive, gerund, participle. The problem of -ing forms (lexico-grammatical homonymy of gerund, participle I, verbal noun, adjective).

7. Adverbs. The categorial features of the adverb. The problem of homonymy of adjectives and adverbs. The adverb in terms of structural and semantic classifications.

8. Functional parts of speech in terms of different classifications.

VII. Morphemic Level

1. Traditional and distributional classification of morphemes (bound, free, covert, overt, additive, replacive, continuous, discontinuous).

2. Types of morphemic distribution (contrastive, non-contrastive, complementary).

TEST QUESTIONS IN THEORETICAL GRAMMAR

1. Morphemic structure of the word (basic morphological conceptions).
2. Distributional classifications of morphemes.
3. The principles of the division of words into parts of speech.
4. Ch. Fries's classification of words.
5. Grammatical categories as sets of oppositions of different grammatical forms.
6. The noun. Its general characteristics.
7. The problem of gender in nouns.
8. The problem of case in nouns.
9. The categories of number and article determination.
10. The adjective, degrees of comparison.
11. The stative.
12. The pronoun, classes of pronouns, their general characteristics.
13. The adverb, its general characteristics.
14. The verb, its general characteristics, classifications of verbs.
15. The categories of tense and aspect.
16. The category of mood.
17. The category of voice.
18. The categories of number, person and finitude in verbs.
19. The category of phase in verbs.
20. The classification of ing-forms in English.
21. Form words in English.
22. The sentence and the phrase as basic syntactic units.
23. Subordinate and coordinate phrases in English.
24. Phrases in foreign linguistics.
25. Types of syntactic relation between subordinate phrase components.
26. The simple sentence.
27. The composite sentence as a polypredicative construction.
28. Communicative types of sentences.
29. The principal sentence parts.
30. The secondary sentence parts.
31. One - member and elliptical sentences in English.
32. Cases of transition from simple to composite sentences.
33. The IC method.
34. Transformational grammar.
35. Functional sentence perspective.
36. Linguistic signals of expressing the rheme and the theme.
37. Substitution and representation.
38. Basic conceptions of text linguistics.
39. Semantic aspect of the sentence.
40. Pragmatics.

Bibliography

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22. Sweet H. The Practical Study of Languages. Oxford, 1964.

FURTHER READING

George Jule
"The Study of Language"
Cambridge, 2004

SOME MODERN SCHOOLS AND MOVEMENTS

7.1. Historicism

In this chapter, I will discuss a number of twentieth-century movements in linguistics which have shaped current attitudes and assumptions. The first of these, to which I will give the label **historicism**, is usually thought of as being characteristic of an earlier period of linguistic thought. It is of importance in the present connection in that it prepared the way for structuralism.

Writing in 1922, the great Danish linguist, Otto Jespersen, began one of the most interesting and controversial of his general books on language with the following sentence: "The distinctive feature of the science of language as conceived nowadays is its historical character." Jespersen was here expressing the same point of view as Hermann Paul had done in his *Prinzipien der Sprachgeschichte* (*Principles of Language History*), first published in 1880 and commonly described as the bible of Neogrammarian orthodoxy: the view that (to quote from the fifth edition of Paul's book, which appeared in 1920) "as soon as one goes beyond the mere statement of individual facts, as soon as one tried to grasp their interconnection [den Zusammenhang], to understand the phenomena [die Erscheinungen], one enters upon the domain of history, albeit perhaps unconsciously". Both Jespersen's book and the fifth edition of Paul's *Prinzipien*, it will be noted, were published several years after Saussure's posthumous *Cours de linguistique générale*, which inaugurated the movement now known as structuralist, and only a few years before the foundation of the Prague Linguistic Circle, in which structuralism was combined with functionalism and some of the ideas of present-day generativism had their origin. Structuralism, functionalism and generativism are the principal movements, or attitudes, with which we shall be concerned in this chapter.

It is interesting to observe, in passing, that Bloomfield, in *Language* (1935), whilst recognizing the great merits of Paul's *Prinzipien*, criticized it, not only for its historicism, but also for its mentalism and its substitution of what Bloomfield regarded as "philosophical and psychological pseudo-explanations" for inductive generalization on the basis of "descriptive language study". The wheel has now come full circle! For, as we shall see later, Bloomfieldian **descriptivism** (which may be regarded as a peculiarly American version of structuralism) provided the environment in which Chomskyan generativism was born and against which it reacted. It is impossible, in a book of this nature, to do

justice to the complexity of the relations that hold among twentieth-century schools of linguistics and of the influence that one school has exerted upon another. What follows, in this chapter, is highly selective and, of necessity, involves a certain amount of personal interpretation. It is, of course, a truism that one cannot achieve a genuinely historical perspective in relation to contemporary ideas and attitudes. Even to try to do so may be itself a kind of historicism!

But what, precisely, is historicism – in the sense in which the term is being employed here? It is the view, expressed most forcefully by Paul in the passage from which just one sentence was quoted above, that linguistics, in so far as it is, or aspires to be, scientific, is necessarily historical in character. More particularly, the historicist takes the view that the only kind of explanation valid in linguistics is the kind of explanation which a historian might give: languages are as they are because, in the course of time, they have been subject to a variety of internal and external causal forces. In taking this view, the great nineteenth-century linguists were reacting against the ideas of the philosophers of the French Enlightenment and their predecessors in a long tradition, which goes back, ultimately, to Plato, Aristotle and the Stoics, whose aim it was to deduce the universal properties of language from what were known, or assumed, to be universal properties of the human mind.

Historicism, in the sense in which the term is being used here, does not necessarily imply **evolutionism**: the view that there is directionality in the historical development of languages.

Evolutionism was, in fact, quite influential in linguistics in the late nineteenth century; and Jespersen, in the book referred to above, defends a particular version of it. Other versions have been put forward by idealists of various schools; and also, of course, within the framework of dialectical materialism, by Marxists. It is probably true to say, however, that, with a few notable exceptions, most linguists in the twentieth century have rejected evolutionism. Historicism, as we shall see in the following section, is one of the movements against which structuralism reacted and in relation to which it may be defined.

7.2. Structuralism

What is commonly referred to as **structuralism**, especially in Europe, is of multiple origin. It is both conventional and convenient to date its birth as an identifiable movement in linguistics from the publication of Saussure's *Cours de linguistique générale* in 1916. Many of the ideas that Saussure brought together in the lectures that he delivered at the University of Geneva between 1907 and 1911 (upon which the *Cours* is based) can be traced back into the nineteenth century and beyond.

Several of the constitutive distinctions of Saussurean structuralism have been introduced already (though not always in Saussurean terminology). It suffices to remind the reader of them and to show how they fit together. Since we have just been discussing historicism, it is natural to begin with the distinction between the synchronic and diachronic point of view in the study of languages.

As we have seen, the Neogrammarians took the view that linguistics, in so far as it is scientific and explanatory, must necessarily be historical. Against this view, Saussure argued that the synchronic description of particular languages could be equally scientific; and also that it could be explanatory. Synchronic explanation differs from diachronic, or historical, explanation in being **structural**, rather than causal: it gives a different kind of answer to the question, "Why are things as they are?" Instead of tracing the historical development of particular forms or meanings, it demonstrates how all the forms and meanings are interrelated at a particular point in time in a particular language-system. It is important to realize that, in opposing the Neogrammarian view, Saussure was not denying the validity of historical explanation. He had made his reputation, as a very young man, with a brilliant reconstruction of the Proto-Indo-European vowel-system; and he never abandoned his interest in historical linguistics. What he was saying in his Geneva lectures on general linguistics was that the synchronic and the diachronic modes of explanation were complementary; and that the latter was logically dependent upon the former.

It is as if we were asked to explain why, let us say, a Rolls Royce car-engine of such-and-such a model and such-and-such a year was as it is. We could give a diachronic explanation in terms of the changes that had taken place, over the years, in the design of the carburettor, the crankshaft, etc.; and this would be a perfectly appropriate answer to the question. Alternatively, we could describe the role that each component plays in the synchronic system; and in doing so we should be explaining how the engine fits together and how it works. This would be a non-historical, structural (and functional) explanation of the facts. Since languages are not designed and, in Saussure's view at least, do not evolve through time according to some external or internal purpose, we must be careful not to press this analogy of the car-engine too hard (just as we must not press too hard Saussure's own analogy of the game of chess). Due allowance being made for the absence of a controlling designer and the difference between a machine and a social institution, we can say, quite legitimately, though metaphorically, that a structural description of a language tells us how all the components fit together.

There are certain aspects of Saussure's distinction between the diachronic and the synchronic point of view that are controversial, not to say paradoxical: in particular, his assertion that structuralism has no place in historical linguistics. This is paradoxical in view of the fact that Saussure's own early work on the Proto-Indo-European vowel-system in 1879 can be seen as foreshadowing what

would be later described as internal reconstruction; and, as we have seen, this method of reconstruction was subsequently refined and adopted by scholars who called themselves structuralists and drew their inspiration, at least partly, from Saussure. However, it would seem that Saussure himself believed, rightly or wrongly, that all changes originated outside the language-system itself and did not take account of what were later to be identified as structural pressures within the system operating as internal causal factors of language-change. No more need be said about this.

Little need be said either about Saussure's dichotomy between **langue** and **parole**: between the **language-system** and **language behaviour**. What must be emphasized, at this point, is the abstractness of Saussure's conception of the language-system. A language (langue), says Saussure, is a form, not a substance. The term 'form' is well established in this sense in philosophy and relates, on the one hand, to Wilhelm von Humboldt's notion of the inner form of a language (innere Sprachform) and, on the other, to the Russian formalists' notion of form as opposed to content in literary analysis. But it is potentially misleading. We are not doing violence to Saussure's thought if we say that a language is a structure, implying by the use of this term that it is independent of the physical substance, or medium, in which it is realized. 'Structure', in this sense, is more or less equivalent to 'system': a language is a two-level system of **syntagmatic** and **substitutional** (or **paradigmatic**) relations. It is this sense of 'structure' – the sense in which particular emphasis is given to the internal combinatorial and contrastive relations within a language-system – that makes the term 'structuralism' appropriate to several different twentieth-century schools of linguistics, which might differ one from another in various respects, including the abstractness of their conception of language-systems and their attitudes to the fiction of homogeneity. As we shall see later, generativism is also a particular version of structuralism in this very general sense.

But there are other features of Saussurean structuralism that are more distinctive of it. One is the assertion that "the one and only true object of linguistics is the language-system [la langue] envisaged in itself and for itself'. Actually, this famous quotation from the last sentence of the *Cours* may not accurately represent Saussure's view, since the sentence appears to have been added by the editors without warrant in the lectures themselves. There is some doubt, too, as to what exactly is meant by "in itself and for itself' ("en elle-même et pour elle-même"). However, in the Saussurean tradition it has usually been taken to imply that a language-system is a structure that can be abstracted, not only from the historical forces that have brought it into being, but also from the social matrix in which it operates and the psychological process by which it is acquired and made available for use in language-behaviour. Thus interpreted, the Saussurean slogan, whether it originated with the master himself or not, has often been used to justify the principle of the **autonomy** of linguistics (i.e. its independence of other disciplines). It has also been identified, at times, with the

somewhat different, but no less characteristically structuralist, slogan that every language-system is unique and should be described on its own terms.

There might seem to be some conflict between Saussure's view (if indeed it was his view) that the language-system should be studied in abstraction from the society in which it operates and the view (which he certainly did hold) that languages are social facts. The conflict is only apparent. For even if they are social facts – in the sense in which the term 'social fact' was employed by the great French sociologist, Émile Durkheim (1858-1917), Saussure's contemporary – they have their own unique constitutive principles. As we have seen, a structural analysis of a language-system is not to be confused with a causal account of how the system came to be as it is. In saying that language-systems are social facts, Saussure was asserting several things: that they are different from, though no less real than, material objects; that they are external to the individual and make him subject to their constraining force; that they are systems of values maintained by social convention.

More particularly, he took the view that they are semiotic systems in which that which is signified (**le signifié**) is arbitrarily associated with that which signifies (**le signifiant**). This is Saussure's famous principle of the arbitrariness of the linguistic sign (l'arbitraire du signe). The important point to note here, and it is essential for the understanding of Saussurean structuralism, is that the sign is not a meaningful form: it is a composite entity which results from the imposition of structure on two kinds of substance by the combinatorial and contrastive relations of the language-system. Meanings cannot exist independently of the forms with which they are associated; and vice versa. We must not think of a language as a nomenclature, says Saussure: that is, as a set of names, or labels, for pre-existing concepts, or meanings. The meaning of a word – or rather, that aspect of its meaning which Saussure called the 'signifié' (that aspect of meaning which is wholly internal to the language-system; its sense, rather than its reference or denotation) – is the product of the semantic relations which hold between that word and others in the same language-system. To invoke the traditional philosophical distinction between essence and existence, it derives not only its essence (what it is), but also its existence (the fact that it is) from the relational structure that is imposed by the language-system upon the otherwise unstructured substance of thought. Similarly, what Saussure calls the 'signifiant' of a word – its phonological shape, as it were – results ultimately from the network of contrasts and equivalences that a particular language-system imposes upon the continuum of sound.

We need proceed no further with our investigation of Saussurean structuralism as such. What has just been said is no doubt difficult to comprehend when it is formulated in such general terms, as it has been here. It should be comprehensible, however, as far as the imposition of structure on the substance of sound is concerned, in the light of the distinction between phonetics and phonology. Whether we can legitimately talk of the imposition of

structure upon the substance of thought in the same sort of way is, to say the least, problematical.

The Saussurean view of the uniqueness of language-systems and of the relation between structure and substance leads naturally, though by no means inevitably, to the thesis of **linguistic relativity**: the thesis that there are no universal properties of human languages (other than such very general semiotic properties as arbitrariness, productivity, duality and discreteness; the thesis that every language is, as it were, a law unto itself. Any movement or attitude in linguistics which accepts this point of view may be referred td conveniently, as **relativism** and contrasted with **universalism**. Relativism, in a stronger or weaker form, has been associated with most kinds of twentieth-century structuralism. In part, it can be seen as a methodologically healthy reaction to the tendency to describe the indigenous languages of the New World in terms of the categories of Western traditional grammar. But relativism has also been defended by its proponents, in association with structuralism, in the more controversial context of the discussion of such traditional philosophical issues as the relation between language and mind and the role played by language in the acquisition and representation of knowledge. Both philosophical and methodological relativism have been rejected, by Chomsky and his followers, as we shall see, in their formulation of the principles of generativism. What needs to be emphasized here is the fact that, although there is a strong historical connection between structuralism and relativism, there have been many structuralists – notably Roman Jakobson and other members of the Prague School – who never accepted the more extreme forms of relativism. This holds not only within linguistics, but also in other disciplines, such as social anthropology, in which structuralism has been an important twentieth-century influence.

We cannot go into the relation between structural linguistics and structuralism in other fields of investigation. It must be appreciated, however, that structuralism is very much an interdisciplinary movement. Saussurean structuralism, in particular, has been a powerful force in the development of a characteristically French approach to semiotics (or semiology) and its application to literary criticism, on the one hand, and to the analysis of society and culture, on the other. Taking ‘structuralism’ in a more general sense, we can say, as the philosopher Ernst Cassirer did in 1945: “Structuralism is no isolated phenomenon; it is, rather, the expression of a general tendency of thought that, in these last decades, has become more and more prominent in almost all fields of scientific research.” What characterizes structuralism, in this more general sense, is a greater concern with the relations which hold among entities than with the entities themselves. There is a natural affinity, in this respect, between structuralism and mathematics; and one of the criticisms most commonly made of structuralism is that it exaggerates the orderliness, elegance and generality of the relational patterns in the data that it investigates.

The terms ‘functionalism’ and ‘structuralism’ are often employed in anthropology and sociology to refer to contrasting theories or methods of analysis. In linguistics, however, **functionalism** is best seen as a particular movement within structuralism. It is characterized by the belief that the phonological, grammatical and semantic structure of languages is determined by the functions that they have to perform in the societies in which they operate. The best-known representatives of functionalism, in this sense of the term, are the members of the **Prague School**, which had its origin in the Prague Linguistic Circle, founded in 1926 and particularly influential in European linguistics in the period preceding the Second World War. Not all the members of the Prague Linguistic Circle, incidentally, were based in Prague; nor were they all Czech. Two of its most influential members Roman Jakobson and Nikolaj Trubetzkoy, were émigré Russians, the former teaching in Brno and the latter in Vienna. From 1928, when the Prague School manifesto (as one might call it) was presented to the First International Congress of Linguists held at The Hague, scholars from many other European countries began to associate themselves, more or less closely, with the movement. The Prague School has always acknowledged its debt to Saussurean structuralism, although it has tended to reject Saussure’s point of view on certain issues, especially on the sharpness of the distinction between synchronic and diachronic linguistics and on the homogeneity of the language-system.

It was in phonology that the Prague School first made its impact.

In fact, the notion of functional contrast, which was invoked above in drawing the distinction between phonetics and phonology, is essentially that of Trubetzkoy, whose concept of **distinctive features**, as modified by Jakobson and later by Halle (working in collaboration with Chomsky), has been incorporated within the theory of generative phonology. But the **distinctive function** of phonetic features is only one kind of linguistically relevant function recognized by Trubetzkoy and his followers. Also to be noted are **demarcative function**, on the one hand, and **expressive function**, on the other.

Many of the suprasegmental features referred to above – stress, tone, length, etc – have a demarcative, rather than a distinctive, function in particular language-systems: they are what Trubetzkoy called boundary-signals (Grenzsignale). They do not serve to distinguish one form from another on the substitutional (or, in Saussurean terms, paradigmatic) dimension of contrast; they reinforce the phonological cohesion of forms and help to identify them syntagmatically as units by marking the boundary between one form and another in the chain of speech. For example, in many languages, including English, there is no more than one primary stress associated with each word-form. Since the position of the primary stress on English word-forms is only partly predictable, its association with one syllable rather than another does not identify word-boundaries quite so clearly as it does in languages (such as Polish, Czech or Finnish) with so-called fixed stress. Nevertheless, word-stress does have an

important demarcative function in English. So too does the occurrence of particular sequences of phonemes. For example, /h/ rarely occurs in English (otherwise than in proper names) except at the beginning of a morpheme, and /q/ never occurs without a following consonant except at the end. The occurrence of either of these phonemes can serve therefore to indicate the position of a morpheme-boundary. It is not just prosodic features that have demarcative function in a language-system; and this is something that phonologists have often failed to appreciate. The fact that not all sequences of phonemes are possible word-forms of a language is of importance for the identification of those forms that do occur in utterances.

By the expressive function of a phonological feature is meant its indication of the speaker's feelings or attitude. For example, word-stress is not distinctive in French; and it does not play a demarcative role, as it does in many languages. There is, however, a particular kind of emphatic pronunciation of the beginning of the word which has an acknowledged expressive function. It is probably true to say that every language puts a rich set of phonological resources at the disposal of its users for the expression of feeling. Unless the notion of linguistic meaning is restricted to that which is relevant to the making of true and false statements, it is surely right to treat the expressive function of language on equal terms with its descriptive function.

It is not only in phonology that members of the Prague School demonstrated their functionalism, and more especially their readiness to take full account of the expressive and interpersonal functions of language. From the outset, they have opposed, not only the historicism and positivism of the Neogrammarian approach to language, but also the intellectualism of the pre-nineteenth-century Western philosophical tradition, according to which language is the extemalization or expression of thought (and 'thought' is understood to mean propositional thought). Intellectualism, as we shall see, is one of the components of that complex and heterogeneous movement in modern linguistics to which we are giving the label 'generativism'. There is no logical contradiction between functionalism and intellectualism. After all, one might as an intellectualist take the view that the sole or primary function of language is the expression of propositional thought and yet as a functionalist maintain that the structure of language-systems is determined by their teleological adaptation to this their sole or primary function. In practice, however, not only Prague School linguists, but also others who have called themselves functionalists, have tended to emphasize the **multifunctionality** of language and the importance of its expressive, social and conative functions, in contrast with or in addition to its descriptive function.

One of the enduring interests of the Prague School, as far as the grammatical structure of languages is concerned, has been **functional sentence perspective** (to use the term which emphasizes the functionalist motivation of research on this topic). It was pointed out in an earlier chapter that:

(1) This morning he got up late

and

(2)He got up late this morning

might be regarded as different versions of the same sentence or, alternatively, as different sentences. Whichever point of view we adopt, two things are clear: first, that (1) and (2) are truth – conditionally equivalent and therefore, on a narrow interpretation of 'meaning', can be said to have the same meaning, second, that the contexts in which (1) would be uttered differ systematically from the contexts in which (2) would be uttered. In so far as word-order is held to be a matter of syntax, we can say that, in some languages at least, the syntactic structure of utterances (or of sentences, under a definition of 'sentence' which would make (1) and (2) different sentences) is determined by the communicative setting of the utterance, and in particular by what is taken for granted, or **given** as background information and what is presented against this background as being **new** to the hearer and thus genuinely informative. Considerations of this kind are involved in the definition of what Prague School linguists have called functional sentence perspective. There are differences of terminology and of interpretation which make it difficult to compare the various functionalist treatments of the communicative settings of utterances within a common theoretical framework. What they all share is the conviction that the structure of utterances is determined by the use to which they are put and the communicative context in which they occur.

In general, we can say that functionalism in linguistics has tended to emphasize the instrumental character of language. There is a natural affinity, therefore, between the functionalist viewpoint and that of the sociolinguist or of such philosophers of language as have subsumed language-behaviour under the more embracing notion of social interaction. Functionalism is, in this respect and in others, firmly opposed to generativism.

But is it true, as the functionalist maintains, that the structure of natural languages is determined by the several interdependent semiotic functions – expressive, social and descriptive – that they fulfill? If it were, their structure would be in this respect non-arbitrary; and in so far as different language-systems fulfilled the same semiotic functions, they could be expected to be similar, if not identical, in structure. Now it is possible that linguists have at times exaggerated the arbitrariness of grammatical processes and have failed to give due weight to functional considerations in the description of particular phenomena. It is also possible that functional explanations will ultimately be found for many facts which at present seem to be quite arbitrary: for example, the fact that the adjective regularly precedes the noun in noun phrases in English, but usually follows its noun in French; the fact that the verb is put at the end of subordinate clauses in German; and so on. In certain instances it has been

noted that the presence of one such apparently arbitrary property in a language tends to imply the presence or absence of another apparently arbitrary property. But so far at least **implicational universals** of this kind have not been satisfactorily explained in functional terms. It would seem that there is indeed a good deal of arbitrariness in the non-verbal components of language-systems, and more particularly in their grammatical structure; and that functionalism, as defined above, is untenable. It does not follow, of course, that weaker versions of functionalism, according to which the structure of language-systems is partly, though not wholly, determined by function are equally untenable. And linguists who call themselves functionalists tend to adopt one of the weaker versions.

7.4. Generativism

The term 'generativism' is being used here to refer to the theory of language that has been developed, over the last twenty years or so, by Chomsky and his followers. Generativism, in this sense, has been enormously influential, not only in linguistics, but also in philosophy, psychology and other disciplines concerned with language.

Generativism carries with it a commitment to the usefulness and feasibility of describing human languages by means of generative grammars of one type or another. But there is much more to generativism than this. As has already been pointed out, although a commitment to the tenets of generativism necessarily implies an interest in generative grammar, the converse does not hold true. Indeed, relatively few of the linguists who were impressed by the technical advantages and heuristic value of Chomsky's system of transformational-generative grammar when he first put this forward in the late 1950s have ever explicitly associated themselves with the body of assumptions and doctrines that is now identifiable as generativism. It is also worth emphasizing that these assumptions and doctrines are, for the most part, logically unconnected. Some of them, as I shall indicate below, are more widely accepted than others. However, the influence of Chomskyan generativism upon all modern linguistic theory has been so deep and so pervasive that even those who reject this or that aspect of it tend to do so in terms that Chomsky has made available to them.

Generativism is usually presented as having developed out of, and in reaction to, the previously dominant school of post-Bloomfieldian American descriptivism: a particular version of structuralism. Up to a point, it is historically justifiable to see the origin of generativism within linguistics in this light. But, as Chomsky himself came to realize later, there are many respects in which generativism constitutes a return to older and more traditional views about language. There are others in which generativism simply takes over, without due criticism, features of post-Bloomfieldian structuralism which have never found much favour in other schools of linguistics. It is impossible to deal

satisfactorily with the historical connections between Chomskyan generativism and the views of his predecessors in this book; and, for present purposes, it is unnecessary to attempt to do so. I will merely pick out, and comment briefly upon, the most important of the recognizably Chomskyan components of present-day generativism.

Language-systems are productive, in the sense that they allow for the construction and comprehension of indefinitely many utterances that have never previously occurred in the experience of any of their users. In fact, from the assumption that human languages have the property of r**ecursiveness** – and this appears to be a valid assumption – it follows that the set of potential utterances in any given language is, quite literally, infinite in number. Chomsky drew attention to this fact, in his earliest work, in his criticism of the widely held view that children learn their native language by reproducing, in whole or in part, the utterances of adult speakers. Obviously, if children, from a fairly early age, are able to produce novel utterances which a competent speaker of the language will recognize as grammatically well-formed, there must be something other than imitation involved. They must have inferred, learned, or otherwise acquired the grammatical rules by virtue of which the utterances that they produce are judged to be well-formed. It is sufficient to note that, whether Chomsky is right or wrong about other issues that he has raised in this connection, there can be no doubt that children do not learn language-utterances by rote and then simply reproduce them in response to environmental stimuli.

I have deliberately used the words ‘stimulus’ and ‘response’ at this point. They are key-terms of the school of psychology known as **behaviourism**, which was very influential in America before and after the Second World War. According to the behaviourists everything that is commonly described as being the product of the human mind – including language – can be satisfactorily accounted for in terms of the reinforcement and conditioning of purely physiological reflexes: ultimately, in terms of habits, or **stimulus-response** patterns, built up by the same kind of conditioning as that which enables experimental psychologists to train laboratory rats to run through a maze. Since Bloomfield himself had come to accept the principles of behaviourism and had explicitly advocated them as a basis for the scientific study of language in his classic textbook (1935), these principles were widely accepted in America, not only by psychologists, but also by linguists, throughout the so-called post-Bloomfieldian period.

Chomsky has done more than anyone else to demonstrate the sterility of the behaviourists’ theory of language. He has pointed out that much of the technical vocabulary of behaviourism (‘stimulus’, ‘response’, ‘conditioning’, ‘reinforcement’, etc.), if taken seriously, cannot be shown to have any relevance to the acquisition and the use of human language. He has shown that the behaviourists’ refusal to countenance the existence of anything other than observable physical objects and processes is based on an outdated pseudo-

scientific prejudice. He has asserted – and, as far as the evidence goes, correctly – that language is free from **stimulus-control**. This is what he means when he talks of **creativity**: the utterance that someone produces on any particular occasion is, in principle, unpredictable and cannot be properly described, in the technical sense of these terms, as a response to some identifiable linguistic or non-linguistic stimulus.

Creativity is, in Chomsky's view, a peculiarly human attribute, which distinguishes men from machines and, as far as we know, from other animals. But it is **rule-governed** creativity. And this is where generative grammar comes into its own. The utterances that we produce have a certain grammatical structure: they conform to identifiable rules of well-formedness. To the extent that we succeed in specifying these rules of well-formedness, or grammaticality, we shall have provided a scientifically satisfying account of that property of language – its productivity – which makes possible the exercise of creativity. Productivity, it should be noted, is not to be identified with creativity: but there is an intrinsic connection between them. Our creativity in the use of language – our freedom from stimulus-control – manifests itself within the limits set by the productivity of the language-system. Furthermore, it is Chomsky's view – and this is a very central component in Chomskyan generativism – that the rules which determine the productivity of human languages have the formal properties that they do have by virtue of the structure of the human mind.

This brings us to **mentalism**. Not only the behaviourists, but psychologists and philosophers of many different persuasions, have rejected the distinction that is commonly drawn between body and mind. Chomsky takes the view that it is a valid distinction (although he would not necessarily accept the terms in which it has been formulated in the past). And it is his contention that linguistics has an important role to play in the investigation of the nature of the mind. Meanwhile, it is worth noting that there is far less difference between Bloomfield's and Chomsky's views of the nature and scope of linguistics than one might expect. Bloomfield's commitment to behaviourism had little practical effect upon the techniques of linguistic description that he and his followers developed; and Chomsky's mentalism, as we shall see, is not of the kind that (to quote Bloomfield) "supposes that the variability of human conduct is due to the interference of some non-physical factor". Chomsky's mentalism transcends the more old-fashioned opposition between the physical and the non-physical that Bloomfield here invokes. Chomsky, no less than Bloomfield did, wishes to study language within the framework of concepts and assumptions provided by the natural sciences.

Nevertheless, there are significant differences between Chomskyan generativism and both Bloomfieldian and post-Bloomfieldian structuralism. One of these has to do with their attitudes towards **linguistic universals**. Bloomfield and his followers emphasized the structural diversity of languages (as did the majority of post-Saussurean structuralists. Generativists, in contrast, are more

interested in what languages have in common. In this respect, generativism represents a return to the older tradition of universal grammar – as exemplified, most notably, by the Port-Royal grammar of 1660 and a large number of eighteenth-century treatises on language – which both Bloomfield and Saussure condemned as speculative and unscientific. But Chomsky's position is interestingly different from that of his predecessors in the same tradition. Whereas they tended to deduce the essential properties of language from what they held to be the universally valid categories of logic or reality, Chomsky is far more impressed with such universal properties of language as cannot be so accounted for: in short, with what is universal, but **arbitrary**. Another difference is that he attaches more importance to the formal properties of languages and to the nature of the rules that their description requires than he does to the relations that hold between language and the world.

The reason for this change of emphasis is that Chomsky is looking for evidence to support his view that the human language-faculty is **innate** and **species-specific**: i.e. genetically transmitted and unique to the species. Any universal property of language that can be accounted for in terms of its functional utility or its reflection of the structure of the physical world or of the categories of logic can be discounted from this point of view. According to Chomsky, there are several complex formal properties which are found in all languages, and yet are arbitrary in the sense that they serve no known purpose and cannot be deduced from anything else that we know of human beings or of the world in which they live.

Whether there are indeed such universal formal properties in language, of the kind that the generativists have postulated, is as yet uncertain. But the search for them and the attempt to construct a general theory of language-structure within which they would find their place has been responsible for some of the most interesting work in both theoretical and descriptive linguistics in recent years. And many of the results that have been obtained are independently valuable, regardless of whether they lend support to Chomsky's hypothesis about the innateness and species-specificity of the language-faculty or not.

A further difference between generativism and Bloomfieldian and post-Bloomfieldian structuralism – though in this respect generativism is closer to Saussurean structuralism – relates to the distinction that Chomsky draws between competence and performance. A speaker's linguistic competence is that part of his knowledge – his knowledge of the language-system as such – by virtue of which he is able to produce the indefinitely large set of sentences that constitutes his language (in Chomsky's definition of a language as a set of sentences. Performance, on the other hand, is language-behaviour; and this is said to be determined, not only by the speaker's linguistic competence, but also by a variety of non-linguistic factors including, on the one hand, social conventions, beliefs about the world, the speaker's emotional attitudes towards what he is saying, his assumption about his interlocutor's attitudes, etc. and, on

the other hand, the operation of the psychological and physiological mechanisms involved in the production of utterances.

The **competence-performance** distinction, thus drawn, is at the very heart of generativism. As presented in recent years, it relates to mentalism and universalism in the following way. A speaker's linguistic competence is a set of rules which he has constructed in his mind by virtue of his application of his innate capacity for language-acquisition to the language-data that he has heard around him in childhood. The grammar that the linguist constructs for the language-system in question can be seen as a model of the native speaker's competence. To the extent that it successfully models such properties of linguistic competence as the ability to produce and understand an indefinitely large number of sentences, it will serve as a model of one of the faculties, or organs, of the mind. To the extent that the theory of generative grammar can identify, and construct a model for, that part of linguistic competence which, being universal (and arbitrary) is held to be innate, it can be regarded as falling within the province of cognitive psychology and as making its own unique contribution to the study of man. It is, of course, this aspect of generativism, with its reinterpretation and revitalization of the traditional notion of universal grammar, which has excited the attention of psychologists and philosophers.

The distinction between competence and performance, as drawn by Chomsky, is similar to Saussure's distinction between langue and parole. Both of them rest upon the feasibility of separating what is linguistic from what is non-linguistic; and they both subscribe to the fiction of the homogeneity of the language-system. As for the differences between the two distinctions, it is arguable that Saussure's has less of a psychological slant to it than Chomsky's: though Saussure himself is far from clear on this point, many of his followers have taken the language-system to be something quite abstract and other than even the idealized speaker's knowledge of it. A more clearly identifiable difference has to do with the role that is assigned to the rules of syntax. Saussure gives the impression that the sentences of a language are instances of **parole**; both be and his followers talk – of a **langue** as a system of relations and say little or nothing about the rules that are required to generate sentences. Chomsky, on the other hand, has insisted from the outset that the capacity to produce and understand syntactically well-formed sentences is a central part – indeed, the central part – of a speaker's linguistic competence. In this respect, Chomskyan generativism undoubtedly constitutes an advance upon Saussurean structuralism.

Chomsky's competence-performance distinction has come in for a lot of criticism. Some of this has to do with the validity of what I have called the fiction of homogeneity: provided that 'validity' is interpreted in terms of fruitfulness for the purpose of describing and comparing languages, this line of criticism may be discounted. With the same proviso we may also discount the criticism that Chomsky draws too sharp a distinction between linguistic

competence and the other kinds of knowledge and cognitive ability that are involved in the use of language as far as grammatical and phonological structure is concerned: semantic analysis is more problematical. At the same time, it must be recognized that the terms ‘competence’ and ‘performance’ are inappropriate and misleading as far as the distinction between what is linguistic and what is non-linguistic is concerned. Granted that language-behaviour, in so far as it is systematic, presupposes various kinds of cognitive ability, or competence, and that one kind is the speaker’s knowledge of the rules and vocabulary of the language-system, it is confusing, to say the least, to restrict the term ‘competence’, as Chomskyan generativists do, to what is assumed to pertain to the language-system, lumping everything else under the catch-all term ‘performance’. It would have been preferable to talk about linguistic and non-linguistic competence, on the one hand, and about performance, or actual language-behaviour, on the other. And it is worth noting that in his most recent work Chomsky himself distinguishes grammatical competence from what he calls pragmatic competence.

By far the most controversial aspects of generativism are its association with mentalism and its reassertion of the traditional philosophical doctrine of innate knowledge. As far as the more narrowly linguistic part of generativism is concerned, there is also much that is controversial. But most of this it shares with post-Bloomfieldian structuralism, out of which it emerged, or with other schools of linguistics, including Saussurean structuralism and the Prague School, with which, in one respect or another, it has now associated itself. For example, it continues the post-Bloomfieldian tradition in syntax, by making the morpheme the basic unit of analysis and by attaching more importance to constituency-relations than it does to dependency. Its commitment to the autonomy of syntax (i.e. to the view that the syntactic structure of languages can be described without recourse to semantic considerations) may also be attributed to its post-Bloomfieldian heritage, though many other linguists, outside the post-Bloomfieldian tradition, have taken the same view. As we have seen, Chomskyan generativism is closer to Saussurean, and post-Saussurean, structuralism on the necessity of drawing a distinction between the language-system and the use of that system in particular contexts of utterance. It is also closer to Saussurean structuralism and some of its European developments in its attitude towards semantics. Finally, it has drawn heavily upon Prague School notions in phonology, without however accepting the principles of functionalism. Generativism is all too often presented as an integrated whole in which the technical details of formalization are on a par with a number of logically unconnected ideas about language and the philosophy of science. These need to be disentangled and evaluated on their merits.

On the recent history of linguistics: Ivić (196s); Leroy (1963); Malmberg (1964); Mohrmann, Sommerfelt & Whatmough (1961); Norman & Sommerfelt (1963); Robins (1979b).

On Saussurean and post-Saussurean structuralism: additionally Culler (1976); Ehrmann (1970); Hawkes (1977); Lane (1970): Lepschy (1970). For those who read French, Sanders (1979) provides an excellent introduction to Saussure's *Cours*, and to the more specialized critical editions and commentaries.

On Prague School structuralism and functionalism: additionally Garvin (1964); Jakobson ((973); Vachek (1964, 1966). See also Halliday (1970, 1976) for a partly independent approach.

On Chomskyan generativism, the literature both popular and scholarly is by now immense. Much of it is controversial, misleading or outdated. Lyons (1977a) will serve as a relatively straightforward introduction to Chomsky's own views and writings, and provides a bibliography and suggestions for further reading. To the works listed there, one may now add: Matthews (1979), a lively critique of the central tenets of generativism; Piattelli-Palmarini (1979), which is particularly interesting for Chomsky's own comments on the biological and psychological aspects of generativism; Sampson (1980), which develops and in part modifies Sampson (1975); Smith & Wilson (1979), a spirited and readable account of linguistics from a Chomskyan point of view. Chomsky's own most recent publications have tended to be rather technical, but Chomsky (1979) will bring the reader more or less up to date.

MORPHOLOGY

The term "morphology" which literally means 'the study of forms', was originally used in biology, but, since the middle of the nineteenth century, has also been used to describe that type of investigation which analyzes all those basic 'elements' which are used in a language. What we have been describing as 'elements' in the form of a linguistic message are more technically known as morphemes.

Morphemes

We can recognize that English word-forms such as *talks*, *talker*, *talked* and *talking* must consist of one element talk, and a number of other elements such as *-s*, *-er*, *-ed*, *-ing*. All these elements are described as morphemes. The definition of a morpheme is "a minimal unit of meaning or grammatical function". Let's clarify this definition with some examples. We would say that the word *reopened* in the sentence *The police reopened the investigation*

consists of three morphemes. One minimal unit of meaning is open, another minimal unit of meaning is *re-* (meaning ‘again’), and a minimal unit of grammatical function is *-ed* (indicating past tense).The word tourists also contains three morphemes. There is one minimal unit of meaning, tour, another minimal unit of meaning *-ist* (meaning ‘person who does something’), and a minimal unit of grammatical function *-s* (indicating plural).

Free and bound morphemes

From these two examples, we can make a broad distinction between two types of morphemes. There are **free morphemes**, that is, morphemes which can stand by themselves as single words, e.g. *open* and *tour*. There are also **bound morphemes**, that is, those which cannot normally stand alone, but which are typically attached to another form, e.g. *re-*, *-ist*, *-ed*, *-s*. You will recognize this as affixes. All affixes in English are bound morphemes. The free morphemes can be generally considered as the set of separate English word-forms. When they are used with bound morphemes, the basic word-form involved is technically known as the **stem**. For example:

undressed			***carelessness***		
un-	*dress*	*-ed*	*care*	*-less*	*-ness*
prefix (bound)	stem (free)	suffix (bound)	stem (free)	suffix (bound)	suffix (bound)

It should be noted that this type of description is a partial simplification of the morphological facts of English. There are a number of English words in which the element which seems to be the ‘stem’ is not, in fact, a free morpheme. In words like *receive*, *reduce*, *repeat* we can recognize the bound morpheme *re-*, but the elements *-ceive*, *-duce* and *-peat* are clearly not free morphemes. There is still some disagreement over the proper characterization of these elements and you may encounter a variety of technical terms used to describe them. It may help to work with a simple distinction between those forms like *-ceive* and *-duce* as ‘bound stems’ and other forms like *dress* and *care* as ‘free stems’.

Free morphemes

What we have described as free morphemes fall into two categories. The first category is that set of ordinary nouns, adjectives and verbs which we think of as the words which carry the ‘content’ of messages we convey. These free morphemes are called **lexical morphemes** and some examples are: *boy*, *man*, *house*, *tiger*, *sad*, *long*, *yellow*, *sincere*, *open*, *look*, *follow*, *break*. We can add new lexical morphemes to the language rather easily, so they are treated as an ‘open’ class of words.

The other group of free morphemes are called **functional morphemes**. Examples are: *and*, *but*, *when*, *because*, *on*, *near*, *above*, *in*, *the*, *that*, *it*. This set consists largely of the functional words in the language such as conjunctions,

prepositions, articles and pronouns. Because we almost never add new functional morphemes to the language, they are described as a 'closed' class of words.

Bound morphemes

The set of affixes which fall into the 'bound' category can also be divided into two types. One type – the **derivational morphemes**. These are used to make new words in the language and are often used to make words of a different grammatical category from the stem. Thus, the addition of the derivational morpheme *-ness* changes the adjective *good* to the noun *goodness*. The noun *care* can become the adjectives *careful* or *careless* via the derivational morphemes *-ful* or *-less*. A list of derivational morphemes will include suffixes such as the *-ish* in *foolish*, the *-ly* in *badly* and the *-ment* in *payment*. It will also include prefixes such as *re-*, *pre-*, *ex-*, *dis-*, *co-*, *un-* and many more.

The second set of bound morphemes contains what are called **inflectional morphemes**. These are not used to produce new words in the English language, but rather to indicate aspects of the grammatical function of a word. Inflectional morphemes are used to show if a word is plural or singular, if it is past tense or not, and if it is a comparative or possessive form. English has only eight inflectional morphemes, illustrated in the following:

*Let me tell you about Jim**'s** two sister**s**.*
*One like**s** to have fun and is always laugh**ing**.*
*The other lik**ed** to study and has always tak**en** things seriously.*
*One is the loud**est** person in the house and the other is quiet**er** than a mouse.*

From these examples, we can see that two of the inflections, *-'s* (possessive) and *-s* (plural) are attached to nouns. There are four attached to verbs, *-s* (3rd person present singular), *-ing* (present participle), *-ed* (past tense) and *-en* (past participle). There are two inflections, *-est* (superlative) and *-er* (comparative) attached to adjectives. Note that, in English, all inflectional morphemes listed here are suffixes.

Noun + *-'s*, *-s*
Verb + *-s*, *-ing*, *-ed*, *-en*
Adjective + *-est*, *-er*

There is some variation in the form of these inflectional morphemes, with, for example, the possessive sometimes occurring as *-s'* (*those boys' bags*) and the past participle as *-ed* (*they have finished*).

Derivational versus inflectional

The difference between derivational and inflectional morphemes is worth emphasizing. An inflectional morpheme never changes the grammatical category of a word. For example, both *old* and *older* are adjectives. The *-er*

inflection (from Old English *-ra*) simply creates a different version of the adjective. However, a derivational morpheme can change the grammatical category of a word. The verb *teach* becomes the noun *teacher* if we add the derivational morpheme *-er* (from Old English *-ere*). So, the suffix form *-er* can be an inflectional morpheme as part of an adjective and also a distinct derivational morpheme as part of a noun. Just because they (*-er*) look the same doesn't mean they do the same kind of work. In both cases, they are bound morphemes.

Whenever there is a derivational suffix and an inflectional suffix attached to the same word, they always appear in that order. First the derivational *-er* attaches to teach, then the inflectional *-s* is added to yield *teachers*.

Morphological description

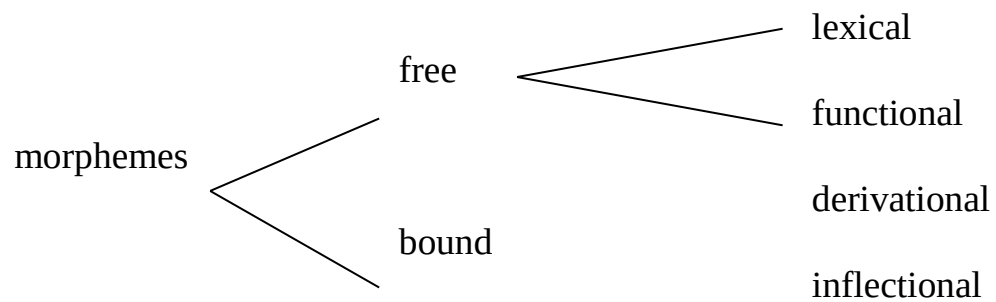
Armed with all these terms for the different types of morphemes, you can now take most sentences of English apart and list the 'elements'. As an example, the English sentence *The girl's wildness shocked the teachers* contains the following elements:

The	*girl*	*-'s*	*wild*	*-ness*
(functional)	(lexical)	(inflectional)	(lexical)	(derivational)

shock	*-ed*	*the*
(lexical)	(inflectional)	(functional)

teach	er	s
(lexical)	(derivational)	(inflectional)

As a useful way to remember the different categories of morphemes, the following chart can be used:



Problems in morphological description

The rather neat chart presented above conceals a number of outstanding problems in the analysis of English morphology. So far, we have only

considered examples of English words in which the different morphemes are easily identifiable as separate elements. Thus, the inflectional morpheme *-s* is added to *cat* and we get the plural *cats*. What is the inflectional morpheme which makes *sheep* the plural of *sheep*, or *men* the plural of *man*? A related question concerns the inflection which makes *went* the past tense of *go*. And yet another question concerns the derivation of an adjective like *legal*. If *-al* is the derivational suffix, as it is in forms like *institutional*, then what is the stem? No, it isn't *leg*.

These problematic issues, and many others which arise in the analysis of different languages, have not been fully resolved by linguists. The solutions to these problems are clearer in some cases than in others. The relationship between *law* and *legal* is a reflection of the historical influence of other languages on English word-forms. The modern form *law* is a result of a borrowing into Old English from Old Norse, over 1,000 years ago. The modern form *legal* is a borrowing from the Latin form *legalis* ('of the law'). Consequently, there is no derivational relationship between the two forms in English, nor between the noun *mouth* (an Old English form) and the adjective *oral* (a Latin borrowing). It has been pointed out that an extremely large number of English forms owe their morphological patterning to languages like Latin and Greek. Consequently, a full description of English morphology will have to take account of both historical influences and the effect of borrowed elements.

Morphs and allomorphs

The solution to other problems remains controversial. One way to treat differences in inflectional morphemes is by proposing variation in morphological realization rules. In order to do this, we draw an analogy with some processes in phonology. If we consider 'phones' as the actual phonetic realization of 'phonemes', then we can propose **morphs** as the actual forms used to realize morphemes. Thus, the form *cat* is a single morph realizing a lexical morpheme. The form *cats* consists of two morphs, realizing a lexical morpheme and an inflectional morpheme ('plural'). Just as we noted that there were 'allophones' of a particular phoneme, then we can recognize **allomorphs** of a particular morpheme.

Take the morpheme 'plural'. Note that it can be attached to a number of lexical morphemes to produce structures like 'cat + plural', 'sheep + plural', and 'man + plural'. Now, the actual forms of the morphs which result from the single morpheme 'plural' turn out to be different. Yet they are all allomorphs of the one morpheme. It has been suggested, for example, that one allomorph of 'plural' is a zero-morph, and the plural form of *sheep* is actually 'sheep + 0'. Otherwise, those so-called 'irregular' forms of plurals and past tenses in English are described as having individual morphological realization rules. Thus, 'man +

plural' or 'go + past', as analyses at the morpheme-level, are realized as *men* and *went* at the morph-level.

Study questions

1. (a) List the 'bound' morphemes to be found in these words:
   misleads, previewer, shortened, unhappier, fearlessly.
   (b) In which of the following examples should the 'a' be treated as a bound morpheme: *a boy, apple, atypical, AWOL*?

2. What are the functional morphemes in the following sentence:
   The old man sat on a chair and told them tales of woe.

3. What are the inflectional morphemes in the following phrases:
   (a) *the singer's songs* (c) *the newest style*
   (b) *it's raining* (d) *the cow jumped over the moon*

4. What would we list as allomorphs of the morpheme 'plural' from this set of English words:
   dogs, oxen, deer, judges, curricula ?

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МОРФОЛОГИЯ

ПРИЛОЖЕНИЕ
К УЧЕБНО-МЕТОДИЧЕСКОМУ КОМПЛЕКСУ
ПО КУРСУ «ТЕОРЕТИЧЕСКАЯ ГРАММАТИКА СОВРЕМЕННОГО АНГЛИЙСКОГО ЯЗЫКА»

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