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Пособие предназначено для студентов факультета и отделений английского языка по курсу теоретической грамматики. Учебные материалы представляют тезисное изложение основных положений грамматической теории по морфологии, разбитые по семинарским темам, задания; выдержки из работ лингвистов по кардинальным проблемам морфологии английского языка; к каждой теме прилагается список основных грамматических терминов, использованных в пособии, и систематизированных в глоссарии.

Предлагаемые материалы могут быть использованы при чтении лекций и проведении семинарских занятий по курсу теоретической грамматики (раздел «Морфология»), а также при чтении спецкурсов и дисциплин по выбору.

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SEMINAR 1

The History of English Grammar. Language as a System. Morphemic Structure of the Word.

Topic 1. The History of English Grammar.

1. Introduction. On the History of English Grammar.
2. English Grammar before 1900.
 - 2.1 Descriptive Grammar.
 - 2.2 Prescriptive Grammar.
 - 2.3 Classical Scientific Grammar.
3. Modern English Grammar

Key-words

Historicism, structuralism, functionalism, generativism, relativism, universalism, descriptive grammar, prescriptive grammar, classical scientific English grammar, structural grammar

1. Introduction. On the History of English Grammar

There does not appear to exist a generally accepted periodization of the history of English grammars. To mention only the most influential and widely spread grammatical systems reflected in textbooks of English: classical scientific grammar, structural (descriptive) linguistics, transformational grammar, generative semantics, textual linguistics, corpus linguistics.

Usually the history of English Grammar is divided into four periods. The first period is early descriptive grammars (the end of the 16th century). The first English Grammars are “Bref Grammar for English (1585) and “Pamphlet for Grammar” by William Bullokar, written with the goal of demonstrating that English was quite as rule-bound as Latin was published in 1586. It was modelled on William Lily’s Latin Grammar, “Rudimental Grammatices” (1534). They aimed at naming grammatical phenomena.

By the middle of the 18th century, when many of the grammatical phenomena of English had been described, the early English grammars gave way to a new kind of grammar, a prescriptive (normative) grammar, which stated strict rules of grammatical usage, condemning those constructions and forms which it considered to be wrong or “improper”, and setting up a certain standard of correctness to be implicitly followed by learners of English. The grammars of the second period still constitute the only kind of grammar in use in the practical teaching of English. Robert Lowth, Bishop of Oxford and Oxford professor of poetry was the first and the best known grammarian of the 18th century. He published “A Short Introduction to English Grammar, with critical notes” (1762).

By the end of the 19th century, when the prescriptive grammar had reached its highest level of development, when the system of grammar known in modern linguistics as traditional had been established, the appearance of a new grammar, the scientific grammar, became possible. It gives a scientific explanation of grammatical phenomena (“A Handbook of English Grammar”, 1945).

The fourth period is the period of structural grammar (the second half of the 20th century) known as American descriptive linguistics. Instead of tracing the historical development of particular forms (such an approach was characteristic of early English grammar) structuralism demonstrates how all the forms and meanings are interrelated at a particular point in time in particular language.

In contrast with prescriptive grammars, classical scientific grammar was both descriptive and explanatory. In the 20th century English became systematised. The first work to lay claim to the new scholarship was British linguist Henry Sweet’s “A New English Grammar logical and historical” (1892-1896). The most influential grammars of this period were “English Grammar: Past and Present” by John Collinson Nesfield, “Grammar of Spoken English” by H. Palmer (1924).

The next set of wide-ranging English grammars were written by Danish and Dutch linguists. Jespersen’s contribution was in analysing the various parts of a sentence in terms of categories that he named rank, junction and nexus forgoing the usual word classes (“A Modern English Grammar on Historical Principles”, 1909-1949). His ideas would inspire the later work by Noam Chomsky and Randolph Quirk. The Dutch tradition of writing English grammars gained renewed strength in the early 20th century in the work of Heindrik Poutsma (“A Grammar of Modern English”, 1904-1929), Etsko Kruisinga (“A Handbook of Present Day English”, 1909-1932), and Reinard Zandvoort (“A Handbook of English Grammar”, 1945 – the third period).

Structural grammarians began treating the problems of the structure of English with criticism of traditional, or conventional grammar (See: Ch. C. Fries “The Structure of English, and Introduction to the Construction of English Sentences”, 1963).

The decade before Fries’s *The Structure of English* appeared was one of intensive development of American linguistics which became known as Bloomfieldian linguistics, though not all of its characteristics can be traced directly to Bloomfield’s concepts. Bloomfield (“Language”), American linguists (among them were K.L. Pike, R. Wells, E. Nida, Z.S. Harris and others) concentrated their attention on formal operations, the so-called grammar discovery procedures, their aim being to discover and describe the features and arrangement of two fundamental linguistic units (the phoneme and the morpheme as the minimal unit of grammatical structure) without having recourse to meaning.

Sentence structure was represented in terms of immediate constituent analysis, explicitly introduced, though not sufficiently formalized by Bloomfield. The binary cutting of sentences and their phrasal constituents into IC's, the first and the most important cut being between the group of the subject and the group of the predicate, was implicit in the "parsing" analysis of traditional grammar, as noted by many linguists commenting on the analysis. The generally favoured method of linguistic description became that of distribution.

Structural linguistics was followed by a new type of grammar which is known as transformational generative grammar. Its main aim was to find out mechanisms, which account for the generation of the variety of sentences of a language out of a few kernel sentences.

The coexistence and a certain interaction of different types of grammars is a typical feature of Modern Grammar.

Now in brief for some trends in Modern English Grammar.

Cognitive Linguistics.

This trend refers to the branch of linguistics that interpretes language in terms of concepts, sometimes universal, sometimes specific to a particular language which underlie its forms.

General references:

Evans, Vyvyan and Melanie Green "Cognitive Linguistics. An Introduction" (Edinburgh, 2006), Croft, W. & D.A. Cruse "Cognitive Linguistics. An Introduction" (Edinburgh, 2006).

Pragmatics is the study of the aspects of meaning and language use that are dependent on the speaker, the addressee and other features of the context of utterance such as generally observed principles of communication; the goals of the speaker.

Corpus Linguistics is the study of language expressed in corpora (samples) of "real world" text. The text-corpus method is an approach for deriving a set of abstract rules from a text for governing a natural language, and how that language relates to and with another language; originally derived manually, corpora now are automatically derived from the source texts. Corpus linguistics proposes that reliable language analysis is more feasible with corpora collected in the field, in their natural contexts, and with minimal experimental interference.

The most influential grammars are: D. Biber, S. Conrad, R. Reppen "Corpus Linguistics, Investigating Structure and Use" (Cambridge, 1998), D. McCarthy and G. Sampson "Corpus Linguistics. Reading in a Widening Discipline" (Continuum, 2005), R. Facchinetti "Theoretical Description and Practical Applications of Linguistics Corpora" (Verona, 2007).

Questions:

1. What are characteristic features of each period in the rise and development of a certain type of grammatical description?
2. What are characteristic features of Modern English Grammar?

SOME MODERN SCHOOLS AND MOVEMENTS

George Yule
“*The Study of Language*”
Cambridge, 2004

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 structuralism, 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.

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 into itself. Any movement or attitude in linguistics which accepts this point of view may be referred to 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 externalization 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.

3. 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 **recursiveness** – 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 he 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.

Topic 2. Language as a System

1. System as a Linguistic Notion
2. Language and Speech
3. Paradigmatic and Syntagmatic Relations
4. Language Units and Language Level (prof. Blokh's approach)

Key words

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

1. System as a Linguistic Notion

Human language is a verbal means of communication; its function consists in forming, storing and exchanging ideas as reflections of reality. Being inseparably connected with the people who create and use it, language is social and psychological by nature.

Language incorporates three constituent parts. They are the phonological system, the lexical system, and the grammatical system. The phonological system determines the material (phonetic) form of its significative units; the lexical system comprises the whole set of nominative means of language (words

and stable word-groups); the grammatical system presents the whole set of regularities determining the combination of nominative units in the formation of utterances.

The aim of theoretical grammar of language is to present a theoretical description of its grammatical system. To achieve this aim it is necessary to scientifically analyze and define its categories and study the mechanisms of grammatical formation of utterances in the process of speech production.

Modern linguistics is essentially based on the systemic conception of language. System in general is defined as a structured set of elements related to one another by a common function. The interpretation of language as a system develops a number of notions, namely: the notions of language levels and language units, paradigmatic and syntagmatic relations, the notions of form and meaning (function), of synchrony and diachrony, of analysis and synthesis, and some others.

2. Language and Speech

The discrimination of language and speech is the fundamental principle of linguistics. This principle has sustained throughout the whole history of the study of language. With a special demonstrative force it was confirmed by I.A. Beaudoin de Courtenay (end of the XIX c.) and F. de Saussure (beginning of the XX c.) who analyzed the language-speech dichotomy in connection with the problem of identifying the subject of linguistics. The two great scholars emphatically pointed out the difference between synchrony and diachrony stressing the fact that at any stage of its historical evolution language is a synchronic system of meaningful elements, i. e. a system of special signs.

Language in the narrow sense of the word is a system of means of expression, while speech is a manifestation of the system of language in the process of communication. The system of language includes the body of material units – sounds, morphemes, words, word-groups, and a set of regularities or “rules” of the use of these units. Speech comprises both the act of producing utterances and the utterances themselves, i. e. the text made up of lingual units of various status.

From the functional point of view all the units of language should be classed into those that are non-meaningful semantically, such as phonemes, and those that express a certain semantic meaning, such as words. The non-meaningful units may be referred to as “cortemes”, they provide a physical cover (acoustic, graphical) for meaningful units; the meaningful units, in distinction to cortemes, may be referred to as “signemes”. Signeme is a lingual sign (Blokh).

Language and speech are inseparable, they form an organic unity. The stability of this unity is ensured by grammar since it dynamically connects language with speech.

The lingual sign in the system of language has only a potential meaning. In speech the potential meaning of the lingual sign is “actualized”, in other words, it is made situationally significant as part of the grammatically organized text.

The functional dynamics of lingual units in speech is efficiently demonstrated by the branch of linguistics called “pragmalinguistics”. Among other things, pragmalinguistics investigated the relevant contribution to the total communicative content of utterances made by different unit types. In this connection, the role of lingual units not in the expression of certain meanings, but in maintaining the contact between the communicants.

3. Paradigmatic and Syntagmatic Relations

Lingual units stand to one another in two fundamental types of relations: syntagmatic and paradigmatic.

Syntagmatic relations are immediate linear relations between units in a segmental sequence (string).

One of the basic notions in the syntagmatic analysis is the notion of syntactic syntagma. A “syntactic syntagma” is the combination of two or more notional elements.

Syntagmatic relations are opposed to paradigmatic relations. They exist between elements of the system outside the strings in which they co-occur. These intrasystemic relations find their expression in the fact that each lingual unit is included in a set or series of connections based on different formal and functional properties.

Paradigmatic and syntagmatic relations are not isolated from one another. Paradigmatic relations co-exist with syntagmatic relations in such a way that some sort of syntagmatic connection is necessary for the realization of any paradigmatic series. This is revealed to the full in a classical grammatical paradigm. It presents a productive series of forms. A paradigmatic form – a constituent of a paradigm – consists of a stem and a specific element (inflexion, suffix, auxiliary word). The function of a grammatical paradigm is to express a categorial meaning.

4. Language Units and Language Level (prof. Blokh’s approach)

Units of language are divided into segmental and suprasegmental. Segmental units consist of phonemes, they form phonemic strings of various status. Suprasegmental units do not exist by themselves, but are realized with segmental units and express different modificational meanings reflected on the strings of segmental units.

The segmental units of language form a hierarchy of levels. Units of each higher level are formed of units of the immediately lower level. But this hierarchical relation is not reduced to the mechanical composition of larger units

from smaller ones, as units of each level are characterized by their own, specific, functional properties which provide the basis for the very recognition of the corresponding language levels.

The lowest level of lingual units is phonemic: it is formed by phonemes. The phoneme has no meaning, its function is purely differential.

The second level, located above the phonemic level, is morphemic. The morpheme is the elementary meaningful part of the word built up by phonemes. The morpheme expresses abstract, “significative”, meaning.

The third level is lexemic. Its differential unit is the word. The word realizes the function of nomination.

The fourth level is denotemic, its constituent unit is denoteme (notional part of the sentence).

The fifth level is proposemic. It is built up by sentences. As a sign, the sentence simultaneously fulfils two functions – nominative and predicative.

The sixth level is the level of topicalization, its constituent element is the “dicteme” (“utterance”). The function of the dicteme is to build up a topical stretch of some text. Being an elementary topical unit of text, the dicteme fulfils four main signemic functions: the functions of nomination, predication, topicalization, and stylization.

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?

Topic 3. Word as a Nominative Unit

1. Morphemic Structure of the Word.
 - 1.1 The notions of morph, allomorph, morpheme.
 - 1.2 Traditional classification of morphemes.
 - 1.3 The allo-emic theory.
 - 1.4 Distributional classification of morphemes.
 - 1.5 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 distribution; overt, covert, bound, free, linear, additive, replacive, continuous, discontinuous morphemes.

1. Morphemic Structure of the Word

The word is a basic nominative unit. Without words there cannot be any communication even in thought, to say nothing about speech communication.

From the point of view of its nominative function, the word is an elementary indivisible constituent part of the lexicon.

It is not easy to identify the word because the words are heterogeneous from the point of view of both content and form.

The word is the nominative unit of language built up by morphemes and indivisible into smaller segments as regards its nominative function.

The morphological system of language reveals its properties through the morphemic structure of words. So, it is but natural that one of the essential tasks of morphology is to study the morphemic structure of the word.

In traditional grammar the study of the morphemic structure of the word is based upon two criteria – positional and semantic. The positional criterion presupposes the analysis of the location of the marginal morphemes in relation to the central ones. The semantic criterion involves the study of the correlative contribution of the morpheme to the general meaning of the word. In accord with the traditional classification, morphemes at the upper level are divided into root morphemes and affixal morphemes (lexical and grammatical).

The morphemic composition of modern English words has a wide range of varieties but the preferable morphemic model of the common English word is the following: prefix + root + lexical suffix + (grammatical suffix).

Further insights into the correlation between the formal and functional aspects of morphemes may be gained in the light of the “allo-emic” theory put forward by Descriptive Linguistics. In accord with this theory, lingual units are described by means of two types of terms – “allo-terms” and “eme-terms”. Eme-terms denote the generalized, invariant units of language characterized by a certain functional status, e. g. phonemes, morphemes, lexemes, phrasemes, etc. but in practical analysis this terminology is applied only to the analysis of phonemes and morphemes. Allo-terms denote the concrete manifestations or variants of the eme-units. Allo-units are distinguished by their regular co-location with other elements of language. Typical examples of allo-units are allophones and allomorphs. The morph is the shortest sequence of phonemes or one phoneme having a definite meaning but distributionally uncharacterized.

The allo-emic identification of lingual elements forms the basis for the so-called “distributional” analysis. The aim of the distributional analysis is to study the units of language in relation to the adjoining elements in the text.

In the distributional analysis three main types of distribution are discriminated: contrastive distribution, non-contrastive distribution, and complementary distribution. Contrastive and non-contrastive distributions concern identical environments of different morphs. The morphs are said to be in contrastive distribution if their meanings (functions) are different: such morphs constitute different morphemes, e. g. *returned* / *returning* / *returns*. The morphs are in non-contrastive distribution if their meanings (functions) are identical; such morphs constitute “free alternants” (“free variants”) of the same morpheme, e. g. the morphs *-ed* and *-t* in the verb forms *learned* / *learnt*, or the morphs *-s* and *-i* in the noun forms *geniuses* / *genii*. As for complementary distribution, it concerns different environments of formally different morphs which fulfil one and the same function; such morphs are termed “allo-morphs”, e. g., there exist a few allomorphs of the plural morpheme of the noun: *-en* (*children*), *-s* (*toys*), *-a* (*data*), *-es* (*crises*), *-i* (*genii*), the zero allomorph (*trout* / *trout*), etc.

The application of distributional analysis to the morphemic level results in the classification of morphemes on distributional lines. In accord with this classification a few “distributional morpheme types” are identified: free and bound morphemes, overt and covert morphemes, additive and replacive morphemes, continuous and discontinuous morphemes, segmental and supra-segmental 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?

MORPHOLOGY

George Yule
“The Study of Language”
Cambridge, 2004

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:

<i>undressed</i>			<i>carelessness</i>		
<i>un-</i>	<i>dress</i>	<i>-ed</i>	<i>care</i>	<i>-less</i>	<i>-ness</i>
prefix	stem	suffix	stem	suffix	suffix
(bound)	(free)	(bound)	(free)	(bound)	(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 sisters.

*One likes to have fun and is always laugh**ing**.*

*The other lik**ed** to study and has always tak**en** things seriously.*

*One is the lou**dest** 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.

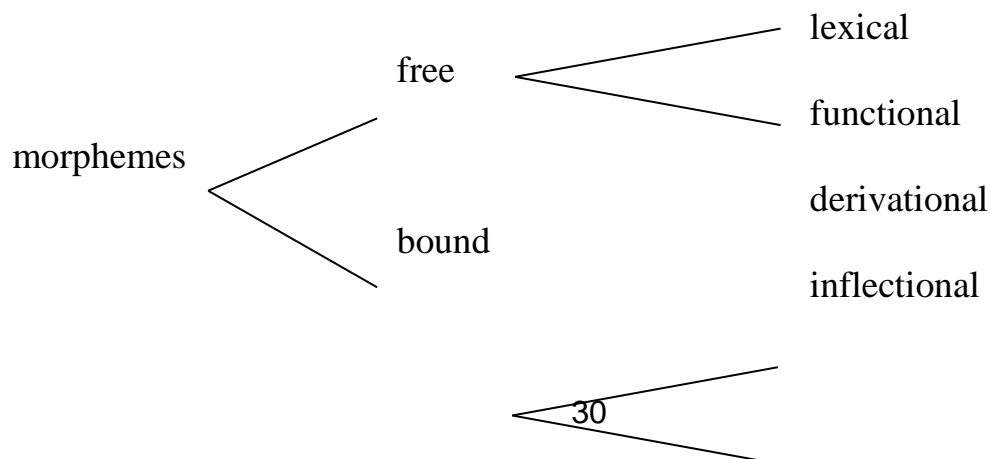
Whenever there is a derivational suffix and an inflectional suffix attached to the same word, they always appear in that order. First the derivational *-er* attaches to *teach*, then the inflectional *-s* is added to yield *teachers*.

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:

<i>The</i> (functional)	<i>girl</i> (lexical)	<i>- 's</i> (inflectional)	<i>wild</i> (lexical)	<i>-ness</i> (derivational)
<i>shock</i> (lexical)	<i>-ed</i> (inflectional)	<i>the</i> (functional)		
<i>teach</i> (lexical)	<i>er</i> (derivational)	<i>s</i> (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.

Exercises

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, unproved, 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) published, rimmed;

c) seams, seamless, seamy.

III. Group the following words 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, cleaved, cleft, clove.

IV. Identify and classify different morphemes and the type of their morphemic distribution in the following texts.

Texts for Analysis

A. He was a flamboyant man in his middle forties with a thickening figure, a deteriorating handsomeness which he knew looked best in profile and a large head maned with abundant coarse grey hair. His clothes were superb, with just a touch of eccentricity, a hint of braid on the lapel, a glimpse of embroidery on a dress shirt – to distinguish him from anyone else who could afford a good tailor.

He had appeared on radio and television, which had helped his notoriety because, like Sir Gerald Kelly, he invariably said something taboo, and like Gilbert Harding, he managed to sound entertainingly angry when he was suffering from no greater irritation than a wild indigestion

(Monica Dickens. Man Overboard).

B. Gwenda Reed stood, shivering a little, on the quayside.

The docks and the custom sheds and all of England that she could see were gently waving up and down.

And it was in that moment that she made her decision – the decision that was to lead to such very momentous events.

She wouldn't go by the boat train to London as she had planned.

After all, why should she? No one was waiting for her, nobody expected her. She had only just got off that heaving, creaking boat. It had been an exceptionally rough three days through the Bay and up to Plymouth and the last thing she wanted was to get into a heaving, swaying train. She would go to a hotel, a nice firm steady hotel standing on good solid ground. And she would get into a nice steady bed that didn't creak and roll. And she would go to sleep and the next morning – why of course – what a splendid idea! She would hire a car and she would drive slowly and without hurrying herself all through the South of England looking about for a house – a nice house – the house that she and Giles had planned he should find. Yes, that was a splendid idea.

(A. Christie. Sleeping Murder)

Reading material

1. Lecture notes.
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SEMINAR 2

Categorial Structure of the Word. Grammatical Categories. Classes of Words

Topic 1. Categorial Structure of the Word. Grammatical Categories.

1. The traditional conception of grammatical categories. Grammatical meaning and grammatical form.
2. Grammatical categories as sets of oppositions of different grammatical forms (privative, gradual, equipollent).
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.

I. Categorial Structure of the Word. Grammatical Categories.

1. Notion of Opposition. Oppositions in Morphology

The most general meanings rendered by language and expressed by systemic correlations of word-forms are interpreted in linguistics as categorial grammatical meanings. The forms rendering these meanings are identified within definite paradigmatic series.

The grammatical category is a system of expressing a generalized grammatical meaning by means of paradigmatic correlation of grammatical forms. The ordered set of grammatical forms expressing a categorial function constitutes a paradigm. The paradigmatic correlations of grammatical forms in a category are exposed by grammatical oppositions which are generalized correlations of lingual forms by means of which certain functions are expressed.

There exist three main types of qualitatively different oppositions: “privative”, “gradual”, “equipollent”. By the number of members contrasted, oppositions are divided into binary and more than binary. The privative binary opposition is formed by a contrastive pair of members in which one member is characterized by the presence of a certain feature called “marked”, while the other member is characterized by the absence of this differential feature. The gradual opposition is formed by the degree of the presentation of one and the same feature of the opposition members. The equipollent opposition is formed by a contrastive group of members which are distinguished not by the presence or absence of a certain feature, but by a contrastive pair or group in which the members are distinguished by different positive (differential) features.

The most important type of opposition in morphology is the binary privative opposition. The privative morphological opposition is based on a

morphological differential feature which is present in its strong (marked) member and is absent in its weak (unmarked) member. This featuring serves as the immediate means of expressing a grammatical meaning, e.g. we distinguish the verbal present and past tenses with the help of the privative opposition whose differential feature is the dental suffix *-(e)d*: *work / worked*: “non-past (-)” / “past (+)”.

Gradual oppositions in morphology are not generally recognized; they can be identified as a minor type at the semantic level only, e. g. the category of comparison is expressed through the gradual morphological opposition: *clean / cleaner / cleanest*.

Equipollent oppositions in English morphology constitute a minor type and are mostly confined to formal relations. In context of a broader morphological interpretation one can say that the basis of morphological equipollent oppositions is suppletivity, i. e. the expression of the grammatical meaning by means of different roots united in one and the same paradigm, e.g. the correlation of the case forms of personal pronouns (*she / her, he / him*), the tense forms of the irregular verbs (*go / went*), etc.

As morphological gradual and equipollent oppositions can be reduced to privative oppositions, a word-form can be characterized by a bundle of differential features (strong features) exposing its categorial properties.

2. Oppositional Reduction

Oppositional reduction, or oppositional substitution, is the usage of one member of an opposition in the position of the counter member. From the functional point of view there exist two types of oppositional reduction: neutralization of the categorial opposition and its transposition.

In case of neutralization one member of the opposition becomes fully identified with its counterpart. As the position of neutralization is usually filled in by the weak member of the opposition due to its more general semantics, this kind of oppositional reduction is stylistically colourless, e. g.: *Man is sinful*. It is an example of neutralization of the opposition in the category of number because in the sentence the noun *man* used in the singular (the weak member of the opposition) fulfils the function of the plural counterpart (the strong member of the opposition), for it denotes the class of referents as a whole.

Transposition takes place when one member of the opposition placed in the contextual conditions uncommon for it begins to simultaneously fulfil two functions – its own and the function of its counterpart. As a result, transposition is always accompanied by different stylistic effects, e. g.: *Jake had that same desperate look his father had, and he was always getting sore at himself and wanting other people to be happy. Jake was always asking him to smile* (W. Saroyan).

In the cited example the transponized character of the continuous form of the verb is revealed in its fulfilling two functions – one of them is primary, the

other is secondary; the primary function of the said verb form is to denote a habitual action, while its secondary function consists in denoting an action presented in the process of development. Due to the transpositional use of the aspect verbal form, the analyzed context becomes stylistically marked.

The study of the oppositional reduction has shown that it is effected by means of a very complex and subtle lingual mechanism which involves the inherent properties of lexemes, lexical and grammatical distribution of the replaced word-form and numerous situational factors, such as the aim of communication, the speaker's wish either to identify or to characterize the denoted object, to reveal some facts or to conceal them, to sound either flat or expressive, the speaker's intention to evaluate the discussed objects, the interlocutors' sharing or nonsharing of the needed information, etc. All these factors turn oppositional reduction into a very powerful means of text stylization.

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?

Exercises

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* make 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*.

The weak member is *play* which is characterized by the absence of the same distinctive feature.

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. 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 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)

Topic 2. Grammatical Classes of Words

1. Parts of speech. Principles of traditional classification of words into parts of speech: meaning, form and function.
2. Modern classification of words: Ch. Fries’s, O. Jespersen’s, Trager 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, allo-terms, word-classes, variables, invariables, open-class items, closed-class items.

1. Principles of traditional classification of words

In modern linguistic description different types of word classes are distinguished: grammatical, etymological, semantic, stylistic, etc., one can presume, though, that no classification can be adequate to its aim if it ignores the grammatical principles. It is not accidental that the theoretical study of language

in the history of science began with the attempts to identify and describe grammatical classes of words called “parts of speech”.

In Modern Linguistics parts of speech are differentiated either by a number of criteria, or by a single criterion.

The polydifferential (“traditional”) classification of words is based on the three criteria: semantic, formal and functional. The semantic criterion presupposes the evaluation of the generalized (categorical) meaning of the words of the given part of speech. The formal criterion provides for the exposition of all formal features (specific inflectional and derivational) of all the lexemic subsets of a particular part of speech. The functional criterion concerns the typical syntactic functions of a part of speech. The set of these criteria is referred to as “meaning, form, function”.

In accord with these criteria words are divided into notional and functional.

In English the notional parts of speech are usually referred to as the noun, the adjective, the numeral, the pronoun, the verb, the adverb.

Notional parts of speech are the words of complete nominative value; in the utterance they fulfil self-dependent functions of naming and denoting things, phenomena, their substantial properties and actions. Opposed to the notional parts of speech are the functional words which are words devoid of nominative value, but with grammatical value.

To the basic functional parts of speech in English are usually referred to as the article, the preposition, the conjunction, the particle, the modal word, the interjection. Functional words are limited in number.

The division of notional words into parts of speech is primarily based on their meaning. Words differ in their categorial meanings, thus, verbs, denote processes: *went, wrote, is singing*, etc. Nouns indicate substances: *boys, girls, tables, blackness*, etc. Adjectives express properties of things or substances: *large, red, green*, etc. Adverbs denote properties of verbs: *quickly, warmly*, etc. Besides that words of different classes differ morphologically and syntactically. The morphological characteristics of words are two-fold: they include the system of derivational and inflectional morphemes which are not the same for various word classes. For example, the suffixes: *-ness* (*white+ness*), *-ist* (*communist*), *-ism* (*communism*), *-dom* (*freedom*), etc. and the inflections *-s* (*boys, toys*), *-’s* (*a girl’s smile*) characterize nouns, the suffixes: *-ify* (*classify*), *-ize* (*organize*), *-an* (*widened*), etc. and the inflections: *-ed* (*walked*), *-ing* (*walking*), etc. are characteristic of verbs. Syntactic characteristics of words are also two-fold: they include syntactical functions of words in sentences and their combinability with other classes of words. Thus, nouns usually function as subjects, objects, etc. they are preceded by articles and other determining words and followed by verbs (*The birds fly*), etc.

Notional words are usually changeable, form words are usually unchangeable.

Invariable in their form they serve to specify or connect significant words, their lexical meanings are extremely abstract. A new classification of words based on a purely syntactic principle was introduced by the American scholars Ch. Fries and Z. Harris.

Z. Harris pointed out that the word classes should be identified in accord with their positional correlations in typical patterns.

Thus, the noun should be defined as a word which occurs to the left of the verb, the verb – as a word which occurs to the right of the noun, etc. The immediate material for linguistic investigation chosen by Ch. Fries was the tape-recording of 50 hours of telephone conversations. The syntactic classes of words were identified by means of testing them on three sentence patterns or test-frames: 1. *The concert was good.* 2. *The clerk remembered the tax.* 3. *The team went there.* Each of the tested words was regarded as belonging to a certain positional class. e. g. *The concert* (man, woman, weather, etc.) *was good* (bad, etc.). The syntactico-distributional classification of words is based on the study of their combinability by means of substitution tests. As a result of this testing, a standard model of four main syntactic positions of notional words was built up. These positions are those of the noun, verb, adjective, and adverb. Pronouns are included into the corresponding positional classes as their substitutes. Words incapable to occupy the said main syntactic positions are treated as functional words.

The form-classes were not given special names: Ch. Fries distinguished 4 principal classes of words (named correspondingly as class I, class II, class III, class IV words) and 16 classes of functional words (named as A, B, C, D, etc. classes). This classification that is worked out by representatives of structural grammar is not a step forward in comparison with the traditional classification because it ignores semantic and morphological properties of words which are not identical for different word-classes.

The syntactic (monodifferential) classification of words is based on syntactic featuring of words only. The syntactic classification of words, in principle supplements the three-criteria classification specifying the syntactic features of parts of speech. For the Russian language the basic principles of the syntactic classification of words were outlined in the works of A.M. Peshkovski.

2. The three-layer classification of words

The evaluation of the differential features of both cited classifications allows us to work out a classification of the lexicon presenting some essential generalizations about its structure (Blokh 2000: 44-48). The semantic-grammatical analysis of the lexicon shows that it is explicitly divided into two parts: the notional words and the functional words. The open character of the notional part and the closed character of the functional part have the status of a formal grammatical feature. Between these two parts there is an intermediary field of semi-functional words.

Of all the authors of scientific grammars of the classical type O. Jespersen is the most original. His morphological system differs from the traditional in that he lists only five parts of speech – substantives, adjectives, verbs, pronouns (the latter include pronominal adverbs and articles) and “particles”, in which he groups: adverbs, prepositions, conjunctions and interjections. Like Sweet, he proposes three principles of classification, according to which everything must be kept in mind – meaning, form and function, though in practice only one of these features is taken into consideration, and that is primarily form (cf. the “particles”) and, in a few cases, the origin of a given form.

Jespersen’s syntactic system is even more original. He intends to reject the traditional syntactic analysis, though some of the traditional terms still occur in his works (e. g. “adjunct” in his theory of ranks, the symbols S.V.O.), and he develops the concept of ranks.

III II I

In the phrase *a furiously barking dog* the three ranks are designated. The principle on which this theory is based is the so-called principle of determination. The primary is an absolutely independent word, the secondary is the word which determines or is subordinated to the primary, the tertiary determines the secondary and so on. So long as word-groups are analysed in this way, this principle seems quite sound and justified by the relations between the words arranged in a string, in accordance with the principle of successive subordination. The author applies the same principles of analysis to sentence

I II III

structures, such as *the dog barks furiously*, where the relations between the subject and the predicate differ from those between a noun and its attribute.

The author recognized this difference in his theory of junction and nexus, where he distinguished attributive and predicative relations, but ignored it in his theory of the three ranks. Moreover, the rank of primary is given to the object

I II I

(with or without a preposition) adjoining the verb: *I see a dog*, where in reality *a dog*, as a member of a verbal group, is subordinated to the leading element, the verb. Thus, according to Jespersen’s theory, in attributive and subject-predicate groups the primary is the leading element, but in a verbal group the primary is a subordinate element.

Though this method has serious theoretical drawbacks, it lends itself easily to the arrangement of material, as not only words, but also word-groups and clauses may function as primaries, secondaries and tertiaries.

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 theory of ranks?
7. What are the advantages and disadvantages of the theory of ranks?

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 filling 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 in 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)

Exercises

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.

Reading material

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REVISION

I. Give the definitions of the following notions: grammatical 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 3

Nominal Parts of Speech. 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, nonexpressed / expressed discreteness.

1. The general characteristics of the noun as a notional part of speech.

The two most important word-classes are nouns and verbs. Every complete sentence contains at least one word from each class. Thus a sentence

such as “Birds fly” is the smallest possible. It consists of a noun and a verb. Nouns constitute an open class of words as their number in living English is actually unlimited. The noun denotes thingness or substance: its most important formal characteristics are as follows: in Modern English the noun is inflected for number and case, it does not possess any special gender forms: the noun fulfils various syntactic functions (those of subject, object, attribute, predicative, etc.) nouns are usually preceded by articles and other determiners (possessive pronouns, demonstrative pronouns, etc.).

The noun as a part of speech has the categorial meaning of “substance”.

The semantic properties of the noun determine its categorial syntactic properties: the primary substantive functions of the noun are those of the subject and the object. Its other functions are predicative, attribute and adverbial modifier.

The syntactic properties of the noun are also revealed in its special types of combinability. In particular, the noun is characterized by the prepositional combinability with another noun, a verb, an adjective, an adverb; by the casual combinability which co-exists with its prepositional combinability with another noun; by the contact combinability with another noun.

As a part of speech the noun has also a set of formal features. Thus, it is characterized by specific word-building patterns having typical suffixes, compound stem models, conversion patterns.

The noun discriminates three grammatical categories: the categories of number, case, and article determination.

2. The category of number. Traditional and modern interpretations of number distinctions of the noun. Singularia Tantum and Pluralia Tantum nouns.

Modern English distinguishes two numbers: singular and plural. The opposition of singular and plural forms is regarded as a binary privative opposition in which plural forms are marked formally and semantically while singular forms are not. Number in nouns is closely associated with their division into countable and uncountable, the latter being devoid of number distinctions. Number is defined traditionally as a system of special forms by which it is denoted whether one or not-one is spoken of (cf. *table – tables, boy – boys, toy – toys*, etc.). There are open-class plurals (those formed with the inflection *-s*) and closed-class plurals (mostly remnants of old English, such as *ox – oxen, foot – feet, sheep – sheep*, etc. or borrowings retaining their native plurals. e. g. *datum – data, crisis – crises*, etc.).

A different view on the category of number, was put forward by A. Isachenko, according to which the essential meanings of the category is not that of quantity but of discreteness; the numeric treatment of number in nouns is open to discussion.

As the traditional interpretation of the singular and the plural members does not work in many cases. The categorial meaning of the plural is interpreted as well as the denotation of “the potentially dismembering reflection of the structure of the referent” (correspondingly, the categorial meaning of the singular is treated as “the non-dismembering reflection of the structure of the referent”) (Blok).

The categorial opposition of number is subjected to the process of oppositional reduction. Neutralization takes place when countable nouns begin to function as Singularia Tantum nouns, denoting in such cases either abstract ideas or some mass material, e. g. *On my birthday we always have goose*; or when countable nouns are used in the function of multitude nouns: *The board are not unanimous on the question*. A stylistically marked transposition is achieved by the use of the descriptive uncountable plural (*The fruits of the toil are not always visible*) and the “repetition plural” (*Car after car rushed past me*).

3. The category of case: different approaches to its interpretation. The polysemy of the -’s inflection.

The case meanings in English relate to one another in a peculiar, unknown in other languages, way: the common case is quite indifferent from the semantic point of view, while the genitive case functions as a subsidiary element in the morphological system of English because its semantics is also rendered by the Common Case.

Grammarians are divided in their opinions as to the case-system of English nouns. The most common view on the problem is that there are two cases in Modern English nouns: the Common case (including inflected forms) and the Genitive, or Possessive case (including inflected forms of nouns with the -’s inflection). According to this view they make a binary privative opposition. The two opposite views are: 1) there are four or even five cases in Modern English nouns (the view is held by G. Curme, M. Deutchbein, E. Sonnenschein); 2) there are no case distinctions in Present-Day English (the view was put forward by G.N. Vorontsova, R.V. Yezhkova, A.M. Mukhin).

In the discussion of the case problem four main views advanced by different scholars should be considered: the “theory of positional cases”, the “theory of prepositional cases”, the “limited case theory” and the “postpositional theory”.

According to the “*theory of positional cases*”, the English noun distinguishes the inflectional genitive case and four non-inflectional, purely positional, cases – Nominative, Vocative, Dative, Accusative. The cardinal weak point of this theory lies in the fact that it mixes up the functional (syntactic) characteristics of the sentence parts and the morphological features of the noun.

The “*theory of prepositional cases*” regards noun combinations with the prepositions in certain object and attributive collocations as morphological case forms: the Dative Case (*to* + N, *for* + N), the Genitive Case (*of* + N).

The “*limited case theory*” recognizes the existence in English of a limited case system whose members are the Genitive Case (a strong form) and the Common Case (a weak form).

The “*postpositional theory*” claims that the English noun in the course of its historical development has completely lost the morphological category of case; that is why the traditional Genitive Case is treated by its advocates as a combination of a noun with a particle¹.

The term “common case” seems to have been introduced by Sweet, for his predecessors, in their three-case paradigm use the terms “the nominative”, “the accusative” and the possessive case-forms of nouns.

This three-case system based on the analogy of the case-forms of pronouns remains extremely popular in the grammars of the 20th century, including structural grammars (see Whitehall), though in Nesfield’s grammar the five-case system superseded the three-case system.

Note the tendency of some scientific grammarians to consider the “possessive” case-form as being of an adjectival nature (e. g. Sweet).

4. The category of article determination. The status of article in the language hierarchy.

The problem of English articles has been the subject of hot discussions for many years. Today the most disputable questions concerning the system of articles in English are the following: the identification of the article status in the hierarchy of language units, the number of articles, their categorial and pragmatic functions.

There exist two basic approaches to the problem of the article status: some scholars consider the article a self-sufficient word which forms with the modified noun a syntactic syntagma; others identify the article with the morpheme-like element.

In recent works on the problem of article determination of English nouns, more often than not an opinion is expressed that in the hierarchy of language units the article occupies a peculiar place – the place intermediary between the word and the morpheme.

In the light of the oppositional theory the category of article determination of the noun is regarded as one which is based on two binary oppositions: one of them is upper, the other is lower. The opposition of the higher level operates in the whole system of articles and contrasts the definite article with the noun against the two other forms of article determination of the noun – the indefinite article and the meaningful absence of the article. The opposition of the lower

¹ According to Mukhin the ‘s-form is not a case-form but a special “possessive” form.

level operates within the sphere of realizing the categorial meaning of non-identification (the sphere of the weak member of the upper opposition) and contrasts the two types of generalization – the relative generalization and the absolute generalization. As a result, the system of articles in English is described as one consisting of three articles – the definite article, the indefinite article, and the zero article, which, correspondingly, express the categorial functions (meanings) of identification, relative generalization, and absolute generalization (Prof. Blokh).

The article paradigm is generalized for the whole system of the common nouns in English and is transpositionally outstretched into the subsystems of proper nouns.

5. The category of gender: the traditional and modern approaches to the category of gender. Gender in Russian and English.

The problem of gender in English is being vigorously disputed. Linguistic scholars as a rule deny the existence of gender in English as a grammatical category and stress its purely semantic character. The actual gender distinctions of nouns are not denied by anyone; what is disputable is the character of the gender classification: whether it is purely semantic or semantico-grammatical.

In fact, the category of gender in English is expressed with the help of the obligatory correlation of nouns with the personal pronouns of the third person. The third person pronouns being specific and obligatory classifiers of nouns, English gender distinctions display their grammatical nature (Blokh).

The category of gender is based on two hierarchically arranged oppositions: the upper opposition is general, it functions in the whole set of nouns; the lower opposition is partial, it functions in the subset of person nouns only. As a result of the double oppositional correlation, in Modern English a specific system of three genders arises: the neuter, the masculine, and the feminine genders (Prof. Blokh).

In English there are many person nouns capable of expressing both feminine and masculine genders by way of the pronominal correlation. These nouns comprise a group of the so-called “common gender” nouns, e. g.: *person*, *friend*, etc.

In the plural all the gender distinctions are neutralized but they are rendered obliquely through the correlation with the singular.

English nouns can show the sex of their referents lexically with the help of special lexical markers, e. g.: *bull-calf* / *cow-calf*, *cock-sparrow* / *hen-sparrow*, *he-bear* / *she-bear*, etc. or through suffixal derivation: *sultan* / *sultana*, *lion* / *lioness*, etc.

The category of gender can undergo the process of oppositional reduction. It can be easily neutralized (with the group of “common gender” nouns) and transponized (the process of “personification”).

The English gender differs much from the Russian gender: the English gender has a semantic character, while the gender in Russian is partially semantic (Russian animate nouns have semantic gender distinctions), and partially formal.

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”, “positional” and “postpositional” case theories?
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?

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).

Exercises

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 .

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. Mr. Hubber was coming at seven to take their photograph for the Christmas card.
4. Michael saw Mrs. Dandy, not quite over her illness, rise to go and become caught in polite group after group.
5. Mayor’s color and pulse was fine. I gave him another treatment and he said the last of the pain left him.
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 distinctions of nouns in each entry below.

1. The tom-cat was sleeping on the window-sill.

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.

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SEMINAR 4

Nominal Parts of Speech. Adjective. Stative. Pronoun. Numeral

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 adjectival 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, relative most-construction.

1. Adjective and Stative

Adjective as a Part of Speech

The adjective expresses the categorial semantics of property of a substance. It means that each adjective used in the text presupposes relation to

some noun the property of whose referent it denotes, such as its material, colour, dimensions, position, state, and other characteristics both permanent and temporary.

They represent an open class of words which is characteristic of notional parts of speech. According to the semantic characteristics adjectives fall into two groups: qualitative adjectives and relative adjectives. Qualitative adjectives denote qualities of size, colour, shape etc. Relative adjectives express qualities of an object through its relation to another object – *wooden, daily, European*, etc. Adjectives are distinguished by a specific combinability with nouns, which they modify, usually in pre-position, and occasionally in post-position and by a combinability with link-verbs.

Adjectives are characterised by a number of suffixes and prefixes, although many of them are monosyllabic words.

To the derivational features of adjectives belong a number of suffixes of which the most important are: *-ful (hopeful), -less (flawless), -ish (bluish), -ous (famous), -ive (decorative), -ic (basic)*.

Category of Adjectival Comparison

The category of adjectival comparison expresses the quantitative characteristic of the quality of the noun. The category is constituted by the opposition of the three forms known under the heading of degrees of comparison; the basic form (positive degree), having no features of comparison; the comparative degree form, having the feature of restricted superiority (which limits the comparison to two elements only); the superlative degree form, having the feature of unrestricted superiority.

Qualitative adjectives have degrees of comparison. Relative adjectives lack degrees of comparison. Thus the ability of an adjective to form degrees of comparison is usually taken as a formal sign of its qualitative character in opposition to a relative adjective which is understood as incapable of forming degrees of comparison by definition. However, in actual speech the described principle of distinction is not at all strictly observed.

On the one hand, adjectives can denote such qualities of substances which are incompatible with the idea of degrees of comparison. Here refer adjectives like *extinct, immobile, deaf, final, fixed*, etc.

On the other hand, many adjectives considered under the heading of relative still can form degrees of comparison, thereby, as it were, transforming the denoted relative property of a substance into such as can be graded quantitatively, e. g.: *of a military design – of a less military design – of a more military design*.

In order to overcome the demonstrated lack of rigour in the differentiation of qualitative and relative adjectives, Blokh introduces an additional linguistic

distinction. The suggested distinction is based on the evaluative function of adjectives. According as they actually give some qualitative evaluation to the substance referent or only point out its corresponding native property, all the adjective functions may be grammatically divided into “evaluative” and “specificative”. In particular, one and the same adjective, irrespective of its being basically “relative” or “qualitative”, can be used either in the evaluative function or in the specificative function.

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

Both formally and semantically, the oppositional basis of the category of comparison displays a binary nature. In terms of the three degrees of comparison, at the upper level of presentation the superlative degree as the marked member of the opposition is contrasted against the positive degree as its unmarked member. The superlative degree, in its turn, forms the opposition of the lower level of presentation, where the comparative degree features the functionally weak member, and the superlative degree, respectively, the strong member. The whole of the double oppositional unity, considered from the semantic angle, constitutes a gradual ternary opposition (Blokh’s approach).

Several problems arise in connection with analytical forms of degrees of comparison: 1) they are sometimes regarded as free combinations of words (as *more* and *most* retain their primary lexical meaning to the full), 2) *less* and *least* in analogy with *more* and *most* are sometimes regarded as forming degrees of comparison (Vorontsova).

Modern English adjectives may be partially (e. g. *the rich*, *the poor*) or wholly (e. g. *native*, *two natives*, etc.) substantivized. On the other hand, there are numerous cases of adjectivization of nouns (e. g. *silver watch* / *hair*, *iron bar*, etc.).

Statives as a separate part of speech were first identified in Russian (e. g. *жаль*, *пора*, *душно*, *стыдно*) by L.V. Scherba and V.V. Vinogradov.

B.A. Ilyish was the first among Russian grammarians who distinguished statives in English. Statives include words built up mostly by the prefix *-a* and denoting different states (e. g. *alone*, *agape*, *afloat*, *afraid*, *aloof*, etc.). These words function as predicatives usually and are regarded traditionally as predicative adjectives. The position of statives in the parts of speech system is open to discussion: 1) statives constitute a separate part of speech as they have semantic morphological and syntactic peculiarities of their own, 2) statives represent a special subclass of adjectives as they retain a number of adjectival features.

The number of statives in modern English is constantly increasing.

Elative Most-Construction

The *most*-combination with the indefinite article deserves special consideration. This combination is a common means of expressing elative evaluations of substance properties, i.e. *a higher degree*.

The definite article with the elative *most*-construction is also possible, if leaving the elative function less distinctly recognizable. Cf.: *They gave a most spectacular show – I found myself in the most awkward situation*. The expressive nature of the elative as such provides it with a permanent grammatico-stylistic status in the language. The expressive peculiarity of the form consists in the immediate combination of the two features which outwardly contradict each other: the categorial form of the superlative, on the one hand, and the absence of a comparison, on the other.

Less / Least-Construction

After examining the combinations of *less / least* with the basic form of the adjective we must say that they are similar to the *more / most*-combinations, and constitute specific forms of comparison, which may be called forms of “reverse comparison” (Blokh, Vorontsova). The two types of forms cannot be syntagmatically combined in one and the same form of the word, which shows the unity of the category of comparison. Thus, the whole category includes not three, but five different forms, making up the two series – respectively, direct and reverse. Of these, the reverse series of comparison (the reverse superiority degrees, or “inferiority degrees”) is of far lesser importance than the direct one.

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?

Topic 2. Pronoun. Numeral

1. The pronouns, their general characteristics.
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.

1. The pronouns, their general characteristics.

Pronouns refer to closed-system items. They do not denote things and properties of things but only point to them. Their meaning is known as relative and extremely abstract. Pronouns are traditionally recognized on the basis of

[I] [qI]
 indicatory (deictic) functions, i. e. they do not name either things or properties, they only point them out. Pronouns fall into several classes (personal, demonstrative, relative, interrogative, reflexive, indefinite etc.) which differ semantically and morphologically. Some of them function as pro-words (e. g. personal, some indefinite pronouns), others as determiners (e. g. possessive pronouns in a conjoint form) in organisation of phrases and sentences).

Pronouns is a heterogeneous part of speech. They are not united by any morphological or syntactical categories. So they are not recognised as a separate part of speech. Some of them refer to adjectives (demonstrative, possessive pronouns), some to adverbs. Personal and reflexive pronouns are related and form one group (G. Leech and Jan Svartvick).

Professor Blokh does not recognise possessive pronouns as a separate group of pronouns and treat them as possessive forms of personal pronouns.

Despite the variety of pronouns, there are several features in common which distinguish them from nouns (Prof. Blokh):

1. They do not admit determiners.
2. They often have an objective case.
3. They often have person distinctions.
4. They often have overt gender contrast (personal pronouns).
5. Singular and plural forms are often not morphologically related (*I – we*); thus there is an interrelation between number and person.

Like nouns most pronouns in English have only two cases: common (somebody) and genitive (smb's). There's homonymy of the objective case of personal pronouns (*she – her*) and the possessive pronoun *her* (possessive pronouns can be traced to the Genitive case of personal pronouns).

There's partial overlap between the nominative and the objective cases of the interrogative and relative pronouns.

There's no inflected or -'s genitive with the demonstratives or with the indefinite pronouns except those in *-one, -body*.

Personal, possessive and reflexive pronouns have distinctions of person.

- 1st person refers to the speaker and one or more others (*we*) and the speakers are not obligatory of the 1st person.
- The 2nd person refers to the person(s) addressed (*you*).

- The 3rd person refers to one or more other persons or things (*he, she, it, they*).

In the 3rd person singular the personal, reflexive and possessive pronouns distinguish gender.

The 2nd person uses a common form for singular and plural in personal and possessive pronouns but has a separate plural in the reflexive pronoun (*yourself, yourselves*).

3. The numeral, its subclasses.

The numeral includes noun and adjective functioning words that denote the number of things or their order in counting. The numerals fall into two subclasses: cardinal numerals (one, two, three, etc.) and ordinal numerals (first, second, third, etc.) which differ semantically, morphologically (both are unchangeable words marked by different derivational suffixes) and syntactically. They are closely connected with other nominal parts of speech and are not always regarded as a separate word class (thus H. Sweet distinguished noun-numerals and adjective-numerals. A.I. Smirnitsky who recognized numerals as a separate part of speech considered ordinal numerals as a subclass of adjectives).

Exercises

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 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 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)

III. Comment on the linguistic status of the combinations

less / least + Adj

2. She was the least experienced of all. (A. Bennett)
3. "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)

Texts for analysis

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. The Good listener)

B. He nodded to Skelton and without further ceremony left him. Skelton was sent 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. Flotsam and Jetsam)

Exercises

1. Find statives in the texts given above, define their semantic, morphological and syntactic peculiarities.
2. Compare the properties of statives with those of adjectives.

3. Formulate your own opinion on whether stative verbs should be regarded as a separate part of speech or a special subclass of adjectives.

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. It 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. You take a really smart girl and half the time she's trying to lead you around the 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 outflank and wanted to keep as far away from the scene of activity as possible.

(R. Gordon. *Doctor in the House*)

Exercises

1. Define the semantic, morphological and syntactical properties of a) adjectives, b) pronouns and c) numerals.
2. Comment on the morphological status of the first component in phrases *dance floor*, *theatre door*, *church organ*.
3. Compare morphological and syntactic properties of different classes of pronouns.
4. Find some examples of pro-words in the text, comment on their functional role.
5. Illustrate the deictic function of pronouns.

6. Comment on the meaning of *some* in *The blonde was some dancer*, compare it with *some* used in *...some of these very stupid girls*.
7. 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.

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SEMINAR 5

The General Outline of the Verb as a Part of Speech

Topic 1. 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.

1. The Verb. The categorial features of the Verb. Finite verb forms.

Verbs are usually defined as action words (although not all of them denote actions). Verbs have a number of morphological and syntactical peculiarities. Thus, they are characterised by specific derivational (e. g. *-en*, *-ize*, *-by*, etc.) and functional morphemes (*-s*, *-ed*, *-t*, *-ing*, etc.). Verbs are inflected for person, number, tense, voice, aspect and other grammatical categories. The verb in its finite forms functions as a predicate, or a part of it (e. g. *We are studying*

English. We are students.) The class of verbs falls into a number of subclasses distinguished by different semantic and lexico-grammatical features. These subclasses are as follows: notional (significant, open system) and functional (auxiliary, closed system) verbs, actional and statal, transitive and intransitive, objective and subjective; monovalent and polyvalent verbs, etc.

2. Traditional and non-traditional classifications of verbs (M. Blokh's, D. Biber's). Criteria of the non-traditional classification of verbs (M. Blokh's).

Grammatically the verb is the most complex part of speech. This is due to the central role it performs in the expression of the predicative functions of the sentence, i. e. the functions of establishing the connection between the situation (situational event) named in the utterance and reality. The complexity of the verb is inherent not only in the intricate structure of its grammatical categories, but also in its various subclass divisions, as well as in its falling into two sets of forms profoundly different from each other: the finite set and the non-finite set (verbals, or verbids).

The categorial semantics of the verb is a process presented dynamically. This general processual meaning is embedded in the semantics of all the verbs. It is proved by the verb valency and the syntactic function of the predicate.

The processual categorial meaning of the notional verb determines its characteristic combination with a noun expressing both the doer of the action (its subject) and, in cases of the objective verb, the recipient of the action (its object); it also determines its combination with an adverb as the modifier of the action.

In the sentence the finite verb invariably performs the functions of the verb-predicate expressing the processual categorial features of predication, i. e. time, aspect, voice, and mood.

From the point of view of their outward structure, verbs are characterized by specific forms of word-building, as well as by the formal features expressing the corresponding grammatical categories.

The grammatical categories which find formal expression in the outward structure of the verb are, first, the category of finitude dividing the verb into finite and non-finite forms (this category has a lexico-grammatical force); second, the categories of person, number, tense, aspect, voice, and mood.

The class of verbs falls into a number of subclasses distinguished by different semantic and lexico-grammatical features. On the upper level of this division two unequal sets are identified: the set of verbs of full nominative value (notional verbs) which are opposed to the set of verbs of partial nominative value (semi-notional and functional verbs (Blokh)). The set of notional verbs is derivationally open. The second set is derivationally closed, it includes limited

subsets of verbs characterized by individual relational properties. On the lower level of division each set can be subdivided into numerous subsets according to their relevant features.

Notional verbs are classified on the basis of three main principles: the relation of the subject of the verb to the process denoted by the verb, the aspective verbal semantics, the verbal combinability with other language units.

According to the first criterion, all notional verbs are divided into two sets: actional and statal (Blok). This division is grammatically relevant since it explains the difference between the actional and statal verbs in their attitude towards the denotation of the action in progress. Actional verbs express the action performed by the subject, i.e. they present the subject as an active doer. Statal verbs, unlike their subclass counterparts, denote the state of their subject, i.e. they either give the subject the characteristic of the inactive recipient of some outward activity, or else express the mode of its existence.

Aspective verbal semantics (the second criterion) exposes the inner character of the process denoted by the verb. It represents the process as durative (continual), iterative (repeated), terminate (concluded), interminate (not concluded), instantaneous (momentary), ingressive (starting), overcompleted (developed to the extent of superiority), undercompleted (not developed to its full extent), and the like. According to the aspective verbal semantics, two major subclasses of notional verbs are singled out (limitive and unlimitive (Blok)). The verbs of the first order present a process as potentially limited. The verbs of the second order present a process as not limited by any border point. The demarcation line between the two aspective verbal subclasses is not rigidly fixed, the actual differentiation between them being in fact rather loose. Still, the opposition between limitive and unlimitive verbal sets does exist in English. This division of verbs has an unquestionable grammatical relevance, which is expressed, among other things, in peculiar correlation of these subclasses with the categorial aspective forms of the verbs (indefinite, continuous, perfect). It also reveals the difference in the expression of aspective distinctions in English and in Russian. The English lexical aspect differs, radically from the Russian aspect. In terms of semantic properties, the English lexical aspect expresses a potentially limited or unlimited process, whereas the Russian aspect expresses the actual conclusion (the perfective, or terminative aspect) or non-conclusion (the imperfective, or non-terminative aspect) of the process in question. In terms of systemic properties, the two English lexical aspect varieties, unlike their Russian absolutely rigid counterparts, are but loosely distinguished and easily reducible. In accord with these characteristics, both the English limitive verbs and unlimitive verbs may correspond alternately either to the Russian perfective verbs or imperfective verbs, depending on the contextual uses.

3. Verb valency (complementive / supplementive; transitive / intransitive verbs).

The syntactic valency of the verb falls into two cardinal types: obligatory and optional. The obligatory valency is such as must necessarily be realized for the sake of the grammatical completion of the syntactic construction. The subjective and the direct objective valencies of the verb are obligatory. The optional valency is such as is not necessarily realized in grammatically complete constructions: this type of valency may or may not be realized depending on the concrete information conveyed by the utterance. Most of the adverbial modifiers are optional parts of the sentence, so in terms of valency the adverbial valency of the verb is mostly optional.

Thus, according to the third criterion – the valency of the verb – all notional verbs are classified into two sets: complementive (taking obligatory adjuncts) and supplementive (taking optional adjuncts). Complementive and supplementive verbs fall into minor groups: complementive verbs are subdivided into predicative, objective, and adverbial verbs; supplementive verbs are subdivided into personal and impersonal verbs (Blokh).

In connection with complementive and supplementive characteristics of verbs there arises the question of clarifying the difference between the two notions – “objectivity” and “transitivity”. Verbal objectivity is the ability of the verb to take any object, irrespective of its type. Verbal transitivity is the ability of the verb to take a direct object. The division of the verb into objective and non-objective is more relevant for English than for Russian morphology because in English not only transitive but also intransitive objective verbs can be used in passive forms.

Questions

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

Exercise

I. 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 the verbs

1. The categories of person and number.
2. The category of tense: traditional and modern conceptions of English tenses.
3. The category of phase.
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, the category of phase; middle, reflexive voices; immanent/reflexive categories, the category of prospective time, the category of retrospective coordination.

1. The categories of person and number.

The finite forms of the verb make up a very complex and intricate system; its intricacy is caused by the fact that they are directly connected with the structure of the sentences, the finite verb functioning as its predication centre. The morphological study of the English finite verb includes the study of its categories, those of person, number, tense, aspect, voice, and mood.

Person and number are treated by scholars as closely related categories. In their treatment two approaches are contrasted: traditional and modern.

In accord with the traditional approach to these two categories, scholars point out to the existence in English of three persons and two numbers.

In modern linguistic works on the problem it is also stressed that the categories of person and number are closely interwoven in English and should be considered together. At the same time it is particularly emphasized that these categories are specific because they don't convey the inherently "verbal" semantics. It means that the categories of person and number have a "reflective" character: the personal and numerical semantics in the finite verb is the reflection in the verb lexeme of the personal and numerical semantics of the subject referent.

The semantic and formal analysis of the person-number forms of the verb shows that in the strictly categorial sense one should speak of personal pronouns set consisting of six different forms of blended person-number nature – three in the singular and three in the plural.

The intermixed character of the numerical and personal forms of the finite forms of the verb finds its expression both at the formal and functional levels of analysis in different subsystems of verbs. The peculiarity of expressing person-number distinctions in the English verb lies in the deficiency of the finite regular verb for there exists the only positive person-number marker of the finite regular verb – the morpheme of the third person singular. This deficient system cannot

and does not exist in the language by itself: in fact, the verbal person-number system only backs up the person-number system of the subject. Due to it the combination and strict correlation of the English finite verb with the subject is obligatory not only syntactically but also categorially.

The category of person should be defined as an equipollent (tertiary) opposition as its members are logically equal.

2. The category of tense: traditional and modern conceptions of English tenses.

Tense (present, past, future) is a feature of verbs associated with time. Verbal forms denoting time relations are called tenses. The two concepts ‘time’ and ‘tense’ should be kept clearly apart. Time is a category of objective reality (the word exists in space and time). It can be represented graphically as a line whose realization is in the grammatical category of tense which usually divided into present, past and future. This view is, however, open to discussion as historically only two tense forms were known in English: present and past. The verbs *shall* and *will* are not always regarded as future tense markers in Modern English.

The category of tense is considered to be an immanent grammatical category which means that the finite verb form always expresses time distinctions.

The category of tense finds different interpretations with different scholars. Thus, in traditional linguistics grammatical time is often represented as a three-form category consisting of the “linear” past, present, and future forms. The future-in-the-past does not find its place in the scheme based on the linear principle, hence, this system is considered to be deficient, not covering all lingual data.

At the same time linguists build up new systems of tenses in order to find a suitable place in them for future-in-the past. Nevertheless, many of such schemes are open to criticism for their inconsistency which finds its expression in the fact that some of them deny the independent status of future tenses while others exclude from the analysis future-in-the-past forms.

The said inconsistency can be overcome if we accept the idea that in English there exist two tense categories (Blokh).

The first category – the category of primary time – expresses a direct retrospective evaluation of the time of the process denoted, due to which the process receives an absolut time characteristic. This category is based upon the opposition of “the past tense” and “the present tense”, the past tense being its strong member.

The second tense category is the category of “prospective time”, it is based upon the opposition of “after-action” and “non-after-action”, the marked member being the future tense. The category of prospect is relative by nature which means that it characterizes the action from the point of view of its correlation with some other action. As the future verbal form may be relative either to the present time, or to the past time included in non-future, the English

verb acquires two different future forms: the future of the present and the future of the past. It means that the future of the past is doubly strong expressing the strong members of the category of primary time and the category of prospect.

The category of primary time is subjected to neutralization and transposition, transposition being more typical. The vivid cases of transposition are the “historical present” and the “Preterite of Modesty”.

In theoretical grammar the interpretation of perfect (non-perfect verb-forms also refers to disputable questions. Some linguists interpret the opposition of perfect) non-perfect forms as aspective (O. Jespersen, I.P. Ivanova, G.N. Vorontsova), others – as the opposition of tense forms (H. Sweet, G.O. Curme, A. Korsakov). A.I. Smirnitsky was the first to prove that perfect and non-perfect make up a special, self-sufficient, category which he called the “category of time correlation”; this viewpoint is shared now by a vast majority of linguists.

It is a binary privative opposition where perfect forms are marked formally (to have + Participle II) and semantically (the meaning of priority or precedence) while non-perfect forms remain unmarked. Foreign scholars (B.Strang, Trager) consider perfect / non perfects form as the category of phase.

3. The category of aspect (traditional and modern conceptions).

Aspect is generally defined as a grammatical category expressing the manner in which the action is performed. It represents a binary privative opposition in which continuous aspect forms are marked in form (to be + Part. I) and meaning (limitation in time) whereas common aspect forms remain unmarked both formally (as they are heterogeneous in their forms) and semantically (no time limitation). There are different views on aspect among grammarians some of whom suggest other opinions on the problem (cf. the views of I.P. Ivanova, G.N. Vorontsova, O. Jespersen, etc.). Aspect as a special grammatical category is inseparably connected with the division of verbs into terminative and non-terminative (durative) based on their aspective meaning (cf. *He came to the station when the train left. He was coming to the station when the train left*).

Grammatical aspective meanings form a variable grammatical category which is traditionally associated with the opposition of continuous and non-continuous forms of the verb. Yet, one can find a great divergence of opinions on the problem of the English aspect. The main difference lies in the interpretation of the categorial semantics of the oppositional members – continuous and indefinite forms: the categorial meaning of the continuous form is usually defined as the meaning of duration, while the interpretation of the categorial semantics of the indefinite form causes controversy (the indefinite form may be interpreted as

having no aspective meaning (I.P. Ivanova), as a form having a vague content (G.N. Vorontsova), as a form stressing the fact of the performance of the action (A.I. Smirnitsky). In Modern Linguistics A.I. Smirnitsky's interpretation of the categorial semantics of the indefinite form is widely accepted.

Developing A.I. Smirnitsky's views on the categorial semantics of perfect (non-perfect forms, we can come to the conclusion that in English there exist two aspective categories: the category of development (based on the opposition of continuous and non-continuous forms) and the category of retrospective coordination (based on the opposition of perfect and non-perfect forms).

The perfect form has a mixed categorial meaning: it expresses both retrospective time coordination of the process and the connection of the prior action with a time-limit reflected in a subsequent event. The recognition of the two aspect categories also enables one to give a sound interpretation to the perfect continuous forms: they must be treated as forms having marks in both the aspect categories.

As for the opposition of perfect and non-perfect forms, it can undergo only the process of neutralization, transposition being alien to it.

4. The category of voice.

Voice indicates the relation between the subject and the action. Voice in modern English is represented by the opposition of two different sets of forms: Active (*does, did, etc.*) and Passive (*is done, was done, etc.*). The Passive voice is the marked member of the opposition. It is marked in form (to be Participle II) and in meaning (the subject of passive constructions is always acted upon). The Active voice remains the unmarked member of the opposition as it is not marked either in form (Active voice forms are heterogeneous) or in meaning (the subject of Active voice constructions may denote the thing that acts and conveys a number of other meanings as well which is evident from the following examples: The doctor ordered me to stay in bed; The book sells well; He suffered pain. He washed and sat down to breakfast, etc.).

Voice distinctions are characteristic of both, finite and non-finite forms of verbs.

The number of voice-forms in Modern English is a matter of controversy. At various times, the following three voices have been suggested in addition to the two voices mentioned: 1) the reflexive (e. g. *He dressed himself*) 2) the reciprocal (e. g. *They greeted each other*), 3) the middle voice (e. g. *The door opened* vs *He opened the door*). There is at least one binding argument in favour of a two voice system. The voice should be necessarily expressed by verb forms and not by words referring to nominal parts of speech (pronouns, for instance).

Active and Passive voice forms differ not only in form and meaning but in the frequency of their usage as well: Active voice constructions constitute approximately 94 % of the total number of verb forms, and Passive voice forms amount to 6 %.

Historically Passive Voice constructions may be traced back to free phrases, namely, to compound nominal predicates expressing a state, and sometimes modern English passive constructions are homonymous with compound nominal predicates (e. g. The door was shut at six when I went by but I don't know when it was shut).

The category of voice occupies a peculiar place in the system of verbal categories because it reflects the direction of the process as regards the participants in the situation denoted by a syntactic construction. The passive form, being marked, expresses the reception of the action by the subject of the syntactic construction; its weak counter member – the active form – has the meaning of “non-passivity”.

In comparison with Russian, the category of voice in English has a much broader representation as not only transitive but also intransitive objective verbs can be used in the passive voice.

Another peculiarity of voice distinctions of English verbs consists in the fact that active forms often convey passive meanings.

5. Language means of expressing modality. The category of mood.

Mood is a special verbal category which indicates the relation of the action to reality as stated by the speaker (V.V. Vinogradov). The category of mood is the most controversial verbal category. Different scholars find from 2 to 16 mood forms in Present-Day English. The opposition within the category of mood is presented by verb forms indicating actions as real (Indicative mood) and those which indicate actions as unreal (Oblique moods). The most popular classification of the Subjunctive mood forms was given by A.I. Smirnitsky who distinguished the following four forms: Subjunctive I (e. g. *I suggest that he be present*), Subjunctive II (*If he were ill ...*), Conditional (e. g. *If were you, I would do it*) and Suppositional (*I suggest you should consult him*).

Besides this classification there are many other approaches towards the same problem. Thus the opinion of Frank Palmer is that there are no special forms of the Oblique moods in Modern English where unreal actions are expressed by the Indicative mood forms which may be used in their primary meanings when indicating actions as really happening and in secondary (or transferred) meanings indicating actions as imaginary, speculative, desirable. “English has no special conditional forms, but uses tense to distinguish real and unreal conditions” (F. Palmer, p. 195). Thus, in the sentence *If John came, I should leave* verbs are used in past tense forms.

A great divergence of opinions on the question of the category of mood is caused by the fact that identical mood forms can express different meanings and different forms can express similar meanings (Barkhudarov, Ilyish).

The category of mood shows the relation of the nominative content of the sentence towards reality. By this category the action can be presented as real, non-real, desirable, recommended, etc.

The study of the English mood reveals a certain correlation of its formal and semantic features. The subjunctive, the integral mood of unreality, presents the two sets of forms according to the structural division of verbal tenses into the present and the past. These form-sets constitute the two corresponding functional subsystems of the subjunctive, namely, the spective, the mood of attitudes, and the conditional, the mood of appraising causal-conditional relations of processes. Each of these, in its turn, falls into two systemic subsets, so that at the immediately working level of presentation we have the four subjunctive form-types identified on the basis of the strict correlation between their structure and their function: the pure spective, the modal spective, the stipulative conditional, the consecutive conditional (Blok):

**Pure Spective
(Subjunctive 1)**

consideration
desideration
inducement

**Stipulative Conditional
(Subjunctive 2)**

unreal condition

**Modal Spective
(Subjunctive 4)**

consideration
desideration
inducement

**Consecutive Conditional
(Subjunctive 3)**

unreal consequence

The elaborated scheme clearly shows that the so-called “imperative mood” has historically coincided with Subjunctive I.

The described system is not finished in terms of the historical development of language; on the contrary, it is in the state of making and change. Its actual manifestations are complicated by neutralizations of formal and semantic contrasts, by fluctuating uses of the auxiliaries, of the finite “be” in the singular.

Today scholars discuss different classifications of moods in English revealing new correlations of meaning and form in the process of expressing mood distinctions but so far a universally accepted system of moods has not been worked out.

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)

Exercises:

I. Compare traditional and nontraditional approaches to morphological verbal categories.

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, 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)

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SEMINAR 6

Verbals (Non-finite Verbs)

1. A general outline of verbals. The category of finitude.
 - 1.1 The infinitive and its properties.
 - 1.2 The gerund and its properties. The notion of the half-gerund.
 - 1.3 The present and past participles, their properties.

Key words

Finitude [ˈfʌɪnɪtɪd], *the split infinitive, the retroactive infinitive, a lexicogrammatical category of processual representation, the category of modal representation.*

1. A general outline of verbals. The category of finitude.

There are finite and non-finite forms of verbs, their opposition is regarded by a number of grammarians as a special verbal category known as finitude nowadays. Finite and non-finite forms differ semantically and morphologically.

Non-finite forms (verbals or verbids) are three in number: they include the infinitive, the participle (I and II) and the gerund.

Non-finite forms of the verb are the forms of the verb which have features intermediary between the verb and the non-processual parts of speech. Their mixed features are revealed in their semantics, morphemic structural marking, combinability and syntactic functions. Verbals do not denote pure processes but present them as peculiar kinds of substances and properties; they do not express

the most specific finite verb categories – the categories of tense and mood; they have a mixed, verbal and non-verbal, valency; they perform mixed, verbal and non-verbal syntactic functions.

The strict division of functions clearly shows that the opposition between the finite and non-finite forms of the verb creates a special grammatical category. The differential feature of the opposition is constituted by the expression of verbal time and mood: while the time-mood grammatical signification characterizes the finite verb in a way that it underlies its finite predicative function, the verbal has no immediate means of expressing time-mood categorial semantics and therefore presents the weak member of the opposition. The category expressed by this opposition is called the category of “finitude”. The syntactic content of the category of finitude is the expression of verbal predication.

The peculiar feature of the verbals verbality consists in expressing “secondary” (“potential”) predication. They are not self-dependent in a predicative sense. The verbals exist only as part of sentences built up by genuine, primary predicative constructions that have a finite verb as their core. And it is through the reference to the finite verb-predicate that these complexes set up the situation denoted by them in the corresponding time and mood perspectives.

The infinitive is a basic form of the verb. It possesses some verbal and nominal features which are characteristic of different non-finite forms. The verbal features of the infinitive manifest themselves in its morphological properties: the infinitive has voice (*to do* vs *to be done*), aspect (*to do* vs *to be doing*) and the category of time correlation (*to do* vs *to have done*). Besides that the infinitival right-hand valency coincides with that of the corresponding finite forms of verbs (cf. *He asked her a question* vs *to ask her a question*). The nominal features of the Infinitive manifest themselves in its syntactical functions which are those of the subject, object, attribute, predicative, etc. Opinions differ as to the syntactical functions of the Infinitive in sentences of the type: *It is too cold to go out* (part of the complex subject or object); *I saw him come* (part of a complex object or objective predicative); *I want to read* (an object or part of a compound verbal predicate).

The infinitive combines the properties of the verb with those of the noun, as a result it serves as the verbal name of a process. By virtue of its general process-naming function, the infinitive should be considered as the head-form of the whole paradigm of the verb.

The gerund is marked by verbal and nominal features as well: it has voice (*his asking* vs *his being asked*) and the category of time correlation (*asking* vs *having asked*) forms, its syntactical functions coincide with those of nouns.

The gerund, like the infinitive, combines the properties of the verb with those of the noun and gives the process the verbal name. In comparison with the infinitive the gerund reveals stronger substantive properties. Namely, as

different from the infinitive and similar to the noun, the gerund can be modified by a noun in the possessive case or its pronominal equivalents (expressing the subject of the verbal process), and it can be used with prepositions.

The combinability of the gerund is dual: it has a mixed, verb-type and noun-type, valency. Like the infinitive, the gerund performs the syntactic functions of the subject, the object, the predicative, the attribute, and the adverbial modifier. The gerund has two grammatical categories: the aspective category of retrospective coordination and the category of voice. Consequently, the categorial paradigm of the gerund of the objective verb includes four forms: the Simple Active, the Perfect Active, the Simple Passive, the Perfect Passive. The gerundial paradigm of the non-objective verb, correspondingly, includes two forms (Blokh's opinion).

There are two forms of participle. **The present participle** serves as a qualifying-processual name. It combines the properties of the verb with those of the adjective and adverb.

The present participle has two categories: the category of retrospective coordination (Blokh) and the category of voice.

The present participle, similar to the infinitive and the gerund, can build up semi-predicative complexes.

The **past participle** combines the properties of the verb with those of the adjective. The categorial meaning of the past participle is qualifying: it gives some sort of qualification to the denoted process. The past participle has no paradigmatic forms; by way of paradigmatic correlation with the present participle, it conveys implicitly the categorial meanings of the perfect and the passive. Its valency is not specific; its typical syntactic functions are those of the attribute and the predicative.

Like the present participle, the past participle is capable of making up semi-predicative constructions.

The correlation of the infinitive, the gerund, and the verbal noun makes up a special lexico-grammatical category of processual representation where the infinitive represents dynamic stage, the gerund-semidynamic and the verbal noun-static.

Another category specifically identified within the framework of verbals and relevant for syntactic analysis is the category of modal representation. This category, pointed out by L.S. Barkhudarov, marks the infinitive in contrast to the gerund, and it is revealed in the infinitive having a modal force, in particular, in its attributive uses.

The half-gerund is an intermediary form with double features whose linguistic semi-status is reflected in the term itself. In fact, the verbal under examination is rather to be interpreted as a transferred participle, or a gerundial participle, since semantic accent in half-gerundial construction is made on the situational content of the fact or event described, with the processual substance as its core (e. g.: *I didn't mind the children / their playing in the study*).

Questions

1. What are the mixed lexico-grammatical features of the verbals revealed 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?

Texts for Analysis

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 advantageous move, because he used, many years ago, to be employed at Dr. Vannedy's." (A. Christie)

Exercises

I.

1. Find all the infinitives, comment on their semantic, morphological and syntactic features;
2. Characterise semantic, morphological and syntactic features of gerunds;
3. Comment on different forms of participles;
4. Discuss controversial points arising in connection with verbals.

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)

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SEMINAR 7

Adverb. Form Words

Topic 1. Adverb. Form Parts of Speech

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.

1. Adverb as a part of speech

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

To overcome this drawback, we should define the adverb as a notional word expressing a non-substantive property, that is, a property of a non-substantive referent. This formula immediately shows the actual correlation between the adverb and the adjective, since the adjective is a word expressing a substantive property.

In accord with their categorial semantics adverbs are characterized by combinability with verbs, adjectives and words of adverbial nature. The functions of adverbs in these combinations consist in expressing different adverbial modifiers. Adverbs can also refer to whole situations; in this function they are considered under the heading of “situation-determinants” (Blok).

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

The typical adverbial affixes in affixal derivation are, first and foremost, the basic and only productive adverbial suffix *-ly* (*slowly*), and then a couple of others of limited distribution, such as *-ways* (*sideways*), *-wise* (*clockwise*), *-ward(s)* (*homewards*). The characteristic adverbial prefix is *a-* (*away*). Among the adverbs there are also peculiar composite formations and phrasal formations of prepositional, conjunctive and other types: *sometimes*, *at least*, *to and fro*, etc.

Adverbs are commonly divided into qualitative, quantitative and circumstantial. Qualitative adverbs express immediate, inherently non-graded qualities of actions and other qualities. The typical adverbs of this kind are qualitative adverbs in *-ly*. E. g.: *bitterly*, *plainly*. The adverbs interpreted as “quantitative” include words of degree. These are specific lexical units of semi-functional nature expressing quality, measure, or gradational evaluation of qualities, e. g.: of high degree: *very*, *quite*; of excessive degree: *too*, *awfully*; of unexpected degree: *surprisingly*; of moderate degree: *relatively*; of low degree: *a little*; of approximate degree: *almost*; of optimal degree: *adequately*; of inadequate degree: *unbearably*; of under-degree: *hardly*. Circumstantial adverbs are divided into functional and notional.

The functional circumstantial adverbs are words of pronominal nature. Besides quantitative (numerical) adverbs they include adverbs of time, place, manner, cause, consequence. Many of these words are used as syntactic connectives and question-forming functionals. Here belong such words as *now*, *here*, *when*, *where*, *so*, *thus*, *how*, *why*, etc. As for circumstantial notional adverbs, they include adverbs of time (*today*, *never*, *shortly*) and adverbs of place (*homeward(s)*, *near*, *ashore*). The two varieties express a general idea of

temporal and spatial orientation and essentially perform deictic (indicative) functions in the broader sense. On this ground they may be united under the general heading of “orientative” adverbs.

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

As is the case with adjectives, this lexemic subcategorization of adverbs should be accompanied by a more functional and flexible division into evaluative and specificative, connected with the categorial expression of comparison. Each adverb subject to evaluational grading by degree words expresses the category of comparison, much in the same way as adjectives do. Thus, not only qualitative, but also orientative adverbs, proving they come under the heading of evaluative, are included into the categorial system of comparison, e. g.: *ashore - more ashore - most ashore - less ashore - least ashore* (Blok).

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?

Exercises

I. 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 illumination 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)

II. Account for the peculiarity of the underlined word-forms:

1. I am the more bad because I realize where my badness lies.
2. Wimbledon will be yet more hot tomorrow.
7. The economies are such more vulnerable, such more weak.
3. Certainly, Ann was doing nothing to prevent Pride's finally coming out of the everything into the here.
4. He turned out to be even more odd than I had expected.

5. That's the way among that class. They up and give the old woman a friendly clap, just as you or me would swear at the missus.
6. "You see, by this time we were on the peacefulest of terms." (O. Henry)
7. "Well, you never could fly," says Myra with her special laugh, which was the provokingest sound I ever heard except the rattle of an empty canteen against my saddle-horn (O. Henry).

Topic 2. 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 particle.
6. The article.
7. Modal words.
8. The interjection.

Key words

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

1. A general outline of form words

Form words (structural words) in Modern English include articles particles, prepositions, conjunctions. Form words differ from significant words semantically, morphologically and syntactically. They do not denote things, actions and properties of things and actions but relations and connections between the notional words. All of them are unchangeable and for that reason devoid of any morphological categories. Form words do not fulfil any syntactical functions similar to those fulfilled by notional words.

The article presents us with a number of problems. First of all there is the problem whether the article is a word constituting a separate part of speech or just a noun-morpheme. Another problem that is inseparably connected with the first is the number of articles in English. In case it is a word we should recognize two articles definite (the) and indefinite (a, an). The zero article can not be regarded as a word because it has no material form of expression and the existence of zero words in a language is rather doubtful. If the article is regarded as a morpheme, we should recognize three articles: definite, indefinite, and zero as the existence of zero morphemes is a well-established fact. M.Y. Blokh is of the opinion that "the article itself is a special type of grammatical auxiliary",

thus the combination of the article with the noun should be defined as an analytical word form. The article determination of the noun should be represented as the opposition of the definite article with the noun *vs* the indefinite article and the meaningful absence of the article. In this opposition the definite article should be interpreted as the strong member of its identifying and individualizing function, whereas the other forms of article determination being unmarked in the respect of identification should be regarded as the weak member of the opposition. This view on the problem is not shared by many other scholars and remains disputable up to now.

A number of debatable points arise in connection with prepositions. One of the most disputable questions is the syntactic status of prepositions. Some grammarians hold the view that prepositions are equal functionally to morphemes as they are used to express case relations, while other linguists are against this interpretation. The arguments given in favour of the second view are as follows: 1) prepositions cannot be regarded as auxiliaries because they are not devoid of their lexical meanings; 2) the category of case is expressed by different forms of nouns, if we assume that prepositions are equal to case inflections the number of case forms should be the same as the number of prepositions which is absurd.

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?

Exercises

Texts for analysis

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 took the train to Sudbury she would 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)

Exercises

I. Speak on peculiarities of form words.

SEMINAR 8

Morphology. Revision

Exercises

I. Do the morphemic analysis of the following words on the lines of the traditional and distributional classifications. Group the words according to a particular type of morphemic distribution.

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

II. Comment on the oppositional reduction of the categorial noun and verb forms:

- 1. There’s many a poor respectable mother who doesn’t get half the fussing and attention which is lavished on some of these girls (James).
- 2. He won’t be retiring for another eighteen months (Christie).

3. Michael saw Mrs. Dandy, not quite often over her illness, rose to go and became caught in polite group after group (Fitzgerald).
4. Man has a right to expect living passion and beauty in a woman (Anderson).
5. But Hamilton drinks too much and all this crowd of young people drink too much (Fitzgerald).
6. Music's voice went to his heart (O. Henry).
7. He remembered reading – in a John D. MacDonald novel, he thought – that every modern motel room in America seems filled with mirrors (King)/
8. She never told him they (letters) were from a husband (James).
9. The next day she loved and rejoiced on the day he crossed the floor, he was sun, moon and stars in one (Lawrence).
10. Kate did not like having to learn lessons from this little wait of a Teresa (Lawrence).
11. Jolyon was too much of a Forsyte to praise anything freely (Galsworthy).
12. He closed his eyes again and remembered, with mild astonishment, a time when he had been in the trouble (Sheckley).
13. "A year and a half" – she paused. "But I'm leaving next month (Christie).
14. Yes, it was old Mrs. Carraway. She's always swallowing things (Christie).
15. Perhaps she wasn't an actress at all. Perhaps the police were looking for her (Christie).

III. Point out the categorial features of the adjectives and adverbs.

1. Her maternal instinct never betrayed her.
2. They were of the same age but he treated her with paternal gentleness.
3. The Russians are believed to be a very inventive people.
4. The boy's parents are sure that his intellectual potential is great but so far he hasn't shown any signs of an extremely intelligent child.
5. They are discussing now if the land of the country should be common or private property.
6. In our private talk he told me about his decision to give up composing music for our theatre.
7. The 17th century was the golden age of Dutch painting.
8. Everyone admired her golden hair.

IV. Discuss controversial points arising in connection with verbals on the material of the following sentences.

1. In the soul of the minister a struggle awoke. From wanting to reach the ears of Kate Swift, and through his sermons to delve into her soul, he began to want also to look again at the figure lying white and quiet in the bed (Anderson).
2. That was where our fishing began (Hemingway).
3. But she didn't hear him for the beating of her heart (Hemingway).
4. Henry Marston's trembling became a shaking; it would be pleasant if this were the end and nothing more need be done, he thought, and with a certain

hope he sat down on a stool. But it is seldom really the end, and after a while, as he became too exhausted to care, the shaking stopped and he was better (Fitzgerald).

5. Going downstairs, looking as alert and self-possessed as any other officer of the bank, he spoke to two clients he knew, and set his face grimly toward noon (Fitzgerald).
6. He was not by any means an imbecile: he was devoted to the theatre; he read old and new plays all the time; and he had a flair for confessing earnestly that he was a religious man, and frequently found peace by kneeling in prayer (Saroyan).
7. She was delighted with his having performed for her alone, with his having had her seat removed from the gallery and placed in his dressing room, with the roses he had bought for her, and with being so near to him (Saroyan).
8. Something essential had been absent from his voice when he had made the remark, for the girl replied by saying she wished she had taken home – making and cooking at Briarcliff instead of English, math, and zoology (Saroyan).
9. I just wondered how a painter makes a living (Saroyan).
10. I've been painting seriously, as the saying is, since I was fifteen or so (Saroyan).

Text for analysis

Tit for Tat

An American lady, travelling in England some years ago, got into a smoking compartment where an Englishman was smoking a pipe. For a short time she sat quietly expecting the Englishman would stop smoking. Then she began to cough and sneeze, trying to show him that she objected to his smoking. At last seeing that the man took no notice of her and did not put out his pipe she said:

“If you were a gentleman you would stop smoking when a lady got into the carriage.”

“If you were a lady,” replied the Englishman, “you wouldn’t get into a smoking-carriage.”

“If you were my husband,” said the American lady angrily, “I would give you poison.” The Englishman looked at her for a moment or two. “Well,” he said at last, “if I were your husband, I wouldn’t refrain from taking it.”

Exercises

I. Speak on general characteristics of form words and verbals.

II. Define part-of-speech characteristics of the underlined words and consider disputable questions concerning them.

1. I don't know why it should be, I am sure; but the sight of another man asleep in bed when I am up, maddens me (Jerome).
2. He did not Madame anybody, even good customers like Mrs. Moore.
3. If ifs and ans were pots and pans there'd be no need of tinkers.
4. Poor dears, they were always worrying about examinations... (Christie)
5. "After all, I married you for better or for worse and Aunt Ada is decidedly the worse." (Christie)
6. "I believe," said Tommy thoughtfully, "she used to get rather lots of fun out of saying to old friends of hers when they came to see her "I've left you a little something in my will, dear" or "This brooch that you're so fond of I've left you in my will." (Christie)
7. When I'm dead and buried and you've suitably mourned me and taken up your residence in a home for the aged, I expect you'll be thinking you are Mrs. Blenkinsop half of the time (Christie).
8. "But –" Tuppence broke in upon his "but" (Christie).
9. "Look here, Tuppence, this whole thing is all somethings and someones. It's just an idea you've thought up." (Christie)
10. Tommy came back to say a breathless goodbye (Christie).
11. Although it was dim, there was a faded but beautiful carpet on the floor, a deep sage-green in colour (Christie).
12. I thought it was something wrong when his wife suddenly up and left him (Christie).

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

GLOSSARY OF LINGUISTIC TERMS

Entry	Definition	Equivalent terms
adjunct	1. a qualifying word, phase, etc., depending on a particular member of a sentence; 2. a secondary word in a junction (O. Jespersen) <i>Cf.: subjunct</i>	a dependent unit
allomorph	a concrete manifestation of a morpheme, a variant, an alternative of a morpheme	
allo-term	a variant language unit actualized in a concrete speech string <i>Cf.: eme-term</i>	
Beneficent (as a semantic role)	a person or other being for whose sake an action is performed	
bound morpheme	a morpheme that cannot form a word by itself <i>Cf.: a free morpheme</i>	
case	a nominal category showing the relation of the referent to some other referent	
complement	an obligatory dependent language unit <i>Cf.: supplement</i>	
complementary distribution	relation of formally different morphs having the same function in different environments, e. g.: cows – oxen <i>Cf.: contrastive distribution, non-contrastive distribution</i>	
complementive verb	a verb taking an obligatory adjunct, a verb having an obligatory valency <i>Cf.: uncomplementive verbs</i>	

Entry	Definition	Equivalent terms
continuous morpheme	an uninterrupted string of phonemes building up a morpheme <i>Cf.: discontinuous morpheme</i>	uninterrupted morpheme
contrastive distribution	relations of different morphs in the identical environment <i>Cf.: non-contrastive distribution, complementary distribution</i>	
coordinative phrase	a phrase based on coordination and consisting of elements of equal rank <i>Cf.: cumulative phrase</i>	
covert morpheme	an implicit morpheme, i.e. a morpheme having no explicit representation in the actual expression <i>Cf.: overt morpheme</i>	zero morpheme
deep structure	the formal syntactical construction represented by dummy symbols replaced by lexical entities in ways determined by their feature content <i>Cf.: surface structure</i>	
dichotomy	division into two parts or categories	
differential feature	distinctive feature of a categorial form	distinguishing feature
discontinuous morpheme	a morpheme built up of an interrupted string of phonemes, e. g.: <i>be ... -en</i> <i>Cf.: continuous morpheme</i>	
distribution	the contextual environment of a language unit <i>Cf.: contrastive, non-contrastive, complementary distribution</i>	
eme-term	a generalized invariant language unit <i>Cf.: allo-term</i>	

Entry	Definition	Equivalent terms
government	a kind of concord in which one term controls or selects the form of the partner <i>Cf.: concord</i>	
gradual opposition	an opposition whose members are characterized by the expression of a certain degree of one and the same categorial feature <i>Cf.: privative opposition, equipollent opposition</i>	
half-gerund	a form having mixed, participial and gerundial, features	participial gerund
illocutionary act	an utterance which has a certain conventional force, e. g.: informing, ordering, warning, undertaking, etc. <i>Cf.: locutionary act, perlocutionary act</i>	
immanent category	a category expressing the inherent features of a part of speech (M. Blokh) <i>Cf.: reflective category</i>	inherent category
immediate constituents	constituent elements immediately entering into any meaningful combination	
junction	relationship of two elements which is so close that they may be considered to be one composite name for what might in many cases just as well have been called by a single name (O. Jespersen) <i>Cf.: nexus</i>	
locutionary act	uttering of a certain sentence with a certain sense and reference (J. Austin) <i>Cf.: illocutionary act, perlocutionary act</i>	

Entry	Definition	Equivalent terms
modality	the way in which proposition is modified in terms of reality / non-reality (possibility, necessity, desire, obligation, belief, hope, hypothesis, etc.). It shows the relation of the nominative content to reality (M. Blokh) <i>Cf.: predication</i>	
morph	a repeated segment of phonemic string; a combination of phonemes that has a meaning which cannot be subdivided into smaller meaningful units (W.N. Francis) <i>Cf.: allomorph, morpheme</i>	
morpheme	the smallest meaningful part of a word expressing a generalized, significative meaning. It's a group of allomorphs that are semantically similar and in complementary distribution <i>Cf.: morph, allomorph</i>	
neutralization	a type of oppositional reduction by which a neutralized language unit becomes fully functionally identified with its counterterm <i>Cf.: transposition</i>	
nexus	a predicative (and semi-predicative) relation between words (O. Jespersen) <i>Cf.: junction</i>	
non-contrastive distribution	relations of different morphs having the same function in the identical environments, e. g.: <i>learned – learnt</i> <i>Cf.: contrastive distribution, complementary distribution</i>	
notional part of speech	a part of speech of full nominative value <i>Cf.: functional part of speech</i>	

Entry	Definition	Equivalent terms
Object (as a semantic role)	entity (thing) which is relocated or changed; whose existence is at the focus of attention, e. g.: <i>to break <u>the window</u></i> . Sometimes O. is identified with patient, i. e. entity which is the victim of some action: <i>to kill <u>a fox</u></i> .	
objectivity	the ability of a verb to take an object of any kind <i>Cf.: transitivity</i>	
objective verb	a verb taking an object of any kind (direct, indirect, prepositional) <i>Cf.: transitive verbs</i>	
oppositional reduction	the process of curtailing an opposition of categorial forms <i>Cf.: neutralization, transposition</i>	oppositional substitution
overt morpheme	an explicit morpheme, not zeroed <i>Cf.: covert morpheme</i>	
paradigmatic	referring to language system on the basis of invariant-variant relations, connected on a non-linear basis <i>Cf.: syntagmatic</i>	systemic
Participant (as a semantic role)	a person acting together with the Agent, but who is somehow “overshadowed” by him: <i>You have <u>me</u> to ride with</i> . <i>Cf.: Agent</i>	
pragmatic factor	a factor relevant for the actualization of a message in a concrete communicative situation	
predication	the act of referring the nominative content of the sentence to reality (M. Blokh) <i>Cf.: nomination</i>	

Entry	Definition	Equivalent terms
presupposition	<p>a proposition whose truth is necessary for either the truth or the falsity of another statement. It stays intact under negation and modal operators, e. g.: <i>John is divorced</i> (presupposition: <i>John was <u>married</u></i>) – <i>John is not divorced</i> (presupposition: <i>John is <u>married</u></i>)</p> <p><i>Cf.: assertion</i></p>	
primary predication	<p>predication expressed in a sentence which has as its predicate a finite form of the verb</p> <p><i>Cf.: secondary predication, potential predication</i></p>	<p>complete predication, explicit predication, actual predication</p>
privative opposition	<p>an opposition based on the principle of presence / absence in its counter-members of one and the same feature</p> <p><i>Cf.: gradual opposition, equipollent opposition</i></p>	
proposition	<p>the content of a declarative sentence, that which is proposed, or stated, denied, questioned, etc., capable of truth and falsity</p>	judgment
reflective category	<p>a category expressing categorial meanings which are not inherent in the referent in question, e. g.: person and number in the verb system (M. Blokh)</p> <p><i>Cf.: immanent category</i></p>	secondary category, non-inherent category
replacive morpheme	<p>a morpheme built up on the basis of root (or vowel) interchange; usually a root vowel that replaces another in a categorial form, e. g.: <i>sing</i> – <i>sang</i></p> <p><i>Cf.: additive morpheme</i></p>	

Entry	Definition	Equivalent terms
retrospective coordination	establishing relation between the given action and some prior action or moment	
secondary predication	predication expressed by potentially predicative complexes with non-finite forms of the verb and verbal nouns <i>Cf.: primary predication</i>	potential predication, incomplete / partial predication, implicit predication, semi-predication
semi-predicative construction	a construction made up by a non-finite form of the verb and a substantive element denoting the subject or object of the action expressed by the non-finite form of the verb <i>Cf.: fully predicative construction</i>	potentially predicative construction, propositional construction
supplement	a non-obligatory adjunct <i>Cf.: complement</i>	optional adjunct
suppletivity	the formation of word-forms from different roots <i>Cf.: affixation, inner inflection, outer inflection</i>	
suprasegmental unit	an element accompanying the realization of utterances and expressing different modificational meanings, such as accent, intonation contours, pauses, patterns of word-order <i>Cf.: segmental unit / morpheme</i>	
surface structure	the resultant syntactic construction derived through transformations of the deep structure <i>Cf.: deep structure</i>	

Entry	Definition	Equivalent terms
syntagma (syntactic)	a word-group consisting of two or more notional elements	word combination, phrase
syntagmatic	connected on a linear basis <i>Cf.: paradigmatic</i>	
transformation	transition from one syntactic pattern to another syntactic pattern with the preservation of its notional parts	
transitivity	the ability of a verb to take a direct object <i>Cf.: objectivity</i>	
transposition	the use of a language element in the contextual conditions typical of its oppositional counter-member by which it fulfils two functions simultaneously <i>Cf.: neutralization</i>	
unit	a constituent of a system	element
utterance acts	uttering words and sentences (J.R. Searle)	
valency	the ability of a language unit to take an adjunct, potential combinability of a language unit	

МОРФОЛОГИЯ СОВРЕМЕННОГО АНГЛИЙСКОГО ЯЗЫКА

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