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Lecture 1

Grammar in the systematic conception of language. The development of grammar and its types.

Language is an essential feature that distinguishes us from other living beings. It certainly figures centrally in our lives. We discover our identity as individuals and social beings when we acquire language during childhood. ***Language is a means of cognition and communication. It enables us to express our ideas and emotions, to think for ourselves or set control over others. But language is first and foremost a means of transmitting information which helps us cooperate with other people in our community.*** Language is so uniquely human, that our species might be more appropriately named *homo loquens* than *homo sapiens* (Widdowson 1997: 4).

When you know a language, you can speak and be understood by others who know the same language. Knowledge of a language enables you to combine words to form phrases, and phrases to form sentences. But not every string of words constitutes a well-formed sentence in a language. Therefore, in addition to knowing the words of the language, linguistic knowledge includes rules for their combination to form sentences and make your own judgments. **These rules must be limited (finite) in length and number so that they can be stored in our brains. Yet, they must permit us to form and understand an infinite set of new sentences** (Fromkin et al. 2003: 11). You cannot buy a dictionary of any language with all its sentences, because no dictionary can list all the possible sentences. Knowing a language means being able to produce new sentences never spoken before and to understand sentences never heard before. The famous linguist Noam Chomsky refers to this ability as a creative aspect of language use: **creativity is a universal property of human language**. Not every speaker of a language can create great literature, but all persons who know a language, can and do create or understand an infinite set of new sentences in the process of human discourse. Thus, **creativity or creative**

aspect of language implies a human ability to create and understand an infinite set of new sentences in the process of human discourse.

There is a difference between a person's linguistic competence and his/her linguistic performance. A person's **linguistic competence** *implies the knowledge which is necessary to produce sentences of a particular language, while the application of such knowledge in the process of human discourse determines his/her* **linguistic performance**. Speakers' linguistic knowledge permits them to form sentences of any length by joining phrases and words together or adding modifiers to a noun or a verb. For the most part, linguistic knowledge is not a conscious knowledge. ***The linguistic system – the sounds, structures, meanings, words and rules for putting them all together – is learned subconsciously when language is acquired in childhood, while in adulthood it is learned with awareness, i.e. with great efforts.***

Language is a system of signs. ***It can function as a means of cognition and communication due to the unity and interaction of its three constituent parts or subsystems.*** These parts are the phonological system, the lexical system and the grammatical system. Without any of them there is no human language in the above sense. ***The phonological system*** determines the material (phonetical) appearance of its significative (i.e. meaningful) units. ***The lexical system*** is the whole set of naming means of language, that is, the vocabulary of words and stable word-groups. ***The grammatical system*** is the whole set of regularities, i.e. the set of rules (laws) determining the formation of utterances (i.e. actualized in speech sentences) in the process of discourse. Each of these three constituent parts of language is studied by a particular linguistic discipline. The sound system is studied by phonology, the vocabulary of words is studied by lexicology and the regulating rules of word and sentence formations are studied by grammar.

What is grammar? ***The word "grammar" derives from Greek and means "art of letters" (gramma = letter).*** The term "grammar" is used in two meanings. ***On the one hand,*** in its wide sense, the term refers to the explicit theory constructed by the linguist to describe the speaker's linguistic competence. ***On the other hand,*** in its narrow sense, the term "grammar" refers to the study of morphology (i.e. the rules of word formation, parts of speech and their grammatical categories) and syntax (i.e. the rules of sentence formation), often complemented by phonology, lexicology, semantics and pragmatics (Fromkin et al. 2003: 14). Our ability to speak and

understand, and to make judgments about the well-formedness of sentences, reveals our knowledge of the grammar of our language. About two thousand years ago the Greek grammarian Dionysius Thrax (დიონისე თრაკიელი) defined grammar as that which permits us either to speak a language or to speak about it.

Grammars are of different kinds. A fully explicit grammar exhaustively describing the grammatical constructions of a language is called **a descriptive grammar.** It does not teach the rules of the language; it describes the rules that are already known. In other words, **a descriptive grammar of language does not tell you how you should speak; it only describes your unconscious linguistic knowledge**. Such a grammar is a model of **the mental grammar** every speaker of the language knows.

A grammar that attempts to legislate what your grammar should be is called **a prescriptive grammar**. From ancient times until the present, "purists" have believed that language change is corruption, and that there are certain "correct" forms that all educated people should use in speaking and writing. ***So, if the descriptive grammar only describes your unconscious linguistic knowledge, the prescriptive grammar tells what rules you should know to speak the standard language.*** Prescriptivists blame television, schools and even the National Council of Teachers of English for failing to preserve the standard language and they attack those college and university professors who suggest that African American English (AAE) and other dialects are viable, living languages. Yet, the majority of linguists think that language is vigorous, dynamic and constantly changing. All languages and dialects are expressive, complete and logical. They are all rule governed and what is grammatical in one language may be ungrammatical in another equally prestigious language. These scholars admit that the grammar and usage of standard English may be dominant for social and political reasons, but other dialects are linguistically equally complex, logical and capable of producing an infinite set of sentences to express any thought. If sentences are muddled, it is not because of the language but because of the speakers. No grammar, therefore no language, is either superior or inferior to any other. Languages of technologically undeveloped cultures are not grammatically primitive or ill-formed in any way (Fromkin et al. 2003: 15).

Finally, all these remarks apply to *spoken language*. Writing, which is not acquired subconsciously but must be taught, follows certain prescriptive rules of grammar, usage and style that the spoken language does not, and is subject to little if any dialectal variation. Summing up, we can say that ***a descriptive grammar of language does not tell you how you should speak; it only describes your unconscious linguistic knowledge while*** **a** ***prescriptive grammar tells what rules you should know to speak the standard language.***

Different from them, **a teaching grammar is used to learn another language or dialect. Teaching grammars are used in school to fulfill language requirements**. They can be helpful to persons who do not speak the standard or prestige dialect, but find it would be advantageous socially and economically to do so. Teaching grammars state explicitly the rules of the language, list the words and their pronunciations and aid in learning a new language and dialect. It is often difficult for adults to learn a second language without being instructed, even when living for an extended period in a country where the language is spoken. Teaching grammars assume that the student already knows one language and compares the grammar of the target language with the grammar of the native language.

In 1957 Noam Chomsky developed a theory of **Transformational Grammar**, sometimes called **Transformational-Generative Grammar** in his work *Syntactic Structures*. This theory revolutionized the scientific study of language. According to this theory, Instead of starting with minimal sounds, *Chomsky began with kernel, i.e. elementary sentences, the number of which is limited in any language.* ***According to Transformational-Generative Grammar, by a limited number of kernel (elementary) sentences and a set of transformational rules you can generate (create) innumerable syntactic combinations. Each sentence in a language has two levels of representation – a deep structure and a surface structure. The deep structure represents the core semantic relations of a sentence which is mapped, i.e. explicated in the surface structure via transformations.*** Chomsky believed that there would be considerable similarities between deep structures of different languages, and that these structures would reveal properties, common to all languages. *Chomsky and his followers formulated transformational rules, which transform a sentence with a given grammatical structure (e. g. "John saw Mary.") into a sentence with a different grammatical structure but the same essential meaning ("Mary was*

seen by John."). Transformational grammar has been influential in universal grammar and in psycholinguistics, particularly in the study of language acquisition by children.

The more languages of the world linguists investigate and describe the ways in which they differ from each other, the more they discover that these differences are limited. There are linguistic universals that pertain to all languages. These universal facts are:

1. Wherever humans exist, language exists.
2. There are no "primitive" languages – all languages are equally complex and equally capable of expressing any idea in the universe. The vocabulary of any language can be expended to include new words for new concepts.
3. All languages change through time.
4. The relationships between the sounds and meanings of spoken languages are for the most part arbitrary, i.e. the forms (sounds) of linguistic signs bear no natural resemblance to their meaning and the link between them is a matter of convention, and conventions differ radically across languages.
5. All human languages use a finite set of discrete sounds that are combined to form meaningful elements or words, which themselves may be combined to form an infinite set of possible sentences.
6. All grammars contain rules of a similar kind for the formation of words and sentences.
7. Every spoken language includes discrete sound segments, that can all be defined by a finite set of sound properties or features. Every spoken language has a class of vowels and a class of consonants.
8. Similar grammatical categories, i.e. parts of speech (for example, noun, verb) are found in all languages.
9. There are universal semantic properties like "male", "female", "animate" or "human", found in every language in the world.
10. Every language has a way of negating, forming questions, issuing commands, referring to past or future time, and so on. Syntactic universals reveal that every language has a way of forming different structural types of sentences.

11. Speakers of all languages are capable of producing and comprehending an infinite set of sentences.
12. Any normal child, born anywhere in the world, of any racial, geographical, social or economic heritage, is capable of learning any language to which he or she is exposed. The differences we find among languages cannot be due to biological reasons.

These principles are revealed and studied by **Universal Grammar**, which defines the basis of the specific grammars of all possible human languages and constitutes the innate component of the human language faculty that makes normal language development possible. Strong evidence for Universal grammar has been found by Noam Chomsky in the way children acquire language. Children need not be deliberately taught as they are able to learn effortlessly any human language to which they are exposed, and they learn it in definable stages, beginning at a very early age. By four or five years of age, children have acquired nearly the entire adult grammar. This suggests that children are born with a genetically endowed faculty to learn and use human language, which is part of the Universal grammar. ***Universal Grammar aims to uncover the principles which characterize all human languages and to reveal the innate component of the human language faculty that makes language acquisition possible.***

The aim of Theoretical Grammar of a language is to present a theoretical description of its grammatical system, i.e. scientifically analyze and define main classes of words, so called parts of speech, their grammatical categories and study the mechanisms of sentence formation in the process of speech making.

Study Questions:

1. What are the functions of language?
2. What does creativity or a creative aspect of language imply?
3. What's the difference between a person's linguistic competence and his/her linguistic performance?

4. How is the knowledge of language acquired in childhood/in adulthood?
5. What are the three constituent parts(subsystems) of a language system? Define each of them.
6. What's the origin and the meaning of the word *grammar* ? The subject of grammar, its two interpretation.
7. What's the difference between Descriptive and Prescriptive Grammars?
8. What's the aim of Teaching Grammar?
9. What's the essence of Chomskian Transformational-Generative Grammar?
10. What are the twelve universal principles of language? Learn them.
11. What's the aim of Universal Grammar?
12. What's the aim of Theoretical Grammar?

Lecture 2

Dimensions and levels of linguistic analysis: syntagmatic and paradigmatic relations between lingual units. Hierarchical structuring of language system.

By virtue of their potentiality of occurrence in a certain context lingual units enter into relations of two different kinds. **When elements combine with others along a horizontal dimension, they enter into syntagmatic relations**. ***Syntagmatic relations are immediate linear relations between lingual units of the same level in a segmental sequence (string).*** *For example:*

"A very beautiful girl is talking to my brother in the yard."

In this sentence syntagmatically connected are the words and word-groups: *a girl*, *a beautiful girl*, *is talking*, *a beautiful girl is talking*, *is talking to my brother*, *is talking in the yard*.

Morphemes within the words are also connected syntagmatically. E.g.: beauti/ful, talk/ing. Phonemes and graphemes are connected syntagmatically within morphemes and words.

The combination of two words or word-groups in a segmental sequence, one of which is modified by the other, forms a unit which is referred to as a syntactic "syntagma." There are four main types of notional syntagmas:

1. **predicative syntagma,** which represents a combination of a subject and a predicate. For instance: *A very beautiful girl is talking* or *a girl is talking* .
2. **objective syntagma,** which represents a combination of a verb and its object. For instance: *is talking to my brother*.
3. **attributive syntagma,** which represents a combination of a noun and its attribute. For instance: *a beautiful girl*; *my brother*.
4. **adverbial syntagma,** which represents a combination of a modified notional word, such as a verb, adjective or adverb, with its adverbial modifier. For instance: i*s talking in the yard* (a verb with its adverbial modifier of place); *very beautiful* (an adjective with its adverbial modifier of degree).

Different from the rest of syntagmas, ***in a predicative syntagma the connection between its members is of reciprocal (i.e. mutual) nature: that is, the subject dominates the predicate determining the person and number of predication*** *(e.g. is talking = 3rd person, singular),* ***while the predicate dominates the subject, ascribing to it some action, state or quality*** *(A girl is talking).* 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, exists between elements of the system outside the strings where they co-occur. ***Elements enter into paradigmatic relations when they have the same potential to appear in the same context and functionally substitute each other. We have syntagmatic elements in a sequence along the horizontal dimension, while along the vertical dimension we have paradigmatic elements in substitution*** (Haspelmath 2002: 165). Consider, for example:

Nick was offensive.

The word on the wall was offensive.

The politician's speech was offensive.

His manner was offensive.

All these expressions, and infinitely many more, can combine with '…was offensive'. So they all have the same syntagmatic relation with the rest of the sentence, as they can all figure in the same position in its structure, i.e. they all have the equivalent function that of a subject as a constituent in sentence structure. In this respect they can all be classed paradigmatically as noun phrases. **Paradigmatic relations between lingual elements are especially evident in classical paradigms of categorical forms of parts of speech**. The minimal paradigm consists of two oppositional forms. This kind of paradigm we see, for instance, in the expression of the category of number: *boy – boys*. More numerous paradigms are observed in the expression of grammatical categories of adjectives (*big – bigger – biggest*) and verbs (play – plays – played – will play; play – is playing – has been playing, etc.).

Unlike syntagmatic relations, paradigmatic relations between lingual units cannot be directly observed in sentences, that is why they are referred to as relations "in absentia" ("in the absence").

The forms of language at any level are organized along these two dimensions or axes. They combine into larger structures along the horizontal (i.e. linear) or syntagmatic axis: sounds or letters combine to form morphemes; morphemes combine to form words; words combine to form phrases; phrases combine to form sentences; sentences combine to form a text. When different forms have the same potential to occur in the same structural context and are therefore equivalent in function, they are paradigmatically associated as members of the same class of items.

It is necessary to see that this two-dimensional mode of organization provides the potential to generate infinite expressions from a limited number of language means. Besides this, these two interdependent dimensions or relations between lingual elements represent the basic principles for the linguistic analysis at all levels.

Hierarchical structuring of language system.

In modern linguistics language is regarded as a system of signs which is organized (i.e. structured) by the principle of hierarchy of levels of lingual units. ***The peculiarity of this hierarchy lies in the fact that units of any higher level are analyzable into (i.e. are formed of) units of the immediately lower ones. Thus morphemes are formed of phonemes, words of morphemes, sentences of phrases and words and so on.***

But this hierarchical relation does not imply that it might be reduced to the mechanical composition of larger units from the smaller ones. Units of each level are characterized by their own, specific functional features according to which they differ from each other.

The lowest level of lingual units is **a phonemic level** which is formed by phonemes. Phonemes are not signs yet as they have no meaning. They serve as material elements to build the higher level segments – morphemes and words. Their function is purely differential, as they differentiate morphemes and words as material bodies. For instance: *bad* [bæd] and *bed* [bed]; *pork* and *fork* , etc. Phonemes are represented by letters in writing.

Units of the higher levels are meaningful, therefore they represent signs.

The level located above the phonemic is **a morphemic** or **morphological level**. The morpheme is an elementary meaningful part of the word. It is built up by a sequence of phonemes or even by one phoneme. E.g.: ros-y; come-s, etc.

The third level in the lingual hierarchy is **the lexemic level** represented by words as lexical items or lexemes. *The word is built up by a sequence of morphemes or one morpheme and it is the smallest naming (nominative) unit of language* : it names things, their qualities or their relations.

The fourth level in the hierarchy of language system is **the syntactic level** the main unit of which is a sentence. ***The sentence is an elementary full sign as it not only names a certain extralinguistic situation or event but performs communicative function as well, transmitting a piece of information.***

The sentence is not the highest unit of language in the hierarchy of levels. The highest level of lingual units is **the textual level** represented by a text. ***From the structural viewpoint, text can be defined as a sequence of thematically interrelated well-formed sentences.*** Unlike a

sentence, text nominates a set of extralinguistic events or situations which constitutes its target (referential) space.

From the functionalist viewpoint, a lingual unit of any length, be it a sequence of thematically interrelated well-formed sentences, one simple sentence or even a word, can be defined as a text if it performs a communicative function. This definition explains the existence of such one-word texts as: "Fire!"; "Help!" and many others, which are restricted by the setting of the given speech act.

Study Questions:

1. How can you define syntagmatic relations between lingual units?
2. Give the definition of the term *syntagma*.
3. Name the main types of syntagmas and define each of them.
4. How does a predicative syntagma differ from the rest?
5. Define paradigmatic relations between lingual units?
6. How do syntagmatic and paradigmatic relations differ from each other?
7. What are classical examples of paradigmatic relations between lingual units?
8. How is the language system organized (structured)? What does the hierarchy of levels imply?
9. Describe each level of the hierarchical structure of language system.
10. Give the structural definition of the text.
11. Give the functional definition of the text.

Lecture 3

Morphology as the study of internal structure of words

The most basic concept of morphology is the concept of a *word*. Every speaker of every language knows thousands of words. Words are an important part of linguistic knowledge. They constitute a component of our mental grammar. Without words we would be unable to convey out thoughts through language. At the same time, we may know thousands of words and still not know the language.

There are two different notions of word: a dictionary word and a text word. A dictionary word is an abstract entity called a lexeme (this is because the mental dictionary in our heads is called *the lexicon*). ***A text word is a concrete entity called a word-form. Word-forms are concrete as they can be pronounced and used in texts.***

The set of word-forms that belongs to a lexeme represents its grammatical paradigm. For instance, the words *live*, *lives*, *lived*, or *has lived* are different word-forms of the lexeme *live*, therefore they constitute its grammatical paradigm. But, not all morphological relations are of the indicated type. Different lexemes may also be related to each other, and ***a set of related lexemes represents a word family*** (though it should more properly be called **a lexeme family**). For example, two English word families are:

1. READ, READABLE, UNREADABLE, READER, READABILITY, REREAD
2. LOGIC, LOGICIAN, LOGICAL, ILLOGICAL, ILLOGICALITY

Although everyone recognizes that these words are related, they are given their own dictionary entries. Thus, the difference between word-forms and lexemes, and between paradigms and word families, is well established and it is known to all educated language users.

There are two different kinds of morphological relationship among words:

1. **derivational relationship** which exists among lexemes of a word family (= derivational morphology);
2. **inflectional relationship** which exists among word-forms within the paradigm of a lexeme (= inflectional morphology).

This distinction is central to morphology and it constitutes subject area of morphology.

Words have internal structure, which is rule-governed. For example, *uneaten*, *uninteresting* and *ungrammatical* are words in English, but **eatenun*, **interestingun* and **grammaticalun* (to mean "not eaten," "not interesting," "not grammatical") are not, because we do not form a negative meaning of a word by *suffixing -un* (i.e., by adding it to the end of the word), but by *prefixing* it (i.e., by adding it to the beginning of a word). Some people think that words are the basic meaningful elements of language, but we have seen that this cannot be so, since some words contain several distinct units of meaning. ***The most elemental meaningful lingual unit is a morpheme***. The word is derived from the Greek word *morphe*, which means "form."

Morphology is the study of internal structure of words and the rules by which words are formed. Somewhat paradoxically, morphology is both the oldest and one of the youngest subdisciplines of grammar. It is the oldest because, as far as we know, the first linguists were primarily morphologists. We find a number of lists of morphological forms of Sumerian words (Sumerian was the traditional literary language of Mesopotamia) on clay tablets, dating from around 1600 BC. Morphology was also prominent in the writings the antique grammarians of India, Greece and Rome.

The term *morphology* was invented in the second part of the 19th century and it means *"the science of word forms"* (*morphe* = "form", *ology* = "science of" or "branch of knowledge of"). Earlier there was no need for a special term, because the term *grammar* mostly implied word structure, i.e. morphology. The terms *phonology* (for sound structure) and *syntax* (for sentence structure) had existed for centuries when the term morphology was introduced. Thus, in this sense, morphology is a young discipline (Haspelmath 2002: 1-2). Part of knowing a language is knowing its morphology. Like most linguistic knowledge, this is generally unconscious knowledge.

A morpheme is a minimal meaningful lingual unit which may be represented by a sequence of sounds or a single sound: *boy-s*; *buil-t*, *beauti-ful,* etc. Thus a morpheme is an arbitrary union of a form (i.e. sounds) and a meaning as the link between them is a matter of convention. Every word in every language is composed of one or more morphemes:

one morpheme	boy
two morphemes	boy + ish

three morphemes	boy + ish + ness
four morphemes	gentle + man + li + ness
more than four morphemes	un + gentle + man + li + ness

The decomposition of words into morphemes illustrates one of the fundamental properties of human language – **discreteness** (დანაწევრებულობა). In all languages, discrete linguistic units combine in rule-governed ways to form larger units. Sound units combine to form morphemes, morphemes combine to form words, and words combine to form larger units – phrases and sentences. ***Discreteness is one of the properties that distinguish human languages from the communication systems of other species.*** Our knowledge of these discrete units and the rules for combining them accounts for creativity of human language, which refers to a person's ability to produce and understand an infinite range of sentences never heard before (Fromkin 2003: 76).

Roots and Stems

A root is a lexical content morpheme that cannot be analyzed any further into smaller parts. Morphologically complex words consist of a root and one or more affixes. Some examples of English roots are, for example, *paint* in *painter*, *read* in *reread*, *ceive* in *conceive*. The root is obligatory for any word, while affixes are not obligatory.

The affixal morphemes include prefixes, suffixes and inflexions. Of these, prefixes and suffixes have word-building or derivational functions while inflexions have only grammatical or form-building function. Derivational morphemes (i.e., suffixes and prefixes), when affixed to roots and stems, change the grammatical word class and the basic meaning of the word. For instance: *beauty - beautiful*; *advise – advice*, etc. Thus, derivational affixal morphemes express the specifications that are of lexical and grammatical character. ***When a root morpheme is combined with a derivational affix it forms a stem, which may or may not be a word*** (*painter* is both a word and a stem; *ceive* + *er* is only a stem).

Different from prefixes and suffixes, inflexions have strictly grammatical or form-building function. Inflectional morphemes never change the grammatical word class they are attached to. They only mark such properties (morphological categories) as tense, aspect, voice, number,

case and so forth. They signal grammatical relations and are required by the rules of sentence formation. Inflectional morphemes in English typically follow derivational morphemes. Compared to many languages of the world, English has relatively few inflections. ***At the present stage of English history, there are totally eight inflectional affixes*** (Fromkin et al. 2003: 100-101):

English Inflectional Morphemes		Examples
-s	third-person singular present	She wait-**s** at home.
-ed	past tense	She wait-**ed** at home.
-ing	progressive	She is eat-**ing** the donut.
-en	past participle	Mary has eat-**en** the donuts.
-s	plural	She ate the donut-**s**.
-'s	possessive	Disa**'s** hair is short.
-er	comparative	Disa has short-**er** hair than Karin.
-est	superlative	Disa has the short-**est** hair.

Bound and free Morphemes. Allomorphs.

Our morphological knowledge has two components: knowledge of the individual morphemes and knowledge of the rules that combine them. One of the things we know about particular morphemes is whether they can stand alone or whether they must be attached to a host morpheme. Accordingly, linguists differentiate free and bound morphemes. ***Morphemes, that can constitute words by themselves, are free morphemes. Free morphemes can only be represented by root morphemes.*** For instance, morphemes like *boy*, *desire*, *gentle*, *man* are free morphemes. ***Bound morphemes cannot form words by themselves, they are identified only as component segmental parts of words***. That's why they are always represented by affixal morphemes (prefixes, suffixes and inflexions). For instance, in the word *handful* the root hand is a free morpheme, while the suffix *-ful* is a bound morpheme.

Morphemes may have different shapes under different circumstances. E.g., the plural morpheme in English is sometimes pronounced [s] as in *cats* [kæts], sometimes [z] as in *dogs* [dogz], and sometimes [iz] as in *faces* [feisiz], or -en in *children, oxen*. For such cases, linguists use the term **allomorph** or morpheme alternant. ***If two or more morphemes have the same meaning (function) and the difference in their form is explained by different environments,***

these morphs are said to be in complementary distribution and they are considered to be the allomorphs of the same morpheme. Cf. the allomorphs of the plural morpheme [s], [z] and [iz] which stand in phonemic complementary distribution, while the plural allomorph *–en* in *oxen* and *children* stand in morphemic complementary distribution.

Study questions:

1. Define the concept of a dictionary word.
2. Define the concept of a text word.
3. What is a grammatical paradigm of a lexeme (i.e. dictionary word)?
4. What do we call a word family?
5. Name the types of morphological relationship among words in modern English grammar and explain how they differ from each other.
6. What does morphology study?
7. When was the term "morphology" invented? What does it mean?
8. Define the concept of a morpheme.
9. Why is discreteness of speech so important?
10. Define the concept of a root.
11. Name the types of affixal morphemes and explain how they differ functionally?
12. How is a stem formed?
13. Characterize inflectional affixes.
14. How many inflectional affixes are there in modern English?
15. What kind of morphemes are called free morphemes?
16. What kind of morphemes are called bound morphemes?
17. Define the concept of allomorphs.

Lecture 4

Basic notions of morphology: grammatical category, grammatical paradigm and paradigmatic opposition. Ways of grammatical word-forming in modern English.

Morphology is the study of internal structure of words and the rules by which words are formed. Notional words, first of all verbs and nouns, possess some morphemic features expressing grammatical (morphological) meanings and determining 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. So we can say that different grammatical forms express different grammatical meanings.

The most general notions reflecting the most general properties of phenomena are referred to as categorical notions or categories.

The most general meanings rendered by language and expressed by systemic correlations of grammatical word-forms are interpreted in linguistics as categorical grammatical meanings. The categorical meaning (e.g. the grammatical number) unites the individual meanings of the correlated paradigmatic forms (e.g. singular – plural) and is exposed through them.

The grammatical category is a system of concepts expressing a generalized grammatical meaning by means of paradigmatic correlation of grammatical forms.

The ordered set of grammatical word-forms of a lexeme expressing a categorical meaning constitutes a paradigm. The correlated word-forms within the paradigm are referred to as members of so-called grammatical opposition.

The oppositional theory was originally formulated as a phonological theory, later it was introduced into morphology. The opposition (in the linguistic sense) may be defined as a generalized correlation of lingual forms by means of which a certain function (i.e. a grammatical meaning) is expressed. *The correlated elements (members) of the opposition must possess two types of features: common and differential.* **Common features** serve as the basis of contrast,

while **differential features** immediately express the function in question, i.e. a grammatical meaning. By the number of members contrasted, oppositions are divided into *binary* (i.e. two members) and more than binary (*ternary*, quaternary, etc.).

The most important type of opposition is the **binary opposition**. It is formed by a contrastive pair of members one of which is characterized by the presence of a certain differential feature (*mark*), while the other member is characterized by the absence of this feature. The member in which the feature is present is called **the *marked*, or *strong*, or *positive* member**, and is commonly designated by the symbol + (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). Thus, ***the strong member of the grammatical opposition is always marked as it contains a certain differential feature, while the weak member is unmarked as it is characterized by the absence of this feature.*** For example: *boy – boys* (the plural form *boys* is a strong member of the opposition as it is marked by the inflection –s, while the singular form *boy* is a weak, unmarked member).

For instance, the expression of the verbal present and past tenses is based on the opposition the differential feature of which is the inflectional suffix *-(e)d*. This inflection, expressing the meaning of the past tense, marks the past form of the verb positively (E.g.: *We worked*), while the present form is marked negatively (*We work*). If we take the noun forms *cats* and *cat*, we can say that these two forms constitute a binary opposition in which the plural is the marked or strong member, while the singular is unmarked, weak member of the opposition. The meanings differentiated by the oppositions of signemic units (signemic oppositions) are referred to as “semantic features”, or “semes”.

Ways of grammatical word-forming in Modern English

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 based on the 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 and the other – a content word with concrete lexical meaning.

Synthetical grammatical forms are based on *inner inflection*, *outer inflection* and *suppletivity*. Hence, the forms are referred to as inner-inflectional, outer-inflectional and suppletive.

***Inner inflection* or *grammatical infixation* is based on vowel interchange, which is not productive in modern English, but it is peculiarly employed in some of its basic, most ancient lexemes. Inner inflection is used in English irregular verbs to form the past indefinite and past participle (the bulk of them Germanic strong verbs), and in a few nouns to form their plural.**

For instance:

Irregular verbs	**Nouns**
begin – began – begun	man – men
do – did – done	goose – geese
drive – drove – driven	foot – feet
give – gave – given	mouse – mice
keep – kept – kept	tooth – teeth
sell – sold – sold	woman – women

***Outer inflection* implies grammatical suffixation as grammatical prefixation could only be observed in the Old English**. Outer inflections are used to build up the number and case forms of the noun, the person-number, tense, participial and gerundial forms of the verb; the comparison forms of the adjective and adverb.

***Suppletivity* is based on the correlation of different roots as a means of paradigmatic differentiation of grammatical category. Suppletivity implies the grammatical interchange of word roots, and this unites it with the inner inflection**. Suppletivity is used:

1. in the forms of the verbs **be** (be – am – is – are – was – were) and **go** (go – went);
2. in the irregular forms of the degrees of comparison: **good – better; bad – worse; much – more; little – less.**
3. in some forms of the personal pronouns: **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 categorial properties. Cf.: can – be able (to); must – have (to); may – be allowed (to); one – some; man – people, etc.

As for **analytical forms** which are so typical of modern English that they have made this language into the classical representative of lingual analytism, they deserve some special comments on their substance.

The traditional analytical morphological form represents a combination of an auxiliary word with a basic word. The classical analytical forms in the English grammar are:

1. verbal perfect (*have/had gone*);
2. continuous (*is/was going*);
3. perfect-continuous (*have/had been going*) forms;
4. passive voice (*is/was built*);
5. interrogative (Do/did you go?) and negative (You don't/didn't go) forms of present and past indefinite;
6. future tense with the auxiliaries *shall* and *will* (I shall/will go), etc.

These are mostly *grammatically idiomatic forms*, whose relevant grammatical meaning is not immediately dependant on the meaning of their component elements taken apart. In the above-enumerated analytical grammatical forms the auxiliaries *have*, *be* and *do* have so utterly lost their original meanings of possession, existence and doing something, that they are interpreted as the most standard and indisputable analytical forms of English morphology.

Study Questions:

1. How are grammatical categorical meanings defined?
2. Define the concept of grammatical category.
3. Define the concept of a paradigm and paradigmatic opposition.
4. What features must the correlated elements of the grammatical opposition possess?

5. What's the difference between the strong and the weak members of the grammatical opposition?
6. How many ways of grammatical word-forming are there in modern English?
7. How do synthetical grammatical forms differ from the analytical ones?
8. Define the essence of inner inflection. Give examples.
9. Define the essence of outer inflection. Give examples.
10. Define the essence of suppletivity. Give examples.
11. What does an analytical morphological form represent?
12. Name some examples of classical analytical forms in English grammar.

Lecture 5

Major families of words. The problem of parts of speech.

Words are generally considered to be the basic elements of language. They clearly show up in writing, and they are the items defined in dictionaries. **According to various formal and semantic features, all words are divided into *three major families of words: lexical (i.e. content) words, function words and insert words*** (Biber et al 2003: 14-17; Fromkin et al. 2003: 71-74). Linguists also speak about grammatically relevant classes of words, called ***parts of speech***. Since the word is distinguished not only by grammatical, but also by semantic and lexemic properties, some scholars refer to parts of speech **as *lexico-grammatical series of words*** (Blokh 1983).

In modern linguistics, parts of speech are defined as lexico-grammatical series of words which are discriminated on the basis of *semantic*, *morphological* and *syntactic* criteria.

1. **the semantic criterion** presupposes the generalized categorical meaning, which is characteristic of all the subsets of words constituting a given part of speech;

2. **the morphological criterion** implies the specific inflectional (form-changing) and derivational (word-building) features of a given part of speech;
3. **the syntactical criterion** concerns the typical syntactic role, played by a given part of speech in a sentence.

These three factors of categorical characterization of words are conventionally referred to as, respectively, ***meaning, form*** and ***function***.

According to the described criteria, scholars differentiate into three major families of words: lexical (i.e. content), function and insert words.

Lexical (content) words

Linguists (e.g., Biber, Conrad and Leech) point out the following characteristic features of lexical words:

1. Lexical words are ***the main carriers of information*** in a text or speech act.
2. **Lexical (content) words can be used independently in a sentence, performing some syntactic function.** Therefore they are subdivided into the following word classes or **notional *parts of speech***: *nouns*, *verbs*, *adjectives* and *adverbs*.
3. Of all the word families, lexical words are the most numerous and their number is growing all the time. In other words, ***lexical words are members of open word classes, because people regularly add new words to these classes to name new concepts and inventions.*** For instance, words like *download*, upload, *blog* or *e-mail* entered the language quite recently with the Internet revolution.
4. ***Lexical words often have a complex internal structure and can be composed of more than one morphemes.*** E.g.: *unfriendliness = un + friend + li + ness*.
5. ***Lexical words can be heads of phrases***. For instance, in the noun phrase - *the completion of the task* - the noun *completion* is the head (or main word) of the phrase.

6. ***Lexical words are generally the words that are stressed in speech***.
7. ***Lexical words are the words that remain if a sentence is compressed in a newspaper headline***. E.g.: *Elderly Care Crisis Warning*.

Function words

1. ***Function words do not have clear lexical meaning, they have only grammatical function.***
2. ***Function words can be categorized in terms of parts of speech such as determiners (articles), prepositions, conjunctions and particles.***
3. ***Function words can't perform independently any syntactic function in a sentence, they usually indicate meaning relationships by showing how units are related to each other***. For example, the articles indicate whether a noun is definite or indefinite – *the boy* or *a boy*. The preposition "of" indicates possession as in *the book of yours,* but this word indicates many other kinds of relations too.
4. ***Function words belong to closed classes of words, which have a very limited and fixed membership.*** It is difficult to think of new conjunctions, prepositions, or articles that have recently entered the language.
5. ***Function words tend to occur frequently, and in almost any type of text***.

Inserts

1. ***Inserts are found mainly in spoken language***.
2. ***Inserts don't have any syntactic function in a sentence, but tend to be inserted freely in a text.***
3. ***Inserts are often marked off by a break in intonation in speaking, or by a punctuation mark in writing***. E.g.: ***Well****, we made it.*

4. ***Inserts can be subdivided into the following parts of speech: interjections, modal words, greetings and farewells, attention getters, discourse fillers****, etc.*
5. ***Inserts generally carry emotional and discoursal meanings, expressing the speaker's subjective attitude to the target situation***. Words such as *oh*, *ah*, *wow* (i.e. interjections), are used to express the speaker's emotional response to a situation while *perhaps, fortunately, evidently, etc.* (i.e. modal words) are used to express the speaker's subjective attitude to the target situation; or *yeah*, *no*, *O.K.* and others signal a response to what has just been said (response to discourse).
6. ***Inserts are generally simple in form. Though they often have an atypical pronunciation***.

Study Questions:

1. What major families of words are there in modern English?
2. How are parts of speech defined in modern linguistics? Comment on the semantic, morphological and syntactic criteria of their discrimination.
3. Enumerate the seven characteristic features of lexical (i.e. content) words.
4. Enumerate the five characteristic features of function words.
5. Enumerate the six characteristic features of inserts.

Lecture 6

Survey of the nominal parts of speech

Parts of speech are lexico-grammatical classes of words differentiated from each other by:

a) a generalized, categorical meaning, i.e. ***semantically***;

b) specific inflectional and derivational features, i.e. ***morphologically***;

c) syntactic function in a sentence, i.e. ***syntactically***.

Accordingly, grammarians discriminate between ***notional*** and ***functional parts of speech***. To the notional parts of speech belong nouns, adjectives, *numerals*[1], *pronouns,* verbs and adverbs, while functional parts of speech are represented by determiners (articles), prepositions, conjunctions and particles.

Notional parts of speech can be used independently in a sentence performing syntactic functions of a subject, object, predicate, attribute or adverbial modifier while function words can't perform independently any syntactic function in a sentence. Notional parts of speech can act as heads in phrases and most of them constitute open classes of words (except pronouns and numerals), whereas function words represent closed classes of words, which have a very limited and fixed membership.

Below, we offer the survey of the nominal parts of speech according to the scheme: semantics - morphological features – syntactic function (i.e. meaning – form – function).

The noun

1. **Semantic features**. The categorical meaning of nouns is substance, thingness (for instance, *book*, *friend*, *iron*), though they can also denote abstract entities, such as qualities and states (e.g. *freedom*, *wish*, *friendship*).

2. **Morphological features**. Nouns have the inflectional forms of morphological categories of number (*a book – two books*) and case (*Sarah's book*). **Structurally** nouns are differentiated

[1] Some grammarians (for instance, Biber, Conrad and Leech) refer numerals and pronouns to function word class of parts of speech on the ground that they represent closed class of words.

into simple (*boy; street; car; dog; people, etc.*), derived (singer; brightness; friendship) and compound (*bombshell; bridgehead; merry-go-round*)types.

3. **Syntactic features.** Syntactically nouns can function in the sentence as:

subject: *A **man** was walking in the street.*

object: *I see a **man** in the street.*

predicative (following the link verb in a compound nominal predicate):

She is a **teacher**.

attribute: *a **stone** wall; a **gold** medal.*

Adverbial modifiers: *Every **morning*** (time) *he goes to the **bank*** (place).

The adjective

1. **Semantic features.** The categorical meaning of the adjective is quality. Adjectives describe the qualities of people (*a guilty man*; *He is guilty.*), things (*a heavy box*) and abstractions (*The situation is serious.*);

2. **Morphological features.** Many adjectives take the inflectional suffixes *-er* and *-est* to mark morphological category of degrees of comparison. E.g.: dark (positive degree) – dark***er*** (comparative degree) – dark***est*** (superlative degree). **Structurally** adjectives are differentiated into simple (*red, tall, fast,* etc.), derived (*eatable, beautiful, useless,* etc.) and compound (*color-blind, home-made, ice-cold,* etc.) types. There are some compound-derivatives too (*broad-shouldered, narrow-minded,* etc.).

3. **Syntactic features.** Syntactically adjectives and adjective phrases are most commonly used as attributes (*a beautiful girl came in*) and as predicatives, following the link verb in a clause (*It's nice and warm in here.*).

The numeral

The problem of the grammatical categorization of numerals, as to which class of parts of speech they should belong, is controversial. Some linguists (e.g. Biber, Conrad and Leech)

think that numerals should be treated as a special class of function words as they form a rather self-contained area of English grammar. Others, Russian scholars mainly, consider that numerals should belong to the notional (i.e. content, lexical) parts of speech, as they can perform syntactic functions independently (Blokh 1983: 37-39). Numerals possess the following characteristic features.

1. **Semantic features.** The categorical meaning of numerals is number. There are two parallel sets of numerals: **cardinals**, answering the question "How many?" (*two, four, sixteen*) and **ordinals**, answering the question "Which?" and serving to place entities in order (*first, second, fifth*).

2. **Morphological features.** As a word class, numerals consist of a small set of structurally simple forms (*one, two, ten, hundred, million,* etc.) and a large set of more complex forms: derived cardinal and ordinal numerals (*thir**teen**; eigh**teen**; twen**ty**; six**ty**; fif**th**; seven**th***), compound numerals (25 = twenty-five, 46 = forty-six, 2010 = two thousand and ten).

3. **Syntactic features.** Numerals are most commonly used in the role of:
   attribute: ***Four** people were arrested. The **first** lecture begins at 9 a.m.*
   subject: ***Two** of the men were arrested. We have five lectures today. The **first** is Math.*
   object: *There were some apples on the table. I took **one** and left the room.*
   predicative (following the link-verb): *He was **the third** to leave the room.*

The pronoun

The problem of the grammatical categorization of pronouns, like numerals, is controversial. Some linguists (for instance, Fromkin, Rodman, Hyams, Biber, Conrad, Leech, Greenbaum and Quirk) consider pronouns as function word subclass, because they are devoid of independent lexical meaning and their system is closed. Others, Russian scholars mainly, think that pronouns should belong to the notional (i.e. content, lexical) parts of speech, as they can perform syntactic functions that of the subject, object and attribute independently (Blokh 1983: 37-39).

The categorical meaning of pronouns is *indication* or *reference*. Pronouns fill the position of a noun or a whole noun phrase. The reference of a pronoun is usually made clear by its context. There are eight major classes of pronouns:

1. **Personal pronouns** refer to the speaker, the addressee (s) and other entities. They are used more frequently than other pronouns. E.g.: *I won't tell **you** how **it** ended.*
2. **Demonstrative pronouns** refer to entities which are "near to" or "away from" the speaker's immediate context: ***this** book; **that** book*; ***these** books; **those** books.*
3. **Reflexive pronouns** refer back to a previous noun phrase, usually the subject of the clause: *I taught **myself**. She never introduced **herself**.*
4. **Reciprocal pronouns,** like reflexive pronouns, refer to a previous noun phrase, but indicate that there is mutual relationship: *They know **each other** pretty well.*
5. **Possessive pronouns** have two forms:

   possessive determinars, **so-called conjoined forms**, that are used attributively preceding a noun (e.g.: ***my** book*, ***your** sister*, ***their** neighbours*);

   absolute forms of possessive pronouns (such as *mine, yours, his, hers, ours, theirs*), which usually imply a missing noun head: *This is my book. Where is **yours**?*
6. **Indefinite pronouns** have a broad, indefinite meaning. Some of them are compound words consisting of **a quantifier + a general noun** (*everything, nobody, some-body, someone,* etc.). Others consist of **a quantifier alone** (*all, some, many,* etc.).
7. **Relative pronouns** (*who, whom, which, what, that,* etc.) introduce an attributive relative clause: *He is the guy **who** told me about this.*
8. **Interrogative pronouns** ask questions about unknown entities: **What** *did he say?*

   I just wonder **who** *it was.*

Most relative and interrogative pronouns belong to the class of **wh-words**.

Study Questions:

1. What are the two main types of parts of speech in English grammar and by what word-classes are they represented ?
2. How do notional parts of speech differ from the functional ones?
3. What are semantic features of nouns in a sentence?
4. Speak about the morphological features of nouns.
5. What are syntactic functions of nouns in a sentence?
6. What is the categorical meaning of adjectives?
7. Comment on the morphological features of adjectives.
8. What are typical syntactic functions of adjectives in a sentence?
9. Why is the problem of numerals controversial?
10. What is the categorical meaning of numerals? How are numerals differentiated semantically?
11. Comment on the structural forms of numerals. Give examples.
12. What are syntactic functions of numerals in a sentence?
13. Why is the problem of pronouns controversial?
14. What is categorical meaning of pronouns?
15. Enumerate the eight major classes of pronouns and give examples.

Lecture 7

Verb, as the central part of speech. Its different classifications.

Grammatically verbs are the most complex part of speech. This is due to the central role they play in the expression of predicativity of the sentence, establishing the relationship between the target situation or event named in the utterance and the reality. Besides this, the finite verb, being the centre of predication, determines the configuration of the sentence, specifying a meaning relation among its components. The centrality of verbs is also conditioned by the complex system of their grammatical categories, as well as by their various classifications according to the functional, semantic, structural and valency characteristics of the verb.

1. Functional classification of verbs

According to their functions, verbs can be divided into **three major categories** or classes: **lexical or full verbs**, **primary verbs** and **auxiliary modal verbs** (Biber et al. 2003: 104; Greenbaum & Quirk 1991: 24-40).

a) The grammatical categorical meaning of **lexical or full verbs** is to denote action, process or state dynamically, i.e. developing in time. The full verbs are only used as main verbs because of their lexical meanings. E.g.: *Every morning he **goes** to the office and **comes** back at eight.*

This class of verbs is an open class, which means that the English language is always adding new lexical verbs. E.g.: to download, to e-mail, etc.

b) **There are only three primary verbs: *be*, *have* and *do*,** the most common verbs in English. They form a separate class because they can be used either as main verbs or as auxiliary verbs.

Primary verbs can act as main verbs when they realize their lexical meaning of existence, possession or performing something:

*He **was** in the hotel with his family.*

*He **has** a big family – a wife and six children.*

*The **did** everything to save the child.*

Special attention should be paid to the primary verb *be.* Opinions differ concerning its functional status. British and American scholars consider that, when *be* is used as a copula, or a linking verb (e.g.: *He **is** angry; She **is** a dancer*, etc.) it functions as a main verb, while Russian linguists refer to such use of *be* as the "pure link-verb" connecting the subject with its nominal predicative (Blokh 1983: 91).

When the primary verbs lose their lexical meaning they are used as auxiliaries to show how the main verb is to be understood.

- The auxiliary ***have*** is used to form the **perfect aspect**: *I have just come home*.
- The auxiliary ***be*** is used to form the **progressive** or **continuous aspect:** *He is having lunch.*
- The auxiliary ***be*** is also used to form the **passive voice**: *The letter was sent to him*.
- The auxiliary ***do*** is used in negative statements and in questions; this is known as ***do*** insertion. For instance:

  *Where **do** you live?*

  *He **does** not speak French.*

c) **modal verbs** (*can, may, must, could, might, have to, be able to, have to, shall, will, should, would, need, etc.*) are used only as auxiliary verbs to express ability, possibility, obligation, necessity, volition or prediction of the action, process or state which is denoted by the main verb.

Cf.: *People thought he **might** have been joking.*(possibility)

*He **would** probably go there*. (volition/prediction)

2. Semantic classification of lexical (full) verbs

Linguists differentiate seven semantic classes of full verbs (Biber et al. 2003: 106-114). They are: activity verbs, communication verbs, mental verbs, causative verbs, verbs of occurrence, verbs of existence or relationship, and verbs of aspect.

1. **Activity verbs** usually refer to an action performed intentionally by an agent or 'doer'. Thus, in the following example, the subject (underlined below) performs the action: *He* ***bought*** *biscuits and condensed milk.*

The twenty most commonly used activity verbs in conversation, fiction, newspaper writing and academic prose are: *bring, get, make, play, take, buy, give, meet, put, try, come, go, move, run, use, follow, leave, pay, show, work.*

2. **Communication verbs** form a special subclass of activity verbs that involve communication activities, particularly verbs describing speech and writing: *You* ***said*** *you didn't have it.*

The twelve most commonly used 'communication' verbs are: *ask, offer, talk, call, say, tell claim, speak, shout, thank, describe, suggest, write.*

3. **Mental verbs** refer to mental states and activities. Mental verbs express a wide range of meanings such as:

- mental states or processes (e.g. *think, know*)
- emotions, attitudes, or desires (e.g. *love, want*)
- perceptions (e.g. *see, touch, taste*)
- emotional attitudes (*hate, like, love*, etc.)

The twenty most common 'mental' verbs are: *believe, find, listen, read, think, consider, hear, love, remember, understand, expect, know, mean, see, want, feel, like, need, suppose, wonder.*

They ***decided*** *to watch TV.*

Somehow I ***doubt*** *it.*

He ***remembered*** *all our names.*

4. **Causative verbs,** such as *allow, let, enable, require, cause, force* and *help* indicate that some person or things help to bring about a new state of affairs. These verbs often occur with a derived noun as the direct object, which reports the action or event that was facilitated (in the examples below the direct object is underlined). For instance:

This information ***enables*** *the formulation of precise questions.*

Still other rules ***cause*** *the deletion of elements from the structure.*

In other cases , the resulting action or event is expressed in a complement (i.e. objective) clause that follows the causative verb:

*What **caused** you to be ill?*

*This would **help** the volume of gas to be calculated.*

5. **Verbs of occurrence** report events that occur without an actor. Often the subjects of these verbs are effected by the event that is described by the verb, as in these examples (subjects are underlined):

*The lights **changed**.*

*Resistant organisms may **develop** in the alimentary tract.*

*The term 'feature' has **occurred** many times in this chapter.*

Seven verbs of occurrence are especially common in English: *become, grow, change, happen, develop, occur, die.*

6. **Verbs of existence or relationship** report a state of existence or a logical relationship that exists between entities. Some of the most common existence verbs are copular verbs: *be, seem, appear, go, grow, look, feel, sound, smell, taste, remain, keep, turn, get, become, prove, exist, etc.*

*Witnesses said he **appeared** happy and relaxed.*

*It was **growing** dark when we set out.*

7. **Verbs of aspect** characterize the stage of progress of an event or activity. These verbs usually occur with a non-finite complement clause following the verb. Some common 'aspect' verbs are: *begin, start, commence, continue, proceed, keep, go on, stop give up,* etc.

*She **kept** running out of the room.*

*He couldn't **stop** talking about me.*

*Tears **started** to trickle down his cheeks.*

3. Morphological classification of verbs

Verbs traditionally fall into two sets of morphological classes: regular and irregular verbs, and finite and non-finite verbs.

1. The main principle of the morphological classification of verbs is the way how they form simple past and past participle or participle II. Accordingly verbs are divided into two large groups: **regular** and **irregular verbs**. Regular verbs form past simple and past participle by adding the inflectional suffix *–ed,* while irregular verbs form these forms individually. English irregular verbs can be differentiated into the following subgroups:

- verbs that form simple past and participle II by means vowel gradation:

  drink – drank – drunk begin – began - begun

  sing – sang – sung sink – sank – sunk

- verbs with vowel gradation + affixation for participle II:

  break – broke – broken take – took -taken

  give – gave – given write – wrote – written

- verbs with vowel gradation + the same suffixation forms for simple past and participle II:

  bring – brought – brought catch – caught – caught

  teach – taught - taught buy – bought – bought

- verbs with consonant gradation:

  build –built – built send – sent –sent

  lend – lent –lent rend – rent –rent

- verbs with homonymous forms:

  burst – burst –burst cut – cut – cut

  let – let –let set – set – set

- verbs with suppletive forms:

  be – was, were – been

  go – went

2. **Finite** and **non-finite forms of the verb** differ both in the number of the categories they possess and in their syntactical functions. There are three non-finite forms of the verb: **the infinitive**, **the participle** (two forms of participle: participle I or present participle, which is formed with the help of inflectional suffix *-ing: dancing,* and participle II or past participle with

the inflectional suffix *-ed* for regular verbs and other means of word-forming for irregular verbs: *danced, taken*, etc.), and **the gerund**.

Finite forms are distinguished from the non-finites as follows:

1. Finite verbs can occur independently (i.e. without copular verbs or modal auxiliaries) as a simple predicate, while non-finite verb forms can function as part of a complex verbal predicate. **This functional distinction between finite and non-finite verbs is called FINITNESS**. Non-finite verbs can also perform other syntactic functions in a sentence. Cf.:

finite verb: *Nick **speaks** five languages*. (simple verbal predicate)

Non-finite verb forms:
1. *Nick can **speak** five languages*. (**infinitive**, **part of a compound modal verbal predicate**.)
2. ***Dancing** is my favorite good pastime*. (**gerund, subject**)
3. *I like **dancing***. (**gerund, direct object**)
4. *He sat on the sofa **reading a book***. (**participle I, adv. modifier of attending circumstances**)
5. *He saw a **dancing** girl*. (**participle I, attribute**)
6. *There was a **broken** vase in the box*. (**participle II, attribute**)

2. Finite verbs have **TENSE** contrast (i.e. the distinction between present and past tenses: *She **works** hard. She **worked** hard.*) while non-finite verb forms don't have tense distinction, i.e. they don't have grammatical category of tense.

3. Finite verbs have grammatical categories of **PERSON** and **NUMBER** while non-finite verbs don't have any of these distinctions. There is a person and number concord between the subject of a clause and the finite simple verbal predicate. This concord is particularly clear with the present tense of the verb ***be*** (I am; you are; he/she/it is; we/you/they are). But with most full verbs overt (თვალსაჩინო, აშკარა) concord is restricted to a contrast between the 3rd person singular present and other persons or plural number:

He / She / Jim reads the paper every morning.

I / We / You / They read the paper every morning.

4. Both, finite and non-finite verbs have different grammatical forms for **ASPECT** distinction. Aspect requires a choice between the non-perfect and the perfect forms, and between the non-progressive and progressive (i.e. non-continuous and continuous) forms. Compare:

Finite verb forms:

*He **writes** poems.* (simple: non-perfect, non-progressive).

*He **has written** poems*. (perfect: auxiliary *have* + participle II; non-progressive)

*He **is writing** poems*. (progressive: auxiliary *be* + participle I; non-perfect)

*He **has been writing** poems*. (perfect, progressive)

Non-finite verb forms (modal auxiliary *must* + bare infinitive):

He must write poems. (bare infinitive simple, non-perfect, non-progressive)

*He must **have written** poems*. (bare infinitive, perfect, non-progressive)

*He must **be writing** poems*. (bare infinitive, progressive, non-perfect)

*He must **have been writing** poems*. (bare infinitive, perfect, progressive)

5. Both, finite and non-finite verbs (except the gerund) have different grammatical forms for **VOICE DISTINCTION**. Voice involves a contrast between active and passive. The active form of the verb shows that the action denoted by it is performed by the subject of the sentence, while the passive form indicates that the action is performed upon the subject. Cf. the following:

Active voice	**Passive voice**
*He **writes** poems.*	*Poems must **be written** by him.*
*He **has written** poems.*	*Poems must **have been written** by him.*
***Having written** the letter, he left the room.*	*The letter **having been written**, he left the room*

6. Finite verbs have different forms to mark the grammatical category of **MOOD** (which requires a choice between the indicative, imperative and subjunctive mood) while non-finite verb forms are devoid of this grammatical category.

Due to the above-mentioned grammatical categories of tense, person, number, aspect, voice and mood, finite verbs are capable to perform independently syntactic function of a simple predicate in a sentence. The number of these categories being restricted to aspect and voice, non-finite verb forms are devoid of this feature.

4. Structural classes of verbs

Verbs are characterized by specific forms of word-building. The verb stems may be simple, derived, composite and phrasal.

a) **Simple or root verbs** consist of a content morpheme that cannot be analyzed any further into smaller parts. Such verbs are not numerous. For instance: *ask, go, play, take, tell, declare, etc.*

b) **Derived verbs** fall into four subclasses according to their word-building peculiarities:

- Derived verbs, which are formed by means of **conversion** (zero-suffixation). The most common type of conversion is "noun – verb" conversion, such as: *a cloud – to cloud*, *a house – to house*, *a park – to park*, *a book – to book,* etc.
- **The sound-replacive type of derivation.** Cf.: food – to feed, blood – to bleed;
- **The stress-replacive type of derivation** which is unproductive. Cf.: *'import – to im'port*,

  'transport – to trans'port, etc.
- Derived verbs, which are formed by means of **affixation** (a root morpheme + an affix: prefix or suffix), represent the most common type of derivation.

There are many different derivational prefixes used to form new verbs in English. The most common derivational prefixes, in order of frequency of occurrence, are:

prefix	meaning of prefix	examples
re-	again	***re**arm, **re**build, **re**define, **re**finance, **re**name*
dis-	opposite, apart	***dis**arm, **dis**connect, **dis**continue, **dis**like*
over-	too much, across, beyond	***over**come, **over**eat, **over**tire, **over**work*
un-	opposite, in reverse	***un**bend, **un**couple, **un**fold, **un**load, **un**pack*
mis-	wrong, poorly	***mis**inform, **mis**pronounce, **mis**understand*
out-	beyond, further	***out**bid, **out**do, **out**grow, **out**weigh*

There are only a few derivational suffixes used for verb formation. The suffixes are listed below in order of frequency of occurrence:

suffix	meaning of suffix	examples
-ize/-ise[2]	to (cause to) become	*computer**ize**, energ**ize**, real**ize**, stabil**ize***
-en	to (cause to) become	*awak**en**, flatt**en**, length**en**, moist**en***
-ate	to (cause to) become	*activ**ate**, congratul**ate**, liquid**ate**, regul**ate***
-(i)fy	to (cause to) become	*beautify, codify, exemplify, notify*

c) **Compound** or **composite verbs** consist of two or more roots: *blackmail, broadcast, whitewash,* etc.

d) **Phrasal verbs are represented by two specific types**: *the first* is a combination of the head verb *have, give* and *take* (occasionally some others) with a noun. This type of phrasal verbs has as its equivalent an ordinary simple verb. Cf.: *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 preposition that has a specifying value. Cf.: *stand up, go on, give in, give up, get along,* etc.

5. Valency patterns

The finite verb, being the centre of predication, organizes all the sentence constituents. In other words, the main verb with its semantics determines the configuration of other elements that are required in the sentence. This combining power of the verb is called VALENCY.

The pattern of the sentence (clause) elements is called the **valency pattern of the verb** (Biber et al. 2003: 119). The patterns are differentiated by the required elements that follow the verb within the sentence (the subject, the direct object, indirect object, adverbial, etc.). All valency patterns include a subject while optional adverbials can always be added. The morphological relevance of the combining power of the verb is manifested in the categorical voice distinction of the verb.

British grammarians differentiate five major valency patterns: intransitive, monotransitive, ditransitive, complex transitive and copular (Biber et al. 2003: 119-123):

[2] The suffix *-ize* is often spelled *-ise* in British English.

A. Intransitive pattern (S + V), which is a combination of the subject and the main verb. Intransitive verbs occur with no obligatory element following the verb. For instance: *More people* ***came***.

B. Monotransitive pattern (S + V + DO), which represents a subject-verb combination with a direct object. Monotransitive verbs occur with a single direct object. Cf.: *She* ***was carrying*** *a heavy bag*.

C. Ditransitive [dai'trænzitiv] **pattern (S + V + IO + DO),** which represents a subject-verb combination with two object phrases: an indirect object and a direct object. For instance: *His father* ***gave*** *him the money. They* ***called*** *him Johnny*.

D. Complex transitive patterns are represented by two types, in which transitive verbs occur with a direct object followed either by an object predicative expressed by an adjective, i.e. when a transitive verb is followed by a complex object (1) or by an obligatory adverbial (2):

1. *The boy* ***made*** *his mother angry*. **(S + V + DO + OP)**
2. *He* ***put*** *his hand on the child's shoulder*. **(S + V + DO + Adv)**

E. Copular pattern (S + Copula + P), which represents a combination of a subject and a copular verb followed by a predicative (a noun, adjective, adverb or prepositional phrase). For instance:

She **was** a school teacher then. (noun, predicative)

Carrie **felt** a little less bold. (adjective, predicative)

She **felt** well. (adverb, predicative)

The monotransitive, ditransitive and complex transitive patterns are the transitive patterns, as they all require some type of object. The most common structure for the objects is a noun phrase. However, in some cases other structures, such as a complement clause, can function as objects. For example;

- Monotransitive pattern with a complement clause for the direct object:

  He ***said*** *he was going to make a copy*.

- Ditransitive pattern with a noun or pronoun for the indirect object and a complement clause for the direct object:

  The staff in the information office ***told*** *me that the train had been delayed until 18.15.*

Verbs in all patterns can occur with optional adverbials, which are called **adverbial supplements**. For instance:

- Intransitive pattern with an adverbial supplement:

  *He **went** to the corner shop*. (adverbial supplement of place)

- Transitive pattern with and adverbial supplement:

  *He **left** the office at six o'clock*. (*office* – direct object, *at six o'clock* – adv. of time)

Study Questions:

1. What does the centrality of the verb imply?
2. How are verbs differentiated functionally?
3. Give functional characteristics of lexical or full verbs.
4. Name and give functional characteristics of the primary verbs.
5. Enumerate and characterize functionally modal verbs.
6. Enumerate and characterize semantic classes of full verbs (7 classes).
7. How are verbs classified morphologically?
8. What is the main principle of the morphological differentiation of verbs into regular and irregular classes?
9. How do finite forms of the verb differ functionally from the non-finite verb forms? Comment on the notion of finitness.
10. Discuss tense, person and number, aspect, voice and mood distinction between finite and non-finite forms of English verb.
11. Name the structural classes of verbs. Give examples.
12. Describe the main types of derived verbs in modern English.
13. Describe the main types of phrasal verbs in modern English.
14. What does the valency of verbs imply?
15. What are the major valency patterns in English grammar? Describe each of them.

Lecture 8

The system of grammatical categories of the verb: person and number, tense, aspect, voice, mood

1. Grammatical categories of person and number

The categories of person and number are closely connected with each other. There is a concord between the subject of a sentence and its finite verb predicate. That is, the subject dominates the predicate determining the person and number of the predication, while the predicate dominates the subject, ascribing to it some action, state or quality *(e.g.: Ann plays the piano every day. We play the piano every day.).* This concord is particularly clear with the present tense of the verb "be" (*I am; you are; he/she/it is; we/you/they are*), while with the rest of the full verbs this overt (თვალსაჩინო, ენობრივად გამოხატული) concord is restricted to a contrast between the third person singular present and other persons or plural number. Therefore, grammarians consider grammatical categories of person and number as syntactically conditioned categories.

2. Grammatical category of tense

When we speak about the expression of time by the verb, it is necessary to distinguish between 1) the general notion of time and its lexical denotation, and 2) the grammatical time proper, which is called tense.

TIME, like space, is considered to be a universal form of existing things and phenomena that are continually changing. We can think of time as a line on which is located, as a continuously moving point, the present moment, the linguistic content of which is the moment of speech. Anything ahead of the present moment is in the future, and anything behind it is in the past.

THE PRESENT MOMENT

PAST | FUTURE

[now]

TENSE (from Lat. *tempus*) is a grammatical time, which is one of the typical meanings of the finite verb. The expression or non-expression of grammatical time, together with the expression or non-expression of grammatical mood, constitutes the basis of the verbal category of finitude, i.e. the basis for the division of all the forms of the verb into finite and non-finite.

Tense is a grammatical category that is realized with the help of verb inflexion. Since English has no inflected form of the verb for expressing future time, the threefold semantic opposition of time is reduced to two tenses: the present tense and the past tense[3] (Greenbaum & Quirk 1991: 47-48; Biber, Conrad & Leech 2003: 150-156).

The main principle of the morphological classification of verbs is the way they form two of their forms: simple past and past participle (i.e. participle II). Accordingly verbs are divided into two large groups: regular and irregular verbs. Regular verbs form their past simple and past participle by adding the inflectional suffix *-ed* while irregular verbs form these forms individually.

Stative and dynamic senses of verbs. There is a broad distinction between the stative and dynamic senses in which verbs are used to refer to situations. Verbs like *be*, *have*, and *know* have stative senses when they refer to a single unbroken state of affairs:

Verbs like *drive*, *speak*, and *attack* have dynamic senses when they are used with the present perfect to refer to a sequence of separate events:

I **have driven** *sports cars for years.*

A verb may shift in sense from one category to another. For example, *have* is usually stative: *She* ***has*** *two sisters*. But it has a dynamic sense when it is used as a phrasal verb: *We* ***have dinner*** *at Maxim's quite frequently*.

Dynamic verb senses can regularly occur with the imperative and progressive, whereas stative verbs cannot:

Learn *how to swim.*	** **Know** how to swim.*
I ***am learning*** *to swim.*	** I* ***am knowing*** *how to swim.*

In general, only dynamic senses follow do in a pseudo-cleft sentences:

What she did was ***to learn*** *Spanish*.

[3] Future meaning is conveyed by various means, including the present tense. For instance: *Tomorrow is Tuesday*.

* *What she did was* ***to know*** *Spanish.*

Simple present tense for present time

There are three kinds of typical uses of the present simple tense in modern English:

1. **The state present** is used with stative verbs to refer to a single unbroken state of affairs that has existed in the past, exists now and is likely to continue to exist in the future. It includes **the 'timeless present'**, which refers to **'eternal truths'** such as *Two and two make four* or to less extreme instances of timeliness, such as *The British Isles have a temperate climate*. It also includes more restricted time:

Margaret ***is*** *tall.* *We* ***live*** *near Toronto.* *This soup* ***tastes*** *delicious.*

2. **The habitual present** is used with dynamic verbs to refer to events that repeatedly occur without limitation on their extension into the past or future. Like the state present, it includes the 'timeless present', such as *The earth* ***moves*** *round the sun* or *The sun* ***rises*** *in the East and sets in the West*, and more restricted time spans:

We ***go*** *to Brussels every year.* *She* ***makes*** *her own dresses.* *Bill* ***drinks*** *heavily.*

If the state present always refers to something that happens at the time of speaking, this is not often so for the habitual present: We can say *Bill drinks heavily* when he is not actually drinking.

It is a sign of the habitual present that one can easily add a frequency adverbial (such as: often, usually, always, every year, etc.) to specify the frequency of the event.

3. **The instantaneous** [instan'teinias] **present** is used with dynamic verbs to refer to a single event with little or no duration that occurs at the time of speaking or writing. It is used only in such restricted situations as:

a) commentaries like *Black* ***passes*** *the ball to Fernandez;*
b) self-commentaries like *I* ***enclose*** *a form of application*;
c) with performative verbs that refer to the speech acts performed by uttering the sentences: *I* ***apologize*** *for my behaviour; We* ***thank*** *you for your help.*

Simple present tense for past and future time

There are three additional kinds of uses of the simple present:

1. The historic present refers to past time, and is characteristic of popular and fictional narrative style. It conveys the dramatic immediacy of an event happening at the time of narration(1) or for the imaginary one (2):

(1) *Just as we arrived, up **comes** Ben and **slaps** me on the back as if we're life-long friends.*

(2) *The crowd **swarms** around the gate way, and **seethes** with delighted anticipation; excitement **grows**, as suddenly their hero **makes his entrance**…*

2. The simple present is optionally used to refer to the past with verbs of communication to suggest that the information is still valid: *Jack **tells** me that the position is still vacant. I **hear** that you need an assistant. The Bible **prohibits** the committing of adultery.*

3. The simple present tense typically occurs in main clauses with time-position adverbials to suggest that a future event is certain to take place **according to the schedule**:

*The plane **leaves** for Ankara at eight o'clock tonight.*

4. The present simple tense refers to future time in conditional and temporal adverbial clauses:

*He'll do it if you **pay** him.*

*I'll let you know as soon as I **hear** from her.*

Simple past tense for past time

There are three kinds of the simple past to express the past time;

1. **The event** or **historic past** is used with dynamic verbs to refer to a single definite event in the past. The event may take place over an extended period (E.g., *The Normans **invaded** England in 1066*) or at the appointed time (*The plane **left** at 9 a.m.*).

2. **The habitual past** is used with dynamic verbs to refer to past events that repeatedly occur: *We **spent** our holidays in Spain when we were children.*

3. **The state past** is used with stative verbs to refer to a single unbroken state of affairs in the past: *I once **liked** reading novels*.

The habitual and state meanings of the past can be paraphrased by *used to*: *We **used to** spend our holidays in Spain when we were children.*

Special uses of simple past tense

There are three special uses of the simple past:

1. In **reported (indirect) speech** or indirect thought, the simple past in the reporting verb may cause the verb in the subordinate clause to be backshifted into the simple past:

*She said that she **knew** you.*

*I thought you **were** in Paris.*

2. The attitudinal past is used to refer more tentatively and therefore more politely to a present state of mind:

*Did you **want** to see me now?* (ეხლაც გნებავთ ჩემი ნახვა?)

3. The hypothetical past is used in conditional and complementive (i.e. object) subordinate clauses to convey what is contrary to the belief or expectation of the speaker:

*If you **knew** him, you wouldn't say that*. (condition)

*I wish I **had** a memory like yours*. (object clause)

The implication of the conditional clause above (*If I knew him*) is that you do not know him, and of the object subordinate clause (*I had a memory like yours*) that I do not have such a memory.

Some means of expressing future time

In the absence of an inflectional future tense (that is, verbs cannot be inflected for future tense in the same way that they can be inflected for present and past tense), there are several ways to express future time in English.

1. The most common way to express future time is by means of modal auxiliaries ***will /shall*** **+ the bare infinitive**:

*He **will be** here in half an hour.*

***Will** you **need** any help?*

Shall is not often used in the statements with a 1st person subject singular or plural to indicate futurity (*No doubt I **shall see** you next week*), while questions with a 1st person subject always require this auxiliary:

***Shall** we **go** to the cinema?*

***Shall** I **help** you with the work?*

2. The semi-modal **to *be going to* + the bare *infinitive*** in the present tense is used to refer to a projected future action which is chiefly associated with personal subjects and agentive verbs:

*When **are** you **going to get married**?*

*Martha **is going to lend** us her camera.*

*I'**m going to complain** if things don't approve.*

When this construction is used in the past tense (*was going to*) it refers to a projected future action seen from a point in the past:

*It was in the summer holidays and Mathew **was going to start school**.*

3. Present progressive is usually used to refer to the projected event that will occur in the nearest future:

*The orchestra **is playing** a Mozart symphony after this.*

*I'**m taking** the children to the zoo next week.*

4. The simple present tense is used to refer to a future event which is certain to take place according to the schedule:

*The plane **leaves** for Ankara at eight o'clock tonight.*

The match starts at 2.30 tomorrow.

5. The simple present tense is used to refer to a future event **in conditional and temporal adverbial clauses**:

*He'll do it if you **pay** him.*

*I'll let you know as soon as I **hear** from her.*

3. Grammatical category of aspect

Aspect is a grammatical category that adds time meanings to those meanings of the verb expressed by tense. The category of aspect answers the question: 'Is the event/state described by the verb completed or is it continuing?'

There are two aspects in English: perfect and progressive (sometimes known as continuous). **The perfect aspect** most often describes events or states taking place during a preceding period of time. It is formed analytically with the help of the auxiliary **have + past participle (participle II)** of the main verb. **The progressive or continuous aspect** describes an event or state in progress. It is also formed analytically with the help of the auxiliary **be + present participle (participle I)** of the main verb. Verbs that do not have aspect marked on them are said to have simple aspect. Both perfect and progressive aspects can be combined with either present or past tense. There are the following forms of aspect in the English language:

present perfect	has examined
past perfect	had examined
present progressive	is examining
past progressive	was examining
present perfect progressive	has been examining
past perfect progressive	had been examining

Verb phrases can be also marked for both aspects at the same time, which accordingly is known as **perfect progressive aspect**. **The perfect progressive is a hybrid form when the perfect and progressive aspects are combined in the same verb phrase to refer to a temporary situation leading up to the present** (e.g. *I have been running*. - the present perfect continuous form) **or to some point in the past** (e.g. *The fire **had been raging** for over a week when the fire-engines arrive.* - the past perfect continuous form).

The present perfect often refers to past actions or states that began in the past and extend to the present, and will perhaps continue in the future:

*They **have been unhappy** for a long time.*

*We **have lived** in Amsterdam for five years.*

*She **has owned** the house since her father died.*

Unlike the simple past, the present perfect does not normally co-occur with time adverbials that indicate a specific point or period of time in the past: *I **saw** her a week ago* (past simple).

Some adverbials and prepositional phrases, such as *just, recently, lately, for ages, for a long time, till/up to now* and *so far*, as well as phrases and clauses introduced by *since* co-occur with the present perfect and not/or very seldom with the simple past. For instance:

*The train **has** just **arrived** on Platform 4.*

*I **haven't seen** him since Monday /since we left school.*

The use of the present perfect for recent events implies that the result of the event still applies: *He's **broken** his arm* ('His arm is now broken.'); *I've **emptied** the basket* ('The basket is now empty').

NOTE: There are cases when the choice of this or that form of the verb depends on the target situation. Compare, for example, the sentences with different referential situations:

She has given an interview only once in her life. (present perfect)

She gave an interview only once in her life. (simple past)

The first sentence implies, that *She has given an interview only once in her life* but she may yet give another interview, whereas the second sentence gets quite a different interpretation because of the simple past of the main verb which indicates that the situation is not valid for the present moment. *She gave an interview only once in her life* implies that she can give no more interviews, since she is dead.

The past perfect refers to a time earlier than another past time: *By 5 o'clock he **had done** most of this work*. Past perfect verbs tend to occur in both in dependent and main clauses. In this case, the event denoted by the verb in the past perfect was completed by the time of the event described in the simple past tense. For instance, *They **had moved** into the house before the baby was born*, where the event described in the main clause by the verb in the past perfect precedes the event given in the past simple in the subordinate clause. But in the sentence - *After the letter **had been sent** he returned home* - the event referred in the subordinate clause

by the verb in the past perfect precedes the event presented in the main clause in the simple past tense.

Contrast the sentences with two different situations: *She had owned the house since her parents died* and *She has owned the house since her parents died*. Whereas the first sentence implies that she doesn't own the house now, the second entails that she still owns is.

The present progressive describes events that are currently in progress (e.g. *What's she **doing**?* ; *I'**m looking** for an employee of yours*), or events that are going to take place in the future and about which the speaker feels quite certain (for instance, *But she's **coming** back tomorrow; I'**m going** with him next week*).

Past progressive verbs describe events that were in progress for a limited period of time: *She **was writing** short stories then*; or *I **was reading** an economics book last night*. This sentence entails that the book was perhaps not finished.

The progressive aspect implies temporariness, whereas the non-progressive implies permanence: She writes short stories = She's a short-story writer; He teaches in a comprehensive school = He's a teacher in a comprehensive school.

Progressive aspect is most common in conversation and fiction. In conversation, most progressive verb phrases are in the present tense, while past progressive verbs are preferred in fiction. There are two notable exceptions to this general trend, however: the past tense forms *was/were saying* and *was/were thinking* are more common for both registers (Biber et al. 2003: 163).

Some verbs are most often used in the progressive aspect. In fact, some verbs like *bleed* and *starve* almost occur as progressive verbs. The common progressive aspect verbs come from many semantic domains, including both dynamic (e.g. *chase*, *shop*) and stative verbs (e.g. *look forward to*). Other verbs, for example 'instantaneous' verbs like arrest, begin, stop, shrug, etc. never occur in progressive aspect.

Two characteristics determine whether a verb is commonly or rarely used in the progressive form:

- whether the subject is an **agent**[4] or an **experiencer**[5];

[4] **Agent** indicates the doer of an action.

- the duration of the action described by the verb.

The agent actively controls the action or state expressed by the verb. In contrast, many of verbs that rarely occur in the progressive have a human experiencer as the subject of the clause, who does not control the action or state, but experiences its effect. This first characteristic helps to explain why some verbs that describe states and perceptions occur as progressives while others do not. For example, the perception verbs like *look*, *watch*, *stare*, and *listen* can be freely used in progressive aspect and their subject is usually a human agent:

*He's **staring** at me now.*

*I felt he **wasn't listening**.*

In contrast, verbs like *see*, *hear*, *appreciate*, *desire*, *want*, *know*, *like* rarely occur in the progressive, because they describe perceptions which are experienced, and a state of mind which are not controlled by the subject. The subject may refer to a human, but the human this time is an experiencer rather than an agent:

*I **saw** him the other day.*

*Well, I really **appreciate** your having done so much already.*

*He **did not know** what to do.*

The second major characteristic that influences whether the progressive is used with a verb concerns the question 'How long does the state or action described by the verb last?' Those, that extend over a substantial period of time are usually described by the verbs in the progressive aspect, while actions that happen very quickly, or temporary states of short duration are rarely represented in the progressive. For example, stative verbs (like *stay*, *wait*, *sit*, *stand*, *live*) can refer to situations that extend over time, so they frequently occur in the progressive:

*Sandy's **staying** with her for a few days.*

*We **were waiting** for the train.*

*I **was standing** there the other night.*

*When I first came to this city as a young man, I **was living** in Furukawa.*

---

[5] **Experiencer** denotes a person who undergoes the sensory or cognitive experience expressed by a verb: *He smelled her perfume.*

4. The category of voice

Most transitive verbs can occur in two voices: active and passive. The active form of the verb shows that the action described by the verb is performed by the subject of the sentence, while the passive form indicates that the action is performed upon the subject:

The butler ***murdered*** *the detective*. (active voice)

The detective ***was murdered*** *by the butler*. (passive voice)

The active is the most common, unmarked voice while the passive is a marked member of the voice opposition as it is formed with <u>**the auxiliary *be* + the past participle of the main verb**</u>. The passive verb forms are less common and used for special discourse functions. Compared to active voice, passive voice reduces the importance of the agent (i.e. the doer of the action) and allows the receiver of the action to become the subject of the sentence.

However, passive verb phrases can also be formed with the auxiliary *get*, called the *get*-passive (e.g. *get caught, get dressed, get arrested, get run over,* etc.). ***Get*-passives are usually used in conversation or in informal English**. For example: *It's about these people who* ***got left*** *behind in Vietnam.*

Changing a sentence from active to passive voice has the following results:

- the subject, if retained, becomes the passive object (1);
- the direct object becomes the passive subject (1);
- the preposition *by* is inserted before the agent (1);
- if the active verb is ditransitive, the indirect object may also become the passive subject (2).

(1) <u>*Hurricane*</u> ***demolished*** *more than half a million homes*. (monotransitive active)

Half a million homes ***were demolished*** <u>*by hurricane*</u>. (passive)

(2) *The company* ***gave*** <u>*Mariko*</u> *permission to go to Osaka*. (ditransitive active)

<u>*Mariko*</u> ***was given*** *permission by the company to go to Osaka*. (passive)

There are short and long passives. In short passives (also called agentless passives) the agent is not specified while long passives contain a *by*-phrase which specifies the agent of the action. E.g.:

The children were sent to the camp. (Short passive)

The children were sent to the camp by their uncle. (Long passive)

Short passives are about six times as frequent as long passives (Biber et al. 2003: 167). Sidney Greenbaum and Randolph Quirk, the famous British grammarians indicate that speakers and writers use agentless passives for the following reasons (Greenbaum & Quirk 1991: 45-46):

a) When they do not know the identity of the agent of the action:

Many lifeboats ***were launched*** *from the Titanic only partly filled.*

b) When they want to avoid identifying the agent in order not to assign or accept responsibility:

My letter ***has not*** *yet* ***been answered****.*

A mistake ***has been made*** *in calculating your change.*

c) When they feel that there is no reason to mention the agent because the identification is unimportant or obvious from the context:

He was arrested and sent to prison for stealing a car.

Nowadays cancer ***can be cured*** *if it is detected early enough.*

d) In scientific and technical writing, authors often use the short passive to avoid the constant repetition of the subject *I* or *we* and to put the emphasis on processes and experimental procedures. This use of the passive helps to give the writing the objective tone that the writers wish to convey:

Long passives are used for the following purposes:

a) to put emphasis on the agent of the action;

b) to avoid what would otherwise be a long active subject;

c) to retain the same subject in later parts of the sentence.

The following sentence exemplifies a combination of all three reasons for using the long passive:

As a cat moves, it ***is kept informed*** *of its movements not only by its eyes, but also by messages from its pads and elsewhere in its skin, its organs of balance, and its sense organs of joints and muscles.*

The frequency of both forms of the passive varies greatly across registers. Passive voice verbs are most common in the expository registers, where agents are often unknown or unimportant. In academic prose, passives account for about 25 per cent of all finite verbs. Passives are also common in news (about 15 per cent of all finite verbs), where they often report negative events that happened to someone. In contrast, passive voice verbs are rare in conversation.

Most passive voice verbs are easy to identify. However, sometimes words look like passive verbs, but are actually predicative adjectives describing a state or quality. For example:

*We **are** delighted with the result.*

*I ought to **be** excited.*

These participial adjectives function as predicatives. They are usually gradable and can be modified by the adverb of degree *very.*

Some participial forms (like *broken* and *frozen*) can occur as both passives and predicative adjectives. In some contexts they are clearly functioning as passive verbs, describing an action with an agent. E.g. *The silence **was broken** by the village crier*. However, in other sentences the same form may express a state and behave like a qualifying adjective: *The wire **is** always **broken***.

In English verb phrases, the passive can combine with perfect and/or progressive aspect. In actual use, though, the perfect passive is only moderately common while the progressive passive is rare. The perfect passive with present tense is preferred in academic prose and news, while the past perfect passive is moderately common in fiction (Biber et al. 2003: 173).

5. The category of mood

The category of mood is a morphological expression of modality, that is, it marks the modality of reality or unreality of an action or state as viewed by the speaker. Grammarians differentiate three moods in modern English: the indicative mood, the imperative mood and the subjunctive mood.

The indicative mood presents an action as a real fact that happened in the past, is happening now or will happen in future. That's why it is called a real mood or a fact mood. The indicative mood is rich in forms reflecting all grammatical categories of finite verbs (the categories of person and number, tense, aspect and voice). E.g.: *When I got to the station the train had already left.*

The imperative mood actually does not give any information as to the reality of an action described by the verb. That's why some linguists do not consider the imperative form to be a mood form, though it is traditionally included in the mood system on the ground that it represents a hypothetic action. **An imperative typically urges the addressee to do or not to do something. It is used to give orders or requests, and expects some action from the addressee. Given this limited function, most imperative clauses are characterized by the lack of a subject in the surface structure (which usually implies the addressee, i.e. the second person), by the use of the infinitive of the verb and the absence of modals as well as tense and aspect markers**:

Get off *the table.*

Don't forget *to send a wire to Nick.*

A special type of imperative, referring to the first or third person both singular and plural, is formed according to the formula: let smb do or not do smth:

Let's take *a taxi.*

Well, ***let him try*** *this,* ***let's see*** *what happens.*

Although most imperative sentences are very simple, we need to take account of some variations that occur. Optionally, the addressee of an imperative sentence can be identified either by a subject **pronoun** ***you*** or a **vocative** address term:

You *go home and go to sleep.* (*you* as subject)

Melissa, *take those things away.* (*Melissa* as vocative)

When the subject is expressed by the pronoun *you*, it precedes the main verb and is not separated from it by a punctuation or intonation break. The vocative (e.g. *Melissa*) is more mobile and it can be positioned at the beginning, middle or end of imperative sentence.

Imperative clauses can also be elaborated by the addition of question tags, discourse markers like *please*, and adverbs like *just*. For instance:

Pick your plates up from down there, ***will you****?*

Pass me his drink ***please****.*

Just *dump it at the door there.*

The question tag *will you* does little to soften the command. *Please* has a softening effect, but it is in some ways a minimal politeness strategy. *Just* makes the imperative seem less demanding and easier to comply with. It is clear from these and other examples that an imperative can express a range of directive speech acts, varying from commands to offers and invitations, depending on the situation and the kind of demand made on the addressee.

Imperatives are frequently used in conversation because speakers often try to direct the activity of listeners. Similarly, fiction texts use imperatives in dialog passages. It is more surprising that the written informative registers need imperatives. In fact, imperatives are more frequent than questions in news, academic writings, advertisements and instructions, presumably because writers can use them to manipulate the reaction and behavior of the reader.

The subjunctive mood presents an action as unreal or hypothetical. There are two forms of the subjunctive. They are traditionally called the present and past subjunctive, although the distinction relates more to mood than to tense.

The form of present subjunctive coincides with the infinitive of the verb. Accordingly, the subjunctive form ***be*** is distinct from the indicative forms *am*, *is*, and *are* (e.g. ***Be*** *it as you wish.*). For other verbs, present subjunctive is distinctive only in the 3rd person singular as it does not take the inflection -s. Present subjunctive is used in certain set expressions: *God* ***bless*** *you.* ***Long live*** *the King. God* ***save*** *the Queen,* and so on. **Negation of the present subjunctive does not require an operator (i.e. the auxiliary *do*).** For instance: *I insist that the Council not reconsider its decision.*

The past subjunctive is identical in form with the simple past of the verb. The exception is the verb ***be*** which occurs in the past subjunctive as *were* with all the persons both in singular and plural. Because of this, the past subjunctive is sometimes referred to as ***were*****-subjunctive**. The past subjunctive is hypothetical in meaning. It is used mostly in conditional clauses and in subordinate clauses after *wish* and *suppose*:

If I ***were*** *a rich man, I would travel in Africa.*

I wish the journey ***were over****.*

Just suppose everyone ***were*** *to act like you.*

There are two analytical forms of the subjunctive mood: a) the form which is homonymous with the past perfect and which is used in conditional clauses of the third type (also called "unreal for ever clauses"), expressing the situation unfulfilled in the past and b) the form with the mood auxiliaries should/would + indefinite or perfect infinitive of the main verb. For instance:

If I ***had had*** *some money with me I* ***would have bought*** *that beautiful dress.*

If I were you I ***would go*** *to the concert with you.*

The owner of the firm demanded that the manager ***should resign****.*

Study questions:

1. Comment on the grammatical categories of person and number of the verb. What does their concord imply?
2. What does the general notion of time imply?
3. How is the notion of tense defined? Why is the grammatical category of tense represented in modern English by a binary paradigm?
4. *Discuss the use of simple present tense for present time.*
5. *Discuss the use of simple present tense for past and future time.*
6. *Discuss the use of simple past tense.*
7. Discuss the main ways of expressing future time in English (5 cases).
8. What does the category of aspect imply? Name the main types of aspects in English and characterize each of them.
9. Comment on the perfect progressive aspect of the English verb.
10. What is the essence of the grammatical category of voice? Comment on the semantic distinction of voice forms.

11. What's the difference between short and long passives? Speak about functional peculiarities of short passives in modern English.
12. Define the essence of the grammatical category of mood and name its main types in modern English.
13. Define the essence of the indicative mood.
14. Characterize the imperative mood.
15. What is the essence of the subjunctive mood?
16. Comment on the forms and functional peculiarities of present subjunctive.
17. Comment on the form and functional-semantic peculiarities of past subjunctive.
18. Discuss the analytical forms of the subjunctive mood.

Lecture 9

What is syntax? Sentence, as the main unit of syntax. Word-groups. Syntactic bonds between words.

In the first lecture of our course we mentioned, that when you know a language, you can speak and be understood by others who know the same language; that knowledge of a language enables you to combine words to form phrases, and phrases to form sentences. But not every string of words constitutes a well-formed sentence in a language. Therefore, in addition to knowing the words of the language, linguistic knowledge includes rules for combining words to form sentences and make your own judgments. These rules must be limited (finite) in length and number so that they can be stored in our brains. Yet, they must permit us to form and understand an infinite set of new sentences (Fromkin et al. 2003: 11). Our ability to speak and understand, and to make judgments about the well-formedness of sentences, reveals our knowledge of the grammar of our language.

We have also discussed the notion of "Grammar" and indicated that this term derives from Greek (it means "art of letters" as in Greek *gramma* = *letter*) and it refers to the study of morphology (i.e. the rules of word formation, parts of speech and their grammatical categories) and syntax (i.e. the rules of sentence formation). Hence, **syntax is a branch of grammar that studies sentence construction, its communicative-functional, structural and pragmatic classifications as well as its informative organization via "functional sentence perspective" theory. Therefore a sentence is the main object of syntax as part of the grammatical theory.**

What is a sentence? When we speak or write, we convey our thoughts through sentences. A sentence is the smallest lingual unit which is capable of performing a communication, containing some kind of information. With the help of a sentence we can make a statement ("London is the capital of the UK."), command or request ("Wash your hands before eating.") or ask a question ("Have you ever been to Paris?").

In written language a sentence is a string of words standing between an initial capital letter and the mark of punctuation at the end while in spoken language a sentence is marked by s special intonation (Fromkin et al. 2003; Talerman 1998). The role of intonation as a delimiting factor is especially important for sentences which have more than one predicative centre, in particular more than one finite verb. For instance:

1. The class was over, the noisy children filled the corridors.
2. The class was over. The noisy children filled the corridors.

Special intonation contours, including pauses, represent the given speech sequence in the first case as one compound sentence, in the second case as two different sentences (though, certainly, connected both logically and syntactically).

Linguists point out that the sentence, as different from the word, is not a unit of language proper; it is a chunk of text built up as a result of speech-making process, out of different units of language, first of all words, which are immediate means for making up contextually bound sentences, i.e. complete units of speech (Blokh 1983: 238).

The sentence as a lingual sign is based on predication in the centre of which stands a finite verb. Due to this feature, the sentence can perform two essential functions: a) designating

function, which implies referring to a target extralinguistic situation or event, and b) communicative function which implies transmitting some kind of information.

Syntactic structure of sentence. The sentence as a lingual sign designates a situation or event that includes a certain process as its dynamic centre, the agent of the process, the objects of the process and also various conditions and circumstances of the realization of the process. This content of the target event forms the basis of the traditional syntactic division of the sentence into its functional parts. Therefore a sentence is not just a jumble of words and word-groups: it is a structure in which words are arranged to reflect a target situation or event.

The primary parts of the sentence. A sentence is made up of the subject and predicate which are its main parts, and words which complete or modify the subject and the predicate or the whole sentence, i.e. secondary parts of the sentence. The subject and the predicate are immediate constituents of the sentence and there is a concord between them. Most of English sentences contain both a subject and a predicate forming **two-member sentences**.

The predicate is always explicated by a finite form of the verb or verb phrase. It is normally present in all clauses, including imperative sentences, where the subject is typically absent. The verb with its semantics determines what other elements, apart from the subject, may or must occur in the clause.

The subject is typically a noun phrase or a pronoun in the nominative case which normally occurs before the verb in declarative sentences ("My brother bought a new car on Sunday.") and after the auxiliary verb in "*yes-no* interrogative sentences" ("Do you speak English?"). The subject determines the number and person of the verb, which is particularly clear with the verb *be* (*I am; you are; he/she/it is; we/you/they are*) and third person singular, present tense of other verbs ("My father works at this factory.").

There are sentences in which no participant (agentive or experiencer) is required. In such cases, the subject position may be assumed by the formal or **dummy "it"**, which is devoid of semantic content (i.e. lexical meaning) and only replaces subject position in a sentence structure. The formal *it* mainly occurs in sentences signifying time, atmospheric conditions, and distance:

It's morning. It's ten o'clock precisely. (time)

It's getting dark. It's raining. (atmospheric conditions)

It's not very far to New York. *It's just one more stop to Toronto*. (distance)

The secondary parts of the sentence (object, attribute, adverbial modifiers) modify either the main and secondary parts of the sentence or the whole sentence. The secondary parts of the sentence differ from the principal ones inasmuch as they are not capable of forming a sentence by themselves. Any of the secondary parts might be removed from the sentence without destroying it (*He often studies at the library. He often studies*.), while the removal of the subject or the predicate will destroy the sentence (*studies at the library* is not a sentence but a word-group).

The syntactical characteristics of the secondary parts of the sentence are not as definite as those of the principal ones. Their classification is based on grammatical and semantic criteria.

The object is typically a noun phrase or a pronoun in the objective case denoting a thing or a person which is grammatically connected with the verb modifying it. The object usually follows the verb and if both objects are present, the indirect object normally comes before the direct object ("Justin poured David some whisky."). The object may generally become the subject of the corresponding passive clause ("David was poured some whisky by Justin.").

The attribute is a secondary part of the sentence which modifies an entity, expressed by a head noun: *a beautiful girl; a deep river*, etc.

The adverbials modify the verbal predicate denoting either external relations (of time, place, reason, purpose, etc.) or inner qualities of the actions and processes (manner, degree). Adverbials of external relations may modify the whole sentence, while objects are grammatically connected only with the verb. Objects make the grammatical structure of the sentence complete whereas adverbial modifiers are usually used to make the meaning of the sentence complete. The position of the object is fixed in English, it follows the verb, while adverbial modifiers (especially adverbials of external relations) are relatively free as to their position in the sentence. For example:

I met a friend of mine on the way to the college.

On the way to the college I met a friend of mine.

Thus, a sentence is a certain structure built up of elements some of which are obligatory for the sentence while others are optional since they may be removed away without destroying the sentence as a grammatical structure. By removing optional elements we arrive at the basic (elementary) sentence. Cf.:

From this moment Soames began almost unconsciously to read the book.

Soames began to read the book.

No matter how long a sentence is, one can always arrive at its base. Basic sentences constitute a rather small set of sentence types in English.

Word-groups. Syntactic bonds between words.

A sentence is built up of words and word-groups. **A word-group is a unit formed by a combination of two or more notional words, which does not constitute a sentence. A word-group differs from a sentence inasmuch as it does not perform a communication. A word-group as such has no intonation, intonation being one of the most important properties of a sentence.** In the sentence – *A week of heavy reading had passed since that evening*. – there are the following word-groups:

1. *A week of heavy reading* = a noun group;
2. *had passed since that evening* = a verb group.

Grammar is concerned with free syntactical word-groups formed each time a new, and is not concerned with phraseological phrases belonging to the vocabulary of a language. Copmpare:

an interesting book; to run quickly (free word-groups)

first aid; to take the floor (set phrases)

There are three main types of syntactic connections (i.e. bonds) between words: subordination, coordination and predication. Accordingly, word-groups in modern English are classified into the following types: subordinate, coordinate and predicative word-groups.

1. **Subordinate word-groups** consist of words which are syntactically unequal as one of the constituent elements, called the "head", is modified by a dependent element,

called an "adjunct". Due to this feature, subordinate word-groups can be called "domination**a**l."

Subordinate connection is achieved by different classes of words, prepositions (i.e. prepositional government) and word-order. Cf.:

a pretty girl (*girl* = a head-word, *pretty* = an adjunct, i.e. modifier);

a book of stories (*book* = a head-word, *of stories* = prepositional adjunct);

The head and the adjunct of a subordinate word-group are its immediate constituents. The head is that part of a subordinate word-group which can replace the whole word-group in a sentence. The adjunct is the part of a subordinate word-group which cannot be substituted for the head.

According to the head, subordinate word-groups can be classified into:

- noun-groups: *a sleepless night* ;
- verb-groups: *to work hard* ;
- adjective-groups: *extremely clever* ;
- adverb-groups: *quite near*, *very quickly* ;
- pronoun-groups: *some of the students*.

Noun-groups and verb-groups are the most wide-spread types of word-groups in modern English. **According to the structure, subordinate word-groups are classified into:**

- simple (unextended) word-groups, consisting of two notional words: *an interesting book*, *very tired*, etc.
- complex (extended) word-groups, comprising more than two notional words: *a very interesting book*; *to work pretty hard*, etc.

2. **coordinate word-groups** comprise elements which have the same syntactic function, being related to one another on an equal rank. Depending on this feature, this kind of word-groups can be called "equipotent." For instance: *Nick and John*; *day and night*; *came and went*; *tired but happy*, etc.

3. **predicative word-groups** are formed by a combination of a noun phrase or a pronoun in the objective case and a non-finite verbal form, reflecting the relationship between the logical subject and the predicate. Such are infinitival, gerundial or participial constructions. For instance:

   *I saw **him crossing** the street.* (*him crossing the street* = predicative word-group in the function of complex object);

   *They got into the car and drove away, **the dog running after them barking**.*

   (*the dog running after them barking* = predicative word-group, so called Nominative Absolute Participial Construction in the function of adverbial modifier of attending circumstances).

Communicative Structure of the Sentence (Functional Sentence Perspective)

The theory that studies the communicative structure of the sentence is called ***Functional Sentence Perspective,*** originally known as ***Actual Division of the Sentence.*** It was worked out by the scholars of the Prague Linguistic School. **The purpose of Functional Sentence Perspecive** is to reveal the correlative significance of the sentence parts from the point of view of their informative role in an utterance, i.e. the immediate semantic contribution they make to the total information conveyed by the sentence in the context of connected speech. In other words, Functional Sentence Perspective which implies the actual division of the sentence in fact exposes its informative, or communicative structure.

The essence of the Functional Sentence Perspective theory lies in the following fact: when one speaks or writes one conveys information which is organized into communicative structure of sentences the main components of which are the theme and the rheme. **The theme** represents the starting point of the utterance, denoting an entity or a phenomenon about which something is reported, while **the rheme** represents the basic informative part of the communication, i.e. what is said in connection with the theme. Between the theme and the rheme are

positioned intermediary, transitional parts of the information, sometimes called **the "transition."**

On the other hand, the theme-rheme division of the sentence is connected with its **informative dynamism.** It is the case when the speaker assumes that some of the information, he or she is communicating, is ***new*** as it is the information they are introducing for the first time. This implies that part of the information in the sentence is not new as it is already shared by the communicants from the context at the time the sentence is uttered. This shared or ***"given"*** piece of information is represented by the theme while the new information is introduced by the rheme. Therefore, the theme can be defined as the starting point of the utterance about which something is reported and which is known in the given situation, or at least can be gathered from the previous context, while the rheme is regarded as something new the speaker says about the theme.

The relationship between the communicative (i.e. actual) and the syntactic divisions of the sentence. In English, due to the fixed word-order, the actual division of the sentence into the theme and the rheme mostly coincides with its syntactic division: the theme coincides with the subject of the sentence, while the rheme coincides either with the whole predicate group or its parts, such as the predicative, the object, the adverbial. This kind of actual division when the communicative structure of the sentence coincides with its grammatical (i.e. syntactic) structure, is referred to as **"direct actual division".**

Consider, for example, the following sentences of various emotional character, which belong to this type of communicative structure:

Max bounded forward. Again Charlie is being too clever!

Her advice can't be of any help to us.

In the first of the above sentences the theme coincides with the subject - *Max*, while the rheme coincides with the whole predicate group – *bounded forward*. In the second sentence the adverbial introducer *again* can be characterized as a transitional, or informationally intermediary element between the theme (*Charlie*) and the rheme, the latter being represented by the rest of the predicative group expressed by the intensified predicative *too clever*. In the

third sentence the prepositional object *to us* , denoting the narrator, is more or less transitional element, whereas the informative peak once more coincides with the predicative – *of any help*.

But the communicative (i.e. informational) structure of the sentence doesn't always coincide with its syntactic structure. The actual division, in which the rheme is rendered by the subject and the theme - by the predicate or its part, can be reviewed as **"reverse actual division".** For example:

Through the open window came ***the purr of an approaching motor car****.*

The actual division of the sentence is closely connected with a concrete context of speech which makes it possible to divide the informative parts of the communication into those "already known" or "not yet known" to the listener or reader. Consider, for example, the circumstances under which the sentences like the following might be uttered:

1. *The box is empty*.
2. *The girl had a little basket in her hand*.

The strongest logical stress and highest pitch fall on the words *empty* and *basket*, being the centre of communication. The first sentence might be uttered when, for example, the speaker and the hearer, sharing the common physical environment, have both been confronted by a box. Therefore, *the box* represents the theme of the information, while *is empty* represents its rheme. In the second sentence, *the girl* is treated as the theme of the message, while *a basket* is considered to be the rheme carrying a new piece of information for whose sake the sentence has been uttered. Such a distribution of the information according to its oldness and newness is possible due to the linguistic context that might have been created by t he previous sentence: *They saw a girl walking along the path*.

Most sentences in English admit the theme-rheme division. However there is a number of **sentences which convey only new information**. These are mainly impersonal sentences with dummy "it*"* (*It is raining. It is morning. There was a lot of war.*) and passive constructions without the "by-object" in them, the subject used with a zero article (For example: *Shop and office windows were smashed. Cars were burnt.*).

Among the linguistic means that mark the distinction between the theme and the rheme researchers name such structural elements of the language as word-order patters, intonation

contours, constructions with introducers, syntactic patterns of contrastive complexes, constructions with articles and other determiners and constructions with intensifying particles.

Linguistic means of expressing the centre of communication (i.e. the rheme). To specify the rheme of communication, the following devices are used in English:

1. The indefinite article and indefinite pronouns:

   "*A man* walked into the room."

   "*Any explanation* will suit me."

2. The constructions "There is/there are":

   "There was *a sound of footsteps.*"

   "There are *some books* on the table."

3. Complex sentences with emphatic "it":

   "It was *Laura* who had seen him."

   "It was *at my mother's* that I met them."

4. Passive constructions in which the by-object is the communicative centre:

   "I was awaken *by a knock* at the door."

   "Our house was built *by my grandfather*."

   Unlike these sentences, other passive sentences admit of the theme-rheme division:

   "The little boy was taken to hospital."

5. Intensifying particles identify the rheme, adding emotional colouring to the whole utterance:

   "*Even Mr. Brown* had a part in the general debate."

   "We were *so impressed* to see him in this play."

6. Inversion. In English, due to the fixed word-order, the actual division of the sentence into the theme and the rheme mostly coincides with its syntactic division into the grammatical subject and predicate. Still, in other contextual conditions, mainly in emphatic speech, the reverse order of actual division is used, the rheme preceding the theme. For example:

   "*Magic words* you are speaking, Nancy."

   "*How well* you look!"

7. Intonation. In oral speech intonation with its accent-patterns presents itself as a universal means of expressing the actual division in all types of contexts, accompanying all the other means of marking the centre of a communication. Cf.: "I have bought a 'dress for Mother" (the rheme is *a dress*, being marked by a logical stress), and "' I have bought a dress for Mother" (in which the rheme is represented by the subject "I", marked by the stress).

Study Questions:

1. What is syntax? What does it study?
2. How is a sentence defined in written and spoken languages?
3. What is the essence of sentence as a lingual sign?
4. Describe a syntactic structure of a simple sentence.
5. Characterize the primary parts of the sentence.
6. How is the predicate presented in the sentence?
7. How is the subject presented in the sentence?
8. Give a general characterization of the secondary parts of the sentence.
9. Characterize the object.
10. Characterize the attribute.
11. Characterize the adverbials. Comment on the difference between them and the objects of the sentence.
12. Define the essence of a word-group.
13. Characterize syntactic connections (i.e. bonds) between words and syntactic types of word-groups:
    a. subordinate word-groups;
    b. coordinate word-groups;
    c. predicative word-group.

14. What is the purpose of *Functional Sentence Perspective* (i.e. actual division of a sentence)?
15. What is essence of *Functional Sentence Perspective*? Define the notions of *the theme*, *the rheme* and *the transition*.
16. Explain the informative dynamism of a sentence.
17. Characterize the relationship between the communicative(actual) and the syntactic divisions of the sentence.
18. Comment on the sentences which convey only new information.
19. Discuss the linguistic means of expressing the centre of communication (i.e. the rheme) in English (7 of them).

Lecture 10

Different classifications of sentences

1. Communicative types of sentences

The sentence is a communicative unit, therefore the primary classification of sentences should be based on the communicative principle, that is according to the purpose of communication. Every sentence, whatever its concrete meaning might be, has one of the three goals:

- giving information: *The book is interesting*.
- asking for information: *Is the book interesting?*
- expressing inducement: *Give me the book!*

According to the purpose of communication sentences are classified into three main types: declarative, interrogative and imperative sentences. These communicative sentence types stand in strict opposition to each other, and their inner properties of form and meaning are immediately correlated with corresponding features of the listener's responses.

The declarative sentence expresses a statement, either affirmative or negative, and as such stands in syntagmatic correlation with the listener's responding signals of attention.

The imperative sentence expresses inducement (წაქეზება). That is, it urges the listener, in the form of request or command, to perform or not to perform a certain action. As such, the imperative sentence is situationally connected with the corresponding verbal or action response from the addressee, showing that the inducement is either fulfilled or rejected. Cf.:

"Let's go and sit down up there, Dinny."

"Very well."

"Shut the piano and let's go."

Diana closed the piano without noise and rose.

The interrogative sentence expresses a question, i.e. a request for information wanted by the speaker from the listener. By virtue of this communicative purpose, the interrogative sentence is naturally connected with an answer, forming together with it a question-answer adjacency pair.

"Did you know about it?"

"You'd better ask he about it."

There are four main types of questions in English. They are differentiated from each other on the basis of the type of reply they expect. These types of questions are:

- YES-NO questions that expect affirmation or negation in answer:

  "Have you brought my book?" – "Yes."/ "No."

- Wh-queastions which are formed with the help of one of the following interrogative words such as *who/whom/whose/, what, which, when, where, how, why*, and which expect a reply from an open range of replies.

  "What's your name?" - "Nick"/ "Ann"/ "David."

  "How old are you?" - 18/20/52.

- ALTERNATIVE questions which expect a reply to one of two or more options presented in the question:

  "Would you like to go for a walk or stay at home?"

  "I'd rather stay at home."

- TAG questions in which maximum inducivеness is expressed by a tag question added to a statement in the form of a declarative;

"Joan recognized you, *didn't she*?"

"The boat hasn't left, *has it*?"

Some grammarians (for example, Quirk, Greenbaum, Leech) speak about the fourth communicative type of sentences, that is, **an exclamatory sentence**. Exclamatives are sentences which have an initial phrase introduced by *what* and *how*, usually with subject – verb order. Exclamatory sentences are used for expressing the extent to which the speaker is impressed by something:

"What a fine watch he received for his birthday!" "How nice to see you again!"

2. Structural types of sentences

Depending on the number of the grammatical subject – predicate relationship, sentences in English are divided into **simple** and **composite**. Simple sentences are "monopredicative" by structure as they contain one subject – predicate relationship, while composite sentences are "polypredicative" since they comprise two or more subject – predicate relationships. Simple sentences are subdivided into one-member and two-member sentences whereas composite sentences are subdivided into compound and complex ones.

A two-member sentence pattern is typical in English. There are two structural types of two-member simple sentences: unexpanded and expended. The **unexpanded simple sentence** is formed only by obligatory notional parts such as the subject, the predicate and the direct object, when necessary. For example: *The boy is sleeping. Tom wrote a letter.* **The expanded simple sentence** includes both the obligatory parts and some optional secondary parts (indirect object, attributes or adverbial modifiers). For example, syntactic parsing (სინტაქსური გარჩევა) of the sentence – "The tall trees by the island shore were shaking violently in the wind." – shows that this is an expanded simple sentence built upon the key-string "The tress were shaking" with the help of a number of optional secondary parts modifying and expanding the predication: *tall* =

an attribute to the subject; *by the island shore* = adverbial modifier of place; *violently* = adverbial modifier of manner; *in the wind* = prepositional object.

One-member sentences contain only one principal member of the sentence which is not related to the other principal member as is the case in a two-member sentence where the subject and the predicate are grammatically correlated. There are the following one-member sentences in modern English:

- substantival one-member sentences: *Morning. Autumn. Another day of fog.*
  What a nice house!
- verbal one-member sentences mainly represented by impersonal sentences in which no agent is required, the position of the so-called "dummy subject" being assumed by the formal "it". Impersonal sentences are used to denote:
  a) atmospheric conditions: *It's getting dark. It's raining. It was very cold yesterday.*
  b) time: *It's ten o'clock. It's my birthday next Sunday.*
  c) distance: *It's not very far from here. It's just one stop to the Opera House.*

The composite sentence

A composite sentence is a sentence which contains two or more clauses. **A clause** is a unit which consists of a subject (which may sometimes be 'dummy') and a predicate, and which is itself a part of a larger unit, i.e. a part of a sentence.

Clauses may be **independent (coordinate)** and **dependent (subordinate)**. Independent clauses are of the same rank as none of them is a part of the other while subordinate clauses are always embedded (contained) within the main clause; hence they are also known as embedded clauses.

Structural-semantic types of composite sentences. According to the type of clauses, the composite sentence may be subdivided into two structural-semantic classes of sentences: compound and complex.

A compound sentence consists of two or more independent clauses which have equal syntactic status that of main clauses. There are no syntactic restrictions on their order, although the sentence may not make good sense. For example, "The wind blew and the rain poured." - is compound, because it consists of two independent clauses: "The wind blew" and "the rain poured."

A complex sentence consists of one main clause and one or more subordinate clauses. The terms 'main' and 'subordinate' indicate that the clauses in the complex sentence do not have the same syntactic status. Subordinate clauses are always embedded (contained) either within the main clause or within another subordinate clause.

In the sentences below, the main clause is underlined while the subordinate clause boundaries are marked with a # sign where there is more than one:

a. I didn't know where he had gone.
b. My friend claimed # (that) Lee thought # (that) Ceri liked chips.
c. That Chris liked Lee so much didn't surprise me.
d. The problem is that she doesn't love him at all.
e. I wondered # whether they wanted to go to the place # where they had left him.
f. If you compare Lee with Kim, # you'll find # Kim is taller.

Some features of English main clauses:

1. **Not all main clauses are possible independent clauses. Sometimes the main clause can't occur alone because it's missing a subject or a subject complement, i.e. predicative. In such cases the position of a subject or its complement is filled in by an embedded subordinate clause. Embedded clauses that constitute subjects or subject complements (i.e. nominal predicatives) are called *clausal subjects* or *clausal predicatives*.**

For instance, in – "That Chris liked Lee so much didn't surprise me. " – the entire subordinate clause "That Chris liked Lee so much" is embedded within the main clause as its subject

(this can be easily proved if you replace the embedded clause by the pronoun 'it': "It didn't surprise me."). The same can be said about – "The problem is that she doesn't love him at all." – in which the predicative is missing, its position being filled in by the embedded subordinate clause "that she doesn't love him at all." The evidence, that this embedded clause is a predicative to the main clause, is that it can be replaced by an adjective such as 'difficult': "The problem is difficult."

2. The main clause does not have to precede the subordinate clause(s) as either order is possible. The main clause can also occur between subordinate clauses, as in: "If you compare Lee with Kim, you'll find Kim is taller."

3. Each complex sentence has one main clause, but more than one subordinate clauses.

4. The main clause in English can't have a complementizer (i.e. a subordinating word) while embedded clauses can (in the sentences below complementizers are underlined):

"My friend claimed that Lee thought that Ceri liked chips."

"That Chris liked Lee so much didn't surprise me."

"The problem is that she doesn't love him at all."

"I wondered whether they wanted to go to the place where they had left him."

"If you compare Lee with Kim, you'll find Kim is taller."

5. Only main clauses have subject/auxiliary inversion to form YES/NO QUESTIONS. The examples below illustrate how the subjects of the main clauses undergo inversion with an auxiliary verb:

"Did my friend claim that Lee thought that Ceri liked chips?

"If you compare Lee with Kim, will you find Kim is taller?"

6. Only main clauses have a tag question. Tag questions are usually 'tagged on to' the end of the entire sentence, and have as their subject a pronoun that matches the subject of the main clause. Since they also use subject/auxiliary inversion, tag questions are only found in main clauses. The examples below illustrate main clauses and their tags in bold:

"If you compare Lee with Kim, **you'll find Kim is taller, won't you?**"

"**My friend claimed** that Lee thought that Ceri liked chips, **didn't he**?"

Types of connection of clauses in a composite sentence

Clauses in a composite sentence may be linked in the following ways:

a) **syndetically,** i.e. by means of coordinating and subordinating conjunctions and connective words such as adverbs and pronouns ("It was very cold, and the children stayed at home." "I know where he lives." "I know what he said.").

When more than two clauses are linked by 'and' or 'or', it is usual to insert the coordinator only once – between the last two units ("The wind roared, the lightning flashed, and the clouds raced across the sky."). In polysyndetic coordination, however, the coordinator is repeated between each clause ("The wind roared, and the lightning flashed, and the clouds raced across the sky.").

The conjunctions *and, or* and *that* are not members of the sentences. The connective *words where, when, which* are parts of the subordinate clauses: *where* is an adverbial modifier of place, *when* is an adverbial modifier of time, *what* is an object, etc.

"I know where he lives." "I know when he will arrive."

"I know what he said."

b) **asyndetically,** i.e. without a conjunction or a connective word. In writing, asyndetical coordination is always marked by a comma, a semicolon, or a colon, while asyndetical subordination is not marked. When speaking, clauses are joined within the sentence by means of intonation.

c) with some clauses **the inverted word order** serves as a means of subordination and is equivalent to a conjunction. For instance, "Had she been near him, she would have told him everything." – is a complex sentence in which an adverbial clause of condition is marked by inversion ("Had she been near him… = "If she had been near him…"). Or another sentence: "I wonder who he is." – in which an object subordinate clause - "who he is", is marked by inversion.

Functional-semantic types of subordinate clauses

Subordinate clauses may function as subject, subject complement (i.e. predicative clause), object, relative (i.e. attributes clauses) and adverbial clauses of the complex sentence. On the basis of their potential functions, grammarians (Quirk, Greenbaum, Leech, Tallerman and others) distinguish four major categories of subordinate clauses: nominal, relative (i.e. attributive), adverbial and comparative.

Survey of the nominal subordinate clauses

Like noun phrases, nominal clauses may function as subject, subject complement (predicative), object and its complements (i.e. indirect and prepositional objects). But the occurrence of nominal clauses is more limited than that of noun phrases, because semantically the clauses are normally abstract; i.e. they refer to such abstractions as events, facts, and ideas.

Complex sentences with subject subordinate clauses. There are two types of complex sentences with subject clauses in English:

1. The subject subordinate clause precedes the main clause which is incomplete, the clause functioning as the subject of the complex sentence:

   That Chris liked Lee so much didn't surprise me.

   That we need a larger computer is obvious.

   Whether she likes the present is not clear to me.

2. The subject clause follows the main clause which begins with anticipatory *it* :

   It was evident *that he did not understand anything*.

   It is a miracle *how he managed to escape the danger*.

   In modern English, due to the fixed word order, the subject cannot follow the predicate unless some formal element is used to fill in the place of the subject. Therefore, *it* and the subject clause are correlated to form a compound subject of

the main clause in which the anticipatory *it* constitutes its formal part, the subject clause representing its lexical part.

Complex sentences with predicative clauses. Predicative clause performs the function of the nominal part of the predicate, following the link verb, the so-called 'copula'. The link-verb is mostly expressed by the pure copula *be,* as well as by the specifying links *seem* and *look*. The use of other specifying links is occasional. The predicative clause, like other nominal clauses, can be introduced by the conjunctions: *that, whether, as if, as though*. For example:

"The trouble is *that I don't know him at all.*"

"She looks *as though she has never met him*."

Complex sentences with object clauses. Object clauses perform the function of an object denoting a situation of the process expressed by the verbal predicate of the main clause. Object clauses may be non-prepositional and prepositional:

"I noticed *that he spoke English well enough*."

"I'm sorry for *what I said to you yesterday*."

The preposition connected with a conjunctive pronoun in an object clause may occur at the end of the subordinate clause. Such a proposition is called detached or end-preposition. For example: "I don't understand what they are talking about."

"I wonder what you are looking at."

Types of relative (attributive) clauses

Relative clauses represent a type of subordinate clause which modifies a head noun. They are embedded within the main clause by means of relative pronouns (*who, whom, whose, which*) or relative adverbs (*when, where, how, why*), as well as by the subordinating conjunction *that*. They are classified into four main types: a) restrictive, b) descriptive, i.e. non-restrictive, c) continuative, and d) appositive.

The restrictive relative clause performs a purely identifying function, singling out the referent of the antecedent which is always preceded by the definite article *the*. In other words,

this type of relative clauses restricts the possible set of the class of things just to the subset that the speaker wants to talk about. For example: *I met the* ***students*** *who had not read the book* (the head noun is in bold type, the relative clause is underlined). In this sentence the speaker implies that he didn't just meet the students, he met a specific subset of students – only those ones who hadn't read the book.

The descriptive relative clause exposes some characteristic of the antecedent as such. It should be noted, that the antecedent in descriptive relative clauses is always preceded by the indefinite article *a/an.* For instance, in the complex sentence - "At last we found a place *where we could make a fire*."- the relative clause is descriptive.

The continuative relative clause gives some additional information about the antecedent, thus developing the chain of situations denoted by the sentence as a whole. Since the antecedent in the continuative relative clause is usually represented by a proper name which refers to a concrete individual, it can be left out without destroying the meaning of the sentence. This can be tested easily if we replace relative subordinator by the coordinative conjunction *and* + personal pronoun. Cf.: "I phoned to Mr. Smith, who recognized me at once and invited me to his office." > "I phoned to Mr. Smith, and he recognized me at once and invited me to his office."

The appositive relative clause refers to a substantive antecedent of abstract semantics, defining or clarifying its concrete meaning in the context. Therefore, appositive clauses are nearer to restrictive clauses than the rest of relative clauses. According to the type of the antecedent (i.e. head noun), all the appositive clauses fall into three groups:

a. appositive clauses which modify abstract nouns like ***fact, idea, question, suggestion, news, information,*** etc. Cf.:

   "**The news** *that John had married Helen* made a stir among their friends."

   "The fact that he has lost all his money is a great shock for him."

b. appositive clauses which modify abstract names of adverbial relations, such as ***time, moment, place, condition, purpose*****, etc. which are usually preceded by the definite article *the:***

   "We saw him at **the moment** *(when) he was opening the door*."

"I remember **the time** *(when) we went to school together*."

"They did it with **the purpose** *that no one might escape the punishment*."

c. appositive clauses which define the meaning of the **antecedent represented by indefinite or demonstrative pronouns:**

"I can't agree with **all** *what you are telling me*."

"**Everything** *what you see in this room* is your."

Functional-semantic types of English adverbial clauses

Adverbial clauses refer to a verb, an adjective or an adverb of the main clause. They are usually joined to the main clause by means of subordinating conjunctions. When an adverbial clause precedes the main clause it is set off with a comma.

Adverbial clauses constitute a vast domain (sphere) of syntax which falls into many subdivisions according to their functional-semantic peculiarities. Speaking of the semantics of adverbial clauses, we should remember that we are concerned with generalized grammatical meanings which are of syntactic relevance. Therefore, the classification of adverbial clauses into subtypes is mainly based on their functional meanings, according to which the whole system of adverbial clauses is divided into four groups:

1. The first group of adverbial clauses includes clauses of ***time*** and of ***place***;
2. The second group of adverbial clauses comprises clauses of ***manner*** and ***comparison***;
3. The third group of adverbial clauses includes clauses of ***attendant circumstances*** *(თანმხლები გარემოება)*, ***condition***, ***cause***, ***purpose***, ***reason***, ***result***, ***concession*** *(დათმობითობა)*;
4. The fourth group of adverbial clauses is formed by ***parenthetical*** or ***insertive*** clauses.

The first group includes clauses of time and of place. Their common semantic basis can be defined as "localization" – respectively, temporal (answering the question *when*), and spatial (answering the question *where*).

Adverbial clauses of time are introduced by the subordinating conjunctions when, as, since, before, after, until, as soon as, now that, etc. For example:

"We lived in London *when the war ended*."

"We had lived in London all through the war *until it ended*."

"After the war ended our family moved to Glasgow."

Adverbial clauses of place are introduced by the subordinating conjunction *where*, which can be sometimes preceded by the prepositions *from* and *to*: *from where*(bookish equivalent – whence) and *to where*:

"The swimmers gathered *where the beach formed a small mound*."

"We decided to go back *from where we had started on our journey*."

The second group comprises adverbial clauses of manner and comparison. The common semantic basis of their functions can be defined as "qualification", since both of them modify the action or event denoted by the main clause. The identification of these adverbial clauses can be achieved by applying the question-transformation of the *how* -type.

Adverbial clauses of manner are introduced by the subordinating conjunctions: *as, as if, as though*:

"He spent the evening *as he had been told*." (How did he spend the evening?)

"You talk to him *as if he were your Boss*." (How do you talk to him?)

Adverbial clauses of comparison are introduced by the subordinating conjunctions: *as … as, not so … as, than*. Cf.:

"That summer he took a longer holiday *than he had done before*."

"Mary received the guests as nicely *as her mother would have done*."

"It is not so hot today *as it was yesterday*."

The third and most numerous group of adverbial clauses includes clauses of different semantics connected with the meaning of the main clause by various circumstantial associations. Accordingly, this group comprises clauses of **attendant circumstances**, **condition**, **cause (reason), purpose**, **result** and **concession**.

Adverbial clauses of attendant circumstances (თანმხლები გარემოება) by their semantics are very close to clauses of time. The difference lies in the fact that, unlike clauses of time, the

event described by an adverbial clause of attendant circumstances is presented as some sort of background in relation to the event denoted by the main clause. Clauses of attendant circumstances are introduced by the subordinating conjunctions *while* and *as* which express simultaneity of the events described in the complex sentence. For example:

"*As (while) the reception was going on*, Mr. Brown talked to his business partners."

"*As (while) Mother was making supper in the kitchen*, I did all my lessons."

It should be noted that a subordinate clause introduced by the conjunction *while* may sometimes express contrast rather than simultaneity of actions, even when it precedes the main clause. In such cases, we have to deal with an adverbial clause of contrast. Cf.:

"He wears fine clothes *while I go in rags*."

"*While I am weak from hunger* he suffers from overfeeding."

Conditional adverbial clauses show whether the speaker or the writer thinks that either the stated condition is possible (real) at present, or it is hypothetical, i.e. unreal at present or unreal in the past, therefore for ever. Accordingly, grammarians speak about three subtypes of conditional clauses: real, unreal at present and unreal for ever.

Conditional clauses are mainly introduced by two subordinating conjunctions *if* and *unless* (= *if not*). Less frequently they may be introduced by other words and phrases such as: *in case (that), on condition (that), provided (that), supposing (that), whether or not, so/as long as, etc.*

1. Real conditional clauses, which are known as open conditional clauses, don't say whether or not the condition is fulfilled, but they imply that the condition is possible or real.

   "Read the paper *if you don't believe me*!"

   "We won't go to the party *unless you feel we have to*."

   "*In case our team wins*, it will be the new champion."

   "*So long as he doesn't bother me*, I will not bother him."

   "*Whether or not it rains*, the game will be played as scheduled."

2. In the second subtype of conditional clauses, which is called hypothetical 1, the speaker thinks that the condition isn't fulfilled as it is unreal (contrary-to-fact) at present, and unlikely to happen in the future:

"*If you drove carefully*, you would not have so many accidents."

(Meaning: "You do not drive carefully and you do have many accidents.")

"*If you helped me*, you would be a true friend."

"*If I* ***were*** *you*, I would never do that."

"*If the truth* ***were*** *known*, public opinion would change."

NOTE: ***Unless*** is not usually used in unreal (contrary-to-fact) conditions:

"*If you did not drive carefully*, you would have many accidents." (Meaning: You drive carefully, and, therefore, you do not have many accidents.")

3. In the third subtype of conditional clauses, which is called hypothetical 2, the speaker describes the conditions and results that were not fulfilled in the past, and, therefore, they are unreal for ever. Cf.:

"*If you had brushed your teeth carefully*, you would have had fewer cavities."

(Meaning: "You did not brush your teeth carefully at some time in the past, and you had some cavities as a result.")

Besides subordinating conjunctions, words and phrases, hypothetical conditional clauses can be introduced by the inverted word order:

"*Had you driven more carefully*, you would not have had so many accidents."

" *Were the truth known*, public opinion would change."

"*Should it rain tomorrow*, the meeting will be held in the auditorium."

Adverbial clauses of cause and purpose. Causal adverbial clauses indicate the cause of the action expressed in the main clause. They are introduced by simple conjunctions *because, as, since, for* and by phrasal conjunctions: *for the reason that, on the ground that, considering that, seeing that*. For example:

"*Since you obviously don't know how to behave in England*, I'll take you back to France directly."

"David was alone at home *for Helen had gone to see her parents*."

"I opened my umbrella *because/as it was raining*."

Clauses of purpose are introduced by simple conjunctions *that, lest* and by phrase conjunctions: *in order that, so that*. It's very important to remember that another indication to

identify a clause of purpose is the use of the verbs ***may (might)*** **or** ***should*** **as part of its predicate**. Cf.:

"He stepped back *so that she might see everything well*."

"The captain spoke Pidgin Italian *in order that I might understand him perfectly*."

Adverbial clauses of result. These clauses tell the results of the events described in the main clause. It should be noted that the term "clauses of result" doesn't imply that the result was necessarily planned in advance, or that it was consciously aimed at. The result may have been brought about without anybody's intention. Adverbial clauses of result may be connected with the main clause in two ways:

1. They can be introduced by the conjunction *that*, which is correlated with the pronoun *such* or adverb *so* in the main clause:

   "He was *so* tired *that he could hardly move*."

   "She was *such* a lovely baby *that her parents adored her*."

2. They can be introduced by the phrasal conjunction *so that* or *so*:

   "In the centre there were candlesticks, brass but polished,

   so that they shone like gold."

   "We paid him immediately, *so (that) he left contented*."

Adverbial clauses of concession (დათმობითი გარემოებითი წინადადება). These clauses express some circumstance despite which the action denoted by the main clause is performed. In other words, adverbial clauses of concession convey an idea that contrasts with the main idea of the sentence. Clauses of concession are introduced by the conjunctions *though, although,* connectors ending in -ever (*however, whoever, whenever, etc.*):

"*Though she disappoved of their endless discussions*, she had to put up with them."

"*Whoever calls*, I'm not at home."

"*However tempting the offer might be*, Jim can't accept it."

Another type of concession clauses is the pattern "Predicative (noun or adjective) + as + subject + link verb," in which the concessive meaning is not directly expressed by the conjunction *as* or by any other single word, but arises out of the combined lexical meanings of different words in the sentence. For example: "Clever as he was, he failed to grasp the idea." In this

sentence, the concessive meaning arises from the contrast in meaning between the word *clever* and the phrase *failed to grasp*.

The fourth group of adverbial clauses is formed by *parenthetical* or *insertive* constructions. Parenthetical clauses are inserted in the main clause on a looser basis than the other types of adverbial clauses; still, they do form with the main clause a syntactical sentence, which is easily proved by the procedure of diagnostic elimination. Compare:

"Jack has called here twice this morning, *if am not mistaken*."

"Jack has called here twice this morning (*)."

As is seen from the above sentences, the elimination of the parenthetical clause in the second one changes the meaning of the whole sentence as the original sense of the utterance is lost, and as a result, the meaning of the sentence changes from problematic to assertive. This shows that the parenthetical clause still forms an integral part of the sentence. Parenthetical clauses may occur initially, finally, or medially, and they are separated from the main clause by commas. Cf.:

"Kingston, *as you probably know*, is the capital of Jamaica."

According to the introducing conjunctions, parenthetical clauses can be of two types:

a) coordinate, when it is inserted in the sentence by the coordinating conjunction *and*:

"Jim said, *and I quite agree with him*, that Helen is very stubborn."

b) subordinate, when it is inserted in the sentence by a subordinating conjunction:

"Jim said, *though I don't quite agree with him*, that Helen is very stubborn."

3. Pragmatic classification of sentences

Pragmatic classification of sentences implies classification of speech acts on the basis of their illocutionary force, which aims to show how communicative intentions are in fact correlated with the format and sense of utterances (Austin 1962; Searle 1969).

There are five pragmatic types of utterances: declarations, representatives, expressives, directives, and commissives (Yule 1996: 53-54).

1. **Declarations** are those kinds of speech acts that change the world via their utterance. These are so-called "performatives", the uttering of which is itself the action. As the examples below illustrate, the speaker has to have a special institutional role, in a specific context, in order to perform a declaration appropriately. In using a declaration, the speaker changes the world via words. Cf.:

   Priest: *I now pronounce you husband and wife*.

   Jury Foreman: *We find the defendant guilty*.

   Referee: *You're out!*

   Chairperson: *I hereby adjourn the meeting*.

   Priest: *I name this ship the Queen Elizabeth*.

2. **Representatives** are those kinds of speech acts that state what the speaker believes to be the case or not. Representatives include utterances such as statements, assertions, conclusions, and descriptions. The sentences below are all examples of the speaker representing the world as he or she believes it is; in other words, in using a representative, the speaker makes words fit the world of beliefs. Cf.:

   The earth is flat.

   Chomsky didn't write about peanuts.

   It was a warm sunny day.

   The earth moves round the sun.

3. **Expressives** are those kinds of speech acts that state what the speaker feels. They express psychological states and can be statements of pleasure, pain, likes, dislikes, joy, or sorrow, which can be caused by something the speaker or the listener does, but they are about the speaker's experience. In using an expressive, the speaker makes words fit the world of feelings. For example:

   I'm really sorry!

   Congratulations!

   Oh, yes, great, mmmm, ssahh!

   I'm glad to see you.

4. **Directives** are those kinds of speech acts that speakers use to get someone else to do something. They express what the speaker wants. Directives include commands, orders, requests, suggestions, which can be positive or negative. In using a directive, the speaker attempts to make the world fit the words via the hearer. Cf.:

Give me a cup of coffee. Make it black.

Could you lend me a pen, please?

Don't touch that.

5. **Commissives** are those kinds of speech acts that speakers use to commit themselves to some future action. They express what the speaker intends. Commissives comprise promises, threats, refusals and pledges which can be performed by the speaker alone, or by the speaker as a member of a group. In using a commissive, the speaker undertakes to make the world fit the words via himself or herself. Cf.:

I'll be back in fife minutes.

I'm going to get my money back right now.

We will not do that.

Study Questions:

1. Discuss the communicative types of English sentences.
2. Comment on the main types of questions in English.
3. Give a general characterization of main structural types of sentences.
4. Describe a two-member sentence pattern according to structural types.
5. Give a linguistic description of one-member sentences.
6. Give a general characterization of the composite sentence. Define the notion of a clause and its functional-semantic types.
7. Comment on the structural-semantic types of composite sentences.
8. Discuss the features of English main clauses (6 features).
9. Discuss the types of connection of clauses in a composite sentence (3 types).

10. Comment on the functional-semantic types of subordinate clauses.
11. Characterize complex sentences with subject subordinate clauses. Give examples.
12. Characterize predicative clauses. Give examples.
13. Characterize object clauses. Give examples.
14. Give a general characterization of English relative clauses. Discuss their functional-semantic types (4 of them). Give examples.
15. Give a general characterization of functional-semantic types of English adverbial clauses.
16. *Characterize adverbial clauses of time and place. Give examples.*
17. *Characterize adverbial clauses of manner and comparison. Give examples.*
18. *Characterize adverbial clauses of attendant circumstances. Give examples.*
19. *Characterize conditional adverbial clauses. Give examples.*
20. *Characterize adverbial clauses of cause and purpose. Give examples.*
21. *Characterize adverbial clauses of result. Give examples.*
22. *Characterize adverbial clauses of concession. Give examples.*
23. *Characterize parenthetical clauses. Give examples.*
24. Speak about pragmatic classification of sentences (5 classes).

Lecture 11

Survey of function words

Function words can also be categorized in different classes: determiners, auxiliary verbs, pronouns, prepositions, conjunctions and particles.

Determiners

- **Determiners** normally precede nouns, and are used to help clarify the meaning of the noun. The most important are the following:

1. The **definite article *the*** indicates that the referent (i.e. whatever is referred to) is assumed to be known by the speaker and the addressee (or the person being spoken to).

2. The **indefinite article *a*** or ***an*** makes it clear that the referent is one member of a class (***a*** *book*).

American and British scholars consider demonstrative, possessive and indefinite pronouns, as well as numerals and *wh*-words, to be different kinds of determiners.

3. **Demonstrative determiners** indicate that the referents are "near to" or "away from" the speaker (***this*** *book,* ***that*** *book*, etc.).
4. **Possessive determiners** tell us who or what the noun belongs to (***my*** *book,* ***your*** *book,* ***her*** *book*, etc.).
5. **Quantifiers** specify how many or how much of the noun there is (***every*** *book,* ***some*** *books*, etc.).
6. There are also determiner-like uses of ***wh*-words** and numerals.

Auxiliary verbs

There are two kinds of auxiliary verbs: **primary auxiliaries** (*be, do, have*) and **modal auxiliaries**. Both are "auxiliary verbs" in the sense that they are added to a main verb to help build verb phrases. Auxiliary verbs precede the main or lexical verb in a verb phrase: ***will*** *arrive;* ***has*** *arrived;* ***is*** *arriving;* ***may*** *be arriving*, etc.

- **Primary auxiliaries.** There are three primary auxiliaries: *be*, *have*, and *do*. They have inflections like lexical verbs, but are normally unstressed. The same verbs can also act as main verbs when they realize their lexical meaning. The primary auxiliaries show how the main verb is to be understood.

- The auxiliary ***have*** is used to form the **perfect aspect**: *I've just come home.*
- The auxiliary ***be*** is used for the **progressive or continuous aspect:**

They ***are*** *coming home.*

- The auxiliary ***be*** is also used for the **passive voice**:

The letter ***was*** *sent to him.*

- The auxiliary ***do*** is used in negative statements and in questions; this is known as ***do*** insertion.
- **Modal auxiliaries.** There are nine modal auxiliary verbs. As their name suggests, they are largely concerned with expressing "modality", such as possibility, necessity, prediction and volition (სურვილი, ნდობა). The modals are:

I row *will, can, shall, may, must*

II row *would, could, should, might.*

Each modal in the lower row is historically the past tense of the modal directly above it. Nowadays, though, the relationship of *will* to *would*, or *can* to *could*, etc. has less to do with tense than with modal meaning, the latter members in the modal pairs expressing more politeness. For instance: ***Would*** *you pass me the book, please*? ***Could*** *you open the window*?

In practice the modals can be regarded as invariable function words, with no inflections such as *-ing* and *-ed*. The modals will and would have contracted forms ('ll and 'd), and most modals have contracted negative form ending in *n't,* such as *wouldn't*. Modals occur as the first verb in a clause, and are followed by the base form (i.e. infinitive) of another verb, usually the main verb (underlined below):

I ***can*** *live here quietly.*

They ***would*** *have a different view.*

Prepositions

Prepositions express the dependencies and interdependencies of substantive referents in a sentence. Because of this, they are considered to be linking words that introduce prepositional phrases. The **prepositional complement** following a preposition is generally a noun phrase, so prepositions can also be seen as linking words that connect other structure with noun phrases. For example: *That picture* ***of*** *mother; She's* ***in*** *a new situation; She is still* ***on*** *the phone.*

Most prepositions are short, invariable forms. E.g.: ***about, after, around, as, at, by, down, for, from, in, to, like, of, off, on, round, since, than, towards,*** etc. Prepositions can be linked to a preceding verb, such as: *rely on; consist of; succeed in; look at; look for; look after,* etc.

Another set of prepositions consists of multi-word units known as complex prepositions, which have a meaning that cannot be derived from the meaning of the constituent parts. **Two-word complex prepositions** normally end with a simple preposition:

ending in	examples
as	*such as*
for	*as for, except for*
from	*apart from*
of	*because of, instead of, out of, regardless of*
to	*according to, due to, owing to*

Three-word prepositions usually have the structure: simple preposition + noun + simple preposition

ending in	examples
of	*by means of, in spite of, on account of, on top of*
to	*in addition to, with regard to*
as	*as far as, as well as*

As with many grammatical categories, there are borderline cases with complex prepositions. It is not always clear whether a multi-word combination is a complex preposition, that is, a fixed expression with a special meaning, or a free combination of preposition: (+ article) + noun + preposition. *At the expense of* is an example of an in-between case.

Conjunctions

There are two types of words traditionally called conjunctions in English: coordinators and (also called coordinating conjunctions), and subordinators (or subordinating conjunctions).

Coordinators are used to indicate a relationship between two units such as phrases and clauses. Coordinators link elements which have the same syntactic role, and are at the same level of syntactic hierarchy. The main coordinators are: ***and***, ***but*** and ***or***. For instance:

*Mother **and** I saw it.*

*I don't want to leave so soon, **but** I think I have to.*

*Is the news good **or** bad?*

Coordinators can be used to connect more than two elements:

*The donkeys did not come back, **nor** did the eleven men, **nor** did the helicopter.*

Subordinators (also called subordinating conjunctions) are linking words that introduce clauses known as **dependent clauses**, that is, clauses which cannot stand alone without another clause, called the **main clause**.

*You can hold her **if** you want.*

The subordinator shows the connection of meaning between the main clause and the subordinate clause. In the above example, the subordinator *if* shows a relation of condition. In the case of coordination, the two elements have the same status. However, in the case of subordination, the dependent clause starting with the subordinator is embedded (or included) in the main clause. The dependant clause can come at the front or at the end of the main clause. For instance:

As they watched, a flash of fire appeared.

A flash of fire appeared **as** they watched.

Subordinators may consist of more than one word. Most of the complex subordinators end with *as* or *that*. E.g.: *as long as, as soon as, given (that), on condition (that), provided (that), except (that), in order that, so that, such that, as if, as though, even if, even though*.

Dependant clauses can also be introduced by other forms, like *wh-words* and the relative pronoun *that*.

Wh-words

However, *wh*-words do not form an independent word class. Instead, they are members of word classes already mentioned, especially, determiners, pronouns and adverbs. *Wh*-words are represented by the following words: *who, whom, which, what, whose, where, when, why.* **They are used in four main ways**: at the beginning of an interrogative clause, at the beginning of a relative (attributive) clause, at the beginning of complement (i.e. nominal) clauses, and at the beginning of adverbial clauses. Accordingly, wh-words can be identified in four ways:

- At the beginning of interrogative sentences (i.e. in questions), *wh*-words are identified as interrogative pronouns and adverbs, and they can perform corresponding syntactic functions. Consider the following examples:

  Who *speaks English well?* (interrogative pronoun, subject)

  Whose *uncle lives in London?* (interrogative pronoun, attribute)

  Where is he? (interrogative adverb, adv. modifier of place)

- At the beginning of a relative (i.e. attributive) clause, *wh*-words are identified as relative pronouns and adverbs, and they can perform corresponding syntactic functions. For instance:

  *It's a small place [**where** everyone knows everyone else].*
  (relative adverb, adv. mod. of place).

  *I saw the man [**whom** I had known long before].* (relative pronoun, object)

- At the beginning of complement (i.e. subject and object) clauses, *wh*-words are identified as pronominal and adverbial complementizers, that can perform syntactic functions:

  *I don't know [**whose** car it is].* (adverbial complementizer, attribute)

  *I don't know [**what** I would have done without her].*

  (pronominal complementizer, object)

- At the beginning of adverbial clauses, *wh*-words are subordinating conjunctions without any syntactic functions:

  *I'm always glad [**when** he comes to see us].* (subordinating conjunction)

Particles

Particles unite the functional words of specifying and limiting meaning. To this series, alongside of other specifying words (such as *only*, *also*, *too*, etc.), should be referred negative particle *not*, and the infinitive marker *to*, which is not be confused with the preposition *to*. For instance: *What do you want* ***to*** *drink*?

In addition, infinitive to occurs as part of two complex subordinators expressing purpose: *in order to* and *so as to*: *You have to get up early* ***in order to*** *be in time for school.*

Inserts

Inserts are found mainly in spoken language as they make an important contribution to the interactive character of speech, because they signal relations between the speaker, the addressee(s) and the discourse. They do not form an integral part of a syntactic structure (i.e. they are non-clausal elements), but tend to be inserted freely in a text. They are often marked off by a break in intonation in speech, or by a punctuation mark in writing. Inserts mainly occur in an initial position. E.g.: ***Well,*** *we made it*. An exception to this is hesitators or "pause fillers", which typically occur in the middle of an utterance: *What kind of* ***uh*** *bulldog is this?*

There are the following frequently used inserts in the English language: interjections, modal words, greetings and farewells, attention getters, time fillers, etc.

- **Interjections** (*oh, ooh, ow, ouch, ah, wow, whoops*) are words which have an exclamatory function. They usually express an emotive reaction to something that has been said or has happened:

Oh, how awful**!** *How absolutely naff!*

Ah, *isn't that nice.*

Wow, *they really did that tree nice.*

- **Modal words** express the attitude of the speaker to the referential (i.e. target) situation. Here belong the words expressing probability, certainty, doubt: *probably, perhaps,*

apparently, evidently, surely, undoubtedly, certainly, maybe, possibly; qualitative evolution – *fortunately, unfortunately, luckily,* etc. For instance:

She is ***undoubtedly*** *the most beautiful creature in the world.*

- **Greetings and farewells.** They signal the beginning and the end of conversation respectively. They usually occur in symmetrical exchanges, as in the examples below:

A: ***Hi*** *Margaret.* B: ***Hi.***

A: ***Hello,*** *Joyce.* B: ***Hello.***

A: ***Bye*** *Butch.* B: ***Bye*** *Marc.*

- **Attention getters.** They have the main function of claiming a hearer's attention:

Hey*, Raymond,* ***yo,*** *what's happening?*

Hey*,* ***Hey****, look at all the truckers.*

- **Hesitators** or **time fillers** are used to fill gaps in the conversation. They indicate the speaker's need to give brief thought to the point at issue. For instance:

A: *You are always hungry*.

B: ***Well****, I'm not now*.

- **Expletives** are **taboo** expressions ('swearwords') or semi-taboo expressions used as exclamations, especially in reacting to some strongly negative experience.:

Oh ***Jesus****, I didn't know it was that cold.*

I know what I forgot to get in town. ***Damn!***

Boody hell! *He's gone mad.*

Lecture 12

The notion of text: its structural and functional interpretations. Structural types of text. Grammatical means of text cohesion.

We already know that language is regarded as a system of signs which is organized by the principle of hierarchy of levels of lingual units. The peculiarity of this hierarchy lies in the fact that units of any higher level are formed of units of the immediately lower one. Thus morphemes are formed of phonemes, words of morphemes, sentences of words and so on.

We also pointed out that the lowest level in the hierarchy of lingual units is a phonemic level, which is formed of phonemes. Phonemes are not signs yet, as they have no meaning, but they are material elements for building the higher level units – morphemes and words. Their function is purely differential, since they differentiate morphemes and words as material bodies. For instance: *sheep* [ʃi:p] and *ship* [ʃip]; *cat* [kæt] and *cap* [kæp], *bad* [bæd] and *bed* [bed], etc.

The level located above the phonemic is a morphemic or morphological level. The morpheme is the smallest meaningful unit of a language, therefore the smallest meaningful component of a word. It is built up by a sequence of phonemes or even by one phoneme if it has a meaning. For instance, the words *ros-y; come-s, and boy-s,* consist of two morphemes one of which is the root morpheme which is built up by a sequence of phonemes, whereas the other morpheme is an inflectional affix represented by a single meaningful phoneme, respectively marking the grammatical meaning of quality in – *ros-y*, the present tense, the third person and the singular number in – *come-s,* and the plural number in – *boy-s*.

The third level in the lingual hierarchy is the lexemic level represented by words as lexical items or lexemes. The word is built up by a sequence of morphemes or one morpheme and it is the smallest designating (naming) unit of a language: it designates things

(*dog, woman, table, book, river,* etc.), qualities (*quiet, beautiful, round, interesting, deep,* etc.), actions, states or processes, etc. (*bark, laugh, stand. read, crawl,* etc.).

The next level in the hierarchical system of language is the syntactic level, the main unit of which is a sentence. The sentence is an elementary full sign as it not only designates a certain target situation or event but performs communicative function as well, transmitting a comparatively completed piece of information. For instance, the sentence – "The American delegation arrived in Tbilisi for a three-day visit." – designates a particular target event, on the one hand, and transmits the corresponding information about this event, on the other.

But the sentence is not the highest unit of language in the hierarchy of levels. When we speak or write we don't normally confine ourselves to single phrases or sentences, we string these together to make a connected sequence which results in building a text. Thus the highest level of lingual units is the textual level, represented by the text.

There are two methodological approaches to the linguistic interpretation of the notion of text: structural and functional**. From the structuralist viewpoint, text can be defined as a sequence of thematically interrelated well-formed sentences. According to this definition, the lower border of the text is restricted as it implies a sequence of at least two sentences. But the structural definition of the text leaves its upper (top) border open because of the varying diapason of the theme. On this basis, linguists differentiate structural types of texts into microtexts and macrotexts. In microtexts sentences centre around one concrete theme, whereas in a macrotext microtexts are united by a global, hypertheme which is derived from the constituent microthemes.** Let's consider an example which represents a news report about Prince Harry, the British royal:

Prince Harry Vacationing in Majorca Without "Girlfriend"

Originally posted 08/04/2011 12:00 PM

Days after another royal wedding, Prince Harry has been spotted relaxing in Majorca.

> The royal, 26, who stepped out solo for cousin Zara Phillips's nuptials in Scotland, is vacationing on the Mediterranean island, reportedly keeping close company with an unnamed, bikini-clad female, as well as some close friends. He also was seen dining out at the Villa Italia restaurant in Port Andratx, on the southwest end of the island.
>
> "The small group sat on the terrace, which is very quiet and beautiful," chef Christian Catrina tells PEOPLE, adding that a family friend who frequents the restaurant recommended it to Harry and his companions. "They had dinner, and then left quite early."
>
> Meanwhile, his rumored girlfriend, Florence Brudenell-Bruce, 25, has been home in London, where she was seen out and about riding her bike, and photographed gardening outside her apartment.

This newspaper article represents a macrotext generated under the headline - *Prince Harry Vacationing in Majorca Without "Girl-friend,"* which serves as the hyper-theme of the text. It is formed of four microtexts, each having its own concrete theme around which the sentences are united. The theme of the first microtext can be formulated as *Prince Harry relaxing in Majorca*, the second as - *Prince Harry in the company of a bikini-clad female,* the third as - *Chef Christian Catrina reporting about Prince Harry*, and the last – *Prince Harry's girl-friend alone in London.*

There also exists a notion of **"megatext"** which comprises a cycle of thematically interrelated short stories, poems or even novels by one author. For instance, John Galsworhy's trilogy "The Forsyte Saga" represents a megatext, because it consists of the novels "The Man of Property", "In Chancery" and "To Let", each describing a certain period of the Forsyte family.

As for the functional methodology of linguistic analysis, it also finds its manifestation in the text definition. We have surveyed the levels of language system and have seen that a sentence is an elementary lingual unit that can perform communicative function whereas a text is treated as the highest communicative unit. Therefore we can say, that

from the functionalist viewpoint, a verbal unit of any length, be it a sequence of thematically interrelated sentences, one simple sentence or even one single word can be defined as a text if it performs a communicative function. This definition explains the existence of such one-word texts as: "Fire!" "Help!" and many others, that are restricted by the context of the corresponding speech acts.

British scholar Halliday writes that text is language in use. It implies that text is a speech product whereas language exists as a system of virtual signs that represent building material for the text. In other words, language system provides the speaker or the writer with abstract models by which they convert their ideas into a text.

Text as a communicative verbal unit has its peculiar characteristics. Textual characteristics are first of all predetermined by a whole set of such factors as: the communicants (comprising both - the addresser and the addressee), the text with the help of which they interact, the place and the time of the communication, the correspondence between the textual-world and the object-world of reality and so on. This means, that while analyzing a text, we should focus on the features that completely differ from lingual units proper. The set of all these and other similar extralinguistic characteristics has led to the development of pragmatics as an inseparable branch of communicative linguistics. At present, communicative linguistics and pragmatics represent two interdependent aspects of discourse analysis, be it conversations or written texts.

Text analysts claim that there are some grammatical and lexical regularities observable in well-formed written texts that explain how the structuring of sentences has implications for units such as microtexts. The English grammar offers a limited set of options for creating surface links between the clauses and sentences of a text, otherwise known as text cohesion.

According to Halliday and Hasan, most texts display links from sentence to sentence in terms of such grammatical features as pronominalization, ellipsis and conjunctions of various kinds. Texts displaying such cohesive features are easy to find. Let's consider a microtext from the famous English novel "Jude the Obscure" by Thomas Hardy:

> "*The* schoolmaster was leaving *the* village, and *everybody* seemed sorry. *The* miller at Cresscombe lent *him the* small white tilted cart and horse to carry *his* goods to *the* city of *his* destination, about twenty miles off, *such a* vehicle proving of quite sufficient size for *the* departing teacher's effects."

In this microtext the italicised items refer. For the text to be coherent , we assume that *him* in the sentence "lent him the small white tilted cart" is *the schoolmaster* introduced earlier; likewise, *his* destination is the schoolmaster's destination. Referents for *him* and *his* can be confirmed by looking back in the text. The phrase *such a* also links back to *the cart* in the previous sentence. The novel opens with *the* schoolmaster leaving *the* village. The use of the definite article implies the questions: Which schoolmaster? Which village? On the previous page of the novel, the two words AT MARYGREEN stand alone, so we reasonably assume that Marygreen is the name of the village, and that the character is the schoolmaster of that village. All these grammatical and lexical entities create text cohesion.

Grammatical means of text cohesion

In linguistic literature cohesion is defined as the use of explicit linguistic devices to signal relations within a text or sentence. Cohesion can be defined as the links that hold a text together and give it meaning. There are two main types of cohesion: grammatical and lexical.

Grammatical cohesion of the text is mainly achieved through **co-reference**, i.e. the relationship between the verbal signs designating the same entity in the "world" of the text. Co-referential items in English include: personal pronouns (*he, she, it, they*), demonstratives (*this, that, these, those*), the definite article and items like - *such a*.

Linguists identify three main types of the co-referential devices: a) looking backward, i.e. anaphoric reference, b) looking forward, i.e. cataphoric reference and c) looking outward, i.e. exophoric reference.

Anaphoric reference is the most common type of reference, used subconsciously in everyday conversation and writing. It occurs when the writer refers back to someone or something, that has been previously identified, in order to avoid repetition and be more compact (in Greek *"anapherein"* meant **"*to carry back", "refer"*)**. It is known that human mind is rather limited in its capacity to store surface materials long enough to work on them. Anaphoric use of pronouns shorten and simplify the surface text without any difficulties for the reader. For instance:

"There was an old woman who lived in a shoe.

She had so many children, she didn't know what to do."

In this well-known children's rhyme the pronoun *she* makes it unnecessary to keep saying "the old woman who lived in a shoe", "the old woman", or even "the woman".

Usually, items such as *he/him, she/her* or *they/them* can be decoded without major difficulty, whereas other items such as *it, this* and *that* may be more troublesome because of their ability to refer to longer stretches of text. Let's borrow an example from Halliday and Hasan:

"It rained day and night for two weeks. The basement flooded and everything was under water. *It* spoilt all our calculations."

Here the pronoun *it* seems to mean "the events of two weeks", or "the fact that it rained and flooded", that is, the situation as a whole rather than one specified entity in that situation. Anaphora is the most common directionality for co-reference, since the identity of the conceptual content being kept current is made plain in advance.

The second type of co-referential devices is the **Cataphoric reference which is the reverse of anaphoric reference and is relatively straightforward. It occurs when the reader is introduced to someone or something as an abstract entity until it is identified by a co-referring expression later.** Halliday and Hasan (1976: 55) define cataphora as "the use of the pro-form before the co-referring expression." It creates a temporarily empty position

of a lingual sign until the required content is supplied. These scholars indicate, that such a mechanism would work best if the distance between the pro-form and the co-referring expression is kept within limits, for instance, inside the boundaries of a single sentence. They provide the following example:

"I don't know if *he* is serious, but *my roommate* wants
to walk a tightrope over Niagara Falls."

Cataphoric reference is less common than anaphoric but its use make the speech dramatic and more expressive. In this example the use of cataphora makes the speech dramatic and more expressive. A pronoun may look ahead to an entire event rather than an individual object, as in Halliday and Hasan's next example:

"I would never have believed *it*. *They've accepted the whole scheme*."

Cataphoric reference is less common than anaphoric, but in written texts it can be used for dramatic or stylistic effect, as well as for such pragmatic purpose as to intensify the readers' interest stimulating them to get the necessary information for filling up the gap created by the pronoun. In news stories and literature, examples of cataphoric use of pronouns are often found in the opening sentences of the text. The initial use of cataphoric reference is considered as the manifestation of the author's communicative strategy to engage and hold the reader's attention with a "read on and find out" message.

The third type of co-referencial devices is **exophora** that implies a reference to assumed, shared worlds outside the text (Gk. "exo" = "outside"). **Exophoric reference is mainly used to describe generic or abstract situations. It occurs when the speaker chooses not to identify a person or a thing but instead refers to them as abstract entities by generic words such as indefinite pronouns *"everyone", everybody", "everything",* etc.:**

Everybody loves his own mother.

No-one drives a car when he is drunk.

Everyone likes to relax in his garden.

Another cohesive device **is ellipsis. It is the omission of elements normally required by the grammar which the speaker or writer assumes are obvious from the context and therefore need not be raised.** This is not to say that every utterance which is not fully

explicit is elliptical: most messages require some input from the context to make sense of them. Ellipsis is distinguished by the structure having some "missing" element.

In face-to-face discourse, the omission of compulsory structural elements in the utterance is predetermined by the physical environment of the communication. For instance, if two people have to peel and fry potatoes and one says to the other "You peel and I'll fry", the fact that *peel* and *fry* are usually transitive verbs requiring an object in the surface structure is suspended because the context "supplies" the object. In other words, structures are fully realized when they need to be, therefore ellipsis is a choice, made by a speaker on a pragmatic assessment of the situation, and not a compulsory feature when two clauses are joined together.

In written texts, the "missing" structural element is retrievable from the surrounding text (i.e. co-text) in the way that anaphoric and cataphoric references are. For example, we meet anaphoric ellipsis in the following sentence – "The children will carry the small boxes, the adults - the large ones." – where the main verb "will carry" is supplied from the first clause to the second. In cataphoric ellipsis the missing structural element is usually observed only in front-placed subordinate clauses and it can be easily supplied from the principle clause. For instance:

"If you could, I'd like you to be back here at five thirty."

There are three main types of ellipsis in English: nominal, verbal and clausal.

a) Nominal ellipsis often involves omission of a noun headword: Nelly liked the green tiles; myself I preferred the blue (*tiles*).

b) Verbal ellipsis may cause greater problems. Linguists point out two common types of verbal ellipsis: echoing and auxiliary contrasting. Echoing repeats an element from the verbal group. For instance:

A: *Will* anyone be waiting?

B: Jim *will*, I think.

Contrasting verbal ellipsis is when the auxiliary changes. We can see such change in this short dialogue:

A: *Has* she remarried?

B: No, but she *will* one day, I' m sure.

c) With clausal ellipsis in English, individual clause elements may be omitted: especially common are subject-pronoun omissions ("Doesn't matter;" "Hope so;" "Can't help you", etc.). Whole stretches of clausal components may also be omitted:

"He said he would take early retirement as soon as he could
and he has (=he has already done it)."

Another grammatical means of text cohesion is **substitution.** Substitution is similar to ellipsis in the effect it has on the text. **It occurs when instead of leaving a word or phrase out, as in ellipsis, it is substituted for another, more general word.** E.g.:

A: Which ice-cream would you like?

B: I would like the pink one.

In this case, the indefinite pronoun "one" is used instead of repeating "ice-cream". Like ellipsis, substitution operates either at nominal, verbal or clausal level. The items commonly used for substitution in English are:

One(s): "I offered him *a seat*. He said he didn't want *one*."

Do: "Did Mary take that letter? She might *have done.*

So/not: "Do you need a lift? If *so*, wait for me; if not, I'll see you there."

Same: "She chose the roast duck; I chose *the same*.

It should be noted that both ellipsis and substitution assume a lot from the context; they proceed on the basis that omitted and substituted elements are easily recoverable, and therefore natural in speech situations where a high degree of contextual support is available.

The last grammatical means of text cohesion we would like to focus on are **conjunctions.** Conjunctions make grammatical contributions to textuality in a specific way. A conjunction does not set off a search backward or forward for its referent, but it does presuppose a textual sequence and signals a relationship between its segments.

It is not at all easy to list definitively all the items that perform the conjunctive role in English. Halliday and Hasan have classified English conjunctions (over forty items)

according to logical-semantic types of relationship they can establish between textual segments. As a result they offer the following functional-semantic types of conjunctions:

1. Additives (e.g.: and, in addition, further, etc.);
2. Adversative (e.g.: but, however, though, etc.);
3. Causal (e.g.: because, consequently, since, as, etc.);
4. Temporal (e.g.: then, subsequently, after, before, etc.).

Halliday and Hasan focus on polysemantic nature of frequently used conjunctions, such as *and, since, so,* etc., whose meaning can be defined on the basis of contextual information. For instance, we can obtain the wide use of the conjunction *and* in the examples, given below, where the meaning of this conjunction varies according to the linguistic co-text:

1. "She's intelligent. And she's very reliable." (In this case *and* has an additive meaning.)
2. "I've lived here for ten years and I've never heard of that pub." (This time *and* has an adversative meaning and it can be substituted by the conjunction *but*.)
3. "He fell in the river and caught a chill." (Where *and* has a causal meaning.)
4. "I got up and made my breakfast." (This time *and* expresses temporal sequence.)

Thus, we have discussed text as a communicative lingual sign of the highest rank. We have reviewed the notion of text from two methodological viewpoints – structural and functional, focusing on their differential features, as well on the structural types of texts. And finally, we concentrated on the grammatical means of text cohesion and the mechanisms of their functioning in the text. In connection with this, we have analysed such cohesive devices of the English language as anaphoric, cataphoric and exophoric references, ellipsis, substitution, and functional-semantic types of conjunctions. With this, we have finished our course of lectures in the theory of English grammar.

Study questions:

1. Give the structural definition of the text and comment on it.
2. Define structural types of texts. Define the concept of megatext.
3. Give the functional definition of the text.
4. Define the notion of text cohesion.
5. Comment on the notion of co-reference.
6. Define the notion of anaphoric reference.
7. Define the notion of cataphoric reference.
8. Define the notion of exophoric reference.
9. Define the notion of ellipsis.
10. Define the notion of substitution.
11. Comment on the functional-semantic types of conjunctions.

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