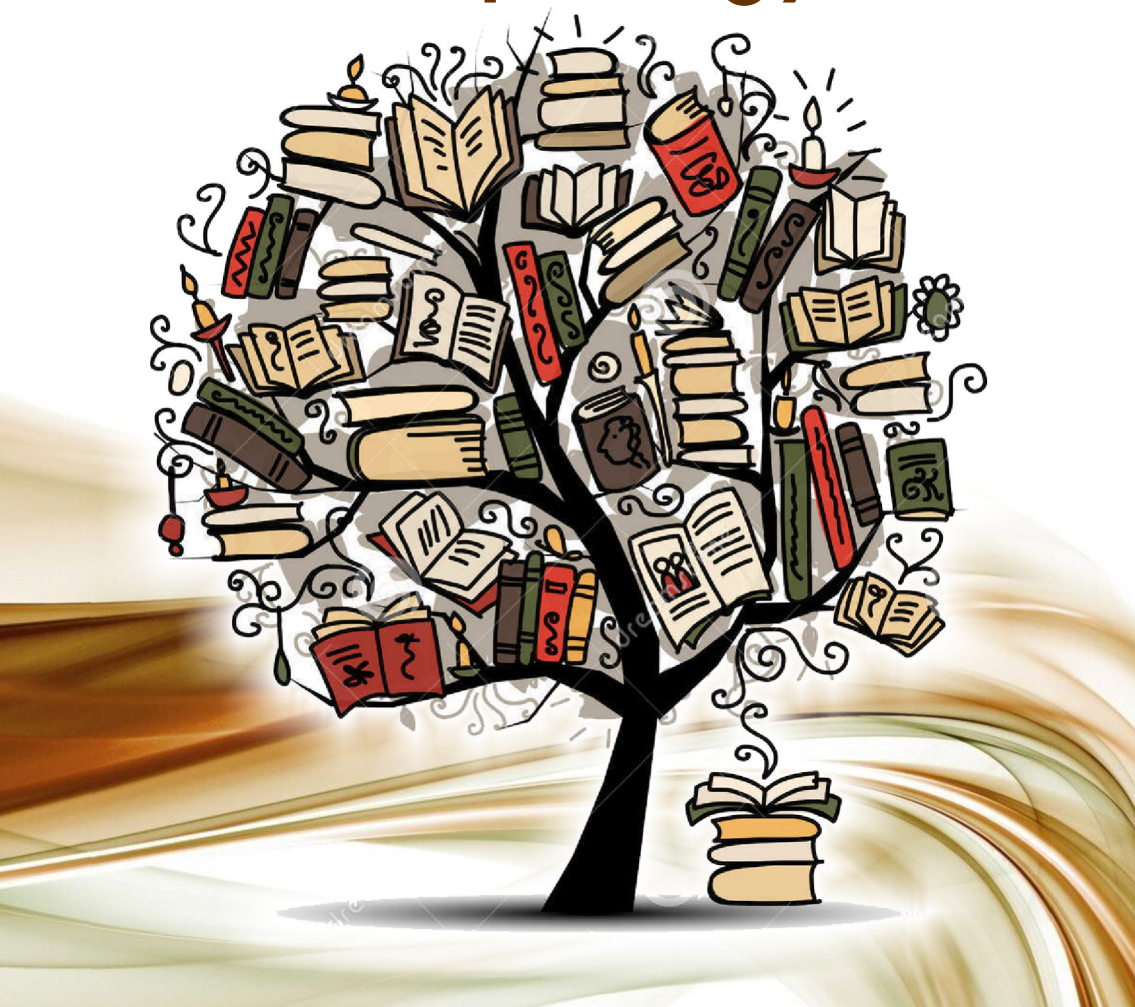
E. L. Ananian

Theoretical Grammar of Modern English. Morphology



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Е. Л. Ананьян

ТЕОРЕТИЧНА ГРАМАТИКА СУЧАСНОЇ АНГЛІЙСЬКОЇ МОВИ. МОРФОЛОГІЯ

Навчальний посібник

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А640 Теоретична граматика сучасної англійської мови. Морфологія = Theoretical Grammar of Modern English. Morphology : [навч. посіб.] / Е. Л. Ананьян. – Слов'янськ: ДДПУ, 2017 – 146 с.

Навчальний посібник «Теоретична граматика сучасної англійської мови. Морфологія» призначено для студентів вишів (Галузь знань 03 Гуманітарні науки: Спеціальність 035 Філологія (Спеціалізація 035.04 Германські мови (переклад включно)). Матеріал посібника викладено з урахуванням програмних вимог до змісту теоретичного курсу. Контент навчального посібника висвітлює як традиційні, так і сучасні підходи до системного вивчення морфеміки, словотвору та морфології англійської мови.

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CONTENTS

ПЕРЕДМОВА

Навчальний посібник «Теоретична граматика сучасної англійської мови. Морфологія» призначено для студентів вишів (Галузь знань 03 Гуманітарні науки: Спеціальність 035 Філологія (Спеціалізація 035.04 Германські мови (переклад включно)).

Мета навчального посібника – ознайомити студентів з основними принципами та особливостями морфологічної будови сучасної англійської мови. Контент навчального посібника містить як загальні тлумачення явищ морфології сучасної англійської мови, так і різні точки зору на певні дискусійні питання, вивчення яких супроводжується аргументованим коментарем.

Навчальний матеріал, представлений у посібнику, активізує процес опанування студентами наступними компетентностями:

– проводити ґрунтовний аналіз і критичне зіставлення різних підходів та поглядів на вивчення теоретичних положень і проблем морфології сучасної англійської мови;

– оперувати загальнолінгвістичною термінологією та термінологією з теоретичної граматики під час вивчення й обговорення тематичних питань блоку «Морфологія»;

– інтегрувати та використовувати систематизовані теоретичні та практичні знання з практичної граматики англійської мови, а також знання з суміжних теоретичних та практичних філологічних дисциплін з метою комплексно вивчати морфологічні явища в опозиційній кореляції “мова :: мовлення”;

– декодувати явища морфології сучасної англійської мови у порівнянні з аналогічними явищами в українській та російській мовах;

– самостійно опрацьовувати науково-методичну літературу за тематикою матеріалу, що вивчається, висувати аргументовані судження, ставити та вирішувати наукові завдання.

За своєю структурою навчальний посібник складається з двох розділів, списку рекомендованої літератури та глосарію. Перший розділ (*LECTURE NOTE SKETCHES*) містить 10 лекцій: Lecture 1. Introduction to the course of theoretical grammar; Lecture 2. The word and its morphemic structure; Lecture 3. Categorial structure of the word; Lecture 4. Grammatical classes of words; Lecture 5. Noun; Lecture 6. Adjective; Lecture 7. Verb; Lecture 8. Verbids; Lecture 9. Adverb; Lecture 10. Functional parts of speech. Structural words. До кожної лекції включено список рекомендованої літератури для поглибленого вивчення кожної теми, а також перелік питань для самоперевірки, що стимулюють підвищення ефективності засвоювання студентами навчального

матеріалу. У другому розділі (*REVIEW MORPHOLOGY TEST*) навчального посібника запропоновані тестові завдання, які допомагають студентам, проаналізувати та оцінити власну успішність в опануванні матеріалом, скоректувати результати, що досягнуті.

Видання переслідує насамперед навчальні цілі, спрямовані на вирішення завдання теоретичної підготовки майбутніх філологів. Навчальний посібник спрямовано на підвищення у студентів інтересу до теоретичної граматики сучасної англійської мови, у культивуванні в них особистісної потреби в оволодінні знань з цієї навчальної дисципліни, що є певною складовою формування професійної компетенції майбутніх фахівців.

CHAPTER I
LECTURE NOTE SKETCHES

Lecture 1. INTRODUCTION TO THE COURSE OF THEORETICAL GRAMMAR

Aim: to introduce the generalities of grammar as a branch of linguistics; to determine the subject of the theory of grammar, its aim and the purpose; to analyze the essence of the principle of the dialectical unity of form and content and illustrate it with the examples of grammatical polysemy, grammatical homonymy and grammatical synonymy; to disclose the nature of syntagmatic and paradigmatic relations of lingual units; to decode the relation of theoretical grammar to other branches of linguistics.

List of Issues Discussed:

1. **Grammar as a Branch of Linguistics. Subject of the Theory of Grammar, its Aim and Purpose.**
2. **Language as a Semiotic System. Basic Units of Language and Speech.**
3. **Dialectical Unity of Form and Content. Correspondence between the Planes of Expression and Content.**
4. **Syntagmatic and Paradigmatic Relations of Lingual Units.**
5. **Relation of Theoretical Grammar to other Branches of Linguistics.**

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Key notions: linguistics, language, speech, lingual unit, segmental unit, plane of content, plane of expression, polysemy, homonymy, synonymy, sign, syntagmtic relations, paradigmatic relations, syntagma, paradigm.

1. Grammar as a Branch of Linguistics. Subject of the Theory of Grammar, its Aim and Purpose

Linguistics is the scientific study of human languages which is characterized by the systemic approach to the object of its investigation. Grammar is one of the main linguistic disciplines which studies the grammatical system of language. Traditionally grammar is determined as the system of rules of changing of the words and the rules and regulations of their combining in sentence. That is why it is divided into two parts: morphology (rules of words changing) and syntax (rules of words combining in sentences). Grammar has a practical and theoretical purpose. A practical description is aimed at providing the student with a manual of using the language in a proper way without making mistakes in oral and written speech. *The aim of theoretical grammar of a language* is to present a theoretical description of its grammatical system, i.e. to scientifically analyze and define its grammatical categories and study the mechanisms of grammatical formation of the utterances out of word and the process of speech making.

The following principles in the course "Theory of Grammar" will be taken into account:

1) the inseparable connection of language and speech;
2) the dialectical unity of form and content;
3) The interdependence and interconnection between language and thinking.

2. Language as a Semiotic System. Basic Units of Language and Speech

Language is a means of forming and storing ideas as reflections of reality and exchanging them in the process of human intercourse. Language is social by nature; it is inseparably connected with the people who are its creators and users; it grows and develops together with the development of society.

There existed various views of human languages, but now the accepted view of language is that of its being a complex semiotic system, consisting of several subsystems ("levels"), each being inherent in it by virtue of its social nature. These levels are the phonological level, the lexical level, the grammatical level. Only the unity of these three forms a language; without any one of them there is no human language in the above sense. These levels constitute the so-called "hierarchy of linguistic levels".

Each of the levels mentioned above is characterized by the presence of the basic segmental unit. Thus,

– The basic unit of the lowest, phonological level is the phoneme. It is the smallest differential unit of language system, which has no meaning of its own and serves only to distinguish words: *card – hard – lard*. In speech phonemes are represented by allophones.

– The level located above the phonemic one is the lexical level that comprises, in its turn, two sublevels, namely, the morphemic sublevel and the lexemic sublevel.

The basic unit of the morphemic sublevel is the morpheme. The morpheme is the smallest meaningful unit of language since, unlike the phoneme, it always carries some lexical, lexico-grammatical or purely grammatical meaning. In speech morphemes are represented by allomorphs.

The lexemic sublevel introduces the word, as different from the morpheme. The word is a directly naming (nominative) unit of language: it names things and their relations. In speech words are always represented by word-forms. Word-combinations are also considered to be naming units, though of a more complicated nature, than separate words: *a table – a wooden table*. From the word-combination we move on to the sentence. The sentence is the smallest unit of human communication since we usually communicate with one another with the help of sentences but not separate words or word-combinations. In speech sentence patterns are represented by utterances. Many scholars also mark out the so-called supra-sentential (or: textual) level.

– Grammatical rules and grammatical regularities expose the grammatical level.

3. Dialectical Unity of Form and Content. Correspondence between the Planes of Expression and Content

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

The plane of content comprises the purely semantic elements contained in language, while the plane of expression comprises the material (formal) units of language taken by themselves, apart from the meanings rendered by them. The two planes are inseparably connected, so that no meaning can be realized without some material means of expression. Grammatical elements of language present a unity of content and expression (or, in somewhat more familiar terms, a unity of form and meaning). In grammar the correspondence between these two planes is clearly illustrated by the phenomena of polysemy, homonymy, and synonymy.

In cases of *polysemy*,

	Plane of Content	**Plane of Expression**
Grammatical Polysemy	– **Grammatical Meanings of the Present Indefinite**: 1) to express a recurrent or permanent action in the present; 2) to express an action permanently characterizing the subject in the present; 3) action taken as a general truth; 4) to express a planned future action mostly with verbs denoting motion.	– **Grammatical ending -*(e)s*** in the verbal form of the present indefinite for the 3d person singular.
	4 Grammatical Meanings → **1** Form (*four* units of the plane of content correspond to *one* unit of the plane of expression)	

In cases of *homonymy*,

	Plane of Content	**Plane of Expression**
Grammatical Homonymy	– **Grammatical Meanings of** 1) the third person singular of the verbal present tense; 2) the plural of the noun; 3) the possessive form of the noun.	**– The Morphemic material element** *-s/-es/-'s*
	3 Grammatical Meanings → **1** Form (*three* units of the plane of content correspond to *one* unit of the plane of expression)	

In cases of *synonymy*,

	Plane of Content	**Plane of Expression**
Grammatical Synonymy	– **Grammatical Meaning of** futurity	**–** the form of the Future Indefinite **–** the form of the Future Continuous **–** the forms of the Future Perfect and the Future Perfect Continuous (these two are used, or very rarely, or not at all used. Construction of these times is quite bulky and heavy, so the speaker to rephrase the sentence easier than creating «indigestible» option) **–** the form of the Present Continuous Tense **–** the form of the Present Indefinite Tense – "*to be going* + Infinitive" – "*to be about to do something*"
	1 Grammatical Meaning → **7** Forms (*one* unit of the plane of content correspond to *seven* units of the plane of expression)	

Taking into consideration the discrimination between the two planes, we may say that the purpose of grammar as a linguistic discipline is to disclose and formulate the regularities of the correspondence between the plane of content and the plane of expression in the formation of utterances out of the stocks of words as part of the process of speech production.

4. Syntagmatic and Paradigmatic Relations of Lingual Units

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

The system of language includes, on the one hand, the body of material

units: sounds, morphemes, words, word-groups; on the other hand, the 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.

Language and speech are inseparable, they form together an organic unity. As for grammar, it dynamically connects language with speech, because it categorially determines the lingual process of utterance production.

Thus, we have the broad philosophical concept of language which is analysed by linguistics into two different aspects: the system of signs (language proper) and the use of signs (speech proper).

The sign (meaningful unit) in the system of language has only a potential meaning. In speech, the potential meaning of the lingual sign is "actualized", i.e. made situationally significant as part of the grammatically organised text.

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). Syntagmatic relations can be determined on the level of Syntax, Morphology and Phonetics.

The combination of two words or word-groups one of which is modified by the other forms a unit which is referred to as a syntactic "syntagma".

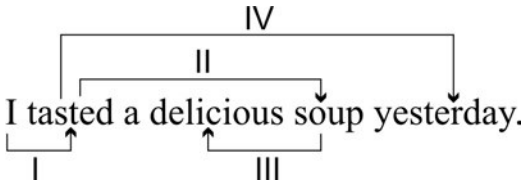
The analysis of the sentence "*I tasted a delicious soup yesterday*" illustrates four main types of notional syntactic syntagmas:

predicative (the combination of a subject and a predicate) – "*I tasted*";

objective (the combination of a verb and its object) – "*tasted … soup*";

attributive (the combination of a noun and its attribute) – "*a delicious soup*";

adverbial (the combination of a modified notional word, such as a verb, adjective, or adverb, with its adverbial modifier) – "*tasted … yesterday*".



Morphemes within the words are also connected syntagmatically. E.g.: *tast/ed*; *delici/ous.*

Since syntagmatic relations are actually observed in utterances, they are described by the Latin formula as relations "in praesentia" ("in the presence").

The other type of relations, opposed to syntagmatic and called "paradigmatic", are such as exist between elements of the system outside the strings where they co-occur. These intra-systemic relations and dependencies 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. Unlike syntagmatic relations, paradigmatic relations cannot be directly observed in utterances, that is why they are referred to as relations "in absentia" ("in the absence").

Paradigmatic relations coexist with syntagmatic relations in such a way that some sort of syntagmatic connection is necessary for the realisation of any paradigmatic series. This is evident in a classical grammatical paradigm which presents a productive series of forms each consisting of a syntagmatic connection of two elements: one common for the whole of the series (stem), the other specific for every individual form in the series (grammatical feature – inflexion, suffix, auxiliary word). Grammatical paradigms express various grammatical categories. The minimal paradigm consists of two form-stages. This kind of paradigm we see, for instance, in the expression of the category of number: *boy – boys.*

5. Relation of Theoretical Grammar to other Branches of Linguistics

Theoretical grammar is related to other branches of linguistics. First of all theoretical grammar is related to practical grammar, but their purposes are different: the purpose of practical (or prescriptive) grammar is to prescribe the rules how to correctly build sentences or tense forms etc., while the main purpose of theoretical grammar (scientific, descriptive) grammar is to give a scientific description and analysis of the structure of Modern English and its grammatical categories.

Theoretical grammar is also connected with phonology, which can be proved by the fact that a change of a sound presents another grammatical form (*(a) man* (s) – *men* (pl); *(to) build* (infinitive) – *built* (past simple) – *built* (past participle)); word stress may change a part of speech (*to im**port*** (v) – ***im**port* (n); *to con**test*** (v) – ***con**test*); a change of intonation may change the communicative type of a sentence (We surrender. (a declarative sentence) – We surrender?! (an interrogative-negative emotional sentence).

Theoretical grammar is also related to lexicology. It is not indifferent as to the meaning of words: the meaning of a word may change the type of the predicate in a sentence: *He made a good report. – He made a good reporter.* The lexical meanings of the words *report* and *reporter* predetermine the type of the predicates in the sentences. In the first sentence we observe a simple verbal predicate while in the second sentence we see a compound nominal predicate.

Questions and assignments for reflection:

1. Why is the language considered to be a systematic phenomenon?
2. What basic subsystems is each language subdivided into? What do they study?
3. What segmental and supra-segmental units of the language do you know?
4. What is a hierarchy of levels that segmental lingual units form?
5. Comment on the principle of “dialectical unity of form and content”. Expose the correlation between the two planes of language, namely, *the plane of content* and *the plane of expression*.
6. Analyze the following grammatical phenomena: grammatical polysemy, grammatical homonymy and grammatical synonymy. Illustrate them with your own examples.

7. What are two fundamental types of relations between lingual units? Can you describe them?

8. Identify the relation of theoretical grammar to other branches of linguistics.

Lecture 2. THE WORD AND ITS MORPHEMIC STRUCTURE

Aim: to investigate the morpheme and the word as segmental units of morphology; to analyze the ways of their interpretation as notions; to disclose the classification of morphemes; to decode the concepts of "allo-emic" theory; to reveal the essence of the distributional analysis and its application to the morphemic level.

List of Issues Discussed:

1. Morpheme and Word as Segmental Units of Morphology.
2. Morphemic Structure of the Word. Classification of Morphemes.
3. Concepts of "Allo-emic" Theory. Distributional Analysis and its Application to the Morphemic Level.

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Key notions: morphology, word, morpheme, segmental unit, positional criterion, semantic criterion, root-morpheme, affix, prefix, suffix, inflection, infix, suppletivity, allo-emic theory, allophone, distributional analysis, free morpheme, bound morpheme.

1. Morpheme and Word as Segmental Units of Morphology

The morphological system of language reveals its properties through the morphemic structure of words. It follows from this that morphology as part of grammatical theory faces the two segmental units: the morpheme and the word.

The word is the main object of morphology and we begin with a definition of the word. It should be mentioned, that even by the present there exists no generally accepted definition of the word. It is very difficult to give a rigorous and at the same time universal definition to the word, i.e. such a definition as would unambiguously apply to all the different word-units of the lexicon. This difficulty is explained by the fact that the word is an extremely complex and many-sided phenomenon. Within the framework of different linguistic trends and theories the word is defined as the minimal potential sentence, the minimal free linguistic form, the elementary component of the sentence, the articulate sound symbol, the grammatically arranged combination of sound with meaning, the meaningfully integral and immediately identifiable lingual unit, the uninterrupted string of morphemes, etc. None of these definitions, which can be divided into formal, functional, and mixed, has the power to precisely cover all the lexical segments of language without a residue remaining outside the field of definition. Therefore here we shall have to content ourselves with the following conceptions: the word is

– a minimal unit of language characterized by positional independence;
– a nominative unit of language;
– a unit of information in the communication process;
– it is formed by morphemes;
– it enters the lexicon of language as its elementary component;
– together with other nominative units the word is used for the formation of the sentence.

The morpheme is a meaningful segmental component of the word; the morpheme is formed by phonemes; as a meaningful component of the word it is elementary (i.e. indivisible into smaller segments as regards its significative function).

Summing up what has been said we may state that the properties of the morpheme and the word mentioned above are fundamental from the point of view of their systemic status and therefore require detailed investigations and descriptions.

2. Morphemic Structure of the Word. Classification of Morphemes

In traditional grammar, the study of the morphemic structure of the word is based on two criteria: the positional criterion – the location of the morphemes with regard to each other, and the semantic (or: functional) criterion – the contribution of the morphemes to the general meaning of the word.

In accord with the traditional classification, morphemes on the upper level are divided into root-morphemes (roots) and affixal morphemes (affixes). The roots express the concrete, “material” part of the meaning of the word, while the affixes express the specificational part of the meaning of the word, the specifications being of lexico-semantic and grammatico-semantic character.

So, according to the semantic criterion affixes are further subdivided into lexical, or word-building (derivational) affixes, which together with the root constitute the stem of the word, and grammatical, or word-changing affixes, expressing different morphological categories, such as number, case, tense and others. With the help of lexical affixes new words are derived, or built; with the help of grammatical affixes the form of the word is changed.

According to the positional criterion affixes are divided into prefixes, situated before the root in the word, e.g.: *under-estimate*, and suffixes, situated after the root, e.g.: *underestim-ate*. Prefixes in English are only lexical: the word *underestimate* is derived from the word *estimate* with the help of the prefix *under-*. Suffixes in English may be either lexical or grammatical: e.g. in the word "*underestimates*" *-ate* is a lexical suffix, because it is used to derive the verb "*estimate*" (v) from the noun "*esteem*" (n), and *-s* is a grammatical suffix making the 3rd person, singular form of the verb "*underestimate*". Grammatical suffixes (they express different morphological categories) are also called inflexions (inflections, inflectional endings).

Grammatical suffixes in English have certain peculiarities, which make them different from inflections in other languages: since they are the remnants of the old inflectional system, there are few (only six) remaining word-changing suffixes in English: *-(e)s*, *-ed*, *- ing*, *-er*, *-est*, *en*; most of them are homonymous, e.g. *-(e)s* is used to form the plural of the noun (*dogs*), the genitive of the noun (*my friend's*), and the 3rd person singular of the verb (*works*).

Lexical affixes are primarily studied by lexicology with regard to the meaning which they contribute to the general meaning of the whole word. In grammar word-building suffixes are studied as the formal marks of the words belonging to different parts of speech; they form lexical (word-building, derivational) paradigms of words united by a common root, e.g.: *to decide – decision – decisive – decisively*; *to incise – incision – incisive – incisively*.

The roots of notional words are classical lexical morphemes. The root, according to the positional content of the term (i.e. the border-area between prefixes and suffixes), is obligatory for any word, while affixes are not obligatory.

Thus, the abstract complete morphemic model of the common English word is the following: Prefix + Root + Lexical Suffix + Grammatical Suffix (UNDERESTIMATES).

Besides prefixes and suffixes, some other positional types of affix are distinguished in linguistics: for example, regular vowel interchange, which takes place inside the root and transforms its meaning "from within" can be treated as an infix, e.g.: a lexical infix (*blood* (n) – *(to) bleed* (v)); a grammatical infix (*tooth* (s) – *teeth* (pl). Grammatical infixes are also defined as inner inflections as opposed to grammatical suffixes which are called outer inflections. Since infixation is not a productive (regular) means of word-building or word-changing in modern English, it is more often seen as partial suppletivity. Full suppletivity takes place when completely different roots are paradigmatically united, e.g.: *good – better – best*; *I – me*, etc.

Let us illustrate the material mentioned above with the following scheme (see Fig. 1):

Typology of Morphemes

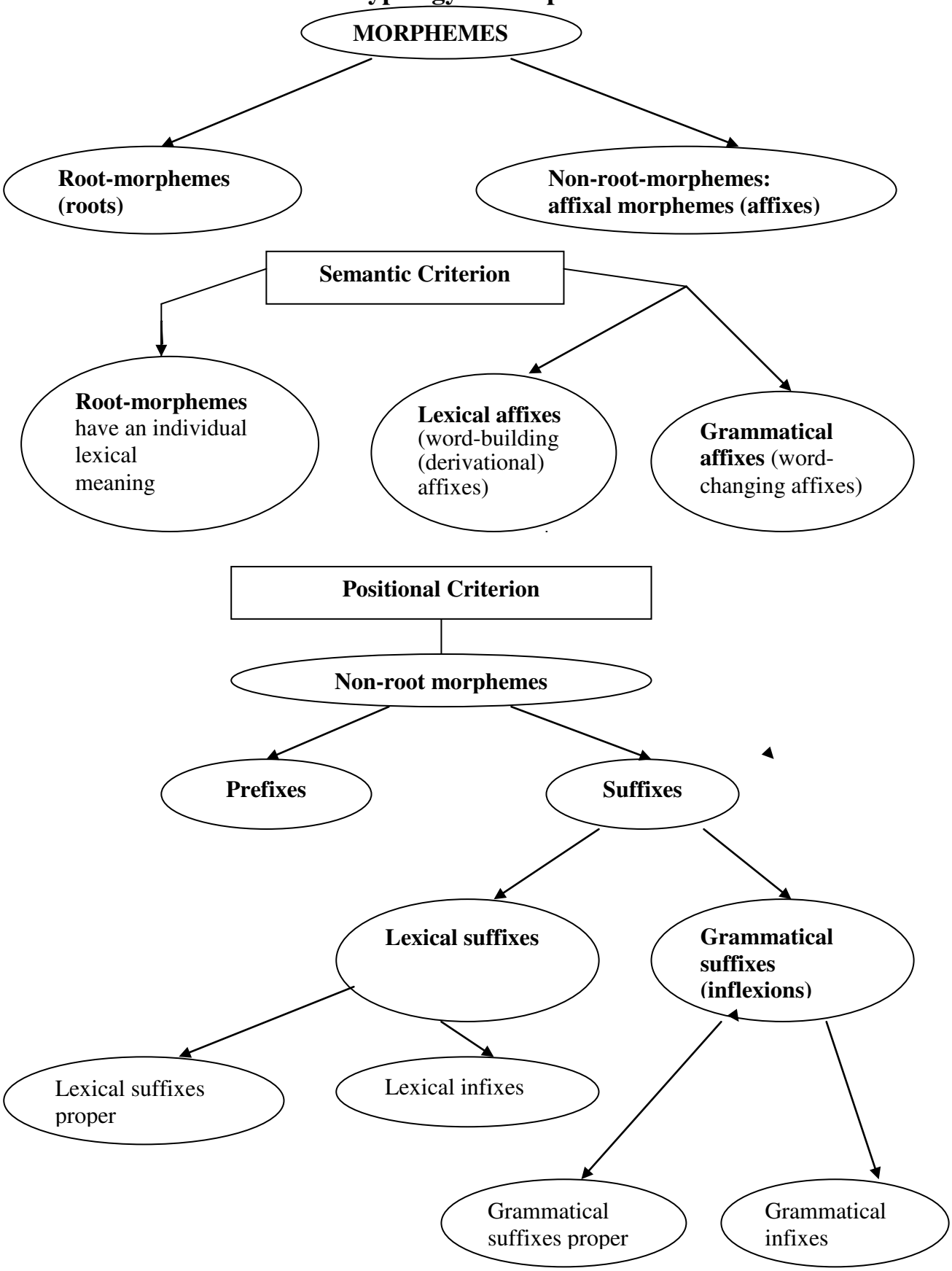

Fig. 1

In order to enlarge information about the classification of morphemes in Modern English we will introduce the view exposed in I. K. Kharitonov's manual "Theoretical English Grammar".

Theoretical considerations cited in his work show that morphemes in Modern English may be classified in accordance with the two main principles:

1) in accordance with the mode of their functioning morphemes may be classified into free and bound. The free morphemes are also called "word-morphemes" (L. Bloomfield). The free morphemes may function as separate words. Root words, auxiliary and modal verbs, link verbs and adverbial postpositives (up, off, etc.) are free morphemes (or, simply, word-morphemes). Bound morphemes also comprise the so-called inner inflexions (infixes) and zero-morphemes. The inner inflexion (as it has been mentioned above) is a vowel or consonant change within a word to signal a grammatical meaning (of plurality, tense, etc.). The zero-morpheme is a meaningful absence of an inflexion: the absence of an inflexion in the word-form "*boy*" signals the singular number.

2) According to the meaning morphemes may be subdivided into a) lexical, b) lexico-grammatical, c) purely grammatical morphemes.

Lexical morphemes are also referred to as root-morphemes. The roots of notional words are classical lexical morphemes. They are directly connected with the thought; they are at the core of the lexical meaning of words. Lexical morphemes may often function as free morphemes coinciding in form with underived words, e.g.: *boy*, *nice*, *go*, *fast*, *you*, etc.

To lexico-grammatical morphemes belong modal verbs, link-verbs, postpositives (they are free lexico-grammatical morphemes) and suffixes and prefixes (they are bound lexico-grammatical morphemes). Morphemes of this type preserve some lexical meaning, though it is not concrete but rather vague, generalized. For instance, the suffix *-er* is characterized only by the generalized lexico-grammatical meaning of "a doer of an action" (*(a) teacher*, *(a) painter*). The prefix *re-* in verbs has the generalized meaning of "doing something anew" (*(to) rewrite*, *(to) reconstruct*, *(to) review*).

To purely grammatical morphemes belong auxiliary verbs (free grammatical morphemes) and inflexions (bound grammatical morphemes). Grammatical morphemes are deprived of any lexical meaning, they only signal some grammatical meaning (of number, case, degree of comparison, tense, aspect, etc.), e.g.: *boys, boy's*, *smaller*, *looked*, *will come*. To the bound grammatical morphemes grammarians also refer the so-called "inner-morphemes" and "zero-morphemes".

3. Concepts of "Allo-emic Theory". Distributional Analysis and its Application to the Morphemic Level

Further insights into the correlation between the formal and functional aspects of morphemes within the composition of the word may be gained in the light of the so-called "allo-emic" theory put forward by Descriptive Linguistics and broadly used in the current linguistic research.

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 generalised invariant units of language characterised by a certain functional status: phonemes, morphemes. Allo-terms denote the concrete manifestations, or variants of the generalised units dependent on the regular co-location with other elements of language: allophones, allomorphs.

The allo-emic identification of lingual elements is achieved by means of the so-called "distributional analysis". The immediate aim of the distributional analysis is to fix and study the units of language in relation to their textual environments, i.e. the adjoining elements in the text. The environment of a unit may be either "right" or "left", *e.g.: un-pardon-able*.

In this word the left environment of the root is the negative prefix *un-,* the right environment of the root is the qualitative suffix *-able.* Respectively, the root *-pardon-* is the right environment for the prefix, and the left environment for the suffix.

The distribution of a unit may be defined as the total of all its environments; in other words, the distribution of a unit is its environment in generalised terms of classes or categories.

In the distributional analysis on the morphemic level, phonemic distribution of morphemes and morphemic distribution of morphemes are discriminated. The study is conducted in two stages.

At the first stage, the analysed text (i.e. the collected lingual materials, or "corpus") is divided into recurrent segments consisting of phonemes. These segments are called "morphs", i.e. morphemic units distributionally uncharacterised, e.g.: *the/boat/s/were/gain/ing/speed*.

At the second stage, the environmental features of the morphs are established and the corresponding identifications are effected.

Three main types of distribution are discriminated in the distributional analysis, namely, 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. For instance, the suffixes *-(e)d* and *-ing* in the verb-forms *returned, returning*. The morphs are said to be in non-contrastive distribution (or free alternation) if their meaning (function) is the same. Such morphs constitute "free alternants", or "free variants" of the same morpheme. For instance, the suffixes *-(e)d* and *-t* in the verb-forms *learned, learnt.*

As different from the above, complementary distribution concerns different environments of formally different morphs which are united by the same meaning (function). If two or more morphs have the same meaning and the difference in their form is explained by different environments, these morphs are said to be in complementary distribution and considered the allomorphs of the same morpheme. For instance, the allomorphs of the plural morpheme /-s/, /-z/, /-iz/ (*desks*, *girls*, *glasses*), which stand in phonemic complementary distribution; the plural

allomorph *-en* in *oxen, children,* which stands in morphemic complementary distribution with the other allomorphs of the plural morpheme.

As we see, for analytical purposes the notion of complementary distribution is the most important, because it helps establish the identity of outwardly altogether different elements of language, in particular, its grammatical elements.

As a result of the application of distributional analysis to the morphemic level, different types of morphemes have been discriminated, which can be called the "distributional morpheme types". It must be stressed that the distributional classification of morphemes cannot abolish or in any way depreciate the traditional morpheme types. Rather, it supplements the traditional classification, showing some essential features of morphemes on the principles of environmental study.

We shall survey the distributional morpheme types arranging them in pairs of immediate correlation.

On the basis of the degree of self-dependence, "free" morphemes and "bound" morphemes are distinguished. Bound morphemes cannot form words by themselves, they are identified only as component segmental parts of words. As different from this, free morphemes can build up words by themselves, i.e. can be used "freely".

For instance, in the word *handful* the root *hand* is a free morpheme, while the suffix *-ful* is a bound morpheme.

There are very few productive bound morphemes in the morphological system of English. Being extremely narrow, the list of them is complicated by the relations of homonymy. These morphemes are the following:

1) the segments *-(e)s* [-z, -s, -ɪz]: the plural of nouns, the possessive case of nouns, the third person singular present of verbs;
2) the segments *-(e)d* [-d, -t, -ɪd]: the past and past participle of verbs;
3) the segments *-ing:* the gerund and present participle;
4) the segments *-er, -est:* the comparative and superlative degrees of adjectives and adverbs.

The auxiliary word-morphemes of various standings should be interpreted in this connection as "semi-bound" morphemes, since, being used as separate elements of speech strings, they form categorial unities with their notional stem-words.

Questions and assignments for reflection:

1. What is the subject matter of morphology?
2. Resume the cited thought: "The definition of the word is one of the most formidable tasks in linguistics because …" Give your own operational definition of the *word*.
3. What is a *morpheme*? Analyze the typology of morphemes according to the principles of their classification.
4. What is the essence of **"**allo-emic theory**"?**
5. What is the purpose of the distributional analysis? What terms appeared due to the distributional analysis?

Lecture 3. CATEGORIAL STRUCTURE OF THE WORD

Aim: to introduce rendering of correspondence between "grammatical meaning" and "grammatical form"; to investigate the main concepts of oppositional theory, its generalities; to describe the types of grammatical opposition; to reveal the essence of such lingual phenomenon as "oppositional reduction"; to present the typology of oppositional reduction; to define means employed for building up member-forms of categorical oppositions.

List of Issues Discussed:

1. Rendering of Correspondence between "Grammatical Meaning" and "Grammatical Form".
2. Oppositional Theory. General Notions. Types of Grammatical Opposition.
3. Oppositional Reduction and its Types.
4. Means employed for building up Member-forms of Categorical Oppositions.

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Key notions: grammatical meaning, morphological meaning, grammatical form, grammatical category, paradigm, paradigmatic series, oppositional theory, private opposition, gradual opposition, equipollent opposition, marked member, unmarked member, oppositional reduction, oppositional substitution, oppositional transposition, inner inflexion, outer inflexion, suppletivity.

1. Rendering of Correspondence between "Grammatical Meaning" and "Grammatical Form"

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

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

For instance, the meaning of the substantive plural is rendered by the regular plural suffix -(e)s, and in some cases by other, more specific means, such as phonemic interchange and a few lexeme-bound suffixes: faces, branches, books, wives, thieves, leaves; feet, geese, men, women; oxen, children, brethren; data, errata, strata, addenda, memoranda; crises, bases, analyses, axes; phenomena, criteria; sheep, deer etc.

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

2. Oppositional Theory. General Notions. Types of Grammatical Opposition

The most general notions reflecting the most general properties of phenomena are referred to as "categorial notions", or "categories". 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 themselves are identified within definite paradigmatic series.

The grammatical category is a system of expressing a generalised 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 the so-called "grammatical oppositions". The opposition (in the linguistic sense) may be defined as a generalised correlation of lingual forms by means of which a certain function is expressed. The correlated elements (members) of the opposition must possess two types of features: common features and differential features. Common features serve as the basis of contrast, while differential features immediately express the function in question.

The oppositional theory was originally formulated as a phonological theory. Three main qualitative types of oppositions were established in phonology: "privative", "gradual", and "equipollent". The same three main qualitative types of oppositions are exposed in morphology.

By the number of members contrasted, oppositions are divided into binary (two members) and more than binary (ternary, quaternary, etc.).

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

The binary privative morphological opposition is formed by a contrastive pair of members in which one member is characterised by the presence of a certain morphological differential feature ("mark"), while the other member is characterised by the absence of this feature. The member in which the feature is present is called the "marked", or "strong", or "positive" member, and is commonly designated by the symbol + (plus); the member in which the feature is

absent is called the "unmarked", or "weak", or "negative" member, and is commonly designated by the symbol – (minus).

For instance, the nounal form *cats* expresses the seme of plurality, as opposed to the form *cat* which expresses, by contrast, the seme of singularity. The two forms constitute a privative opposition in which the plural is the marked member. In order to stress the negative marking of the singular, it can be referred to as "non-plural". It should be noted that the designation of the weak members of privative morphological oppositions by the "non-" terms is significant not only from the point of view of the plane of expression, but also from the point of view of the plane of content. It is connected with the fact that the meaning of the weak member of the privative opposition is more general and abstract as compared with the meaning of the strong member, which is, respectively, more particular and concrete. Due to this difference in meaning, the weak member is used in a wider range of contexts than the strong member.

Gradual oppositions in morphology are not generally recognised; in principle, they can be identified as a minor type on the semantic level only. The gradual morphological opposition is formed by a contrastive group of members which are distinguished not by the presence or absence of a certain morphological feature, but by the degree of it.

An example of the gradual morphological opposition can be seen in the category of comparison: "*strong* :: *stronger* :: *strongest*".

Equipollent oppositions in the system of English morphology constitute a minor type and are mostly confined to formal relations only.

An example of such an opposition can be seen in the correlation of the person forms of the verb *be*: "*am* :: *are* :: *is*".

Both equipollent and gradual oppositions in morphology can be reduced to privative oppositions within the framework of an oppositional presentation of some categorial system as a whole.

3. Oppositional Reduction and its Types

In various contextual conditions, one member of an opposition can be used in the position of the other, counter-member. This phenomenon should be treated under the heading of "oppositional reduction" or "oppositional substitution".

The first version of the term ("reduction") points out the fact that the opposition in this case is contracted, losing its formal distinctive force.

The second version of the term ("substitution") shows the very process by which the opposition is reduced, namely, the use of one member instead of the other.

By way of example, let us consider the following case of the singular noun-subject "*man*" in the following sentence:

Man conquers nature.

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

Consider another example: Tonight we *start* for London.

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

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

Alongside of the neutralising reduction of oppositions there exists another kind of reduction, by which one of the members of the opposition is placed in contextual conditions uncommon for it; in other words, the said reductional use of the form is stylistically marked.

E.g.: That man *is* constantly *complaining* of something.

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

This kind of oppositional reduction should be considered under the heading of "transposition". Transposition takes place in cases where one member of the opposition preserves to a certain extent its original functional meaning alongside the meaning of its counterpart; the two functional meanings are actually combined. This type of oppositional reduction is stylistically marked. Because of the combination of meanings and the additional stylistic colouring created, transposition can be treated as a grammatical mechanism of figurativeness, or a grammatical metaphor. In most cases it happens when the strong member of the opposition is used with the meaning of the weak one. E.g.: *the waters of the ocean*, *the sands of the desert* – the plural, the strong member of the number category opposition, is used instead of the singular, the weak member.

4. Means employed for building up Member-forms of Categorical Oppositions

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

Synthetical grammatical forms are realised by the inner morphemic composition of the word, while analytical grammatical forms are built up by a combination of at least two words, one of which is a grammatical auxiliary (word-morpheme), and the other, a word of "substantial" meaning. Synthetical grammatical forms are based on inner inflexion, outer inflexion, and suppletivity; hence, the forms are referred to as inner-inflexional, outer-inflexional, and suppletive.

Inner inflexion, or phonemic (vowel) interchange inside the root, is not productive in modern Indo-European languages, but it is peculiarly employed in some of their basic, most ancient lexemic elements. Since the corresponding oppositions of forms are based on phonemic interchange, the initial paradigmatic form of each lexeme should also be considered as inflexional.

E.g.: "take – took – taken", "drive – drove – driven", "keep – kept – kept";
"(a) man – men", "(a) brother – brethren", "(a) goose – geese";
"five – (the) fifth".

Suppletivity, like inner inflexion, is not productive as a purely morphological type of form. It is based on the correlation of different roots as a means of paradigmatic differentiation. In other words, it consists in the grammatical interchange of word roots, and this unites it in principle with inner inflexion (or, rather, makes the latter into a specific variety of the former). Suppletivity is used in the forms of the verbs *be* and *go,* in the irregular forms of the degrees of comparison, in some forms of personal pronouns.

E.g.: "be – am – are"; "is – was, were"; "go – went"; "good – better"; "bad – worse"; "more – much"; "little – less"; "I – me"; "we – us"; "she – her".

In a broader morphological interpretation, suppletivity can be recognized in paradigmatic correlations of some modal verbs, some indefinite pronouns, as well as certain nouns of peculiar categorical properties (lexemic suppletivity). *E.g.:* "can – be able"; "must – have (to), be obliged (to)"; "may – be allowed (to)"; "one – some"; "man – people"; "news – items of news"; "information – pieces of information".

Outer inflexion is formed with the help of adding grammatical suffixes to the stems of the words, e.g.: "cat – cats"; "go – goes"; "work – worked"; "small – smaller".

Analytical forms are so typical of modern English. The traditional view of the analytical morphological form recognizes two lexemic parts in it, stating that it presents a combination of an auxiliary word with a basic word. However, there is a tendency with some linguists to recognize as analytical not all such grammatically significant combinations, but only those of them that are "grammatically idiomatic", i.e. whose relevant grammatical meaning is not immediately dependent on the meanings of their component elements taken apart. Considered in this light, the form of the verbal perfect where the auxiliary "*have*" has utterly lost its

original meaning of possession, is interpreted as the most standard and indisputable analytical form in English morphology. Its opposite is seen in the analytical degrees of comparison which, according to the cited interpretation, come very near to free combinations of words by their lack of "idiomatism" in the above sense.

Alongside of the classical analytical forms of verbal perfect or continuous, such analytical forms should also be discriminated as the analytical infinitive *(go – to go),* the analytical verbal person (verb plus personal pronoun), the analytical degrees of comparison of both positive and negative varieties *(more important – less important),* as well as some other, still more unconventional form-types.

Questions and assignments for reflection:

1. What is the *grammatical meaning*? Is there any difference between grammatical and lexical meanings?
2. What is a *grammatical form*?
3. What is the grammatical category?
4. The *opposition* in linguistic sense may be defined as … .
5. What kinds of oppositions are there in morphology?
6. Reveal the *oppositional reduction* as a grammar phenomenon. Analyze its two types: *neutralization of opposition* and *transposition*.
7. What are analytical, synthetical and suppletive grammatical forms of the word? Give the examples in order to illustrate these grammatical phenomena in Modern English, Ukrainian and Russian.

Lecture 4. GRAMMATICAL CLASSES OF WORDS

Aim: to analyze scientific approaches to the classification of parts of speech suggested by prescriptive grammarians and non-structural descriptive grammarians; to reveal the principles of classification as used by structural descriptive grammarians; to introduce the concepts of he classification of words in post-structural traditional grammar; to study the criteria of classification of words into parts of speech; to dispose the general description of the features of parts of speech on the bases of semantic, formal and functional criteria.

List of Issues Discussed:

1. Parts of Speech and Approaches to their Classification suggested by Prescriptive Grammarians and Non-Structural Descriptive Grammarians.
2. Principles of Classification as Used by Structural Descriptive Grammarians.
3. The Classification of Words in Post-Structural Traditional Grammar.
4. Notional and Functional Parts of Speech. General Description of their Features on the Bases of Semantic, Formal and Functional Criteria.

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Key notions: declinables, indeclinables, the methods of distributional analysis and substitution, semantic criterion, formal criterion, functional criterion, grammatical combinability, part of speech, notional part of speech, functional part of speech.

1. Parts of Speech and Approaches to their Classification suggested by Prescriptive Grammarians and Non-Structural Descriptive Grammarians

Prescriptive grammarians, who treated Latin as an ideal language, described English in terms of Latin forms and Latin grammatical constraints.

Similar to Latin, words in English were divided into declinables (nouns, adjectives, pronouns, verbs, participles) and indeclinables (adverbs, prepositions, conjunctions, interjections, articles). The number of parts of speech varied from author to author: in early grammars nouns and adjectives formed one part of speech; later they came to be treated as two different parts of speech. The same applies to participles, which were either a separate part of speech or part of the verb. The article was first classed with the adjective. Later it was given the status of a part of speech and toward the end of the 19th century the article was integrated into the adjective. The underlying principle of classification was morphologic and syntactic form, of the word.

Non-structural descriptive grammarians adopted the system of parts of speech worked out by prescriptivists and elaborated it further. Henry Sweet, similar to his predecessors, divided words into declinable and indeclinable.

To declinables he attributed noun-words (noun, noun-pronoun, noun-numeral, infinitive, gerund), adjective-words (adjective, adjective-pronoun, adjectivenumeral, participle), verb (finite verb), verbals (infinitive, gerund, participle) and to indeclinables (particles), adverb, preposition, conjunction,

interjection. Henry Sweet speaks of three principles of classification: form, meaning, and function. However, the results of his classification reveal a considerable divergence between theory and practice: the division of the parts of speech into declinable and indeclinable is a division based on form. Only within the class can we see the operation of the principle of function.

Otto Jespersen, another well-known descriptivist, also speaks of three principles of classification: "In my opinion everything should be kept in view, form, function and meaning...". On the basis of the three criteria, the scholar distinguishes the following parts of speech: substantives, adjectives, pronouns, verbs, and particles (adverbs, prepositions, conjunctions, interjections).

Although Non-structural descriptive grammarians spoke of form, function and meaning, in practice they gave preference to form.

2. Principles of Classification as Used by Structural Descriptive Grammarians

The traditional classification of words into parts of speech was rejected by structural grammarians who bitterly criticized it from two points. First, in their opinion, traditional grammar relies heavily on the most subjective element in language, meaning. The other is that it uses different criteria of classification: it distinguishes the noun, the verb and the interjection on the basis of meaning; the adjective, the adverb, the pronoun, and the conjunction, on the basis of function, and the preposition, partly on function and partly on form. One of the noted representatives of American structuralism, Charles Fries, rejected the traditional principle of classification of words into parts of speech replacing it with the methods of distributional analysis and substitution. Words that exhibit the same distribution (which is the set of contexts, i.e. immediate linguistic environments, in which a word can appear) belong to the same class. Roughly speaking, the distribution of a word is the position of a word in the sentence. To classify the words of English, Charles Fries used three sentences called substitution frames. He thought that the positions, or the slots, in the sentences were sufficient for the purpose of the classification of all the words of the English language.

Frame A: The concert was good.
Frame B: The clerk remembered the tax.
Frame C: The team went there.

The position discussed first is that of the word *concert*. Words that can substitute for *concert* (e.g. food, coffee, taste, etc.) are Class 1 words. The same holds good for words that can substitute for *clerk*, *tax* and *team* – these are typical positions of Class 1 words.

The next important position is that of *was*, *remembered* and *went*; words that can substitute for them are called Class 2 words.

The next position is that of *good*. Words that can substitute for good are Class 3 words. The last position is that of *there*; words that can fill this position are called Class 4 words.

According to the scholar's view, these four parts of speech contain about 67 per cent of the total instances of the vocabulary. He also distinguishes 15 groups of function words set up by the same process of substitution but on different patterns. These function words (numbering 154 in all) make up a third of the recorded material. Charles Fries does not use the traditional terminology. To understand his function words better, we shall use, where possible, their traditional names: Group A words (determiners); Group B (modal verbs); Group C (the negative particle "not"); Group D (adverbs of degree); Group E (coordinating conjunctions); Group F (prepositions); Group G (the auxiliary verb "to") Group H (the introductory "there"); Group I (interrogative pronouns and adverbs); Group J (subordinating conjunctions); Group K (interjections); Group L (the words "yes" and "no"); Group M (the so-called attention-giving signals: look, say, listen); Group N (the word "please"); Group O (the forms "let us", "lets" in request sentences). It will be obvious that in classifying words into word-classes Charles Fries in fact used the principle of function, or combinability (the position of a word in the sentence is the syntactic function of word). Being a structuralist, he would not speak of function: function is meaning while position is not. His classification is not beyond criticism, because, first, not all relevant positions were tested; second, his functional classes are very much 'splintered', i.e. broken into small groups; third, being deprived of meaning, his word-classes are "faceless", i.e. they have no character.

3. The Classification of Words in Post-Structural Traditional Grammar

In post-structural linguistics parts of speech are discriminated on the basis of three criteria: semantic, formal and functional. The lexemes of a part of speech are united by their meaning. This meaning is a category-forming one. Therefore, it is referred to as categorical meaning. Lexemes that have the meaning of substance or thingness are nouns, those having the meaning of property are adjectives; those having the meaning of process are verbs; those having the meaning of circumstantial property are adverbs. As categorical meaning is derived from lexemes, it is often called lexico-grammatical meaning. In the surface, lexico-grammatical meaning finds outward expression. For instance, the meaning of substance, or thingness, is realized by the following lexico-grammatical morphemes:-*er*,-*ist*,-*ness*,-*ship*, -*men*t. It is also realized by specific grammatical forms constituting the grammatical categories of number and case. These outward features are a formal criterion of classification. The functional criterion concerns the syntactic role of a word in the sentence.

In accordance with the said criteria, we can classify the words of the English language into notional and functional.

To the notional parts of speech belong the noun, the adjective, the numeral, the verb, and the adverb. To the functional parts of speech belong the article, the pronoun, the preposition, the conjunction, the particle, the modal words, and the interjection.

The notional parts of speech present open classes while the functional parts of speech present closed classes, i.e. the number of items constituting the notional word-classes is not limited while the number of items constituting the functional

word-classes is limited and can be given by the list. This distinction is to some extent reflected in the phenomenon of substitution: notional words usually have substitutes, e.g.:

I saw a cat in the street. – It was shivering with cold.
He gave me an interesting book. – He gave me this book.
John has ten friends. – John has many friends.
He speaks English better than you do. She lay down. Her eyes closed. It was thus (i.e. in this manner) *that Robert saw her.*

The lexical meaning of functional words is usually so week and general that these words can hardly be replaced by substitutes, words whose meaning is even more general. Function words have other roles in the language: their duty is to 'service' the notional words by restricting the reference of a notional word (the article), by substituting for them (the pronoun), by expressing a relation between notional words or predications (the preposition and the conjunction), by intensifying the meaning of a notional word (the particle). As for the modal words and interjections, they function as restricters of predications: modal words help to remove the directness of a statement or express the presence or absence of an obligation and interjections serve to colour our statement emotionally. Consider a few examples:

A

The dog is man's best friend (the dog refers to the whole class).
I need a dog (a dog refers to an unspecified member of the class).
I saw a dog running across the street (a dog refers to a specific, i.e. concrete member of the class).
The dog came to our house again (the dog refers to a particular member of the class: you know what dog I'm talking about).

B

He was a member of a famous golf club.
I came here 1972 and I have lived here ever since.

C

Even Anthony enjoyed it.
The video is to be used for teaching purposes only.

D

There are perhaps fifty women here.
If nothing is done, there will certainly be an economic crisis.

E

"He refused to marry her the next day!" "Oh!" said Scarlett, her hopes dashed
(M. Mitchell).
Oh dear, I'm late.

It will be obvious that the system of English parts of speech as presented here is not the only one possible. All depends on which feature we want to base our classification. So, for instance, if the classifying criterion is the variability of a

form, we shall have to unite prepositions, conjunctions, interjections and particles into one class (cf. H. Sweet's and O. Jespersen's classifications). If we classify words in accordance with the criterion of meaning, we shall distinguish only four word-classes: nouns, adjectives, verbs and adverbs. Besides, linguists do not agree on the number of features needed to distinguish a part of speech.

Of all the parts of speech, the noun and the verb are the most important: they form the nucleus of the sentence, i.e. a subject-predicate structure. However, of the two parts of speech, the central role in the sentence is played by the verb: it is 'responsible' for both its meaning and structure. Consider the verb *break*. The verb expresses a 'doing' situation. This type of situation typically includes the following obligatory participants: *Agent*, *Affected* (Patient):

Peter (*Agent*) broke (*Process*) the window (*Affected*).

Thus the meaning of this sentence is the situation as represented by the *Agent* Peter, the *Process* broke and the *Affected* the window. Syntactically, the *Agent* here is the Subject, the *Process* the Predicate and the *Affected* the Objective Complement.

It should be stressed, however, that the number of constituents in the semantic structure and the syntactic structure may not coincide: the context and the paradigmatic properties of a linguistic unit may render the use of a constituent redundant. Consider a few examples:

Who broke the window? Peter vs. *(You) get out of here!*

The verb does not only shape the semantic and syntactic structures but also expresses grammatical information, without which the sentence would only have a propositional structure.

Peter broke the window (sentence) – *Peter* + *break* + *the window* (proposition).

The grammatical information which turns a proposition into a sentence is: person, number, tense, aspect, voice, mood, order.

We should not underestimate the role of the noun: in the semantic (propositional) structure the noun performs the role of a participant; in the syntactic structure the noun is a constituent. In other words, in both types of structure the noun serves as a building-block. Although it is the verb that is responsible for the form of the sentence, the noun makes its own contribution: it determines the person and the number of the verb. E.g.:

The student is in the lecture-room vs. *The students are in the lecture room.*

The remaining notional parts of speech – the adjective, the numeral and the adverb are satellites of the noun (adjective, numeral) and the verb (adverb): they serve as their restricters, or concretisers. As for the functional parts of speech, some serve as satellites of the noun (article, pronoun, preposition), others serve as

satellites of the verb (modal words, interjections). Some functional parts of speech – the conjunction, the particle – serve two masters – the noun and the verb.

4. Notional and Functional Parts of Speech. General Description of their Features on the Bases of Semantic, Formal and Functional Criteria

As it has been mentioned above the words of a language, depending upon various formal and semantic features, are divided into grammatical classes (sets) which are traditionally called "parts of speech".

In modern linguistics parts of speech are distinguished on the basis of the following main criteria: semantic, formal and functional (on the level of the sentence and word combination). Grammatical combinability of words in word combinations is also taken into consideration.

The semantic criterion presupposes the evaluation of the general implicit lexico-grammatical meaning (i.e., the meaning of "thingness" (substance) for nouns, the meaning of "action, process" for verbs, etc.), which is characteristic of all the words constituting a given part of speech.

The formal criterion reveals some specific inflexional and word-building (derivational) features of the words constituting an analyzed part of speech (for instance, we often can easily identify the noun by its derivational suffixes, such as *-dom*, *-hood*, *ship*, *-(i)ty*, etc.) even if we don't know the meaning of a word).

The functional criterion concerns the syntactic function of words in the sentence typical of this or that part of speech.

Grammatical combinability may be illustrated by the patterns of the following types: *left- and right-hand combinability*, *left-hand combinability* and *zero combinability* (i.e., the noun is characterized by its left- and right-hand combinability with verbs and adjectives, left-hand combinability with articles and zero combinability with adverbs).

In accord with the criteria mentioned above the words of Modern English are classified into notional and functional ones.

It is commonly recognized that the notional parts of speech are nouns, pronouns, numerals, verbs, adjectives, adverbs; the rest of the parts of speech belong to the so-called functional and semi-functional parts of speech.

In accord with the described criteria (*semantic*, *formal* and *functional*) each notional part of speech possesses the set of features.

Thus, *the features of the noun* within the identificational triad "meaning – form – function" are, correspondingly, the following: 1) the categorial meaning of substance ("thingness"); 2) the changeable forms of number and case; the specific suffixal forms of derivation (prefixes in English do not discriminate parts of speech as such); 3) the substantive functions in the sentence (subject, object, substantival predicative); prepositional connections; modification by an adjective.

The features of the adjective: 1) the categorial meaning of property (qualitative and relative); 2) the forms of the degrees of comparison (for qualitative

adjectives); the specific suffixal forms of derivation; 3) adjectival functions in the sentence (attribute to a noun, adjectival predicative).

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

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

The features of the verb: 1) the categorial meaning of process (presented in the two upper series of forms, respectively, as finite process and non-finite process); 2) the forms of the verbal categories of person, number, tense, aspect, voice, mood; the opposition of the finite and non-finite forms; 3) the function of the finite predicate for the finite verb; the mixed verbal – other than verbal functions for the non-finite verb.

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

Contrasted against the notional parts of speech are words of incomplete nominative meaning and non-self-dependent, mediatory functions in the sentence. These are functional parts of speech:

The article expresses the specific limitation of the substantive functions.

The preposition expresses the dependencies and interdependences of substantive referents.

The conjunction expresses connections of phenomena.

The particle unites the functional words of specifying and limiting meaning. To this series, alongside of other specifying words, should be referred verbal postpositions as functional modifiers of verbs, etc.

The modal word, occupying in the sentence a more pronounced or less pronounced detached position, expresses the attitude of the speaker to the reflected situation and its parts. Here belong the functional words of probability (probably, perhaps, etc.), of qualitative evaluation (fortunately, unfortunately, luckily, etc.), and also of affirmation and negation.

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

Questions and assignments for reflection:

1. Introduce the principles of classification of parts of speech as used by prescriptive grammarians.
2. Reveal the principles of classification of parts of speech as used by non-structural descriptive grammarians.
3. Decode the principles of classification of parts of speech as used by structural descriptive grammarians. The classification of words according to Charles Fries's view.
4. What is the essence of the classification of words in post-structural traditional grammar?
5. What principles lay in the basis of H. Sweet's classification?
6. What criteria are used in modern linguistics in order to divide words into grammatical classes?
7. In accord with the analyzed criteria introduce the general description of the features the parts of speech possess.

Lecture 5. NOUN

Aim: to analyze the generalities that disclose the nature of the noun according to the semantic, formal and functional criteria; to describe the variants of grammatical combinability; to introduce grammatical category of gender, grammatical category of number and grammatical category of case; to analyze the oppositional description of each of the grammatical categories; to investigate the essence of article determination.

List of Issues Discussed:

1. Noun: Generalities.
2. Noun: Gender.
3. Noun: Number.
4. Noun: Case.
5. Noun: Article Determination.

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Key notions: noun, grammatical combinability, grammatical category of gender, neuter gender, masculine gender, feminine gender, common gender, grammatical category of number, singularia tantum, pluralia tantum, grammatical category of case, theory of positional cases, theory of prepositional cases, limited case theory, postpositional theory, article determination, indefinite article, definite article, zero article, descriptive attribute, limiting attribute.

1. Noun: Generalities

The noun as a part of speech has the categorical meaning of “substance” or “thingness”. It follows from this that the noun is the main nominative part of speech, effecting nomination of the fullest value within the framework of the notional division of the lexicon. The noun has the power, by way of nomination, to isolate different properties of substances (i.e. direct and oblique qualities, and also actions and states as processual characteristics of substantive phenomena) and present them as corresponding self-dependent substances. E.g.:

Her words were unexpectedly *bitter.* – We were struck by the unexpected *bitterness* of her words. At that time he was *down* in his career, but we knew well that very soon he would be *up* again. –

His career had its *ups* and *downs.*

The cable arrived when John was *preoccupied* with the arrangements for the party. – The arrival of the cable interrupted his *preoccupation* with the arrangements for the party.

This natural and practically unlimited substantivisation force establishes the noun as the central nominative lexemic unit of language.

Structurally English nouns may be mono- as well as polysyllabic. The number of monosyllabic nouns in which the root, the stem and the word proper overlap, is quite considerable. Nevertheless, noun-forming derivational means are rather numerous. Grammatically, it is important, since suffixes, besides their semantic function, also serve as part-of-speech indicators.

The suffixational structure is found mainly in two large groups: in personal nouns and in abstract nouns. On the whole, nouns may be derived by means of the following suffixes: *-age*, *-ance/ence*, *-ant/ent*, *-dom*, *-ee*, *-eer*, *-er*, *-ess*, *-hood*, *-ing*, *-ion/sion/tion/ation*, *-ism/icism*, *-ist*, *-ment*, *-ness*, *-ship*, *-(i)ty*. However, only some of them may be called productive in modern English. For instance, personal nouns tend to be derived by means of the suffixes *-er*, *-ist*, *-ess*, *-ee* (e.g. *interpret**er***, *econom**ist***, *poet**ess***, *train**ee***), whereas abstract nouns are, as a rule, coined by adding the suffixes *-ness*, *-ion* (*-ation*, *-ition*), *-ity*, *-ism*, *-ance* and *-ment* (e.g. *kind**ness***, *prohib**ition***, *solidar**ity***, *opportun**ism***, *allow**ance***, *move**ment***).

Nouns may be derived by means of the following prefixes: *a-*, *non-*, *de-*, *dis-*, *mis-*, *mal-*, *pseudo-*, *arch-*, *super-*, *co-*, *pro-*, *inter-*, *ex-* (***a****symmetry*, ***non-****smoker*, ***de****lay*, ***dis****grace*, ***mis****fortune*, ***mal****content*, ***pseudo****intellectual*, ***arch****bishop*, ***super****power*, ***co****incidence*, ***pro****clamation*, ***inter****course*, ***ex****-husband*).

Compounding is a very productive way in word-building, e.g.: *forefinger*, *mother-of-pearl*, *merry-go-round*, *mother tongue*.

The feminist movement which emerged in France in 1970 was inspired with a sort of do-not-put-off-till-tomorrow-the-revolution-you-can-bring-about-today attitude.

It is also noteworthy that English abounds with conversion. In the cases of conversion, the process or shifting a word into a different word class without adding an affix, words of other parts of speech acquire syntactic and morphological properties of nouns in speech. E.g.:

She's thought of renovating him and about the before and after, but not about seeing him walk off with the girl in the crosswalk.

Blending is one of the most beloved of word formation processes in English. It is especially creative in that speakers take two words and merge them based not on morpheme structure but on sound structure. The resulting words are called blends. In blending, part of one word is stitched onto another word, without any regard for where one morpheme ends and another begins. For example, *advertisement + inflation = adflation*; *high + technology = hi-tech*; *International + police = Interpol*. The earliest blends in English go back to the 19th century, with wordplay coinages by Lewis Carroll in Jabberwocky. For example, he introduced to the language "*slithy*", formed from *lithe* and *slimy*, and "galumph" – from *gallop* and *triumph*. It's an interesting fact that *galumph* has survived as a

word in English, but now it means "*walk in a stomping, ungainly way*". Some blends that have been around for quite a while include "*brunch*" (*breakfast + lunch*), "*motel*" (*motor + hotel*), "*electrocute*" (*electric + execute*), "*smog*" (*smoke + fog*) and "*cheeseburger*" (*cheese + hamburger*). These examples of blends go back to the first half of the 20th century. Others, such as "*stagflation*" (*stagnation + inflation*), "*spork*" (*spoon + fork*), and "*carjacking*" (*car + hijacking*) arose since the 1970s.

Some other ways of word formation are also typical for English nouns, such as clipping (it is a shortening of a word by the omission of one or more syllables, e.g.: *bike (bicycle), decaf (decaffeinated coffee)*, *memo (memorandum)*, *pub (public house), maths (mathematics)*); acronyms as an abreviatory device (*ECU* (*European Currency Unit*), *scuba* (*self-contained underwater breathing apparatus*), *email* (*electronic mail*); blends (*camcorder* "*camera+recorder*", *motel* "*motor+hotel*", *smog* "*smoke+fog*", *transistor* "*transfer+resistor*").

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

The cited formal features taken together are relevant for the division of nouns into several subclasses, which are identified by means of explicit classificational criteria. The most general and rigorously delimited subclasses of nouns are grouped into four oppositional pairs. They are the following:

1) The first nounal subclass opposition emerges on the basis of "type of nomination". The oppositional pair differentiates "*proper nouns*" :: "*common nouns*".
2) The second nounal subclass opposition emerges on the basis of "form of existence".

   The oppositional pair differentiates "*animate nouns*" :: "*inanimate nouns*".
3) The third nounal subclass opposition emerges on the basis of "personal quality".

   The oppositional pair differentiates "*human nouns*" :: "*non-human nou*ns".
4) The forth nounal subclass opposition emerges on the basis of "quantitative structure".

   The oppositional pair differentiates "*countable nouns*" :: "*uncountable nouns*".

Somewhat less explicitly and rigorously distinguished is the division of English nouns into "*concrete*" and "*abstract*".

The oppositional pairs mentioned above are not permanently stable. They are influenced by such phenomenon as "oppositional substitution", when one member of the oppositional pair can be used in the position of the other, counter-member. Various contextual conditions, stylistic needs, individual author's intention can be considered as the reasons for so-called "grammatical demolition" within the oppositional pair. This phenomenon will be analysed in some examples given below.

The noun "wind" is an inanimate noun. But it can to be used in the position of its counter-member, i.e. an animate noun, when it creates the personified image: *The wind was whispering the secret of serene happiness.*

The noun "hyena" belongs to the subclass of non-human nouns. But being used in the stylistic function of antonamasia it is transferred into the subclass of human ones: *Hyena* (in stead of Doris) *entered the room.*

The personal name "Byron" can be employed as a common noun also in the condition of antonamasia: *He is the Byron of our days.* Quite opposite situation is possible when a common noun is used instead of a proper name. This transposition is stylistically approved, because antonamasia exposes its main function, i.e. to characterize a person simultaneously with naming him/her: *My Dear Simplicity, let me give you a little respite.*

The noun "hair" that is considered to be the uncountable noun, in some context acquires the property of countability: *There are two hairs in your soup.*

The noun "beauty" belongs to the subclass of abstract nouns. But it can be successfully used in the position of its counter-member, i.e. a concrete noun, when it denotes "a woman who is very beautiful": *We expect our three beauties arrive in time.*

The categorical functional properties of the noun are determined by its semantic properties (the noun denotes thingness and substantiality).

The chief functions of the noun in the sentence are those of the subject and object in the sentence, but the noun may also function as an attribute, as an adverbial modifier (when used with a preposition) or as a predicative:

1. The ***children*** were playing in the yard.
2. I have bought the ***book***.
3. They saw a ***stone*** wall.
4. Yesterday I met him ***in the park***.
5. She is a ***historian***.

• The noun is characterized by some special types of combinability.

Nouns may combine with adjectives (left- and right-hand combinability); with adjectives (left- and right-hand combinability); with verbs (left- and right-hand combinability); with articles (left-hand combinability). The noun is characterized by zero combinability with the adverb and interjection. The described variants of combinability can be shown on the following diagram (see Fig. 2).

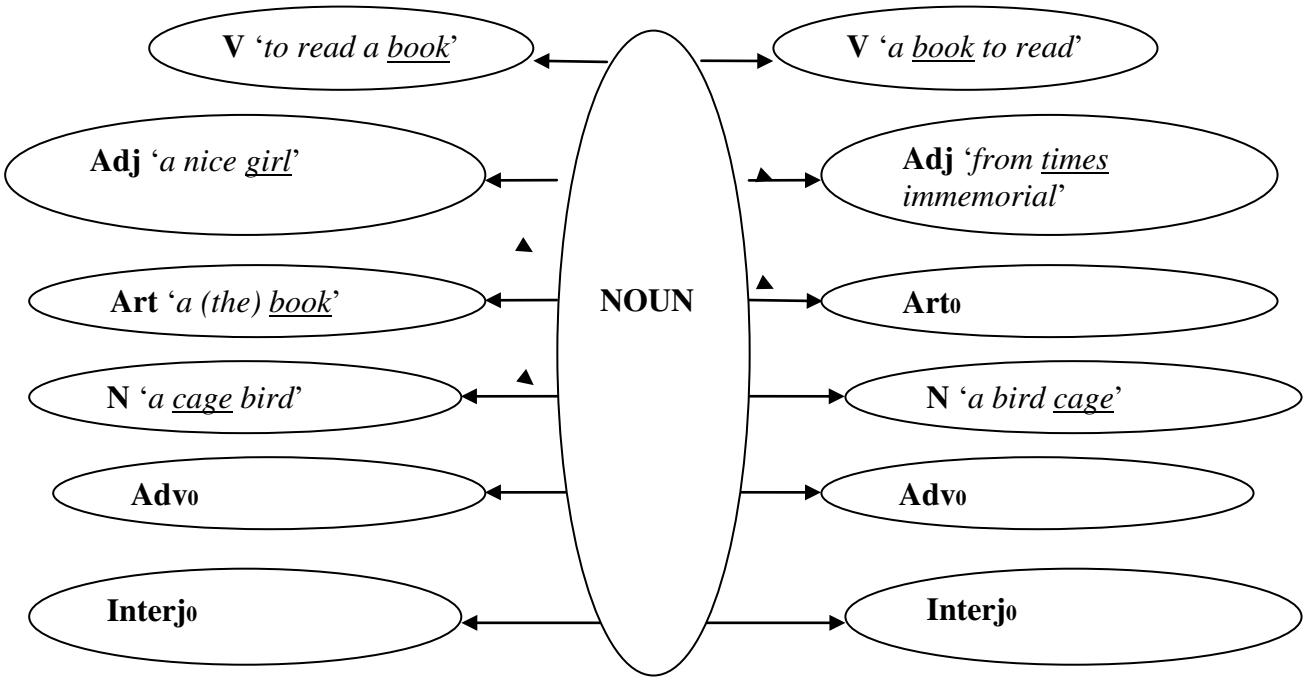

Fig. 2

Typical of the noun is also the prepositional combinability with another noun, a verb, an adjective, an adverb.

Noun1 + Preposition + Noun2 ("*the entrance to the house*")
Verb + Preposition + Noun ("*to turn round the corner*")
Adjective + Preposition + Noun ("*red in the face*")
Adverb + Preposition + Noun ("*far from destination*")

2. Noun: Gender

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

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

One opposition functions in the whole set of nouns, dividing them into person (human) nouns and non-person (non-human) nouns. The first, general opposition can be referred to as the upper opposition in the category of gender. The strong member of the upper opposition is the human subclass of nouns, its sememic mark being "person", or "personality". The weak member of the opposition comprises both inanimate and animate non-person nouns. Here belong such nouns as *rainbow*, *meadow*, *puppy*, *sparrow*, *insect*, *government*, *crowd*, *society*, *joy*, *love*, *water*, *sugar* etc.

The other opposition functions in the subset of person nouns only, dividing them into masculine nouns and feminine nouns. The second, partial opposition can be referred to as the lower opposition in this category. The strong member of the

lower opposition is the feminine subclass of person nouns, its sememic mark being "female sex" (the feminine-gender-forming suffixes such as *-ess*, *-ine* (*-en*, *-in*), *-a* – actress, goddess, heroine, comedienne, donna, sultana –functioning as morphological differential features mark the feminine gender as a strong member of opposition). The masculine subclass of person nouns makes up the weak member of the opposition.

As a result of the double oppositional correlation, a specific system of three genders arises, which is represented by the traditional terminology: the neuter (i.e. non-person) gender, the masculine (i.e. masculine person) gender, the feminine (i.e. feminine person) gender.

The oppositional structure of the category of gender can be shown schematically on the following diagram (see Fig. 3).

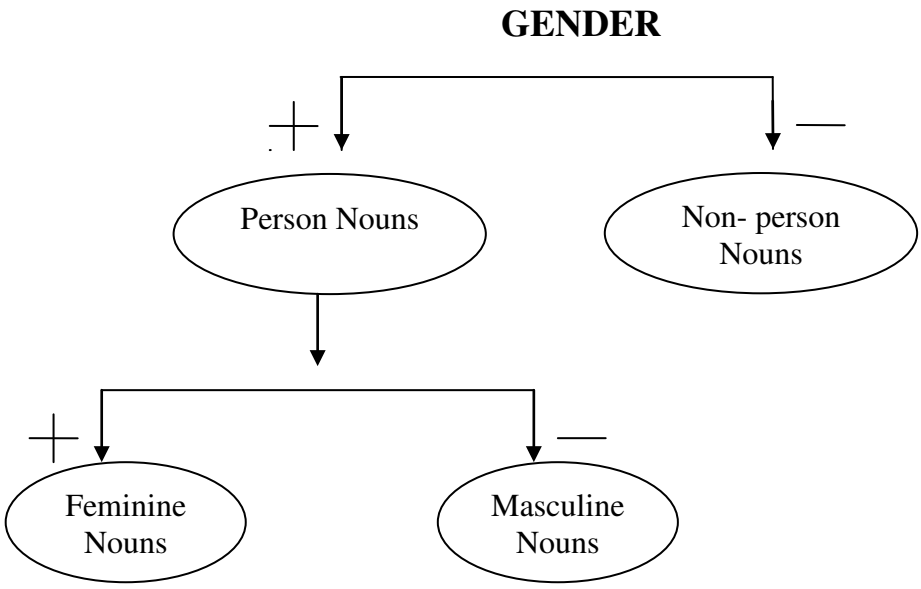

Fig. 3

In cases of oppositional reduction, non-person nouns and their substitute (*"it"*) are naturally used in the position of neutralization.

E.g.: Suddenly *something* moved in the darkness ahead of us. Could *it* be a man, in this desolate place, at this time of night?

A great many person nouns in English are capable of expressing both feminine and masculine person genders by way of the pronominal correlation in question. These are referred to as nouns of the "common gender". Here belong such words as *politician*, *veterinarian*, *musician*, *cousin*, *doctor*, etc.

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

Alongside the demonstrated grammatical (or lexico-grammatical, for that matter) gender distinctions, English nouns can show the sex of their referents lexically, either by means of being combined with certain notional words used as sex indicators, or else by suffixal derivation: *boy-friend*, *girl-friend*; *man-producer*, *woman-producer*; *father-in-law*, *mother-in-law*; *cock-sparrow*, *hen-sparrow*; *he-*

bear, *she-bear*; *actor*, *actress*; *hero*, *heroine*; *executor*, *executrix*; *sultan*, *sultana*; etc.

One might think that this kind of the expression of sex runs contrary to the presented gender system of nouns, since the sex distinctions inherent in the cited pairs of words refer not only to human beings (persons), but also to all the other animate beings. On closer observation, however, we see that this is not at all so. In fact, the referents of such nouns as *jenny-ass,* or *pea-hen,* or the like will in the common use quite naturally be represented as *it,* the same as the referents of the corresponding masculine nouns *jack-ass, pea-cock,* and the like. This kind of representation is different in principle from the corresponding representation of such nounal pairs as *woman – man, sister – brother,* etc.

On the other hand, when the pronominal relation of the non-person animate nouns is turned, respectively, into *he* and *she,* we can speak of a grammatical personifying transposition, very typical of English. Through the figurative use of the personal pronouns the author may achieve metaphorical images and even create sustained compositional metaphors.

Thus using the personal pronoun *she* instead of the word «sea» in one of his best works *The Old Man and the Sea* Ernest Hemingway imparts to this word the category of feminine gender that enables him to bring the feeling of the old man to the sea to a different, more dramatic and more human level.

He always thought of the sea as 'la mar' which is what people call her in Spanish when they love her. Sometimes those who love her say bad things about her but they are always said as though she were a woman. (Hemingway)

In the same book he calls a huge and strong fish a *he:*

He is a great fish and I must convince him, he thought. I must never let flint learn his strength. (Hemingway)

Such recurrent use of these pronouns throughout the novel is charged with the message of the old man's animating the elemental forces of the sea and its inhabitants and the vision of himself as a part of nature. In this case the use of the pronouns becomes a compositional device.

This kind of transposition affects not only animate nouns, but also a wide range of inanimate nouns, being regulated in everyday language by cultural-historical traditions. Compare the reference of *she* with the names of countries, vehicles, weaker animals, etc.; the reference of *he* with the names of stronger animals, the names of phenomena suggesting crude strength and fierceness, etc.

3. Noun: Number

The category of number is expressed by such forms of the noun which formally signal whether the speaker means one object or more than one. The inflexion **-s** is such a signal. The category of number is based on a two-member (binary) opposition of the singular number against the plural number. The strong

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

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

According to the essence of the binary privative opposition the singular form is the unmarked (weak) member of the opposition, while the plural form is the marked (strong) member of the opposition.

The most general quantitative characteristics of individual words constitute the lexico-grammatical base for dividing the nounal vocabulary as a whole into countable nouns and uncountable nouns. The constant categorial feature "quantitative structure" is directly connected with the variable feature "number", since uncountable nouns are treated grammatically as either singular or plural. Namely, the singular uncountable nouns are modified by the non-discrete quantifiers *much* or *little,* and they take the finite verb in the singular, while the plural uncountable nouns take the finite verb in the plural.

The two subclasses of uncountable nouns are usually referred to, respectively, as singularia tantum (only singular) and pluralia tantum (only plural). In terms of oppositions we may say that in the formation of the two subclasses of uncountable nouns the number opposition is "constantly" (lexically) reduced either to the weak member (singularia tantum) or to the strong member (pluralia tantum).

The singularia tantum subclass may also be referred to as the "absolute" singular, and is different from the "common" singular of the countable nouns in that the absolute singular excludes the use of the modifying numeral *one,* as well as the indefinite article.

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

Joy is absolutely necessary for normal human life. – It was *a joy* to see her among us.

Helmets for motor-cycling are nowadays made of plastics instead of *steel.* – Using different modifications of the described method, super-strong *steels* are produced for various purposes.

The lexicalising effect of the correlative number forms (both singular and plural) in such cases is evident, since the categorial component of the referential meaning in each of them is changed from uncountability to countability. Thus, the oppositional reduction is here nullified in a peculiarly lexicalising way, and the full oppositional force of the category of number is rehabilitated.

Common number with uncountable singular nouns can also be expressed by means of combining them with words showing discreteness, such as *a bit* (*a bit of information*), *a piece* (*a piece of furniture*), *an item* (*items of news*).

E.g.: The last two *items of news* were quite sensational. Now I'd like to add one more *bit of information.* You might as well dispense with one or two *pieces of furniture* in the hall.

This kind of rendering the grammatical meaning of common number with uncountable nouns is, in due situational conditions, so regular that it can be regarded as special suppletivity in the categorical system of number.

On the other hand, the absolute singular can be used countable nouns. In such cases the nouns are taken to express either the corresponding abstract ideas, or else the meaning of some mass-material correlated with its countable referent. E.g.:

Waltz is a lovely dance. There was dead *desert* all around them.
The refugees needed *shelter.*
Have we got *chicken* for the second course?

Under this heading comes also the generic use of the singular. E.g.:

Man's immortality lies in his deeds.
Wild *elephant* in the Jungle can be very dangerous.

In the sphere of the plural, likewise, we must recognise the common plural form as the regular feature of countability, and the absolute plural form peculiar to the uncountable subclass of pluralia tantum nouns. The absolute plural, as different from the common plural, cannot directly combine with numerals, and only occasionally does it combine with discrete quantifiers *(many*, *few*, etc.).

The absolute plural is characteristic of the uncountable nouns which denote objects consisting of two halves (*trousers*, *scissors*, *tongs*, *spectacles,* etc.), the nouns expressing some sort of collective meaning, i.e. rendering the idea of indefinite plurality, both concrete and abstract (*supplies*, *outskirts*, *clothes*, *parings*; *tidings*, *earnings*, *contents, politics*; *police*, *cattle*, *poultry*, etc.), the nouns denoting some diseases as well as some abnormal states of the body and mind (*measles*, *rickets*, *mumps*, *creeps*, *hysterics*, etc.). As is seen from the examples, from the point of view of number as such, the absolute plural forms can be divided

into set absolute plural (objects of two halves) and non-set absolute plural (the rest).

The necessity of expressing definite numbers in cases of uncountable pluralia tantum nouns has brought about different suppletive combinations specific to the plural form of the noun, which exist alongside of the suppletive combinations specific to the singular form of the noun shown above. Here belong collocations with such words as *a pair* (*a pair of pincers*, *three pairs of bathing trunks*), *a set* (*two sets of dice*), *a group* (*a few groups of police*) and some others.

The absolute plural, by way of functional oppositional reduction, can be represented in countable nouns having the form of the singular, in uncountable nouns having the form of the plural, and also in countable nouns having the form of the plural.

The first type of reduction, consisting in the use of the absolute plural with countable nouns in the singular form, concerns collective nouns, which are thereby changed into "nouns of multitude". E.g.:

The family were gathered round the table.

The government are unanimous in disapproving the move of the opposition.

This form of the absolute plural may be called "multitude plural".

The second type of the described oppositional reduction, consisting in the use of the absolute plural with uncountable nouns in the plural form, concerns cases of stylistic marking of nouns. Thus, the oppositional reduction results in expressive transposition. E.g.: *the sands of the desert*; *the snows of the Arctic*; *the waters of the ocean*; *the fruits of the toil*.

This variety of the absolute plural may be called "descriptive uncountable plural".

The third type of oppositional reduction concerns common countable nouns used in repetition groups. The acquired implication is indefinitely large quantity intensely presented. The nouns in repetition groups may themselves be used either in the plural ("featured" form) or in the singular ("unfeatured" form). E.g.:

There were *trees and trees* all around us.

I lit *cigarette after cigarette.*

This variety of the absolute plural may be called "repetition plural". It can be considered as a peculiar analytical form in the marginal sphere of the category of number.

4. Noun: Case

Case is the immanent morphological category of the noun manifested in the forms of noun declension and showing the relations of the nounal referent to other objects and phenomena. Thus, the case form of the noun is a morphological-declensional form. This category is expressed in English by the opposition of the

form in *-'s* [-z, -s, -iz], usually called the "possessive" case, or more traditionally, the "genitive" case, to the unfeatured form of the noun, usually called the "common" case. The apostrophised -s serves to distinguish in writing the singular noun in the genitive case from the plural noun in the common case. E.g.*: the man's duty*, *the President's decision*, *Max's letter*, *the boy's ball*, *the clerk's promotion*, *the Empress's jewels*.

In the course of linguistic investigation the category of case in English has become one of the vexed problems of theoretical discussion. Four special views advanced at various times by different scholars should be considered as successive stages in the analysis of the problem of number of cases in English.

The first view may be called the "theory of positional cases". This theory is directly connected with the old grammatical tradition, and its traces can be seen in many contemporary text-books for school in the English-speaking countries. Linguistic formulations of the theory, with various individual variations may be found in the works of M. Bryant, M. Deutschbein, J. C. Nesfield and other scholars.

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

The nominative case (subject to a verb): *Rain* falls.
The vocative case (address): Are you coming, my *friend?*
The dative case (indirect object to a verb): I gave *John* a penny.
The accusative case (direct object, and also object to a preposition): The man killed a *rat.*
The earth is moistened by *rain.*

It should be mentioned that the fallacy of the positional case theory is quite obvious. The cardinal blunder of this view is, that it substitutes the functional characteristics of the part of the sentence for the morphological features of the word class, since the case form, by definition, is the variable morphological form of the noun. In reality, the case forms as such serve as means of expressing the functions of the noun in the sentence, and not vice versa. Thus, what the described view does do on the positive lines, is that within the confused conceptions of form and meaning, it still rightly illustrates the fact that the functional meanings rendered by cases can be expressed in language by other grammatical means, in particular, by word-order.

The second view may be called the "theory of prepositional cases". Like the theory of positional cases, it is also connected with the old school grammar

teaching, and was advanced as a logical supplement to the positional view of the case.

In accord with the prepositional theory, combinations of nouns with prepositions in certain object and attributive collocations should be understood as morphological case forms. To these belong first of all the "dative" case (to+Noun, *for*+Noun) and the "genitive" case *(of*+Noun). These prepositions, according to G. Curme, are "inflexional prepositions", i.e. grammatical elements equivalent to case-forms.

The prepositional theory, though somewhat better grounded than the positional theory, nevertheless can hardly pass a serious linguistic trial. As is well known from noun-declensional languages, all their prepositions, and not only some of them, do require definite cases of nouns (prepositional case-government); this fact, together with a mere semantic observation of the role of prepositions in the phrase, shows that any preposition by virtue of its functional nature stands in essentially the same general grammatical relations to nouns. It should follow from this that not only the *of-, to-,* and *for*-phrases, but also all the other prepositional phrases in English must be regarded as "analytical cases". As a result of such an approach illogical redundancy in terminology would arise: each prepositional phrase would bear then another, additional name of "prepositional case", the total number of the said "cases" running into dozens upon dozens without any gain either to theory or practice.

The third view of the English noun case recognises a limited inflexional system of two cases in English, one of them featured and the other one unfeatured. This view may be called the "limited case theory". The limited case theory is at present most broadly accepted among linguists both in this country and abroad. It was formulated by such scholars as O. Jespersen, H. Sweet, and has since been radically developed by the Soviet scholars L. S. Barkhudarov, A. I. Smirnitsky and others.

The limited case theory in its modern presentation is based on the explicit oppositional approach to the recognition of grammatical categories. In the system of the English case the functional mark is defined, which differentiates the two case forms: the possessive or genitive form as the strong member of the categorial opposition and the common, or "non-genitive" form as the weak member of the categorial opposition. The opposition is shown as being effected in full with animate nouns, though a restricted use with inanimate nouns is also taken into account.

The fourth view of the problem of the English noun cases sharply counters the theories hitherto observed. This view approaches the English noun as having completely lost the category of case in the course of its historical development. All the nounal cases, including the much spoken of genitive, are considered as extinct, and the lingual unit that is named the "genitive case" by force of tradition, would be in reality a combination of a noun with a postposition (i.e. a relational postpositional word with preposition-like functions). This view, advanced in an explicit form by G. N. Vorontsova, may be called the "theory of the possessive postposition" ("postpositional theory").

Of the various reasons substantiating the postpositional theory the following two should be considered as the main ones.

First, the postpositional element *-'s* is but loosely connected with the noun, which finds the clearest expression in its use not only with single nouns, but also with whole word-groups of various status. E.g.: *somebody else's daughter*; *the man who had hauled him out to dinner's head*.

Second, there is an indisputable parallelism of functions between the possessive postpositional constructions and the prepositional constructions, resulting in the optional use of the former. This can be shown by transformational reshuffles of the above examples: *somebody else's daughter → the daughter of somebody else*; *the man who had hauled him out to dinner's head → the head of the man who had hauled him out to dinner*.

One cannot but acknowledge the rational character of the cited reasoning. Its strong point consists in the fact that it is based on a careful observation of the lingual data. For all that, however, the theory of the possessive postposition fails to take into due account the consistent insight into the nature of the noun form in *-'s* achieved by the limited case theory. The latter has demonstrated beyond any doubt that the noun form in -'s is systemically, i.e. on strictly structural-functional basis, contrasted against the unfeatured form of the noun, which does make the whole correlation of the nounal forms into a grammatical category of case-like order, however specific it might be.

As the basic arguments for the recognition of the noun form in *-'s* in the capacity of grammatical case, besides the oppositional nature of the general functional correlation of the featured and unfeatured forms of the noun, we will name the following two.

First, the broader phrasal uses of the postpositional *-'s* like those shown on the above examples, display a clearly expressed stylistic colouring; they are stylistically marked, and it proves their transpositional nature. In this connection we may formulate the following regularity: the more self-dependent the construction covered by the case-sign -'s, the stronger the stylistic
mark (colouring) of the resulting genitive phrase. This functional analysis is corroborated by the statistical observation of the forms with *-'s* in the living English texts. According to the data obtained by B. S. Khaimovich and B. I. Rogovskaya, the *-'s* sign is attached to individual nouns in as many as 96 per cent of its total textual occurrences. Thus, the immediate casal relations are realised by individual nouns, the phrasal, as well as some non-nounal uses of the *-'s* sign being on the whole of a secondary grammatical order.

Second, the *-'s* sign from the point of view of its segmental status in language differs from ordinary functional words. It is morpheme-like by its phonetical properties; it is strictly postpositional unlike the prepositions; it is semantically by far a more bound element than a preposition, which, among other things, has hitherto prevented it from being entered into dictionaries as a separate word.

As for the fact that the "possessive postpositional construction" is correlated with a parallel prepositional construction, it only shows the functional peculiarity

of the form, but cannot disprove its caselike nature, since cases of nouns in general render much the same functional semantics as prepositional phrases (reflecting a wide range of situational relations of noun referents).

The solution of the problem, then, is to be sought on the ground of a critical synthesis of the positive statements of the two theories: the limited case theory and the possessive postposition theory.

A two case declension of nouns should be recognised in English, with its common case as a "direct" case, and its genitive case as the only oblique case. But, unlike the case system in ordinary noundeclensional languages based on inflexional word change, the case system in English is founded on a particle expression. The particle nature of *-'s* is evident from the fact that it is added in post-position both to individual nouns and to nounal word-groups of various status, rendering the same essential semantics of appurtenance in the broad sense of the term. Thus, within the expression of the genitive in English, two subtypes are to be recognised: the first (principal) is the word genitive (*Mary's book*); the second (of a minor order) is the phrase genitive (*the man who had hauled him out to dinner's head*). Both of them are not inflexional, but particle caseforms.

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

First, the form which can be called the "genitive of possessor". Its constructional meaning will be defined as "inorganic" possession, i.e. possessional relation (in the broad sense) of the genitive referent to the object denoted by the head-noun. *E.g.:* Christine's living-room; the assistant manager's desk; Dad's earnings; Kate and Jerry's grandparents; the Steel Corporation's
hired slaves. The examples of the genitive of possessor cited above can be transformed into constructions that explicitly express the idea of possession (belonging) inherent in the form. *E.g.*: Christine's living-room → the living-room belongs to Christine; the Steel Corporation's hired slaves → the Steel Corporation possesses hired slaves.

Second, the form which can be called the "genitive of integer". Its constructional meaning will be defined as "organic possession", i.e. a broad possessional relation of a whole to its part. *E.g.:* Jane's busy hands; Patrick's voice; the patient's health; the hotel's lobby. This genitive can be decoded as: ...→ the busy hands as part of Jane's person; ...→ the health as part of the patient's state; ...→ the lobby as a component part of the hotel, etc.

Third, the "genitive of agent". The general meaning of the genitive of agent is explained in its name: this form renders an activity or some broader processual relation with the referent of the genitive as its subject. *E.g.:* the great man's arrival; Peter's insistence; the hotel's competitive position. The genitive of this type can be transformed into the following forms: ...→ the great man arrives; ...→ Peter insists; ...→ the hotel occupies a competitive position, etc.

A subtype of the agent genitive expresses the author, or, more broadly considered, the producer of the referent of the head-noun. Hence, it receives the name of the "genitive of author". *E.g.:* Beethoven's sonatas; John Galsworthy's "A Man of Property"; the committee's progress report. This genitive can be decoded as: ... → Beethoven has composed (is the author of) the sonatas; ...→ the committee has compiled (is the compiler of) the progress report, etc.

Fourth, the "genitive of patient". This type of genitive, in contrast to the above, expresses the recipient of the action or process denoted by the head-noun. *E.g.:* the champion's sensational defeat; Erick's final expulsion; the meeting's chairman. The genitive of this type can be transformed into the following forms: ...→ the champion is defeated (i.e. his opponent defeated him); ...→ Erick is expelled; ...→ the meeting is chaired by its chairman, etc.

Fifth, the "genitive of destination". This form denotes the destination, or function of the referent of the head-noun. *E.g.:* women's footwear; children's verses; a fishers' tent. Diagnostic test: ...→ footwear for women; ...→ a tent for fishers, etc.

Sixth, the "genitive of dispensed qualification". The meaning of this genitive type, as different from the subtype "genitive of received qualification", is some characteristic or qualification, not received, but given by the genitive noun to the referent of the head-noun. *E.g.:* a girl's voice; a book-keeper's statistics. Diagnostic test: ...→ a voice characteristic of a girl; ...→ statistics peculiar to a book-keeper's report.

Under the heading of this general type comes a very important subtype of the genitive which expresses a comparison. The comparison, as different from a general qualification, is supposed to be of a vivid, descriptive nature. The subtype is called the "genitive of comparison. This term has been used to cover the whole class. *E.g.:* the cock's self-confidence of the man; his perky sparrow's smile. Diagnostic test: ...→ the self-confidence like that of a cock; ...→ the smile making the man resemble a perky sparrow.

Seventh, the "genitive of adverbial". The form denotes adverbial factors relating to the referent of the head-noun, mostly the time and place of the event. Strictly speaking, this genitive may be considered as another subtype of the genitive of dispensed qualification. Due to its adverbial meaning, this type of genitive can be used with adverbialised substantives. *E.g.:* the evening's newspaper; yesterday's encounter. Diagnostic test: ...→ the newspaper issued in the evening; ...→ the encounter which took place yesterday.

Eighth, the "genitive of quantity". This type of genitive denotes the measure or quantity relating to the referent of the head-noun. For the most part, the quantitative meaning expressed concerns units of distance measure, time measure, weight measure. *E.g.:* three miles' distance; an hour's delay; two months' time; a hundred tons' load. Diagnostic test: ...→ a distance the measure of which is three miles; ...→ a time lasting for two months; ...→ a load weighing a hundred tons.

The given survey of the semantic types of the genitive is by no means exhaustive in any analytical sense. The identified types are open both to subtype specifications, and inter-type generalizations.

5. Noun: Article Determination

The article presents many difficulties to linguists. The problem of its grammatical meaning and its place in the language system is one of the most complicated in English grammar.

Firstly, it is not quite clear whether the article should be treated as a separate word and what exactly its relation to the noun is.

Secondly, the number of articles spurs debates among linguists.

Thirdly, if the article is classified as a word, it is necessary to clarify whether it constitutes a specific part of speech.

There are two points of view as to the first question. According to some researchers, the article is a specific morpheme; consequently, the article is regarded as similar to auxiliary verbs used in analytical verb forms. The arguments in favour of this point of view are as follows: the article is a morphological marker of the noun; the article has no lexical meaning.

The opponents of this viewpoint believe that these arguments are not sufficiently convincing: though the main formal function of the article is to be a morphological marker of the noun, still the article and the noun do not comprise an inseparable unit (compare, for instance, the indivisibility of analytical verb forms). It is first of all a determiner of the noun, i.e. between the article and the noun there is a syntactic relation unthinkable for components of an analytical form. The article may be treated as a separate word due to its possibility of distant position, which is regarded as its main formal feature, though some linguists, add that the article is a means of analytical morphology, somewhat analogous to a morpheme.

To back up the status of the article as a word, linguists point out that the article may be replaced by a pronoun: the definite article corresponds to the demonstrative pronouns *this*, *that*, the indefinite article – to the indefinite pronoun *some*. Therefore, considering the article as a morpheme would lead to considering combinations of the noun with other determiners (e.g. *any*, *my*, *this*, *every*) to be analytical forms.

Some linguists who grant the article the "word status" suppose that, functionally, the article is identical to the adjectival pronoun. As a result, the combination "atticle+noun" is equaled to attributive word combinations. However, this approach to the "article+noun" combination is hardly justified, since the article lacks its independent lexical meaning, and consequently has no independent syntactic position. Appearing in the sentence without a noun is impossible for the article, which proves that the article cannot be treated as equivalent to pronouns and other determiners.

Thus, the article should obviously be regarded as a phenomenon that cannot be fully referred either to morphology or to syntax. On the one hand, it is a part-of-speech marker of the noun, which makes it close to the morpheme. On the other hand, the article is a function-word that has no lexical meaning and does not have its independent syntactic function.

Different points of view on the number of articles stem from the different interpretations of their linguistic status. Traditionally, two articles are recognized: the definite article *the* and the indefinite *a(n)*. However, if the article is regarded as a morpheme, then the term "zero-morpheme" may be applied to cases when the noun is used without the article. As a result, linguists have worked out a theory of three forms of the article: zero-form, a-form and the-form:

Form of the article	***Singular***	***Plural***
zero-form	book	books
a-form	a book	—
the-form	the book	the books

Thus, if one regards the article as a morpheme, then one has to recognize the three-member system of the article. The notion of the zero-article would not result in any inconsistence, since the term "zero-morpheme" is widely used in linguistics to differentiate inflected word forms with uninflected ones.

The opponents of the three-member system, i.e. those who classify the article as a word, exclude the possibility of the notion "zero-article" since it is equivalent to "zero-word", which is unacceptable. Within this approach, it is more consistent to characterize these cases as "absence of the article" and contrast them to cases when the article is used.

As to the third controversial issue, that is the part-of-speech status of the article, there is no unanimous viewpoint either. Some scientists, though treating the article as a word, do not consider it a part of speech. Sometimes the article is analyzed within some other part of speech (usually pronouns), which is the typical approach of British and American grammarians. Slavic linguists, as a rule, distinguish the article as a part of speech, since the article has a specific semantic, morphological and syntactic function.

As soon as we have elucidated the most important theoretical problems, let us turn to functions of the article. Like any other part of speech, the article has its peculiar morphological, syntactic and semantic features. As to its grammatical meaning, the majority of authors believe that the category formed by the article is usually called the category of determination, or "definiteness" - "indefiniteness".

Morphologically, the article is the main determiner, or formal marker, of the noun. The article modifies the noun, though it may be separated from the noun by other modifiers.

Syntactically, the function of the article is to mark the left-hand boundary of a noun-group, e.g.: *the dress*, *the long silk dress*, *the lovely expensive long silk dress*.

The main semantic function of the article is that of correlation of a notion with the world described in a text (or with the situation of communication). Obviously the speaker's choice of the article is situation-dependent. Specifically, the definite article *the* and the indefinite article *a(n)* have three meaningful

characterizations of the nounal referent: one rendered by the definite article, one rendered by the indefinite article, and one rendered by the absence of the article.

The definite article individualizes or identifies the referent of the noun: the use of the definite article shows that the object referred to is known to the hearer and is taken in its concrete, individual quality. This observation is confirmed by a substitution test: the definite article may be replaced by a demonstrative determiner *this*, *that*, *these*, *those* without any change in the general implication of the construction.

The identification takes place when the referent is mentioned for the second time.

E.g.: *I see a house. Let's come up to the house.*

The definite article is used with nouns that are modified by attributive constructions.

E.g.: *But what happened to the people I knew in college? Or in high school? Amy Darrow – the girl who had her engagement party the night I met Joe, remember?*

The definite article may also be used with the noun whose referent is mentioned for the first time but is so much common for a given situation that it does not require any special introduction. E.g.: *Mary and Bob sat in silence, the engine still running while Bob banged impatiently with one hand on the steering-wheel.*

The definite article is used with nouns that denote unique referents: *the earth*, *the sun*, *the moon*, *the East*, *the world*, *the universe*.

In contrast to the identifying meaning of the definite article, the indefinite article is associated with a classifying meaning. The indefinite article may point out a concrete referent but in doing so it does not single out this referent among similar referents of the class and it does not identify the referent as already known. As a result, it is used to introduce a new element in the sentence. Since a new element is always the most prominent and attracts attention, a noun with the indefinite article frequently becomes the center of the utterance and as such is marked by strong stress.

E.g.: *"Hello-o-o!" Biddy called, and the clatter of catering trays followed the slam of the door.*

Then Binstock arrived with the flowers, and a woman phoned to arrange an office cocktail party, and the plasterer showed up to mend the hole in the dining-room ceiling.

The indefinite article may express a classifying generalization of the nounal referent. E.g.: *"I'm thinking of taking a trip," she told Zeb on the phone. She threw away an entire sheet of postage stamps, three-cent postage stamps.*

It should be pointed out that both the definite and the indefinite articles express generalization, when used with a noun in singular: *The (a) whale is a mammal.* Meanwhile, the indefinite article is preferable in sentences describing some situational qualities: *A whale is dangerous when defending its whale-calf.*

As to their relation with the various classes of nouns, depending on the situation, both the definite and the indefinite articles are used without any particular restrictions with common nouns denoting concrete objects or living beings, e.i. countable nouns: *The book was returned. The books were re-turned.* The indefinite article is not used with nouns in plural, since it retains its vestigial meaning "one".

The definite article is, in its turn, absent with abstract and material nouns. However, it is used with abstract and material nouns if they are modified by attributes.

E.g.: *At the sight, and at the relief it brought him, he realized how anxious he had been. The policeman, if such he was, seemed to be moving towards him and Walter suddenly became alive to the importance of small distances…*

The indefinite article may sometimes occur with abstract nouns denoting feelings. In these cases, the article implies that the noun denotes some particular kind or new manifestation of the feeling. E.g.: *After all, most of his happiness was in his home, and it was a very considerable happiness.*

As for the various uses of nouns without an article, from the semantic point of view they all should be divided into two types. In the first place, there are uses where the articles are deliberately omitted out of stylistic consideration. Such uses can be found in titles and headlines, in various notices, in e-mails, mobile phone text messages, diaries, etc.

E.g.: *LOST CHILDREN DATABASE GOES LIVE* – headline

"SLEEPY" TOWN REELING AFTER DOUBLE MURDER – headline

Wanted 2 leave 2day but couldn't buy ticket. M leaving 2morrow. – text message

Cannot believe what has happened. At half past eleven, youth came into office bearing enormous bunch of red roses and brought them to my desk. – diary

The purposeful elliptical omission of the article in cases like these is quite obvious, and the omitted articles may easily be restored in the constructions in the simplest "back-directed" refilling procedures.

Alongside of free elliptical constructions, there are cases of the semantically unspecified absence of the article in various combinations of fixed type, such as prepositional phrases (*in debt*, *on purpose*, *at hand*, *from scratch*, *on foot*), fixed verbal collocations (*make use*, *give rise*, *take sides*), descriptive coordinative groups and repetition groups (*man and wife*, *day by day*, *from time to time*), and the like. The article is also missing when the word man has the generalizing meaning "mankind". These cases of traditionally fixed absence of the article are quite similar to the cases of traditionally fixed uses of both indefinite and definite articles (*in a hurry*, *at a loss*, *out of the question*, *to give a smile*, *to have a talk*).

Besides the elliptical constructions and fixed uses, however, there are cases of semantic absence of the article that stands in immediate meaningful correlation with the definite and indefinite articles as such. These cases are not homogeneous; nevertheless, they admit of an explicit classification founded on the countability

characteristics of the noun. For example, the meaningful absence of the article before the countable noun in the singular signifies that the noun is taken in an abstract sense, expressing the most general idea of the object denoted. This meaning may be called the meaning of "absolute generalization".

E.g.: *Culture (in general) could be a factor that explains psychological and behavioral differences among people and societies.*

Acculturation, the gradual adaptation to the target culture (particular culture) *without necessarily forsaking one's native language identity, has been proposed as a model for both the adult entering a new culture* (certain culture) *and the child in the bilingual program in a public school.*

Thus, the article is a means of correlation of a notion with ongoing communication process. The indefinite article introduces something new, not mentioned before, whereas the definite article identifies notions already mentioned. Identification is possible even if the referent has not been mentioned yet but the situation implies its existence and involvement. Abstract nouns and material nouns may be used with the article if they are modified by attributive elements. Proper nouns are usually used without any article. However, the definite article accompanies generalizing naming (denoting a whole family – *the Smiths*, *the Browns*).

E.g.: *For over a year Sandy entered into the spirit of this plan, for she visited the Lloyds frequently, and was able to report to Miss Brodie how things were going…*

It also may be used to make emphasis on a particular person: *It was not the John we used to have long conversations with five years ago. He had changed dramatically.* The use of the indefinite article is possible in order to emphatically introduce a referent as a new one.

E.g.: *From time to time he wondered if there could, possibly, be a Mr. Palgrave, but there was no way of asking her this.*

… Sandy, who was now some years Sister Helena of the transfiguration, clutched the bars of the grille as was her way, and peered at him through her little faint eyes and asked him to describe his schooldays and his school, and the Edinburgh he had known. And it turned out, once more, that his was a different Edinburgh from Sandy's.

Passing to the situational estimation of the article uses, we must point out that the basic principle of their differentiation here is not a direct consideration of their meanings, but disclosing the informational characteristics that the article conveys to its noun in concrete contextual conditions. Examined from this angle, the definite article serves as an indicator of the type of nounal information which is presented as the "facts already known", i.e. as the starting point of the communication. In contrast to this, the indefinite article or the meaningful absence of the article introduces the central communicative nounal part of the sentence, i.e. the part rendering the immediate informative data to be conveyed from the speaker

to the listener. In the situational study of syntax the starting point of the communication is called its "theme", while the central informative part is called its "rheme".

In accord with the said situational functions, the typical syntactic position of the noun modified by the definite article is the "thematic" subject, while the typical syntactic position of the noun modified by the indefinite article or by the meaningful absence of the article is the "rhematic" predicative.

E.g.:*The day* (subject) *was drawing to a close, the busy noises of the city* (subject) *were dying down.*

How to handle the situation was a big question (predicative). *The sky was pure gold* (predicative) *above the setting sun.*

Another essential contextual-situational characteristic of the articles is their immediate connection with the two types of attributes to the noun. The first type is a "limiting" attribute, which requires the definite article before the noun; the second type is a "descriptive" attribute, which requires the indefinite article or the meaningful absence of the article before the noun. E.g.: *The events chronicled in this narrative took place some four years ago.* (A limiting attribute)

She was a person of strong will and iron self-control. (A descriptive attribute)

He listened to her story with grave and kindly attention. (A descriptive attribute)

The role of descriptive attributes in the situational aspect of articles is particularly worthy of note in the constructions of syntactic "convergencies", i.e. chained attributive-repetitional phrases modifying the same referent from different angles.

E.g.: *My longing for a house, a fine and beautiful house, such a house I could never hope to have, flowered into life again.*

Oppositionally, the article determination of the noun should be divided into two binary correlations connected with each other hierarchically.

The opposition of the higher level operates in the whole system of articles. It contrasts the definite article with the noun against the two other forms of article determination of the noun, i.e. the indefinite article and the meaningful absence of the article. In this opposition the definite article should be interpreted as the strong member by virtue of its identifying and individualising function, while the other forms of article determination should be interpreted as the weak member, i.e. the member that leaves the feature in question ("identification") unmarked.

The opposition of the lower level operates within the article subsystem that forms the weak member of the upper opposition. This opposition contrasts the two types of generalisation, i.e. the relative generalisation distinguishing its strong member (the indefinite article plus the meaningful absence of the article as its analogue with uncountable nouns and nouns in the plural) and the absolute, or

"abstract" generalisation distinguishing the weak member of the opposition (the meaningful absence of the article).

The described oppositional system can be shown schematically on the following diagram (see Fig. 4).

ARTICLE DETERMINATION

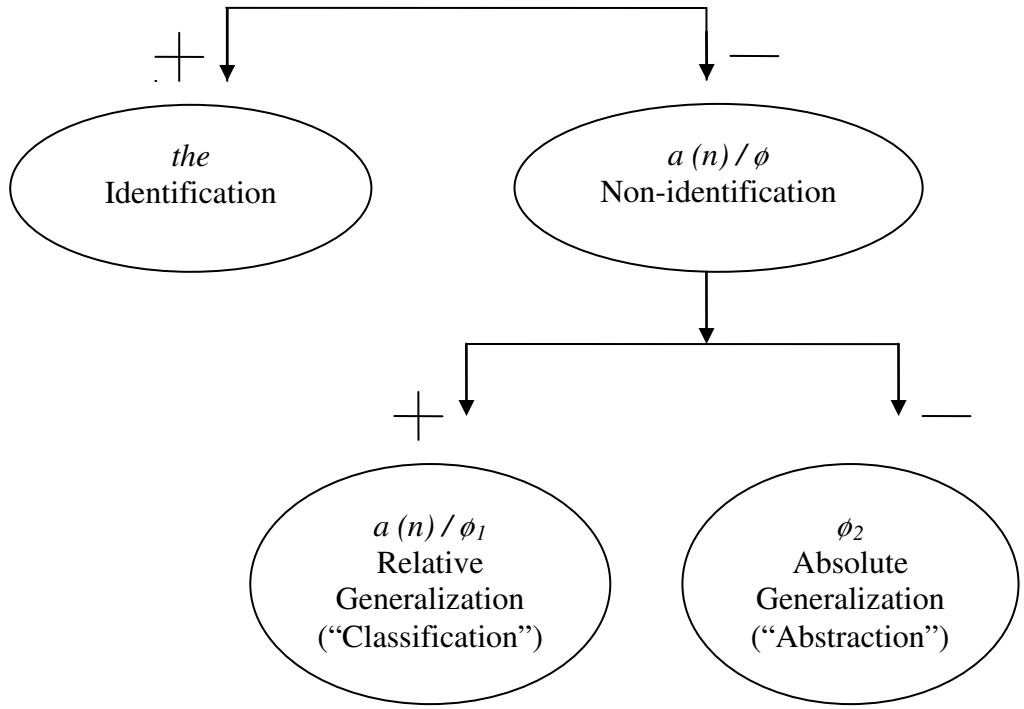

Fig. 4

The best way of demonstrating the actual oppositional value of the articles on the immediate textual material is to contrast them in syntactically equivalent conditions in pairs. E.g.:

Identical nounal positions for the pair "the definite article – the indefinite article": *The train* hooted (that train). – *A train* hooted (some train).

Correlative nounal positions for the pair "the definite article – the absence of the article": I'm afraid *the oxygen* is out (our supply of oxygen). – *Oxygen* is necessary for life (oxygen in general, life in general).

Correlative nounal positions for the pair "the indefinite article – the absence of the article": Be careful, there is *a puddle* under your feet (a kind of puddle). – Be careful, there is *mud* on the ground (as different from clean space).

Correlative nounal positions for the easily neutralised pair "the zero article of relative generalisation – the zero article of absolute generalization": *New information* should be gathered on this subject (some information). – *Scientific information* should be gathered systematically in all fields of human knowledge (information in general).

Thus, the English noun, besides the variable categories of number and case, distinguishes also the category of determination expressed by the article paradigm of three grammatical forms: the definite, the indefinite, the zero.

Questions and assignments for reflection:

1. Expose the position of the noun in the system of parts of speech?
2. Introduce the general description of the noun on the bases of semantic, formal and functional criteria.
3. Comment on the word-building of the noun.
4. What oppositional pairs are taken into account in the issue of the division of nouns into several subclasses? Analyze the influence of the oppositional reduction on these oppositional pairs.
5. Expose and illustrate with the examples all possible types of combinability of the noun. 6. What grammatical categories characterize the noun?
7. Comment on the category of gender in Modern English. Describe the oppositional structure of the category of gender.
8. What are the peculiarities of the category of number in Modern English?
9. Analyze the Singularia Tantum and Pluralia Tantum nouns. Give a comparative description of the Singularia Tantum and Pluralia Tantum semantic groups in English, Ukrainian and Russian. Introduce the examples of oppositional reduction in the absolute singular and absolute plural forms.
10. Comment on the category of case in Modern English. Describe the existing approaches to the case system of the English noun.
11. What are the basic semantic types of the genitive? Give your own examples of the so-called "diagnostic test" in order to illustrate each type.
12. Why does the article present many difficulties to linguists?
13. Analyze the following controversial issues:

– Whether the article should be treated as a separate word and what exactly its relation to the noun is.

– The number of articles.

– If the article is classified as a word, it is necessary to clarify whether it constitutes a specific part of speech.

14. Comment on the article determination in the light of the oppositional theory.

Lecture 6. ADJECTIVE

Aim: to analyze the generalities that disclose the nature of the adjective according to the semantic, formal and functional criteria; to identify the variants of grammatical combinability; to introduce the classification of the adjectives according to their semantic properties; to reveal the problem of the number of degrees of comparison of qualitative adjectives and the problem of analytical

degrees of comparison; to study such grammatical phenomena as "substantivization of adjectives" and "adjectivization of nouns".

List of Issues Discussed:

1. Adjective: Generalities.
2. Adjective: Category of Comparison.
3. Substantivization of Adjectives. Adjectivization of Nouns.

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Key notions: adjective, qualitative adjectives, relative adjectives, gradable adjectives, non-gradable adjectives, degree of comparison, positive degree, comparative degree, superlative degree, substantivization of adjectives, adjectivization of nouns, substantivized adjective, attributive noun.

1. Adjective: Generalities

The Adjective is a part of speech with the categorial meaning of a relatively permanent property of a substance: *a thick book*, *a beautiful city*.

The Adjective denotes a property that does not evolve in time and it is this static character that is meant under the notion of relative permanence: *high quality*

and *improved quality* (the latter phrase contains the property that has sustained a certain modification).

Adjectives express a qualitative property that may be objectified, in which case a noun is derived from an adjective by means of the suffixes *-ness*, *-(i)ty* etc. (*white – whiteness*, *rough – roughness*, *regular – regularity, certain – certainty*).

If an adjective expresses some relation, i.e. some relative quality, it is as a rule derived from a noun by means of the suffixes *-y*, *-al*, *-ous*, *-ly*, *-en* (e.g. *rain – rainy*, *commune – communal*, *suspicion – suspicious*, *week – weekly*, *wool – woollen*).

Adjectives as a rule have a suffixational structure and, on the ground of their derivational pattern, are divided into base adjectives and derived adjectives.

Base adjectives are usually monosyllabic, which influences their formal qualities: they form the degrees of comparison by taking inflections *-er* and *-est* or by undergoing morphophonemic changes, i.e. they have developed suppletive forms as, for instance, *good –better – the best*, *bad – worse – the worst*. It should also be noted that base adjectives serve as stems from which nouns and adverbs are formed by the derivational suffixes *-ness* and *-ly*. However, some base adjectives may consist of two syllables but these are not numerous: *common*, *human*.

Derived adjectives are formed with the help of derivational suffixes added to free or bound stems. They usually form so-called analytical comparatives and superlatives by means of the qualifiers *more* and *most*. Some of the important adjective-forming suffixes are:

-able (*-ible*) – *capable*, *visible*, *comprehensible*, *possible*;
-(i)al – philosophical, *electrical*, *typical*;
-ish – Swedish, *yellowish*, *childish*;
-ic – basic, poetic, domestic;
-ous – famous, *dangerous*
-y – juicy, *milky*, *bony*, *hilly*.

Other adjective-forming suffixes are *-ful* (*doubtful*, *careful*, *resentful*) and *-less* (*blameless*, *shameless*, *jobless*) that are usually added to noun-stems; *-ive* (*excessive*, *permissive*, *adhesive*) is used to derive adjectives from verbs.

To the adjective-forming prefixes belong *un-* (*unprecedented*), *in-* (*inaccurate*), *pre-* (*premature*).

Among the adjectival affixes should also be named the prefix *a-,* constitutive for the stative subclass. Here belong lexemes like *afraid, agog, adrift, ablaze.* In traditional grammar these words were generally considered under the heading of "predicative adjectives" (some of them also under the heading of adverbs), since their most typical position in the sentence is that of a predicative but they are occasionally used as objective predicatives, particularly after the verbs "*find*" or "*have*" (*He found his sister alone.*) and as pre-positional attributes to nouns. Such linguists as B. S. Khaimovich and B. I. Rogovska refer to these words as "adlinks". Acad. L. V. Shcherba calls such words "the words of the category of state". Here

belong a number of words with the meaning of temporary state (physical or psychical) of a thing or a person: *to be awake* (*afire*, *ajar*, *afloat*, *aloof*, etc.).

But other grammarians (S. H. Barkhudarov, M. Y. Blokh, V. V. Burlakova, I. P. Ivanova) present well-grounded objections to the view that the stative is a separate part of speech. They state that some clear-cut adjectives (*angry*, *sad*, *upset*, *hopeful*, *expectant*, etc.) also denote a temporary state but nevertheless they are not treated by anybody as a separate part of speech. They consider statives (adlinks) to be a sub-group of ordinary adjectives.

As for the variable (demutative) morphological features, the English adjective, having lost in the course of the history of English all its forms of grammatical agreement with the noun, is distinguished only by the hybrid category of comparison.

Its categorial combinability comprises such parts of speech as the Noun (mostly right-hand combinability); the adverbs of degree (mostly left-hand combinability). The Adjective does not combine with the Verb, rarely the Adjective combines with other adjectives: *deep brown fabric*, *deep green water*, *red hot iron*.

According to their semantic properties, adjectives fall into two large groups: qualitative and relative.

Qualitative adjectives denote qualities of size, shape, colour, etc. They admit of degrees of comparison exist in different proportion. The measure of a quality can be estimated as high or low, adequate or inadequate, sufficient or insufficient, optimal or excessive (*big*, *interesting*, *broad*).

Relative adjectives express qualities which characterize an object through its relation to another object: *wooden furniture – furniture made of wood*, *Nigerian gold – gold from Nigeria*. One should bear in mind that it is impossible to draw a rigid line of demarcation between the two classes, for in the course of language development the so-called relative adjectives have gradually developed qualitative meanings.

Besides the division into the qualitative and the relative classes, some grammars distinguish also a class of quantitative adjectives: e.g. *numerous*, *enormous*, *much*, *many*, *little*, *few*. However, the status of *much*, *many*, *little, few* remains disputable. On the one hand, these words are morphologically close to adjectives, since they have the degrees of comparison. On the other hand, they have much in common with numerals and pronouns. Obviously these words belong to some periphery formed by overlapping areas of these three fields – those of adjectives, numerals, and pronouns.

It should be mentioned that some grammarians (L.Valeika, J.Buitkienė) introduce the classification of adjectives according to their semantic properties in the following way:

All the adjectives can be divided into two large groups: gradable and non-gradable. Gradable (also called descriptive, or qualitative) adjectives denote properties of entities that can be estimated quantitatively, or measured. So, for instance, the property *beautiful* can be estimated as high (*very beautiful*) or low

(*not very beautiful*), adequate (*beautiful enough*) or inadequate (*not beautiful enough*). To put it otherwise, entities may have a different amount of property: some may have more than others ("*She is more beautiful than Mary*", i.e. "*She has more of the property beauty than Mary*"); some have the most ("*She is the most beautiful of the other girls*"). As already mentioned, to gradable adjectives linguists generally attribute qualitative, or descriptive adjectives. However, not all such adjectives are gradable, i.e. not all of them are variable with respect to the quantity of the property, e.g. *extinct*, *extreme*, *genuine*, *final*, etc. They denote the highest degree of the properties, e.g. *an extinct fire* cannot be less or more extinct.

Gradable adjectives can be further divided into stative and dynamic, e.g. "*He is tall*" (stative property) – "*He is being careful*" (dynamic property).

The stative property of an entity is a property that cannot be conceived as a developing process, and the dynamic property of an entity is a property that is conceived as active, or as a developing process, e.g. "*John is very tall*" (stative property) – "*John is being very tall*" (dynamic property). Dynamic adjectives closely resemble activity verbs: like activity verbs, they can be used in the progressive form (e.g. "*John is being careful today*"). The progressive form is used when the speaker wishes to give greater prominence to the relevance of the process to the moment of speaking. In this usage such constructions are comparable to "*John is always talking in class*". Both are used to express emotions – positive and negative.

Non-gradable adjectives constitute three groups: *1)* relative; *2)* intensifying; *3)* restrictive, or particularizing. *Relative adjectives* express the property of an entity related to some other entity. For instance, *wooden* is related to *wood*, *chemical* to *chemistry*, *coloured* to *colour*, etc. Relative adjectives express non-gradable properties. If entities have such properties, they cannot be said to have less or more of such properties as compared to other entities having the same properties. So, if *a house is made of wood*, it cannot be *more wooden* than the other house: *both are made of wood*. However, if *a house is built of wood and concrete*, we can say that *the house is more wooden than the other house*.

Intensifying adjectives constitute two groups: *1)* emphasizers; *2)* amplifiers. Emphasizers have a heightening effect on the noun (*clear*, *definite*, *outright*, *plain*, *pure*, *real*, *sheer*, *sure*, *true*); amplifiers scale upwards from an assumed norm (*complete*, *great*, *firm*, *absolute*, *close*, *perfect*, *extreme*, *entire*, *total*, *utter*).

Restrictive adjectives restrict the noun to a particular member of the class (*chief*, *exact*, *main*, *particular*, *precise*, *principal*, *sole*, *specific*).

From a syntactic point of view, adjectives can be divided into three groups: *1)* adjectives which can be used attributively and predicatively; *2)* adjectives which can be used attributively only; *3)* adjectives which can be used predicatively only.

Gradable adjectives denoting a permanent property, or state, belong to the first group, e.g. "*a big house*"– "*The house is big*".

Intensifying and restrictive adjectives are usually used attributively only, e.g. "*a complete fool*" – "*The fool is complete*" or "*a particular child*" – "*The child is particular*".

Adjectives denoting a temporary property, or state, are used predicatively only, e.g. "*She is being very clever today*" does not yield "*She is a very clever girl*".

2. Adjective: Category of Comparison

• There are two theoretical problems concerning the adjective: the problem of the number of degrees of comparison of qualitative adjectives and the problem of analytical degrees of comparison.

Some grammarians are prone to hold the view that there are only two degrees of comparison: the comparative and the superlative degree, the positive degree being only the starting point for comparison. But this view does not receive much support among linguists, because, as A. I. Smirnitsky rightly pointed out, all the three degrees of comparison represent three different degrees of the same quality (of "whiteness", "hotness").

Another disputable question concerning the adjective is the problem of the grammatical status of the words *more* and *most* in the comparative and superlative degree forms: whether these words are auxiliary words for forming analytical degrees of comparison or full-fledged notional words. In other words, the question arises: whether the comparative and superlative forms with these words are analytical forms of adjectives or whether they are free syntactical phrases (like the phrases with words *less* and *(the) least*).

The view that formations of the type *more difficult* and *(the) most difficult* are analytical degrees of comparison may be considered as a traditional view held both by practical and theoretical grammars. It is supported by the following considerations: (1) The actual meaning of formations like *more difficult, (the) most difficult* does not differ from that of the degrees of comparison *larger, (the) largest.* (2) Qualitative adjectives, like *difficult,* express properties which may be present in different degrees, and therefore they are bound to have degrees of comparison.

Now the view is predominant that the forms with the words *more* and *most* followed by an adjective do not essentially differ from the phrases of the type *somewhat difficult*, *very difficult*, which, of course, nobody would treat as analytical forms. Besides, the words *more* and *most* in the word combinations with adjectives seem to have the same meaning as in nounal word combinations, such as: *more water*, *more people*, *more time*, etc. To crown it all, there seems to be no sufficient reason for treating the sets of phrases with *less* (*less difficult*) and *least* (*(the) least difficult*) and with *more* and *most*, as it were, in different planes. So, most probably, the word groups with the words *more* and *most* followed by an adjective are free syntactical word combinations but not analytical forms of degrees of comparison.

Some adjectives "organize" their forms of degrees of comparison from different roots, that is, without any inflexion. Such forms are called suppletive forms: *good – better – the best*, *bad – worse – the worst*.

3. Substantivization of Adjectives. Adjectivization of Nouns

In Modern English the adjectives display the ability to be easily substantivized through conversion, i.e. by zero-derivation, and to function in syntactic roles typical of nouns – those of the predicate and the object. Adjectives may be either wholly or only partly substantivized.

Wholly substantivized adjectives completely converted into nouns. They acquire all characteristics of countable nouns, namely: they may be preceded the article; may take the plural form inflexion *-s* and may be used in the possessive case: *savage* (adjective) – a savage (substantivized adjective) – *two savages – a savage's character*.

Partly substantivized adjectives only take the definite article: *the rich*, *the poor*, *the English*, *the happy*, where, for instance, "*the happy*" means "*happy people in general*". As Prof. N. M. Rayevska rightly points out, such substantivized adjectives preserve much of their adjectival nature, which may be illustrated by the possibility of qualifying them by means of adverbs: e.g. *the really happy*. Such nouns belong to collective nouns.

The opposite phenomenon – the phenomenon of "adjectivization" of nouns gave rise to many discussions. It concerns the cases of attributive use of nouns as in: *(a) stone wall*, *(a) brick wall*, *(a) leather shoe*, *peace struggle*, etc. The question arises: does the first component of such phrases remain a noun or does it become an adjective? O. Jespersen states that in such cases the words "*stone*", "*brick*", "*leather*", "*peace*" automatically become adjectives, but H. Sweet assertes that these words remain nouns, while Prof. E. P. Shubin considers that they have become a separate part of speech – the attributive noun. But the fact that such nouns can have neither number nor case distinction and do not denote quality or property suggests the conclusion that the first component in the word combinations mentioned above remains a noun though in a special (namely: in the attributive) function, like the infinitive in the word combination "*a book to read*" remains an infinitive (that is, a verb) though used in the function of an attribute.

Questions and assignments for reflection:

1. Reveal the status of the adjective in the system of parts of speech?
2. Introduce the general description of the adjective on the bases of semantic, formal and functional criteria.
3. Comment on the word-building of the adjective.
4. How does grammarians treat the adjectival prefix *a-,* constitutive for the stative subclass?
5. Expose and give the examples in order to illustrate the types of combinability typical to the adjective.

6. Comment on the division of adjectives according to their semantic properties.

7. Decode the classification of adjectives introduced by L.Valeika, J.Buitkienė.

8. Reveal the following vexed problems:

– The problem of the number of degrees of comparison of qualitative adjectives.

– The problem of analytical degrees of comparison.

9. Analyze the phenomenon of substantivizaion of adjectives and the phenomenon of adjectivization of nouns.

Lecture 7. VERB

Aim: to analyze the generalities of the verb; to reveal its complexity as a part of speech; to introduce the concepts of morphological, semantic, functional and combinatorial classifications of the verb; to investigate the grammatical categories of the verb.

List of Issues Discussed:

1. **Verb: Generalities.**
2. **Morphological Classification of English Verbs.**
3. **Semantic Classification of English Verbs.**
4. **Functional Classification of English Verbs.**
5. **Combinatorial Classification of English Verbs.**
6. **Grammatical Category of Person and Number.**
7. **Verb: Grammatical Category of Tense.**
8. **Verb: Grammatical Category of Aspect.**
9. **Verb: Grammatical Category of Voice.**
10. **Verb: Grammatical Category of Mood.**

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Key notions: verb, regular verb, irregular verb, notional verb, semi-notional verb, functional verb, auxiliary verb, modal verb, link-verb, semi-notional verbid introducer verb, stative verb, active verb, substitute verb, verbs-intensifier, transitivity, transitive verb, intransitive verb, terminative verb, non-terminative verb, person, number, tense, aspect, voice, mood, finitude, non-finitude.

1. Verb: Generalities

The verb is a part of speech that conveys a categorial meaning of an action, i.e. of a dynamic quality developing in time. Here, the categorial meaning of an action is stretched: it is understood not only as "action" proper but also as a state of existence of an object, or as a statement of its belonging to a class of similar objects: "*A pear is a fruit*", "*He ran a mile*", "*He will soon wake up*". It should be emphasized that the verb conveys the meaning of an action dynamically, i.e. the action develops within a certain time span (though this time span may be unlimited).

The verb can be called the most complicated unit of language, the keystone of the utterance and, consequently, the keystone of communication in general.

In Modern English, verbal forms convey not only subtle shades of time distinction but also deliver other meanings; they are marked for person and number, for mood, voice and aspect.

The grammatical categories of the English verb find their expression in synthetic and analytical forms. The formative elements expressing these categories are grammatical affixes, inner inflection and auxiliaries. Some categories have only synthetic forms (person, number), others – only analytical (voice distinction). There are also categories expressed by both synthetic and analytical forms (mood, time, aspect).

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.

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

The verb stems may be simple, derivatives, sound-replacive, stress-replacive, expanded, composite, and phrasal.

The original simple verb stems are not numerous, such verbs as *go, take, read,* etc. But conversion (zero-suffixation) as means of derivation, especially conversion of the "noun – verb" type, greatly enlarges the simple stem set of verbs, since it is one of the most productive ways of forming verb lexemes in modern English. *E.g.: a cloud – to cloud*, *a house – to house*, *a man – to man*; *a park – to park*, etc.

The verb is characterized by a set of specific word-building affixes. The typical suffixes expanding the stem of the verb are: *-ate (cultivate), -en (broaden), -ify (clarify), -ise(-ize) (normalise).*

The verb deriving prefixes of the inter-class type are: *be- (belittle, befriend, bemoan)* and *en-/em- (engulf, embed).*

Some other characteristic verbal prefixes are: *re- (remake), under- (undergo), over- (overestimate), sub- (submerge), mis-(misunderstand), un- (undo),* etc.

The sound-replacive type of derivation and the stress-replacive type of derivation are unproductive. *E.g.:* food – to feed, blood – to bleed, import – to import, transport - to transport.

The composite (compound) verb stems correspond to the composite non-verb stems from which they are etymologically derived. Here belong the compounds of the conversion type *(blackmail n. –blackmail v.)* and of the reduction type *(proof-reader n. – proofread v.).*

The phrasal verb stems occupy an intermediary position between analytical forms of the verb and syntactic word combinations. Among such stems two specific constructions should be mentioned. The first is a combination of the head-verb *have, give, take,* and occasionally some others with a noun; the combination has as its equivalent an ordinary verb. *E.g.:* to have a smoke – to smoke; to give a smile – to smile; to take a stroll – to stroll.

The second is a combination of a head-verb with a verbal postposition that has a specificational value. *E.g.:* stand up, go on, give in, be off, get along, etc.

2. Morphological Classification of English Verbs

All English verbs are divided into two groups on the basis of their morphological peculiarities, i.e. on the basis of the forms of the Participle II and past tenses: these are regular and irregular verbs.

The most numerous group within this division is that of regular verbs: regular verbs form their main forms by means of adding a dental ending to their stems. The ending has three phonetic variants that depend on the final sound of a verb stem:

– /d/ after a voiced consonant or a vowel (*e.g.:* saved, followed);

– /t/ after a dental consonant (*e.g.:* looked, stopped);
– /ɪd/ after a dental consonant (*e.g.:* loaded, spotted).

In writing the ending is delivered by the only form *-ed*. The ending *-ed* is a productive pattern, so verbs borrowed or coined in the Middle English period or later belong to the group of regular verbs almost without exceptions.

The second group is formed by irregular verbs. It may be further divided into smaller subclasses. The first subclass contains the verbs that display ablaut, i.e. root vowel interchange, in their past forms (to swim (swim – swam – swum); to sing (sing – sang – sung); to shrink (shrink – shrank – shrunk)).

The second subgroup of irregular verbs is formed by verbs that remain unchanged throughout the paradigm: to put (put – put – put), to let (let – let – let), to hit (hit – hit – hit), to cost (cost – cost – cost), to cut (cut – cut – cu).

In the third subclass, the so-called "mixed" subgroup of irregular verbs, the vowel interchange is combined with the dental suffix: to keep (keep – kept – kept), to weep (weep – wept – wept), to sweep (sweep – swept – swept).

The fourth subgroup is formed by the only verb to be that is characterized by suppletive forms in past tenses: to be (be – was/were – been).

Irregular verbs are formed with unproductive patterns. However, their forms are quite settled. Though some irregular verbs have acquired parallel regular forms, these forms may hardly be called grammatical doublets, since, as a rule, regular and irregular forms of a verb differ semantically (to speed (speed – sped – sped, speed – speeded – speeded; to learn (learn – learnt – learnt, learn – learned – learned).

3. Semantic Classification of English Verbs

All English verbs fall into a number of subclasses distinguished by different semantic and lexico-grammatical features.

On the upper level of division two unequal sets are identified: the set of verbs of full nominative value (notional verbs), and the set of verbs of partial nominative value (semi-notional and functional verbs). Notional verbs have full nominative value and are independent in the expression of the process, e.g.*: to work, to build, to lie, to love, etc.*; these verbs are derivationally open, they comprise the bulk of the verbal lexicon (*to read*, *to cook*, *to publish, to influence*). The most typical feature of notional verbs is their isolatability (i.e., an ability to make a sentence alone. E.g.: *Read! Come in!*).The second set is derivationally closed, it includes limited subsets of verbs characterised by individual relational properties.

Semi-notional and functional verbs serve as markers of predication in the proper sense, since they show the connection between the nominative content of the sentence and reality in a strictly specialized way. These "predicators" include auxiliary verbs, modal verbs, semi-notional verbid introducer verbs, and link-verbs.

Auxiliary verbs constitute grammatical elements of the categorial forms of the verb. These are the verbs *be, have, do, shall, will, should, would, may, might.*

Modal verbs are used with the infinitive as predicative markers expressing relational meanings of the subject attitude type, i.e. ability, obligation, permission, advisability, etc. By way of extension of meaning, they also express relational probability, serving as probability predicators. These two types of functional semantics can be tested by means of correlating pure modal verb collocations with the corresponding two sets of stative collocations of equivalent functions: on the one hand, the groups *be obliged, be permitted,* etc.; on the other hand, the groups *be likely, be probable,* etc.

E.g.: Tom *may* stay for the show if he will. → Tom is *permitted* to stay.

The storm *may* come any minute, you had better leave the deck. → The storm *is likely* to come any minute.

Link-verbs introduce the nominal part of the predicate (the predicative) which is commonly expressed by a noun, an adjective, or a phrase of a similar semantic-grammatical character. It should be noted that some grammarians treat link-verbs as altogether devoid of al lexical meaning or meaningful content. If it were so, there would be no difference between the following sentences:

He is old. He seems old. He becomes old.

Performing their function of connecting ("linking") the subject and the predicative of the sentence, they express the actual semantics of this connection, i.e. expose the relational aspect of the characteristics ascribed by the predicative to the subject.

The linking predicator function in the purest form is effected by the verb *be;* therefore *be* as a link-verb can be referred to as the "pure link-verb". It is clear from the above that even this pure link-verb has its own relational semantics, which can be identified as "linking predicative ascription". All the link-verbs other than the pure link *be* express some specification of this general predicative linking semantics, so that they should be referred to as "specifying" link-verbs.

The common specifying link-verbs fall into two main groups: those that express perceptions and those that express nonperceptional, or "factual" link-verb connection.

The main perceptional link-verbs are *seem, appear, look, feel, taste, sound*, etc.

The main factual link-verbs are *become, get, grow, go, remain, keep, etc*.

There are some notional verbs in language that have the power to perform the function of link-verbs without losing their lexical nominative value. In other words, they perform two functions simultaneously, combining the role of a full notional verb with that of a link-verb.

E.g.: "*The soup tasted delicious.*" – "*Yesterday we tasted a delicious soup.*"

"*The meadows grow green*." – "*We grow bio vegetables*."

Due to the double syntactic character of the notional link-verb, the whole predicate formed by it is referred to as a "double predicate".

Semi-notional verbid introducer verbs are distributed among the verbal sets of discriminatory relational semantics *(seem, happen, turn out,* etc.), of subject-action relational semantics *(try, fail, manage,* etc.), of phrasal semantics *(begin, continue, stop,* etc.). The predicator verbs should be strictly distinguished from their grammatical homonyms in the subclasses of notional verbs. As a matter of fact, there is a fundamental grammatical difference between the verbal constituents in such sentences as, say, "*They began to fight*" and "*They began the fight*". Whereas the verb in the first sentence is a semi-notional predicator, the verb in the second sentence is a notional transitive verb normally related to its direct object. The phrasal predicator *begin* (the first sentence) is grammatically inseparable from the infinitive of the notional verb *fight,* the two lexemes making one verbal-part unit in the sentence. The transitive verb *begin* (the second sentence), on the contrary, is self-dependent in the lexico-grammatical sense, it forms the predicate of the sentence by itself and as such can be used in the passive voice, the whole construction of the sentence in this case being presented as the regular passive counterpart of its active version.

E.g.: They *began* the fight. → The fight *was begun* (by them).

They *began* to fight. → *To fight was begun* (by them). – Such transformation is unacceptable!!!

The semantic approach to classification of verbs is also enlarged with the division of English verbs into stative and active, that has been offered by modern Western linguistics. The main peculiarity of active verbs is their use in the progressive tense*: they are speaking*, *she is painting*. Stative verbs, such as *to know*, *to understand*, *to see*, cannot be used in the progressive tense. There are, however, verbs of dual nature. In different contexts they may distinguish either an active- or stative-verb type.

E.g.: "I *know* the truth" (stative verb). – "We *are telling* the truth now" (active verb).

"I *have cut* my finger" – "I *have been cutting* the hedge for two hours" (verb of dual nature).

4. Functional Classification of English Verbs

Modern linguist I. O. Alexeyeva introduce the subdivision of all English verbs into notional verbs, auxiliary verbs, link verbs, substitute verbs and verbs-intensifiers in the light of their functional properties. Thus, the functional classification presupposes differentiation of verbs according to their ability to form a certain type of the predicate. This ability stems from the lexical meaningfulness of a verb. Notional verbs are lexically meaningful verbs that denote an action or a state and perform in the sentence an independent function.

In contrast, functional verbs exist only within a compound predicate delivering only grammatical meanings. Functional verbs are further divided into

1) auxiliary verbs;
2) link verbs (or copula verbs);
3) substitute verbs;
4) verbs-intensifiers.

Auxiliary verbs are used as purely grammatical means to form analytical forms of the verb; their lexical meaning is completely lost.

The grammatical function of link-verbs is realized within compound nominal predicates where link-verbs indicate a relation between an entity and its quality. It should be noted that link-verbs are also characterized by a somewhat weakened lexical meaning. For example, such link-verbs as *to be*, *to keep*, *to remain* denote preservation of some quality; the verbs *to become*, *to get*, *to turn*, *to go* denote some changes that an entity undergoes: E.g.: "*His hair is grey.*" vs "*His hair goes grey.*"

Verbs used in the function of substitutes replace any notional verb that has already appeared in the immediate context:

E.g.: "Nobody knows him better than I do."
"Cindy wrote better letters than her sister ever did."

The true substitute-verb in Modern English is the verb *to do*. As a word of a most generalized meaning, *do* can stand for any verb, except *be* and *have* and *modal verbs*.

E.g.: "You should not try to appear better than you are."
"Don't bring up the money issue. – But I already have!"
"John can ignore your indifference but I can't."

The verb *to do* may function as an intensifier of the verbal idea.

E.g.: "She does know where the treasures are."
"They did search everywhere."
"Do take care of yourself!"

Besides the verb *to do*, mention should be made of the idiomatic use of the verb *to go* in such patterns as "*He went and did it*." ("*Взяв і зробив*"); "*He went and bought this incredibly expensive car*." ("*Взяв і купив неймовірно дорогу машину*."). It is obvious that in patterns with *to go* and followed by *the infinitive* there is no idea of real motion attached to the verb *to go*.

A special kind of affective grammatical idiom will be found in patterns with *the ing-form* following the verb *to go* when the latter does not signify motion either but is used idiomatically to intensify the meaning of the notional verb, e.g.: "Don't go spreading gossips!"; "She will go blaming me for all her failures."

Modal verbs express attitude or relation of the agent to the action. This relation – possibility, obligation, volition, prohibition, permission, etc. – is a grammatical meaning of modal verbs. The question whether this meaning may be considered a lexical one remains the topic to debate. It is quite possible that in modal verbs lexical and grammatical meanings are merged. It should also be added that modal verbs are characterized by a deficient paradigm. Their forms lack the categories of person and number (though notional verbs also have only

rudimentary traces of these categories); some modal verbs have no past forms (e.g. *must*, *ought to*).

5. Combinatorial Classification of English Verbs

Verbs may be classified on the ground of their combinatorial characteristics. One of them is transitivity (intransitivity) of English verbs. In Modern English, however, the notions transitivity and intransitivity have lost their relevance, since traditionally transitive verbs are defined as those followed by an object in the accusative case. As the English noun paradigm does not have the accusative case, the notion of transitivity has acquired a different meaning. Modern grammar interprets intransitive verbs as verbs followed by a prepositional object, whereas transitive verbs are followed by non-prepositional objects. Consequently, in modern English the notions "transitivity" and "intransitivity" have turned into combinatorial features of the verb. Some linguists believe that this feature should be interpreted not so much as a combinatorial feature but as a lexico-semantic characteristic of the verb. In doing this, the scholars interpret the dichotomy "transitivity – intransitivity" as a lexical rather than grammatical notion.

However, in different contexts and combinatorial encirclements one and the same verbs can expose the nature of both, transitive and intransitive ones.

E.g.: He runs a hotel successfully. – He runs very quickly.

Besides the groups mentioned above, verbs may also be divided into terminative and non-terminative. Terminative verbs contain in their meaning some indication of a completed action. Moreover, the state that will occur after the action is completed is quite predictable. For example, the result that follows the completion of the action denoted by "*to catch*", is "*that something will be caught*", there is no other result. Analogous are the verbs *to fall*, *to die*, *to find*, *to arrive*, *to destroy*, *to subdue*, etc.

Non-terminative verbs are those expressing an action as an endless process whose next stage is unpredictable. For example, *to sit* can be terminated by any other state, or *to be*, *to exist*, *to know*, *to believe*.

There are, however, verbs of dual nature. In different contexts they may denote either a terminative action or a non-terminative one. Here the interpretation depends mainly on the tense and the aspect of the verb.

Another classification in modern linguistics is based on the ability of a verb to have a certain number of dependent sentence parts (subjects, objects). Clearly, the number of possible "places" depends on semantic characteristics of a verb. Thus, the verbs *to rain*, *to snow* are one-place predicates, since only one position (that of a subject) is possible in the sentences "*It rains.*", "*It snowed.*"

The verb "*to be*" (as a link verb) is *a two-place predicate*, since it may have only two related elements ("*Jack is an actor.*").

The verbs "*to give*", "*to offer*", "*to present*" describe actions of giving and presuppose *three participants* ("*James gave a book to Lesley.*"), i.e. these verbs are three-place predicates.

One may notice that the "valency" of a verb correlates with syntactic and morphological characteristics, in that one-place predicates are the nucleus of impersonal sentences, two-place predicates are intransitive, and three-place predicates belong to transitive ones.

This classification is grounded not only on the number of participants required for an action but also on the semantic relations that exist between a certain verb and a required participant.

6. Verb: Grammatical Category of Person and Number

Traditionally, the category of number is treated as the correlation of the plural and the singular, and the category of person as the correlation of three deictic functions, reflecting the relations of the referents to the participants of speech communication: the first person – the speaker, the second person – the person spoken to, and the third person – the person or thing spoken about. But in the system of the verb in English these two categories are so closely interconnected, both semantically and formally, that they are often referred to as one single category: the category of person and number.

First, the semantics of both person and number categories is not inherently "verbal", these two categories are reflective: the verbal form reflects the person and number characteristics of the subject, denoted by the noun (or pronoun) with which the verb is combined in the sentence. And in the meaning of the subject the expression of number semantics is blended with the expression of person semantics; for example, in the paradigm of personal pronouns the following six members are distinguished by person and number characteristics combined: first person singular – *I*, first person plural – *we*, second person singular – *you* (or, archaic *thou*), second person plural – *you*, third person singular – *he/she/it*, third person plural – *they*. Second, formally, the categories of person and number are also fused, being expressed by one and the same verbal form, e.g.: *he speaks*; this fact supports the unity of the two categories in the system of the verb.

In Old English the verb agreed with the subject in almost every person and number, like in Russian and other inflectional languages: singular, 1st person – *telle*, 2nd person – *tellest*, 3d person – *telleð*, plural – *tellað*. There were special person and number forms in the past tense, too. Nowadays most of these forms are extinct.

In modern English all verbs can be divided according to the expression of this category into three groups. Modal verbs distinguish no person or number forms at all. The verb *to be*, on the contrary, has preserved more person-number forms than any other verb in modern English: *I am*; *we are*; *you are*; *he/she/it is*; *they are*; in the past tense the verb *to be* distinguishes two number forms in the first person and the third person: *I*, *he/she/it was* (sing.) – *we*, *they were* (pl.); in the second person the form *were* is used in the singular and in the plural.

The third group presents just the regular, normal expression of person with the remaining multitude of the English verbs, with each morphemic variety of them. From the formal point of view, this group occupies the medial position between the first two: if the verb *be* is at least two-personal, the normal personal type of the verb conjugation is one-personal. Indeed, the personal mark is confined here to the third person singular *-(e)s* [-z, -s, -iz], the other two persons (the first and the second) remaining unmarked, *e.g. comes – come, blows – blow, slops – stop, chooses – choose.*

The bulk of the verbs in English have a distinctive form only for the third person singular of the present tense indicative mood. Thus, the category of person and number in modern English is fragmental and asymmetrical, realized in the present tense indicative mood by the opposition of two forms: the strong, marked member in this opposition is the third person singular (*speaks*) and the weak member embraces all the other person and number forms, so, it can be called "a common form" (*speak*).

The deficient person-number paradigm of the verb in English makes syntagmatic relations between the verbal lexeme and the lexeme denoting the subject obligatory for the expression of this category. This fact is reflected by practical grammar textbooks where the conjugation of the verb is presented through specific semi-analytical pronoun-verb combinations, e.g.: *I speak*, *you speak*, *he/she/it speaks*, *we speak*, *you speak*, *they speak*. One can say that the category of person and number is expressed "natively" by the third person singular present indicative form of the verb, and "junctionally", though the obligatory reference to the form of the subject, in all the other person and number forms.

Deficient as it is, the system of person and number forms of the verb in English plays an important semantic role in contexts in which the immediate forms of the noun do not distinguish the category of number, e.g., singularia tantum nouns or pluralia tantum nouns, or nouns modified by numerical attributes, or collective nouns, when we wish to stress either their single-unit quality or plural composition, e.g.: "*The family was gathered round the table*. – *The family were gathered round the table*."; "*Ten dollars is a huge sum of money for me. – There are ten dollars in my pocket.*". In these cases, traditionally described in terms of "notional concord" or "agreement in sense", the form of the verb reflects not the categorial form of the subject morphemically expressed, but the actual personal-numerical interpretation of the referent denoted.

The category of person and number can be neutralized in colloquial speech or in some regional and social variants and dialects of English, e.g.: *Here's your keys*; *It ain't nobody's business*.

7. Verb: Grammatical Category of Tense

The immediate expression of grammatical time, or "tense" *(Lat.* tempus), is one of the typical functions of the finite verb. It is typical because the meaning of process, inherently embedded in the verbal lexeme, finds its complete realization

only if presented in certain time conditions. That is why the expression or non-expression of grammatical time, together with the expression or non-expression of grammatical mood in person-form presentation, constitutes the basis of the verbal category of finitude, i.e. the basis of the division of all the forms of the verb into finite and non-finite.

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

The dialectical-materialist notion of time exposes it as the universal form of the continual consecutive change of phenomena. On the other hand, like other objective factors of the universe, time is reflected by man through his perceptions and intellect, and finds its expression in his language. It is but natural that time as the universal form of consecutive change of things should be appraised by the individual in reference to the moment of his immediate perception of the outward reality. This moment of immediate perception, or "present moment", which is continually shifting in time, and the linguistic content of which is the "moment of speech", serves as the demarcation line between the past and the future.

All the lexical expressions of time, according as they refer or do not refer the denoted points or periods of time, directly or obliquely, to this moment, are divided into "present-oriented", or "absolutive" expressions of time, and "nonpresent-oriented", "non-absolutive" expressions of time.

The absolutive time denotation distributes the intellective perception of time among three spheres: the sphere of the present, with the present moment included within its framework; the sphere of the past, which precedes the sphere of the present by way of retrospect; the sphere of the future, which follows the sphere of the present by way of prospect.

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

The non-absolutive time denotation does not characterise an event in terms of orientation towards the present. This kind of denotation may be either "relative" or "factual". The relative expression of time correlates two or more events showing some of them either as preceding the others, or following the others, or happening at one and the same time with them. Here belong such words and phrases as *after that, before that, at one and the same time with, some time later, at an interval of a day or two, at different times,* etc.

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

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

In Modern English, the grammatical expression of verbal time, i.e. tense, is effected in two correlated stages.

At the first stage, the process receives an absolutive time characteristic by means of opposing the past tense to the present tense. The marked member of this opposition is the past form.

At the second stage, the process receives a non-absolutive relative time characteristic by means of opposing the forms of the future tense to the forms of no future marking.

Since the two stages of the verbal time denotation are expressed separately, by their own oppositional forms, and, besides, have essentially different orientation characteristics (the first stage being absolutive, the second stage, relative), it stands to reason to recognise in the system of the English verb not one, but two temporal categories.

Both of them answer the question: "What is the timing of the process?" But the first category, having the past tense as its strong member, expresses a direct retrospective evaluation of the time of the process, fixing the process either in the past or not in the past; the second category, whose strong member is the future tense, gives the timing of the process a prospective evaluation, fixing it either in the future (i.e. in the prospective posterior), or not in the future. As a result of the combined working of the two categories, the time of the event reflected in the utterance finds its adequate location in the temporal context, showing all the distinctive properties of the lingual presentation of time mentioned above.

In accord with the oppositional marking of the two temporal categories under analysis, we shall call the first of them the category of "primary time", and the second, the category of "prospective time", or, contractedly, "prospect".

The formal sign of the opposition constituting the category of primary time is, with regular verbs, the dental suffix *-(e)d* [-d, -t, -id], and with irregular verbs, phonemic interchanges of more or less individual specifications. The suffix marks the verbal form of the past time (the past tense), leaving the opposite form unmarked. Thus, the opposition is to be rendered by the formula "the past tense :: the present tense", the latter member representing the non-past tense, according to the accepted oppositional interpretation.

The specific feature of the category of primary time is, that it divides all the tense forms of the English verb into two temporal planes: the plane of the present and the plane of the past, which affects also the future forms. Very important in this respect is the structural nature of the expression of the category: the category of primary time is the only verbal category of immanent order which is expressed by inflexional forms. These inflexional forms of the past and present coexist in the same verb-entry of speech with the other, analytical modes of various categorial expression, including the future. Hence, the English verb acquires the two futures: on the one hand, the future of the present, i.e. as prospected from the present; on the other hand, the future of the past, i.e. as prospected from the past. The following example will be illustrative of the whole four-member correlation:

E.g.: Jill *returns* from her driving class at five o'clock.
At five Jill *returned* from her driving class.
I know that Jill *will return* from her driving class at five o'clock.
I knew that at five Jill *would return* from her driving class.

The fact that the present tense is the unmarked member of the opposition explains a very wide range of its meanings exceeding by far the indication of the "moment of speech" chosen for the identification of primary temporality. Indeed, the present time may be understood as literally the moment of speaking, the zero-point of all subjective estimation of time made by the speaker. The meaning of the present with this connotation will be conveyed by such phrases as *at this very moment,* or *this instant,* or *exactly now,* or some other phrase like that. But an utterance like "now while I *am speaking*" breaks the notion of the zero time proper, since the speaking process is not a momentary, but a durative event. Furthermore, the present will still be the present if we relate it to such vast periods of time as *this month, this year, in our epoch, in the present millennium,* etc. The denoted stretch of time may be prolonged by a collocation like that beyond any definite limit.

Still furthermore, in utterances of general truths as, for instance, "Two plus two *makes* four", or "The sun *is* a star", or "Handsome *is* that handsome *does*", the idea of time as such is almost suppressed, the implication of constancy, unchangeability of the truth at all times being made prominent. The present tense as the verbal form of generalised meaning covers all these denotations, showing the present time in relation to the process as inclusive of the moment of speech, incorporating this moment within its definite or indefinite stretch and opposed to the past time.

Thus, if we say, "Two plus two *makes* four", the linguistic implication of it is "always, and so at the moment of speech". If we say, "I *never take* his advice", we mean linguistically "at no time in terms of the current state of my attitude towards him, and so at the present moment". If we say, *"In our millennium* social formations *change* quicker than in the previous periods of man's history", the linguistic temporal content of it is "in our millennium, that is, in the millennium including the moment of speech". This meaning is the invariant of the present, developed from its categorial opposition to the past, and it penetrates the uses of the finite verb in all its forms, including the perfect, the future, the continuous. Indeed, if the Radio carries the news, "The two suspected terrorists *have been taken* into custody by the police", the implication of the moment of speech refers to the direct influence or after-effects of the event announced. Similarly, the statement "You *will be informed* about the decision later in the day" describes the event, which, although it has not yet happened, is prospected into the future from the present, i.e. the prospection itself incorporates the moment of speech. As for the present continuous, its relevance for the present moment is self-evident.

Thus, the analysed meaning of the verbal present arises as a result of its immediate contrast with the past form which shows the exclusion of the action from the plane of the present and so the action itself as capable of being perceived only in temporal retrospect.

Worthy of note, however, are utterances where the meaning of the past tense stands in contrast with the meaning of some adverbial phrase referring the event to the present moment. E.g.: "*Today* again I *spoke* to Mr. Jones on the matter, and again he *failed* to see the urgency of it."

A case directly opposite to the one shown above is seen in the transpositional use of the present tense of the verb with the past adverbials, either included in the utterance as such, or else expressed in its contextual environment. E.g.: "*Then* he *turned* the corner, and what do you think *happens* next?"; "He *faces* nobody else than Mr. Greggs accompanied by his private secretary!" The stylistic purpose of this transposition, known under the name of the "historic present" *(Lat.* praesens historicum) is to create a vivid picture of the event reflected in the utterance. This is achieved in strict accord with the functional meaning of the verbal present, sharply contrasted against the general background of the past plane of the utterance content.

The second verbal tense category, which may be called "prospective", or "relative", is formed by the opposition of the future and the non-future separately in relation to the present or to the past. The strong member of the opposition is the future, marked by the auxiliary verbs *shall/will* (the future in relation to the present) or *should/would* (the future in relation to the past). It is used to denote posterior actions, after-actions in relation to some other actions or to a certain point of time in the present or in the past.

The category of prospect is also temporal, in so far as it is immediately connected with the expression of processual time, like the category of primary time. But the semantic basis of the category of prospect is different in principle from that of the category of primary time: while the primary time is absolutive, i. e. presentoriented, the prospective time is purely relative; it means that the future form of the verb only shows that the denoted process is prospected as an after-action relative to some other action or state or event, the timing of which marks the zero-level for it. The two times are presented, as it were, in prospective coordination: one is shown as prospected for the future, the future being relative to the primary time, either present or past. As a result, the expression of the future receives the two mutually complementary manifestations: one manifestation for the present time-plane of the verb, the other manifestation for the past time-plane of the verb. In other words, the process of the verb is characterised by the category of prospect irrespective of its primary time characteristic, or rather, as an addition to this characteristic, and this is quite similar to all the other categories capable of entering the sphere of verbal time, e.g. the category of development (continuous in opposition), the category of retrospective coordination (perfect in opposition), the category of voice (passive in opposition): the respective forms of all these categories also have the past and present versions, to which, in due course, are added the future and non-future versions. Consider the following examples: (1) I *was making* a road and all the coolies struck. (2) None of us doubted in the least that Aunt Emma *would* soon *be marveling* again at Eustace's challenging success. (3) The next thing she wrote she sent to a magazine, and for many weeks worried

about what *would happen* to it. (4) She did not protest, for she *had given* up the struggle. (5) Felix knew that they *would have settled* the dispute by the time he could be ready to have his say. (6) He *was being watched, shadowed, chased* by that despicable gang of hirelings. (7) But *would* little Jonny *be being looked* after properly? The nurse was so young and inexperienced!

The oppositional content of the exemplified cases of finite verb forms will, in the chosen order of sequence, be presented as follows: the past non-future continuous non-perfect non-passive (1); the past future continuous non-perfect non-passive (2) the past future non-continuous non-perfect non-passive (3); the past non-future non-continuous perfect non-passive (4); the past future non-continuous perfect non-passive (5); the past non-future continuous non-perfect passive (6); the past future continuous non-perfect passive (this form not in practical use) (7).

As we have already stated before, the future tenses reject the forms of the indefinite aspect, which are confined to the expression of the present and past verbal times only. This fact serves as a supplementary ground for the identification of the expression of prospect as a separate grammatical category.

One more problem is to be tackled in analyzing the English future tenses: the status of the verbs *shall/will* and *should/would*. Some linguists, O. Jespersen and L. S. Barkhudarov among them, argue that these verbs are not the auxiliary verbs of the analytical future tense forms, but modal verbs denoting intention, command, request, promise, etc. in a weakened form, e.g.: *I'll go there by train. = I intend (want, plan) to go there by train.* On this basis they deny the existence of the verbal future tense in English.

As a matter of fact, *shall/will* and *should/would* are in their immediate etymology modal verbs: verbs of obligation (*shall*) and volition (*will*). But nowadays they preserve their modal meanings in no higher degree than the future tense forms in other languages: the future differs in this respect from the past and the present, because no one can be positively sure about events that have not yet taken place or are not taking place now. A certain modal coloring is inherent to the future tense semantics in any language as future actions are always either anticipated, or foreseen, or planned, or desired, or necessary, etc. On the other hand, modal verbs are treated as able to convey certain future implication in many contexts: *I may/might/ could travel by bus*.

This does not constitute sufficient grounds to refuse *shall/will* and *should/would* the status of auxiliary verbs of the future. The homonymous, though cognate, verbs *shall/will* and *should/would* are to be distinguished in contexts, in which they function as purely modal verbs, e.g.: "*Payment shall be made by cheque*"; "*Why are you asking him? He wouldn't know anything about it*", and in contexts in which they function as the auxiliary verbs of the future tense forms with subdued modal semantics, e.g.: "*I will be forty next month*".

Older grammar textbooks distinguish the auxiliary verbs *shall/will* and *should/would* from their modal homonyms in connection with the category of person in the following way: the auxiliary *shall/should* are used with first person

verbal forms, while the auxiliary *will/would* – with second and third persons verbal forms to denote pure future; when used otherwise, they express pure modal meanings, the most typical of which are intention or desire for *I will* and promise or command on the part of the speaker for *you shall*, *he shall*. It is admitted, though, that in American English *will* is used as functionally equal for all persons to denote pure future and shall is used only as a modal verb. The contracted form - *'ll* further levels the difference between the two auxiliary verbs in colloquial speech.

In British English the matter is more complicated: in refined British English both verbs are used with the first person forms to denote the future. Some linguists treat them as functionally equal "grammatical doublets", as free variants of the future tense auxiliary. Still, there is certain semantic difference between *shall/should* and *will/would* in the first person verbal forms, which can be traced to their etymological origin: *will/would* expresses an action which is to be performed of the doer's free choice, voluntarily, and shall/should expresses an action which will take place irrespective of the doer's will: *I will come to you. = I want to come to you and I will do that*; *Shall I open the window? = Do you want me to open the window?* The almost exclusive use of the auxiliary *shall* in interrogative constructions in British English is logically determined by the difference outlined: it is quite natural that a genuine question shows some doubt or speculation rather than the speaker's wish concerning the prospective action. The difference between the two auxiliary verbs of the future in British English is further supported by the use of the contracted negative forms *won't* and *shan't*. Thus, in British English "*will + infinitive*" and "*shall + infinitive*" denote, respectively, the voluntary future and the non-voluntary future and can be treated as a minor category within the system of the English future tense, relevant only for first person forms.

8. Verb: Grammatical Category of Aspect

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

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

On the other hand, the aspective meaning can also be represented in variable grammatical categories. Aspective grammatical change is wholly alien to the

Russian language, but it forms one of the basic features of the categorial structure of the English verb.

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

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

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

The perfect, as different from the continuous, does reflect a kind of timing, though in a purely relative way. Namely, it coordinates two times, locating one of them in retrospect towards the other. Should the grammatical meaning of the perfect have been exhausted by this function, it ought to have been placed into one and the same categorial system with the future, forming the integral category of time coordination (correspondingly, prospective and retrospective). In reality, though, it cannot be done, because the perfect expresses not only time in relative retrospect, but also the very connection of a prior process with a time-limit reflected in a subsequent event. Thus, the perfect forms of the verb display a mixed, intermediary character, which places them apart both from the relative posterior tense and the aspective development. The true nature of the perfect is temporal aspect reflected in its own opposition, which cannot be reduced to any other opposition of the otherwise recognised verbal categories. The suggested name for this category will be "retrospective coordination", or, contractedly, "retrospect". The categorical member opposed to the perfect, for the sake of terminological consistency, will be named "imperfect" (non-perfect). As an independent category, the retrospective coordination is manifested in the integral verb-form together with the manifestations of other categories, among them the aspective category of development. Thus, alongside of the forms of perfect continuous and perfect indefinite, the verb distinguishes also the forms of imperfect continuous and imperfect indefinite.

The first category is realized through the paradigmatic opposition of the continuous (progressive) forms and the non-continuous (indefinite, simple) forms of the verb; this category can be called the category of development.

The marked member of the opposition, the continuous, is formed by means of the auxiliary verb *to be* and *Participle I of the notional verb*, e.g.: "*I am working*". The grammatical meaning of the continuous has been treated traditionally as denoting a process going on simultaneously with another process.

The weak, unfeatured member of the opposition, the indefinite, stresses the mere fact of the performance of the action. The main argument against the idea that relative time meaning, simultaneity, is expressed by the continuous, is as follows: simultaneous actions can be shown with or without the help of continuous verbal forms: "*While I worked, they were speaking with each other.*" – "*While I worked, they spoke with each other.*". The second action, simultaneous with the first in both sentences, is described as durative, or developing in time in the first sentence and as a mere fact in the second sentence. The simutaneity is actually rendered by either the syntactic construction or the broader semantic context, since it is quite natural for the developing action to be connected with a certain time point. Besides, as we mentioned, the aspective meaning of the continuous can be used in combination with the perfect (the perfect continuous form), and the very idea of perfect excludes any possibility of simultaneity.

As with any category, the category of development can be reduced and in most cases the contextual reduction is dependent on the lexico-semantic aspective characteristics of the verbs. The neutralization of the category regularly takes place with unlimitive verbs, especially statal verbs like *to be*, *to have*, verbs of sense perception, relation, etc., e.g.: *I have a problem*; *I love you*. Their indefinite forms are used instead of the continuous for semantic reasons: statal verbs denote developing processes by their own meaning, Since such cases are systemically fixed in English grammar (as the "never-used-in-the-continuous" verbs), the use of the statal verbs in the continuous can be treated as "reverse transposition" ("de-neutralization" of the opposition): their meaning is transformed, they become actional for the nonce, and most of such cases are stylistically colored: *You are being naughty!*; *I'm loving it!* No continuous forms are used with purely limitive verbs whose own meaning excludes any possibility of development, except for contexts which specifically demand the expression of an action in progress, e.g.: *The train was arriving when we reached the station*. The use of the continuous with limitive verbs neutralizes the expression of their lexical aspect, turning them for the nonce, vice versa, into unlimitive verbs.

The neutralization of the category of development can take place for a purely formal reason: to avoid the use of two *ing*-forms together; for example, no continuous forms are used if there is a participial construction to follow, e.g.: *He stood there staring at me.*

The classic example of stylistically colored transposition within the category of development is the use of the continuous instead of the indefinite to

denote habitual, repeated actions in emphatic speech with strong negative connotations, e.g.: *You are constantly grumbling!*

The second aspective category is formed by the opposition of the perfect and the non-perfect forms of the verb; this category can be called "the category of retrospective coordination". The strong member of the opposition, the perfect, is formed with the help of the auxiliary verb *to have* and *Participle II of the notional verb*, e.g.: "*I have done this work*".

The status of this category, as well as the status of the category of development, has given rise to much dispute in grammar. The traditional treatment of the perfect as the tense form denoting the priority of one action in relation to another ("the perfect tense") was developed by H. Sweet, G. Curme, and other linguists. M. Deutchbein, G. N. Vorontsova and other linguists consider the perfect to be a purely aspective form, laying the main emphasis on the fact that the perfect forms denote some result, some transmission of the pre-event to the post-event.

Summarizing all the peculiarities of the perfect outlined within different approaches, we can characterize the opposition of the perfect and the non-perfect as a separate verbal category, semantically intermediate between aspective and temporal. The perfect forms denote a preceding action successively connected with a certain time limit or another action; the following situation is included in the sphere of influence of the preceding situation. So, the two semantic components constituting the hybrid semantics of the perfect are as follows: priority (relative time) and coordination, transmission, or result (aspective meaning). Hence the general name for the category is "the category of retrospective coordination". In different contexts prominence may be given to either of these semantic components of the perfect; for example, in the sentence *I haven't seen you for ages* prominence is given to priority, while in the sentence *I haven't seen you since we passed our last exam* prominence is given to succession or coordination. When the perfect is used in combination with the continuous, the action is treated as prior, transmitted to the posterior situation and developing at the same time, e.g.: *I have been thinking about you since we passed our last exam.*

As with any other grammatical category, the category of retrospective coordination can be reduced. Limitive verbs, which imply the idea of a certain result by themselves, are regularly used in the indefinite form instead of the perfect, e.g.: *Sorry, I left my book at home*. Colloquial neutralization of the category of retrospective coordination is also characteristic of verbs of physical and mental perception, e.g.: *Sorry, I forget your name*. The neutralization of the category of retrospective coordination is particularly active in the American variant of English, where the use of the perfect is restricted compared with British English.

Unlimitive verbs used in the perfect form are turned into "limitive for the nonce", e.g.: *He has never loved anyone like this before*.

Both aspective categories have a verbid representation, the continuous expressing the same categorial meaning of development and the perfect expressing

the meaning of retrospective coordination, e.g.: *It was pleasant to be driving the car again*; *Having finished their coffee, they went out to the porch*; *She was believed to have been feeling unwell for some time*. Additionally, both continuous and perfect forms of the infinitive acquire a special meaning of probability in combination with modal verbs, e.g.: *She must be waiting for you outside*; *The experiment must have been carried out by now*. The perfect infinitive after the modal verbs *ought* and *should* is used to denote a failed action, together with a strong negative connotation of reprimand, e.g.: *You should have waited for me! (but you didn't).*

9. Verb: Grammatical Category of Voice

The verbal category of Voice is an expression of relationship between an action and its subject and object. Being a grammatical category Voice indicates whether the action is performed by the subject or passes on to it. As a result, Voice is connected with the sentence structure more than other verbal categories.

There are two voices in English: the Active Voice and the Passive Voice.

The Active Voice shows that the action is performed by its subject, i.e. that the subject is the doer of the action.

The Passive Voice shows that the subject is acted upon, that it is the recipient of the action.

E.g.: "James sent me a letter." – "A letter was sent to me by James."

The opposition "Active Voice :: Passive Voice" is based on the direction of an action. Active Voice is used to denote actions directed from the person or thing expressed by subject, whereas Passive Voice forms show that an action is directed towards the subject. Thus, the categorial opposition between Passive and Active Voice is based on several factors: relationships between the subject and the predicate, "inward" or "outward" direction of a verbal action and active or inactive quality of the subject.

Passive voice is expressed by analytical combinations of the auxiliary verb *to be* with the Past Participle of the notional verb.

One of the most distinct features of the English language is that passive forms are possible not only for transitive verbs (like in many other languages) but also for intransitive verbs. In English, such intransitive verbs as *to live*, *to sleep* may be used in Passive, e.g. "*The bed was not slept in.*", "*The room is not lived in.*"

Passive Voice is used in situations when the doer is not known or is not mentioned for some reason; in other cases, Passive Voice stresses inactivity of the subject, it allows to shift important information onto the semantic patient, recipient, etc., which would be totally impossible in Active.

It is noteworthy that the combination "*to be + Participle II*" has two meanings. In its first meaning, this combination expresses an action – and then this form is called a simple predicate. In its second meaning, this form denotes a psychological state (e.g., *disappointed*, *disconcerted*, *abashed*, *startled*, *amazed*,

stunned, *irritated*, *vexed*, *alarmed*, *frightened*, *tired*), and then it is a compound nominal predicate. There are a number of criteria helping to differentiate these two meanings: 1) context, 2) lexical meaning of Participle II, and 3) the form of the verb to be.

E.g.: "When the will was read, her first reaction had been one of admiration …" – "… he was rather relieved that W.S. had given no address."

One cannot but mention another formula of Passive Voice, a so-called Passive of action, expressed by the construction "*to get + Participle II*". While the general meaning of this construction is the same, the structure "*He got wounded*" projects more stress on dynamic character of the action compared to the sentence "*He was wounded*" that emphasizes mainly the result of a certain action. Still, some linguists deny the construction with the verb *to get* the passive status and suggest that it should be analyzed as a compound nominal predicate.

Types of Passive Constructions

Direct Passive: "The letter was written yesterday."
Indirect Passive: "I was given a very interesting book yesterday."
Prepositional Passive: "The doctor was sent for."
Phraseological Passive: "Care should be taken not to aggravate the situation."
Adverbial Passive: "The house has not been lived in for many years."

Neutralization of the contrasting oppositions "passive – active" is fairly common in English. This phenomenon takes place when the passive meaning is attributed to verbs in the active form. If we consider such sentences as "The car stopped. – The car was stopped.", "The schedule changes. – The schedule is changed.", "Souvenirs are selling well. – Souvenirs are being sold well.", we may notice that the possibility of the double use is caused by the intrinsic meaning of the verbs themselves. The dual nature of the verbs leads to grammatical synonymy, i.e. the two forms – active and passive – have the same meaning.

The voice identification in English is aggravated by the problem of "medial" voices, i.e. the functioning of the voice forms in other than the passive or active meanings.

As a result, some linguists also distinguish Reflexive Voice. In case of Reflexive Voice, the doer of an action and the object of the action coincide, that is the doer experiences his own actions (e.g. "You can express yourself freely").

Some scholars distinguish so-called Reciprocal Voice. In the case with Reciprocal Voice, actions expressed by verbs are also confined to the subject, but, as different from the sentences with Reflexive Voice, these actions are performed by the subject constituents reciprocally: e.g. "They will meet (each other) tomorrow."; "James and Sandra married two years ago."; "Phil and Trade are

quarrelling over the washing-up again.". Here, the verbal meaning of the action performed by the subjects on one another is clearly reciprocal. As is the case with the reflexive meaning, the reciprocal meaning can be rendered explicit by combining the verbs with special pro-nouns, namely, the reciprocal pronouns *each other* and *one another*.

The existence/non-existence of the so-called Middle Voice (e.g.: "He sells books." – "The book sells well.") is a disputable problem too. The meaning of the verbs in the examples is not active since the actions expressed by them do not pass from the subject to an object – on the contrary, these actions are confined only to referents of the grammatical subjects which are at the same time their own objects of the actions, in other words, the actions are represented here as if going on of their own accord, within themselves.

In this connection Prof. B. A. Ilyish proposed to give a broader definition of the Active voice so as to cover by the definition the cases like "*He sells books.*" – "*The book sells well.*". B. A. Ilyish even proposed to give a new name to the newly defined voice – Common Voice. Such a definition, according to B. A. Ilyish, would cover under one name all the above-mentioned cases of active- passive- use of verbal forms. M. Y. Blokh holds the point of view that the "Middle Voice" uses of verbs are cases of neutralizing reduction of the voice opposition. I. O. Alexeyeva uses the term "Middle Voice" as a synonymous notion for Reflexive Voice.

10. Verb: Grammatical Category of Mood

The category of Mood is a morphological category of the verb denoting the relation of the action denoted by the predicate to objective reality as stated by the speaker, either presenting the process as a fact that really happened, happens or will happen, or treating it as an imaginary phenomenon, i.e. the subject of a hypothesis, speculation, desire. It is one of the most important means of expressing the wider category of modality which can also be expressed by modal verbs (*can*, *may*, *must*, etc.) and modal words (*maybe*, *perhaps*, *probably*, *evidently*, etc.).

Mood makes one of the most disputable problems of the English grammar theory. The main theoretical difficulties are due to the following reasons:

1) the coexistence in Modern English of both synthetical and analytical forms of the verb with the same grammatical meaning of unreality: ("I wish I were in Greece now." – "I'd like to be in Greece now.")

2) the fact that there are verbal forms homonymous with the Past Indefinite and Past Perfect of the Indicative Mood which are employed to express unreality: ("He knew everything and he told her about their conspiracy." – "If he knew everything, he would tell her about their conspiracy.")

3) the difficulty consists in distinguishing the analytical forms of the Subjunctive Mood with the auxiliaries *should*, *would*, *may* (*might*) which are devoid of their lexical meaning from the homonymous verb-groups, in which they retain their lexical meaning: ("It's highly desirable that you should take part in this music contest." – In the sentence the Suppositional Mood is used).

The number of moods in English is still one of the unsettled problems. It ranges from ten to a complete negation of mood form in English at all. The principle of division is based on the tendency to ascribe to each of the forms a specific grammatical meaning. For instance, in communication we can have assertion, hence we deal with a verb in the Indicative Mood. If we want to intensify the assertion, we deal with the Emphatic Mood. If the action is connected with reality as something compelled, we deal with the Compulsory Mood. If the action is permitted we deal with the Permissive Mood. If something is desired we deal with the Optative Mood. If ability is expressed we deal with the Potential Mood. This list of Moods can be expanded by the Admirative Mood, the Cohortative Mood, the Dubitative Mood, the Energetic Mood, the Eventive Mood, the Generic Mood, the Hypothetical Mood, the Jussive Mood, the Negative Mood, the Presumptive Mood, etc. Clearly, the given scheme may also be liable to subdivision, giving rise to many "moods" that would make the study of the language system unnecessarily complicated.

The analysis of the category of Mood introduced by some linguists is based largely on the historical and comparative consideration and is worked out along the notional semantic line. Hence, there exists the fact that there aren't two grammarians who would agree on the number of moods in particular. Below we'll consider views of some grammarians on the problem mentioned above.

H. Sweet in his work "A New English Grammar. Logical and Historical. Oxford" wrote: "By the moods of a verb we understand grammatical forms expressing different relations between subject and predicate". According to his opinion there are two moods in English which oppose to each other: "Fact-mood" – "Thought-form".

"Fact mood" it is a mood (grammatically unmarked) that represents the act or state as an objective fact. "Fact mood" is well-known as common mood, declarative mood or indicative mood.

"Thought-form is divided into 3 moods:

1. Conditional mood – the combination of *should* and *would* with *the Infinitive*, when used in the principle clause of conditional sentences.

2. Permissive mood – the combination of *may*/*might* with *the Infinitive*.

3. Compulsive mood – the combination of the finite form of the verb "*to be*" with the Supine.

G. Curme (A Grammar of the English Language.): "Moods are the changes in the form of the verb to show the various ways in which the action or state is thought of by the speaker".

He distinguishes the following moods:

1. Indicative Mood. This form represents something as a fact, or as in close relation with reality, or in interrogative form inquires after a fact.

2. Subjunctive Mood. There are two entirely different kinds of subjunctive forms: the old simple subjunctive and newer forms consisting of a modal auxiliary and a dependent infinitive of

the verb to be used.

The function of the Subjunctive is to represent something not as an actual reality, but as something that is formed in the speaker's mind: as desire, wish, volition, plan, conception, thought, sometimes with more or less hope of realization. The present subjunctive is associated with the idea of hopeless, likelihood, while the past subjunctive indicates doubt, unlikelihood or unreality.

E.g.: I desire that he go at once.
I fear he may come too late.
I would have bought it if I had had money.

Although the Subjunctive, being used to establish the speaker's or writer's mood about the actuality of happening, is gradually dying out of the language, English is rich in devices for expressing one's psychological moods toward happenings that are imaginary. We can, for instance, clearly indicate whether a non-actual (i. e. unrealized) happening can be regarded as an intention, probability, possibility, necessity, hope, and so forth.

E.g.: Tomorrow, I *will* go to Boston.
Tomorrow, I *may* go to Boston.
Tomorrow, I *might* go to Boston.
Tomorrow, I *can* go to Boston.
Tomorrow, I *must* go to Boston.
Tomorrow, I *should* go to Boston.

Our apparatus for expressing mood suggests that in the use of verb word-groups, the speaker's or writer's mental attitude are of great importance.

According to professor A. I. Smirnitsky, in Modern English there are the Indicative Mood, the Imperative Mood and the so-called Oblique Moods: the Subjunctive I, the Subjunctive II, the Suppositional Mood and the Conditional Mood. A. I. Smirnitsky took the consideration both the form and meaning of the predicate as the base for his classification of Moods in Modern English. When using a form of Indicative Mood the speaker represents the action as really taking place, as a real fact; when he uses the Imperative Mood the speaker directly induces the listener(s) to produce the action required; but when he uses an oblique mood he represents the action not as a real fact but only as desirable, necessary, possible, imaginary, etc.

E.g.: I wish I were sixteen.
It is necessary that you should go there immediately.
If it were summer now we would go to the Crimea.

Information mentioned above shows that the problem of the number of moods in Modern English is the most controversial problem of English Grammar. There is only one point clear: the category of mood is realized through the opposition of the direct (indicative) mood forms of the verb and the oblique mood forms. It should be emphasized that a great variety of views is observed as to the number of the oblique moods, their meanings and their classification. The polar points of view are those of the German grammarian M. Deutschbein and the Russian scholar L. S. Barkhudarov. M. Deutchbein took the criterion of form as

the base for his classification of Moods in Modern English. M. Deutschbein found 16 moods in Modern English, while L. S. Barkhudarov held it that there are no oblique moods in Modern English at all. L. S. Barkhudarov denied the existence of morphologically expressed oblique moods in Modern English on the assumption that the traditional oblique mood auxiliaries *should* and *would* are not quite auxiliaries since they still preserve their original modal meanings of obligation and volition and may be used in free word combinations like any other full-fledged verbs (e.g.: "It is highly desirable that you should go there" (Suppositional mood is used, there is no modal meaning in the sentence) – "You should go there now" (a modal phrase)). As far as the forms like *if I knew* or *if I had known* are concerned, L. S. Barkhudarov introduces them as forms of the Past Indefinite tense and the Past Perfect tense used in the Indicative Mood but in a special contextual environment.

Such a controversy of views and opinions on the number and the very essence of the Modern English Oblique Moods, on the one hand, is caused by the fact of absence of direct correspondence between the form and meaning of the oblique mood forms. E.g.: 1. It is necessary that I *should go* there tomorrow (the Suppositional Mood). 2. If I knew about it, I *should go* there tomorrow (the Conditional Mood). 3. I *should go* there tomorrow (a Modal phrase). On the other hand, the same meaning may be rendered by different grammatical forms. E.g.: It is necessary that you should go there (the Suppositional Mood). = It is necessary that you go there (the Subjunctive I).

Questions and assignments for reflection:

1. Reveal the status of the verb in the system of parts of speech?
2. Disclose the general description of the verb on the bases of semantic, formal and functional criteria.
3. Comment on the word-building of the verb.
4. Give the analysis of the morphological classification of the verb.
5. What is the essence of the semantic classification of the verb? Characterize the types of the verbs in the light of this classification.
6. Decode the peculiarities of functional classification of the verb.
6. Introduce the combinatorial classification of the verb.
7. Expose the verbal categories of person and number. Where and when is "agreement in sense" (or "notional concord") used?
8. What are the three main divisions of time?
9. What are the main means of expressing temporality?
10. What is an absolute, relative and transposed use of tenses?
11. What is the category of aspect? What other means of expressing aspectuality do you know?
12. Analyze the opposition the category of aspect based.
13. Introduce the verbal category of voice. Comment on the use of the passive voice in Modern English.
14. Reveal the problem of the existence of medial voices.
15. What means of expressing modality do you know?

16. Expose the verbal category of mood. Analyze the following theoretical difficulties that make mood one of the most disputable problems of the English grammar theory:

– The coexistence in Modern English of both synthetical and analytical forms of the verb with the same grammatical meaning of unreality.

– The fact that there are verbal forms homonymous with the Past Indefinite and Past Perfect of the Indicative Mood which are employed to express unreality.

– The difficulty consists in distinguishing the analytical forms of the Subjunctive Mood with the auxiliaries *should*, *would*, *may* (*might*) which are devoid of their lexical meaning from the homonymous verb-groups, in which they retain their lexical meaning.

17. What is the reason for existing controversy of views on the number of moods in Modern English?

Lecture 8. VERBIDS

Aim: to introduce the generalities of the verbids; to describe the dual verbal-nominal meaning of the infinitive; to analyze the types of the infinitive; to decode the essence of the gerund; to investigate the grammatical peculiarities of the present participle; to reveal the grammatical nature of the past participle.

List of Issues Discussed:

1. Verbids: Generalities.
2. Infinitive.
3. Gerund.
4. Present Participle.
5. Past Participle.

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Key notions: non-finitude, non-finite form of the verb, verbid, infinitive, marked infinitive, unmarked infinitive, bare infinitive, split infinitive, gerund, present participle, past participle.

1. Verbids: Generalities

Non-finite forms of the verb –Verbids – are the forms of the verb intermediary in many of their lexico-grammatical features between the verb and the non-processual parts of speech. The mixed features of these forms are revealed in the principal spheres of the part-of-speech characterisation, i.e. in their meaning, structural marking, combinability, and syntactic functions. The processual meaning is exposed by them in a substantive or adjectival-adverbial interpretation: they render processes as peculiar kinds of substances and properties. They are formed by special morphemic elements which do not express either grammatical time or mood (the most specific finite verb categories). They can be combined with verbs like non-processual lexemes (performing non-verbal functions in the sentence), and they can be combined with non-processual lexemes like verbs (performing verbal functions in the sentence).

The opposition of the finite verbs and the verbids is based on the expression of the functions of full predication and semi-predication. While the finite verbs express predication in its genuine and complete form, the function of the verbids is to express semi-predication, building up semi-predicative complexes within different sentence constructions. The English verbids include four forms distinctly differing from one another within the general verbid system: the Infinitive, the Gerund, the Present Participle, and the Past Participle. In compliance with this difference, the verbid semi-predicative complexes are distinguished by the corresponding differential properties both in form and in syntactic-contextual function.

2. Infinitive

The Infinitive is the non-finite form of the verb which combines the properties of the verb with those of the noun, serving 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. In this quality it can be likened to the nominative case of the noun in languages having a normally

developed noun declension. It is not by chance that A. A. Shakhmatov called the infinitive the "verbal nominative". With the English Infinitive, its role of the verbal paradigmatic head-form is supported by the fact that it represents the actual derivation base for all the forms of regular verbs.

The Infinitive is used in three fundamentally different types of functions:

- first, as a notional, self-positional syntactic part of the sentence;
- second, as the notional constituent of a complex verbal predicate built up around a predicator verb;
- third, as the notional constituent of a finite conjugation form of the verb.

The first use is grammatically "free", the second is grammatically "half-free", the third is grammatically "bound".

The dual verbal-nominal meaning of the Infinitive is expressed in full measure in its free, independent use. It is in this use that the Infinitive denotes the corresponding process in an abstract, substance-like presentation. This can easily be tested by question-transformations: "Do you really mean *to go away* and *leave* me here alone? → *What* do you really mean? It made her proud sometimes *to toy* with the idea. → *What* made her proud sometimes?"

The combinability of the infinitive also reflects its dual semantic nature, in accord with which we distinguish between its verb-type and noun-type connections.

The verb-type combinability of the Infinitive is displayed in its combining, first, with nouns expressing the object of the action; second, with nouns expressing the subject of the action; third, with modifying adverbs; fourth, with predicator verbs of semi-functional nature forming a verbal predicate; fifth, with auxiliary finite verbs (word-morphemes) in the analytical forms of the verb.

The noun-type combinability of the Infinitive is displayed in its combining, first, with finite notional verbs as the object of the action; second, with finite notional verbs as the subject of the action.

The self-positional Infinitive, in due syntactic arrangements, performs the functions of all types of notional sentence-parts, i. e. the subject, the object, the predicative, the attribute, the adverbial modifier.

E.g.: *To meet* the head of the administration and not *to speak* to him about your predicament was unwise. (Infinitive subject position)

The chief arranged *to receive* the foreign delegation in the afternoon. (Infinitive object position)

The parents' wish had always been *to see* their eldest son the continuator of their joint scientific work. (Infinitive predicative position)

Here again we are faced with a plot *to overthrow* the legitimately elected government of the republic. (Infinitive attributive position)

Helen was far too worried *to listen* to the remonstrances. (Infinitive adverbial position)

The English Infinitive exists in two presentation forms. One of them, characteristic of the free uses of the Infinitive, is distinguished by the pre-

positional marker *to.* This form is called traditionally the "to-infinitive", or in more recent linguistic works, the "marked infinitive". The other form, characteristic of the bound uses of the Infinitive, does not employ the marker *to,* thereby presenting the Infinitive in the shape of the pure verb stem, which in modern interpretation is understood as the zero-suffixed form. This form is called traditionally the "bare infinitive", or in more recent linguistic works, respectively, the "unmarked infinitive".

The infinitive marker *to* is a word-morpheme, i.e. a special formal particle analogous to other auxiliary elements in the English grammatical structure. Its only function is to build up and identify the infinitive form as such. As other analytical markers, the particle *to* can be used in an isolated position to represent the whole corresponding construction syntagmatically zeroed in the text.

E.g.: You are welcome to acquaint yourself with any of the documents if you want *to.*

Like other analytical markers, it can also be separated from its notional, i.e. infinitive part by a word or a phrase, usually of adverbial nature, forming the so-called "split infinitive".

E.g.: My task is not to accuse or acquit; my task it *to* thoroughly *investigate, to* clearly *define,* and *to* consistently *systematise* the facts.

Thus, the marked infinitive presents just another case of an analytical grammatical form. The use or non-use of the infinitive marker depends on the verbal environment of the infinitive. Namely, the unmarked infinitive is used, besides the various analytical forms, with modal verbs (except the modals *ought* and *used),* with verbs of physical perceptions, with the verbs *let, bid, make, help* (with the latter – optionally), with the verb *know* in the sense of "experience", with a few verbal phrases of modal nature *(had better, would rather, would have,* etc.), with the relative-inducive *why.*

The Infinitive is a categorially changeable form. It distinguishes the following grammatical categories sharing them with the finite verb, namely, the aspective category of development (continuous in opposition), the aspective category of retrospective coordination (perfect in opposition), the category of voice (passive in opposition).

Consequently, the categorial paradigm of the infinitive of the objective verb includes eight forms: the indefinite active (*to take*), the continuous active (*to be taking*), the perfect active (*to have taken*), the perfect continuous active (*to have been taking*); the indefinite passive (*to be taken*), the continuous passive (*to be being taken*), the perfect passive (*to have been taken*), the perfect continuous passive (*to have been being taken*).

The infinitive paradigm of the non-objective verb, correspondingly, includes four forms: the indefinite active (*to go*), the continuous active (*to be going*), the perfect active (*to have gone*),
the perfect continuous active (*to have been going*).

The continuous and perfect continuous passive can only be used occasionally, with a strong stylistic colouring. But they underlie the corresponding finite verb forms. It is the indefinite infinitive that constitutes the head-form of the verbal paradigm.

3. Gerund

The Gerund is the non-finite form of the verb which, like the Infinitive, combines the properties of the verb with those of the noun. Similar to the Infinitive, the Gerund serves as the verbal name of a process, but its substantive quality is more strongly pronounced than that of the Infinitive. 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.

Since the gerund, like the infinitive, is an abstract name of the process denoted by the verbal lexeme, a question might arise, why the Infinitive, and not the Gerund is taken as the head-form of the verbal lexeme as a whole, its accepted representative in the lexicon.

As a matter of fact, the Gerund cannot perform the function of the paradigmatic verbal head-form for a number of reasons. In the first place, it is more detached from the finite verb than the Infinitive semantically, tending to be a far more substantival unit categorially.

Then, as different from the Infinitive, it does not join in the conjugation of the finite verb. Unlike the Infinitive, it is a suffixal form, which makes it less generalised than the infinitive in terms of the formal properties of the verbal lexeme (although it is more abstract in the purely semantic sense). Finally, it is less definite than the Infinitive from the lexico-grammatical point of view, being subject to easy neutralisations in its opposition with the verbal noun in *-ing,* as well as with the Present Participle. Hence, the Gerund is no rival of the Infinitive in the paradigmatic head-form function.

The general combinability of the Gerund, like that of the Infinitive, is dual, sharing some features with the verb, and some features with the noun.

The verb-type combinability of the gerund is displayed in its combining, first, with nouns expressing the object of the action; second, with modifying adverbs; third, with certain semi-functional predicator verbs, but other than modal.

Of the noun-type is the combinability of the gerund, first, with finite notional verbs as the object of the action; second, with finite notional verbs as the prepositional adjunct of various functions; third, with finite notional verbs as the subject of the action; fourth, with nouns as the prepositional adjunct of various functions.

The gerund, in the corresponding positional patterns, performs the functions of all the types of notional sentence-parts, i.e. the subject, the object, the predicative, the attribute, the adverbial modifier.

E.g.: *Repeating* your accusations over and over again doesn't make them more convincing. (Gerund subject position)

No wonder he delayed *breaking* the news to Uncle Jim. (Gerund direct object position)

She could not give her mind to *pressing* wild flowers in Pauline's botany book. (Gerund addressee object position)

Joe felt annoyed at *being shied* by his roommates. (Gerund prepositional object position)

You know what luck is? Luck is *believing* you're lucky. (Gerund predicative position)

Fancy the pleasant prospect of *listening* to all the gossip they've in store for you! (Gerund attributive position)

He could not push against the furniture without *bringing* the whole lot down. (Gerund adverbial of manner position)

One of the specific gerund patterns is its combination with the noun in the possessive case or its possessive pronominal equivalent expressing the subject of the action. This gerundial construction is used in cases when the subject of the gerundial process differs from the subject of the governing sentence-situation, i.e. when the gerundial sentence-part has its own, separate subject.

E.g.: *Powell's being rude* like that was disgusting. How can she know about *the Morions' being connected* with this unaccountable affair? Will he ever excuse *our having interfered?*

The possessive with the Gerund displays one of the distinctive categorial properties of the gerund as such, establishing it in the English lexemic system as the form of the verb with nounal characteristics.

The formal sign of the Gerund is wholly homonymous with that of the Present Participle: it is the suffix *-ing* added to its grammatically (categorially) leading element.

Like the Infinitive, the Gerund is a categorially changeable (variable, demutative) form; it distinguishes the two grammatical categories, sharing them with the finite verb and the present participle, namely, the aspective category of retrospective coordination (perfect in opposition), and the category of voice (passive in opposition).

Consequently, the categorial paradigm of the Gerund of the objective verb includes four forms: the simple active (*taking*), the perfect active (*having taken*); the simple passive (*being taken*), the perfect passive (*having been taken*).

The gerundial paradigm of the non-objective verb, correspondingly, includes two forms. the simple active (*going*), the perfect active (*having gone*).

The perfect forms of the Gerund are used, as a rule, only in semantically strong positions, laying special emphasis on the meaningful categorical content of the form.

4. Present Participle

The Present Participle is the non-finite form of the verb which combines the properties of the verb with those of the adjective and adverb, serving as the

qualifying-processual name. In its outer form the Present Participle is wholly homonymous with the Gerund, ending in the suffix *-ing* and distinguishing the same grammatical categories of retrospective coordination and voice.

Like all the verbids, the Present Participle has no categorial time distinctions, and the attribute "present" in its conventional name is not immediately explanatory; it is used in this material from force of tradition.

The Present Participle has its own place in the general paradigm of the verb, different from that of the Past Participle, being distinguished by the corresponding set of characterization features.

Since it possesses some traits both of adjective and adverb, the Present Participle is not only dual, but triple by its lexico-grammatical properties, which is displayed in its combinability, as well as in its syntactic functions.

The verb-type combinability of the Present Participle is revealed, first, in its being combined, in various uses, with nouns expressing the object of the action; second, with nouns expressing the subject of the action (in semi-predicative complexes); third, with modifying adverbs; fourth, with auxiliary finite verbs (word-morphemes) in the analytical forms of the verb.

The adjective-type combinability of the Present Participle is revealed in its association with the modified nouns, as well as with some modifying adverbs, such as adverbs of degree. The adverb-type combinability of the Present Participle is revealed in its association with the modified verbs.

The self-positional Present Participle, in the proper syntactic arrangements, performs the functions of the predicative (occasional use, and not with the pure link *be),* the attribute, the adverbial modifier of various types.

E.g.: The questions became more and more *irritating.* (Present participle predicative position)

She had thrust the crucifix on to the *surviving* baby. (Present participle attributive front-position)

Norman stood on the pavement like a man *watching* his loved one go aboard an ocean liner. (Present participle attributive back-position)

He was no longer the cocky, pugnacious boy, always *squaring up* for a fight. (Present participle attributive backposition, detached)

She went up the steps, *swinging* her hips and *tossing* her fur with bravado. (Present participle manner adverbial back-position)

And *having read* in the papers about truth drugs, of course Gladys would believe it absolutely. (Present participle cause adverbial front-position)

The Present Participle, similar to the Infinitive, can build up semi-predicative complexes of objective and subjective types. The two groups of complexes, i.e. infinitival and present participial, may exist in parallel (e.g. when used with some verbs of physical perceptions), the difference between them lying in the aspective presentation of the process.

E.g.: Nobody noticed *the scouts approach the enemy trench.* – Nobody noticed *the scouts approaching the enemy trench with slow, cautious, expertly*

calculated movements. Suddenly *a telephone* was heard *to buzz,* breaking the spell. – *The telephone* was heard *vainly buzzing* in the study.

A peculiar use of the Present Participle is seen in the absolute participial constructions of various types, forming complexes of detached semi-predication.

E.g.: *The messenger waiting in the hall,* we had only a couple of minutes to make a decision. The dean sat at his desk, *with an electric fire glowing warmly behind the fender at the opposite wall.*

These complexes of descriptive and narrative stylistic nature seem to be gaining ground in present-day English.

5. Past Participle

The Past Participle is the non-finite form of the verb which combines the properties of the verb with those of the adjective, serving as the qualifying-processual name. The Past Participle is a single form, having no paradigm of its own. By way of the paradigmatic correlation with the Present Participle, it conveys implicitly the categorial meaning of the perfect and the passive. As different from the Present Participle, it has no distinct combinability features or syntactic function features specially characteristic of the adverb. Thus, the main self-positional functions of the past participle in the sentence are those of the attribute and the predicative.

E.g.: Moyra's *softened* look gave him a new hope. (Past participle attributive front-position)

The cleverly *chosen* timing of the attack determined the outcome of the battle. (Past participle attributive front-position)

It is a face *devastated* by passion. (Past participle attributive back-position)

His was a victory *gained* against all rules and predictions. (Past participle attributive back-position)

Looked upon in this light, the wording of the will didn't appear so odious. (Past participle attributive detached position)

The light is bright and inconveniently *placed* for reading. (Past participle predicative position)

In the attributive use, the past participial meanings of the perfect and the passive are expressed in dynamic correlation with the aspective lexico-grammatical character of the verb. As a result of this correlation, the attributive past participle of limitive verbs in a neutral context expresses priority, while the past participle of unlimitive verbs expresses simultaneity.

E.g.: A tree *broken* by the storm blocked the narrow passage between the cliffs and the water. (Priority in the passive; the implication is "a tree that had been broken by the storm")

I saw that the picture *admired* by the general public hardly had a fair chance with the judges. (Simultaneity in the passive; the implication is "the picture which was being admired by the public")

Like the Present Participle, the Past Participle is capable of making up semi-predicative constructions of complex object, complex subject, as well as of absolute complex.

Questions and assignments for reflection:

1. Reveal the generalities of the verbids.
2. The infinitive, serving as the verbal name of a process, combines the properties of (name parts of speech) … .
3. Comment on three fundamentally different types of functions typical to the infinitive.
4. Decode the verb-type combinability of the infinitive and the noun-type combinability of the infinitive.
5. What are the syntactical functions of the self-positional infinitive? Give the examples.
6. Analyze the two presentation forms of the infinitive.
7. What forms does the categorial paradigm of the infinitive of the objective verb include?
8. Comment on the dual nature of the gerund. Name parts of speech the properties of which the gerund combines.
9. Expose the verb-type combinability of the gerund and the noun-type combinability of the gerund.
10. What functions does the gerund perform in the proper positional patterns? Illustrate each function with the example.
11. Analyze the categorial paradigm of the gerund of the objective verb.
12. The present participle, serving as the qualifying-processual name, combines the properties of (name parts of speech) … .
13. Comment on the verb-type combinability of the present participle and the adjctive-type combinability of the present participle.
14. What functions does the self-positional present participle perform in the proper syntactic arrangements? Give the examples.
15. The past participle, serving as the qualifying-processual name, combines the properties of (name parts of speech) … .
16. What are the self-positional functions of the past participle in the sentence? Illustrate each function with the example.
17. Comment on the past participial meanings of the perfect and the passive in the attributive use.

Lecture 9. ADVERB

Aim: to analyze the generalities of the adverb; to emphasize the peculiarities of its semantics, word-building, combinability and syntactic functions; to introduce the typology of the adverbs.

List of Issues Discussed:

1. Adverb: Generalities.
2. Typology of Adverbs.

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Key notions: adverb, preposition-like adverb, adverbial postpositon, postverbial particle, pospositive, postfix, postpositive affix, posposition, qualitative adverb, quantitative adverb and circumstantial adverb, gradable adverb, non-gradable adverb.

1. Adverb: Generalities

Semantics: The adverb is a part of speech which expresses the degree or measure of a property or a quality (*very sweet*), or the property of an action (*to run quickly*), or the circumstances under which an action takes (took) place (i.e.,) circumstances characteristic of processes): *here*, *there*, *then*, *sometimes*, *today*, etc.).

Form: As to their structure, adverbs may be non-derived, or simple (e.g. *here*, *there*, *now*, *then*, *so*, *quick*, *why*, *how*, *where*, *when*, *very*, *rather*) and derived (e.g. *slowly*, *sideways*, *clockwise*, *homewards*, *away*, *ahead*, *apart*, *across*). We can also distinguish composite forms (*sometimes*, *nowhere*, *anyhow*) and phrasal forms (*at least*, *at most*, *at last*, *to and fro*, *upside-down*) of the adverb.

A prolific source of adverbs is the adjective: many *-ly* adverbs are transformationally related to respective adjectives. Consider:

He liked Mary considerably. – He liked Mary to a considerable extent.

He spoke to John sharply. – He spoke to John in a sharp manner.

He wrote frequently. – He wrote on frequent occasions.

Politically, it is a bad decision. – From the political point of view, it is a bad decision.

The suffix *-ly* is a typical marker of the adverb. However, many adverbs related to adjectives may not be necessarily used with the suffix *-ly*, e.g. *fast*, *late*, *hard*, high, *clean*, *clear*, close, loud, tight, firm, quick, right, sharp, slow, *wide*, etc. Consider:

He came late. vs. *Have you been to the cinema lately?*

Father works hard. vs. I hardly know her.

Open your mouth wide. vs. *He traveled widely*.

I clean forgot to ask him about it. vs. *The top of the ornament broke cleanly off.*

The bullet went clear through the door. vs. *I couldn't see him clearly*.

Stay close to me. vs. *She studied the photographs very closely*.

We decided to go slow (i.e. to work slowly). vs. *He was moving slowly*.

Very characteristic of English are adverbs which can be used as prepositions and conjunctive words, e.g. *before*, *after*, *round*, *within*. Consider:

We arrived just before two o'clock. vs. *Have you been to London before?*

She ran after him into the courtyard. vs. *Soon after, Faraday began his research into electricity.*

There was a wall all the way round. vs. *He now has five shops scattered (a)round the town.*

The prisoners demanded the freedom to congregate within the prison. vs. *He decorated the house within and without*.

On second thoughts, however, the said words can be regarded as prepositions in all the cited examples. So, for instance, *Have you been to London before?* may be treated as an elliptical sentence in which the noun is omitted, e.g. *Have you been to London before the present time?*

Special mention should be made of preposition-adverb like elements which form a semantic blend with verbs: *to give up*, *to give in*, *to give out*, *to give away*, *to give over*, etc; *to set up*, *to set in*, *to set forth*, *to set down*, etc. The verb-adverb combination goes by several names: two-part verbs, composite verbs, phrasal verbs. The verbs in such combinations are mostly one-syllable words; the most

common adverbs are those denoting place, e.g. *in*, *out*, *on*, *off*, *over*, *up*, *down*, *through*, etc. Some of the adverbs may be separated by objective complements, e.g. *Please hand in your papers*. vs. *Please hand your papers in*. Others are non-separable, e.g. *John called on me*. vs. *John called me on*.

In verb-adverb combinations the second element may: a) retain its adverbial properties of showing direction (e.g. *to go out*, *to go in*, *to go away*); b) change the aspect of the verb, i.e. mark the completeness of the process (e.g. *to eat – to eat up*; *to stand – to stand up*; *to sit – to sit down*; *to lie – to lie down*; to shave – to shave off; *to speak – to speak out*); c) intensify the meaning of the process (e.g. *to end – to end up*; *to finish – to finish up (off)*; *to cut – to cut off*; *to talk – to talk away*); d) lose its lexical meaning and form an integral whole, a set expression (e.g. *to fall out* 'to quarrel'; *to give in* 'to surrender'; *to come off* 'to take place'; *to leave off* 'to stop'; *to boil down* 'to be reduced in quantity').

These combinations have been treated by different scholars in different ways. Some scholars have treated the second element as a variety of adverbs, as preposition-like adverbs (A. Smirnitsky), as a special kind of adverb called adverbial postpositon (I. E. Anichkov), as postverbial particles (L. Kivimägi), as a special kind of form-word called pospositive (N. N. Amosova), a postfix or postpositive affix (Y. Zhluktenko), a separate part of speech called posposition (B.A. Ilyish). As for B. Ilyish, he later changed his view arguing that, since the second element does not indicate the circumstances in which the process takes place, the whole construction is a phraseological unit: the whole has a meaning different from the meanings of the components. M. Blokh calls the second element a special particle. Gunnar Kiviväli notes that the second element in such combinations has formally not merged with the verb: the grammatical ending is added not to the second element but to the verb (e.g. *He gets up at seven*); the second element may be separated from the verb (e.g. *Give my love to Polly and tell her to feed you up*).

All this would say that the second element looks like a loose morpheme, a postfix. The great variety of interpretations shows the complexity of the problem. At present we cannot say which interpretation is the right one: the problem requires further research.

Combinability: Adverbs can combine: 1) with verbs (right-hand combinability: *to run* → *fast*; left-hand combinability *clean*← *forgot*); 2) adverbs of degree can combine with adjectives (left-hand combinability: *very* ← *nice*, *extremely* ← *furious*); 3) with other adverbs (so-called "mutual combinability"): *extremely* ↔ *furiously*; 4) with nouns (left and right-hand combinability: *today* ← *the world* → *today*); 5) with pronouns (left-hand combinability: *this* ← *very man*).

Function: The usual function of adverbs in the sentence is that of adverbial modifiers (of degree, time, place, condition, etc.): *here*, *there*, *then*, always, *very*, *extremely*, etc.

2. Typology of Adverbs

Adverbs are commonly divided into qualitative, quantitative and circumstantial.

By qualitative such adverbs are meant as express immediate, inherently non-graded qualities of actions and other qualities. The typical adverbs of this kind are qualitative adverbs in *-ly. E. g.: The little boy was crying bitterly over his broken toy*.

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

As we see, the degree adverbs, though usually described under the heading of "quantitative", in reality constitute a specific variety of qualitative words, or rather some sort of intermediate qualitative-quantitative words, in so far as they are used as quality evaluators. In this function they are distinctly different from genuine quantitative adverbs which are directly related to numerals and thereby form sets of words of pronominal order. Such are numerical-pronominal adverbs like *twice, thrice, four times,* etc.; *twofold, threefold,* etc.

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

Circumstantial adverbs are also divided into notional and functional. The functional circumstantial adverbs are words of pronominal nature. Besides quantitative (numerical) adverbs mentioned above, they include adverbs of time, place, manner, cause, consequence. Many of these words are used as syntactic connectives and question-forming functionals. Here belong such words as *now, here, when, where, so, thus, how, why,* etc. As for circumstantial adverbs of more self-dependent nature, they include two basic sets: first, adverbs of time; second, adverbs of place: *today, tomorrow, already, ever, never, shortly, recently, seldom, early, late; homeward, eastward, near, far, outside, ashore,* etc. The two varieties express a general idea of temporal and spatial orientation and essentially perform deictic (indicative) functions in the broader sense. Bearing this in mind, we may

unite them under the general heading of "orientative" adverbs, reserving the term "circumstantial" to syntactic analysis of utterances.

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

Similar to adjectives, adverbs can be gradable and non-gradable. Gradable adverbs are adverbs which are capable of expressing the intensivity of the process, e.g. *loudly – more loudly – the most loudly*. The number of non-gradables is much greater among adverbs than among adjectives.

Questions and assignments for reflection:

1. Introduce the general description of the verb on the bases of semantic, formal and functional criteria.
2. Reveal the status of the verb-adverb combinations.
3. Analyze the patterns of combinability typical to the adverb. Give the examples.
4. Comment on the typology of adverbs.

Lecture 10. FUNCTIONAL PARTS OF SPEECH. STRUCTURAL WORDS

Aim: to analyze the grammatical peculiarities of functional parts of speech; to reveal the grammatical essence of the structural words.

List of Issues Discussed:

1. Functional Parts of Speech.
2. Structural Words

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Key notions: functional part of speech, separability, article, preposition, conjunction, particle, modal word, interjection, auxiliary, structural word, pronoun, conjunctive pronoun, conjunctive adverb, sentence connecting adverb.

1. Functional Parts of Speech

Contrasted against the notional parts of speech are words of incomplete nominative meaning and non-self-dependent, mediatory functions in the sentence. These are functional parts of speech. Functional words are words that have little lexical meaning or have ambiguous meaning, but instead serve to express grammatical relationships with other words within a sentence, or specify the attitude or mood of the speaker. They signal the structural relationships that words have to one another and are the glue that holds sentences together. Their position is to a certain extent contradictory: being words by form, by their function they belong to the grammatical structure. It is impossible to regard them as the morphemes as they have all features characterizing words and the basic feature is their separability, as distinct from the morphemes ("boy‖*s*", "chang‖*ed*" – "men *and* women"). The conjunction *and* in the example cited can be easily removed, the speaker can avoid the using of it making a pause. The grammatical endings *-s* and *-ed* are vice versa can not be removed and replaced with other language means.

It is important to consider the conceptions of some grammarians.

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

Facts mentioned above bear the proof that it is difficult to draw a definite line between full words and form-words.

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

Put your cap *on* (adv.)

Put your cap *on* your head (preposition);

and

I have not seen her *since* (adv.)

I have not seen her *since* I arrived (preposition)

Because of these facts they may be termed by one word, i.e. "Particles"".

The use of functional words is obligatory, whereas of the notional words is not. There is not a single notional word without which the language would not work. The number of function words is very limited, and it is very easy to list them. But as to their frequency, it is very high, especially of such words as the definite article, the preposition *of* and the conjunction *and*. The use of function words does not depend on the character of the text, its style. Changes of a vocabulary of a language do not effect function words, they do not change as rapidly as full words do. They are very stable.

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

The article expresses the specific limitation of the substantive functions.

The preposition expresses the dependencies and interdependences of substantive referents.

The conjunction expresses connections of phenomena.

The particle unites the functional words of specifying and limiting meaning. To this series, alongside of other specifying words, should be referred verbal postpositions as functional modifiers of verbs, etc.

The modal word, occupying in the sentence a more pronounced or less pronounced detached position, expresses the attitude of the speaker to the reflected situation and its parts. Here belong the functional words of probability *(probably, perhaps,* etc.), of qualitative evaluation *(fortunately, unfortunately, luckily,* etc.), and also of affirmation and negation.

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

The auxiliary serves to build up analytical forms.

2. Structural Words

Structural words have certain features in common with both: functional words and full notional words. Typical structural words are: pronouns, conjunctive pronouns, conjunctive adverbs (sentence connecting adverbs).

Pronouns are characterized by an extremely generalizing meaning: they point out objects, entities, abstract notions and their qualities without naming them. This generalizing part of speech is actualized contextually, and is deprived of any meaning outside a particular context. In other words, pronouns never name an object or its quality, pronouns only point them out and interpretations of this object and this quality depend entirely on a situation. Even the mere term "pronoun" shows that they are usually used for a noun (*Marry entered the room. = She entered the room.*).

Pronouns are more independent than articles, prepositions and conjunctions.

Syntactically pronouns share their functions with the noun and the adjective. The personal pronouns, several interrogative pronouns, the possessive pronouns in the absolute form, derivatives of *some*, *any*, *no* and *every* perform functions peculiar to the noun, whereas the possessive pronouns, some indefinite pronouns take syntactic positions typical of the adjective. The demonstrative pronouns, several interrogative pronouns, the indefinite pronouns some and any, the defining pronouns *each* and *other* may carry out both nounal and adjectival functions.

Thus, structural words (pronouns as their "representatives") are used in the same way as full words, therefore their function is the same.

Conjunctive pronouns are words that do the work of both a conjunction and a pronoun. They have the connecting force: they are used to make one clause subordinate to another. But unlike the conjunction, the conjunctive pronoun not only builds up the subordination of the sentence, it also functions as a part of the sentence, as a subject for the sub-clause:

I know that she has bought the house. (The conjunction "*that*" makes the second clause subordinate to the first.)

I know who has bought the house. (On the one hand, the conjunctive pronoun "*who*" provides the subordination of the sentence, on the other – it stands for the noun and performs the function of the subject in the subordinate clause. Therefore, it is more independent that a conjunction.)

Conjunctive adverbs (sentence connecting adverbs) are used to introduce an independent clause. Because they serve to relate one clause to another clause, they are usually joined to the end of the first independent clause by the use of a semicolon or a comma.

There are many hotels; however, you will find they are all expensive.

It is possible (but less elegant) to replace the semicolon with a period and simply to begin a new sentence starting with the conjunctive adverb.

There are many hotels. However, you will find they are all expensive.

The position of conjunctives adverbs is not fixed in the sentences (*There are many hotels; however, you will find they are all expensive. = However, there are*

many hotels; you will find they are all expensive. = *There are many hotels; you will find they are all expensive, however*.) This free (relative free) position in the sentences makes the conjunctive adverbs the structural words. The conjunctive adverbs occupy the boarder line position, they come close to both full and function words.

The number of structural words is very limited in the language. They are relatively stable. Their use or choice does not depend on the style of the text.

Questions and assignments for reflection:

1. Analyze the role of functional words in the language.
2. Decode the essence of *separability* as the basic feature of functional words.
3. Reveal the approaches to the status of functional words and their classification suggested by H. Sweet and O. Jespersen.
4. To the basic functional series of words in English belong … .
5. What are the characteristic features of structural words?
6. Expose the position of the pronoun in the system of parts of speech.
7. Comment on the status of the conjunctive pronoun and the conjunctive adverb as the “representatives” of the structural words.

CHAPTER II
REVIEW MORPHOLOGY TEST

Variant 1

1. The core linguistic disciplines are … .
a) Morphology and Syntax
b) Phonology and Lexicology
c) a + b
d) c + Stylistics, History of Grammar

2. Tense is a _____ category.
a) grammatical
b) lexical
c) phonetic
d) textual

3. Syntagmatic relations observed between syntactic units are called …
a) syntactic relations
b) syntactic functions
c) syntactic units

4. Semantically the weak member of the opposition is … .
a) more general and more abstract, used in a wider range of contexts
b) more particular and concrete, used in a narrower range of contexts

5. Premodification comprises …
a) all the units in both pre-head and post-head position
b) all the units placed after the head
c) all the units placed before the head

6. To semi-notional we do not refer the verbs which are...
a) modal
b) link
c) auxiliary
d) verbals

7. What kind of morpheme is *free-* in *freedom*?
a) a free stem
b) a bound stem
c) word-building
d) form-building

8. _____ is the relations between the elements of the system which are regulated by strict rules.

a) structure
b) system
c) language

9. Sentences which contain one subject-predicate unit are known as

a) simple
b) composite
c) elliptical
d) one-member

10. The expanded verbs consist of ... .

a) a verb+a noun
b) a verb+a post-position
c) the non-verb stems
d) a verb stem+affixes

11. Which of the following statements is true?

a) the situational rules of the articles use comply with their generalized semantics

b) the situational rules of the articles use do not comply with their generalized semantics

c) some situational rules of the articles use do not comply with their generalized
semantics

12. Different stems with the typical inflexional morpheme build up a ... .

a) form-class
b) word-form
c) lexeme

13. Modal shade of meaning is inherent for the verbal forms of … .

a) the past tense
b) the present tense
c) the future tense

14. “The city’s business leaders” is the example of the ... .

a) genitive of received
b) genitive of patient
c) genitive of integer
d) genitive of destination

15. The degrees of comparison of English adjective are built up ... .

a) suppletively and analytically
b) synthetically and analytically
c) analytically, suppletively and synthetically

16. Words “wine”, “teas” are the examples of the ... .

a) multitude plural
b) lexicalization of the plural
c) neutralization of the plural

17. Arrange the following lingual units into three sets: A. synthetical grammatical forms; B. analytical grammatical forms; C. free word-combinations:

stays, is ill, *will grow*, *have arranged*, *geese*, *has nothing*, *was arrested*

A. _____
B. _____
C. _____

18. “Children’s book” is the example of the ... .

a) genitive of destination
b) genitive of possessor
c) genitive of integer
d) genitive of received

19. The series of grammatical forms builds up a grammatical... .

a) category
b) syntagma
c) paradigm

20. The sound-replacive verbs are pointed according to the classification ... .

a) semantic
b) structural
c) functional

Variant 2

1. The English noun has the morphological categories of ... .

a) case, number
b) gender, case, number
c) case, gender
d) gender, number

2. The lexical morpheme *-ment* is … .

a) free
b) bound

3. Define the semantic type of the active voice forms in the following sentences:

a) *She undressed before going to bed.*
b) The lady was selling the cakes.
c) The cakes sold out quickly.
d) They divorced a long time ago.
A. reflexive meaning
B. reciprocal meaning
C. medial meaning
D. active meaning proper

4. The morphological oppositions may be of several types such as: … .

a) equipollent and privative
b) gradual and equipollent
c) gradual, equipollent and privative

5. The categorial or lexico-grammatical meaning of nouns is ... .

a) thingness
b) state
c) property
d) process

6. Suffix *-ed* in the verb ‘decided’ (as in ‘he decided to stay’) is … .

a) lexical
b) grammatical

7. _____ do not reflect any grammatical relations between words and are used as the means of formation of words.

a) derivational morphemes
b) inflexional morphemes
c) bound morphemes

8. Verbal transitivity is the ability of the verb to take ... .

a) a direct object
b) an object of addressee
c) an object with the preposition
d) an adjunct

9. Closer to the noun in the amount of substantive properties is … .
a) the gerund
b) the infinitive

10. The adjectives are classified into ... .
a) qualitative and quantitative
b) quantitative and relative
c) qualitative and relative
d) relative, qualitative and quantitative

11. In the word 'worked' affixation is … .
a) additive
b) replacive

12. In passive constructions the order of the components in the deep, semantic structure and the surface, syntactic structure of the sentence … .
a) coincide
b) do not coincide

13. _____ are called predicators.
a) Semi-notional verbs
b) Notional verbs
c) Verbals

14. The words which denote groups of referents united by a common property, like *the newly-wed*, or abstract notions, like *the bitter*, make … .
a) a subclass of the nouns
b) a subclass of the adjectives

15. The founder of the systemic approach in linguistics is … .
a) Ferdinand de Saussure
b) N. Chomsky
c) L. Hielmslev

16. "The category of state words" in English (*afraid, sorry,* etc.) make … .
a) a separate part of speech
b) a subslass of the adjectives
c) a subclass of the adverbs

17. In which of the following sentences the combination of the verb '*to be*' with participle II is a) a passive voice form; b) compound nominal predicate?
A. *The door was painted.*
B. *The door is being painted.*
C. *The door was painted by the landlord.*

18. Language in the narrow sense of the term (‘langue’) is … .

a) an “executive” side of the language, concerned with the production, transmission, and reception of speech; the use of lingual units

b) an underlying language system; the system of special lingual units

19. In which sentences below is the *‘-ing’* form:

A. the Gerund – _____

B. Participle I – _____

C. the verbal noun – _____

a) *That would mean telling him everything.*

b) *She turned around, smiling.*

c) *When speaking to me, she fumbled with the keys.*

d) *Her fumbling with the keys irritated me.*

e) *The happy ending was unexpected.*

20. Arrange the following lingual phenomena in two lists – A. segmental lingual units; B. supra-segmental lingual units:

morpheme, *word-order*, *phoneme*, *intonation pattern*, *word stress*, *sentence*

A. _____

B. _____

Variant 3

1. The loss of the absolute time semantics by the verbal forms of the oblique mood
is their differential feature known as “…”.

2. What two lingual levels are the most important ones?

a) the level of phonemes

b) the level of morphemes

c) the level of words

d) the level of word-combinations

e) the levels of sentences

f) the level of text (supra-sentential constructions)

3. The category of voice in English includes … .

a) two voice forms (active and passive)

b) three voice forms (active, passive and medial)

c) four voice forms (active, passive, medial and reflexive)

4. The adjectives and the adverbs can form the degrees of comparison when they are used in … .

a) the evaluative semantic function

b) the specificative semantic function

5. Which of the segmental levels of the system of language is optional?

a) the level of phonemes
b) the level of morphemes
c) the level of words
d) the level of word-combinations
e) the levels of sentences
f) the level of text (supra-sentential constructions)

6. The verbids cannot function as … .

a) an adverbial modifier
b) a predicate
c) an object
d) a subject
e) a parenthesis

7. Define the type of contextual oppositional reduction in the word-combination: '*the blue skies of Italy*'.

a) neutralization
b) transposition

8. In which of the following sentences is the superlative degree used in the elative sense?

a) *It was the most promising of his declarations.*
b) *It was a most promising declaration.*

9. Define the type of the Subjunctive mood in the following sentences (according to Prof. Blokh's classification – Subjunctive I, Subjunctive II, Subjunctive III, Subjunctive IV):

a) *It is essential that the teacher* ***respect*** *his students*.
b) *You* ***might have asked*** *me about it*.
c) *If I* ***had known*** *about your arrival, I would have hurried*.
d) *If I had known about your arrival, I* ***would have hurried***.

10. Which type of relations between lingual units did Ferdinand de Saussure call "associative relations'?

a) syntagmatic relations
b) paradigmatic relations

11. Which type of relations between lingual units is defined in Latin as relations "in praesentia'?

a) syntagmatic relations
b) paradigmatic relations

12. A.I. Smirnitsky distinguished “the category of time correlation” for the verbal forms traditionally treated as … .

a) Indefinite
b) Continuous
c) Perfect

13. Cases when one member of the opposition substitutes another and the use of the grammatical form is stylistically marked, when it preserves to a certain extent its original functional meaning alongside the meaning of its counter-part, is defined as … .

a) neutralization
b) transposition

14. State which verbal features the verbids possess/ lack:

a) *processual semantics*
b) *category of person and number*
c) *category of tense*
d) *category of aspect*
e) *category of voice*
f) *category of mood*
g) *combinability with a direct object*
A. the verbids lack: _____
B. the verbids have: _____

15. When two or more units of the plane of expression correspond to one unit of the plane of content, it’s a case of … .

a) homonymy
b) synonymy

16. Tense forms in English render … .

a) only the absolute time semantics
b) only the relative time semantics
c) both the absolute time and the relative time semantics

17. The grammatical suffix -(e)s in different contexts renders the meaning of 3d person singular form of the verb, possessive case of the noun, plural of the noun (*break**s***, *bird**’s***, *bird**s**)*. It’s a case of … .

a) grammatical homonymy
b) grammatical synonymy

18. Which of the following verbs cannot be used in the passive voice forms? ‘*to decide, to resemble, to fit, to laugh, to belong, to work, to cost*’

19. To what groups does the adjective '*golden*' belong in the following context:
'*He is the golden boy of the show-biz*'?

A. a) qualitative; b) relative
B. a) evaluative; b) specificative

20. Characterize the category of number of English nouns … .

a) A. immanent; B. reflective;
b) A. closed; B. transgressive;
c) A. constant feature category; B. variable feature category

Variant 4

1. Change the form of the verb in Subjunctive mood to express priority (+ the meaning of failure):

It's high time she finished her work. → _____ .

2. The meaning of the morpheme is … .

a) nominative
b) significative
c) vague

3. Define the semantic types of the genitive in the following word-combinations: *three hours' walk, my father's coat, a new women's shop, Ms. Flom's contribution.*

A. denoting possession – …….
B. denoting qualification – ……..

4. The following verbs – *to look at (to talk about, to laugh at, to frown at, to take care of,* etc.) – are … .

a) transitive
b) intransitive
c) pseudo-transitive

5. Suffix *-ed* in the adjective 'relaxed' (as in 'relaxed atmosphere') is … .

a) lexical
b) grammatical

6. In Prof. Blokh's classification the imperative mood forms make the subtype of … .

a) Subjunctive I
b) Subjunctive II
c) Subjunctive III
d) Subjunctive IV

7. The basic semantic function of the adjectives is:

A. for qualitative adjectives	a) specificative function
B. for relative adjectives	b) evaluative function

8. The following tense forms appeared later than others in the course of historical development:

a) the present tense forms
b) the past tense forms
c) the future tense forms

9. The "historic present" (e.g.: *Suddenly John comes in and says…*) is … .

a) the neutralization of Time I opposition
b) the transposition of Time I opposition

10. Affixes of which type can function only as lexical (derivative, or word-building) affixes?

a) prefix
b) suffix
c) infix

11. The combination of an article with a noun is … .

a) a word-combination
b) an analytical form of the noun
c) a combination of a specific intermediary status between the morphological form of the noun and the word-combination

12. Allo-morphs (variants) of the same morpheme are distinguished in … .

a) contrastive distribution
b) non-contrastive distribution
c) complementary distribution

13. In which of the following words *-s* is not the allo-morph of the same morpheme?

a) speaks
b) dreams
c) phonetics
d) washes

14. Name the three types of grammatically relevant properties of the words that help differentiate classes of words called "parts of speech":

a) _____
b) _____
c) _____

15. ‘Zero’ morpheme is … .

a) overt

b) covert

16. The prevalent type of opposition in English grammar is … .

a) equipolent

b) gradual

c) privative

17. Verbal features are combined with the features of the adjectives and the adverbs in … .

a) the infinitive

b) the gerund

c) participles I and participle II

18. Transform the following word combinations, if possible, into word combinations with the genitive: (e.g.: *operation of my friend → my friend’s operation*):

the problem of unemployment → _____

the article written by Tom → _____

coats of men → _____

a distance of one mile → _____

the leg of a table → _____

19. The member of the opposition, which is formally marked by the presence of a certain differential feature is defined as … .

a) a strong (positive) member of the opposition

b) a weak (negative) member of the opposition

20. The levels of language structure are _____.

a) phonemic, morphemic, lexemic

b) a + syntactic

c) b + morphological

d) none of the above

Variant 5.

1. In the category of case opposition (*girl*::*girl’s*) the form of the genitive is … .

a) the strong (positive) member of the opposition

b) the weak (negative) member of the opposition

2. In which of the following sentences does aspective category transposition take place?

a) *I can't call him, I forgot his telephone number.*

b) *You're always quarreling with each other!*

3. Define the type of contextual oppositional reduction in the sentence: "*The dog was tamed by man a long time ago.*"

a) neutralization

b) transposition

4. Traditional parts of speech classification is … .

a) homogeneous (mono-differential, based on one criterion)

b) heterogeneous (poly-differential, based on a combination of criteria)

5. Pronouns and numerals in the traditional parts of speech classification belong to … .

a) notional parts of speech

b) functional parts of speech

6. A morph is _____.

a) a unit of language

b) a unit of speech

c) an abstraction

d) none of the above

7. Define the aspective semantics type of the following verbs: *to sleep, to leave, to work, to build, to feel, to sell*

a) limitive verbs – _____

b) unlimitive verbs – _____

c) verbs with double (limitive and unlimitive) aspective meaning – _____

8. The parts of speech classification by Ch. Fries is based on … .

a) semantic criterion

b) changeability/unchangeability of words

c) syntactico-distributional criterion

9. Notional parts of speech are … .

a) open classes of words

b) closed classes of words

10. The most widely accepted theory of the category of case in English is … .

a) "the theory of positional cases"

b) "the theory of prepositional cases"

c) " the theory of possessive postpositive"

d) " the theory of limited case"

11. Which supra-class do pronouns and numerals belong to, according to Prof. Blokh's classification:

a) notional parts of speech
b) functional parts of speech
c) substitutional parts of speech

12. The adverbs that belong to the following group can form the degrees of comparison:

a) qualitative
b) quantitative
c) circumstantial

13. Verbal aspective semantics in English is rendered … .

a) only grammatically
b) lexically and grammatically
c) only lexically

14. Define what grammatically relevant groups the following adverbs belong to: *quickly, often, clockwise, once, there*

a) qualitative adverbs – _____
b) quantitative adverbs – _____
c) circumstantial adverbs – _____

15. Which morphemes have the most abstract meaning?

a) lexical
b) derivational
c) grammatical
d) they are all equally abstract

16. The adverbs *now, then* are:

A. a) notional; b) functional; c) semi-functional
B. a) qualitative; b) quantitative; c) circumstantial

17. In the "field theory of parts of speech" the non-finite forms of the verb belong to … .

a) the core of the class of the verb
b) the periphery of the class of the verb

18. Noun is the only notional part of speech which can be combined with … .

a) adverbs
b) prepositions
c) postpositional particles

19. Which of the syntactic functions is not fulfilled by the noun in English?
a) subject
b) predicate
c) attribute
d) object

20. Describe the noun *cat* according to the following characteristics:
A. a) proper; b) common
B. a) animate; b) inanimate
C. a) human; b) non-human
D. a) countable; b) uncountable

Variant 6.

1. The phoneme is _____.
a) a morpheme
b) a positional variant of a morpheme
c) the smallest bilateral unit
d) none of the above

2. The category of gender in English is … .
a) formal
b) meaningful

3. For the bulk of English nouns the category of gender is … .
a) a constant feature category
b) a variable feature category

4. The combination of an article with a noun is … .
a) a word-combination
b) an analytical form of the noun
c) a combination of a specific intermediary status between the morphological form of the noun and the word-combination

5. To semi-notional we do not refer the verbs which are...
a) modal
b) link
c) auxiliary
d) verbals

6. Semantically the weak member of the opposition is … .
a) more general and more abstract, used in a wider range of contexts
b) more particular and concrete, used in a narrower range of contexts

7. Define the gender characteristics of the following nouns: *teacher, smoke, landlord, hostess.*

a) feminine – ….
b) neuter gender – …..
c) common gender – ……
d) masculine – ……

8. Transpositional reduction of the category of gender, i.e. the use of the neuter gender nouns with feminine or masculine pronouns (*vessel – she*), is known as a special stylistic device of "…".

a) metaphor
b) metonymy
c) personification

9. The allomorph is _____.

a) a morpheme
b) a positional variant of a morpheme
c) the smallest bilateral unit
d) none of the above

10. The degrees of comparison of English adjective are built up ... .

d) suppletively and analytically
e) synthetically and analytically
f) analytically, suppletively and synthetically

11. The expanded verbs consist of ... .

e) a verb+a noun
f) a verb+a post-position
g) the non-verb stems
h) a verb stem+affixes

12. For the bulk of English nouns the category of number is … .

a) a constant feature category
b) a variable feature category

13. Define the number category characteristics of the following nouns: *news, car, shorts, salt, man, cattle.*

a) Singularia Tantum nouns – ……..
b) Pluralia Tantum nouns – ……
c) regular countable nouns – …..

14. The verb '*to have'* in English cannot function as … .

a) a notional verb
b) a semi-functional link verb
c) a semi-functional modal verb

15. The adverbs *now, then* are:

A. a) notional; b) functional; c) semi-functional

B. a) qualitative; b) quantitative; c) circumstantial

16. The morphological oppositions may be of several types such as: … .

d) equipollent and binary

e) gradual and equipollent

f) gradual, equipollent and binary

17. Define the general relational semantics type (according to the relations between the subject and the process) of the following verbs: *arrive, worry, smell, make, neglect, listen, walk, taste, be, support, hear*

a) actional verbs – _____

b) statal vebrs – _____

c) the verbs of double (actional and statal) relational semantics – _____

18. What kind of morpheme is *-dom* in *freedom*?

a) a free stem

b) a bound stem

c) derivational

d) inflexional

19. Noun is the only notional part of speech which can be combined with … .

a) adverbs

b) prepositions

c) postpositional particles

20. The adverbs that belong to the following group can form the degrees of comparison:

a) qualitative

b) quantitative

c) circumstantial

GLOSSARY

active voice: used about a verb phrase not marked for the passive voice. Typically (but not necessarily), the subject of an active verb phrase is the 'doer of an action'. Examples of sentences with verbs in the active voice: *Sheila wrote a letter. Peter saw a reindeer. They have left.* There is no morphological marker of the active voice.

adjective: one of the lexical word classes. Adjectives are typically descriptive of a noun; they denote qualities, characteristics and properties of people, things and phenomena. Examples*: red, dark, small, round, overwhelmed, certain, fantastic.* Most adjectives can be compared for degree, and the forms are called positive, comparative and superlative, respectively. Examples: *small – smaller – smallest; good – better – best; difficult – more difficult – most difficult.*

adjective phrase: a phrase with an adjective as its head. An adjective can be intensified by an adverb (as in *very good, extremely popular, more difficult*), and complemented in various ways. Often an adjective is complemented by a clause, as in the adjective phrases *glad to see you, sorry that you couldn't come, smaller than I expected*. An adjective phrase can also have an adverb as a postmodifier, as in *big enough*. Adjective phrases function as modifiers of nouns or as predicatives.

adjunct: A type of adverbial indicating the circumstances of the action. Adjuncts may be obligatory or optional. They express such relations as time, place, manner, reason, condition, i.e. they are answers to the questions *where*, *when, how* and *why*. E.g. *He lives in Brazil* (place adjunct). *She was walking slowly* (manner adjunct), *since she was in no hurry* (adjunct of reason).

adverb: one of the lexical word classes. Adverbs are a very heterogeneous word class. Many are derived from adjectives, and are therefore largely descriptive or evaluative, and typically end in *-ly (e.g. greatly, slowly)*. These can generally be compared for degree, using *more/most*. Others refer to such things as time, place and reason (e.g. *now, yesterday, here, everywhere, therefore*), while yet others may express connections between sentences (linking adverbs, e.g. *however, so, nevertheless).* Adverbs function as intensifiers in adjective phrases or adverb phrases, or as adverbials.

adverbial: syntactic function at clause level. Adverbials may be obligatory, though most of them are not. However, they can be added freely to any clause pattern. There are three main types: Adjuncts, conjuncts, and disjuncts. Adverbials can be realized by adverbs, adverb phrases, noun phrases, prepositional phrases, or subordinate clauses.

adverb phrase: a phrase with an adverb as its head. The head may be preceded by an intensifier (another adverb) and followed by a complement or a postmodifier (usually a prepositional phrase or a clause). E.g. *very beautifully, terribly slowly, too fast for me, more slowly than I wanted to go.*

affix: a part of a word which is connected with the word's meaning or syntax, but is not a root (e.g. *-s* and *-ed* in *play-s* and *play-ed*). An affix may be a prefix or a suffix (and in some languages other than English, an infix). Affixes can also be called inflectional and derivational morphemes.

agent: a semantic role referring to the 'doer of the action'. In an active clause, the agent participant is typically expressed as the subject (*Peter killed a poodle*). In a passive clause, the agent can be realized by a prepositional phrase introduced by *by* (*The poodle was killed by Peter*). The agent in a passive clause is analysed as an adverbial (agent adjunct).

analytical grammatical form: it is built up by a combination of at least two words, one of which is a grammatical auxiliary (word-morpheme), and the other, a word of – substantial‖ meaning. As for analytical grammatical forms that are prevalent in English; they are built by the combination of the notional word with auxiliary words, e.g.: *come – have come*. Analytical forms consist of two words which together express one grammatical meaning; in other words, they are grammatically idiomatic: the meaning of the grammatical form is not immediately dependent on the meanings of its parts. Analytical grammatical forms are intermediary between words and word-combinations.

article: a type of function word. English has definite (*the*) and indefinite (*a, an*) articles. They function as (central) determiners in noun phrases. The term 'zero article' is sometimes used in referring to noun phrases with no expressed determiner, e.g. indefinite nouns in the plural, as in *There are pictures on the wall*.

aspect: a category of the verb. Aspect views the action/state from within, and key terms are 'duration' and 'completion'. In contrast to tense, aspect does not locate an action/state in time. The English verb phrase can be marked for two different aspects; the progressive and the perfective.

attributive: term used of adjectives which premodify nouns, i.e. an adjective placed in front of a noun is said to be in attributive position, and to have attributive function. Attributive function implies that the adjective refers to an attribute of the noun referent. E.g. *blue eyes, happy couple, impossible situation.* In contrast to predicative adjectives, attributive adjectives generally represent properties of the noun referent that are taken for granted, and are not 'up for discussion'.

auxiliary: a function word. There are two classes of auxiliary verbs: (1) grammatical auxiliaries (be, do*, have*) are part of grammatical constructions, but carry little meaning. (*be* followed by an *-ing* participle marks the progressive aspect, *be* followed by a past participle marks the passive voice, and *have* followed by a past participle marks the perfective aspect.) (2) modal auxiliaries (*may/might, can/could, shall/should, will/would, must, ought to*) are not part of grammatical constructions, but express modal meanings. See further modality.

auxiliary equivalent: a phrase with roughly the same meaning as one of the modal auxiliaries. E.g. be willing *to = will, be able to = can, be allowed to = may, be supposed to = must/should*. The main function of (modal) auxiliary equivalents is to provide non-finite forms that express modal meanings, since modal auxiliaries proper have no non-finite forms. The use of auxiliary equivalents also makes it possible to express two modal meanings in the same clause, e.g. *He*

may be willing to contribute. He won't be able to make it. We might not be allowed to camp here.

bare infinitive: infinitive without the infinitive marker *to* (e.g. as the infinitive appears after a modal auxiliary: *will do, can walk, should stay.* The bare infinitive is also referred to as the 'base form' of the verb.

base form: an uninflected form of a word. The base form of a noun is its singular form, while the base form of verbs is the (bare) infinitive, and of adjectives and adverbs, the positive form. The base form of a word is what you find listed in a dictionary.

case: a category of nouns and pronouns. Nouns do not have case in present-day English, but some personal and relative pronouns have two forms which are used according to their syntactic functions. The unmarked (subject) forms are used in with subject functions, and the object forms are used in other functions. The English genitive may also be referred to as case, though it differs from that of languages such as German where the genitive case may be triggered by other factors than possession/ownership.

Subject form (nominative)	Object form (accusative)	Genitive form
I, you, he, she, we, they, who	*me, you, him, her, us, them, whom*	*mine, yours, his, hers, ours, theirs, whose*

classifying modifier: a premodifier of a noun which indicates that the head noun belongs to a particular class of things. E.g. a mobile phone is a particular kind of telephone. The classifying genitive (see above) is a type of classifying modifier. Other classifying modifiers are either adjectives or nouns used as premodifiers. The meaning of the combination of classifying premodifier + noun may not be predictable from the meaning of the modifier + the meaning of the head noun. E.g. *top hat, black eye, personal computer, fine arts, compact car, steam engine, red-light district*. If a noun phrase has more than one premodifier, the classifying modifier is always placed immediately before the head noun.

collective noun: a noun which refers to a group of people, e.g. *family, team, committee*. A particular feature of collective nouns is that they may occur with plural verbs and co-referential pronouns and determiners, even when the noun has singular form. When they occur with plural forms, the emphasis is on the group as consisting of several members, e.g. Manchester United *are in the lead. They have not lost a single match in three months.* (This is called 'distributive reading'.) When a collective noun co-occurs with singular verbs and pronouns, the emphasis is on the group as a unit ('unit reading'): *The committee has its last meeting today, and will submit on Tuesday*. The use of plural verbs with collective nouns occurs mainly in British English, while both American and British English may use plural pronouns to refer back to a collective noun.

collocation: a pair or group of words which tend to occur together. For example, *pretty* often collocates with nouns referring to women and girls, while *handsome* tends to collocate with nouns referring to men.

common noun: a type of noun. Common nouns refer to (classes of) people, things, phenomena and ideas, i.e. they are not names unique to any member of a class (compare proper noun). Common nouns are spelled with lower-case letters. E.g. *person, teacher, house, window, grammar, flower, idea, confidence, movement*. Common nouns can occur with articles and modifiers, and countable nouns may vary between the singular and the plural.

comparative: one of the forms in adjective/adverb comparison, the one that is usually mentioned second, saying that something is *more* or *less* than something else. Comparative forms of adjectives and adverbs either end in *-er*, or they are preceded by *more/less*: E.g. great - ***greater***- *greatest, terribly*- ***more terribly*** - *most terribly*

comparison: the declension of adjectives/adverbs, indicating degree. There are three forms: the positive, the comparative, and the superlative. The positive is the base form (*good*, *fast, thoroughly*). The comparative indicates a higher degree (*better, faster, more thoroughly*), and the superlative indicates the highest degree (*best, fastest, most thoroughly*).

complement of preposition: part of a prepositional phrase , i.e. the part that follows the preposition. The complement of a preposition is usually a noun phrase, e.g. *in the office, of every week, from Italy*. When we find other word classes as complement of a preposition, these words still have a nominal function (and may perhaps be regarded as nouns), e.g. *by tomorrow, until then, from there*.

complex preposition: a preposition consisting of more than one word, but expressing one relation. E.g. *He pulled a hook out of the floor. There's a red car in front of us.*

complex transitive verb: a three-place verb which combines with an object predicative in addition to the subject and a direct object. Examples: *He made her happy. She found it interesting. We painted the town red.*

compound noun: a noun which is made up of two or more lexemes. The lexemes may both be nouns, or they can represent different word classes. Examples: *flowerpot, grammar book, dishwasher, stand-up comedian, walk-about, hangover*. There are no clear rules for when a compound noun is spelt as one word or two, with or without a hyphen. The general tendency is for frequent and well-established compounds to be spelt as one word, and for others to be spelt as two (usually without a hyphen).

conjunct: a type of adverbial. Conjuncts bind together sentences, and express relations between them, e.g. contrast (*however, on the other hand*), similarity (*likewise, similarly*), continuation (*furthermore, moreover*), digression/change of topic (*anyway*), sequence (*first, to begin with, secondly, finally, to conclude*). Conjuncts can also be described as text organizers, in that they guide the hearer/reader through the text, showing how the different pieces hang together, and where they belong in the text.

conjunction: a type of function word. Conjunctions link together phrases and clauses. They can be co-ordinating (linking together equal parts), or subordinating (linking a subordinate clause to a matrix clause).

connector: connectors link together phrases, clauses, and sentences. They express such relationships as addition, contrast, and cause–effect. They are typically conjunctions (co-ordinating or subordinating) or conjunct adverbials. In relative clauses, the relative pronoun functions as connector (at the same time as it has another syntactic function in the relative clause, e.g. subject or object). Note that conjunct adverbials function syntactically as adverbials, while conjunctions have no other syntactic function than that of connector.

connotation: part of the meaning of a word or a phrase; i.e. ideas and sentiments associated with it. E.g. *smell, odour*, and *scent* may refer to the same phenomenon, but they have different connotations.

content word: lexical word

context: the text surrounding particular construction. The context of a clause or sentence is the text in which it is placed. The context of a word/phrase may be the clause in which it occurs, or the following and preceding clauses. The term is also used about the situation in which an utterance occurs, or in which a text is written ('context of situation').

continuous form: see progressive aspect.

co-ordinating conjunction: a conjunction which joins together equal entities, i.e. two phrases or two clauses. The co-ordinating conjunctions are *and, but, or*. The conjunctions *for* and *nor* are also often included among co-ordinating conjunctions. E.g. *Sheila went to the party, but Paul stayed at home* (co-ordination of main clauses). *At the party she met her brother Peter and his new girlfriend* (co-ordination of noun phrases).

copular verb: a term in syntax referring to verbs which are followed by a subject predicative rather than a direct object. Also called 'linking verb'. Copular verbs link together the subject and the subject predicative in a clause. The most common copular verb is *be* (used as a main verb). Other verbs which mean (approximately) the same also function as copular verbs (e.g. *look, seem, appear*), as well as *become* and other verbs with a similar meaning. To check if a verb is a copular verb (followed by a predicative) or a transitive verb (followed by an object) you can try if the verb can be replaced by a form of *to be*, possibly accompanied by *'I think'*. E.g. *He seems nervous = he is nervous, I think.* A verb phrase can also function as a copular verb, if it indicates some kind of identity of the subject and the subject predicative. E.g. *She is called Susan. She has been voted 'woman of the year'.*

countable: a feature of nouns. Countable nouns can occur both in the singular and in the plural. They refer to people or things that can be counted. E.g. *woman, poem, flower, bike, day, idea.* Compare uncountable nouns.

definite article: a determiner in a noun phrase. The English definite article is *the* (as in *the car, the ideas, the new teacher*). The definite article specifies that the referent of the noun phrase can be identified, either because it has been mentioned before (anaphoric reference), because it will be specified later in the text (cataphoric reference), or because it is obvious from the physical surroundings or general knowledge of the speaker and hearer (situational reference). The definite

article (unless it has cataphoric reference) typically signals that something is given information.

definite noun phrase: a noun phrase that has a definite article (*the book*), a demonstrative determiner (*this book*), or a possessive determiner (*his book*). Proper nouns also count as definite noun phrases, for example because their reference can be uniquely identified.

demonstrative determiner: a determiner indicating that something is known or identifiable, and which at the same times indicates whether the referent of the noun phrase is close or remote in distance, time or reality. The demonstrative determiners indicating closeness are *this* and *these*, and the ones indicating distance are *that* and *those*. They differ from the identical-looking demonstrative pronouns in that they are followed by a noun. E.g. *this office, that office, these quarters, those quarters.*

demonstrative pronoun: a pronoun which points to something and indicates whether it is close or remote in distance, time or reality. The demonstrative pronouns indicating closeness are *this* and *these*, and the ones indicating distance are *that* and *those*. They differ from the identical-looking demonstrative determiners in that they are not followed by a noun. E.g. *This is my chair. I don't believe that. Have you read these? Those are not mine.*

derived noun: a noun which is based on another word, typically one belonging to a different word class. E.g. 'discovery' (from the verb 'discover'), 'weakness' (from the adjective 'weak'). Both of these words consist of a stem (*discover/weak*) plus a derivational morpheme (*-y/-ness*).

descriptive grammar: a way of writing grammar with the emphasis on describing how a language is actually used rather than aiming at correcting or preventing mistakes.

determiner: a class of function words which occur at the beginning of noun phrases. Determiners say something about such things as number, definiteness, proximity and ownership. Classes of determiners are: articles (*a/an, the*), numerals, demonstrative determiners (*this/that, these/those*), indefinite determiners (*some/any*), possessive determiners (*my, your, his, her, its, our, their*), relative determiner (*whose, whichever, whatever*), interrogative determiner (*which, what, whose*). An s-genitive can also function as a determiner in a noun phrase. Determiners belonging to any of these classes are sometimes referred to as 'central determiners'. They do not combine with each other, i.e. there can only be one central determiner in a noun phrase. The central determiners can, however, combine with other (particularly quantifying) expressions in a **determiner phrase**. E.g. *all my books, her two best friends, some of their money.* In contrast to premodifiers, determiners are not descriptive of the head noun (with the possible exception of the *s*-genitive).

direct object: a clause element which comes in addition to the subject and the verbal in transitive constructions. In English the direct object usually follows the subject and the verbal. It typically refers to somebody or something that is affected or brought about by the action denoted by the verb. The direct object is

typically realized by a noun phrase (or a nominal clause). E.g. *The dog bit its owner. I received a present. He made a mistake. She thinks grammar is interesting.*

discontinuous modification: a term that denotes a modifier being split by either the head of the phrase or by a clause element. We also talk about discontinuous modification when a postmodifier is separated from its head by another clause element. E.g. *I was so thrilled by the present that I forgot to thank you. The time had come to decorate the house for Christmas.*

discourse: a text in use, i.e. as a meaningful message from a sender to an addressee. Discourse can be spoken or written. In theoretical manuals there is no distinction between the terms 'text' and 'discourse', but in other contexts, if such a distinction is made, 'discourse' refers to the process, and 'text' to the product of the speaking/writing.

disjunct: a type of adverbial that is always optional in the clause. Disjuncts are evaluative; they express the speaker's judgement of the truth of the utterance (modal disjuncts, e.g. *probably, certainly, maybe*), the speaker's evaluation of a fact (fact-evaluating disjuncts, e.g. *fortunately, actually, to my surprise*), the speaker's comment on his/her own wording of the sentence (e.g. *briefly, in other words, to tell you the truth*), or the speaker's comment on the subject referent (subject-evaluating disjuncts, e.g. *Wisely, she spent the money* = 'she was wise to spend the money')

distributive meaning: the 'plural' meaning of a collective noun. When a collective noun has distributive meaning, it is referred to by means of plural personal pronouns, and in British English, it will co-occur with a plural form of the verb. E.g. *The family are (AmE: is) sitting outside in the waiting room. They are all anxious to hear the news.*

ditransitive verb: a ditransitive verb occurs with both a direct and an indirect object. E.g. *give (I gave my love a cherry), send (The teacher sent me a letter*). As regards valency, a ditransitive verb is three-place, i.e. it combines with three clause elements (subject, direct object, indirect object).

***do*-insertion**: also referred to as *do*-periphrasis or *do*-support. In forming interrogative sentences, English puts a form of *do* in front of the subject if there is no other auxiliary in the sentence. (*Did you sleep well?*) Similarly, in forming negative sentences, English attaches the negator *not* to the auxiliary *do* if there is no other auxiliary. (*She doesn't want to come.*) *Do* -insertion also occurs in declarative sentences to mark special emphasis (*They really did turn up in the end*), and in cases of subject-auxiliary inversion when there is no other auxiliary. (*Not a single note did they miss*.)

double genitive : a double genitive is visible in a noun phrase which contains both the s-genitive (or a possessive pronoun) and the of-genitive. E.g. *a friend of Mary's; that car of his*. The double genitive makes it possible to combine the s-genitive with a central determiner because the s-genitive no longer has determiner function. The meaning of the double genitive is usually not much different from an ordinary genitive or a noun phrase with a possessive determiner (*that car of his = his car*). Sometimes the double genitive means 'one out of several' or 'some out of many' (*a friend of mine / of Mary's = one of my/Mary's*

friends, some friends of mine / of Mary's= some of my/Mary's friends or just *my/Mary's friends*).

dummy *it*: *it* used as a place-holder, without reference to anything, typically as an empty subject in clauses concerned with time, distance, temperature, weather (e.g. *it is raining; it was too late*), or in cleft constructions (e.g. *It was English I wanted to study*), or as an anticipatory subject or object (e.g. *It was very unfortunate that he leaked that information to the press.*)

dynamic verb: a verb which refers to an activity, action or event. E.g. *move, read, discuss, fight, occur, crash, watch.* Verbs which are not dynamic are referred to as 'stative '. The distinction between stative and dynamic verbs is relevant for the use of the progressive aspect and the passive voice, both of which occur mostly with dynamic verbs.

ellipsis: the omission of apart of a phrase or a clause, if that part has been stated previously in the context, and for that reason does not need to be repeated. In the following examples the ellipted material is given in brackets. (1) '*Would you like to have dinner with us?' - 'Yes, I'd love to' [have dinner with you]. (2) 'What did she tell you?' - [She told me] 'That she was busy.' (3) I should have finished that paper, but I haven't [finished that paper].*

empty *it* : a dummy (non-referring) *it* in clauses about weather, temperature, time, and distance, and in cleft constructions.

finite verb : a verb which is marked for tense (present or past) or modality. A finite verb phrase is a verb phrase with a finite verb in it. There can only be one finite verb in a verb phrase, and unless the verb phrase is simple, the finite is always the (first) auxiliary. All modals are finite. A verb in the imperative is also finite. See also non-finite.

free predicative: a nominal or adjectival clause element that like a subject predicative specifies a property of the subject referent, but unlike the subject predicative is not linked to the subject by means of a copular verb. A free predicative can usually be moved about the sentence. E.g. *Timid and shy, he kept in the background. They entered the house slowly, afraid of what they might find.* A free predicative is always optional in the clause structure.

function word: a word which does not have much lexical meaning, but whose main function is to express a grammatical relation. Function words are auxiliaries, prepositions, conjunctions, pronouns, determiners, the negator *not*, the existential *there*. The classes of function words are often described as 'closed', i.e. no new words can be added to them. Compare lexical word.

gender: a category of nouns and pronouns. English does not have grammatical gender except with some pronouns and determiners, unlike Norwegian, where grammatical gender is reflected in the use of articles and adjectives (*et lite hus, en liten bil, ei lita hytte*). However, feminine pronouns/determiners are used with reference to females (*Mary – she, her, herself, hers*) and masculine pronouns/determiners are used with reference to males (*Peter – he, him, his, himself, his*).

generic reference: reference to a whole class, rather than to individual and specified members of it. E.g. *The wolf is no favourite with sheep farmers*. (=*wolves*

are not... The reference is to the wolf as a species.); *Vegetables are good for you* (the reference is to vegetables in general); *People are often sceptical of changes.* (People in general; no-one in particular.)

genitive: traditionally, one of the cases of noun phrases. In present-day English, the genitive typically indicates a possessive relationship. It is expressed in English either by the s-genitive (*Mary's books, the girls' books*) or by the of-genitive (*the title of the book, the lady of the house*). The genitive can also denote a part-whole relationship (*the eye of the needle, the days of the week, the heart of the matter*). See also double genitive.

gradability: a concept associated with adjectives (and some adverbs). A gradable adjective can be compared, or it can occur with intensifiers indicating that whatever quality the adjective refers to can be viewed in relative terms, as a scale. E.g. *good (better, best), very good, too close, extremely sophisticated.* Non-gradable adjectives refer to qualities and properties which are seen as absolute (e.g. *dead* - people/animals are either alive or dead; *perfect* - 'more' or 'less' perfect does not make sense, since perfection implies the highest degree already).

grammatical category: a system of expressing a generalized categorial meaning by means of paradigmatic correlation of grammatical forms. In other words, it is a unity of a generalized grammatical meaning and the forms of its expression.

grammatical cohesion: the marking of cohesion in text by means of grammatical signals. Grammatical cohesion is realized by cohesive ties such as pronouns, determiners and pro-forms with anaphoric or cataphoric reference. The use of conjunct adverbials andconjunctions (to connect clauses/sentences) is another type of grammatical cohesive tie. Tense choice can also signal grammatical cohesion by indicating the order of events.

grammatical concord: agreement between the grammatical form of the verb and the grammatical form of the subject.

grammatical homonymy: is the homonymy of different word-forms of one and the same word. E.g. in the paradigm of the majority of verbs the form of the Past Tense is homonymous with the form of Participle II (E.g., *asked* :: *asked*).

grammatical polysemy: is observed when a single grammatical form can be made to express a whole variety of structural meanings. In case of grammatical polysemy we observe various structural meanings inherent in the given form, one of them being always invariable, i. e. found in any possible context of the use of the form. Most grammatical forms are polysemantic. On this level of linguistic analysis distinction should be made between synchronic and potential polysemy. Thus, for instance, the primary denotative meaning of the Present Continuous is characterised by three semantic elements (semes): a) present time, b) something progressive, c) contact with the moment of speech. The three semes make up its synchronic polysemy.

By potential polysemy we mean the ability of a grammatical form to have different connotative meanings in various contexts of its uses. Examine for illustration the connotative (syntagmatic) meanings of the Present Continuous signalled by the context in the following sentences:

Brian said to his cousin: ***"I'm signing on as well in a way,*** *only for life.* ***I'm getting married."*** *Both stopped walking. Bert took his arm and stared:* ***"You're not."***

*"**I am.** To Pauline* (Sillitoe) – future time reference. *"It was a wedding in the country. The best man makes a speech.* ***He is beaming all over his face,*** *and he calls for attention...* (Gordon) – past time reference; *... "I'm sorry", he said, his teeth together,* ***"You're not going in there"****.* (Gordon) – the Present Continuous with the implication of imperative modality;

"I am always thinking of him", said she. (Maugham) – recurrent actions; ***She is always*** *grumbling* ***about trifles*** – the qualitative Present, the permanent characteristic of the subject.

grammatical synonymy: Grammatical synonymy (widely developed in contemporary English), i.e. synonymy of grammatical forms, can in no way be neglected. It has acquired an important role, because the idea of style relies on the possibility of synonymy, which allows one to say the same thing in different ways, i.e. in different styles. E.g.: There are various means of expressing the idea of futurity in English; among them, *future tense simpl*e indicates only that the action takes place in the future, but it does not indicate if in the near future or later. *Be going to* future is used to express a future action close to the speaking moment or a future action which will take place because of a present intention. A future action planned at a present moment is usually expressed by *the present tense continuous* whereas a definite future action which will take place according to a schedule or a previous established program is expressed by the present simple tense.

head: the most important word in a phrase; the word that carries the main meaning of the phrase and that cannot be taken away. The head of a noun phrase is a noun (or a pronoun); the head of a verb phrase is a verb; the head of an adjective phrase is an adjective; the head of an adverb phrase is an adverb. As regards prepositional phrases neither part of the phrase (preposition + noun phrase) is considered a head, since both parts have to be there in order for there to be a prepositional phrase. Thus no part of it can be said to be the more important one.

indefinite article: a determiner in a noun phrase. In English the indefinite articles are *a* and *an*. Their usage depends on whether the following word begins in a consonant sound (*a*) or a vowel sound (*an*).E.g. *a cottage, a year, an apple, an hour.* The indefinite article typically signals that something is mentioned for the first time, and thus represents new information. There is no plural indefinite article in English. The zero article with a following plural noun has much the same function. The indefinite article only occurs with countable nouns in the singular.

indefinite noun phrase: depending on the head of the noun phrase, an indefinite noun phrase looks as follows: (if the head is a countable noun) a noun phrase in the singular preceded by the indefinite article, the numeral *one* or the negative determiner *no* (*a bird, one bird, no bird*) or a noun phrase in the plural with no determiner or a quantifying determiner (*some/many/four birds*); (if the head is an uncountable noun) a noun phrase with no determiner (*snow*) or preceded by a quantifying determiner (*some snow*); a noun phrase with an indefinite pronoun as its head (*somebody, anything*).

indefinite pronoun: a pronoun which refers to a non-specific thing, phenomenon, or person. The indefinite pronouns are *anybody, anything, anyone, everybody, everything, everyone, nobody, nothing, no-one, somebody, something, someone*, as well as *one, some*, *any*, *all, every, each*, *both, either, neither, many, much, a lot of, few, (a) little*, and *others* used as pronouns.

indicative: one of the three moods of the verb phrase (the others being the imperative and the subjunctive). The indicative is the most common one, and is used for most communicative purposes, except for making explicit commands (for which the imperative is used). The indicative verb form differs from the others in varying for tense and aspect, and in showing grammatical concord with the subject in the present tense. Sentences in the indicative can be either declarative or interrogative.

indirect object: a clause element which may come in addition to a subject and a direct object and a three-place verb. An indirect object is usually placed between the verbal and the direct object, and it refers to something or somebody that benefits from the action, typically a recipient of something. E.g. *I gave my girlfriend a ring. I asked her a question. He did me a favour.* Indirect objects can often be paraphrased by mean of a prepositional phrase with *to* or *for* (e.g. *I gave a ring to my girlfriend*). Such prepositional phrases function as adjunct adverbials at clause level.

infinitive: the base form of the verb. Infinitives may occur with or without the infinitive marker *to*. E.g. *(to) ask, (to) fight, (to) understand.*An infinitive verb form is non-finite.

infinitive clause: a type of non-finite clause, with the verb in the infinitive. Infinitive clauses may or may not contain the infinitive marker *to*. A subject may or may not be present; the subject of an infinitive clause may be realized as a noun phrase or as a prepositional phrase with *for*. E.g.: *I want you to understand this. They managed to solve the problem. To err is human. It would be highly unusual for Peter to admit his mistake.* An infinitive clause may serve a nominal function (as in the examples above), an adjectival function (*This is a drug to betaken at bedtime*), or an adverbial function (*Read on to find out more about how the programme works*)

infinitive marker: the word *to* (in front of a verb in its base form).

***-ing* participle** (present participle): the (non-finite) verb form ending in *-ing*. The *-ing* participle combines with the grammatical auxiliary *be* to express the progressive aspect (*They are singing*). An *-ing* participle can also be the verb of a non-finite clause (*Pacing round the lake, she calculated when the reply might arrive*.). *-ing* participles can also be used as adjectives: *a charming smile, the approaching train, an ageing professor.*

***-ing* participle clause**: a non-finite subordinate clause in which the verb is an *-ing* participle. *-ing* participle clauses can have adverbial function (*Pacing round the lake, she calculated when the reply might arrive*.-adjunct of time), adjectival function, as postmodifiers of nouns (*He was a bus conductor relaxing on his rest day*.), nominal function (*Parking in front of the gate is illegal*. -subject), or they may be combined with the main clause in *-ing* co-ordination (see above).

intensifier: an adverb which functions as a modifier in an adjective phrase or adverb phrase. E.g. *very good, terribly ill, quite happily*.

intonation (intonasjon, tonefall): patterns of pitch (or tone) that carry meaning. Intonation is also often referred to as *prosody*. Intonation can signal grammatical structure, in a similar fashion to punctuation. That is, intonation can signal phrase and clause divisions by means of slight pauses. Intonation also signals communicative function and attitude. The most common associations between intonation and communicative function are as follows: statement: falling intonation; yes/no question: rising intonation; wh-question: falling intonation; command: falling intonation; request: rising intonation. A stretch of language that represents a complete pitch pattern is called a tone unit. A pitch pattern contains a nucleus, which involves a movement in pitch (rising or falling), normally occurring on the last accented syllable of the tone unit. **intransitive verb**: a verb which does not need a direct object in order to form a grammatical sentence. E.g. *She has arrived. They were swimming.* Intransitive verbs may occur with obligatory and optional adverbials. E.g. *They went home. They live in Cambridge.*

inversion: used about a word order whereby the whole verb phrase or an auxiliary occurs in front of the subject. See subject-verbal inversion and subject-auxiliary inversion.

irregular verb: a verb that does not form the past tense and the past participle by adding the ending *-(e)d*, but instead by means of e.g. vowel change. E.g. *break- broke - broken, go - went - gone, sit - sat - sat, take - took - taken.*

lexeme: an item of vocabulary; a 'family' of words that are related to each other in that they are inflected forms of the same stem, and carry the same core meaning. E.g. *draw, draws, drew, drawn, drawing* are all instances of the same lexeme ('draw'). However, the noun *drawing*represents another lexeme (that can be realized by *drawing, drawings*). A lexeme is usually cited as the base form of a word; the citation form which is what is recorded in dictionaries.

lexical cohesion: the marking of cohesion in text by means of vocabulary. Lexical cohesive ties include lexical repetition, the use of vocabulary items which are semantically related, e.g. synonyms, antonyms, hyponyms, and the use of vocabulary items that simply relate to the same sort of topic or situation, for example *school, classroom, pupils, teacher, lessons, books.*

lexical verb: a verb which refers to an action, activity, event, or state, and is capable of being the main verb in a verb phrase.

lexical word: a word that has an independent meaning, i.e. it refers to a thing, an event, a property etc. The lexical word classes are nouns, verbs, adjectives and adverbs. Lexical word classes are often described as 'open', i.e. new words can be added to them. For instance, if a new item is invented, it is given a name, which will be a new noun. If you can do something new with it, that new action can be given a name which will be a new verb. Compare function word.

main verb: the head of a verb phrase (always a lexical verb).

modal auxiliary: see also auxiliary. An auxiliary that expresses modality (obligation, permission, possibility, ability; or degrees of probability). The modal auxiliaries proper are *can/could, may/might, must, shall/should, will/would, ought*

to. These modals have no non-finite forms. There can only be one modal auxiliary proper in a verb phrase (although they can combine with marginal modal auxiliaries and auxiliary equivalents).

modality: a type of meaning, involving the affirmation of possibility, impossibility, necessity, or contingency. Modality can be expressed by verbs (particularly modal auxiliaries) or adverbials (modal disjuncts). Modality entails an element of non-fact (often future reference) or uncertainty (about states of affairs in the present or the past). See root modality and epistemic modality.

modifier: a modifier is a part of the phrase which ascribes a property to the head of the phrase. A modifier may be placed before or after the head of the phrase (premodifier vs. postmodifier). Modifiers are always optional.

mood : a category of the verb phrase.

morpheme: the smallest meaningful linguistic unit. Some words are made up of one morpheme; others of two or more. Morphemes can be lexical (in which case they refer to something), inflectional (in which case they represent grammatical suffixes), or derivational (in which case they represent an affix which changes the meaning and often the word class of the word it is added to). E.g. *read* (lexical morpheme, stem); *reads* ('read' + 's' - an inflectional morpheme); *unreadable* ('un' + 'read' + 'able'; 'un' being a derivational morpheme which creates the opposite meaning of the rest of the word, and 'able' being a derivational morpheme that turns the word into an adjective).

morphology: the study of how morphemes combine into words, and of how words are inflected.

multi-word verb: a verb consisting of two or more words which function together in making up meaning. A multi-word verb is usually a combination of a verb and an adverb or a preposition, but other word classes may also be included. Normally, a multi-word verb can be seen as an idiom, i.e. the meaning of the multi-word verb is not (totally) predictable from the meaning of each of its components. E.g. *run up* (in 'run up a bill'), *mess about, make up one's mind, give in.*

nominal function: the syntactic functions typical of nouns and noun phrases (subject , direct object, indirect object, predicative, complement of preposition). The term is most commonly used when clauses or phrases other than noun phrases have these functions. E.g. a clause which functions as direct object is said to have a nominal function: *They believed that the earth was flat*.

nominalization: the process of turning a verb or an adjective into a noun. Thus an originally verbal process can be expressed by means of a noun phrase (e.g. *Columbus discovered America --> the discovery of America by Columbus was a landmark also in European history*), or a quality can be expressed as if it were a thing (e.g. *the people were loyal to their leader --> the people's loyalty to their leader was remarkable.*)

nominalized adjective (substantivized adjectives): an adjective functioning as head of a noun phrase. Nominalized adjectives may refer to people, in which case they function as plural-only nouns, usually with generic reference: *The poor need help from the government*. *The French are considered gourmets*. If reference

to one person is required, you need to add a noun such as *person, man, woman* after the adjective. Colour adjectives can easily be nominalized, as in *She was dressed in red*. Furthermore, adjectives referring to abstractions may be nominalized (*overcome evil with good; the unexpected often happens; the unknown is usually feared*), as well as adjectives in the superlative , also with reference to abstractions(*We'll hope for the best and expect the worst*). Both colour adjectives and nominalized adjectives referring to abstractions function as singular (uncountable) nouns.

***no*-negation**: the process of making a sentence negative by using the determiner *no*, or a pronounor adverb beginning with *no-* (*nothing, nobody, no-one, nowhere*). E.g. *I have no money = I do not have any money. He knows nothing about it. = He does not know anything about it.* Compare *not*-negation.

non-finite verb: a verb which is not marked for tense or modality. The non-finite verb forms are the infinitive, the past participle and the *ing*-participle. E.g. *(to) write, written, writing*. Non-finite forms can combine with each other in non-finite verb phrases, e.g. *having written, having been written, being writing*. Non-finite forms can also combine with finite ones in finite verb phrases (in which case the finite verb comes first), e.g. *has been writing, (he) had been writing, (the book) will have been written*.

notional subject: a term used to refer to a subject which is placed towards the end of a clause, and which is represented by an anticipatory subject (*it* or *there*) at the beginning of the clause. The notional subject after anticipatory *it* is always realized by a clause, while the notional subject following the existential *there* is usually a noun phrase. E.g. (notional subject underlined) *It is interesting to learn more about grammar. There is a new grammar book in the library.*

noun: one of the lexical word classes; a 'naming word'. A noun is used to refer to people and things as well as to abstract ideas and phenomena. E.g. *boy, human, cat, book, house, water, air, holidays, capitalism, belief.* Nouns can be common or proper. Common nouns can be countable or uncountable. Other types of noun: collective noun , plural-only noun, nominalized adjective.

noun phrase (nomenfrase): a phrase with a noun (or a pronoun) as its head. In addition to the head, a noun phrase may contain one or more determiners, premodifiers and postmodifiers. Examples:

determiner(s)	premodifier(s)	head	postmodifier(s)
a	*very small*	*dog*	
	red and blue	*chairs*	*for children*
the two	*wonderful*	*recipes*	*of yours for blueberry pie*
those		*afternoons*	*(that) we spent skiing*
		somebody	*tall, dark, and handsome*

number: grammatical category referring to the distinction between singular and plural. The category applies to nouns (e.g. *bird, birds*), pronouns (e.g. *me* vs. *us*), and to a certain extent verbs, which have special present tense forms for third person singular subjects (*the bird sings* vs. *the birds sing*).

numeral: a word class consisting of words representing numbers. Cardinal numbers are e.g. *one, five, thirty-eight*, while ordinal numbers are e.g. *first, fifth, thirty-eighth.*

obligatory: in grammar, an obligatory element is one which cannot be taken away without making the phrase or clause ungrammatical.

of-genitive: an expression of the genitive, where the 'possessor' is expressed as a prepositional phrase with *of* postmodifying the 'possession'. E.g. the music of the 1950s, the citizens of this country, the headmaster of the school, the foot of the mountain, the colour of the car. The *of*-genitive is typically used when the 'possessor' is non-human, although this is no absolute rule. The *of*-genitive is also sometimes preferred when the 'possessor' is a plural noun, since it is impossible to hear the difference between the genitive -s and the plural *-s: the uniforms of the nurses. The of*-genitive can also be used of human 'possessors', as in *the works of Shakespeare, Best of Bach,* and it is often used in names of institutions, and organizations, e.g. *the University of Oslo, the United States of America, the City of London, the museum of modern arts, the National Union of Teachers*.

participle: a non-finite form of the verb. The past participle of regular verbs ends in *-ed*. In verb conjugation, it is the third form cited (*go - went - gone; take - took - taken; walk - walked - walked*). The past participle combines with the grammatical auxiliary *have* to express the perfective aspect (e.g. *She has made the beds*), or with the grammatical auxiliary *be* to express the passive voice (e.g. *The beds have been made*). The *-ing* participle (sometimes called the 'present participle') of all verbs ends in *-ing* (*going, taking, walking*). The *-ing* participle can combine with the grammatical auxiliary *be* to express the progressive aspect. Participles can also have the syntactic function of verb in participle clauses.

participle clause: a non-finite clause with a past participle or an *-ing* participle forming the (first part of) the verb phrase. Participle clauses may be postmodifiers of nouns (*the children needing special instruction, a note written by a student*), complement of preposition (only *-ing*clauses: *I thought of accepting the offer*) or adverbial (*Lacking the right kind of qualifications, he didn't get the job. Published only a month ago, the book is already out of print. Having worked there once, she knew her way round the shopping centre*).

passive voice: a feature of the verb phrase. The passive voice is marked by the grammatical auxiliary *be* + past participle. E.g. *The little old lady was bitten by her poodle.* The subject of a passive clause is typically an affected participant. In the example given here, the agent (=the doer of the action) is specified by means of a prepositional phrase, thus making the passive a long passive. The agent need not be specified, in which case we have a short passive. E.g. *John F. Kennedy was shot in 1963*. Compare active voice. The relationship between an active and a passive clause can be represented as follows:

Active:	**The cat**	**caught**	**the mouse.**
	subject (agent)	verbal (past tense)	direct object (affected)
Passive:	**The mouse**	**was caught**	**by the cat.**
	subject (affected)	verbal (past tense of BE + past participle of main verb)	adverbial (agent)

person: a grammatical category of nouns, pronouns, and determiners. We distinguish between first person (*I, me, myself, my, mine, we, us, ourselves, our, ours*), second person (*you, yourself/yourselves, your, yours*), and third person (*he, him, himself, his, she, her, herself, hers, it, itself, its, they, them, themselves, their, theirs*). Noun phrases do not have special forms that show person, but are classified according to their meaning. The category of person combines with that of number, so that we get first person singular, first person plural, etc. The verb system has special present tense forms with third person singular subjects (*I love him vs. he loves me*).

personal pronoun: a pronoun which refers to a (specific) person or thing. The English personal pronouns are *I, you, he, she, it, we, you, they, me, you, him, her, it, us, you, them*

phrasal verb: a multi-word verb consisting of a verb + adverbial particle, e.g. *switch off, put aside*. A phrasal verb may be transitive, and thus accompanied by a direct object. If the object is realized as a pronoun, it is placed between the verb and the particle, but if it is realized as a full noun phrase, it tends to be placed after the particle. E.g. *I looked up this word (I looked this word up) - I looked it up. I found out what was wrong. -I found it out.* Phrasal verbs can occur in the passive voice (*The word was looked up; It was found out*). The verb + particle form a close semantic unit, whose meaning is often not predictable from the meaning of the verb+ the meaning of the particle (e.g. *give + up*).

phrase: a word or group of words which can fulfil a syntactic function in a clause. A phrase is named after the most important word in it (the head), so we have noun phrases, verb phrases, adjective phrases, and adverb phrases. Besides there are prepositional phrases, which are introduced by a preposition (though the preposition is not called a head). Phrases have been informally described as ”bloated words”, in that the parts of the phrase that are added to the head elaborate and specify the reference of the head word.

plural: a feature of the category number. It applies to nouns, pronouns, and verbs. Words with a plural form refer to, or apply to, more than one thing, person or phenomenon. E.g. *books, thoughts, they, us, (we) talk*. See also singular, concord.

plural-only nouns: nouns which do not exist in singular form. Some examples are *binoculars, jeans, scissors, shorts, spectacles, trousers,* which are seen to consist of two parts. Reference to one 'item' is done by means of *a pair of*. Other plural-only nouns are *surroundings, suburbs, congratulations, thanks*. A special category is made up by *people, police, cattle, clergy*, which lack the plural ending, but co-occur with plural verbs and plural determiners (including numerals above one, and other determiners which imply countability). Nominalized adjectives with reference to people may also be included in this category: *There are many homeless in this city; The Dutch were informally dressed*

positive: a term relating to adjective/adverb comparison. The positive form of an adjective or adverb is its base form, e.g. *good, bad, beautiful, comfortable, late, slowly.*

possessive determiner: type of determiner that generally expresses ownership. The possessive determiners are *my, your, his, her, its, our, their*. Possessive determiners are used more widely in English than in Norwegian. Notably, English uses possessive determiners with nouns denoting clothes and body parts. E.g. *He combed his hair and put on his shirt.*

possessive pronoun: a type of pronoun which indicates possession; viz. *mine, yours, his, hers, ours, yours, theirs*. In contrast to possessive determiners, possessive pronouns are not followed by a head noun. E.g. *In the room next to theirs was a huge cradle. Different as our minds are, yours has nourished mine.*

postmodifier: a modifier which is placed after its head (thus a function at phrase level). The term 'postmodifier' is most often associated with noun phrases, but can also apply to adjective phrases and adverb phrases. Postmodifiers of nouns may be realized as prepositional phrases (*man of the year, ticket to London*), as relative clauses (*a man who wants a wife, a ticket that cost a fortune*), as participle clauses (*the man observed near the scene of the crime , the man lurking in the background*), or occasionally, a postposed adjective (*the man responsible, the tickets available*).

predicative: **1:** a syntactic function in the clause (subject predicative or object predicative). Both noun phrases and adjective phrases may function as predicatives. (*John is happy, John is a fool; John makes me happy, John called me a fool*.) **2:** a function of an adjective in relation to a noun, i.e. an adjective that functions as a subject/object predicative has predicative function vis-à-vis the noun it characterizes.

predicator: the syntactic function in the clause that is realized by a verb phrase.

prefix: a kind of affix which occurs before a root, e.g. *unhappy, rearrange, dishonest, presuppose*.

premodifier: a modifier placed in front of its head. A premodifier in a noun phrase is typically realized as an adjective, and denotes a quality/property of the head. Examples: *the red apple, a definite answer, her impressive performance, X-rated films*. Premodifiers of nouns can also be realized as nouns, and sometimes as phrases. Examples: *the train station, a Christmas present, his take-it-or-leave-it approach*. Adjective phrases and adverb phrases can contain premodifiers realized by adverbs, e.g. *very good, incredibly cheap, quite recently.*

preposition: a class of function words. Prepositions generally express a relation, often in time or space (or abstractions of these). They can also express relations of agency, cause, means, manner, support, opposition, etc. Examples of prepositions: *after, at, before, below, by, in, of, on, over, under*. (Note that some of these words can double as conjunctions when followed by a clause, and as adverbs when occurring without a following complement.) Prepositions introduce prepositional phrases, or they may combine with a verb in a prepositional verb. Prepositions may also combine with another word (often a preposition or an adverb) to form **complex prepositions**, e.g. *out of, because of, apart from, in front of*.

prepositional phrase: a phrase consisting of a preposition + a noun phrase ,e.g. *in China, for a week, by the time we were ready to go*. Unlike other phrase types, the prepositional phrase is not described in terms of head and modifier(s), because the preposition does not modify the noun, or vice versa. Both parts are needed in order to construct a prepositional phrase. What follows the preposition is called the *complement of the preposition*. Besides noun phrases, the complement of the preposition can be an *-ing* clause or an indirect question. (*He is worried about making the right impression, He doesn't have a clue about how to make / how he should make the right impression*.) Prepositional phrases can function as adverbials at clause level, or as postmodifiers of noun phrases or complements of adjectives/adverbs at phrase level.

prepositional verb: a multi-word verb consisting of verb + preposition, followed by a direct object. In contrast to the particle in phrasal verbs, the preposition in a prepositional verb always precedes the object. E.g. *He looked at the map. He looked at it.* Still the preposition has close ties to the verb, in that the verb+ preposition form a close semantic unit. Some prepositional verbs can also occur in the passive voice, in which case the preposition stays with the verb rather than with the noun phrase. *He looked after the baby. The baby was looked after*. Unlike a verb+ prepositional phrase combination, it is the verb that decides the choice of preposition with prepositional verbs. E.g. *She walked into/out of/through the room* (S-V-A), but *She bumped into an old friend* (S-V-dO).

pronoun : a class of structural words. A pronoun is used instead of a noun or a noun phrase to refer to somebody or something. E.g. *I, we, she, them, what, mine, ours, each other, themselves, something, nobody*. A pronoun may occasionally function as the head of a noun phrase, i.e. it may be accompanied by one or more postmodifiers. E.g. *I'm looking for someone who is creative.*

proper noun: a class of nouns. Proper nouns are names of people, places, companies, organizations, etc. A proper noun typically refers uniquely to one referent. Proper nouns are spelled with capital initials. In contrast to common nouns, they do not vary between singular and plural, and they do not occur with determiners and modifiers(unless these are part of the name, as in *The United States of America,* in which case they cannot be omitted or replaced by other determiners or modifiers).

quantifying determiner: a determiner which specifies the number or amount of something. E.g. *two pounds, many people, much room, little food, some books.*

reciprocal pronoun: a pronoun which implies mutuality: *each other* and *one another*.

reference: the relationship between a word and the world it is used to describe. The reference of a noun is the thing or group of things that the speaker has in mind when using the word. Reference can be specific (to a particular thing or group of things) or generic (to a whole class of things, without any particular example of it in mind). The lexical word classes have reference; nouns to things/persons/phenomena, verbs to processes/actions/situations, adjectives to qualities/properties, adverbs to qualities/properties, or to time/place/reason etc.

referent: a thing/person/phenomenon that a word refers to.

reflexive pronoun: a pronoun which always co-occurs with a noun or pronoun with the same reference: *myself, yourself, himself, herself, itself, ourselves, yourselves, themselves.*

regular verb: a verb which forms the past tense and the past participle by adding *(e)d* to the base form. E.g. *walk – walked – walked; fade – faded – faded.*

relative pronoun: relative pronouns are used to introduce relative clauses.The English relative pronouns are *who, whom, which, that,* and *Ø* (zero). (Norwegian has only two relative pronouns: 'som' and Ø.) The relative pronoun refers back to the antecedent of the relative clause. In the relative clause, the relative pronoun represents the antecedent and has the same syntactic function (=subject) as a full noun phrase would have in its place, as shown in (1) and (2). (1) *Andrew has a sister who is a doctor.* -- (2) *Andrew's sister is a doctor.*

request: a communicative function typically expressed by an interrogative or an imperative sentence. A request is used to ask for goods and services. It is more polite, or less direct, than a command. E.g. *Could you post this letter for me? Can I borrow your car? Tell us a story, please.* A request can always be accompanied by the word *please*.

root: a lexical morpheme, i.e. word or part of a word which has meaning, and which cannot be divided into smaller meaningful units. It can function as a stem, and it may combine with derivational and inflectional affixes. In the word *unkindness*, the root is 'kind', while 'un' and 'ness' are derivational affixes/morphemes.

semantic role: a term referring to the general meaning of clause elements. Examples of semantic roles are agent ('doer of an action'), affected ('affected by the action'), effected ('the result of the action'), beneficiary ('beneficiary of an action')

semantics: the study of the meaning of words.

s-genitive: a realization of the genitive whereby the 'possessor' is marked by the genitive *s* and/or an apostrophe. The genitive *s* follows an apostrophe when it is attached to nouns in the singular. With a plural noun, the genitive is marked only by an apostrophe after the plural s. E.g. *Mary's books, the girl's hair, the boys' toys*. When a plural noun does not end in s, the s-genitive is expressed by apostrophe + *s*, as with singular nouns: *the men's room, children's books, people's habits*. The *s*-genitive is typically used when the 'possessor' is human. It can also be used when the 'possessor' is an animal which is considered to have personality, e.g. a pet. The *s* -genitive is also used with other types of 'possessors', particularly in journalistic writing, where it is important to be brief and concise (as the *s*-genitive is shorter than the *of*-genitive). Compare also double genitive. The *s*-genitive functions as a determiner when it is followed by a noun (*I saw Peter's house*), and as head of the noun phrase when it occurs on its own (*That house is Peter's*).

singular: a feature of the category number. In English it applies to nouns, pronouns, and verbs. A singular form of a word refers to, or applies to, one person, thing, or phenomenon.

specifying modifier: a modifier in a noun phrase which specifies a quality or property of the referent of the head noun. Unlike classifying modifiers, it does

not single out a particular type of referent. Specifying modifiers can be premodifiers or postmodifiers. The meaning of a specifying modifier and the head noun in combination is always predictable from the meaning of the modifier and the meaning of the head. E.g. *beautiful garden, comfortable chair, small room.* (Examples of the same nouns with classifying modifiers: *rose garden, high chair, dining room*)

split infinitive : an infinitive verb phrase with an adverb between the infinitive marker and the verb, e.g. *to absolutely reject this usage, to boldly go where no man has gone before*. Usage books often warn against the use of the split infinitive, as many people feel that the infinitive verb should follow the infinitive marker directly. Thus it is recommended that the adverb should be placed either before the infinitive marker or after the verb. However, there is nothing inherently wrong with the split infinitive, and it is sometimes the best or only way of avoiding ambiguity, e.g. *she refuses to actively try to make them change their minds*.

statement: a communicative function typical of declarative sentences. A statement is used for giving information and expressing opinions. E.g. *(I would like to tell you that) the concert starts in an hour*. Sentence types other than declaratives may also function as statements. A good example is rhetorical questions. The context and/or the intonation will usually make it clear whether a question is rhetorical.

stative passive: a passive-like construction with a form of the verb *be* + a past participle. The construction refers to a state. E.g. *The house was nicely redecorated. The window was closed.* In a stative passive, the participle functions more or less as an adjective (in the example, closed contrasts with the adjective *open*, rather than with the verb *opened*), and can be analysed as a predicative in a S-V-sP structure.

stative verb: a verb which refers to a state, and which requires no action on the part of the subject. E.g. *be, have, contain, know, resemble*. The distinction between stative and dynamic verbs is relevant for the use of the progressive aspect and the passive voice, neither of which combines easily with stative verbs. Note that verbs of perception (e.g. *see, hear*), and verbs of opinion and of thinking (e.g. *think, believe, understand*) behave as stative verbs.

stem: the main part of a word to which inflectional morphemes/suffixes may be added, viz. the base form of a verb, the singular form of a noun, the positive form of adjectives and adverbs. It consists of a root, sometimes in combination with derivational affixes. In the word *drivers*, the stem is 'driver', and 's' is an inflectional suffix. The root is 'drive', and 'r' is a derivational suffix. The word *unfaithful* is a stem consisting of the root 'faith' and the two affixes 'un' and 'ful'.

subject: a clause element which comes in addition to the verb in all complete sentences. The subject is typically realized by a noun phrase.In declarative sentences the subject is usually placed in front of the verb, at the beginning of the sentence. The prototypical meaning of the subject is a 'doer of an action', but subjects can also have other types of semantic roles. In the following sentences, the subjects have been underlined: *She inserted a Yale key in the lock,*

and found herself in a narrow hall. The hall smelled of apples and loam. It was very narrow. To the right an open door led into the shop.

subject predicative: a clause element that comes in addition to a subject and a copular (two-place) verb. A subject predicative is normally placed after the copular verb. E.g. *She is happy. He felt a fool. The soup tastes nice. The school became famous for its achievements in sports. They are students. They seem a happy crowd.* A subject predicative is realized by an adjective phrase or a noun phrase (as shown above), or by a nominal subordinate clause. E.g. *The problem is finding the right person. The question is how to find the right person. The fact is that I overslept. What you see is what you get.*

subjunctive: one of the three moods of the verb phrase, the other two being the indicative and the imperative. The subjunctive is rare in present-day English, though it is sometimes used in counter-factual clauses (*if* -clauses, concessive clauses, etc.), e.g. *If I were rich, I'd just travel all the time* (- I'm not rich). With verbs other than *be*, the indicative is nearly always used in this kind of clauses. Particularly in formal (written) American English, the so-called mandative subjunctive is used in *that*-clauses expressing a demand, regulation, or obligation. E.g. *They demanded that the person responsible be fired. Susan insisted that he speak to a psychiatrist.* In British English, *should* + infinitive is generally used instead. (*...that the person responsible should be fired;... that he should speak to a psychiatrist*). The subjunctive also survives in some set formulas such as *Be that as it may; so be it, long live the Queen*. In these cases the meaning of the subjunctive is either concession or a wish. Except in the set phrases, the use of the subjunctive mood is optional in present-day English. *Be* is the only verb which has a subjunctive past tense form (*were*). In all other cases the subjunctive is expressed by the base form of the verb. A subjunctive verb form is finite, but does not vary for person or number. (Thus the subjunctive is distinguishable from the present tense of the indicative only with a third person singular subject.)

subordinate clause: a clause which fulfils a syntactic function in a phrase or in another clause. Subordinate clauses may be finite or non-finite, and their functions may be adjectival, adverbial, or nominal. Another term for subordinate clause is *dependent clause*, which emphasizes the fact that a subordinate clause cannot form a complete independent sentence on its own. A finite subordinate clause is typically introduced by a subordinating conjunction or a relative pronoun.

subordinating conjunction: a conjunction which introduces a subordinate clause, and thereby links the subordinate clause to the superordinate clause. E.g. *when, if, after, because, since, unless, as, whether, that*.

suffix: a kind of affix which occurs after a root. Suffixes can be inflectional, e.g. *walk**-s**, walk**-ing**, walk**-ed***, or derivational, e.g. *happi**-ness**, use**-ful**, clear**-ly***.

superlative: a form in adjective/adverb comparison, indicating the highest degree. The superlative form of monosyllabic (and many disyllabic) adjectives/adverbs ends in *-est* (*quickest, highest, ugliest, narrowest*). Otherwise the superlative is formed by placing the adverb *most* in front of the adjective/adverb (*most interesting, most careful, most happily*).

synthetical grammatical form: it is realised by the inner morphemic composition of the word. Synthetical grammatical forms are based on inner inflexion (vowel interchange inside the root, e.g.: goose – geese), outer inflexion (with the help of adding grammatical suffixes to the stems of the words, e.g.: cat – cats), and suppletivity (when different roots are combined within the same paradigm, e.g.: go – went); hence, the forms are referred to as inner-inflexional, outer-inflexional, and suppletive.

tense: a category of the verb phrase. Tense locates an action in time relative to the 'here and now' of the speaker. Only finiteverbs can show tense. English has only two morphological tenses (i.e. tenses which have special forms rather than combinations of forms): presenttense and past tense. Verbs in the present tense generally refer to 'now', while verbs in the past tense generally refer to 'before now'. (*She lives in New York. vs. She lived in New York.*) Alternatively the present tense can be seen as expressing directness or closeness in time and/or reality, while the past tense expresses distance: *Since you are rich, you can buy that house. vs. If you were rich, you could buy that house.* Both the present and the past tense can combine with the progressive and the perfective aspect.

***to*-infinitive**: an infinitive verb phrase with the infinitive marker *to*.

transitivity: a term referring to whether or not a verb occurs with a direct object. A transitive verb occurs with a direct object; an intransitive verb occurs without one. Example of transitive verbs: *He stole a priceless painting. They found a skeleton in the closet.* As subcategories of transitive verbs, a ditransitive verb requires an indirect object in addition to the direct object (*She offered him a drink*), and a complex transitive verb requires an object predicative in addition to the direct object (*They named him Peter*).

uncountable: a feature of some nouns. An uncountable noun refers to something which is seen as a mass, rather than an entity. Uncountable nouns do not vary between the singular and the plural. They co-occur with singular verbs, determiners and pronouns. E.g. *water, tea, sand, pollution, money, furniture, gold.* Since uncountable nouns cannot be referred to as 'one' or 'many' they cannot occur with the indefinite article (*a/an*, which means 'one') either, and they do not combine with the plural -s.

unit meaning: the 'singular' meaning of a collective noun with the emphasis on the group as one body. When a collective noun has unit meaning, it is referred to by means of singular personal pronouns, and it will agree with a singular form of the verb. E.g. *The board has its meetings every Tuesday.* Compare distributive meaning.

unit noun: a noun which is used to refer to countable units of something which is otherwise uncountable.E.g. *a bar of chocolate, a bit of luck, a piece of advice, a strand of hair, a loaf of bread, a cup of coffee.*

valency: a feature of lexical verbs. The valency of a verb determines how many clause elements there must be in a sentence in addition to the verbal. A verb with a valency of one (=a one-place verb) needs only a subject in order to build a complete sentence. A verb with a valency of two (=a two-place verb) needs two other clause elements (subject + direct object , subject + subject predicative, or

subject + adverbial). A verb with a valency of three (=a three-place verb) needs three other clause elements (subject+ indirect object + direct object, subject+ direct object + object predicative, or subject + direct object + adverbial). No English verb has a valency of more than three.

verb: one of the lexical word classes. A 'doing' word, which refers to an action, a process, an event, or a state. E.g. *walk, think, discuss, live, die, be, stay, have, sit, multiply.*

verbal: a syntactic function, always realized by a verb phrase. The verbal is the central element in a clause; the element that determines the number of obligatory elements in a clause. A complete sentence consists of at least subject and verbal.

vocative: an optional clause element whose function it is to name the addressee of an utterance, e.g. in order to attract his/her attention. E.g. *How are you, Mary? Mr. Jones, where were you at nine o'clock last night? Peter, there's somebody here to see you. Come off it, Harry!*

voice: a category of the verb phrase, viz. the opposition between the active (*Peter ate the apple*) and the passive (*The apple was eaten by Peter*).

word: the smallest linguistic unit that can have a syntactic function. A word has an expression side (combination of sounds, or of letters) and a content side (a meaning). A word may consist of a single morpheme (e.g. *book*) or a combination of morphemes (e.g. *book-s, book-ish, book-shop-s*). We can distinguish between lexical words and grammatical (function) words. These differ as to their content side: lexical words have independent meanings (e.g. *dog, walk, blue, probably*), while function words have meaning mostly as signals of particular grammatical relations.

zero article: the absence of an article in a noun phrase. Indefinite plural nouns occur regularly with the zero article (*Carrots are good for you*). Likewise, uncountable nouns with indefinite/non-specific reference usually have the zero article (*I've got [Ø] sand in my shoes*). Furthermore, proper nouns normally occur with no article (*Peter just left*).

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