


Iryna Alexeyeva



# Theoretical English Grammar Course

  
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Мета теоретичного курсу полягає в ознайомленні студентів з основними принципами та особливостями морфологічної та синтаксичної будови сучасної англійської мови. Лінгвістичні проблеми, висвітлені в цьому виданні, входять до кола питань теоретичної граматики англійської мови, які передбачаються програмою четвертого курсу спеціальних факультетів.

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## Вступ

Мета теоретичного курсу полягає в ознайомленні студентів з основними принципами та особливостями морфологічної та синтаксичної будови сучасної англійської мови. Лінгвістичні проблеми, висвітлені в цьому виданні, входять до кола питань теоретичної граматики англійської мови, які передбачаються програмою четвертого курсу спеціальних факультетів.

Теоретичний курс складається з семи розділів, перші три з яких (Part I) присвячені проблемам морфології, а інші чотири (Part II) – проблемам синтаксису.

У першому розділі роботи висвітлюються різні підходи до частиномовної класифікації – від досліджень античних філософів до сучасних лінгвістичних теорій. Студентам надається можливість простежити розвиток лінгвістичної думки, ознайомитися з дискусійними питаннями як загальномовознавчої теорії частин мови, так і з проблемами морфологічної класифікації, специфічними для англістики.

Другий та третій розділи присвячені детальному аналізу морфологічної будови сучасної англійської мови: в другому розділі розглядаються семантичні, словотворчі, парадигматичні та синтаксичні властивості так званих повнозначних слів, а в третьому розділі проводиться подібний аналіз службових частин мови.

У першому розділі другої частини пропонується короткий огляд синтаксичних теорій, завдяки чому студенти знайомляться з різними підходами до аналізу синтаксичних явищ. Другий розділ присвячений проблемам теорії словосполучення. Найвища одиниця синтаксичного рівня – просте та складне речення – розглядається, відповідно, у третьому та четвертому розділах.

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# Part I. Morphology

## Chapter I

### Morphological classifications from the Ancient times to the 20<sup>th</sup> century

The issue of parts of speech is a problem of grammatical division of the wordstock in a language. But at the same time the issue of dividing words into certain classes is one of the principal questions of morphology because this division is connected with word structure and paradigms, peculiar to words.

The parts-of-speech problem embraces such issues as classification of vocabulary, criteria of this classification, possibilities of a word to pass from one class into another, development of homonymy, correlation between grammatical and lexical meanings. A classification is important, since it serves the purpose of scientific cognition by providing generalization and systematization of collected material. It helps to penetrate into the essence of objective material, to determine essential and distinguishing features of research subjects and to identify typological characteristics of these features.

To divide items into classes, one needs to decide on a certain feature as basis of classification. Classical logic requires that this feature should be the only characteristic that accounts for difference between the logically consistent classes. Thus, the object acquires certain unity. Also, this *bipartite principle of dichotomy* provides the opposition based on the presence or absence of the chosen feature in the items classified. In other words, one group of the research subjects possesses the positive feature of the corresponding characteristics and its counterpart has none of it. However, this method leads to abstraction from all other features of the research subject. One may also bear in mind that language units are multifaceted and can hardly be distributed into classes according to one criterion only. The absence of distinct borderline between certain parts of speech, syncretism of syntactic and semantic characteristics make it impossible to draw a demarcation line on the grounds of only one criterion as there are always cases which do not fit in any of the groups

or equally well fit in several groups simultaneously. These problems are particularly typical in English grammar because English is characterized by conversion as a productive word-forming pattern, as well as a limited number of inflections and abundant homonyms. As a result, the issue of differentiation between polysemy and conversion becomes of an extreme importance. For instance, how should one treat the italicized words in the following sentences: as one and the same word or different words, i.e. as homonyms:

- (1) I am *just* kidding. – He's *just* left the office. – He is known as a *just* person.
- (2) The night was *still* and quiet. – The house was *still* quieter. – *Still*, I don't understand how you got this information. – The weather is *still* nice.
- (3) This is *my* book. – Oh *my*! The party was really great!

As a result, researchers usually have to make use of several features and form tripartite or multipartite classifications.

## 1. Morphological classifications in Ancient Indian and Latin grammars

The first two extant attempts to categorize words were undertaken in two different parts of the world, in Ancient Greece by Plato and in Ancient India by **Panini**, author of the oldest Sanskrit grammar. In **Indian grammatical tradition**, the ability to inflect, that is *morphological characteristic*, was taken as the basic criterion dividing words into two large classes – inflected ones (nouns and verbs) and uninflected ones (prepositions and particles). Nouns were inflected for case, verbs – for person, number, and tense.

The insights of Indian grammarians did not contribute to the progress of linguistic categorization in the Western world because their work was incorporated into European linguistics much later when the traditional Greek and Latin-based word class system had long been established and adopted by linguists working on other European languages.

The history of linguistic categorization in Europe begins with **Plato** who considered some language-related philosophical questions in several of his dialogues, most notably *Cratylus*. Although the principal issue taken up in *Cratylus* concerns the correctness of names (to put it simply, why a dog is called a dog and not a cat), some attention is devoted to analyzing a sentence into two major components – the nominal: one (onoma) and the verbal one (rheme). Thus, Plato approached the problem of “noun-verb”

distinction in terms of “subject” versus “predicate”. Since Plato's focus was purely *syntactic* (i.e. based on sentential analysis), Platonic “nouns” and “verbs” do not exactly correspond to nouns and verbs as these are conceived nowadays.

**Aristotle** continued in the Platonic tradition but added a further distinct class of “conjunctions” (covering conjunctions, pronouns and the article) to the Platonic system. This class included all those words which were neither nouns nor verbs but which served to combine nouns and verbs into propositions. Aristotle defined the “rheme” as indicating a time reference and as representing the predicate, which allowed him, like Plato, to include adjectives among the “verbs”. That the inflectional criterion was not yet at play can be seen from the fact that inflected pronouns and articles were categorized together with uninflected conjunctions under the general heading “conjunctions”. Thus, both for Plato and Aristotle, parts of speech were unambiguously parts of sentences: words became nouns or verbs only when they were put into sentences, outside of a sentence they had no categorical affiliations.

The *inflectional criterion* to establish word classes was brought into play by the **Stoic grammarians**. Their major theoretical achievement was distinguishing *case* and restricting it to nouns. In such a way, the Stoics made case the fundamental distinction between nouns and verbs and, simultaneously, the case category helped the Stoics to draw the borderline between the group of case inflected pronouns and articles, on the one hand, and the group of invariant prepositions and conjunctions, on the other. Verbal categories also required separate terminology, and here the Stoics made another very important contribution, namely, abstraction of the temporal and aspectual meanings inherent in the tense forms.

A turning point in the history of linguistic classification was the appearance in the late 2<sup>nd</sup> century BC (around 100 BC) of the Greek grammar by **Dionysius Thrax**. He was a representative of the **Alexandrian school**. The Alexandrian school built further on what was achieved by the Stoics, although the two schools were each other's rivals. As far as linguistics is concerned, it was the Alexandrians who were lucky to leave their seal on subsequent linguistic research and not the Stoics. Dionysius Thrax suggested organizing words into eight classes.

1. NOUN: a part of speech inflected for case, signifying a concrete or abstract entity;
2. VERB: a part of speech without case inflection, but inflected for tense, person and number, signifying an activity or process performed or undergone;
3. PARTICIPLE: a part of speech sharing the features of the verb and the noun;
4. ARTICLE: a part of speech inflected for case and preposed or postposed to nouns (the relative pronoun is meant by the postposed article);
5. PRONOUN: a part of speech substituted for a noun and marked for person;
6. PREPOSITION: a part of speech placed before other words in composition and in syntax;
7. ADVERB: a part of speech without inflection, in modification of or in addition to a verb;
8. CONJUNCTION: a part of speech binding together the discourse and filling gaps in its interpretation.

Each word class was associated with a number of *inflectional and derivational categories* applicable to it. For example, the Alexandrians recognized such noun categories as gender (masculine, feminine, neuter), form (simple, compound), number (singular, dual, plural), case (nominative, vocative, accusative, genitive, dative).

Although the Alexandrians and the Stoics were rivals, their classifications are similar in many respects. Both made use of *three kinds of criteria: morphological, syntactic and semantic*. Whereas the Stoics divided Aristotelian conjunctions into case-inflected (grouping together pronouns and articles) and case-uninflected (grouping together prepositions and conjunctions), the Alexandrians made further finer distinctions between pronouns and articles in the first group and prepositions and conjunctions in the second.

The classification was further elaborated by **Latin grammarians**. **Varro** proposed a quadripartite morphological classification of Latin inflected words based on the categories of case and tense. The four inflectionally contrasting classes were

1. NOUNS (including adjectives) inflected for case,
2. VERBS inflected for tense,
3. PARTICIPLES inflected both for case and tense,
4. ADVERBS uninflected.

According to Varro, the *inflectional abilities* correlated with particular *syntactic and semantic* functions: nouns named, verbs made statements, adverbs supported and participles joined.

Other Latin grammarians were less original than Varro and took over the Greek system except that they compensated for the lack of a definite article in Latin by establishing a separate class of interjections. Previously interjections were treated as a subclass of adverbs (even though they are syntactically independent as opposed to adverbs which depend on verbs). In **Priscian's grammar** eight word classes were distinguished:

1. NOUN (including adjectives): a part of speech indicating a substance and a quality, and assigning a common or a particular quality of every body or thing;
2. VERB: a part of speech indicating an action or a being acted on; it has tense and mood forms, but is not case inflected;
3. PARTICIPLE: a part of speech, always derivationally referable to verbs, sharing the categories of verbs and nouns (tenses and cases), and therefore distinct from both;
4. PRONOUN: a part of speech whose feature is its substantiability for proper nouns and its specificity as to person;
5. ADVERB: a part of speech used in constructions with a verb, to which it is syntactically and semantically subordinate;
6. PREPOSITION: a part of speech used as a separate word before case-inflected words and in composition before both case-inflected and non-case-inflected words;
7. INTERJECTION: a part of speech syntactically independent of verbs, and indicating a feeling or a state of mind;
8. CONJUNCTION: a part of speech joining syntactically two or more members of any other word class, indicating a relationship between them.

Thus, we may summarize that the development of the parts-of-speech system in European tradition involved going from simple distinctions to complex ones involving more criteria. First, a bipartite division was made into subject and predicate. Then it was noticed that words performing these two functions were associated with their own morphology (case for nouns, tense for verbs). It appears that the semantic criteria were the last to enter the stage when Dionysius Thrax explicitly incorporated in his definition of word classes an observation that formal distinctions are accompanied by particular meanings. This development can be summed up as in the table below.



### Ancient Part-of-Speech Classifications

Plato	Aristotle	Stoics	Dionysius	Varro	Priscian
Noun	Noun	Noun (incl. Adjectives)	Noun	Noun (incl. Adjectives)	Noun (incl. Adjectives)
Verb	Verb (incl. Adjective)	Verb	Verb	Verb	Verb
	Conjunction Conjunctions, pronouns, articles	Inflected articles (Pronouns and articles)	Article	Invariable words	Pronoun
		Uninflected conjunctions (Prepositions, conjunctions)	Preposition		Preposition
		Adverbs	Conjunction	Conjunction	Conjunction
		Adverb	Adverb	Adverb	Adverb
		Participle	Participle	Participle	Participle
					Interjection
<b>Based on which criteria</b>					
syntax	syntax semantics	morphology syntax semantics	morphology syntax semantics	morphology syntax semantics	morphology syntax semantics

## 2. Morphological classifications from the Middle Ages to the beginning of the 20<sup>th</sup> century

During the **Middle Ages** scholastic philosophers working on linguistic topics (known as “**speculative**” grammarians or **the Modistae**) took over Priscianic categories which they assumed to be valid for all languages although, in accordance with their ideals of science as a search for universal causes, they devoted a great deal of attention to the logical motivation of Priscian’s word class divisions. According to the Modistae, a word represented the thing it signified as existing in a particular mode: there were several modes (e.g. the mode of stability and permanence, the mode of temporal process, etc.). These modes were connected with particular parts of speech: thus, a noun was a part of speech signifying by means of the mode of stability and permanence, whereas a verb was a part of speech signifying the mode of temporal process, detached from the substance (of which it is predicated). The Modistae understood meaning broadly enough to include

formal syntactic relations: this was necessary, since it was the only way to ascribe a class meaning to indeclinable parts of speech. Hence, a conjunction was a part of speech signifying through the mode of joining two other terms and a preposition signified through the mode of syntactic construction with a case inflected word, linking and relating it to an action.

The ideals of “speculative” grammar, somewhat neglected during the early stages of the Renaissance, were later brought back to life by the **Port Royal grammarians** who believed that the same general logical and rational system underlay different languages. Nine classical word classes were distinguished: noun, article, pronoun, particle, preposition, adverb, verb, conjunction and interjection. The first six relate to “the objects” of our thought and the last three to the “form or manner” of our thought. The explanation of the noun/verb difference was modistic in spirit, based on the categories of permanence/transience.

All in all, scientists tried to adjust the patterns, adopted for Latin and Greek vocabulary, to all European languages, even if these languages displayed different structural peculiarities. This gave rise to so-called **universalist grammars** (also known as **prescriptive grammars**). These grammars pursued the goal to follow Latin grammar rules in other languages and literally to *establish* norms for languages. Prescriptive grammars, on the one hand, served right to define what a literary norm was but, on the other hand, their authors denied any language change. A language for universalists represented an entity liable for conservation.

Consequently, a universalist scholar knew beforehand to what part of speech a word would belong, so the scholar’s task was only to make up plausible definitions for these “known-in-advance” word classes. In general, scientists adhered to the following procedure: they singled out morphological (sometimes syntactic) word classes, then they gave these classes names on the basis of their typical translation into the model language (namely Latin). If, as a result of this procedure, several classes turned out to correspond to only one in the model language, these classes were united under one heading. Inadequacy of this approach was particularly obvious when it was applied to *analytical languages*, e.g. English, as Latin had no counterparts for such English words as *the*, *shall*, or the *to* in *to go*.

However, there were attempts to modify the Latin grammar patterns. For example, an important turning point is presented in Beauzee’s *Grammaire generale* (1767) where the adjective is taken as a separate part of

speech. An interesting proposal was made by Petrus Ramus: since the case inflection had largely disappeared from modern languages of his time, he proposed instead to rely on the number inflection. This was an influential proposal and it was followed by some writers of English grammars.

One of the first scientific (in opposition to school) English grammars was composed by **Henry Sweet** and published in 1898. Sweet suggested the division based on the three criteria: *morphological*, *syntactic* and *semantic*. However, this author placed too much emphasis on morphology. Therefore, the first division of English vocabulary was drawn along the line of **declinable** and **indeclinable** words. The further division was carried out according to syntactic functions performed by words. Declinables were further divided into so-called noun-words that include nouns proper, noun (cardinal) numerals, noun-pronouns (e.g. personal, indefinite ones), infinitives and gerunds. The second group is composed of adjective-words: adjectives proper, adjective-pronouns (e.g. possessive ones), adjective-numerals (e.i. ordinal) and participles. Verbs – finite as well as infinite forms – made up the third group. Here the morphological criterion dominated: all non-finite forms, as well as finite ones, had such verbal categories as tense and aspect. As a result, some verbals, namely the infinitive and the gerund, were referred to noun-words due to their syntactic functions, but these very forms appeared to belong to verb-words due to their morphological peculiarities.

As to indeclinables, they presented a so-called “dustbin class”, where diverse elements were chucked away. Here one may find conjunctions, prepositions, modal words and so on.

As we can see, Sweet’s classification is rather inconsistent. Its major division was carried out on the ground of only one, morphological, criterion, whereas the further subcategorization was based on syntactic functions. Sweet’s opponents also pointed out that if the morphological criterion, i.e. declinability and indeclinability, was taken as a basis of the classification, then such different words as *must*, *the*, *for*, *enough* should be grouped together. Meanwhile, the speaker’s intuition says that in these words semantic differences outweigh morphological commonalities (cf. Jespersen).

### 3. Morphological theory in the 20<sup>th</sup>-century Western linguistics

The traditional approach to wordstock classification is in great length criticized in modern British and American linguistic studies. As some schol-

ars state, “the definitions in traditional grammars vary between authors, but they share a vagueness and inconsistency of approach. As David Crystal points out, the general intent behind the traditional definitions is clear enough; but several are insufficiently general to apply to all instances, and the lack of formal detail about their morphology or syntax makes them difficult to apply consistently” (Crystal, 2000). The main criticism is targeted at the definitions that are sometimes either ambiguous or combine various approaches within one and the same classification. Let us analyze some of the most flagrant contradictions and weak points of the definitions common for English school grammars.

DEFINITION	CRITICAL REMARKS
<i>An adjective</i> is a word used to qualify a noun, to restrict the application of a noun by adding something to its meaning <i>E.g.</i> fine, brave	The definition is too broad and vague, as it allows a wide range of elements (e.g. <i>the</i> , <i>my</i> , <i>all</i> ) which have very different grammatical properties, and even nouns in certain types of constructions (e.g. <i>her brother the butcher</i> ) do not seem to be excluded.
<i>A verb</i> is a word used for saying something about some person or thing <i>E.g.</i> make, know, buy, sleep	In this definition, there is little difference between a verb and an adjective. Some grammars prefer to talk about “doing words” or “action words”, but this seems to exclude the many state verbs, such as <i>know</i> , <i>remember</i> , and <i>be</i> .
<i>A conjunction</i> is a word used to join words or phrases together, or one clause to another clause <i>E.g.</i> before, as well as, and	This definition captures the essential point about conjunctions, but it also needs some tightening up, as prepositions might also be said to have a joining function ( <i>the man in the street</i> ). Obviously, a lot depends on exactly what is being joined.

The main problem that becomes obvious when considering parts of speech is criteria of the classification. In the 20<sup>th</sup> century, linguists were mostly concerned with trying to find a balance between different criteria: reordering their successive application, ignoring some, focusing on others. It is the absence of permanent criteria that Hermann Paul pointed out. In his opinion, the parts-of-speech classification adopted in the Indo-European

languages lacks consistent logical principles, it has appeared as a result of attempts to take into account multiple aspects of the problem and is characterized by certain randomness (Пауль, 1960).

The Danish representative of classical scientific grammar of the 20<sup>th</sup> century, **Otto Jespersen**, in *The Philosophy of Grammar* (1924) considers meaning extremely important but the most difficult to work out because, to his mind, it is impossible to ground scientific classification on deceptively short and easily applicable definitions, i.e. Jespersen warns against seeming simplicity and cogency of traditional definitions.

In his book, Jespersen proposes a dual system: together with the description of the traditional parts of speech with their morphological peculiarities and lexical meaning, the linguist analyzes these word classes from the point of view of their functions in syntactic combinations (word combinations and sentences). Certain words may be **primary**, i.e. they may be the core of a word combination or the subject of a sentence. A word may also be **secondary**, i.e. it may modify primary words. Jespersen also distinguishes **tertiary** words, i.e. words subordinated to secondary ones. For example:

<b>furiously</b>	<b>barking</b>	<b>dog</b>
tertiary	secondary	primary

Obviously, Jespersen's approach is one of the first attempts to suggest the classification based on word functions within units higher than a word. However, the morphological classification, syntactic functions and the three ranks constantly overlap each other, intertwine and create superfluous units.

In his classification, Jespersen doubts whether the division between conjunctions and prepositions is justified. He points out that the preposition *of* in *A man of honour* is a connector and it does not differ from a conjunction. Jespersen also believes that there is not much difference between "substance" and "quality", traditionally associated with nouns and adjectives respectively. The scholar claims that these two meanings may be expressed both by nouns and by adjectives. As a result, Jespersen distinguishes the following parts of speech:

- 1) NOUN;
- 2) ADJECTIVE;
- 3) PRONOUN;
- 4) VERB;

- 5) **PARTICLES** (referring to this class all the words which are deprived of a morphological paradigm).

Whereas the first four parts of speech possess three distinctive features, the fifth group is formed only on the ground of morphological indeclinability of these words. The linguist claims that traditional division of "particles" exaggerates their difference and diminishes their obvious similarity. For example, in the sentences *He was in* and *He was in the house* the unit *in* is traditionally regarded as an adverb and a preposition respectively, but this differentiation could be compared to differentiation between the usage of a verb in its intransitive and transitive forms, e.g. *He can sing* vs *He sings a song*.

In such cases as *Before his breakfast* and *Before he had breakfasted* the only difference Jespersen can see is that in the first combination *before* introduces a phrase, whereas in the second – a sentence. However, the scientist feels the need to differentiate between coordinating and subordinating conjunctions and calls the former "coordinating connectors" and the latter – "subordinating connectors". Also, Jespersen does not find it necessary to treat conjunctions, prepositions and adverbs as separate parts of speech.

It is obvious that, though Jespersen claims the application of the three criteria to each part of speech, he turns out to be inconsistent in his own classification because particles are distinguished on the ground of the formal criterion alone.

Representatives of **structuralism** put forward a new classification of parts of speech based of different parameters. Structuralists are well-known for their attempts to study language ignoring semantic properties of language units. The same approach was applied to the structuralist classification of vocabulary: it was built only on syntactic positions, peculiar to language units. **Charles Fries** was the only structuralist linguist who tried to work out a classification of lexico-grammatical word classes on the basis of a consistent criterion (Fries, 1952). In his analysis, the scientist points out that word classes are discernible even in meaningless sentences, e.g. *Woggles ugged diggles*. Clearly, this information is deduced from the position of a word in a sentence and from its form in comparison with other positions and forms. Fries believes that only certain syntactic functions performed by words may be used to refer words to a certain part of speech.

In order to clarify positional classes of English words, Fries chooses a limited number of sentences (so-called *test frames*) and analyzes them to define the main positions characteristic of English words. Within each test

frame, he uses the method of substitution in order to establish which words may function in this position. All the words of the English language that may be placed in this syntactic position constitute a positional class. The following sentences were taken as test frames:

*The good concert was good (always)*

*The clerk remembered the tax (suddenly)*

*The team went there.*

During the analysis, an English word was placed in the first test frame instead of *concert*. All the words that can be used in this position without causing a change of the structural meaning were called Class 1 words.

In the second test frame the word *remembered* was substituted, i.e. words were studied for their ability to function as a predicate. These words acquired the name of Class 2 words.

Class 3 words occupied the position of an adjective, i.e. the position of an attribute in preposition and a predicative, in the first test frame.

The fourth class coincides with traditional adverbs capable of modifying verbs – the position of *always* and *suddenly*.

Besides these four classes, Fries distinguishes 15 groups of function words for which he suggests letter symbols (A, B, C, ...O).

Group A comprises all determiners, i.e. all the words that can perform the functions of the definite article in the first test frame.

Group B contains all the words that can substitute *may* in the test frame *The concert (may) be good*. In other words, it consists of modal and auxiliary words.

Group C is made up by one word only – *not* (treated as negative particle in traditional terminology).

Fries sees Group D as one that comprises all the words that can function in the position of *very* which signal a certain degree of quality and are placed before Class 3 words. It should be pointed out that, to describe this particular group (as well as some others), Fries turns to semantic aspects of language units. While the four classes are distinguished solely on the ground of position, it appears impossible to describe formal words in terms of their position and substitution.

Another drawback of Fries's classification lies in that, it is not, in fact, a classification that the scientist works with. The suggested division appears to be very complicated, the classes and the groups mutually overlap; a word may turn up in several groups.

Still, this approach has several advantages. Firstly, the analysis reveals interesting facts concerning distribution of various word groups, their syntactic valence. Also, a considerable difference has been noticed between formal words and words belonging to the four classes. The four classes contain thousands of items, whereas formal words total 154 units. Moreover, the scientist remarks on frequency of formal words in texts: their occurrence is such that they make up one third of the material studied. Also, it is noteworthy that lexical meaning of class words is easily separated from their structural meaning; in formal words this separation is problematic.

Another structuralist, **Henry Gleason**, criticizes school definitions of parts of speech, grounded on the semantic criterion. However, in doing so, he does not notice that the criticized classification is implicitly based not so much on these definitions but on the three criteria – morphological, syntactic as well as semantic. Gleason puts forward the classification on the ground of the two criteria – syntactic and morphological. He divides the wordstock into two groups. The first one is made up by morphologically changeable words, while the second consists of words deprived of any inflection. Consequently, the first group contains nouns, adjectives, verbs and adverbs. However, complying with the chosen morphological criterion, Gleason excludes from the first group all the words that due to some reason do not have a paradigm. Therefore, in Gleason's classification, the word *beautiful* does not belong to the group of adjectives, because it has no such forms as *\*beautifuler*, *\*beautifullest*.

The second group consists of syntactic classes as well as of words excluded for some reasons from the first group (like the word *beautiful*). Here we find inconsistency because, though *beautiful* is syntactically similar to the first group adjective *nice*, it belongs to a broader group called **adjectivals** that includes adjectives proper as well. The same principle is applied to **pronominals** that make up a broader class than pronouns. Classes whose members may occur in similar syntactic positions form so-called **constituent classes**. Still, Gleason does not provide the reader with its definition or enumeration of constituent classes; it is also not clear whether function-words are included in these classes.

It goes without saying that Gleason's classification is even less systematized than that of Fries's: one and the same word may simultaneously belong to two classes, whereas relations between these classes are left without systematization. However one cannot but notice two positive points in

Gleason's theory. Firstly, he acknowledges the importance of derivational affixes as parts of speech indicators. Secondly, he points out heterogeneous properties of words belonging to a certain lexico-grammatical group. It is this heterogeneity that is used as the ground for the division into broader and finer classes. As a result, some words are recognized as having all the properties of a certain group, whereas in other words these properties are represented only to a certain extent.

Other linguists, **Randolph Quirk, Sydney Greenbaum, Geoffrey Leech and Jan Svartvik**, attempt to synthesize achievements of the traditional and the structural approaches. As a result, their description of interjections is almost identical with the corresponding chapter in *The Philosophy of Language* by Jespersen. Their division of parts of speech into groups is obviously influenced by Fries's division into class words and formal words (Quirk R. et al., 1982).

Quirk, Greenbaum, Leech and Svartvik refer nouns, adjectives, adverbs and verbs to Group 1; articles, demonstrative pronouns (regarded as a separate part of speech), other pronouns, prepositions, conjunctions, interjections – to Group 2. The linguists note that the Group 2 parts of speech are “items of the closed system”, i.e. their number is relatively small and limited, new items are seldom formed. However, the distinction between open and closed word classes must be treated with reservation: a closed class may also get new items but the change takes much more time. As a result, there may be found such new conjunctions as *owing, provided, thanks to*, etc. Quirk, Greenbaum, Leech and Svartvik regard such patterns as “Preposition + Noun + Preposition” as new prepositions (e.g. *by means of, thanks to*). Still, in such parts of speech as pronouns and articles, the neologisms are hardly possible. These “open” and “closed” systems remind of Fries's classes and his “closed groups of formal words”. The difference lies in that Quirk, Greenbaum, Leech and Svartvik draw the division within the general system of traditional parts of speech.

Without defining the categorical meaning of different parts of speech, the authors think it expedient to classify the “open” system in terms of the “Stative – Dynamic” opposition. Within this approach, nouns are classified as words that are stable and stative. Verbs are on the opposite pole as soon as they are characterized as dynamic. However, some verbs, e.g. *to know, to understand, to see*, cannot be used in the progressive tenses and can be called stative. Similar exceptions may also be found among nouns,

some of which are not stative. Within this terminological system, adjectives are mainly characterized as stative, e.g. *tall, red, yellow*. However, the adjectives *naughty, insolent*, denoting actions and behaviour, may resemble verbs. Thus, the grammar by Quirk, Greenbaum, Leech and Svartvik combines traditions of both classical and structuralist linguistics.

**Jack Richards, John Platt and Heidi Weber** also group words into closed and open classes. **Open word classes** (nouns, verbs, adjectives, adverbs, interjections, etc.) offer possibilities for expansion in number through the usual means such as compounding, derivation, coining, borrowing, etc. **Closed classes**, on the contrary, are those to which no new items can normally be added, and those that usually contain a relatively small number of items. In English, these are conjunctions, prepositions, pronouns, determiners, auxiliaries, negative particles, etc. (Richards et al., 1992).

All in all, in modern British and American linguistics there are attempts to improve word classifications, but here the label “**word classes**” is used rather than “parts of speech”, which represents a change in emphasis. Modern linguists are reluctant to use the notional definitions found in traditional grammar – such as a noun being the “name of something”. The vagueness of these definitions has often been criticized: is *beauty* a “thing”? is not the adjective *red* also a “name” of a colour? This alternative approach is based on uniting language units with common features in a separate class. The procedure is carried out with much attention being paid to morphological and combinatorial functions of words. The largest word classes coincide, however, with the following parts of speech: nouns, verbs, adjectives, pronouns, prepositions, articles, conjunctions, and interjections.

#### 4. Morphological classifications in Soviet and post-Soviet linguistics

As we have seen, all the attempts to work out a vocabulary classification based on one criterion only have failed.

The main principles of ancient as well as modern wordstock classifications were explicitly formulated by Russian academician **Lev Shcherba**. These are 1) semantic criterion; 2) morphological criterion, and 3) syntactic criterion. As it has been mentioned, to form a logically impeccable classification, one should stick to only one of them. However, the nature of language units is too complicated to follow logical rules inexorably: even

structuralists, determined to use syntax as the cornerstone, ended up considering morphological aspects as well.

One of the most influential of Soviet linguists, Shcherba, emphasized the great importance of the notion "a part of speech" but at the same time added that the parts-of-speech classification could hardly be called "a scientific one". According to Shcherba, words can be classified in various ways and when parts of speech are concerned, a scientist should not rely on sophisticated, but biased principles; instead, the scientist should look for the classification which is particularly persistently imposed by the language system itself (Щербa, 1974).

Soviet linguists were not unanimous concerning the nature of word-stock division. Academician **Ivan Meshchaninov**, for example, insisted on **syntax as a criterion** for a word classification. On the whole, his hypothesis is formulated in the following way: parts of speech originate from sentence parts which gradually have been acquiring distinctive morphological features (Мещанинов, 1978). Applied to English, these claims become controversial because English is an example of a language in which some morphological categories have been dropped. On the other hand, it is the English language that requires a very rigid sentence structure, which makes syntactic peculiarities of parts of speech much more stable than their morphological features. If we dwell on syntax as criterion, we cannot but notice that there are a number of obstacles preventing the syntactic criterion from being the only one for vocabulary differentiation. Firstly, one and the same word may perform several syntactic functions. Secondly, the syntactic criterion does not identify the status of so-called "function-words" (articles, prepositions, conjunctions, particles). As a result, a number of words end up outside the wordstock classification. This gives grounds to say that the functional aspect of a language unit as a starting point produces a somewhat distorted picture. To avoid this distortion, descriptive structuralists classified words on the basis of their both inflectional and syntactic behaviour and deny the role of meaning in identifying parts of speech (hence their term "form-class", cf. Bloomfield, Hockett).

Taking **lexical meaning as a criterion** also presents a pitfall because it is a challenge to claim a general meaning of a class in such a way that every class member perfectly corresponds the definition. For example, though the noun is generally associated with naming "persons" or "things", it is not

quite clear whether such "nouns" as *motion* and *blackness* should be referred to the former or the latter.

Therefore, in Soviet and now in modern Ukrainian linguistics, parts of speech are traditionally regarded neither as semantic nor syntactic or morphological groups of words, but as **lexico-grammatical classes**. "Lexical" here means "possessing some general lexical meaning" (that of an action or process, person or thing, quality and so on), whereas "grammatical" presupposes common morphological traits, that is, word formation patterns, sharing the same categories (for example, those of case, tense, number). Consequently, the notion of lexico-grammatical classes combines several criteria.

One of the pillars of this approach was academician **Viktor Vinogradov**. He treated parts of speech as "lexico-grammatical classes". In addition to the traditionally recognized eight parts of speech (nouns, adjectives, adverbs, verbs, pronouns, prepositions, conjunctions, and interjections), Vinogradov introduced a new class – the class of modal words – to already recognized ones in the vocabulary classification. Vinogradov also elaborated the views on the particle as a part of speech, dividing particles into several groups, e.g. negative, logical, modal, etc. This modified parts-of-speech classification, based on the Russian language, influenced Soviet linguistics in general, which cannot but change the interpretation of the English language morphology in particular. For example, a number of theoretical grammars distinguished between such new classes as modal words (*certainly, of course, probably, obviously, etc.*), particles (*even, only, too, hardly, etc.*), and statives (*afloat, asleep, adrift, alive, etc.*). However, some linguists do not consider it correct to grant these groups the status of parts of speech. Obviously, this dispute cannot be solved so easily. If one considers the meaning of state to be a particular categorical meaning and not a certain type of quality, one has the right to regard statives as a separate part of speech and not a type of the adjective. On the whole, the less numerous the group is, the more objections to its status as a part of speech appear.

## 5. Field structure of parts of speech

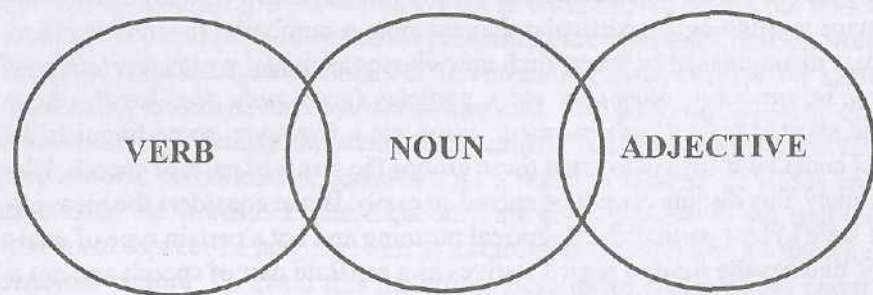
### Parts of speech as discourse-cognitive classes

One cannot but notice that there is no rigid boundary between parts of speech. For example, if one takes numerals, one will arrive at the conclusion

that cardinal numerals are similar to adjectives in their syntactic functions, whereas ordinal numerals obviously have much in common with nouns: they may appear in a sentence as subjects and objects.

In addition, one cannot overlook the problem which arises every time when the semantic criterion is taken as the starting point of the vocabulary classification. Word classes are not as semantically homogeneous as the theory implies. How can such words as *table*, *development*, and *blackness* be squeezed into one and the same class of nouns, if only the first of them fits the classical definition of the noun – both semantically and morphologically. Indeed, of the three, only *table* denotes a thing and has a plural form. The noun *development* denotes a process, which brings it closer to the class of verbs, while the noun *blackness* denotes a quality (that is, colour), common for adjectives, and has no plural.

This complexity of relations between language units within a part of speech, first noticed by Gleason, fits well into the **field theory**. The field theory was first suggested by Jost Trier, Leo Weissgerber and other Western linguists. The concept of the grammatical (or, to be more precise, morphological) field was later put forward by Vladimir Admoni (Адмони, 1968) in his research of the German language and further elaborated by Georgiy Shehur (Шур, 1974).



Proponents of the field theory state that every part of speech may be represented by items endowed with typical qualities – semantic, syntactic, morphological and so on. These words are thought to make up a **nucleus** (or **core**) of this part of speech, whereas the words that have some specific qualities, common for some other parts of speech, form the **periphery**. Thus, such nouns as *table* belong to the nucleus, whereas *development* and

*blackness*, with their peculiar characteristics, belong to the peripheries that overlap with the field of the verb when the noun *development* is concerned, while the noun *blackness* may be placed on the overlapping part of the field of the noun with that of the adjective.

The movement from the core of the stable grammatical behaviour and semantic properties to a more irregular periphery has been called **gradience**. Adjectives may be taken as an example. As a rule, five main criteria are used to identify the central class of English adjectives:

- (A) they occur after forms of *to be*, e.g. *he is sad*;
- (B) they occur after articles and before nouns, e.g. *the big car*;
- (C) they occur after *very*, e.g. *very nice*;
- (D) they occur in the comparative or superlative form, e.g. *sadder/saddest, more/most impressive*;
- (E) they occur before *-ly* to form adverbs, e.g. *quickly*.

We can now use these criteria to test how much like an adjective a word is. In the matrix below, candidate words are listed on the left, and the five criteria are along the top. Here, *sad*, for instance, is clearly an adjective. One finds absolutely appropriate such forms and phrases as *he is sad*, *the sad girl*, *very sad*, *sadder/saddest*, *sadly*. The last word in the list, *want*, is nothing like an adjective because it has none of the listed peculiarities.

The pattern in the diagram below is of course wholly artificial because it depends on the way which criteria are placed in sequence, but it does help to show the gradual nature of the changes as one moves away from the core adjective, represented by *sad*. Some adjectives, it seems, are more adjective-like than others.

	A	B	C	D	E
sad	+	+	+	+	+
old	+	+	+	+	–
top	+	+	+	–	–
two	+	+	–	–	–
asleep	+	–	–	–	–
want	–	–	–	–	–

The very notion of periphery is quite complicated. Contrary to the classical field structures in physics, the grammatical field structure has unevenly represented periphery sectors. The distance of these sectors from the centre is defined in terms of properties that their lexical units share with the core.

Besides, some part of the periphery may overlap with two or more other parts of speech.

The modern state of cognitive science has resulted in the hypothesis put forward by Russian linguist Elena Kubryakova. She suggested considering parts of speech as **discourse-cognitive classes** of words rather than lexicogrammatical ones. The cognitive approach presupposes that a language (and language units in particular) is a phenomenon, determined not by reality itself, but by its reflection in the human mind. In other words, language units are representations of reality and its elements in human brain. Words are our "interpretations" of reality. Phenomena of reality are processed by human consciousness. Accordingly, different aspects of reality correspond to different structures in human mind. This fact stares anyone in the face if one ever bothers to give a thought to the reasons for forming such words as, for example, *to pencil*, *to outhollywood*, *to overfootnote* or *teachable*. Clearly, conversion in the first case is the shortest and most effective way to express both the action and the instrument with which the action was performed. With *to outhollywood* and *to overfootnote*, the speaker tries to express a "complex situation", and again s/he chooses to shorten the phrases "to emulate Hollywood movie industry and to succeed in imitation" and "to supply the text with too many footnotes" by using derivational means. The same may be said about the word *teachable*: in order to express something from her/his experience, i.e. the results of her/his cognitive process, the speaker, depending on a particular discourse requirements, manipulates language means and forms either verbs from nouns, or adjectives from verbs. For the speaker, these words are the most compact ways to deliver her/his particular interpretation, her/his vision of a particular situation.

This theory explains the difference between the adjective *black* and the noun *blackness* that both share an attributive meaning. If we take parts of speech as discourse-cognitive classes, we may refer to the noun *blackness* as a hybrid form, in which the primary stem "black", that is qualitative in meaning, coexists with the meaning of a thing, characteristic of nouns. Thus, when a sign is introduced into a new part of speech, it means that this sign is used to express one of the categorical meanings of the part of speech. In other words, this is the result of the interplay of communicative factors (Кубрякова, 1997).

The discourse-cognitive model makes the idea of the language as a field structure somewhat more accurate. To discern commonalities in a limited number of objects is much easier than to claim that there are commonalities shared by all the elements of a given category. In the case of the discourse-cognitive theory, elements of a category are regarded not as "equal", "identical" (as the classical logical approach would require) but as "similar", which goes along the lines of psychological and anthropological peculiarities of cognition. Discourse-cognitive classes are not constituted by "typical" and "periphery" elements. The theory considers each element within a certain class to be a "variant" of its ideal representative. At the same time, the ideal representative does not exist in reality – the notion of such a representative may be derived only after a thorough analysis of all the existent representatives of the class. This organization of a class is called **prototypical** and the ideal representative is referred to as a **prototype**.

Thus, the absence of rigid boundaries between word classes receives consistent interpretation. This approach also explains the phenomenon of **hyponymy** (or **class migration**), i.e. the process when a word may be used in the functions peculiar to some other part of speech. Let us take, for example, typical English word combination *a stone wall* or *a flower garden*. Here, it is difficult to say whether the words *stone* and *flower* are adjectives formed by means of conversion or nouns used in the attributive function of the adjective. Class migration may take a long time. As a rule, a word starts being used in a function of some other part of speech and develops a new meaning. Later there appear two independent words. Examples of such words are *just* (adverb, particle) and *since* (adverb, preposition and conjunction).

## 6. Lexical and functional parts of speech

The problem of different values of certain word classes is one of the issues widely discussed in linguistics. Emilia Morokhovskaya suggests dividing words (or parts of speech) into lexical and functional. In this book, we will stick to these terms and use the terms "lexical words" and "function-words" alongside of "lexical parts of speech" and "functional parts of speech."

**Lexical parts of speech** are linguistic signs that possess denotative ability. They are names of extralingual objects and phenomena: *a door*, *a state*, *to create*, *bright*, *directly*, etc. Their nominative character enables them to



perform various syntactic functions in a sentence, i.e. they may function as a sentence part and represent the nucleus of a word combination. Thus, both lexical and syntactic criteria are equally applied when lexical words are contrasted to so-called **functional parts of speech** (sometimes referred to as **functional words, function-words or grammatical words**). The morphological criterion is applied to lexical words alone, since inflections are characteristic exclusively of these parts of speech. However, some lexical words may be deprived of inflections, so one cannot fully rely on morphology in this type of wordstock division.

**Function-words** do not denote any object, concept, quality, or action. In other words, they do have a specific meaning, different from that of lexical words. For example, such words as *of, and, since, the* cannot express the subject of one's thought because these words do not name separate concepts. Function-words are used to mark certain types of relation between lexical words, word combinations and sentences. Function-words may also specify grammatical meaning of lexical words: *the bend in the road, villages and cities, a village, the city*. Function-words possess **significative ability**. They are signifiers of general conceptual notions. The significative character of function-words is obvious. This results from their function of signification, i.e. the representation of general conceptual notions (categories) not in the way of nominating but by signifying or marking them grammatically. These word classes function to signify conceptual categories, to form up language units in their relationships or to provide orientation in speech situations. Articles, for example, are indicators of a category, peculiar to the English noun, namely, definiteness or indefiniteness. Prepositions, for example, signify spatial or temporal relations. Conjunctions mark logical relations (coordination, disjunction, implication etc.) between sentence parts or clauses in compound and complex sentences. In other words, the speaker distinguishes some logical relation between the situations or parts of a situation and expresses this relation by means of conjunctions. Particles in their turn explicate logical relations between certain components of communication. For example, in the sentence *Jack loved her. He even married her* the particle *even* correlates the two actions – to love and to marry – and marks the implication that *To love does not always mean marrying; that for some reasons Jack was not expected to marry her*. It should be noted that, with particles, units larger than a sentence may be involved. Moreover, particles

may appeal to the audience's background knowledge for correlation. In the sentence *Only the company employees are invited to the party*, the speaker, using the particle, implies that outsiders and members of the employees' families are excluded from the guest list. Interestingly, the correlation between these persons is established without even naming them – the particle activates the possible oppositions in our background knowledge.

There used to be disputes as to the status of function-words. For example, some linguists denied their status as words: "There are serious doubts whether function words can be called *words*. It is known that function-words are devoid of the main peculiarity of a word – of referential meaning..." (Супник, 1968). Supporters of this point of view think that function-words help speakers to indicate certain abstract relations; these relations, however, are too abstract and general which brings function-words closer to morphemes rather than notional words. These scientists also point out that function-words are weakened phonetically against the background of the following accented lexical word.

Even if the existence of function-words is recognized, it appears a controversial issue to define a certain part of speech in terms of the "lexical – function" dichotomy. Nouns, verbs, adjectives and adverbs undoubtedly represent lexical words. The majority of scholars do not question such groups as prepositions and conjunctions (though some linguists, e.g. Jespersen, doubt whether differentiation between them is justified). On the other hand, there is no unanimity among scientists as to the status of modal words; the boundary between particles is also not quite clear and varies with authors; some researchers find it disputable to grant the article the part-of-speech status; some linguists do not agree to treat a so-called postpositive as a part of speech. However, the majority recognizes prepositions, conjunctions, particles and articles as separate parts of speech.

In conclusion, it is necessary to warn against mixing up function-words and auxiliary words. Auxiliaries belong to lexical parts of speech but under certain conditions they lose their lexical meaning and preserve only their grammatical function. Auxiliary verbs are probably the best example to illustrate this peculiarity. These verbs are capable of conveying their own lexical meaning;

*I have a new car.*

They also may lose their lexical meaning:

*I have sold my car.*

In the second example, the verb *have* does not turn into a function but into an auxiliary word.

## Chapter II

### Lexical parts of speech

#### NOUN

##### 1. Grammatical meaning

The noun as a part of speech has the categorical meaning of “substance” or “thingness”. “Thingness” is a grammatical meaning that permits names of abstract notions, actions, and qualities to function in the same way with names of objects and living beings. Nouns may be derived from verbs and adjectives by various derivational means and in doing so names of states, properties, and actions can be syntactically parallel to names of things and concepts. This process can be observed with the nouns *blackness*, *development*, *activity*. These words are defined as **syntactic derivatives** (Иванова и др., 1981). As it has been mentioned above, morphologically syntactic derivatives may lack some typical nounal properties, e.g. the nouns *blackness* and *development* are characterized by deficient paradigms with plural forms missing.

Obviously, names of many “substances” are related to their “properties”, which provides the ground to claim that names of substance and names of properties cannot be separated. One may take such words as *eatables*, *a desert*, *a plain* that are treated as nouns. This observation leads Jespersen to the conclusion that, linguistically, the difference between “substance” and “property” cannot be important (the scientist also points out that another term for “noun” – “substantive” – is related etymologically to “substance”). From the point of view of philosophy, it can hardly be doubted that we cognize substances by cognizing their properties; the essence of any substance is made up by all its properties that may be perceived or cognized as inter-related.

##### 2. Morphemic structure

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

The suffixational structure is found mainly in two large groups: in personal nouns and in abstract nouns. On the whole, nouns may be derived by means of the following suffixes: *-age*, *-ance/ence*, *-ant/ent*, *-dom*, *-ee*, *-eer*, *-er*, *-ess*, *-hood*, *-ing*, *-ion/sion/tion/ation*, *-ism/icism*, *-ist*, *-ment*, *-ness*, *-ship*, *-(i)ty*. However, only some of them may be called productive in modern English. For instance, personal nouns tend to be derived by means of the suffixes *-er*, *-ist*, *-ess*, *-ee* (e.g. *interpreter*, *economist*, *poetess*, *trainee*), whereas abstract nouns are, as a rule, coined by adding the suffixes *-ness*, *-ion* (*-ation*, *-ition*), *-ity*, *-ism*, *-ance* and *-ment* (e.g. *kindness*, *appreciation*, *prohibition*, *solidarity*, *opportunism*, *allowance*, *movement*).

It is also noteworthy that colloquial English abounds with conversion, e.i. words of other parts of speech that acquire syntactic and morphological properties of nouns in speech. As a rule, this transposition remains occasional and does not become a regular occurrence:

*She's thought of renovating him and about the before and after, but not about seeing him walk off with the girl in the crosswalk.* [Goldsmith, p. 94]

Women like a bit of a *to-do* in their lives, *don't they?* [Calman, p. 23]

In the examples above the prepositions and the infinitive are used with the noun indicators – the definite and the indefinite articles respectively. These occasional cases of conversion may be regarded as arguments corroborating the theory of parts of speech as discourse-cognitive classes.

##### 3. Subcategorization of nouns

###### 3.1. Semantic classification

Almost any part of speech may undergo further differentiation into subgroups. One of the traditional categorizations of the noun consists of the two large classes – **proper nouns** and **common nouns**. It should be noted that proper nouns have been usually overlooked by linguists, since their lexical meaning is difficult to investigate. Both philosophers and linguists could not

arrive at a unanimous conclusion. Philosophers claim that, in comparison with common nouns, proper nouns have no semantic meaning. This statement was quite convincingly supported by the following example. If one sees in a cage two identical animals and one knows that one of the animals is a tiger, then, if the second animal does not in any way differ from the first, one may absolutely correctly call the second animal "tiger". However, if one knows that one of the tigers is called Stripy, it does not at all mean that the second tiger's name is also Stripy. In other words, a common noun may be used with certain regularity, conditioned by its lexical meaning, whereas a proper noun is not characterized by this predictable regularity. Despite this rather convincing argument, it is not sufficient to deny entirely a lexical meaning of proper nouns. The given example proves only that semantic content of common and proper nouns is different. Many modern linguists share this point of view. For instance, the proper nouns *Andrew, Andreas, Ανδριϊϋ* convey information concerning nationalities of the persons; the proper nouns *Peter* and *Sarah* indicate the sex difference.

A grammatical subcategorization of proper nouns also appears to be possible. From this viewpoint, in Modern English proper nouns fall into two groups: 1) nouns that are used without any article, and 2) nouns that may function both with and without an article. For example, the definite article with a family name in plural signifies reference to the whole family. Some geographical names (toponyms) may be used with or without the definite article depending on geographical objects they name, e.g. *the Missouri* refers to the river, *Missouri* – to a state. Obviously, in this case adequate understanding is greatly influenced by presence or absence of the article.

A further differentiation of common nouns is also based on semantics. Here, four classes are distinguished: 1) **class** nouns, 2) **collective** nouns, 3) nouns of **material**, and 4) **abstract** nouns.

**Class nouns** denote persons or things belonging to a class. These nouns are countable: *shop, table, tree*.

**Collective nouns** (or **nouns of multitude**) denote a number or collection of similar individuals or things regarded as a single unit: *police, machinery, people, cattle, family, nation, fasherati, journalati, glitterati* (young and successful), *the Establishment/the Overclass* (politicians, business people, officials), *smackerati* (celebrities who became drug addicts), *jazzzerati* (jazz musicians).

**Nouns of material** denote various substances and are usually uncountable: *iron, tea, paper, wine*.

It is difficult to define **abstract nouns**, as the criteria for this division are rather vague. As a rule, abstract nouns are said to denote some quality, state, action or idea, therefore abstract nouns must be by definition uncountable: *kindness, fight, time*. However, English grammar establishes lax requirements to abstract nouns. As a result, this group also includes such countable nouns as, for example, *idea*.

Besides the classification mentioned above, it is necessary to consider the classification based on the **semantic volume** of nouns. The vast majority of nouns is comprised of words similar to *man, state, house, river*, etc. that have a definite lexical meaning and denote a definite type of entities, persons, concepts and so on. These words are opposed to words that acquire a lexical meaning within a certain context, whereas without a context they are deprived of any lexical content. The noun *thing* belongs to this group as well as its colloquial variants *thingamajig, thingamabob, thingummy* and *thingumibob*. Any of these so-called **general** nouns can function as a countable non-animate noun (Nunan, 1993). As a rule, they occur in speech to replace a word that the speaker has never known or forgets at the moment of speaking. In other words, the meaning of these nouns is always revealed in context:

A: Did you try the steamed buns?

B: Yes, I didn't like the things much.

Some linguists believe that the noun *thing* is semantically empty. According to this point of view, *thing* and its variants perform the function of substitution, as these nouns are used not to name a certain entity but to fill in a nounal position in a syntactic pattern.

### 3.2. Formal classification

There may also be a subcategorization of common nouns that uses the grammatical category of number as a criterion. This subcategorization is also called a **formal subcategorization**. This approach divides common nouns into **count nouns** (or **countables**) and **mass nouns** (or **uncountables**). This differentiation is intrinsically oriented to extralingual reality as countables, as a rule, denote discrete things and, on the whole, there is a predictable correspondence between actual "discreteness" of entities and

the ability of the nouns to have the opposition “singular vs plural”. Nevertheless, some nouns present stumbling blocks for this classification. It turns out that a number of nouns, naming structurally similar entities, entities, have different linguistic properties:

uncountable	countable
wheat	oats
shingle	pebbles
rice	peas

The noun *oats* appears to be special in that, despite its plural form, it agrees with verbs like nouns in singular, as it does not collocate with numerals (the collocation \**five oats* is impossible in English). It is also used with *much* instead of *many*, e.g. *much oats*.

There have been a number of attempts to explain discrepancies in the use of grammatical forms of nouns denoting food. Anna Wierzbicka, for instance, divides objects into three classes: small (*rice, wheat*), medium (*cucumbers, apples*), and big (*cabbage, lettuce*). The boundary of these classes is described by the phrase “handful”, or “eating whole”. For example, one may hold in the hand many small objects and only one medium, whereas big objects are too big to hold them on the palm, so they are usually cut into pieces (slices, etc.). As a result, the names of small-size food (cereals, etc.) are represented in the language by uncountables, as well as names of big food products. Nouns denoting medium-size objects are, as a rule, countable and have both singular and plural forms (Wierzbicka, 1988).

Lyashevskaya, in her analysis of the number category in Russian, puts forward a different hypothesis. She considers that the grammatical form of number results from homogeneity of a food product (Ляшевская, 2004). The linguist points out that such edible roots as *морковка, свёкла* (usually eaten chopped and cooked (boiled), e.i. eaten as a shapeless substance) belong to the class different from that of the nouns similar to *яблоки*. In culinary contexts, these nouns are usually uncountable: *я съел много морковки/свёклы* (compare Ukr. *я з'їв багато моркви/буряку*, Engl. *Put some apple in the salad*). Thus, the speaker perceives these food products as a homogeneous whole but not as separate items. However, Lyashevskaya admits that, besides the factor of homogeneity, there are a number of other factors that influence the ability of nouns to be used as countables or uncountables.

These factors may be shape (names of shapeless foods are usually uncountable, e.g. *jam, meat, curry*, whereas names of foods with some covering or shell are countable, e.g. *dumplings, sausages*); stereotypic ways of gathering certain food products may also contribute to grammatical properties of corresponding nouns (e.g. *mushrooms* – picked up one by one, as discrete objects). Obviously the final and complete explanation of all these nuances is yet to come.

#### 4. Grammatical categories

The history of English provides an example of nounal categories withering away. In Old English there were four cases (nominative, accusative, genitive and dative) plus a vestigial instrumental. The cases in Old English were only weakly differentiated, with more differentiation in the demonstrative pronoun than in the noun. The Old English case paradigms were strikingly similar to those of German, whether old or modern, but while German has lost only the instrumental from Old High German to modern German, English lost almost the entire system between the late tenth and thirteenth centuries.

Two phonological changes destroyed the case system. One was the reduction of unstressed vowels to the schwa. The other was the loss of word-final *-n* in inflections. Virtually the only forms to survive these changes were the endings in *-s*, the genitive singular of nouns in the general masculine and neuter classes and the nominative-accusative plural of nouns in the general masculine class. Both these forms expanded on all paradigms by the end of the Middle English period. The loss of inflection entailed the loss of grammatical gender.

The almost ultimate elimination of case in English has resulted in the use of prepositions so that all adverbial relations have to be expressed with the help of prepositions.

##### 4.1. Gender

In a language, the category of gender must be strictly oppositional. In other words, it should consist of at least two members of the opposition. The classical gender opposition contains three members: **masculine** gender, **feminine** gender and **neuter** (the third is missing in some languages, as it is the case in Italian). The opposition also presupposes that a noun may be classified as belonging either to masculine or feminine or neuter.

The majority of scientists believe that the grammatical category of gender had disappeared from the English language by the end of the Middle English period. What has survived the time is the possibility of lexical indication of the biological sex. Means that provide this indication are purely lexical or derivational, e.g. *boy – girl, cock – hen, bull – cow, waiter – waitress, lion – lioness, landlord – landlady, he-goat – she-goat*.

Replacement of nouns by pronouns, marking the biological sex (*he, she*) or the inanimate nature (*it*), may be interpreted by proponents of the gender category in English as an argument in favour of their position. However, the argument appears misleading since in this case the pronominal property of gender differentiation is obviously transferred onto nouns that lack this property. Moreover, the choice between *he, she* or *it* is also lexically determined and is not related to grammar. Besides, such a noun as *dog* may be substituted either for *he* or *she* or *it*, and here the key factor will be not a noun as such but the speaker's subjective attitude to the dog. Similar subjective attitude may turn inanimate nouns into *he* or *she*. This kind of personification is either a stylistic device or a phenomenon regulated in everyday language by cultural-historical traditions. Compare, for example, in English, the reference of *she* with the names of countries, vehicles, weaker animals, etc.; the reference of *he* with the names of stronger animals, the names of phenomena suggesting crude strength and fierceness, etc.

Contrary to English, the purely grammatical gender in German, Italian, Ukrainian or other languages is a formal feature of nouns, arbitrary by nature: e.g. German *das Glas* (neuter), Italian *il bicchiere* (masculine) and Ukrainian *склянка* (feminine). It also should be borne in mind that in these languages the gender of a noun requires corresponding agreement of adjectives, pronouns and articles accompanying the noun. No such processes are observed in English. It thus seems justified to restrict the term "gender" to the languages that have precise and mutually exclusive noun classes marked by clear formal markers.

It should be emphasized that the current tendency to avoid gender suffixes (e.g. *-ess, -ette, -woman, -man, -lady, -lord*), peculiar to Modern English, decreases the number of words with "lexical gender". Such words (usually denoting professions) are replaced by neologisms with no sex indication: *stewardess – flight attendant, cameraman – videographer/camera operator, policeman – police officer, chairman – chair*, etc.

## 4.2. Number

The category of number in English, like in most other languages, is expressed by the opposition of the plural form of the noun to the singular form.

The singular form coincides with the basic form of a noun, whereas the plural form is expressed by means of the formant *-s (-es)* in writing. Pronunciation of the formant may have the following variants (allomorphs): [s] after a voiceless consonant (*books, carrots*), [z] after a voiced consonant or a vowel (*smiles, tomatoes*), and [ɪz] after sibilant and fricative consonants (*cases, bushes*). This is a so-called productive model of plural. It may also be defined as an open model, since neologisms usually follow this pattern in their paradigm.

There are other, non-productive ways of expressing the "singular – plural" opposition. A number of nouns, following this pattern, is limited to several archaisms and borrowings from other languages. These patterns may be divided into the four groups:

- (a) nouns with a vowel interchange in several relict forms (*man – men, woman – women, tooth – teeth*);
- (b) nouns with the archaic affix *-(e)n* in the plural form (*ox – oxen*). It should be mentioned that sometimes the use of suffix is supported by phonemic interchange in a couple of relict forms (*child – children, cow – kine, brother – brethren*). In addition, some modern computer terms may follow this pattern, e.g. *boxen, vaxen, matrixen*. Some scholars predict a further increase of this usage given that many computer names end in *-x* (Crystal, 2002);
- (c) nouns of Latin, Greek or French origin that preserve their Latin, Greek or French plural forms. The following plural infixes may be found in borrowings: *-i* (*focus – foci, cactus – cacti, fungus – fungi*), *-a* (*stratum – strata, medium – media, phenomenon – phenomena*), *-ae* (*formula – formulae, antenna – antennae*). In a limited number of borrowed nouns there is a vowel interchange in the ending *-is*, e.g. *axis – axes, crisis – crises*. Here are some plural forms of non-assimilated borrowings from French: *beau – beaux, bureau – bureaux, madam – Mesdames*. Mention should be made that there is a steady tendency to use regular English plural forms of nouns foreign in origin. Through the natural process of assimilation some borrowed nouns have developed parallel native forms, as in *formulas, antennas, terminuses, focuses, stratum*s;
- (d) in some cases the plural form of the noun is homogeneous with the singular form (*sheep, swine, deer, fish*).

The meaning of singular and plural seems to be quite obvious, namely "one – more than one". This is apparently obvious for such correlations as *book – books, lake – lakes*. However, there exist plurals and singulars that cannot be fully accounted for by this ready-made approach. Though plural and singular nouns are regarded as opposite, this opposition may become neutralized. Firstly, singular nouns may be used to express plural: *trees in leaf, to have a keen eye*. This is a so-called stylistic transposition that exemplify synecdoche – the simplest case of metonymy in grammar. Secondly, the plural form, in its turn, may express size differentiation (*heavens, sands, woods*) defined as stylistic usage for the sake of picturesqueness, as well as various types of the referent (*wipes, teas, cheeses*), intensity of the presentation of the idea (*thousands upon thousands, years and years*), or the opposition "class – subclass" (*fish – fishes, fruit – fruits*).

The extreme point of this semantic scale is marked by lexicalization of the plural form, i.e. by its serving as a means of rendering purely notional meaning. Cf:

*colour (tint) – colours (flag)*  
*custom (habit) – customs (duties)*  
*pain (suffering) – pains (effort)*  
*quarter (a fourth part) – quarters (lodgings)*

It should also be noted that some scholars distinguish the third member of the number opposition. Proponents of this point of view claim that the meaning of collective nouns may presuppose either a plurality or a unit and, respectively, collective nouns may be followed by verbs either in plural or in singular: *The government has approved of the reform*. Cf. *The government are unlikely to work out a solution to the problem*. Consequently, this may be brought as an argument in favour of a special status of these nouns. Some linguists call them **doubly countables**. This double-sidedness of collective nouns weakens the number opposition in English (Раевська, 1967).

As it has been noted above, nouns are divided into countables and uncountables. The constant categorical feature "quantitative structure" is directly connected within the variable feature "number", since uncountable nouns are treated grammatically as either singular or plural. Namely, the singular uncountable nouns are modified by the non-discrete quantifiers *much* or *little*, and they take the finite verb in the singular, while the plural uncountable nouns take the finite form in the plural.

The two subclasses of uncountable nouns are usually referred to, respectively, as **singularia tantum** (only singular) and **pluralia tantum** (only plural).

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

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

*It was a joy to see her. The best sweet wines are produced in Cyprus.*

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

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

*Have we got chicken for the second course?*

Under this heading comes also the generic use of the singular:

*Man's immortality lies in his deeds.*

In the sphere of the plural, the absolute plural form, peculiar to the uncountable subclass of **pluralia tantum** nouns, cannot directly combine with numerals, and only occasionally does it combine with discrete quantifiers (*many, few*).

The absolute plural is characteristic of the uncountable nouns which denote objects consisting of two halves (*trousers, scissors, tongs, spectacles*), the nouns expressing some sort of collective meaning, i.e. rendering the idea of indefinite plurality, both concrete and abstract (*supplies, outskirts*,

*clothes, earnings, contents, police, cattle, poultry*), the nouns denoting some diseases as well as some abnormal states of the mind and body (*measles, mumps, creeps, hysterics*).

The necessity of expressing definite members in cases of uncountable pluralia tantum nouns has brought about different suppletive combinations specific to the plural form of the noun, which exist alongside of the suppletive combinations specific to the singular form of the noun shown above. Here belong collocations with such words as *pair, set, group, bunch: a pair of bathing trunks, a group of police, a set of dice, a case of measles*.

### 4.3. Case

#### 4.3.1. Case in traditional grammar

The western tradition of describing case systems can be traced back to the Greeks. Ancient Greek, like the other "older" Indo-European languages, was a fusional inflecting language in which case marking could not be separated from number marking, where there was also some fusion of the stem and inflection, and where gender correlated closely with a declensional type. Given this kind of structure, it is not surprising that the Greek descriptions of case were based on the word order rather than on stems and suffixes.

In modern linguistics **case** is defined as a morphological category of the noun manifested in the forms of noun declension and showing the relations of the noun referent to other objects and phenomena. In other words, the term **case** refers traditionally to inflectional marking, and, typically, case marks the relationship of a noun to a verb at the clause level or of a noun to a preposition, postposition or another noun at the phrase level.

One of the distinctions that goes back to the Greeks is that between the **nominative** and the other cases, collectively the **oblique cases**. The term nominative means "naming"; the nominative case is the case used outside constructions, the case used in isolation. In most languages the nominative bears no marking, but consists of the bare stem; it owes its status as nominative to the existence of marked cases. The distinguishing feature of the nominative for the Greeks was that it was the only form that could encode the subject of a predicate. One view is that the nominative represents the noun as a "concept pure and simple" (A. – C. Juret), that the nominative form is the case of pure reference (W. de Groot). Louis Hjelmslev repudiated the nominative-oblique distinction, but described the nominative as a form

that could only be defined negatively. Behind all these views lies the notion that the nominative simply denoted an entity not a relation between an entity and a predicate.

However, though we have noted above that the nominative is the case used in naming outside syntax, one may find oblique cases (namely the accusative) used in isolation and metalinguistically. Here, one cannot but mention the use of the oblique forms of English pronouns: *Who's there? – Me*.

#### 4.3.2. Category of case in modern English grammars

In Modern English the problem of case is reduced to the dispute whether the case category exists as such. Open to thought and questioning, this problem has always been much debated. The solution of the problem depends mainly on grammarians' interpretation of the term "case". As we will see below, some scholars consider it to be possible to speak only of case as a paradigm of a word formed by synthetic markers, i.e. by endings. Other scientists believe that the term "analytical case" is justified: analytical cases are formed by prepositions introducing a noun.

This category is expressed in English by the opposition of the form –'s, usually called the **possessive case**, or more traditionally, the **genitive case**, to the unfeatured form of the noun, usually called the **common case**. The apostrophized –s serves to distinguish in writing the singular noun in the possessive case from the plural noun in the common case: *the man's duty, the President's decision*. The possessive of the bulk of plural nouns remains phonetically unexpressed: the few exceptions concern only some of the irregular plurals: *the actresses' dresses, the mates' help, the children's room*.

Functionally, the forms of the English nouns designated as "case forms" relate to one another in an extremely peculiar way. The peculiarity is that the common form is absolutely indefinite from the semantic point of view, whereas the possessive form is restricted to the functions which have a parallel expression by prepositional constructions. Thus, the common form, as appears from the presentation, is also capable of rendering the possessive semantics, which makes the whole of the possessive case into a kind of subsidiary element in the grammatical system of the English noun. This feature stamps English noun declension as something utterly different from every conceivable declension in principle. In fact, the inflectional oblique case forms as normally and imperatively expressing the immediate functional

parts of the ordinary sentence in "noun-declensional" languages do not exist in English at all.

So there is no wonder that in the course of linguistic investigation the category of case in English has become one of the vexed problems of theoretical discussion.

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

The first view may be called the "theory of positional cases". This theory is directly connected with the old grammatical tradition, and its traces can be seen in many contemporary school textbooks in the English-speaking countries. Linguistic formulations of this theory may be found in the works of Nesfield, Deutschbein, Bryant and others.

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

Nominative (subject)	<i>Rain falls</i>
Vocative (address)	<i>Will you be there, Ann?</i>
Dative (indirect object)	<i>I gave Ann a book.</i>
Accusative (direct object or prepositional object)	<i>They killed a bear.</i> <i>They broke the window with a stone.</i>

The blunder of this theory is that it substitutes the functional characteristics of the part of the sentence for the morphological features of the word class, whereas the case form, by definition, is a variable morphological form of the noun. What this theory does prove is that the functional meanings rendered by cases can be expressed in language by other grammatical means, in particular, by word-order.

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

In accord with the prepositional theory, combinations of nouns with prepositions in certain object and attributive collocations should be understood as morphological case forms. To these belong first of all the "dative"

case (*to + N, for + N*) and the possessive case (*of + N*). These prepositions are inflectional prepositions, i.e. grammatical elements equivalent to case forms. The would-be prepositional cases are generally taken as coexisting with positional cases, together with the classical inflectional genitive completing the case system of the English noun. The prepositional theory, though somewhat better grounded than the positional theory, nevertheless can hardly pass a serious linguistic trial. In other languages all prepositions do require definite cases of nouns (prepositional case-government). It should follow from this that not only the *of, to* and *for*-phrases but also all other prepositional phrases in English must be regarded as "analytical" cases. As a result of this approach, illogical redundancy in terminology would arise: each prepositional phrase would bear then another, additional name of "prepositional case", the total number of the "said" cases running into dozens upon dozens without any gain either to theory or practice.

Besides, prepositions may have various meanings depending on the context, which makes it possible for a preposition to correlate with several cases. For example, in English the preposition *by*, formerly a purely local form (*He stood by the window*) came to acquire a sense of means or instrument. The *Oxford English Dictionary* suggests that this preposition acquired its instrumental sense via expressions such as *She read by candlelight* where the *by*-phrase, originally a locative (Where did she read?), was reinterpreted as instrumental (How did she read it?). It is not hard to find situations that allow a locative or instrumental interpretation and which could facilitate a locative or instrumental form adopting both functions. Here are some examples: *wash the cloth in/with water, cook meat on/in/with fire, come on/by horse*.

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

The limited case theory is based on the explicit oppositional approach to the recognition of grammatical categories. In the system of the English case the functional mark is defined, which differentiates the two case forms: the *possessive* or *genitive form* as the strong member of the categorial opposition and the *common*, or "non-genitive" form as the weak member of



the categorical opposition. The opposition is shown as being effected in full with animate nouns, though a restricted use with inanimate nouns is also taken into account.

We have considered the three theories which, if at basically different angles, proceed from the assumption that the English noun does distinguish the grammatical case in its functional structure. However, another view of the problem of the English noun cases has been put forward which sharply counters the theories hitherto observed. This view approaches the English noun as having completely lost the category of case in the course of its historical development. All the nominal cases, including the much spoken of genitive, are considered as extinct, and the lingual unit that is named the genitive case by force of tradition, would be in reality a combination of a noun with a preposition (i.e. a relational word with the preposition-like function). This view, advanced by Vorontsova, may be called the **theory of the possessive postposition (postpositional theory)**.

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

First, the postpositional element -'s is but loosely connected with the noun, which finds the clearest expression in its use not only with a single noun, but also with whole word-groups of various status: *the man we saw yesterday's daughter, the man over there's dog*.

Second, there is an indisputable parallelism of functions between the possessive postpositional constructions and the prepositional constructions, resulting in the optional use of the former: *the daughter of the man we saw yesterday*.

However rigorously this theory observes the lingual data, still one can't but acknowledge that the noun form in -'s is systematically, i.e. on strictly structural-functional basis, contrasted against the unfeatured form of the noun, which does turn the whole correlation of the noun forms into a grammatical category of case-like order, however specific it might be. Thus, within the expression of the possessive in English, two subtypes are to be recognized: the first (principal) is the word possessive; the second (of a minor order) is the phrase possessive.

As the basic arguments for the recognition of the noun form in -'s in the capacity of grammatical case, besides the oppositional nature of the general

functional correlation of the featured and unfeatured forms of the noun, we will name the following two.

Firstly, the broader phrasal uses of the postpositional -'s display a clearly expressive stylistic colouring; they are stylistically marked which fact proves their transpositional nature. According to the data obtained by Khaimovich and Rogovskaya, the -'s sign is attached to individual nouns in as many as 96 % of its total textual occurrence.

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

As for the fact that the "possessive postpositional construction" is correlated with a parallel prepositional construction, it only shows the functional peculiarity of the form, but cannot disprove its case-like nature, since cases of nouns in general render much the same functional semantics as prepositional phrases.

Speaking of the possessive case, it is necessary to mention some restrictions on its use. Nouns in the possessive case perform only one function in a sentence - that of an attribute. In other words, the possessive case may only appear in a noun+noun phrase. However, the common case may also be used in this function. Semantic difference between these syntactically identical forms is quite obvious: the possessive case expresses an individual characteristic, whereas the common case denotes the result of generalization - a peculiarity of a class. Therefore animate nouns are typically associated with the possessive case: *Shakespeare's sonnets, Austen's novels*. This is the reasons for the use of a person's name in the common case: *the Shakespeare National Theatre, the Austen manner*. The possessive in these phrases expresses generalized qualities, taken in abstraction from the persons. Consequently, names of living beings usually appear in this form (*the woman's car, the cat's mat*). Names of inanimate entities may be used in the possessive case quite rarely, when these are names of some concrete things: *the car's door, the door's support*.

The majority of abstract nouns have no possessive form: \**his career's progress*. However, the use of names of seasons, distance, and price are quite frequent: *week's notice, at a mile's distance, a dollar's worth of coffee*.

Such uses of the possessive as *St. Paul's, at the baker's* cannot be neglected. In these phrases the possessive form of the nouns represents the head-noun rather than its modifier (compare *Paul's house, the baker's shop*). Some scientists treat such cases as **lexicalization** of a noun in the possessive case.

The use of the possessive case of nouns in plural is limited in speech because, as it has been mentioned, the form is impossible to distinguish phonetically from the possessive singular: *the girl's room, the girls' room*. The only exception is nouns that have preserved their inner inflection in plural: *men's, children's*.

All the above-mentioned restrictions are arguments for the claim that the possessive and the common forms realize a category more narrow than that of the case. Those linguists that support this point of view believe that this "nounal category" belongs to the sphere of syntax as soon as it is able to form syntactic groups (*Mary and Sarah's house, the man over there's dog*). The scholars suppose that the possessive case has undergone the process of syntacticalization: the ending -'s separated from the stem and modifying word combinations has turned into a syntactic marker. Though the claim concerning "penetration" of the morphological marker into syntax may be disputable; however, regarding this marker as morphological is equivalent of admitting in morphology non-analytical forms.

On the other hand, the basic form has no morphological features of the case and is not opposed to anything but the attributive word combination, its function in the sentence is not correlated with any morphological markers, it is only defined in terms of sentence parts. These observations lead some scholars to believe that the category of case in English has disappeared.

#### 4.3.3. Theory of deep cases

Since the late 1960s a number of theories have been put forward claiming that the semantic relationships borne by nominal parts of speech to verbs make up a small, universal set. Since obviously there is a great deal of variation between languages as to how many cases they have, the semantic relationships that are posited are not always reflected directly in the morpho-syntax. Theories positing a universal set of semantic relations include Charles

J. Fillmore's proposal for Case Grammar (1968), Joyce Anderson's Localist Case Grammar (1971) and Simon Dik's Functional Grammar (1978).

All these theories allow for some kind of semantic relations that are not always reflected directly in the morpho-syntax, but they differ in the extent to which they use syntactic rather than semantic evidence to isolate the semantic relations. There is also a lot of confusing variation in the terminology. Fillmore, for example, began by positing a universal set of relations with traditional case-like labels (agentive, instrumental, dative, factitive, locative, objective), but in his later works switched to agent, experiencer, instrument, object, source, goal, place and time, which, except for object, are more semantically transparent and less confusable with traditional case labels. He called these "syntactic-semantic relations" cases. It has become common over the last years to refer to Fillmorean-type cases as **deep cases** and traditional cases as **surface cases**. The most widespread terms for purely semantic relations are semantic roles, case roles, thematic roles.

Fillmore's ideas are worth delivering in more detail. The linguist is responsible for bringing to the fore the notion that there is a universal set of atomic semantic roles. In his seminal paper *The Case for Case*, published in 1968, he proposed a set of six "cases", which he later revised and extended to eight. These "cases" were deep-structure cases, described as being "underlying syntactic-semantic relationships".

To establish a universal set of semantic roles is a formidable task. Although some roles are demarcated by case in some languages, on some instances they have to be isolated by semantic tests. There are no agreed criteria and there is certainly no consensus on the universal inventory. To a great extent establishing roles and ascribing particular arguments to roles involves an extra-linguistic classification of relationships between entities in the world. There tends to be agreement on salient manifestations of roles like agent, patient, source and instrument, but problems arise with the classification of relationships that fall between salient ones. There are also problems with determining how fine the classification should be. Consider, for instance, an entity that is present as the material from which something is made, as in *She made the bowl from clay*. The notion is conceptually distinct, but there is not normally any marking specific to this notion. The following list of roles is offered as a checklist of roles that have been frequently distinguished in the literature.

## Semantic roles

SEMANTIC ROLE	DEFINITION AND EXAMPLES
1. <i>Patient</i>	a) an entity viewed as existing in a state or undergoing change: <i>The sky is blue</i> <i>The hair grew grey</i> b) an entity viewed as located or moving: <i>The bear is in the den</i> <i>The stone moved</i> <i>He moved the stone</i> c) an entity viewed as affected or effected by an entity: <i>The bird ate the worm</i> <i>The bird sang a song</i> The label "patient" is most widely used of the various alternatives (e.g. object, objective, goal, theme), even if it is not appropriate for all the examples to which it is applied. A number of linguists in fact make a distinction between <b>theme and patient</b> for (a) and (b) and patient for (c).
2. <i>Agent</i>	The entity that performs an activity or brings about a change of state <i>The audience rose to their feet</i> <i>Heat melts ice</i>
3. <i>Instrument</i>	The means by which an activity or change of state is carried out <i>He got beaten up by a gang</i>
4. <i>Experiencer</i>	The creature experiencing an emotion or perception <i>They love music</i> <i>They see everything</i> Some writers distinguish the <b>perceiver</b> or <b>cogniser</b> of verbs like <i>see</i> or <i>hear</i> from the experiencer of verbs like <i>love</i> . The perceiver is almost always aligned syntactically with the agent, whereas the experiencer is often treated differently.
5. <i>Location</i>	The position of an entity. The view taken here is that location and the other local roles can refer to time as well as place. Some linguists, however, including Fillmore and Dik, distinguish temporal and spatial roles. <i>The vase is on/under the table</i> <i>Her birthday fell on a Thursday</i>
6. <i>Source</i>	The point from which an entity moves or derives <i>They got news from home</i>
7. <i>Destination</i>	The point to or towards which an entity moves or is oriented

SEMANTIC ROLE	DEFINITION AND EXAMPLES
	<i>He turned to the house and walked towards it</i> The terms <b>direction</b> and <b>goal</b> are alternatives, but the meaning of the former is not transparent and the latter has also been used for patient/theme and for recipient.
8. <i>Recipient</i>	A sentient destination <i>She gave her spare change to the collectors</i>
9. <i>Purpose</i>	The purpose of an activity <i>He went to the Peach Pit for some take-away</i>
10. <i>Beneficiary</i>	The animate entity on whose behalf an activity is carried out <i>She did the shopping for her mother</i>
11. <i>Manner</i>	The way in which an activity is done or the way in which a change of state takes place <i>She spoke to us politely</i>
12. <i>Extent</i>	The distance, area or time over which an activity is carried out or over which a state holds <i>The negotiations lasted two hours</i> <i>He ran (for) three miles</i>
13. <i>Possessor</i>	The entity that possesses another entity <i>I saw John's car</i>

Fillmore's case grammar and similar attempts by others to establish a small list of universal roles have fallen somewhat into disrepute largely because no one has been able to produce a definitive list. However, a number of major theories such as Government and Binding and Lexical Functional Grammar embrace the notion of semantic roles, but they remain uncommitted about the universal inventory.

## 5. Syntactic functions

Fairly obviously word order is an alternative to case marking in distinguishing subject from object in English, as well as in languages like Thai, Vietnamese, and Indonesian, all of which use the Subject-Verb-Object order as their unmarked option. In English the word order also distinguishes the patient object (i.e. direct object) from the recipient or beneficiary object (i.e. indirect object) in double object constructions where the patient object always follows the other object: *She gave me a letter, She cut me a bunch of dahlias.*

There is a correlation between the presence of case marking on noun phrases for the subject-object distinction and flexible word order. It would

also appear from some studies that there is a tendency for languages that mark the subject-object distinction on noun phrases to have a basic Subject-Object-Verb order, and conversely a tendency for languages lacking such a distinction to have the Subject-Verb-Object order. Interestingly, that "caseless" languages with the Subject-Verb-Object word order are concentrated in Western Europe (e.g. English), southern Africa (e.g. Swahili) and east and southeast Asia (e.g. Chinese and Vietnamese).

Word order is important for "caseless" languages, since it is word order that determines which of the numerous syntactic functions a noun performs in the sentence. It usually occupies the position of the subject and the object: *The children were playing. I will look after the children.*

The noun may also be part of the predicate – functioning as a predicate: *You will be a goalkeeper.*

It has been mentioned above that the English noun is peculiar in that it is capable of functioning as an attribute without any form change: *a silk dress, the speed limit, death sentence, salary rise*. There is no unanimity in viewpoints among linguists on this issue. Some scholars see in these attributive word combinations spontaneously formed compound words. It is arguable that though these combinations are actually close to a compound, still a word is a stable language unit that can hardly be formed and broken up spontaneously.

Other linguists believe that in this position a noun transforms into an adjective. The latter point of view is frequently reflected in dictionaries, where one may find the following entries: *silk, n., a*. It is based on the occasional use of a noun in the attributive function. The proponents of this point of view consider that this usage is sufficient to move a word into a different part of speech. However, it is quite obvious that, besides the attributive function, a noun does not acquire any other adjectival peculiarities: it can neither form any degrees of comparison nor be modified by adverbs.

The problem of noun – adjective differentiation is usually referred to as "stone-wall" problem, since the word combination *stone-wall* is a classical example of this controversy. In modern linguistics the "stone-wall" pattern is believed to be a combination with a noun in the function of an attribute.

## ADJECTIVE

### 1. Grammatical meaning

The Adjective is a part of speech with the categorical meaning of a relatively permanent property of a substance: *a thick book, a beautiful city*. The adjective denotes a property that does not evolve in time and it is this static character that is meant under the notion of relative permanence: cf. *high quality* and *improved quality* (the latter phrase contains the property that has sustained a certain modification).

Adjectives express a qualitative property that may be objectified, in which case a noun is derived from an adjective by means of the suffixes *-ness, -ity* etc. (*whiteness, roughness, regularity, certainty*). If an adjective expresses some relation, i.e. some relative quality, it is as a rule derived from a noun by means of the suffixes *-y, -al, -ous, -ly, -en* (e.g. *rain – rainy, commune – communal, suspicion – suspicious, week – weekly, wool – woollen*).

According to their semantic properties, adjectives fall into two large groups: **qualitative** and **relative**. Qualitative adjectives denote qualities of size, shape, colour, etc. which an object may possess in various degrees. Consequently, qualitative adjectives may have degrees of comparison. The measure of a quality can be estimated as high or low, adequate or inadequate, sufficient or insufficient, optimal or excessive. Relative adjectives express qualities which characterize an object through its relation to another object: *wooden furniture – furniture made of wood, Nigerian gold – gold from Nigeria*. One should bear in mind that it is impossible to draw a rigid line of demarcation between the two classes, for in the course of language development the so-called relative adjectives have gradually developed qualitative meanings. Thus, for instance, through metaphoric extension adjectives denoting material have come to be used in the figurative sense: e.g. *golden age, golden mean, golden opportunity, golden hair*. Another example may be the generally qualitative adjective *good* that, when employed as a grading term in teaching, i.e. term forming part of the marking scale together with the grading terms *bad, satisfactory, excellent*, turns into a relative adjective that cannot be modified by any qualifiers.

Besides the division into the qualitative and the relative classes, some grammars distinguish also a class of **quantitative** adjectives: e.g. *numerous*,

*enormous, much, many, little, few*. However, the status of *much, many, little, few* remains disputable. On the one hand, these words are morphologically close to adjectives, since they have the degrees of comparison. On the other hand, they have much in common with numerals and pronouns. Obviously these words belong to some periphery formed by overlapping areas of these three fields – those of adjectives, numerals, and pronouns.

## 2. Morphemic structure

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

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

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

*-able* added to verbs and bound stems, denoting quality with implication of capacity, fitness or worthiness to be acted upon; the suffix is also used in the sense of ‘tending to’, ‘given to’, ‘favouring’, ‘causing’, ‘able to’ or ‘liable to’. This suffix is a live one and can be added to virtually any verb thus giving rise to many new coinages: *readable, teachable, workable*. The unproductive variant of the suffix *-able* is the suffix *-ible* (*visible, comprehensible, possible*);

*-(i)al* denoting quality (‘belonging to’, ‘pertaining to’, ‘having the character of’, ‘appropriate to’) e.g. *structural, industrial, commercial, international*. The suffix *-al* added to nouns and bound stems is often found in combination with the suffix *-ic*, e.g. *philosophical, electrical, typical, etc.*;

*-ish* is a Germanic suffix, denoting nationality, quality with the meaning ‘of the nature of’, ‘belonging to’, ‘resembling’; it may also be used with the

derogatory sense ‘somewhat like’, often implying contempt, e.g. *Swedish, yellowish, childish*;

*-y* is a Germanic suffix, denoting quality (‘pertaining to’, ‘abounding in’, ‘tending or inclined to’), e.g. *juicy, milky, bony, hilly*.

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

## 3. Grammatical category: Degrees of comparison

The English adjective has lost in the course of history all its forms of grammatical agreement with the noun. As a result, the only paradigmatic forms of the adjective are those of degrees of comparison.

The meaning of the category of comparison is expression of different degrees of intensity of some property revealed by comparing referents similar in certain aspects. The category is constituted by the opposition of the three forms: the basic form (**positive degree**) that has no features of comparison, the **comparative degree** form and the **superlative degree** form. The comparative degree shows that one of the subjects of comparison demonstrates quality of higher intensity than the other; the grammatical content of the superlative degree is intensity of a property surpassing all other objects mentioned or implied by the context or situation. However, some adjectives are not capable of forming the degrees of comparison. As a rule, these “deficient” words belong to the class of relative adjectives though, when used metaphorically, even they may occur in the form of the degrees of comparison.

Qualitative adjectives generally have the degrees of comparison. However, distinction should be made between qualitative adjectives which have “gradable” meanings and those which have “absolute” meanings. For example, a person may be more or less strong, and *strong* is a gradable adjective for which corresponding gradations are expressed by means of the forms *stronger – the strongest*. Contrasted to adjectives with such “gradable” meanings are qualitative adjectives denoting some absolute quality (e.g. *real, equal, right, blind, dead, etc.*). These are incapable of such gradations.

Another group of “non-comparables” is formed by adjectives of indefinitely moderated quality, such as *yellowish, half-sarcastic, semi-conscious*,

etc. But the most peculiar word group of non-comparables is made up by adjectives expressing the highest degree of a quality. The inherent superlative semantics of these "extreme adjectives" is emphasized by the definite article normally introducing their nounal combinations: *the ultimate result*, *the final decision*. On the other hand, in colloquial speech these extreme qualifiers can sometimes be modified by intensifying elements. Thus, "the final decision" may be changed into "a very final decision"; "the crucial factor" is transformed into "quite a crucial factor", etc.

The morphological form of the degrees of comparison is restricted by the phonetic structure of a word, namely its syllabic structure: linguists have no doubts about the degrees of comparison of monosyllabic words forming their paradigm by means of the inflections *-er* and *-est*: *long - longer - the longest*.

Adjectives of two syllables may change either morphologically or with the help of the quantifiers *lovely - lovelier (more lovely) - the loveliest (the most lovely)*. There are also other limitations. For example adjectives ending in two plosive consonants (e.g. *direct, rapt*) do not have morphological forms. Nevertheless, the adjective *strict* with its forms *stricter - the strictest* is the example of the opposite. Polysyllabic adjectives do not have morphological forms of the degree of comparison. The intensity of a property is expressed here with the help of the quantifiers: *interesting - more interesting - the most interesting*.

Grammarians seem to be divided in their opinion as to the linguistic nature of degrees of comparison formed by means of *more* and *(the) most*. There is quite a widespread point of view that these word combinations are analytical forms of adjectives, since they are seemingly parallel to the morphological forms. However, there are arguments that may undermine this claim. Firstly, analytical forms do not presuppose the possibility of repetition of auxiliaries, which is quite typical of *more*: *Her e-mails become more and more emotional*. Secondly, the adverbs *more* and *most*, as a rule, preserve their lexical meaning and - which is important - they are lexically opposed to word combinations with *less* and *least*, denoting respectively the decrease of intensity. It would be therefore quite consistent to classify the latter word combinations as analytical forms as well but in this case the parallelism with the morphological system proper is broken. On the other hand, phrases with *more* and *most* include also so-called elative word com-

binations (e.g. *It was a most spectacular panorama*) that are used to convey a very high degree of some property without comparing it to anything. It is important to note that the definite article with the elative construction is also possible. In this case the elative function is less distinctly recognizable, e.g. *I found myself in the most awkward situation*. Interestingly, though the synthetic superlative degree can be used in the elative function as well (e.g. *It is the greatest pleasure to talk to you*), grammarians notice the general tendency to use the superlative elative meaning in the *most*-construction.

If these elative forms are seen as analytical ones, then, taking into account their semantic similarity, word combinations with *very*, *extremely*, *totally*, *awfully* should also be considered in the same way. In this case it is obvious that the term "analytical form" becomes vague and amorphous. Also, *more* and *most* may easily combine with nouns, e.g. *more taste, more money, most nations*, etc. However the main argument against the notion of analytical forms of comparison lies in syntactic meaningfulness of the adverbs *more* and *most*. There is no syntactic relation between the components of analytical forms, whereas *more* and *most* preserve the adverbial relation with adjectives to the same extent as any other adverbs of degree: cf. *less generous, very generous, rather generous, extremely generous, more generous*.

If the *more/most*-constructions are treated as analytical forms, the constructions with *less* and *least*, as soon as they convey the opposite meaning, can only belong to units of the same general order, i.e. to the category of comparison. According to this interpretation, the *less-least* combinations constitute specific forms of comparison, which are called by the supporters of this viewpoint "forms of reverse comparison" (see Ильиш 1971, Блюх 1983). As a result, the whole category includes not three, but five different forms, making up the two series - direct and reverse. The reverse series of comparison (the reverse superiority degrees) is of far lesser importance than the direct one. This phenomenon can be explained by semantic reasons, as it is more natural to follow the direct model of comparison based on the principle of addition of qualitative quantities than on the reverse model of comparison based on the principle of subtraction of qualitative quantities, since subtraction in general is a far more abstract process of mental activity than addition. It can also be conjectured that, for this very reason, the reverse comparatives and superlatives are rivaled in speech by the corresponding negative syntactic constructions (e.g. *The news is not so shocking as the one I expected*).

#### 4. Syntactic functions

The main syntactic function of adjectives is that of an attribute. As a rule, attributes expressed by adjectives precede nouns that are modified. However, attributes may also occur in a post-position, which gives them additional emphasis:

*A plastic ball, in white and yellow stripes, rolled softly and with deceptive slowness from one dry tuft of dune-grass to another, not at all unlike a big bored snail, until suddenly a sharper gust of breeze caught it and tossed it bouncing high across the shore. (Bates)*

*Her brother Simon was a big man, very dark and strong and silent, with the same big eyes as his sister. (Garnett)*

The second function of the adjective in the sentence is that of a predicative:

*Her handwriting was as wavery as Poppy's. (Tyler)*

*It was too hot, anyway, for the guests to venture outside for so long. (Tyler)*

*Demeter, her name was, and she was at least partly Greek, with one of those strong, noble Greek faces. (Tyler)*

It should be noted that the majority of adjectives may occur in both of the functions, though, for some of them, only one of the functions is possible. For example, the adjectives *joint, live, lone, daily, weekly, monthly, woollen* and some other are used only attributively: *a lone wolf, his monthly letters*. The adjectives that denote a state or an attitude are usually used as predicatives: *glad, averse (to), bound (for), concerned*. The adjectives *certain, ill* exhibit different meanings depending on their syntactic function: cf. *Certain high-profile people are involved in the scandal – I am certain they will hush it up; as ill luck will have it – she is ill*.

In relation to the word *ill*, it should be pointed out that some linguists define it as a stative. Word combinations in which it is used as an attribute are not numerous, besides, they may be qualified as set expressions: *ill luck, ill news, it's an ill wind that blows nobody any good*.

#### 5. Substantivized adjectives

It is known that an adjective denotes a property of some referent expressed by a noun. The property may be that of material, colour, size, posi-

tion, state, and other characteristics both permanent and temporary. It follows from this that, unlike nouns, adjectives do not possess a full nominative value. The semantically bound character of the adjective is emphasized in English by the use of the substitute *one* in the absence of the noun, e.g. *I preferred a long skirt to a short one*. However, adjectives display the ability to be easily substantivized through conversion, i.e. by zero-derivation, and to function in syntactic roles typical of nouns – those of the predicate and the object. Among the noun-converted adjectives one may find both old units, well-established in the language, and also new ones, whose adjectival etymology conveys to the lexeme the vivid colouring of a new coinage. For instance, the words *a relative, a black, a dear* are unquestionably established, whereas such a noun as *a vulnerable* bears the mark of purposeful conversion.

It should be borne in mind that substantivization implies transposition of any part of speech into a noun, i.e. a substantivized word acquires the nounal paradigm. Substantivization is a gradable process, since adjectives may have only one feature of the noun – article determination – and lack the rest of nounal properties, i.e. the case and the plural forms. If it is the case, adjectives are used with the definite article and denote, as a rule, a group of people: *the rich, the English, the poor, the green* (members of the Green Party).

*From the perspective of non-dominant cultural groups the issue is crucial. These people are in a numerical minority and their minority status can be aggravated by the poor material conditions in which they live. On top of all this, their cultural orientation might confine them symbolically in a powerless position because they are represented as interchangeable members of homogeneous groups, a representation that describes the powerless. (Chrysochoou).*

Adjectives may also be used in this pattern to denote some abstract, generalized notion: *the inevitable, the heavenly, the eternal*. Thus, adjectives performing syntactic functions of nouns may come very close to either abstract nouns or to plural forms of nouns denoting persons. Therefore these words are characterized as **partially substantivized**.

**Completely substantivized** adjectives, in their turn, acquire the entire noun paradigm. Among these are the adjectives *captive, criminal, female, fugitive, grown-up, intellectual, male, native, radical, relative* and many more (cf. *a criminal, two criminals, a criminal's arrest*).

## 6. Words denoting state

Notional words signifying states and used as predicatives were first identified as a separate part of speech in the Russian language by academicians Lev Shcherba and Viktor Vinogradov. The two scholars defined the categorical meaning of the newly identified part of speech as that of state (and, correspondingly, separate words making up this category were called "words of the category of state"). Traditionally the Russian words of the category of state were considered as constituents of the class of adverbs, and they are still considered as such by many Russian scholars.

This theory has been projected onto English and, as a result, some words that may occur only in the function of the predicative and beginning, as a rule, with the prefix *a-* are referred to as **stative words** or **statives**. These include such words as *awake, adrift, asleep, afloat, ajar, awry*, etc. This analysis was first conducted by Boris Ilyish and later continued by other linguists. In traditional grammars, these words were generally considered under the heading of "predicative adjectives" (some of them also under the heading of adverbs), since their typical position in the sentence is that of a predicative. Supporters of the part-of-speech status of these words point out that statives have all the characteristics necessary for a part of speech. Firstly, statives are allegedly opposed to adjectives semantically, since adjectives denote "quality", and statives denote "states". Secondly, as different from adjectives, statives are characterized by the specific prefix *a-*. Thirdly, they do not possess the category of comparison. Fourthly, the combinability of statives is different from that of adjectives in so far as they are not used in the pre-positional attributive function, i.e. they lack the right-hand combinability with nouns.

The advanced reasons are undoubtedly serious and worthy of consideration. Still, it is possible to find weak points in these arguments. Firstly, this supposed part of speech is characterized by the meaning of a state – either physical or psychic. However, there are a number of words, including adjectives, that denote a state: cf. *angry, happy, numb, expectant, sad*, etc. Secondly, the prefix *a-* hardly deserves the status of a formal basis of the part-of-speech identification of statives, since there are words without the prefix that display both essential functional characteristics of statives and the syntactic function of statives (e.g. *glad, ill, well, subject (to), underway*).

Thirdly, it would not be quite consistent to deny statives the category of comparison, though with statives it is of specific nature. They do not take the synthetic forms of comparison, but they are capable of expressing comparison analytically with various qualifiers: *I am most aware of the gravity of the crisis*. Fourthly, the only syntactic function of statives is that of the predicative – the function that they share with adjectives. Consequently, statives differ from adjectives only "negatively", i.e. by their inability of being an attribute in pre-position. The similarity of functions leads to the possibility of the use of a stative and a common adjective in a homogeneous group: *She kept herself aloof and reticent*. In addition, due to their function in the sentence, some statives may be treated as an adverb (e.g. *ashore*).

Thus, statives form a unified set of words but do not constitute a separate part of speech comparable with those of the noun, the verb, the adjective, and the adverb. Rather it should be regarded as a periphery of the adjective. This claim is also supported by the fact that in modern English statives can occur in the functions of a pre-positional attribute: e.g. *an ashamed face, an aloof air*, etc.

## PRONOUN

### 1. Grammatical meaning

Pronouns are characterized by an extremely generalizing meaning: they point out objects, entities, abstract notions and their qualities without naming them. This generalizing part of speech is actualized contextually, and is deprived of any meaning outside a particular context. In other words, pronouns never name an object or its quality, pronouns only point them out and interpretations of this object and this quality depend entirely on a situation. The grammatical meaning of pronouns is not treated as contradictory to the grammatical meanings ascribed to other lexical parts of speech. The grammatical meaning of pronouns is seen as an absolutely different representation of the world. Therefore, pronouns may be regarded as a specific linguistic unit, different from all other lexical words. As a result, some scholars believe that the pronoun is opposed to the rest of lexical words. Others, on the contrary, do not recognize pronouns as a separate part of speech, since there are no specific pronominal syntactic functions as well as grammatical



categories peculiar to pronouns alone. In other words, certain classes of pronouns may share syntactic features and grammatical categories with nouns, adjectives and adverbs, which enables some linguists to distinguish between pronominal nouns, pronominal adjectives and pronominal adverbs. However, their opponents believe the specific lexical meaning of the pronoun to be a sufficient ground to establish pronouns as a separate part of speech. Taking into account all the above-mentioned reservations, we will support the traditional point of view on pronouns as one of the classes of lexical words.

Another disputable issue is related with the borderline between the pronoun and other parts of speech. Some linguists are inclined to tighten this borderline, whereas others are prone stretch it.

Those scholars who put first the grammatical (or rather morphological) criterion, treat exclusively declinable words as pronouns, namely personal pronouns with the interrogative *who*, for it is only these pronouns that distinguish between cases. However, the morphological criterion, used in many Indo-European languages, may not be completely reliable for English pronouns.

The supremacy of the semantic criterion leads to the opposite tendency, i.e. to expansion of the pronominal class. For example, Jespersen suggests treating the so-called pronominal adverbs *then, there, thence, when, whence* and others as pronouns. Indeed, if the semantic criterion is the basis of the part-of-speech classification, then adverbial words, pointing out manner, location and time of an action (e.g. *then, how, there, here, so, when, where, etc.*), should be referred to pronouns. Semantically, these words have much in common with demonstrative and interrogative pronouns; including these words in the class of pronouns would, however, mean ignoring the syntactic criterion.

Besides, some linguists cut down the number of pronouns in correspondence with lexico-grammatical classes of words substituted. Here, again, there is no unanimity, since these scholars insist on pronouns replacing only nouns (as the very term *pro-noun* means "instead of the noun"); their opponents claim that pronouns are all the words capable of replacing both the noun and the adjective.

Syntactically pronouns share their functions with the noun and the adjective.

Recognizing pronouns as a part of speech, it is necessary to emphasize that their main function is deixis. Pronouns take part in nomination only

indirectly, pointing out a certain thing, person, quality, named before, and in doing so pronouns do not convey any new information. It is this deictic meaning that gives the ground to unite pronominal groups, diverse morphologically and syntactically, into a separate part of speech.

## 2. Semantic classification

Pronouns have every right to the reputation of a part of speech difficult to classify, since they include words very different lexically, syntactically and grammatically. Thus, if the syntactic principle is chosen as the basis of classification, then pronouns are divided into nominal and adjectival. If, however, these pronouns are further divided into groups, then some of them may be referred both to nominal as well as adjectival ones (*this, that, each, other, some, any, all* etc.). As a result, scholars prefer the semantic classification of pronouns, which suggests (with slight variations from author to author) the following division:

- 1) **personal pronouns** (*I, you, he, she, it, we, they*);
- 2) **possessive pronouns** (*my, your, his, her, its, our, their*);
- 3) **demonstrative pronouns** (*this, that, such, (the) same*);
- 4) **reflexive (also called emphatic) pronouns** (*myself, yourself, himself, herself, itself, ourselves, yourselves, themselves*);
- 5) **interrogative pronouns** (*who, whose, what, which*);
- 6) **relative pronouns** (*who, whose, which, that*);
- 7) **indefinite pronouns** (*some, any, somebody, anybody, someone, anyone, one*);
- 8) **negative pronouns** (*no, nobody, no one, nothing*);
- 9) **defining pronouns** (*all, each, every, everybody, everyone, everything*);
- 10) **reciprocal pronouns** (*each other, one another*).

Considerable discreteness of this classification can hardly be to its advantage. Another flaw of the classification lies in that pronouns of different classes share grammatical and semantic features. For instance, personal, possessive and reflexive pronouns are marked with the category of person. Indefinite, negative and generalizing pronouns, in their turn, convey the meaning of quantity. To eliminate these unfortunate drawbacks, some grammarians suggest dividing pronouns into four groups: 1) **personal**, 2) **demonstrative**, 3) **interrogative**, and 4) **quantitative** (Бурлакова и др., 1983). We will stick to the more complicated classification in order to give a detailed analysis of the pronominal groups.

## 2.1. Personal pronouns

The personal pronouns are characterized by quite different values for the language. The first person pronouns – *I, we* – as well as the second person pronoun *you* do not substitute for anything and do not share their functions with anything, since they represent the speaker and the hearer in communication. The personal pronouns of the third person *he, she, it, they* replace nouns, may point out any object (*it, they*) or any person (*he, she, they*) and are used anaphorically:

*Sharply disturbed, he lowered his own gaze and too hastily started to open a bottle of beer. It frothed violently, spilling down his thighs. (Bates)*

*Mr. Curry dried his hands, smoothing the towel one finger at a time, as though he were drawing on gloves. (Hill)*

The personal pronouns have the grammatical categories of person, case, number and (in the third person singular) gender. The categorical meaning of person and number in the personal pronouns is not morphological but lexical, since there is no morphological way of expressing these meanings. The case category is represented by the two cases – the **nominative case** and the **objective case**. The paradigm of the personal pronouns is deficient, as soon as the case form is not discernible in the second person pronoun *you* and the third person pronoun *it*.

CASE	PERSONAL PRONOUNS						
NOMINATIVE	I	you	he	she	it	we	they
OBJECTIVE	me	you	him	her	it	us	them

The syntactic functions of case forms are quite distinct: the personal pronouns in the nominative case perform the function of the subject, whereas the personal pronouns in the objective case function as objects. However, there is a collision of these two forms in the predicative position. According to the rules of school grammar, only the nominative case is possible when the pronoun is used predicatively. In reality, the first person pronoun singular in the objective case is in fact legalized as predicative (cf. *It's me*). Sentences in which the pronoun is modified by a predication are an exception: *It's I who did it*. In colloquial speech the objective form of personal pronouns is gaining popularity in the predicative position and as a part of comparative constructions (cf. *Jim is more generous than her*). One should bear in mind that this use is not sanctioned by the norms of grammar, and the

use of *me* as a predicative was disapproved as ungrammatical in the beginning of the 20<sup>th</sup> century. Yet, the use of the indeclinable pronouns *it* and *you* in this function sets the analogy to follow.

It should be mentioned that the nominative case of the pronouns *we, you, they* may acquire the meaning of generalized reference to some indefinite persons, i.e. these personal pronouns may function as indefinite or generalizing pronouns. Each of these pronouns has its specific features. *We* is inclusive for the speaker; *you* may both include and exclude the speaker; *they* does not imply either the speaker or the imaginary hearer, since it denotes quite a vast and absolutely indefinite number of people.

Special attention should be drawn to the pronoun *it* that has quite specific functions besides pointing out a thing. Thus, it may anaphorically denote a situation:

*In court there was his father and mother; that was the worst of it. They'd come down from Scotland and they sat there in the courtroom, looking at me, you did it, you killed him, it was you run over Joey. (Glanville)*

In the example above, *it* conveys the lexical meaning of the already mentioned situation. This pronoun may also carry out a purely grammatical structural function, having nothing to do with any particular lexical meaning. This phenomenon is observed with the so-called **impersonal it** as well as with the **introductory it** that usually precedes infinitive constructions or objects:

*It was night. (Garnett)*

*It took Mary some time to realize that this was a reference to her mother. (Garnett)*

*Emma considered it impossible that the wedding might be arranged so quickly. (Austen)*

Thus, semantic structure of the personal pronouns is much wider than anaphoric reference to a person or a thing (or, as it the case with *it*, to a situation). If there is no person or thing to refer to, the pronouns *we, you, they* acquire a generalizing meaning, whereas the pronoun *it* under similar conditions functions as a purely grammatical substitute for the subject or the object.

## 2.2. Possessive pronouns

The pronouns *my, his, her, its, our, your, their* have the meaning of possession. Syntactically, they modify nouns and may be syntactically equaled to the article: *a car, my car, a (the) new car, my new car*.

Possessive pronouns have two forms, namely the **dependent** (or **conjunct**) form and the **independent** (or **absolute**) form. In positions characteristic of nouns, the possessive pronouns function in these specific independent forms: *mine, his, hers, ours, theirs*.

If there is a need to combine in a word group a possessive pronoun and some other nominal modifier, the possessive pronoun in the independent form is used in the postposition: *a car of mine, that brother of yours*.

### 2.3. Demonstrative pronouns

Demonstrative pronouns differ quite distinctly from other groups of pronouns, since they point out a person, a thing, an event directly. The demonstrative pronouns are very different both morphologically and syntactically. For example, only the pronouns *this* and *that* have the category of number: *this – these, that – those*. The demonstrative pronouns are subdivided into two groups. The pronouns *this, these* point out objects, located close to the speaker in time or in space. The pronouns *that, those* are used to refer to objects, temporally or spatially remote.

The demonstrative pronouns function as noun modifiers, equal to the article and possessive pronouns: *this lady, this young lady, the lady, the young lady*.

Syntactically, the demonstrative pronoun may take the place of a nominal sentence part or that of an attribute. The pronoun *that (those)* may be a head element of an *of*-phrase: *His salary was higher than that of his colleagues*. Besides, the demonstrative pronouns may be used without any noun. If it is the case, the meaning of a pronoun is defined by the context: *The shop was full of worthless secondhand junk – such was my conclusion*.

Sometimes, as it has already been mentioned, such words as *thus, there, here, so, then* are also treated as demonstrative pronouns. This, however, lacks consistency, since these words perform adverbial functions, strange for the demonstrative pronouns. The issue is even more complicated with *so* which, apart from the function of the adverbial modifier of manner, measure and degree, may perform the function of object or predicative, replacing an entire predicative unit or just a word: *Jack wasn't responsible for the loss. The boss told me so himself. Jean was inventive in finding a celebrity to interview and there is no reason for her to stop being so*.

Interestingly, the pronoun *that* is rather frequently used as adverbial modifier of degree, which up to now has been typical of *so* alone: *I didn't*

*expect it to be that bad!* This use is characteristic of colloquial speech, but it only proves that *so* and *that* are quite close. As a result, since *so* exhibits both adverbial and pronominal features, it is located by proponents of the field structure theory on the overlapping part of the adverb and the pronoun.

### 2.4. Reflexive pronouns

Reflexive pronouns point out that the doer of an action is identical with the object of this action. In modern English there is a distinct tendency to drop reflexive pronouns if this omission does not affect the meaning of the utterance: *In the morning I wash (myself), dress (myself) and have my breakfast*. Alongside of the verbs that may function both with and without an object, there are verbs with which the object is obligatory. The use of a reflexive pronoun in this case indicates that an action is performed on the doer: cf. *to amuse oneself, to enjoy oneself, to reconcile oneself*. Besides there is a small group of verbs that may not be used without a reflexive pronoun, e.g. *to absent oneself, to busy oneself, to pride oneself, to avoid oneself*.

It should be noted that besides the meaning of the doer of an action identical with its object, the reflexive pronouns may also function for the sake of emphasis. If it is the case, the reflexive pronouns either immediately follow the subject or, which is more typical, follow the verbal phrase: *I myself was surprised, I didn't expect it myself*.

The reflexive pronouns are structurally discrete, in which they differ from the groups analyzed above. The reflexive pronouns consist of the stem, identical with the possessive pronoun or with the personal pronoun in the objective case, and the pronoun *self*: *myself, yourself, himself, herself, itself, ourselves, yourselves, themselves*.

As one may notice, the reflexive pronouns have the categories of person, number, and (in the third person singular) gender. It should be stressed that the reflexive pronouns are the only pronominal group that has preserved the morphologically distinct difference between singular and plural of the second person – *yourself vs. yourselves*.

### 2.5. Interrogative pronouns

Interrogative pronouns are used in inquiry, to form special questions. Here belong *who, whom, whose, what, which*. *Whom* is the form of the objective case of the pronoun *who* but there is a steady tendency in English for this form to be replaced by the nominative form *who*.

The interrogative pronouns, due to their function, occupy the initial position in the sentence, with the pronoun *who* always in the function of subject. *Whom* functions as object: *Whom did you see?* *What* and *which* may function in the positions of a subject or an object and in the position of an attribute: *What is your favourite dish?* *What do you do in the evenings?* *What dish is she cooking?* *Which holiday do you like most?* *Which programme do you want to watch?*

## 2.6. Relative pronouns

Relative pronouns *who*, *whose*, *which*, *that*, *as* not only point back to a noun or a pronoun mentioned before, but also have conjunctive power, since their function is to introduce attributive clauses. Their status of pronouns is rather relative, since they combine both the function of pure syntactic connectors and the ability to be a subject, an object or an attribute in an attributive subordinate clause.

*It was an ancient sundial of sorts, a vestige of the pagan temple that had once stood on this very spot. (Brown)*

*...she felt her mind reeling back ten years – to the night she had mistakenly surprised her grandfather and witnessed what she still could not accept. (Brown)*

*Painted on a poplar wood panel, the Mona Lisa's ethereal, mist-filled atmosphere was attributed to Da Vinci's mastery of the sfumato style, in which forms appear to evaporate into one another. (Brown)*

*"So we have the male god, Amon." He wrote it down. "And the female goddess, Isis, whose ancient pictogram was once called L'ISA." (Brown)*

## 2.7. Indefinite pronouns

Indefinite pronouns point out a person or a thing without naming them. This group of pronouns has no definite structure; its nucleus, however, is formed by the pronouns *some*, *any* and their derivatives *something*, *anything*; *somebody*, *anybody*, *someone*, *anyone*. These pronouns distinguish between "person" and "non-person", which leads to the possibility to present this opposition as "animate" – "inanimate". Some scholars refute this point of view claiming that the pronouns with the components *-body*, *-one* are not usually used in reference to animals, i.e. if there is a cat or a dog in the room, the question *Is there anybody in the room?* is more likely to be answered *There is nobody in the room*, since there is no human being there. The pro-

nouns *some* and *any* may perform syntactic functions typical of nouns and adjectives: *some of us*, *can any of you help me?* Derivatives of *some* and *any* are syntactically similar to nouns.

The pronouns *somebody*, *anybody*, *someone*, *anyone* have two cases: the common case and the possessive (or genitive) case: *somebody's car*, *anyone's opinion*.

The indefinite-personal pronoun *one* is often used in the sense of any person or every person. It also has the case category: *One can't help noticing differences between American and British pronunciation. It is inconsiderate to waste one's energy on trifles.*

The pronoun *one* may be used as a word-substitute: *I don't like that cup. Can I have the green one?* As a word-substitute *one* may be used in the plural: *Some of the guests had left by 10p.m.; the ones who stayed danced till midnight.*

## 2.8. Negative pronouns

Most of the indefinite pronouns have the corresponding negative pronouns: *some* – *no*, *none*; *something* – *nothing*, *none*; *somebody*, *someone* – *nobody*, *no one*, *none*. The negative pronouns do not differ from indefinite ones either morphologically or syntactically. The only difference between these two groups lies in that the negative pronouns have the meaning of negation. Taking into account the parallel structure and similar functions of these two groups, some linguists do not differentiate between them and suggest regarding them as one pronominal group (Жигадло и др., 1956).

The negative pronoun *neither* is opposite to the defining pronouns *either*, *both*. In the sentence it may be used as subject, object, and attribute: *Neither was at home when I dropped in. I like neither of the brothers. I support neither project.*

## 2.9. Defining pronouns

Defining pronouns are *all*, *each*, *every*, *everybody*, *everyone*, *everything*, *either*, *both*, *other*, *another*. On the whole, the defining pronouns may be further subdivided into those having a generalizing meaning (*all*, *each*, *every*, *everybody*, *everyone*, *everything*) and those pointing out one of the two persons, things, etc. (*either*, *both*, *other*, *another*).

The defining pronouns are characterized by quite diverse properties. For example, the pronouns *everybody* and *everyone* point out a person and have

the form of the possessive case *everybody's* and *everyone's*; *everything* may refer only to non-persons; the rest of the defining pronouns do not differentiate between person and non-person. The defining pronoun *other*, apart from the category of case, also has the category of number: singular – *other* and plural – *others*.

Syntactically, these pronouns may be used in all the functions peculiar for nominal parts of speech, i.e. as subject, object and attribute.

### 2.10. Reciprocal pronouns

Reciprocal pronouns are the group-pronouns *each other* and *one another* that express mutual action or relation. Semantic difference lies in that *each other* generally implies two, whereas *one another* – two or more than two persons. This distinction, however, is not strictly observed.

The reciprocal pronouns have two case forms, e.g. *They looked at each other. They did not shake each other's hand.*

### 3. Grammatical categories

Morphologically, pronouns represent quite a diverse group. Thus, the category of case is a property of the personal pronouns, in which one may observe the distinct opposition “nominative case – objective case”. The indefinite-personal pronoun *one* and derivatives with the components *-body* and *-one* are also marked for the case category, since they demonstrate the opposition of the common and the possessive cases.

The category of number marks the demonstrative pronouns, the indefinite-personal pronoun *one* and the defining pronoun *other* as well as the reflexive pronoun *yourself*.

Syntactic functions of pronouns are also diverse. The personal pronouns, several interrogative pronouns, the possessive pronouns in the absolute form, derivatives of *some*, *any*, *no* and *every* perform functions peculiar to the noun, whereas the possessive pronouns, some indefinite pronouns take syntactic positions typical of the adjective. The demonstrative pronouns, several interrogative pronouns, the indefinite pronouns *some* and *any*, the defining pronouns *each* and *other* may carry out both nounal and adjectival functions.

This diversity of morphological categories and syntactic functions leads to controversial views on pronouns as such and also on linguistic units that should be treated as pronouns. As a result, some scholars deny the very

existence of this part of speech. According to this point of view, the words that are usually treated as pronouns should be referred, depending on their morphological and syntactic properties, to specific subgroups of adjectives or nouns. Indeed, it is impossible to deny similarities between the pronoun, the noun and the adjective but, on the other hand, it is impossible to overlook the lexical meaning, i.e. absence of a permanent reference, that makes pronouns different from either of the two parts of speech. It is this lexical meaning that unites pronouns of different types into a part of speech, though they may share the rest of their properties with other word classes.

## NUMERAL

While the noun, the adjective, and the verb are characterized by all the three properties of a part of speech – morphological, syntactic and semantic, the numeral, like the pronoun, is distinguished only due to its lexical meaning. Numerals indicate exact number or the order of persons and things in a series. Accordingly, numerals are divided into **cardinal** numerals (**cardinals**) and **ordinal** numerals (**ordinals**). Numerals have no morphological paradigm, which distinguishes them from the nouns *dozen*, *score*, *half*, etc. that have a similar lexical meaning but combine it with the category of number. The same holds for the cardinals *hundred*, *thousand*, *million* that are numerals when they indicate exact number: *two thousand five hundred and twelve*. The nouns used to denote a vast amount approximately, without indicating an exact figure and functioning in the plural form, are their homonyms: e.g. *thousands of cars*, *by twos and threes*. The lack of a paradigm makes numerals different from the adjectives *many*, *much*, *few* and *little* that have the forms of comparison.

Another morphological property of numerals is their system of word-building suffixes. The cardinal numerals from 13 to 19 are derivatives with the suffix *-teen*; the cardinals indicating tens are formed by means of the suffix *-ty*; the cardinal numerals from 21 to 29, from 31 to 39 are compound, whereas ordinals are formed by means of the suffix *-th*, with the exception of the first three suppletive forms – *first*, *second*, *third*.

Syntactically numerals are less distinct from other parts of speech. Thus, they may carry out functions common for nouns and adjectives:

Two [attribute] big ideas, not just one, are at issue: the evolution of all species, as a historical phenomenon, and natural selection, as the main mechanism causing that phenomenon. The first [subject] is a question of what happened. The second [subject] is a question of how. (Quammen)

"In our lifetime," says economist Robert K. Kaufman of Boston University, who is forty-six [predicative], "we will have to deal with a peak in the supply of cheap oil." (Appenzeller)

Last year newly prosperous professionals snapped up over two million [object] – up 70 percent of cars over 2002. (Appenzeller)

Using data from the US Geological Survey, Greene presents a brighter picture, with world production most likely to peak around 2040 [adverbial modifier of time]. (Appenzeller)

It should be mentioned that, in the sentence, both cardinal and ordinal numerals perform, as a rule, the attributive function. It should be noted, however, that the substantivized position is most frequently caused by anaphoric use:

It could be five years from now or thirty: No one knows for sure, and geologists and economists are embroiled in debate about just when the "oil peak" will be upon us. (Appenzeller)

Cardinal numerals, i.e. those indicating exact number, are used non-anaphorically if they denote an abstract number: Two and two is four. In the attributive position cardinal numeral influences the form of a noun – singular or plural: one day – two days.

Ordinal numerals, indicating a fraction denominator, are completely substantivized and are used in the plural form:

In the US about two-thirds of the oil goes to make fuel for cars, trucks, and planes. (Appenzeller)

Cardinal numerals may also be used with the definite article: No one moved: the two were waiting for the right moment to strike. These cases may be interpreted as partially substantivized.

Absence of formal, i.e. morphological properties, as well as lack of specific, peculiar to numerals only syntactic functions was the reason for dismissing numerals as part of speech. The dismissal resulted in that numerals were treated as subgroups of nouns or adjectives, which is quite typical of Western linguists. Sometimes only cardinal numerals are treated as numerals proper, while ordinal numerals are referred to adjectives, since they have

no specific properties. It may be argued, however, that in this case researchers completely neglect close ties between cardinals and ordinals, revealed both in their lexical meaning and in their derivation patterns. All in all, one can't but notice that, though the two types of numerals – cardinals as well as ordinals – may coincide syntactically with nouns and adjectives, still they share a specific lexical meaning.

## VERB

### 1. Grammatical meaning

The verb is a part of speech that conveys a grammatical meaning of an action, i.e. of a dynamic quality developing in time. Here, the grammatical meaning of an action is stretched: it is understood not only as "action" proper but also as a state or a statement of existence of an object, or as a statement of its belonging to a class of similar objects: A pear is a fruit, He ran a mile, He will soon wake up. It should be emphasized that the verb conveys the meaning of an action dynamically, i.e. the action develops within a certain time span (though this time span may be unlimited). This dynamic quality of the expressed action makes the verb different from adjectives which denote some static quality without any reference to temporal relations. The verb differs from certain nouns in that nouns such as motion, development, swimming are abstract names of actions, whereas finite forms of the verb always represent actions as produced by a certain doer. That is why the only syntactic function of the finite forms is that of a predicate.

The verb seems to be an area of grammar which has always drawn the greatest attention in language studies. The verb can be called the most complicated unit of language, the keystone of the utterance and, consequently, the keystone of communication in general.

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

The grammatical categories of the English verb find their expression in synthetic and analytical forms. The formative elements expressing these categories are grammatical affixes, inner inflection and auxiliaries. Some categories have only synthetic forms (person, number), others – only ana-

lytical (voice distinctions). There are also categories expressed by both synthetic and analytical forms (mood, time, aspect).

The complexity of the verb is inherent not only in the intricate structure of its grammatical categories, but also in its various subclass divisions, as well as in its falling into two sets of forms profoundly different from each other: the finite set and the non-finite set.

## 2. Morphemic structure

Verb-forming derivational means are not numerous. The common devices are 1) affixation, 2) conversion, 3) verb+adverb combination, 4) back-formation.

There is a rather short list of derivational affixes making English verbs. First, these are a limited number of suffixes such as the suffixes *-en* (*to blacken, to strengthen, to toughen*), *-fy* (*to intensify, to ratify, to clarify*), *-ize* (*to legalize, to emphasize, to characterize*), *-ate* (*operate, stimulate, mitigate*), *-ish* (*brandish, finish, furnish*) and the prefix *en-* with allomorphs and dialectal variants *em-*, *in-*, *im-* (*enforce, enclose, embezzle, embellish, insure, inquire, imbed, imbibe*).

Conversion (also referred to as zero-derivation) consists of a process when a word (in the case with verbs this is, as a rule, a noun) acquires a paradigm of some other part of speech (in our case – the verbal paradigm). Verbs formed by means of conversion abound in English: *to pencil* something, *to bicycle, to sandwich* (something between something else), *to water* (plants), *to wallpaper* (a room). Verbs may be formed by conversion from parts of speech other than nouns: cf. *to blah* in *She went blah-ing on about things being important...*, consider also *to happy, to wet, to round, to up*.

Verbs of the *give-up* type, i.e. verbs with the structure “verb+adverb” (sometimes the second component is called “postpositive”), are colloquial and add an idiomatic power to the language (*to go on, to come between, to let down, to fall out, to get by, to see through, to turn in*). The unity of the two parts of separable words may be well illustrated by numerous examples. Let us take the sentence *She ate up the whole cake*. In a conventional sense *up* might be an adverb signifying direction, but in this construction it serves to intensify the action, and comes to be synonymous with the adverb *completely*. Thus, the postpositive *up* may convey aspectual meaning (cf. *to wind up – wind, to eat up – to eat, to speak up – to speak*, etc.).

To distinguish between the postpositive and the ordinary adverbial modifier, compare also the following:

*The wind blew so strongly that the nest turned upside down and baby birds fell out.*

*Jim and Mary fall out every few weeks, but their quarrels never last.*

Clearly, *out* in the first and the second sentences has quite distinct functions.

On the whole, Modern English has produced a great number of verbs of the *give-up* type, which some scholars ascribe to the persistence of analytic tendencies in the language.

The fourth word formation pattern is backformation, i.e. derivation of verbs by means of dropping the final elements of nouns: *to edit* from *editor*, *to sunbathe* from *sunbathing*, *to baby-sit* from *babysitter*.

## 3. Morphological, combinatorial and semantic classifications

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

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

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

/t/ after a dental consonant (e.g. *looked, stopped*)

/ɪd/ after a dental consonant (e.g. *loaded, spotted*).

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

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

A separate group of irregular verbs is formed by verbs that remain unchanged throughout the paradigm: *to put, to let, to hit, to cost, to cut*.

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

Another semantic classification in modern linguistics is based on the ability of a verb to have a certain number of dependent sentence parts (subjects, objects). Clearly, the number of possible "places" depends on semantic characteristics of a verb. Thus, the verbs *to rain*, *to snow* are **one-place predicates**, since only one position (that of a subject) is possible in the sentences *It rains*, *It snowed*; *to be* is a **two-place predicate**, since it may have only two related elements (*Jack is an actor*); the verbs *to give*, *to offer*, *to present* describe actions of giving and presuppose three participants (*James gave a book to Lesley*), i.e. these verbs are **three-place predicates**. One may notice that the "valency" of a verb correlates with syntactic and morphological characteristics, in that one-place predicates are the nucleus of impersonal sentences, two-place predicates are intransitive, and three-place predicates belong to transitive ones.

This classification is grounded not only on the number of participants required for an action but also on the semantic relations that exist between a certain verb and a required participant. These relations are called "roles", or semantic ("deep") cases, discussed above (see p. p. 48–51).

The semantic approach to classification of verbs, based on participants to an action and their roles, makes it possible to distinguish so-called **verbs-conversives**. Conversives are defined as verbs describing the same situation from different angles. For example, the verbs *to sell* and *to buy* denote an action of "getting/giving something for money" involving both a buyer and a seller. The situation is the same for both but the role distribution is different. The verb *to sell* requires a *seller* as an agent, whereas the verb *to buy* correlates with a *buyer* as an agent.

Conversives enable speakers to construct sentences with different functional perspectives. In other words, conversives enable the speaker to position first either an agent or a recipient taking into account which of them represents the theme and the rheme of a sentence (see p. p. 294–300).



Semantic approach to verb classification also permits to distinguish one more specific group that used to escape notice. John Austin, an American philosopher, paid attention to a number of verbs that in certain syntactic conditions are quite peculiar: instead of conveying some information on an action, they are equal to actions, i.e. by naming an action, they are the action themselves (e.g. *I promise, I swear, I name this ship the Queen Elizabeth, I bequeath my watch to my son, I declare you husband and wife*).

There are certain so-called 'felicitous conditions' necessary for the **performative verbs** to perform actions. The verbs should be used in the present form of the first person singular by an authority, empowered to perform the action (for example, only a priest (or, on some special occasions, a captain of a ship, or an ambassador) has the right to marry a couple, otherwise the marriage is not legitimate).

Many modern Western linguists divide verbs into **stative** and **active**. The main peculiarity of active verbs is their use in the progressive tense: *they are speaking, she is painting*. Stative verbs, such as *to know, to understand, to see*, cannot be used in the progressive tense.

#### 4. Functional classification

The functional classification presupposes differentiation of verbs according to their ability to form a certain type of the predicate. This ability stems from the lexical meaningfulness of a verb. **Notional verbs** are lexically meaningful verbs that denote an action or a state and perform in the sentence an independent function.

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

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

**Auxiliary verbs** are used as purely grammatical means to form analytical forms of the verb; their lexical meaning is completely lost, therefore they may combine with the verbs whose meaning would contradict the meaning of an auxiliary if the latter mattered in any way: cf. *I have lost my wallet*. Here *to lose* could hardly go together with *to have* if *to have* preserved its lexical meaning. It is a complete loss of the lexical meaning of auxiliaries

that makes it possible to speak of some verbal forms as analytical, since the absence of syntactic relations between the components is the requirement that a form must meet to be called analytical (compare to the debates over "analytical forms" of degrees of comparison).

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

Verbs used in the function of **substitutes** replace any notional verb that has already appeared in the immediate context, e.g. *Nobody knows him better than I do, Cindy wrote better letters than her sister ever did*. The true substitute-verb in Modern English is the verb *to do*. As a word of a most generalized meaning, *do* can stand for any verb, except *be* and *have* and modal verbs (cf. *You should not try to appear better than you are; Don't bring up the money issue. - But I already have!; John can ignore your indifference but I can't*).

The verb *to do* may function as an **intensifier** of the verbal idea, e.g. *She does know where the treasures are; They did search everywhere; Do take care of yourself!* Besides the verb *to do*, mention should be made of the idiomatic use of the verb *to go* in such patterns as *He went and did it* (cf. "Взяв і зробив"); *He went and bought this incredibly expensive car* (cf. "Взяв і купив неймовірно дорогу машину"). It is obvious that in patterns with *to go and* followed by the infinitive there is no idea of real motion attached to the verb *to go*.

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

**Modal verbs** express attitude or relation of the agent to the action. This relation - possibility, obligation, volition, prohibition, permission, etc. - is a grammatical meaning of modal verbs. The question whether this meaning may be considered a lexical one remains the topic to debate. It is quite

possible that in modal verbs lexical and grammatical meanings are merged. It should also be added that modal verbs are characterized by a deficient paradigm. Their forms lack the categories of person and number (though notional verbs also have only rudimentary traces of these categories); some modal verbs have no past forms (e.g. *must*, *ought to*).

## 5. Grammatical categories

### 5.1. Person and number

Number and person distinctions are found in verbs in many languages. This was the case in Old English where the verb was characterized by a developed paradigm. In Modern English, verb forms have lost the vast majority of formal markers. As a result, the range of the two categories is very limited.

The categories of person and number are closely connected with each other. Their immediate connection is conditioned by the two factors: firstly, by their situational meaning, referring the process denoted by the verb to the subject in the situation; secondly, by their direct and immediate relation to the syntactic unit expressing the subject as the functional part of the sentence. Both categories are different in principle from the other categories of the finite verb, in so far as they do not convey any inherently "verbal" semantics.

The expression of the category of person is essentially confined to the singular form of the verb in the present tense of the Indicative Mood and, in addition, it is very singularly presented in the future tense. As for the past tense, the person is alien to it except for a trace of person distinction in the archaic conjugation.

In the present tense the expression of the category of person is divided into three peculiar subsystems:

1. The first subsystem includes the modal verbs that have no personal inflections: *can*, *may*, *must*, *shall*, *will*, *ought*, *need*, *dare*. So, in the formal sense, the category of person is wholly neutralized with these verbs.
2. The second subsystem is made up by the unique verbal lexeme *be*: the verb *be* has three different suppletive personal forms (*am* for the first person singular, *is* for the third person singular, and *are* for plural forms).
3. The third subsystem presents just the regular, normal expression of person. The mark is confined here to the third person singular *-(e)s*, the other two persons (the first and the second) remaining unmarked, e.g. *comes* – *come*, etc.

In the future tense, the person finds quite another mode of expression. It marks not the third, but the first person in distinction to the remaining two and it also includes in its sphere the plural. The very principle of the person featuring is not in morphemic inflection (as it is the case with the present), but in the positional use of *shall* – *will* specifically marking the first person.

Passing on to the expression of grammatical number by the English finite verb, we are faced with the interesting fact that it is hardly featured at all from the formally morphemic point of view. The more or less distinct morphemic featuring of the category of number can be seen only with the archaic forms of the unique *be*, both in the present tense and in the past tense. As for the rest of the verbs, the blending of the morphemic expression of the categories of person and number is complete, for the only explicit morphemic opposition in the integral categorial sphere of person and number is reduced with these verbs to the third person singular (the present tense of the Indicative Mood) being contrasted against the unmarked finite form of the verb.

As soon as we take into consideration the functional side of the analysed forms, we discover at once that these forms exist in unity with the person-numerical forms of the subject. This unity is of such a nature that the universal and true indicator of person and number of the subject of the verb will be the subject itself. The combination of the English finite verb with the subject is obligatory not only in the general syntactic sense, but also in the categorial sense of expressing the subject-person of the process.

An objection to this thesis can be made on the ground that in the text the actual occurrence of the subject with the finite verb is not always observed. Moreover, the absence of the subject in living colloquial English is, in general, not an unusual feature (e-mails and text messages may be taken as examples of omission of the first person pronoun: *sent u e-mail but had no answer so far*; *leave tomorrow, can see u today?* etc.). However, these examples cannot be taken for a disproof of the obligatory connection between the verb and its subject, because the corresponding subject-nouns, possibly together with some other accompanying words, are zeroed on certain syntactico-stylistic principles (namely, brevity of expression in familiar style, concentration on the main informative parts of the communication, individual speech habits, etc.).

The bulk of the subject-verb relation cases have been treated by traditional grammar in terms of “**agreement in sense**”, or “**notional concord**”. We refer to the grammatical agreement of the verb not with the categorical form of the subject expressed morphemically, but with the actual person-numerical interpretation of the denoted referent. Here belong combinations of the finite verb with collective nouns (*government, audience, jury*). With collective nouns, the use of a verb in plural or in singular depends on the speaker’s intention either to reflect the plural composition of the subject, or, on the contrary, to render its integral single-unit quality.

The concept of notional concord is also relevant of predicative constructions whose subject is made imperatively plural by a numeral attribute. Still, the corresponding verbal form is used to treat it both ways: either as an ordinary plural which fulfills its function in immediate keeping with its factual plural referent, or as an integrating name, whose plural grammatical form and constituent composition give only a measure to the subject-matter of denotation (cf. *Three years have elapsed since they met. – Three years is a long time to wait*).

It should be added that under the notional concord heading come constructions whose subject is expressed by a coordinative group of nouns, the verb being given an option of treating it either as a plural or as a singular, e.g. *My heart and soul belongs to this place. – My emotional self and rational self were at variance*.

## 5.2. TENSE

### 5.2.1. Definition

The idea of locating situations in time is a purely conceptual notion. All the events are referred to one of the three time dimensions – the present, the past, or the future. All human languages have ways of locating in time but they do, however, differ from one another on two parameters. The first difference is the way in which situations are located in time, in particular the relative weight assigned to the lexicon and to the grammar in establishing location in time.

The second is the degree of accuracy of time location that is achievable in different languages. For example, though objective time has the three dimensions mentioned above, English offers much more forms for their

expression. The three temporal dimensions can be expressed by means of different English verb forms: Simple/Indefinite (Present, Past, Future), Progressive/Continuous (Present, Past, Future), Perfect (Present, Past, Future), and Perfect Continuous (Present, Past, Future).

The sum total of expressions for locating in time in English can be divided, in terms of their importance for the structure of the language, into three classes. The largest set is composed of **lexically composite expressions**, since this set is potentially infinite. This gives English expressions of the type *ten minutes after the train arrived*, which simply involve slotting more accurate time specifications into the positions of a syntactic expression. The second set is the set of **lexical items** that express location in time, and would include such items as *now, today, yesterday*. Since the stock of items listed in the lexicon is necessarily finite, the range of distinctions possible lexically is necessarily smaller than that which is possible using lexically composite expressions.

Various lexical units are not the only language means to indicate temporal characteristics of events. Moreover, these lexical items and expressions may be omitted, since certain verb forms function to locate a situation or event in time. As time distinction is permanently expressed in grammatical verb forms, the third set of language means is a **grammatical category of tense** defined as a grammaticalized expression of location in time. Traditional grammar regards tense as a category of the verb on the basis of its morphological attachment to the verb, i.e. tense is indicated on the verb, by the verb morphology (as with past *liked* versus non-past *likes*).

Before examining further differences between kinds of location in time that can be grammaticalized versus those that can be lexicalized, it will be useful to include some further discussion on the distinction between grammaticalization and lexicalization in general. The simplest statement of the difference would be to say that **grammaticalization** refers to integration into the grammatical system of a language, while **lexicalization** refers merely to integration into the lexicon of the language, without any necessary repercussions on its grammatical structure. The clearest instances of grammaticalization are both obligatory and morphologically bound, whereas the clearest instances of lexicalization are neither.

There is a major distinction between the kinds of location in time concepts that are characteristically grammaticalized, versus those that are characteristi-

cally lexicalized. The notions that are most commonly grammaticalized across the languages of the world are simple anteriority, simultaneity, and posteriority, i.e. with the present moment as deictic center, past, present and future.

The tenses relating the situation described to the present moment are referred to as **absolute tenses**. Another possible form of time reference is **relative time reference** where, instead of the time of a situation being located relative to the present moment, it is related to the time of some other situation. In English, nonfinite participial constructions, for instance, involve relative rather than absolute tense. In the sentences (a) *when talking with Mary, I ask about her family* and (b) *when talking with Mary, I asked about her family*, the present participle *talking* in both cases indicates a situation located simultaneously with the time of the main verb, irrespective of the tense of this verb. In the (a) sentence, the situation described by *talking* holds at the present, given the present tense *ask*, while in the (b) sentence it held in the past, given the past tense *asked*. The relevant factor in the choice of the present participle is thus relative time reference, not absolute time reference. Similarly, the perfect participle in non-finite participial constructions indicates relative past time reference, e.g. *Having talked with Mary, I know everything about her family*, versus *having talked to Tom, I knew all the gossips*. In English, typically, finite verb forms have absolute tense, and nonfinite verb forms have **relative tense**.

### 5.2.2. Tense and Deixis

Time itself does not provide any landmarks in terms of which one can locate situations. Even if time had had a beginning, we do not know where that beginning was, so we cannot locate anything else relative to that beginning. In principle a number of logical possibilities for reference points are available, and for lexically composite expressions many of these are used in language. Thus our own calendar system chooses as its arbitrary reference point the (traditional) date for Christ's birth, and counts years backwards and forwards from this time point. Another example may be ancient Rome where the reference point was the (traditional) date for the founding of the city of Rome (753 BC).

What one rather finds most typically is the choice of the speech situation as the reference point, i.e. the present moment (for time), the present location (for space), and the speaker and the hearer (for person). As far as tense is concerned, then, the reference point is typically the present moment. As a result, the tenses locate situations either at the same time as the present mo-

ment, or prior to the present moment, or subsequent to the present moment, with further potential categories. A system which relates entities to a reference point is termed a **deictic system**, and we can therefore say that tense is deictic. (By contrast, aspect is non-deictic, since discussion of the internal temporal constituency of a situation is quite independent of its relation to any other time point.)

The most straightforward instance of a deictic system is one where the "here and now", i.e. the speech situation, is taken as deictic center. In terms of person, this defines first person as the speaker and second person as the hearer, with everything else being third person. In terms of place, the place where the speech situation develops is defined as *here*, everywhere else as *there*. In fact, the situation is somewhat more complex for place, since the physical location of speaker and hearer can never be absolutely identical, and it is possible that there may be considerable physical separation between them. English *here* refers more specifically to the location of the speaker, so that if the hearer is physically separated from the speaker the hearer's physical location will be referred to as *there*. Also, English deictic verb *come* indicating motion towards the deictic centre, treats both the speaker's and the hearer's location as deictic centre, even when they are physically separated, so that one can say both *you will come to me* and *I will come to you*.

It is necessary to mention substitution that occurs due to deixis in reported speech, where the original "here - now" turns into "there - then" together with deictic verbs *to come* and *to bring* replaced by *to go* and *to take*. However, along with cases of reported speech, there may be situations that are clarified by the context as having deictic centres other than the "here - now". Thus, with regard to spatial deixis, the verb *to come*, usually referring to the location of either the speaker or the hearer, may be used in relation to a location of some third party in the past: *and at last they came to Paris*. The existence of deictic centres other than the present moment plays a crucial role in relative tense.

In the meantime, it may be noted that non-finite verb forms in English often have relative time reference, i.e. time reference relative to a deictic centre other than the present moment. Thus, in *those making notes could follow the narration*, one possible interpretation of the time reference of *making* is as simultaneous with (or overlapping) that of *could follow*, i.e. the present participle indicates present time reference, but with respect to a ref-

erence point which is in the past. What is crucial to all tense specifications, however, is the need for a deictic centre or reference point.

### 5.2.3. Time and Tense correlation

Given the present moment as deictic centre, it might seem trivial to define the three basic tenses that have formed the backbone of much linguistic work on time reference in grammar, namely present, past and future, as follows: present tense means coincidence of the time of the situation and the present moment; past tense means location of the situation prior to the present moment; future tense means location of the situation after the present moment.

#### Present

It is relatively rare for a situation to coincide exactly with the present moment, i.e. to occupy, literally or in terms of our conception of the situation, a single point in time which is exactly commensurate with the present moment. Situations of this rare type do, however, occur, and of course the present tense is an appropriate form to use in locating them temporally. One set of examples falling under this rubric would be performative sentences, i.e. sentences where the act described by the sentence is performed by uttering the sentence in question, e.g. *I name this ship the 'Titanic'* (under the appropriate circumstances, the utterance constitutes the act of naming the ship). Although the situation is not strictly momentaneous, since it takes a certain period of time to utter even the shortest sentence, it can be conceptualized as momentaneous.

Another set of examples where there is literal coincidence between the time location of a situation and the present moment is with simultaneous reports of an ongoing series of events. Thus, when a horse-racing commentator says *Red Rover crosses the finishing line*, his utterance of this sentence coincides, or at least is taken conceptually to coincide, with the event of Red Rover's crossing the finishing line; and since the report is simultaneous with the situation being described, there is literal location of a situation at the present moment in time. However, situations of the kinds described are relatively rare, and the more normal uses of the present tense go far beyond this restricted range.

A more characteristic use of the present tense is in referring to situations which occupy a much longer period of time than the present moment, but which nonetheless include the present moment within them. In particular, the present tense is used to speak of states and processes which hold at

the present moment, but which began before the present moment and may well continue beyond the present moment, as in *the Eiffel Tower stands in Paris* and *the gardener is watering the plants*. In each of these examples, it is indeed true that the situation holds at the present moment, but it is not the case that the situations are restricted only to the present moment. In the first sentence, the present tense is obviously used with habitual aspectual meaning, as in *Linda wakes up at 7 a.m. (every day)*. This might seem to be a contradiction to the definition of the present tense, since we can use this sentence to describe Linda's behaviour by uttering the sentence at midday, when it is clearly not literally true that Linda is waking up at the moment at which the sentence is uttered. This has given rise to the setting up of separate tense categories to refer to situations that actually hold at the present moment versus situations that do occur habitually but do not actually hold at the present moment. Sentences with habitual aspectual meaning refer not to a sequence of situations recurring at intervals, but rather to a habit, a characteristic situation that holds at all times.

Obviously, as far as the present tense is concerned, in its basic meaning it invariably locates a situation at the present moment, and says nothing beyond that. In particular, it does not say that the same situation does not continue beyond the present moment, nor that it did not hold in the past. More accurately, the situation expressed by the verb in the present tense is simply a situation holding literally at the present moment; whether or not this situation is part of a larger situation extending into the past or the future is an implicature that is worked out on the basis of other features of the sentence structure and one's knowledge of the real world. Aspect will be one of the most important factors in deciding whether the larger situation is restricted just to the present moment or not. Thus, the use of the Progressive Aspect necessarily requires that the situation in question be momentaneous, so that use of this grammatical form will lead inevitably to the interpretation where the present moment is just one moment among many at which the larger situation holds – but this follows automatically from the meaning of the Progressive, and does not compromise the meaning of the present tense. In other examples, it will be our real-world knowledge that enables us to decide whether a situation is literally to be located just at the present moment or over a period encompassing the present moment.

## Past

The meaning of the past tense is location in time prior to the present moment, and any further deductions about temporal location that are made on the basis of individual sentences in the past tense are the result of factors other than simply the choice of tense. On other words, the past tense simply locates the situation in question prior to the present moment, and says nothing about whether the past situation occupies just a single point prior to the present moment, or an extended time prior to the present moment, or indeed the whole of time up to the present moment, as in the following examples: *at two o'clock I had a meeting with our French partners*; *Kim worked for the company from 2001 to 2004*; *up to this moment the results were not analyzed*. The concept "past time reference" is neutral as between the interpretation assigned to the two English sentences: *Linda was in London*; *Linda has been in London*. The first implies the existence of a specific occasion on which Linda was in London, the ability to refer to which is shared by speaker and hearer; the second simply indicates that there is some time in the past, not necessarily further identifiable by speaker and hearer, at which the sentence holds.

To develop the discussion on the meaning of the English Perfect, Simple Past, and Past Perfect, it is necessary to compare them in the following sentences: *Mary has cut her finger*, *Mary cut her finger*, *Mary had cut her finger*. Here one gets the impression of a steady movement backwards in time, i.e. although all three refer to a situation in the past of Mary's cutting her finger, the first seems to be closest to the present moment, while the last seems most remote from the present moment. However, this is not part of the meaning of these verbs forms, and the apparent degrees of remoteness can easily be shown to be illusory. The **Present Perfect** indicates that the past situation has current relevance (i.e. relevance at the present moment), while the **Simple Past** does not carry this element of meaning (thus one natural interpretation of the Simple Past in this example is that Mary's finger is at the moment healed). It is more likely that recent events will have current more relevance than remote events, whence the tendency, out of context, to interpret the Perfect as referring to a more recent event than the Simple Past. However, if Mary's finger has not healed over, then the Perfect can be used no matter how long ago the cutting took place, as in *Mary has cut her finger – it happened a week ago and it still hasn't healed*. English

has a rule preventing occurrence of the Perfect with a time adverbial referring to a specific time point in the past, so that if we want to locate Mary's cutting her finger in time by means of such a time adverbial, then the Simple Past must be used, even to refer to a very recent event, as in *Mary cut/\*has cut her finger five minutes ago*, even though five minutes ago is much more recent than a week ago.

It is important to note that the claim is not that no time adverbial is possible with the Present Perfect. There are particular contexts in which the Present Perfect collocates with adverbial modifiers. For example, if the time adverbial is interpreted habitually, i.e. as referring to a class of time points/periods rather than just to a specific time point or period, then collocation is possible, as in *I have arrived at two o'clock* (i.e. there has been at least one instance in my life when I arrived at two o'clock), or *whenever I get here at two o'clock the boss has already left at one-thirty for lunch*, in the first of these examples, it is not possible to interpret the sentence with *at two o'clock* referring, for instance, specifically to two o'clock today. It is possible for the Present Perfect to co-occur with a time adverbial having present time reference, or more accurately having time reference including the present moment, e.g. *the boss has now left*, or *the boss has gone out this afternoon*.

This constraint on the Present Perfect in English does not, however, carry over to the Past Perfect and the Future Perfect. With the Past Perfect and the Future Perfect, it is possible for time adverbials to refer to the specific point or period of time at which the situation is located. Thus *John had arrived on Tuesday* can be interpreted to mean either that Tuesday was the time of John's arrival (the rest of the context giving a reference point between Tuesday and the present moment), or that Tuesday is the reference point prior to which John's arrival is located. The first of these interpretations clearly distinguishes adverbial collocation possibilities of the Past Perfect from those of the Present Perfect. The meaning of the **Past Perfect** is the location of a situation prior to a reference point that is itself in the past, so that in *Mary had cut her finger before we entered the kitchen* a past reference point is defined by the past tense verb *arrived*, and Mary's cutting her finger is located prior to this reference point. Since there is necessarily a past situation prior to some other past situation, the Past Perfect does, other things being equal, receive an interpretation of greater temporal remoteness.

Therefore, it would not be possible in English to say simply, out of context, \*the Romans had conquered Britain.

In short, use of the past tense only locates the situation in the past, without saying anything about whether that situation continues to the present or into the future, although there is often a conversational implicature that it does not continue to or beyond the present.

### Future

In terms of the analysis of tense presented so far, it might seem straightforward to define future tense as locating a situation at a time subsequent to the present moment. One would then be able to elaborate on this, in particular demonstrating that any deduction that the situation in question does not hold at the present moment is at best an implicature, rather than part of the meaning of the future tense. Thus *Sandra will be making a cake when we leave for the airport in ten minutes* does not exclude the possibility that she may already have started making the cake.

The English expression of future time reference *will* derives diachronically from modal expressions. However, this diachronic relation says nothing of the synchronic status of this form.

Traditional grammar usually presents English as having a future tense, namely the form using the auxiliary *will* (for some speakers, also *shall*) and the Infinitive of a notional verb, as in *Linda will go to London tomorrow*. There are two directions in which one could object to this analysis. First, the auxiliary *will* has a number of other uses in addition to the expression of future time reference, in particular modal uses which do not necessarily have future time reference: in particular, *will* can be used to indicate volition with present time reference (*he won't listen to me*). From the other direction, there are many instances of future time reference where it is not necessary to use the auxiliary *will*, but rather the present tense suffices, as in *the plane departs at three o'clock tomorrow morning*. Thus future time reference is neither a necessary nor a sufficient condition for the use of *will* in English.

However, it is hardly possible to claim that the present tense is freely used to express future events. It is known that the present tense is quite restricted in its use to denote events of future time location. In main clauses, for example, there is a heavy constraint on the use of the present tense with future time reference, namely that the situation referred to must be one that

is scheduled. In our example above, *the plane departs at three o'clock tomorrow morning*, use of the present tense is justified because the situation referred to is indeed one that is scheduled. However, the sentence *it rains tomorrow* is decidedly odd. The reason why the sentence is unacceptable is that it requires an interpretation under which the occurrence of rain tomorrow is scheduled, and our knowledge of the world as it is today indicates that rain is not schedulable in this way. The sentence would, however, be acceptable, if one imagined a context where rain is schedulable, i.e. if God is talking, or if advances in meteorology made it possible for humans to schedule rain. This suggests that, in accounting for the use of the construction with *will*, it will be necessary to make explicit separate reference to scheduling and to future time reference.

In some subordinate clauses, in particular in temporal and conditional clauses, the auxiliary *will* with future time reference is normally excluded even in instances where in main clauses *will* would be required because of the absence of scheduling. Thus, alongside *it will rain tomorrow*, we have *if it will rain/rains tomorrow, we will go for a walk*. In conditional clauses, *will* with modal meaning is permitted, e.g. *if he won't wash up after dinner, I won't cook breakfast tomorrow morning*. Thus, uses of *will* with future time reference are grammatically distinct from modal uses of *will* in such subordinate clauses, so that again the grammar will have to refer directly to the feature of future time reference. Some scholars believe that such examples suggest that English does have a separate grammatical category of future time reference, i.e. a future tense.

English has constructions with (as part of their meaning) immediate future time reference, but without it being clear that these constructions should be analyzed as grammaticalization of time reference. For instance, the constructions *to be about to* and *to be on the point of* contain immediate future time reference, as in *John is about to jump off the cliff*. However, immediate future time reference does not exhaust the meaning of this construction, which differs from the future not only in range of time reference but also in that it expresses a present propensity to a future situation that may, however, be blocked by intervening factors. Thus *John will jump off the cliff* is untrue if John does not, in fact, jump off the cliff, while *John is about to jump off the cliff* is still true if someone rushes over and prevents him from doing so. For the relevance of an immediate future cut-off point

in languages which otherwise lack distinctions of temporal distance in the future, one might compare the use of the past for immediate future events in Ukrainian я *нишов* "I'm off", literally "I left"; these forms, however, are idiomatic rather than grammaticalized.

#### 5.2.4. Absolute, relative and absolute-relative tenses

As it has been mentioned above, the notion "moment of speech" is extremely important for the tense category because it provides a reference point with objective time. However, only Simple/Indefinite forms (Present, Past, and Future) use the moment of speech in this way. Forms that relate events with the speaking moment are called **absolute**.

Use of **relative tense** is restricted to nonfinite verb forms and will be dealt with in more detail in paragraphs on non-finites. With **relative tense**, the reference point for location of a situation is some point in time given by the context, not necessarily the present moment. In English, as it has been noted, although finite verb forms have absolute time reference in nearly all instances, non-finite verb forms characteristically have relative time reference. To catch the difference between absolute and relative tenses, it is useful to look at the distinction with time adverbials. Some time adverbials serve specifically to locate a situation relative to the present moment, e.g. *today, yesterday, tomorrow*; these are all instances of absolute time reference. In addition, there are (in general distinct) adverbials which locate a situation relative to some reference point given by the context, such as *on the same day, on the day before, on the next day*; these are all instances of relative time reference. In a sentence with an adverbial of relative time reference, such as *on the next day Jill went to her first rehearsal*, one's natural reaction is to look for a reference point in terms of which this time adverbial can be interpreted – the next day after what? In a sentence with an adverbial of absolute time reference, this question does not arise: the time reference of *tomorrow Jill will go to her first rehearsal* is quite clear.

In contrast to absolute tenses, where a situation is located at, before, or after the present moment; and relative tenses, where a situation is located at, before, or after a reference point given by the context, **absolute-relative tense** forms combine these two kinds of time reference. In other words, they have as part of their meaning that a reference point is situated at, before, or after the present moment and in addition that a situation is located at, before,

or after that reference point. Therefore they denote actions either posterior or anterior to some reference point different from the moment of speech.

The notion of absolute-relative tense describes the Past Perfect in English. The meaning of the Past Perfect is that there is a reference point in the past, and that the situation in question is located prior to that reference point, i.e. the Past Perfect can be thought of as "past in the past". Often, the reference point is given by a time adverbial, as in *Linda had e-mailed you her report by two o'clock yesterday*, where the time adverbial *by two o'clock yesterday* establishes a reference point in the past (2 p.m. yesterday), and Linda's action is located prior to that time point. The reference point may be given by a principal clause to which the clause containing the Past Perfect is subordinate, as in *when Linda had e-mailed her report, she found several mistakes in it*, where the past tense of the principal clause defines a reference point in the past (namely, the time of Linda's finding mistakes in the report), and Linda's e-mailing is located prior to this. The clauses can also be in the inverse relation, as in *Linda had already e-mailed her report when she found several mistakes in it*. Or the reference may be given more generally by the context, as in a sequence of independent clauses like *John brought new data; she had already e-mailed the incomplete report*.

Since the Past Perfect indicates a time point before some other time point in the past, it follows that the situation referred to by the Past Perfect is itself located in the past. Thus time points that can be referred to by the Past Perfect can in principle also be referred to by the Past Simple; this is not, incidentally, true. It is obvious that, in locating situations in time, it is necessary not only to relate situations relative to the present moment, but also to relate them chronologically to one another. A simple sequence of past tenses fails to do this, e.g. *John brought new data; Linda e-mailed the report*, which leaves open whether John's action preceded or followed Mary's e-mailing. Given the tendency for linear order of clauses to follow chronological order of events, the example given is most likely to be interpreted as meaning that John's action took place first, then Mary's e-mailing followed. If for some reason it is desired to present events in other than chronological order, the Past Perfect is an ideal mechanism for indicating this.

The Future Perfect has a meaning similar to that of the Past Perfect, except that here the reference point is in the future rather than in the past. Thus *I will have e-mailed you* indicates that there is a reference point in the future,



and that my e-mailing is located temporally prior to that reference point. Just as with the Past Perfect, the reference point is to be deduced from the context: the meaning of the form says only that there must be such a reference point, and gives no indication of where the reference point should be sought. The reference point may be given by a time adverbial, as in *I will have e-mailed you the report by two p.m.*, where *by two p.m.* establishes the reference point prior to which my e-mailing is located. But equally, the reference point may be given more diffusely by the more general context as in the following sequence of clauses: *so you're not getting the data until lunch; unfortunately, I will have e-mailed the report* – although it is always, of course, possible to add further specification of the reference point in the same clause as the Future Perfect, e.g. *...I will have e-mailed the report by then.*

### 5.2.5. Basic and secondary meanings of tenses

It is acknowledged that a given grammatical category may have more than one meaning (for example, it is believed that the auxiliary *will* might have both temporal and modal meanings). In other words, a grammatical category may have a basic meaning and a number of peripheral meanings or uses.

An analysis of tense often encounters difficulties, since this grammatical category has certain uses which are not subsumed by, and may even be contradictory to, the definition in terms of location in time. The English past may serve as an example. Although most uses of the past tense do serve to locate situations prior to the present moment, there are several uses that do not. One is in conditional clauses, e.g. *if you did this I would be grateful*, where *did* clearly does not have past time reference, but refers rather to a potential action in the present or future. Some English speakers feel a distinction between the form of the verb *to be* used in such constructions and the form of the verb used with past time reference – cf. *John was in London* (past time reference), but *if John were in London* (conditional present) – so that one might argue that here we are simply dealing with two distinct but homonymous (for most verbs, or, for some speakers, for all verbs) forms. However, this cannot be applied to the use of the past tense in polite requests, as in *I just wanted to ask you if you could replace me at work tomorrow*, which in most circumstances is unlikely to be intended or to be interpreted as a report on the speaker's desires in the past, but rather as an expression of a present request of a favour. The function of the past in this example is to

indicate politeness: the version given is more polite than *I just want to ask you if you could replace me at work tomorrow*.

The existence of such counterexamples to the general characterization of the English past as indicating past time reference does not invalidate this general characterization, given the distinction between basic and secondary meanings: past time reference is the basic meaning of the past tense, while politeness is a secondary meaning (or, perhaps more accurately, use) of the same form. (Compare the use of past tense in Ukrainian to express imminent future events: *Я ніуюв* (meant as a statement of the intended future action, cf. *I'm leaving*), *сів та зробив домашнє завдання* (meant as an imperative sentence, cf. *You go and confess*)). This phenomenon is called **grammatical polysemy**, i.e. the ability of grammatical forms to have several meanings.

The examples above are instances where it is reasonably clear which of the various uses of the given grammatical form should be taken as the basic meaning. There are other cases, however, where this distinction is much less clear-cut. One of the cases is the characterization of the so-called future tense in English, which can certainly be used to make predictions about other times, e.g. the present, as in *it will be raining already* (said by somebody who had noticed the storm-clouds gathering, but has not yet actually ascertained that it is already raining), in addition to various other modal uses, as in *he will go swimming in dangerous waters*, i.e. "he insists on going swimming", *will you do me a favour?*, i.e. "are you willing to do this for me?". Great controversy has surrounded the question whether the future (i.e. the form with the auxiliary *will*) should be given a single characterization that captures both its temporal and its modal uses; or whether it should be considered basically a tense with secondary modal uses, or basically a mood with secondary temporal uses; or whether it should simply be said to have two sets of meanings, temporal and modal, with neither being dominant.

Tense forms may also acquire an emotional colouring, which results from certain contexts. Cf.:

*You will work here* – the Simple Future expresses prediction or a spontaneously made decision;

*You will be working here* – the Future Continuous is a means to inform politely about a future arrangement

*You work/are working here* – the Present Indefinite or the Present Continuous are used to express a categorical order).

Thus, tenses have meanings definable in particular contexts; it is possible for a given tense to have more than one meaning, in which case some of the meanings may be more basic than others. It is possible that a tense will receive particular interpretations in particular contexts, but these are always explainable in terms of the interaction of context and context-independent meaning.

### 5.2.6. Paradoxical use of tenses

Worthy of note, however, are utterances where the meaning of the past tense stands in contrast with the meaning of some adverbial phrase referring the event to the present moment: *Today again I spoke to Mr Jones*. The seeming linguistic paradox of such cases consists in the fact that their two types of time indication, one verbal-grammatical, and one adverbial-lexical, approach the same event from two opposite angles. But there is nothing irrational here: the utterance presents instances of two-plane temporal evaluation of the event. The verb-form shows the process as past and gone; as for the adverbial modifier, it presents the past event as a particular happening belonging to a more general time situation.

A case directly opposite to the one shown above is seen in the transpositional use of the present tense in the verb with the past adverbials, either included in the utterance as such, or else expressed in its contextual environment:

*“Well, I’m standing in my shop one morning, and in walks Barry. Says he wants a dozen roses. “Fine,” I say, and I turn to get them, and all at once, out of the corner of my eye, I see the strangest thing.”* (Tyler)

The stylistic purpose of this transposition known under the name of the **historic present** is to create a vivid picture of the event. This is acknowledged in strict accord with the functional meaning of the verbal present, sharply contrasted against the general background of the past plane of the context.

In addition, a regular transposition of tenses, occurring in English subordinate clauses of time and condition, represent an example of complex interaction between meanings of tenses and other aspects of the syntax. In the mentioned subordinate clauses we find that the future tense is either impossible, being replaced by the present with future time reference, or exists only as an alternative to the present tense, as in the following example: *If you go/\*will go without the coat, you’ll catch cold* and *When I arrive/\*will*

*arrive, I will call you*. Conditional and temporal clauses provide the most interesting interplay of factors. We thus have an instance where a syntactic rule accounts for an apparently anomalous use of a tense.

### 5.2.7. Sequence of tenses: Indirect speech

In English, there is a clear distinction between direct and indirect speech. In direct speech, the original speaker’s exact words are reproduced, without any change whatsoever, as in *John said yesterday, ‘I’ll send you the data tomorrow’*. Note in particular that in this example the pronoun *I* refers to the original speaker, i.e. John; the adverb *tomorrow* is interpreted from the viewpoint of the original speaker’s deictic centre, i.e. the time reference of *tomorrow* is the day after John’s utterance. In indirect speech, two obvious changes take place. The first, which is optional, is that the speaker’s original wording may be changed, as long as the same content is expressed as in the original utterance; in the example above one might, for instance, replace *leave* by *depart*, as in *John said that he would depart today*.

More important is the shift in deictic centre. Apart from tense, all the other elements sensitive in the speaker’s original utterance to his deictic centre are shifted to correspond to the deictic centre of the person reporting this utterance. Thus, in the example above, in indirect speech we find *he* for *I* of the original, and *today* for *tomorrow* of the original. It is important to note that what is relevant in going from direct to indirect speech is the shift in deictic centre, and not only any mechanical procedure for replacing one set of forms by another.

In English, clearly there is a (possible) change in the tense of the verb in the shift from direct to indirect speech, as we can see in the replacement of *will leave* (with future time reference) by *would leave* in the examples just cited. At first sight, it might seem that this follows from the general change of deictic centre already observed for other deictics. With this particular example, this would indeed be compatible with the meaning of the future in the past *would leave*: a reference point is established in the past (namely, the time of John’s utterance), and the time reference of the situation located (namely, the time of John’s departure) is subsequent to this reference point. Below, however, we shall see that this is not the correct analysis of tense in indirect speech in English, since there is a different analysis which gives correct predictions in a number of instances where the shift of deictic centre analysis gives the wrong prediction for use of tense in indirect speech; it just happens that in the example discussed both analyses give the same prediction.

It should be noted that the interaction of the rule requiring shift of deictics other than tense and the absence of any shift in tense, between direct and indirect speech, can lead to apparent conflicts between time reference of the verb and of adverbials.

The English sequence of tenses rule is subject to one interesting modification. Even when the main verb is in a past tense, it is possible (though not obligatory) to avoid invoking the shift to past sequence in the subordinate clause, provided that the content of the indirect speech still has validity. Thus, I can report John's actual words *I am ill*, spoken in the past, either as *John said that he was ill* or as *John said that he is ill*. In the former version, no commitment is made as to whether John's (actual or alleged) illness is a state continuing up to the present. In the second version, however, it is necessarily the case that I am reporting a (real or imaginary) illness which I believe still has relevance. One could use this version, for instance, if someone asked why John is not at work today, in which case the question makes clear that, whatever answer is given, it must have current validity. The same failure to apply the sequence of tenses rule can be seen with other tenses in the subordinate clause, e.g. *John said that he would/will leave tomorrow*; one cannot, of course, have *John said that he will leave yesterday*, where the time reference of the subordinate clause clearly has past time reference, not continuing validity. A more complex example is reporting *I will leave before Jane returns*, as said by John in the past. It is possible to leave both subordinate verbs in the non-past, i.e. *John said he will leave before Jane returns*, with the implication that John's leaving and Jane's return are possible future events. It is also possible to leave just the last verb in the non-past, i.e. *John said that he would leave before Jane returns*, which leaves open the possibility that John has already left, but implies that Jane has not yet returned – this version could naturally be followed by *...and he has/did*, which cannot be appended to *John said that he will leave before Jane returns*. The version with both verbs shifted to past sequence, i.e. *John said that he would leave before Jane returned*, is the only version possible if John has in fact already left and Jane has already returned – this version could be followed by *...and he has/did*.

The fact that one can retain non-past tenses in sentences like *John said that he is ill*, where the content of the reported speech has continuing validity, might seem to be an argument in favour of the deictic centre approach to tense in indirect speech in English: given that the illness is reported as

holding at the present moment, the present tense is the obvious tense to use. However, adoption of the deictic centre analysis does not account for the range of data found here, in particular since it is still possible to use the past tense (i.e. *John said that he was ill*), even if John's illness still has present time validity (although, of course, in this case the present validity is not made explicit).

In stating the sequence of tenses rule, we noted that a verb in a non-past tense must be placed by the corresponding past tense when the main verb is a past tense (subject to the option of not doing so when the situation referred to by the subordinate verb has continuing validity). What happens, however, if the verb in direct speech is already in the past tense? Here, English allows two possibilities. Thus, if one wants to report *John said, 'I arrived on Friday'* in indirect speech, either one can replace the Simple Past by the Past Perfect to give *John said that he had arrived on Friday*, or one can simply leave the verb in the Simple Past *John said that he arrived on Friday*. It should be noted that the two versions seem to be distinguished stylistically, the version with the Past Perfect being more literary, the version with the Simple Past more colloquial. This suggests that there are in fact two slightly different versions of the sequence of tenses rule, either of which may be applied. In the first variant, a tense in direct speech must be put into the corresponding past tense, so that a past tense in direct speech simply remains in the past, given that the past corresponds to itself across the non-past/past dichotomy. In the second variant, a tense in direct speech must be put into the past tense expressing one added degree of anteriority. For most tenses in direct speech, the two rules have the same effect, but for a past tense in direct speech they produce, respectively, the Simple Past and the Past Perfect. In fact, the second given variant must be supplemented by a restriction "provided such a tense exists". Thus, if the Past Perfect occurs already in direct speech, it simply remains in indirect speech, as in reporting *I had seen her before yesterday* as *John said that he had seen her before yesterday*, since English does not have any tense that would express anteriority to the Past Perfect.

### 5.3. ASPECT

#### 5.3.1. Definition

Aspect is quite different from tense. The difference in English between *he was reading* and *he read* is not one of tense, since in both cases we have

absolute past tense. It is in this sense that we speak of aspect as being distinct from tense, and insist on such an opposition as that between perfective and imperfective being treated as aspectual. As the general definition of aspect, we may take the formulation that **aspect** is different ways of viewing the internal temporal constituency of a situation, i.e. aspect is semantically related to the status of an action in regard to its beginning, continuance, repetition, conclusion, etc. We may illustrate this definition briefly by considering one of the differences between the aspectual forms given above as examples of aspectual distinctions in the following sentence: *Mary was singing when I came in*. Here the first verb represents the background to some event, while the second verb presents the situation without reference to its internal temporal constituency. Verbal forms that do not make any divide into the various phases that make up the action, will be said to have perfective meaning (expressing **Perfective Aspect**). The other forms, i.e. those referring explicitly to the internal temporal constituency of the situation, are referred to as **Imperfective**.

In discussing aspect, it is important to grasp that the difference between perfectivity and imperfectivity is not necessarily an objective difference between situations, nor is it necessarily a difference that is presented by the speaker as being objective. It is possible for the same speaker to refer to the same situation once with a perfective form, then with an imperfective one, without in any way being self-contradictory, e.g. *I watched the talk-show yesterday; when I was watching it, some interesting ideas occurred to me*. The different forms of the verb *to watch* all refer to the same situation of watching. In the first sentence, however, watching is represented as a complete event, without further subdivision into successive temporal phases; in the second case, this event is opened up, so that the speaker is now in the middle of the situation of watching, and says that it was in the middle of this situation that some event took place.

From the discussion of the previous paragraphs, it will be evident that aspect is not unconnected with time. However, although both aspect and tense are concerned with time, they are concerned with time in very different ways. As noted above, tense is a deictic category, i.e. it locates situations in time, usually with reference to the present moment, though also with reference to other situations. Aspect is not concerned with relating the time

of the situation to any other time-point, but rather with the internal temporal constituency of the situation.

Many authors, however, when discussing the issue of finite verb forms, did not see any connection between tense and aspect and never analyzed these categories in their correlation. Henry Sweet, for example, interpreted tense forms as tense forms only, though he included in his work a paragraph on aspect. He viewed the progressive forms as conveying an aspectual meaning but he never went so far as to suggest their interconnected status. It was the research of the category of aspect in Slavic languages that urged researchers of Germanic languages to consider whether this category could be found in their field of studies. Jakob Grimm was the first to bring up this question after reading the Serbian grammar by Vook Stefanovich. Streitberg, who was the first to devote his book to the aspectual category in the Germanic languages, claimed that his book appeared under the influence of Slavonic scholar Leskin.

The majority of linguists endorse the opinion that the meaning of indefiniteness, reiteration and the meaning of single occurrence, completion, beginning are shades of meanings specific for Imperfective and Perfective Aspects respectively. The main meaning of the perfective form is considered to be the meaning of a limit, whereas the imperfective form is distinguished due to the absence of this limit.

All theoretical works on the category of aspect in Germanic languages may be easily divided into two types. The first shows a purely **semantic approach** that describes actions without paying any attention to the way they are expressed. As a result, aspect is seen not as an element of certain verbal forms but as a feature peculiar to a verb as a lexical unit. That is, aspectual characteristics are attributed to the lexical meaning of a verb.

The explanation why the first attempts of grammarians to study the problem of aspect in English brought them into the sphere of lexicology is not hard to find, if we keep in mind that Germanic aspect forms were constantly compared with aspect forms in Slavic languages. In Slavic languages the category of aspect is composed of pairs of parallel verbs, one of them denotes a completed action, the other – an action in progress (*нужаму – читаю, читаю – читаю*). In Germanic languages, as it is known, such oppositions are non-existent but, since the aspect theory in Germanic languages was rooted in the Slavonic aspect theory, studies of aspect in

Germanic languages tended to be restricted to analysis of lexical groups, not verbal forms as it was the case in the Slavic system. As a result, verbs were divided into various groups in accordance with their lexical meaning. For example, the division might be drawn along the lines of *terminative* or *non-terminative* semantics. As a result, verbs were divided into *terminative* (*to come, to die, to reach, to find, to lose, to make, to descend, to forget, to bring, to say, to approach, to give, to take, to start*) and *non-terminative* (*to belong, to blame, to conflict, to consist, to contain, to detest, to endure, to await, to grow, to hold, to hope, to lie*).

On the basis of lexical meaning, the differentiation of verbs could also be drawn along the following types of aspectual characteristics: 1) **durative**; 2) **frequentative**; 3) **ingressive**; 4) **momentaneous**; 5) **iterative**; 6) **inchoative**, i.e. denoting the beginning of an action. For example, the verbs *to keep, to stand, to remain* are sometimes referred to those expressing so-called Durative Aspect, *to hammer, to pant, to flicker* – to verbs of Frequentative Aspect, *to quicken, to brighten, to strengthen* – to verbs expressing Ingressive Aspect and so on.

Gradually, linguists have come to realize that the criterion of aspectual meaning could hardly be seen as belonging to the lexical sphere. The main function of the lexical meaning is to name a certain notion, the grammatical meaning is never revealed in a word explicitly. The grammatical meaning is only an accompanying (but, of course, necessarily present in a word) meaning. These considerations gave rise to the second approach that may be called **grammatical**. According to the grammatical point of view, aspect is a grammatical, not lexical category.

Hermann Paul Poutsma was the first who took into account the influence of context. The linguist pointed out that one and the same verb may enter different groups, and that it was context that ultimately influenced verbal aspectual characteristics. Poutsma observed these changes in so-called momentaneous verbs when they occur in an "expanded" form: momentaneous verbs, as Poutsma noted, either acquire in this form a "more or less durative character" (*Dawn was already breaking*) or change their meaning.

Another classification was put forward by Deutschbein in his work *Aspekte und Aktionsarten im Neuenglischen*. He suggested that English had three aspect types: **Introspective** (*I am writing*), **Retrospective** (*I have written*) and **Prospective** (*I am going to write*). However, this classifica-

tion lacks consistency as soon as it is not purely grammatical but notional (i.e. the starting point here is meaning, not grammatical forms). Besides, Deutschbein regards aspect as a category that has nothing to do with tense. Meanwhile, tense and aspect are tightly connected categories. One may argue the degree of their integrity, or which of them is subordinated to the other, but it is hardly possible to argue their interrelation.

Holt in his work *Etudes d'aspect* tried to interpret grammatical phenomena as a system in a new way. According to the scholar, the English language has three aspects: 1) **Perfect** expressing completion and being a positive element in the aspectual system, 2) **Durative** conveying incomplete actions and being a negative element in the system and 3) **Indefinite** – the neutral element.

Soviet linguists tended to regard tense forms as aspectual ones, though some denied aspectual characteristics to the Past Perfect forms (see Ilyish). Also, Smirnitskiy supported the idea that aspect exists in English arguing that as soon as the phrases *he sat* and *he was sitting* are lexically identical, there should be some grammatical difference between them. According to Smirnitskiy, one may discern here two different characteristics of an action: the statement of an action in the first case and the progressive character of an action – in the second. This linguist distinguished only the Indefinite and the Progressive forms as aspectual ones, whereas Perfect forms were excluded from his classification.

By now a definite understanding of aspect has been worked out. As a result, aspect is seen as a grammatical category, that is, the unity of a grammatical meaning and a grammatical form. Aspectual meaning is a meaning of an inherent limit of an action. The inherent limit is a moment when the action is completed because it is exhausted and cannot develop any more. For example, the verb *to arrive* has a moment of arrival as a limit, so in the sentence *He is arriving* the limit is not achieved, whereas it is clearly achieved in the sentence *He arrived in the evening*. The further elaboration of this category may differ from author to author.

### 5.3.2. Perfective and Imperfective Aspect

In English three main time divisions (present, past and future) are conveyed by fourteen verbal forms. The existence of the fourteen forms may be explained only by some additional meanings peculiar to these forms because in the majority of cases their time reference coincides (cf. *He has been*

*translating – He has translated*). These forms differ due to different interpretations they attribute to an action, its development and its completion, that is, these differences are of aspectual nature. **Perfectivity** indicates the view of a situation as a single whole, without distinction of various separate phases that make up that situation; while the **imperfective** pays essential attention to the internal structure of the situation. From the definition of perfectivity, it follows that perfectivity involves lack of explicit reference to the internal temporal constituency of a situation, rather than explicitly implying the lack of such internal temporal constituency. Thus it is possible for perfective forms to be used for situations that are internally complex, such as those that last for a considerable period of time, or include a number of distinct internal phases, provided only that the whole of the situation is subsumed as a single whole.

Imperfective represents explicit reference to the internal temporal structure of a situation, viewing a situation from within. While many languages do have a single category to express imperfectivity, there are other languages, with English among them, where imperfectivity is subdivided into a number of distinct categories (see table below):

Classification of aspectual oppositions		
perfective	imperfective	
	habitual	progressive

In traditional grammars, the general area of imperfectivity is subdivided into two quite distinct concepts of **habituality** and **progressiveness**. Thus one is told that the imperfective form expresses either a habitual situation or a situation viewed in its duration, and the term “imperfective” is glossed as “progressive-habitual” (or “durative-habitual”).

In discussing habituality and progressiveness, it is easiest to start by giving a positive definition of habituality, leaving progressiveness to be defined negatively as imperfectivity that is not habituality.

In some discussions of habituality, it is assumed that habituality is essentially the same as iterativity, i.e. the repetition of a situation, the successive occurrence of several instances of the given situation. This terminology is misleading in two senses. Firstly, the mere repetition of a situation is not sufficient for that situation to be referred to by a specifically habitual (or, indeed, imperfective) form. If a situation is repeated a limited number of

times, then all of these instances of the situation can be viewed as a single situation, albeit with internal structure, and referred to by a perfective form. Imagine, for instance, a scene where a singer stands up, coughs five times, and then goes on singing his part. In English, this could be described as follows: *the singer stood up, coughed five times, and went on...* Secondly, a situation can be referred to by a habitual form without there being any iterativity at all. In a sentence like *the temple of Aphrodite used to stand in Pathos*, there is no necessary implication that there were several occasions on each of which this temple stood in Pathos, with intervening periods when it did not; with this particular sentence, the natural interpretation is precisely that the temple stood in Pathos throughout a certain single period, without intermission. The same is true of the following sentences: *John used to be afraid of heights, Linda used to live in Manchester.*

Having clarified the difference between habituality and iterativity, we may now turn to the definition of habituality itself. The feature that is common to habituality is that its means describe a situation which is characteristic of an extended period of time, so extended that the situation referred to is viewed not as an incidental property of the moment but, precisely, as a characteristic feature of a whole period. If the individual situation is one that can be protracted indefinitely in time, then there is no need for iterativity to be involved (as in *the temple of Aphrodite used to stand in Pathos*), though equally it is not excluded (as in *John used to read for two hours each day*). If the situation is one that cannot be protracted, then the only reasonable interpretation will involve iterativity (as in *Mary used to write emotional letters to her mother*).

English has a separate Habitual Aspect form, though only in past tense, e.g. *John used to work here*; there is also a separate Progressive, e.g. *John was working (when I entered)*; otherwise there is just the Simple form, with no further distinction of aspect. Indeed, given the optionality of the Habitual Aspect in English, a sentence like *John worked here* may have habitual meaning. While discussing the English Habitual Past (e.g. *She used to go jogging*), it should be noted that a further element of the meaning of the form is that the situation described no longer holds, i.e. that, in the example given, she no longer goes jogging.

Since any situation that can be protracted sufficiently in time, or that can be iterated a sufficient number of times over a long enough period – and

this means, in effect, almost any situation – can be expressed as habitual, it follows that habituality is in principle combinable with various other semantic aspectual values, namely those appropriate to the kind of situation that is prolonged or iterated. Thus, it is possible to come across forms that give overt expression both to habituality and to some other aspectual value. For example, Habitual Aspect (expressed with the help of the *used to*-construction) can combine freely with Progressive Aspect, to give such forms as *used to be playing*. Since progressiveness has not yet been dealt with in detail we may restrict ourselves for the moment to the following type of contrast between Progressive and non-Progressive, taking initially sentences in the future tense, where there is no special habitual form: (a) *when I see Mary, she will talk about dieting*; (b) *when I see Mary, she will be talking about dieting*. In the (a) sentence, with the non-Progressive verb form *will talk* in the main clause, the implication is that Mary's talking will occur after my arrival, whereas in the (b) sentence the implication is that her talking will have started before my arrival, and will continue for at least part of the time that I am there. In this case, then, the Progressive indicates a situation (Mary's talking about dieting) that frames another situation (my arrival), while the non-Progressive excludes this interpretation. If we now put these same sentences into Habitual Aspect, then precisely the same difference between Progressive and non-Progressive remains: (a) *when I saw Mary, she used to talk about dieting*, indicating that on each occasion I went to Mary's, and only then did the discussion about dieting started, versus (b) *when I saw Mary, she used to be talking about dieting*, which implies that on each occasion when I saw Mary, she was already engaged in talking about dieting.

The English **Progressive** has an unusually wide range. In general, the Progressive in English falls under the heading of the analytical form, as in *I am writing*, with the construction "copula verb + Present Participle". In English, the distinction between progressive and nonprogressive meaning by means of progressive and nonprogressive forms is obligatory, so that Progressive and non-Progressive are not in general interchangeable, nor can any one of these in general be replaced by the other.

Definitions of progressiveness found in some traditional grammars, along the lines of describing a situation in progress, often fail to bring out the difference between progressiveness and imperfectivity. So, in what does progressiveness differ from imperfectivity? Firstly, imperfectivity includes

as a special case habituality, and a situation can be viewed as habitual without its being viewed as progressive, as with the English non-Progressive Habitual in *Mary used to write poems* (contrasting with the Progressive *Mary used to be writing poems*). As examples like *Mary used to be writing poems* show, progressiveness is compatible with habituality: a given situation can be viewed both as habitual, and as progressive, i.e. each individual occurrence of the situation is presented as being progressive, and the sum total of all these occurrences is presented as being habitual (the habitual of a progressive).

Just as habituality does not determine progressiveness, so equally progressiveness does not determine habituality, i.e. a situation can be viewed as progressive without being viewed as habitual, as in *Mary was writing a letter at 7 p.m. on the fifth of May 2005* (not \**Mary used to be writing a letter at 7 p.m. on the fifth of May 2005*, since the specification of the one occasion on which the situation took place excludes the possibility of habitual meaning).

The ability to express Progressive meaning is used as basis to classify verbs into **stative** and **active**. Within this classification, it has been tacitly assumed that some verbs are stative, while others are not. A classification implies that lexical items are divided into non-overlapping sets. With English verbs, however, this is not the case: there are many verbs that are treated sometimes as stative, sometimes as non-stative, depending on the particular meaning they have in the given sentence. One such verb is the English verb *to be*, so that in addition to *John is silly* we have *John is being silly*. The second of these can be paraphrased by *John is acting in a silly manner*, with the non-stative verb *act*, whereas it is not possible in the first case. The first sentence does not imply that John is doing anything silly at the moment, indeed he may be behaving quite sensibly at the moment, the only claim is that in general he is silly; the second refers specifically to the way John is behaving at the moment, and makes no claim beyond this about his behaviour at other times. Another non-stative use of stative verbs in English can be found in sentences like *I'm liking San Diego more and more every day*. Normally, the verb *to like* is stative. In the example given above with the Progressive of *to like*, however, the reference is not to an unchanging state of attraction but rather of a change in the degree of attraction: on any given day, I like San Diego more than on any previous day. Thus, the verb *to like* here refers

not to a state, but to a developing process, whose individual phases are essentially different from one another.

Even if we allow for non-stative uses of basically stative verbs, however, there are still some uses of the English Progressive that are not accounted for. Thus such verbs as *to live*, *to stand* (in the sense of being in a certain position, rather than of assuming that position) are stative and as a rule may not appear in the progressive. However, in English their progressive forms are used and contrast with the corresponding non-Progressive forms, as in *I live in London* and *I'm living with my parents*, or *the Eiffel Tower stands in Paris* and *Ms Smith is standing by the Eiffel Tower*. In such pairs, the non-Progressive refers to a more or less permanent state of affairs, whereas the Progressive refers to a more temporary state. Thus if I say *I live in London*, I imply that this is my normal residence, whereas if I say *I'm living with my parents*, I imply that this is only a temporary residence (for instance, while my flat is being redecorated). Similarly, in the examples with *to stand*: the Eiffel Tower is a permanent fixture in Paris, while we might expect Ms Smith to be a temporary feature, standing by the Eiffel Tower for a very limited period of time. Equally, the English Progressive can refer to a habitual situation that holds for a relatively limited period, as in *we're having a lot of training sessions these days*, at that time *I was working part-time*.

In addition to this, the Progressive in English has a number of other specific uses that do not seem to fit under the general definition of progressiveness, for instance in *I've only had six whiskies and already I'm seeing pink elephants* (Progressive of the stative verb *to see*, in the sense that I am only imagining things, in fact there are no pink elephants for me to see), or *she's always buying far more vegetables than they can possibly eat* (where the function of the Progressive is simply to add a greater emotional effect than would be achieved by the straightforward *she always buys far more vegetables than they can possibly eat*). Finally, some uses seem to be purely idiosyncratic: thus while one can say either *you look well* or *you're looking well*, with *to seem*, as opposed to *to look*, the Progressive is impossible, i.e. only *you seem well*, not *\*you're seeming well*; similarly with *to sound* in the appropriate sense: *you sound hoarse*, not *\*you're sounding hoarse*.

These examples demonstrate that in English the meaning of the Progressive has extended well beyond the original definition of progressiveness as the combination of continuous meaning and non-stativity. The question then

arises whether the English Progressive should be given some specific definition, i.e. whether the meaning of the English Progressive is so extended that we should not speak of a basic progressive meaning with various subsidiary meanings, but rather of some more general basic meaning which includes both progressive meaning and the various other meanings that the English Progressive has. For instance, one might suggest that the basic meaning of the English Progressive is to indicate a contingent situation: this would subsume progressive meaning itself, and also the use of the Progressive to indicate a temporary (contingent) state, and its use to indicate a contingent habitual situation. This may well be the direction in which the English Progressive is developing diachronically, but this does not give a completely adequate characterization of its function in the modern language. As noted in the above discussion, there are several idiosyncrasies in the use of the English Progressive that seem to militate against a general meaning being able to account for every single use of this form. Moreover, although many stative verbs can be used in the Progressive to indicate a contingent state, it is by no means the case that all stative verbs can be used in this way. For instance, the verb *to know* does not allow formation of a Progressive, even with reference to a contingent state (*when she entered the room he knew/\*was knowing that she had brought some bad news*), even with reference to a surprising state (*fancy that! You know/\*are knowing the speech act theory!*), even with reference to a counterfactual state (*so you know/\*are knowing the speech act theory, do/are you?*), even with reference to a changing degree of knowledge (*I see I know/\*am knowing more about the speech act theory with each day*). Thus the extension of the English Progressive is more restricted than that of contingent state, although, as suggested above, it may well be that English is developing from a restricted use of the Progressive, always with progressive meaning, to this more extended meaning range, the present anomalies representing a midway stage between these two points.

Although the *-ing* form is an essential ingredient of the English Progressive, in nonfinite constructions the *-ing* form (i.e. the Participle I and the Gerund) does not necessarily have progressive meaning; in fact, in such constructions it typically indicates only simultaneity (relative present time reference) with the situation of the main verb, as *knowing that Tom was an expert, Jack turned to him for advice* (i.e. as Jack *knew*, not *\*as Jack was knowing*); *anyone knowing more details is asked to contact the police* (i.e. *anyone who knows*, not *\*anyone who is knowing*); *Greg's knowing quantum*



*mechanics amazed the teacher* (i.e. the fact that Greg knew, not \*the fact that Greg was knowing).

There is, however, one nonfinite construction where the *-ing* form does have specifically progressive force, namely after verbs of perception. Thus the difference between *I saw the accused stab the victim* and *I saw the accused stabbing the victim* is one of aspect: *stab* is non-Progressive (in fact, it has perfective meaning, since the sense is that I witnessed the whole of the act of stabbing, and am not dividing the act up into separate beginning, middle and end, but presenting it as a single complete whole); *stabbing* is Progressive (it is not necessary for me to have witnessed the beginning and/or end of the process, but only the middle, at least this is all I am alluding to). Similarly: *I watched Fred surf the Net*, where Fred's surfing, no matter how long it lasted, is presented as a single complete situation, in contrast to *I watched Fred surfing the Net*.

### 5.3.3. Meaning of Present Perfect form

The Perfect in English is rather different from the aspects, since it tells us nothing directly about the situation in itself, but rather relates some state to a preceding situation. As a preliminary illustration of this, we may contrast the English sentences *I have lost* (Perfect) *my gloves* and *I lost* (non-Perfect) *my gloves*. One possible difference between these two is that with the Perfect, there is an implication that the gloves are still lost, whereas with the non-Perfect there is no such implication. More generally, the Perfect indicates the continuing present relevance of a past situation. This difference between the Perfect and the other forms has led many linguists to doubt whether the Perfect should be considered an aspect at all. However, the traditional terminology lists the Perfect as an aspect, though one should bear in mind continually that it is an aspect in a rather different sense from the other aspects treated so far.

One way in which the Perfect differs from the other aspects that we have examined is that it expresses a relation between two time-points: on the one hand, the time of the state resulting from a prior situation, and on the other, the time of that prior situation. Thus the Present Perfect, for instance, such as *I have eaten*, partakes of both the present and the past.

Though in English there is a clear formal distinction between the form with perfect meaning and those with non-perfect meaning, yet there is some

variation within English as to the precise delimitation between Perfect and non-Perfect forms. In particular, American English overall shows a greater preference for the non-Perfect, in cases where British English would prefer or require the Perfect.

Also, we may note one diagnostic characteristic of the English Perfect. This is that, in English, the Perfect may not be used together with specification of the time, i.e. one cannot say \**I have got up at five o'clock this morning*, because the specific reference to the point of time *at five o'clock this morning* is incompatible with the English Perfect. It is not specification of time as such that is excluded, since one can specify the time within which the past situation held, provided the time includes the present, e.g. *I have talked to the boss today*, or even *I have talked to the boss this morning*, provided it is still morning at the time of speaking.

It should also be noted that in certain nonfinite verbal constructions the Perfect form (*to have* + Participle II) does not necessarily have perfect meaning. Thus some of the following sentences with participial and infinitival constructions will be paraphrasable with finite verbs in the Perfect, others with finite verbs in the Simple Past:

*Having listened to the latest news, John is well informed of the government's actions.* (As he has listened to the latest news, John is well informed of the government's actions).

*Having visited Ukraine last year, John can give you advice on accommodation in Kiev.* (As he visited Ukraine last year, John can give you advice on accommodation in Kiev).

*John may have already talked to the boss.* (It is possible that John has already talked to the boss).

*John may have been to Ukraine last year.* (It is possible that John was to Ukraine last year).

*The police believe the criminal to have left the country already.* (The police believe that the criminal has already left the country).

*The police believe the criminal to have left the country two or three days ago.* (The police believe that the criminal left the country two or three days ago).

In such examples, the use of the Perfect form is possible, since with such nonfinite verbal forms there is no other way of indicating past time, so that

in such constructions the distinction between perfect meaning and relative past time reference is not made overtly (is neutralized).

So far, we have given a general definition of the Perfect as the continuing relevance of a previous situation. However, this meaning is liable to further subdivision. The particular types of the Perfect discussed below are the Perfect of result, the experiential Perfect, the Perfect of persistent situation, and the Perfect of recent past.

### Perfect of result

In the Perfect of result, a present state is referred to as being the result of some past situation: this is one of the clearest manifestations of the present relevance of a past situation. Thus, one of the possible differences between *John has arrived* and *John arrived* is that the former indicates persistence of the result of John's arrival, i.e. that he is still here, whereas the second does not. In answer to the question *is John here yet?* a perfectly reasonable reply would be *yes, he has arrived*, but not *yes, he arrived*. Likewise, the sentence *I have had breakfast* implies that the results of my breakfast (that I am not hungry) still hold without specifying a timespan between the time of the action and the moment of speaking.

### Experiential Perfect

The experiential perfect indicates that a given situation has held at least once during some time in the past leading up to the present. A useful example in English is the distinction between *be* and *go* in sentence like *Bill has been to America* and *Bill has gone to America*, since English here makes an overt distinction between the experiential Perfect and the Perfect of result. *Bill has gone to America* is Perfect of result, and implies that Bill is now in America, or is on his way there, this being the present result of his past action of going to (setting out for) America. In *Bill has been to America*, however, there is no such implication; this sentence says that on at least one occasion (though possibly on more than one) Bill did in fact go to America. In general, however, English does not have a distinct form with experiential perfect meaning.

In the examples of the experiential Perfect given so far, it has been the case that the time during which the situation referred to must have held at least once has included the whole of time up to the present. Thus *Bill has been to America* places no restriction on when Bill went to America, other

than that it was some time before the present. It is possible to restrict the period of time by specifying an earlier limit, in addition to the necessary later limit of the present moment, as in *Bill has been to America since New Year*, which says that Bill has been to America at least once in the period between New Year (earlier limit) and the present moment (later limit).

### Perfect of persistent situation

One use of the English Perfect, indeed one that seems to be characteristic of English, is the use of the Perfect to describe a situation that started in the past but continues (persists) into the present, as in *we've lived in London for years*, *I've had lunch here for years*. The use of Perfect here in English is not entirely surprising, since the situation referred to is both past and present.

### Perfect of recent past

In many languages, the Perfect may be used where the present relevance of the past situation referred to is simply one of temporal closeness, i.e. the past situation is very recent. In English, for instance, the general constraint against combining the Perfect with a specification of time does not hold when the time specification is the adverb *recently* or one of its close synonyms: *Bill has just left*, *Jack has recently started up his own business*.

The degree of recentness required varies among languages. For most speakers of English, only the adverb *recently* and its near synonyms are allowed, while any other specifications of past time or period are excluded, i.e. one cannot say *\*I've not had breakfast this morning* during the afternoon or evening.

### 5.3.4. Perfect form and aspectual meanings

In English, as well as in many other languages, it is formally possible for the perfect/nonperfect distinction to combine freely with aspectual distinctions. The possible range of meaning of such combinations of aspectual categories can be illustrated by looking at the English Perfect Progressive. If we take first of all the characteristically English use of the Perfect to refer to a persistent situation, i.e. one that continues up to the present time (and may continue beyond), then we find that the distribution of the progressive and non-progressive forms is essentially the same as in the present tense: the non-progressive form must be used with stative verbs (*\*I have been knowing him for two years*), while other verbs, unless habitual, will normally

stance, determine that if an utterance is false then its negation must logically necessarily be true, and vice versa.

However, in natural languages utterances may be characterized not only as true or false. Sometimes they may contain additional information concerning the speaker's certainty or uncertainty, sometimes – concerning the speaker's approval or disapproval, sometimes additional meanings may be those of imposition, command, permission, etc. Therefore natural languages distinguish between a number of modalities. **Epistemic modality** is among them. It marks sentences with various degrees of certainty. For example, the statement *It will rain tomorrow* presupposes that the speaker cannot imagine tomorrow without rain, whereas the sentences *It may rain tomorrow* or *I think it will rain tomorrow* express less certainty about what the true state of affairs will be like tomorrow.

So-called **deontic modality** is based on the two deontic operators "obligatory" and "permitted". Utterances with these operators have normative connotations and express what is perceived as a norm. The spheres of deontic modality are law and morale, but it would be a mistake to restrict deontic modality to the legal sphere only, since it may be quite often observed in everyday communication. It is noteworthy that in English epistemic and deontic modalities have two separate markers – *must*, *should*, *ought to* and *to be to* respectively, whereas in Ukrainian the system is not so distinctly elaborated:

Ukrainian	English
Deontic modality	
<i>Зарплату вчителів мають підвищити</i>	<i>Teachers salaries must/should/ought to be raised</i>
Epistemic	
<i>Зарплату вчителів мають підвищити</i>	<i>Teachers salaries are to be raised</i>

The difference between the two modal operators lies in that *must*, *should*, *ought to* are used when the speaker is convinced that teachers' salaries are too low and it is the state's moral obligation to increase them, whereas the epistemic *to be to* only indicates that the speaker has some information concerning the increase in teachers' salaries in the nearest future without expressing any moral involvement in the event.

**Axiological modality** characterizes an utterance along the value system scale. It is usually expressed by such words as "good" or "bad". Logicians

also distinguish **tense modality** based on the priority, simultaneity and posteriority of situations described in utterances.

Obviously, linguistic means to express modality are quite numerous, e.g. morphological (verbal forms), lexical (modal words), prosodic (intonation). The term **mood** is closely related to modality and is generally defined as a grammatical category expressing the relation of the action to reality as stated by the speaker.

The first disputable issue arising from the category of mood is the question about the recognition of different kinds of moods and their number in Modern English. Foreign linguists interpreted the category of Mood in different ways. Early English language grammars in their treatment of the Subjunctive Mood copied literally principles and semantic interpretation of the Latin Subjunctive. Since Latin is drastically different from English, the two conclusions derived from the comparative procedure were quite contradictory: some scholars tried to thrust English Mood into the Latin pattern, others denied any mood category in English as such. At the beginning of the 20<sup>th</sup> century, Mood was defined as a subjective category. Henry Sweet treated this category as grammatical expression of various relations between the subject and the predicate, which led him to distinguish two types of utterances – **fact-mood** and **thought-mood**. According to Sweet's classification, thought is expressed by means of the Subjunctive forms – *be*, *were* and the Conditional Mood. Henry Sweet then proceeded with distinguishing the Permissive Mood expressed by the construction *may*+Infinitive and the Compulsive Mood (*to be to*+Infinitive). The grammarian referred the forms homonymous with the Simple Past to the Subjunctive Mood and called them the Tense Mood. However, drawbacks of this system are, firstly, vagueness of the last two Moods and, secondly, neglect of the forms homonymous with the Past Perfect tense.

The elaborate analysis of the category made by some grammarians was dictated largely by the historical and comparative considerations and often worked out along notional lines. However, if we begin to multiply the grammatical category along notional lines, there is, as we have seen, no limit to the possibilities. For example, there have been suggestions to distinguish subjective modality in English and to further subdivide it into **Indicative Mood**, **Emphatic Mood** (intensified assertion), **Imperative Mood**, **Precautive Mood** (expressing petitions), **Compulsive Mood**, **Permissive Mood**,

**Optative Mood** (expressing something desired), **Potential Mood** (expressing ability), etc. Clearly, the given scheme may also be liable to subdivision, giving rise to many "moods" that would make the study of the language system unnecessarily complicated.

Developing the theory of mood, put forward by Sweet, Jespersen defined mood as expression of the speaker's attitude to the content of the sentence. However, the linguist emphasized the importance of formal criteria, i.e. the number of mood types should be proportionate to the number of verb forms expressing these moods. As a result, Jespersen distinguished the **Indicative Mood**, defined as permanently used unless there are some special factors, and the **Subjunctive Mood** as the one used under certain conditions. According to Otto Jespersen, the Subjunctive is represented exclusively by the old, synthetic forms. In his opinion, the verbal forms expressing non-fact in such sentences as *I wish I had money* and *I wish you had sent for me* are just the Indicative in imaginative use and can be treated as the Present of Imagination and the Pluperfect of Imagination respectively. Jespersen did not distinguish any analytical forms of the Subjunctive. The **Imperative Mood** is not questioned by the linguist, since it is characterized by a specific syntactic use.

It is obvious that the Mood category in English is complicated and controversial, which results in many interpretations. Criteria of classifications may be either meaning or form. One of the peculiarities of English Mood lies in sophisticated correlation between formal and semantic features of verb forms. On the one hand, several verb forms may be parallel in their use while expressing one grammatical meaning (cf. *It is important that he submit the papers* – *It is important that he should submit the papers*). On the other hand, one grammatical form may be used to convey different grammatical meanings (cf. *Would you like to join us for dinner?* *She said she would return on Monday.* *I wonder whether anybody would take your words seriously*).

As a result, depending on a grammarian's interpretation of these phenomena, the number of English moods may differ. If a classification is based on meaning, then the number of moods is bigger than in classifications grounded on formal features. Formal classifications treat as identical such semantically different cases as *Be quiet!* and *It's vital that he be at home*, i.e. mixing up the Imperative Mood and synthetic forms of the Subjunctive

Mood of the verb *to be*. To avoid mistakes and to work out an adequate system of English Mood, it is necessary to take into account both formal and semantic features. In such a system, the Imperative Mood and the Subjunctive Mood are opposed to the Indicative Mood as one expressing real world actions, whereas the Imperative Mood is different from the Subjunctive Mood in that inducement to act is not similar to actions, not performed or impossible to be performed at all.

All in all, the three modal meanings that tend to be widely recognized in Grammar are those of reality, hypothesis and inducement. One of these meanings is necessarily present in any utterance and expressed by verb forms. Reality is expressed by the forms of the **Indicative Mood**, inducement is expressed by the **Imperative Mood**, and hypothesis – by the **Subjunctive Mood**, though some grammarians, instead of the Subjunctive Mood, distinguish from two to five Oblique Indirect Moods.

The forms comprised in the **Indicative Mood** are used to present predication as reality, as a fact in past, present or future; they are used to confirm or to negate the fact of a certain action. The predication need not necessarily be true but the speaker presents it as being so. For example, the speaker may pronounce some false statement or describe actions of non-existent people or some made-up events, as it happens in fiction. Tense-aspectual forms represent the paradigm of the Indicative Mood. Besides, verbs in the Indicative Mood have the categories of person, number and voice.

The **Imperative Mood** shows that the speaker induces somebody to perform an action. The action is presented not as a fact but as something desired. Consequently, the Imperative is opposed to the Indicative Mood semantically. The form of the Imperative is identical to the Infinitive without the particle *to*. The paradigm consists of the affirmative form (*Jump*) and the negative form (*Don't jump*). The Imperative has no tense or aspectual forms, since the action is related to the moment of speaking and must be carried out either after the moment or later, which is usually indicated lexically (i.e. adverb with temporal meaning). Whether verbs in the Imperative Mood differ in person and number is under debate. The meaning of inducement presupposes two participants – the speaker and his/her interlocutor, who is subject to inducement. The grammatical subject of the Imperative Mood is not formally indicated but, when an occasion demands, this is generally done by using the pronoun before or after the verb. Verb-patterns with pronouns

have special affective connotation with fine shades of emotional distinctions, such as: intensity or emphasis, anger, annoyance, impatience or scorn, etc.: *Don't you forget what has been done for you! You go and apologize!* Patterns with the appended *will you* express a less categorical command, sometimes a request. A request or an invitation may be formulated with *won't you*, whereas emphasis may be produced by putting the intensifying *do*. It is a colourful emphatic form, encouraging if the intonation pattern is a drop between level tones, exasperated if there is tone-movement on the last syllable.

The majority of grammarians do not doubt the second person of the Imperative Mood. The discussion is spurred whether there is a form of the first person. To express inducement for the first person, the combination *let + personal pronoun* is used. Grammarians are inclined to treat this combination as an analytical form of the Imperative Mood. The whole system of analytical forms in the English language encourages this point of view. An analytical form consists of two or more elements with no syntactic ties. The auxiliary verb in an analytical form may combine with any (or almost any) lexical units belonging to a certain class (verbs) and is deprived of any lexical meaning. Tense forms are the best examples of analytical forms: here, the lexical meaning is expressed by the second part of the form (Participle or Infinitive), and the whole form has the meaning of tense and aspect.

Let us consider the combination "*let+Infinitive*" and determine whether it may be granted the status of an analytical form. In the sentence *Let's go to the disco*, the lexical meaning of the verb *let* is so modified that the speaker includes himself/herself in the circle of people encouraged to perform an action. In the sentence *Let me introduce you to Mr Smith*, the verb *let* preserves its original meaning of permission, which bars us from considering it completely grammaticalized, i.e. an auxiliary verb. The majority of scholars believe that this verb is in process of changing into an auxiliary. If this form is not treated as first person form of the Imperative Mood, then the Imperative Mood is represented by the only second person form singular and plural and is not opposed to any other forms.

Morphological peculiarities of the Imperative Mood (i.e. absence of tense, aspect, person and number categories) give rise to suggestions that the Imperative should be identified with the Infinitive. However, since the negative of the Imperative is formed differently from that of the Infinitive (*Don't*

*jump – Not to jump*), and taking into account its peculiar intonation pattern, the Imperative forms cannot be but separate from that of the Infinitive.

Thus, the Imperative Mood, expressed by special morphological forms with the meaning of inducement, is contrasted with the Indicative Mood. Since the Imperative has a meaning of a non-fact, it is contrasted with the Indicative Mood semantically and approaches the Subjective Mood. Yet, it is different from the Subjunctive in that it expresses not so much unreal actions but actions, not performed at the moment of speaking.

The **Subjunctive Mood** is used to express actions non-existent in reality (i.e. desired, hypothetical, possible or impossible). In this way the Subjunctive is semantically different from both the Indicative and the Imperative Moods. The Subjunctive Mood is used to convey an action not performed on a particular occasion; it may also express either an action, impossible to perform, or a desired, hypothetical, possible action. In Old English the Subjunctive was characterized by well-developed inflections, however the inflections, with little exception, have been dropped and analytical forms of expressing non-fact have come into play.

The traditionally distinguished forms of the Subjunctive, the remnants of the inflectional Subjunctive, are usually called synthetic to distinguish them from analytical ones that have come in their place. It is a peculiarity of English that the old and the new Subjunctive forms continue to co-exist. Synthetic forms are identical to Infinitives without the particle *to* for all persons singular and plural, e.g. *be, come, fall*. The remnant form of the old Subjunctive *were* for all persons singular and plural should also be mentioned.

Synthetic forms of the Subjunctive, identical with Infinitives and Imperative forms, differ syntactically – they are used in subordinate clauses of condition, purpose and concession (*Kim is capable of anything lest his girlfriend not break up with him, Be she ever so polite with everyone, she would have many friends*); object clauses following a verb or a noun with the meaning of advice, order, supposition (*Jane suggests that the decision be made after lunch*); emotionally imbued sentences (*It is vital that the decision be made right now*). In these sentence-patterns the non-past Subjunctive is optional and can alternate with the Indicative. This alternation, however, is not indifferent to style, the Subjunctive being decidedly more formal than the Indicative verb.

The synthetic Past Subjunctive is much more restricted: in present-day English it is represented by the verb *to be* that takes on the form *were*. This Past Subjunctive form is distinctive in the first and third persons singular. It is used in subordinate clauses of condition and comparison (*She knows little as if she were new in the subject*). However, in colloquial speech the Past Subjunctive *were* often alternates with the Indicative *was*. Yet, with the use of inversion for hypothesis, the Subjunctive is obligatory: *Were she less ambitious, she would never have become a movie star*.

Traditionally, synthetic Subjunctive forms are considered to be of limited use, characteristic of American English and occurring only in the functional style of official papers or in set expressions (*Be it so! God forbid! Suffice it to say that...*). The fact that these older forms are preserved in American English, while being replaced by new ones in British English, only supports the linguistic rule that it is the central regions where changes are born, whereas the periphery tends to keep to old grammatical patterns and forms. Though, of course, the statement that the American English-speaking community forms nowadays the "periphery" should be taken with a certain reserve. Some scholars believe that if the tendency to use the synthetic Subjunctive forms as in *I demand he pay me back, It is unbelievable that he pay you back* is long-term, then it is likely to result not so much in revival of the Subjunctive as in erosion of the third-person inflection in the Indicative by accustoming people to forms like *he pay*. This would be the natural continuation of the historical process, because in the Present Indefinite all inflections, except the third person singular *-s*, have been lost and it would be quite natural to expect the process to continue, to have only one form all through the tense (*I pay, you pay, he pay, we pay, they pay*) (Раєвська 1967).

Analytical forms of the Subjunctive Mood are represented by the constructions *should/would/may/might* with the Infinitive without the particle *to*. The modal verbs may be followed either by the Simple Infinitive or by the Perfect Infinitive. The Simple Infinitive is used to denote an action performed at the moment of speaking or an action following this moment; therefore the action is regarded as hypothetical or possible. The Perfect Infinitive is used to express a past action. Semantically, the action is hypothetical and impossible, contradicting to the action that actually took place.

The Subjunctive forms distinguish between Passive and Active Voice. Consequently, it may be stated that almost all verbal categories are repre-

sented in the Subjunctive, the fact that makes it different from the Imperative Mood and brings it closer to the Indicative.

The Subjunctive is a stumbling-block for linguists in that here they face the problem of interpretation of grammatical forms, homonymous to tense forms of the Indicative Mood but used to express non-fact in subordinate clauses of condition and comparison and some other types of sentences (cf. *If you had been in London, we could have had dinner together; I wish you had been in London last June!*). Linguists inclined to favour formal criteria claim that *had been* should be treated as a form of the Indicative Mood whose meaning changes depending on certain syntactic distribution. This point of view, consequently, dismisses any claims to homonymy of verb forms of the Subjunctive and the Indicative. The opponents prefer semantic analysis of the given phenomenon. They believe that combination of such different meanings can hardly be possible within a grammatical form, which leads them to consider these cases as those of homonymy.

## 5.5. VOICE

The verbal category of Voice is an expression of relationship between an action and its subject and object. In other words, as a grammatical category, **Voice** shows the relation between the action and its subject, namely, it indicates whether the action is performed by the subject or passes on to it. As a result, Voice is connected with the sentence structure more than other verbal categories. There are two voices in English: the **Active Voice** and the **Passive Voice**. The Active Voice shows that the action is performed by its subject, i.e. that the subject is the doer of the action. The Passive Voice shows that the subject is acted upon, that it is the recipient of the action, e.g.: *James sent me a letter – A letter was sent to me by James*. The opposition is based on the direction of an action. According to the traditional approach to Voice, verbal forms, among other peculiarities, indicate relations between an action and its subject, i.e. Active Voice is used to denote actions directed from the person or thing expressed by subject, whereas Passive Voice forms show that an action is directed towards the subject. It should be underlined that here grammatical direction is meant and not a direction stemming from a lexical meaning of a given verb. Thus, the categorical opposition between Passive and Active Voice is based on several factors: relationships between

the subject and the predicate, "inward" or "outward" direction of a verbal action and active or inactive quality of the subject.

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

It should be noted that there is nothing more characteristic of English than the extent to which it has developed the use of passive formations. One of the most distinct features of the English language is that passive forms are possible not only for transitive verbs (like in many other languages) but also for intransitive verbs. In English, such intransitive verbs as *to live*, *to sleep* may be used in Passive, e.g. *The bed was not slept in*, *The room is not lived in*.

Mechanical transformations of Active into Passive may lead to a misleading conclusion that Passive Voice is a simple result of a reverse operation. This false impression may also become the reason for denying Passive its independence from Active. Thus, for example, Henry Sweet expands on **inverted subjects** and **inverted objects**. To regard Passive Voice as a mere syntactic transformation of Active Voice is completely incorrect, since even if both forms may reflect the same situation, they do this differently, placing emphasis according to the speaker's communicative goals. In sentences with the verb in the form of Active Voice, the doer of an action is obviously contrasted with the object of the action, whereas passive forms presuppose first of all the importance of an action and an object rather than a doer that is given less prominence or dropped altogether.

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

It should also be borne in mind that some sentences (usually those containing numerals or pronouns) may be interpreted differently depending on the speaker's choice of Voice. Cf. for example

*Everyone speaks two languages in this room.*

*Two languages are spoken by everyone in this room.*

Depending on the voice, the interpretation will be either that everyone speaks two languages without these languages being the same (some people may speak German and Italian, some – Russian and Urdu, etc.), or that everybody speaks two definite languages (English and French, for instance).

It is noteworthy that the combination *to be*+Participle II has two meanings. In its first meaning, this combination expresses an **action** – and then this form is called a simple predicate. In its second meaning, this form denotes a **state**, and then it is a compound nominal predicate. There are a number of criteria helping to differentiate these two meanings: 1) context, 2) lexical meaning of Participle II, and 3) the form of the verb *to be*.

Contextual markers of Passive include:

a) adverbial modifiers of time and manner that stress repetition, momentary character or duration of an action: *at this moment*, *at once*, *frequently*, *gradually*:

*Have you ever been sent to Coventry? For a moment he was reassured...* (Hartley)

b) peculiarities of the syntactic structure of the sentence, i.e. the cases when the sentence structure expresses sequence of events:

*When the will was read, her first reaction had been one of admiration...* (Hill)

*Alone now, Jacques Sauntiere turned his gaze again to the iron gate. He was trapped, and the doors could not be opened for at least twenty minutes.* (Brown)

c) an indirect prepositional object introduced by the preposition *by*, denoting the doer of the action:

*Five hundred cars were burnt by rioters last night.*

Although a number of criteria to differentiate between a simple predicate expressed by a verb in Passive and a compound nominal predicate have been put forward, yet this question is disputable. The identical form and absence of precise distinction of categorical meaning (passive meaning as an action performed on the subject or state resulting from this action) make possible to treat Passive of action and Passive of state as identical, on the one hand. On the other hand, the meaning of state, characteristic of a compound nominal predicate, makes this leveling of differences inconsistent.

Lexical meaning of Participle II may also serve as a criterion. Participle II expressing various psychological states in the majority of cases functions as a part of a compound nominal predicate and expresses a state. The Participles are *disappointed*, *disconcerted*, *abashed*, *startled*, *amazed*, *stunned*, *irritated*, *vexed*, *alarmed*, *frightened* etc. as in

...answering them [letters] took up the time and energy he needed for his writing, so that he was rather relieved that W.S. had given no address. (Hartley)

*Le capitaine was pleased to discover you were still in Paris tonight...* (Brown)

Sometimes the whole content of a sentence may be a criterion to differentiate compound nominal predicates and simple predicates. For example, in descriptions, when all things and phenomena are regarded in their static state, when their certain special position is fixed, one expects the predicate to be a compound nominal:

*The curator looked down and saw the bullet hole in this white linen shirt. It was framed by a small circle of blood a few inches below his breastbone.* (Brown)

One cannot but mention another formula of Passive Voice, a so-called Passive of action, expressed by the construction *to get + Participle II*. While the general meaning of this construction is the same, the structure *He got wounded* projects more stress on dynamic character of the action compared to the sentence *He was wounded* that emphasizes mainly the result of a certain action. Still, some linguists deny the construction with the verb *to get* the passive status and suggest that it should be analyzed as a compound nominal predicate (Жигадло и др., 1956; Раєвська, 1967).

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

By analogy, the use has been extended to the verbs *to sell*, *to read*, etc., where it is not natural to the meaning of the verbs themselves. It should be noted here that the use of the sentence *Souvenirs are selling well throughout the city* presents the information in a slightly different way compared with the corresponding passive variant (*Souvenirs are being sold well*), in that we start thinking of the souvenirs as active themselves, as the cause of the extensive sale, without paying attention to efforts of sellers, advertisers, etc.

Henry Sweet, in his grammar, calls such verbs as *to change*, *to stop*, *to sell*, *to read* in examples above **passival** and says that “their grammatical subject is logically their direct object, the subject not being expressed because of its indefiniteness”. Other scholars resist the idea of distinguishing this group of verbs. To deny a specific status of these verbs, the linguists point out that this is not a class of verbs that matters here, but a special contextual use of many verbs in English, resulting in neutralization of the opposition “active – passive” (Раєвська, 1967).

The double nature is also observed with the non-finite forms of the English verb. There are patterns where the Gerund is indifferent to the voice distinction and may therefore be understood either actively or passively, since the immediate context specifies its meaning: cf. *The stairs need repairing*; *the book is worth reading*; *Jane deserves telling off*. Also the use of the Infinitive, active in form but passive in meaning, is quite frequent: *the book to read*, *the man to watch*, *the work to do*, etc.

Related to this is the use of the modal verb *will (would)* in the negative form, e.g. *The car would not start*; *The drawer won't open*.

The voice identification in English is aggravated by the problem of “medial” voices, i.e. the functioning of the voice forms in other than the passive or active meanings. As a result, some linguists also distinguish **Reflexive Voice** (also called **Middle Voice**). In case of Reflexive Voice, the doer of an action and the object of the action coincide, that is the doer experiences his own actions (e.g. *She reconciled herself to the loss*, *You can express yourself freely*).

The problem of Reflexive Voice is still under debate, since the model “transitive verb + reflexive pronoun” differs from the model of an analytical form, characteristic of tense or passive forms. It is not always possible to draw a demarcation line between reflexive constructions and free word combinations. Besides, the semantics of the model depends greatly on the meaning of a verb. The controversial nature of reflexive constructions, on the one hand, and strict requirements which analytical forms must meet, on the other hand, prevent many scholars from distinguishing Reflexive Voice in English. The arguments put forward to refute Reflexive Voice are as follows: 1) the model “transitive verb+reflexive pronoun” does not form a paradigm, since it does not present any opposition to Active Voice both structurally and semantically (unlike, for instance, Ukrainian verbs in *-ся*); 2) the model “transitive verb+reflexive pronoun” may have no reflexive meaning,



and vice versa, a verb without a reflexive pronoun may have the reflexive meaning created by its own semantic properties and by the context (cf. *She dressed herself, she dressed her child, she dressed*, similar examples may be found with the verbs *to wash, to shave*. However, in some cases the reflexive pronoun cannot be skipped, e.g. *I warm* and *I warm myself* cannot be mixed up as well as *I amuse* and *I amuse myself*).

There are also scientists who believe that reflexive meaning may be observed and distinguished only in a context. In other words, reflexive meaning is episodic, formed by a certain context, i.e. reflexive meaning is one of the facets of Active Voice, where the object is expressed by a reflexive pronoun. The reflexive pronoun has a dual nature, since it can function both as a lexical part of speech and a function word.

Some scholars distinguish so-called **Reciprocal Voice**. In the case with Reciprocal Voice, actions expressed by verbs are also confined to the subject, but, as different from the sentences with Reflexive Voice, these actions are performed by the subject constituents reciprocally: e.g. *The friends will be meeting (each other) tomorrow, James and Sandra married two years ago, Phil and Tracie are quarrelling over the washing-up again*. Here, the verbal meaning of the action performed by the subjects on one another is clearly reciprocal. As is the case with the reflexive meaning, the reciprocal meaning can be rendered explicit by combining the verbs with special pronouns, namely, the reciprocal pronouns *each other* and *one another*.

It is indisputable that the verb-forms in the given collocations deliver the idea of the direction of situational action, and in this sense these verbal meanings may be regarded as those of voice. On the other hand, the given uses obviously do not possess a generalizing force necessary for any kind of lingual unit to be classed as grammatical, since reflexive and reciprocal pronouns are still positional members of the sentence, though they should, like any auxiliary elements of an analytical form, lack syntactic meaning.

On the whole, the majority of linguists admit the existence of only two Voices in English, adding that there are also reflexive verbs which are followed by the direct object expressed by reflexive pronouns, i.e. the use of the reflexive pronoun in a number of cases remains the question of lexicon or phraseology rather than that of grammar (cf. for instance the phraseo-

logical units *to pride oneself, to busy oneself* that do not exist without their pronominal elements).

## 6. Non-finite forms of the English verb

From theoretical observations, one may conclude that the verb has peculiarities of two types. The peculiarities of the first type are verbal proper, i.e. they convey purely verbal grammatical meanings, meanings that no other part of speech possesses. These peculiarities (or, to be exact, categories) do not depend on syntagmatic relations, that is, they are not predetermined by the form of any other member of the sentence. These categories are Tense, Aspect, Mood and Voice. The second type of verbal categories do depend on properties of other words (namely, properties of the subject). These are the categories of Number and Person. "Finitude", opposed to "non-finitude", is the verbal property of being, or not being subject to limitation in respect of the two concord categories of person and number.

Consequently, word-forms that are characterized by the proper verbal categories are called **non-finite forms** of the verb (also referred to as **finites, verbals** or **verbids**, the latter term having been suggested by Otto Jespersen and favoured due to absence of dubious connotations and homonymic correlations). Some scientists, however, impart such importance to the syntactic function of the verb as a predicate that they consider it impossible to regard verbids as verbal forms. Their opponents put forward the following counter-arguments in favour of non-finite verbal forms: 1) non-finite forms preserve the meaning of the corresponding finite verbal forms; 2) all non-finite forms may be derived from any verb (with the exception of modal verbs) using one model – specific for each non-finite form; 3) verbids are characterized by the tense and voice paradigms (aspect is characteristic of the Infinitive only), though deficient compared to those of finite verb forms, but formed following the models common both for finite and non-finite verb forms; 4) verbids parallel with finite forms in terms of dependent sentence parts, i.e. they are also modified by adverbs and require the object.

The nomenclature of non-finite forms of the English verb has undergone considerable changes during the evolution of grammatical theory. Classical scientific grammar distinguished between four forms: **Participle I, Participle II, Gerund** and **Infinitive**. However, since divergence between Participle I and Gerund is restricted only to their syntactic features, there is a tendency

(with the latter – optionally), with a few verbal phrases of modal nature (*had better, would rather, would have, etc.*), with the relative-inductive *why*.

The Infinitive is a categorically changeable form. It distinguishes the three grammatical categories sharing them with the finite verb, namely, the aspectual category, the category of voice, and the category of tense. Consequently, the categorical paradigm of the Infinitive includes eight forms: the Simple Active and Passive, the Progressive Active, the Perfect Active and Passive, the Perfect Progressive Active (see Table on p. 130).

*Perhaps she ought not to stay here. (Hill)*

*...there was no doubt that they would be settled to her advantage... (Hill)*

*...she was over fifty, she should be putting money on one side herself now... (Hill)*

*If I'd not been there, it would never have happened. (Glanville)*

*If you did not betray us it is impossible that you could have been betrayed by us. (Spark)*

*"You'll have been seeing something of Miss Brodie, I hope." (Spark)*

The Infinitive may function

a) as subject:

*To do anything else would have been flying in the face of all the best modern opinion... (Cary)*

b) as predicative:

*...his guiding rule in life was to play safe (Garnett)*

c) as object:

*I always told you to get the children back by twelve. (Bates)*

d) as attribute:

*Sometimes he looked towards his bride to be, who stood quietly by the side of the headmistress... (Spark)*

e) as adverbial modifier:

*...you might suspect that if she lifted her wings to fly she would uncover brilliant red or purple underwings... (Garnett)*

## 6.2. Gerund

The Gerund is the most specific non-finite form of the verb in the English language. The formal sign of the Gerund is wholly homonymous with that of Participle I: it is the suffix *-ing* added to its grammatically leading

element. Whereas the Infinitive and the Participles are forms typical of all modern Indo-European languages, the Gerund has its parallel only in Spanish. The Gerund, like the Infinitive, combines the properties of the verb with those of the noun. Similar to the Infinitive, the Gerund serves as the verbal name of a process, but its substantival quality is more strongly pronounced than that of the Infinitive. Namely, as different from the Infinitive, and similar to the noun, the Gerund can be modified by a noun in the possessive case or its pronominal equivalents (expressing the subject of the verbal process), and it can be used with prepositions.

Like the Infinitive, the Gerund is a categorically changeable form. It distinguishes the two grammatical categories, sharing them with the finite verb and Participle I, namely, the category of relative tense and the category of voice. Consequently, the categorical paradigm of the Gerund includes four forms: the Simple Active, the Perfect Active, the Simple Passive, and the Perfect Passive (see Table on p. 130).

In the sentence, the Gerund can be modified by the direct object, though still in the sentence it performs functions typical of the noun. The possibility to use the Gerund expands informative content of the simple sentence, since the Gerund conveys information presented in other languages by means of subordinate clauses.

The Gerund, like the Infinitive, is an abstract name of the process denoted by the verbal lexeme. This observation might bring up the question why the Gerund is not taken as the head-form of the verbal lexeme as a whole. The explanation lies in that, in the first place, the Gerund is semantically more detached from the finite verb than the Infinitive, since the Gerund tends to be a far more substantival categorically. Then, as different from the Infinitive, it does not join in the conjugation of the finite verb. Unlike the Infinitive, it is a suffixal form, which makes it less generalized than the Infinitive in terms of the formal properties of the verbal lexeme. Finally, it is less definite than the Infinitive from the lexico-grammatical point of view, being subject to easy neutralizations in its opposition with the verbal noun in *-ing*, as well as Participle I. Hence, the Gerund cannot compete with the Infinitive for the paradigmatic head-form status.

In the sentence any of gerundial forms may be used in any of the following functions: subject, object, attribute, and adverbial modifier:

*...his singing had not been without a certain style... (Hill) (subject)*

*We were poles apart, and moved though I was, his need had not succeeded in bridging the gap. (Chaplin) (object)*

*...Iris hated the thought of its falling into the hands of Frank's successor. (King) (attribute)*

*Did she earn her living by giving entertainment to others? (Hill) (adverbial modifier)*

The Gerund used in attributive function is distinctly opposed to Participle I, since the Gerund has a meaning comparable with the meaning of a noun in a similar syntactic position. Participle I, on the contrary, denotes a quality or a property that is revealed or results from some action. Cf. *a dancing girl* and *a dancing hall* where the first *ing*-form is Participle I and the second – a Gerund.

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

*Sandy and Jenny had not given much thought to the fact of the art master's inviting them as a group. (Spark)*

It is the possessive that establishes the Gerund as the form of the verb with nounal characteristics. It should be noted that, from the point of view of the inner semantic relations, this combination is of a verbal type, while from the point of view of the formal categorial features, this combination is of a nounal type.

Besides combining with the possessive noun-subject, the verbal *ing*-form can also combine with the noun-subject in the common case or its objective pronominal equivalent:

*Sandy was sometimes embarrassed by her mother being English and calling her "darling", not like the mothers of Edinburgh who said "dear". (Spark)*

The Gerund-Infinitive correlation should be brought under consideration, since they seem to reduplicate certain properties without any differences. However, observations of the actual uses of the Gerund and the Infinitive do show the clear-cut semantic difference between the forms, which consists in the Gerund being, on the one hand, of a more substantival nature than the

Infinitive and, on the other hand, of a more abstract nature in the logical sense proper. Therefore, we may conjecture that the Gerund and the Infinitive do not repeat, but complement each other. The differences between the forms in question may be demonstrated by the following examples:

*I hate having dinner alone. – I hate to have dinner alone.*

In the first sentence, the reference is general, it expresses the speaker's permanent (at least for the time being) dislike to eating without a company, whereas in the second sentence the statement refers to this particular dinner rather than dinners in general. As a result of comparing examples like these, it becomes obvious that the Infinitive is more dynamic, while gerundial collocations lack this dynamic nature.

When speaking about the functional difference between linguistic forms, one should bear in mind that this difference might become neutralized in various systems or contextual conditions, e.g. some phasal predicators (*to begin, to start, to continue, to finish*, etc.) alternate freely Gerunds and Infinitives. However, there are cases where the use of the Gerund is either preferable or exclusive. These cases are represented by a set of transitive verbs *to avoid, to delay, to deny, to mind, to postpone*, etc. and especially prepositional-complementive verbs and word-groups (e.g. *to accuse of, to agree to, to depend on, to prevent from, to think of, to succeed in, to thank for, to be aware of, to be keen on, to be interested in*, etc.).

### 6.3. Participle I

Participle I is a non-finite form of the verb which combines the properties of the verb with those of the adjective and the adverb. It denotes a quality resulting from an action. The form of Participle I is wholly homonymous with the Gerund, ending in the suffix *-ing* and distinguishing the same grammatical categories of relative tense and voice. The term "present Participle" is used sometimes with the reference to Participle I, as well as "past Participle" with reference to Participle II, though the attributes "present" and "past" are forced by tradition. Participle I is characterized by what has been defined as relative tense, i.e. the form of Participle I is determined by posteriority, simultaneity or anteriority of actions expressed by the finite verb and Participle I in the sentence (see p. p. 138–140).

Participle I functions in the attributive and adverbial positions. Participle I used attributively may occur in a pre-position if it does not comprise a

participial construction, i.e. if it has no dependent sentence parts. The combination of verbal and adjectival properties makes Participle I similar to adjectives:

"Yes, it's a gorgeous home," she said thinking of their own cosy but creaking and fragile wooden box, possible for entertaining only if they removed the sliding screens and threw all three downstairs rooms into one. (King)

I'm afraid there was no abiding joy to be drawn from my wallet. (Durrell)

If Participle I is the nucleus of a participial construction performing the attributive function, it is always placed in a postposition:

This new exciting love coming to him now in his early fifties had transformed his life. (Cary)

Despite airline regulations prohibiting the use of cell phones during flights, Aringarosa knew this was a call he could not miss. (Brown)

Sometimes Participle I is used as a predicative:

The corridor's width, which easily could have accommodated a pair of side-by-side passenger trains, was equally amazing. (Brown)

Some scholars believe that Participle I may completely transform into the adjective (*a caring mother, it is amazing*). Semantically, adjectival properties of Participle I do come to the fore in these sentences. However this does not mean that the semantic criterion should be viewed as principal for the classification. The forms in question are participles, since there are verbs *to care* and *to amaze*. And vice versa, the forms *heartbreaking*, *breathtaking*, etc. are adjectives, for there are no such verbs as *to \*heartbreak*, *to \*breathtake*, etc.

As it has already been mentioned, Participle I may occur as an adverbial modifier. All forms of the participial paradigm occur in this function. It is particularly typical of analytical forms of Participle I. The difference between the paradigmatic forms lies in that the simple form denotes simultaneity between the action expressed by Participle and the action of the predicate, whereas the perfect form means posteriority:

On the either side of the gallery, stark walls rose thirty feet, evaporating into the darkness above. (Brown)

Having squeezed beneath the security gate, Robert Langdon now stood just inside the entrance to the Grand Gallery. (Brown)

The adverbial Participle is usually interpreted as a property of the subject of the sentence. However, one cannot but mention a so-called **Absolute Participial Construction**. This construction contains its own semantic sub-

ject. Absolute Participial Constructions perform the function of adverbial modifiers of attendant circumstances or cause:

The bell being out of order I rapped with my gamp. (Durrell) (adverbial modifier of cause)

"It's a pentacle," Langdon offered, his voice feeling hollow in the huge space. (Brown) (adverbial modifier of attendant circumstances)

The same correlation is observed in the complex object: the semantic subject of Participle I is the first component of the complex object:

Through the gate, they could hear someone moving around at the far end of the corridor... (Brown)

#### 6.4. Participle II

Participle II is a non-finite form of the verb which combines the properties of the verb with those of the adjective. Participle II has no paradigm: it is represented by the only form, which occurs either independently or as a part of an analytical verb form. By the way of the paradigmatic correlation with Participle I, it conveys implicitly the categorical meaning of the Perfect and the Passive.

As different from Participle I, Participle II has no distinct combinability features or syntactic features characteristic of the adverb. Thus, it may be used either as an attribute, a predicative or an adverbial modifier in the **Absolute Participial Construction**:

...he went through my pockets with a practiced hand. (Durrell) (attribute)

His usually sharp blue eyes looked hazy and drawn tonight. (Brown) (predicative)

Mary gave a taut smile and, hands crossed over the slight protuberance of her stomach, looked around her. (King) (adverbial modifier of manner)

It should be noted, that within an Absolute Participial Construction, Participle II, like Participle I, has its own semantic subject different from the subject in the principal clause.

Like Participle I, Participle II is capable of making up semi-predicative constructions of a complex object. The past participial complex object is specifically characteristic with verbs of wish and oblique causality (*to have, to get*):

I want the message sent immediately. You'll have the coat mended by next Monday.

## 6.5. Tense of English non-finite forms

The specific tense system has already been discussed while analyzing the English verb. As a result, the three types of tense have been distinguished – absolute, relative and absolute-relative. As it has been mentioned above, the English verb forms have the following categories: tense and voice. It is therefore necessary to clarify the type of the tense category.

As illustrative material, we shall take uses of the Participles corresponding to relative clauses, such as *the passengers awaiting flight 4248 proceeded to departure gate 2*. It should be emphasized that though the example contains Participle I *awaiting*, the following analysis may be valid both for sentences containing the Gerund and the Infinitive. One interpretation of this sentence in English is that the time reference of *awaiting* is simultaneous with the time reference of the main verb *proceeded*. Since the time reference of *proceeded* is past – it receives absolute time reference – the time reference of *awaiting* is interpreted as simultaneous with that past moment in time. In many contexts, this sentence is thus informationally equivalent to the following sentence, with a finite subordinate clause: *the passengers who were awaiting flight 4248 proceeded to departure gate 2*.

It is important, however, to note that this is a possible interpretation only. Another interpretation is that the reference is to passengers who are now, at the present moment, awaiting flight 4248, and, correspondingly, the finite clause paraphrase for this second interpretation would be *the passengers who are awaiting flight 4248 proceeded to departure gate 2*. One would need to build up a more specific context for this interpretation of the participial construction to make sense, but once this extra context is provided, the interpretation becomes perfectly natural.

This means that a relative tense is quite strictly one which is interpreted relative to a reference point provided by the context. The difference between absolute and relative tenses is not that between the present moment versus some other point in time as reference point, but rather between a form whose meaning specifies the present moment as reference point and a form whose meaning does not specify that the present moment must be its reference point. Relative tenses thus have the present moment as one of their possible reference points, but this is a problem of interpretation rather than of meaning.

As a result, the Participle I is always interpreted as simultaneous with the reference point, as in the following informationally equivalent paraphrases: *the passengers awaiting flight 4248 must proceed to gate 2* (i.e. *the passengers who are awaiting flight 4248...*); *the passengers awaiting flight 4248 will proceed to gate 2* (i.e. *the passengers who will be awaiting flight 4248...*).

If Participle I is used in its perfect form, i.e. active *having boarded* or passive (*having been*) *denied boarding on flight 4248 the passengers proceeded to gate 2*, the interpretation takes the reference point to be defined by the time location of *proceeded*, making the paraphrase *the passengers who had been denied boarding proceeded to gate 2* informationally equivalent of the participial construction. In the paraphrase, the Past Perfect indicates that the denial of boarding preceded the proceeding to gate 2. Changing the main verb in tense, but keeping the perfect form of the Participle, gives sentences like *passengers denied boarding on flight 4248 should proceed to gate 2*, with its most likely interpretation *passengers who have been denied boarding...*, and *passengers denied boarding on flight 4248 will proceed to gate 2*, with as its most likely interpretation *passengers who will have been denied boarding...*

In looking for examples of relative time reference, it is essential to ensure that the relative time reference interpretation is part of the meaning of the form in question, rather than an implicature derived from, in part, the context. One area which is particularly confusing in this respect is narrative, where one gains the impression of a sequence of events which are located temporally one almost immediately after the other, the chronological sequence mirrored in the linear order of clauses. Thus one might be tempted to think that this sequencing is part of the meaning of the verb forms used, thus introducing a meaning of “immediate past” or “immediate future” relative time reference (depending on whether one defined the time reference of the preceding verb in terms of the following verb, or vice versa). However, this sequencing of events is a property of narrative itself, quite independent of the verb forms used to encode narrative, so that the mere fact that verb forms receive this interpretation in narrative is not sufficient evidence for assigning this meaning to those verb forms. Indeed, crucially one would need to look for examples outside of narrative, where the context does not force the immediate succession interpretation, to demonstrate that this is actually part of the meaning of the forms in question.

This property of narrative may also be used to explain the immediate past time reference interpretation often assigned to the English Participle I in narrative contexts, although we have claimed that the meaning of the English Participle I is relative present time reference. An example would be *choosing a bunch of grapes, I went to the cashdesk*, where the only possible interpretation, given our knowledge of possibilities in the world and relatively common organization of supermarkets, is that I first chose a bunch of grapes and then went to the cashdesk, without any overlap between the two situations.

Another set of problematic instances concerns the relationship between absolute and relative time reference. With the English non-finite verb forms, it seems in general clear that they have basically relative time reference, i.e. time reference defined relative to some deictic centre established by the context, so that the primary interpretation of *those making notes could follow the narration* is as "those who were (at that time) making notes could follow the narration". There is a secondary interpretation, as "those who are (now) making notes could follow the narration", where the non-finite verb form is apparently interpreted absolutely, with the present moment as the deictic centre. But in fact both these interpretations can be subsumed under relative tense once one realizes that one of the possible deictic centres for a relative tense is the present moment, especially when the context does not suggest any other reference point.

When analyzing sentences with perfect forms of the Infinitive, the Gerund and Participle I, we shall arrive at the conclusion that their perfect forms are characterized by the absolute-relative tense, since the deictic centre in these cases is a certain situation (in the past or in the present) and the situation expressed by the perfect form precedes this past situation.

## ADVERB

### 1. Grammatical meaning

It might be expected that, since the adverb is a traditional part of speech, all debates over its status and properties are over. It is far from the truth. Approaches to the adverb have been numerous: the adverb has undergone functional-semantic analysis, syntactic analysis, the correlation of its grammati-

cal and lexical meanings has also been studied. The stumbling-block of the research has always been the criteria that allow to treat a word as an adverb.

Both prescriptive and scientific grammars refer to this category quite miscellaneous words. Some of these words have all the typical adverbial properties, i.e. these words approach the prototype (or, in terms of the field theory, belong to the core of the field). Such adverbs as *here, now, often, seldom, twice, always, wonderfully, profoundly*, etc. are treated as those of the core. Here belong also adverbs, homonymous of other parts of speech: *yesterday* (adverb and noun), *home* (adverb and noun), *last* (adverb and adjective), *cheap* (adverb and adjective), *hard* (adverb and adjective) and so on. The rest of adverbs, exhibiting properties similar or identical of other parts of speech, form the periphery.

Adverbs were granted an independent status quite late. Early grammars (for instance, Henry Sweet's grammar) referred adverbs to a so-called "dustbin" class of particles, which united all indeclinable parts of speech. Jespersen also classed adverbs as particles, pointing out that such words as *up, immediately, and* should be taken together, since they could not be accounted for as nouns, adjectives, verbs or pronouns. The inconsistency of Jespersen's approach lies in that, on the other hand, he differentiates between prepositions, conjunctions, and adverbs, while, on the other hand, he unites them quite inconsistently under the common heading.

Strang regards adverbs as verbal adjuncts without specifying their part-of-speech status. Therefore it is not clear whether the scholar treats adverbs as an independent part of speech or as particles.

Representatives of structuralist linguistics, on the ground of the syntactic criterion, identified adverbs with so-called Class 4. Filling Class 4 position was believed to be the only property of adverbs:

CLASS 3	CLASS 1	CLASS 2	CLASS 3	CLASS 4
The –	–	is/was	–	there
The –	–	are/were	–	here

Undoubtedly, this criterion helped to identify the core adverbs. The rest of them were driven out of this part of speech and distributed between the functional words. This procedure gave rise to seven word groups.

Ukrainian researchers believe that adverbs are lexical words. According to this point of view, the grammatical meaning of adverbs is to define

quality and circumstances of another quality, an action or a state. It may be claimed that, in the most general sense, adverbs express a secondary quality, while actions, qualities (expressed by adjectives), and states denote a primary quality of the subject, e.g. *She sang perfectly. He slept tightly. They are leaving tonight. An extremely urgent affair.*

Attempts to reconsider the adverb have been made by many linguistic schools. In particular, some scholars suggested driving some groups out of this category. Among them we may find 1) so-called **intensifiers** (e.g. *very, extremely, absolutely, rather, quite*), 2) **limiting elements** (e.g. *only, just, even*), 3) **discourse markers** (e.g. *nevertheless, however, furthermore, etc.*), as well as *not*, introductory *there* and *the* in *the faster the better*.

Discussion have been raised concerning so-called postpositives, i.e. elements which, placed in post-position to the verb, form a semantic blend with it. This combination subjects verbs to a regular, systematic multiplication of their semantic functions: *to fall – to fall out, to fall in, to fall for; to give – to give in, to give out, to give up; to take – to take in, to take over, to take for; to get – to get around, to get on, to get out, to get up, etc.*

The lexico-grammatical status of postpositives has been interpreted in a number of ways. Some linguists treated them as a type of adverbs (Palmer, Smirnitky); others as preposition-like functional words (Anichkov, Amosova); still others as peculiar prefix-like suffixes similar to the German separable prefixes (Zhluktenko); finally, some scholars classed these words as a specific set of lexical elements functionally intermediate between words and morphemes (Ilyish, Khaimovich, Rogovskaya). The long list of possible interpretations only proves the complex character of the problem. Yet, one fundamental idea is common for all these theories, and that is the idea of the functional character of the analyzed elements. As a result, the majority of linguists regard these words as a functional set of particles, i.e. words of semi-morphemic nature. "Postpositives" is not the only term used to refer to these items. Other variants include "postpositions", "adverbial word-morphemes", and "adverbial postpositions".

Following the classification, put forward by academician Vinogradov, Soviet linguists have tried to overcome heterogeneity of adverbs by distinguishing such parts of speech as **particles** (*only, just, even, not*) and **modal words** (*certainly, probably, naturally*). These are actually those elements that are treated by Western scientists as **sentence modifying adverbs**. Se-

mantic and functional characteristics of these words do differ from core adverbs, which is obvious when comparing homonymous pairs:

*James isn't simply aware of the difficulties!* (particle) – *Speak simply and slowly as his English is basic.* (adverb)

*Naturally he was flabbergasted by my words.* (modal word) – *She moves naturally and unaffectedly while dancing.* (adverb)

## 2. Morphemic structure

If the morphemic structure is taken as a ground of classification, adverbs fall into six groups:

- 1) The first largest group is made up of those adverbs formed from derived and base adjectives by adding the suffix *-ly*: *evenly, smoothly, glamorously, beautifully, wonderfully, etc.*
- 2) The second group originally very small, but in present-day English exhibiting signs of rapid growth includes those formed by adding the derivational suffix *-wise* to nouns. A few adverbs of this type are well-established words (*clockwise, otherwise, likewise*); others are recent coinages or nonce-words like *weather-wise* and *plane-wise*.
- 3) The third group consists of adverbs formed by the addition of the derivational suffix *-ward(s)* to a limited number of nouns (e.g. *homeward(s), toward(s), forward(s), backward(s), etc.*). Most adverbs of this group have two forms, one with the final *s* and one without, variously distributed. The forms without *s* are homonymous with adjectives: *a forward estimate, he moved forward*.
- 4) Next comes a group of adverbs formed by combining the pronouns *some, any, every* and *no* with a limited number of nouns or pronominal adverbs, such as *someplace, anyway, everywhere, nowhere, etc.*
- 5) Then comes another relatively small group of adverbs that includes words that are formally identical with prepositions: *about, around, up, down, below, above, over, etc.*
- 6) The last group is the miscellaneous class of adverbs that have no formal signals at all to distinguish them in isolation. They are classed as adverbs because of their position in the sentence. Many adverbs in this group are fairly frequent in occurrence: *always, often, now, then, here, there, etc.* Some members of this type are homonyms of other parts of speech, such as *home, late, fast, loud, early, etc.*

Some scholars distinguish between so-called "merged" or "separable" adverbs (Раевська, 1967). The term "merged" implies the fact that such separable compounds are lexically and grammatically indivisible and form

a single idea. On the ground of their structure, "separable" compounds may be classified as follows:

- 1) **preposition + noun**: *at hand, at random, by heart, on foot, in turn*;
- 2) **noun + preposition + noun**: *hand in hand, day by day, face to face, word for word*;
- 3) **preposition + substantivized adjective**: *at last, at first, at large, in full, in vain, of late*;
- 4) **preposition + verbal noun**: *on the move, on the run, in a rush, at a guess*;
- 5) **proposition + numeral**: *at once, at one, by twos*;
- 6) **coordinate adverbs**: *by and by, on and off, on and on, again and again*;
- 7) **pronoun + adjective (participle)**: *all right, all told*;
- 8) **proposition + pronoun**: *after all, in all, at all*.

One may notice that most adverbs of the abovementioned groups may be reasonably referred to as grammatical idioms. This claim may be corroborated by the unusual absence of the article before their noun components and specialized use of the noun in its singular form only: *at hand* (but not *at the hand*, or *at hands* which may occur in free prepositional word combinations), *to date* (but not *to the date*), *at first* (but not *at the first*), etc.

### 3. Semantic classification

Adverbs may be classified not only on the ground of their morphemic composition but also on the ground of their semantic characteristics. As a rule, semantically, adverbs are divided into the two large classes: 1) **qualitative**, 2) **quantitative** and 3) **circumstantial**.

**Qualitative adverbs** express immediate, inherently non-graded qualities of actions and other qualities. In the majority of cases they have a formal property: they are derived from adjectives by means of the suffix *-ly*, with the exception of the so-called flat adverbs *well, fast, low, hard* whose form coincides with that of adjectives. One should also bear in mind that the flat adjectives have a parallel form in *-ly* with an obvious difference in meaning or connotation. Cf. *to work hard – hardly to work, to fall flat onto the floor – to refuse flatly, to fly high over the city – to discuss a highly philosophical problem*, etc.

Qualitative adverbs perform the function of an adverbial modifier of manner (*gladly, happily, steadily, increasingly*).

**Quantitative adverbs** include words of degree. These are specific lexical units of semi-functional nature expressing measure, or gradational evaluation of qualities. They undergo a further subdivision into three clearly distinct groups.

The first group is formed by adverbs of high degree – so-called "intensifiers" (*very, highly, perfectly, absolutely, strongly, much*). Here also belong adverbs of excessive degree (direct and reverse) (*too, awfully, tremendously, dreadfully, terrifically*) and adverbs of unexpected degree (*surprisingly, astonishingly, amazingly*).

The second group is formed by adverbs of moderate degree (*fairly, comparatively, relatively, moderately, rather*), approximate degree (*almost, nearly*) and optimal degree (*enough, sufficiently, adequately*).

The third group contains adverbs of low degree (*slightly, a little, a bit*) and inadequate degree (*insufficiently, intolerably, unbearably, ridiculously*).

As we may see, the degree adverbs constitute a specific variety of quantitative words. Moreover, they may be called qualitative-quantitative words, since they are used as qualitative evaluators. In this function they are distinctly different from genuine quantitative adverbs which are directly related to numerals and thereby form groups of words of pronominal order, e.g. *twice, thrice, twofold, threefold, manifold*, etc.

**Circumstantial adverbs** are divided into notional and functional. The functional circumstantial adverbs are words of pronominal nature that include adverbs of time, place, manner, cause, and consequence. Many of these words are used as syntactic connectives and question-forming function words, e.g. *now, here, when, where, so, thus, how, why*, etc.

As for circumstantial adverbs of more self-dependent nature, they include three basic groups: 1) adverbs of place (*here, near, far, upstairs, forward*), 2) adverbs of time (*now, today, tomorrow, lately*), 3) adverbs of frequency (*always, seldom, often, never*). The first two varieties express a general idea of temporal and spatial orientation and essentially perform deictic functions.

Qualitative and circumstantial adverbs specify different actions and exhibit semantically different links with the sentence. Some scholars believe that circumstantial adverbs do not have any specific link with any sentence part but modify the sentence as a whole.



#### 4. Morphological properties

The adverb has no morphological properties that may be regarded as specifically adverbial and be used as a criterion to define its morphological status. Absence of inflections is not restricted to adverbs only; degrees of comparison do not cover all the members of this part of speech; only some adverbs are formed by the derivational suffix *-ly*.

The only grammatical category – the category of degrees of comparison – are typical of qualitative and of some circumstantial adverbs. Here, a number of adverbs form the degrees of comparison synthetically: *early – earlier – earliest, hard – harder – hardest*. Meanwhile, there is a number of adverbs that form the degrees of comparison suppletively: *well – better – best, little – less – least, badly – worse – worst, much – more – most, far – farther/further – farthest/furthest*.

The degree of increase or decrease of some quality is expressed with other adverbs by means of adding *more, most* or *less, least*: *The word is less frequently used now, We receive her letters more regularly now.*

Some scientists believe that adverbs with *more* and *most* do not represent any analytical form but are free word combinations. The arguments to prove this claim are similar to those that are put forward for adjectives. In general, apart from the question of the uses of articles in comparative – superlative collocations, all the problems connected with the degrees of comparison of adjectives retain their force for the adverbial degrees of comparison.

#### 5. Syntactic functions

Since qualities of events are reduced to their time, location, character and intensity, the main syntactic function of adverbs is that of an adverbial modifier.

**Da Vinci had been a cryptology pioneer, Sophie knew, although he was seldom given credit.** (Brown) (adverbial modifier of time/frequency)

**...she calculated very carefully the intervals between one ink-spot and another...** (Spark) (adverbial modifier of degree and of manner)

**Miss Brodie's special girls were taken home to tea and bidden not to tell the others...** (Spark) (adverbial modifier of place)

Adverbs with temporal or locative lexical meaning may also be used attributively, e.g. *the journey down, a step forward, a then president*, though

some grammarians regard these words as adjectives derived from adverbs by conversion.

Western linguists make use of several terms to describe the syntactic status of the adverb. The most general term is **modifier (sentence-modifier, noun-modifier, adverb-modifier, verb-modifier, adjective-modifier)**. Here, it cannot but escape our notice that special attention is paid to the status of a modified word. Therefore, one may claim that the syntactic function of the adverb is defined by Western scholars in accordance with a word combination, namely, according to its head (principal word) rather than in accordance to syntactic and semantic peculiarities of the adverb.

As an adverbial modifier, adverbs may take almost any position in the sentence, and in this they are different from the rest of the parts of speech. Discourse markers are particularly mobile. There is only one position in which the adverb may not occur – it cannot separate the predicate and the direct object.

### MODAL WORDS

Modal words are morphologically unchangeable words that function as parenthesis and express the correlation between the content of an utterance with the real-world situation as seen by the speaker. Therefore, modal words are treated as a lexico-grammatical means of the category of modality.

One of their specific properties is that modal words are predominantly derived from other parts of speech. This fact is often used as an argument to deny modal words their independent lexico-grammatical status of a part of speech.

Though Western linguists, particularly authors of classical scientific grammars, pointed out specific characteristics of some adverbs and of their syntactic functions, which led them to define these units as sentence modifying adverbs or modal adverbs (these points of view may be found in works by Henry Sweet and Hermann Poutsma respectively), modal words as a separate part of speech was first distinguished by Russian linguists. However, even nowadays there is no unanimity among scientists as to their status, since modal words exhibit a diverse morphological and syntactic structure and since they may belong to different language levels: separate words, on

the one hand, and word combinations or even sentences, on the other hand. However, a number of scientists point out specific semantic and syntactic properties of modal words, with the latter being particularly important for an analytical language. These properties are regarded as sufficient arguments to support the status of a separate part of speech. Proponents of this point of view differ in their opinion as to the place of modal words in the modern English morphological system: some of linguists refer this class to lexical parts of speech, others stress that this class is still developing and has not been completely formed. It is remarkable that none of the mentioned viewpoints is based in the presumption that modal words are in fact function words.

The set of English modal words has not been defined yet. As a rule, the words *actually, apparently, assuredly, certainly, clearly, of course, decidedly, definitely, evidently, indeed, maybe, naturally, obviously, perhaps, positively, possibly, presumably, probably, really, seemingly, supposedly, surely, truly, undoubtedly* are treated as modal as well as obsolescent *forsooth, mayfall, mayhappen, meseems, methinks, peradventure, percase, perchance, verily* used by some authors for stylistic purposes to convey peculiarities of a certain historical period.

There is no established **semantic classification** of English modal words, but scholars usually mention two following semantic classes: 1) words evaluating the content of an utterance as a fact, and 2) words evaluating the content of an utterance as something possible, presupposed or impossible.

Modal words within these two classes undergo a further subdivision. For example, the first subclass is grouped around the word *certainly* and includes *assuredly, of course, indeed, surely*, whereas the nucleus of the second subclass is *obvious* with *apparently* and *evidently* expressing the same meaning.

The second semantic group of modal words may be divided into three subclasses: modal words expressing possibility (*possibly, probably*), those of presupposition (*seemingly, supposedly*), and those of doubt (*maybe, perhaps*).

**Morphological structure** of modal words is of two types: English modal words may be either derivatives (*possibly, really, supposedly*) or compounds (*indeed, maybe*). It is also noteworthy that the latter group contains

such elements as *of course* that, though formed by a preposition and a noun and spelled separately, is treated as a modal word.

The mentioned structural types of modal words are characterized by their own derivational types and functions. For instance, modal words derived from adverbs develop lexico-semanticly, i.e. an adverbial lexeme is split into an adverb and a modal word. As a result, the adverb-forming suffix *-ly* in modal words is not regarded as derivational in modal words.

Compound modal words are formed syntactically, i.e. from set expressions acquiring gradually properties of a word. The set expressions may be of various types. Sometimes, these are of the "preposition + noun" structure. One of the conditions that enable this word combination to transform into a modal word is, firstly, meaning of subjective evaluation, and, secondly, adverbialization of this word combination.

Some scholars refer to modal words such word combinations as *for certain, for sure, in truth, in fact*, etc. on the grounds that these are able to express a number of modal meanings. Other linguists doubt whether it is justified, since (1) meaning of subjective evaluation of these expressions is not their main one; (2) components of the set expressions retain their lexical meaning, which results in the use of attributes (cf. *for dead sure, in all truth, in actual fact*) that prove that the expressions have not yet been established as a morphological unity; (3) the set expressions are synonymous with same-root modal words (*for certain – certainly, for sure – surely, in truth – truly*), which prevents these set expressions from entering the class of modal words.

Another morphological type of modal words is made up of words derived from verbs (*maybe, meseems*). These are also formed syntactically by lexicalization of their components. Their peculiarity lies in that the modal meaning of one of the components comes to be projected onto the whole compound. Morphologically, these modal words are compounds consisting of two stems.

Syntactically modal words are characterized by the function of parenthesis, used both within a syntactic structure and as an independent word-sentence. Used as parenthesis, a modal word refers either to the content of a sentence on the whole or to some its part. When a modal word covers the whole sentence, it is used either in its beginning or in the end. In other cases, modal words are placed in immediate proximity to the structure to which they refer.

In conclusion, it is necessary to mention such words as *(un)luckily*, *(un)happily*, *(un)fortunately* whose categorical status has not been decided on yet. Some linguists regard these words as a specific semantic subclass of modal words – as words that convey the subjective meaning “desirability–undesirability”. Meanwhile other researchers claim that these words have a number of peculiarities strange to modal words. Semantically, they express the speaker’s emotion or volition. Morphologically, such words as *(un)luckily* may form derivational antonyms by means of the suffix *un-* and, consequently, are morphologically divisible. Syntactically, words of the *(un)luckily*-type are less independent, and they also are seldom (if ever) used as word-sentences. All these arguments are put forward to deny these linguistic units the status of modal words. This, however, does not prevent us from noting several properties that the *(un)luckily*-type words share with modal ones. Take, for instance, the inextricable semantic connection between the logico-rational and the emotional-volitional, as well as the syntactic function of parenthesis. As a result, it is quite natural to conjecture that the *(un)luckily*-type words represent transition cases between adverbs and modal words.

Thus, modal words in English exhibit a variety of derivational patterns and do not possess any distinct formal properties. Meanwhile, the independence of their meaning and their specific syntactic function proves their status of lexical words, though they are characterized by some specific properties.

## INTERJECTION

### 1. Grammatical meaning

The interjection is a grammatically unchangeable part of speech that expresses human emotions, states of mood and volition without naming them. The latter property makes it possible for some scholars to contrast interjections with so-called “intellectual words” (Смирницкий, 1959).

Interjections differ from all other parts of speech in their origin, specific nomination, phonetic structure as well as in a number of semantic, morphological and syntactic properties.

The important feature of interjections is their generalized meaning. In writing, the meaning of an interjection is revealed in utterances, preceding or following an interjection, in authors’ remarks. In oral communication the meaning of an interjection is specified by the speakers’ intonation, facial ex-

pression, or gestures. As a result, a context, a situation, extralinguistic means only help to single out interjections but also to clarify their meanings, for most English interjections are polysemantic. For example, the interjection *oh* may express such diverse emotions as astonishment, joy, entreaty, etc.

Morphologically, the interjection as part of speech is rather amorphous. Heated disputes still continue concerning the corpus of interjections and linguistic works on interjections show significant divergence in interpretations of this part of speech. Among other suggestions, some grammarians argue that politeness formulas and greetings should be treated as interjections. Other scientists argue that these language units do not express the speakers’ emotions, though sometimes they may convey emotional colouring. Moreover, components within these expressions retain their lexical meaning. Besides, grammatically, these word combinations may be interpreted as parts of other, larger constructions: *Good morning* (I wish you good morning), *thank you* (I thank you), *Goodbye* (May God be with you), etc. Thus, at present, the linguistic status of politeness formulas is hardly specified.

Onomatopoeic words do not express any emotions or volition either, though they may be very similar to interjections when other properties are concerned. It should be mentioned, however, that the borderline between the former and the latter is not absolute, which results in transition of some onomatopoeic words into interjections, e.g. *boo*, *humph*, *pooh*, *phew*, *ugh*, *yuk*.

### 2. Structural and semantic classifications

According to their derivational pattern, English interjections are as a rule divided into **primary (simple)** and **secondary (derivative)**. Primary interjections (*ah*, *hush*, *oh*, *ouch*, *ugh*, *wow*) stem from reflex involuntary exclamations and sounds that represent the speaker’s immediate reaction to a certain event. Contrary to reflex exclamations and sounds that do not belong to the language, interjections are linguistic signs, conventional in a certain language community, intelligible for its members, since these signs convey a certain meaning.

**Secondary** interjections are derived from lexical words (or word forms), e.g. *blimey*, *boy*, *Christ*, *chrissakes*, *dear*, *gees*, *Goodness*, *my*, *why*. These lexical words, having sometimes undergone phonetic transformations, turned gradually into a means of expressing human emotional impulses. Since the source-words still function in the language and parallel the deriva-

tive interjections, the main identification criterion to distinguish between them is the unity of their semantic and grammatical properties.

It has already been mentioned that interjections differ from other parts of speech in that they express nomination in a peculiar way. This property plays a crucial part in differentiating between interjections and their homonyms and between emotive lexical words. For example, the adjectives *super*, *gorgeous*, *awesome*, uttered with a certain intonation, though expressing the speaker's attitude to some event, still may not be qualified as interjections, since they express a qualitative evaluation of some phenomena and, consequently, have a definite logical lexical meaning. The homonym of the noun, the interjection *Goodness* that expresses the speaker's emotional reaction does not name any phenomena and does not characterize them in any qualitative aspect: the interjection only indicates the type of the emotion.

Semantically, interjections are as a rule divided into two groups: those expressing emotions (**emotional interjections**) and those expressing inducement (**imperative interjections**). Research proves that the first group is formed by an overwhelming number of items, whereas the second is less numerous (*come on!*, *here*, *hey*, *hush*, *lo*, etc.).

Imperative interjections differ from emotional ones in that their meaning is, as a rule, more transparent and independent of a context and a situation. But it would be wrong to treat this difference as absolute, since there is a number of emotional interjections with a quite established meaning, e.g. *alas*, *bravo*, *hurray*, *ouch*, *wow*, etc. These interjections are referred to as "meaningful". They should be distinguished from situational ones, i.e. those expressing emotions in general: cf. *ah*, *oh*, *God*, *Goodness*, *phew*, etc. Obviously, the term "meaningful" may also be used to describe imperative interjections, but they are clearly different in that they express inducement or volition.

Structurally, English interjections may be divided into two types: simple and composite. **Simple interjections** have the structure of a separate word. **Composite interjections** are forms combining several words. Interestingly, primary interjections are almost always simple. Composite interjections are relatively rare. They are mostly formed by combining two or more simple interjections, e.g. *dear me*, *confound it*, *hang it*, etc. Sometimes linguists claim that the number of secondary interjections is overextended. The linguists doubt whether units of various language levels (such word combinations and sentences as *Good Gracious*, *I am hanged*, *Well*, *I never*, etc.) may be classed as interjections. The scholars argue that though these items have

acquired the features of set expressions, still their transition into a part of speech has not been completed. The proponents of this point of view claim that the majority of these word combinations and sentences still preserve internal syntactic relations between their components, that they are internally divisible and may rather often change their components. Syntactically, though, they are homogeneous units, when used as emotive sentences.

The described controversy makes it possible to conjecture that development of interjections out of word combinations and sentences starts with their gradual idiomatization that results in various word-building and phonetic shifts within these word combinations (cf. *attaboy* (that is the boy), *blimey* (blind me), *dammit* (damn it), *durr* (dear me), *for chrissakes* (for Christ sake), *omigosh* (oh my God), etc.).

The opposite point of view is based on the argument that word combinations and sentences may be given the status of interjections on the ground of their semantic, syntactic and morphological properties. The supporters of this approach suggest that it suffice to indicate the complex structure of these interjections in the term "interjection phrase".

### 3. Syntactic functions

English interjections tend to be used as independent word-sentences either in the principal clause, which they make more emotional, or in isolation. Used with the principal clause, interjections occur, as a rule, in pre-position, or – sometimes – in post-position. Used in isolation, an interjection retains its relations with the utterance, since this part of speech is always defined by a situation. Interjections, occurring independently, in isolation, are treated by some grammarians as exclamatory sentences.

If an interjection is part of a principal sentence, it is usually regarded as parenthesis. If it is the case, links within the syntactic structure of the sentence are tighter than in sentences, where interjections are used in isolation. In very rare cases, the interjection may become a syntactic nucleus, functioning in agreement with a noun, e.g. *Alas for my hopes!* It should be noted that the interjection is always used in pre-position in the sentences of this type.

Thus, the combination of semantic and syntactic features proves that the interjection is undoubtedly a separate independent part of speech. Its status within the parts-of-speech system is quite peculiar: the interjection may not be treated either as lexical or as functional words, since, strictly speaking, it does not have the property of either. The interjection, however,

is characterized by a number of properties, similar to those of modal words and particles. These considerations give some grammarians the ground to suggest that these three parts of speech should be categorized as some third large group, overlapping both with lexical and functional parts of speech.

## Chapter III

### Functional parts of speech

#### ARTICLE

##### 1. Grammatical meaning

The article presents many difficulties to linguists. The problem of its grammatical meaning and its place in the language system is one of the most complicated in English grammar. Firstly, it is not quite clear whether the article should be treated as a separate word and what exactly its relation to the noun is. Secondly, the number of articles spurs debates among linguists. Thirdly, if the article is classified as a word, it is necessary to clarify whether it constitutes a specific part of speech. All these questions still spur heated debates among grammarians.

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

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

main formal feature, though some linguists add that the article is a means of analytical morphology, somewhat analogous to a morpheme.

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

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

Thus, the article should obviously be regarded as a phenomenon that cannot be fully referred either to morphology or to syntax. On the one hand, it is a part-of-speech marker of the noun, which makes it close to the morpheme. On the other hand, the article is a function-word that has no lexical meaning and does not have its independent syntactic function. Different points of view on the number of articles stem from the different interpretations of their linguistic status. Traditionally, two articles are recognized: the definite article *the* and the indefinite *a(n)*. However, if the article is regarded as a morpheme, then the term “zero-morpheme” may be applied to cases when the noun is used without the article. As a result, linguists have worked out a theory of three forms of the article: **zero-form**, **a-form** and **the-form**:

	Singular	Plural
<i>zero</i>		book books
<i>a-form</i>	a book	—
<i>the-form</i>	the book	the books

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

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

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

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

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

Syntactically, the function of the article is to mark the left-hand boundary of a noun-group: *the dress, the long silk dress, the lovely expensive long silk dress*. The article may also indicate some anaphoric relation. The anaphoric article is important in a coherent text, since it creates cohesion between sentences:

*Then she wound a splashy purple-and-black silk sash around her head. When she descended the stairs, the sash wafted out behind her like a bridal train. (Tyler)*

## 2. Semantic functions of the definite and the indefinite articles

### Semantic absence of the article

The main semantic function of the article is that of correlation of a notion with the world described in a text (or with the situation of communication). Obviously the speaker's choice of the article is situation-dependent.

Specifically, the definite article *the* and the indefinite article *a(n)* have three meaningful characterizations of the noun referent: one rendered by the definite article, one rendered by the indefinite article, and one rendered by the absence of the article.

The **definite article** individualizes or identifies the referent of the noun: the use of the definite article shows that the object referred to is known to the hearer and is taken in its concrete, individual quality. This observation is confirmed by a substitution test: the definite article may be replaced by a demonstrative determiner *this, that, these, those* without any change in the general implication of the construction. Though the semantic difference between a determiner and an article admits of no argument, yet the replacement of the words as a special diagnostic procedure is quite permissible. The identification takes place when the referent is mentioned for the second time:

*At the same time he caught the sound of children's voices and looked round to see, thirty yards away, a small boy and a girl and a blonde tall young woman in a plain white swimsuit and carrying a blue wrap, coming across the shore. Even at that distance he thought the girl had an aloof aristocratic, even supercilious air. (Bates)*

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

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

The definite article may also be used with the noun whose referent is mentioned for the first time but is so much common for a given situation that it does not require any special introduction:

*Mary and Bob sat in silence, the engine still running while Bob banged impatiently with one hand on the steering-wheel. (King)*

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

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

attention, a noun with the indefinite article frequently becomes the center of the utterance and as such is marked by strong stress.

*"Hello-o-o!" Biddy called, and the clatter of catering trays followed the slam of the door. Then Binstock arrived with the flowers, and a woman phoned to arrange an office cocktail party, and the plasterer showed up to mend the hole in the dining-room ceiling. (Tyler)*

The indefinite article, as different from the definite article, is commonly interpreted as referring the object denoted by the noun to a certain class of similar objects; in other words, the indefinite article may express a classifying generalization of the noun referent. Cf.:

*"I'm thinking of taking a trip," she told Zeb on the phone. (Tyler)*  
*She threw away an entire sheet of postage stamps, three-cent postage stamps. (Tyler)*

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

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

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

*At the sight, and at the relief it brought him, he realized how anxious he had been. (Hartley)*

*The policeman, if such he was, seemed to be moving towards him and Walter suddenly became alive to the importance of small distances... (Hartley)*

The indefinite article may sometimes occur with abstract nouns denoting feelings. In these cases, the article implies that the noun denotes some particular kind or new manifestation of the feeling:

*After all, most of his happiness was in his home, and it was a very considerable happiness. (Cary)*

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

LOST CHILDREN DATA BASE GOES LIVE – headline

"SLEEPY" TOWN REELING AFTER DOUBLE MURDER – headline

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

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

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

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

Besides the elliptical constructions and fixed uses, however, there are cases of semantic absence of the article that stands in immediate meaningful correlation with the definite and indefinite articles as such. These cases are not homogeneous; nevertheless, they admit of an explicit classification founded on the countability characteristics of the noun. For example, the meaningful absence of the article before the countable noun in the singular signifies that the noun is taken in an abstract sense, expressing the most general idea of the object denoted. This meaning may be called the meaning of "absolute generalization":

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

## PREPOSITION

### 1. Grammatical meaning

Defining the preposition, linguists usually point out three main properties: 1) the preposition is a functional part of speech, i.e. a preposition cannot perform an independent syntactic function; 2) the preposition is a word expressing subordinate relations between lexical parts of speech; 3) the prepo-

sition is a word with an obligatory pre-noun position: it may follow almost any part of speech, but it must precede a noun or its syntactic equivalent.

Prepositions, like functional parts of speech in general, are a complicated and controversial phenomenon. On the one hand, they are discrete, separate words; on the other hand, these are words that exist only together with others. The English preposition presents the following issues for linguistic analysis.

One and the same concept may be expressed by means of both a lexical word and a preposition, e.g. *purpose* and *for*. Some linguists, in order to reveal the difference between these two ways of expression, deny any lexical meaning, peculiar to prepositions. Their opponents claim that lexical meaning of a preposition is subordinated to its grammatical meaning. This approach is not quite correct, since grammatical meaning of prepositions is to indicate subordinating relation. The relation of purpose is among others, such as location, direction, source, instrument, etc. Each of the meanings is expressed by a number of prepositions that may have a variety of concrete meanings (take, for example, the meaning of location indicated by the prepositions *in, on, under, over, around, at, by*). These concrete meanings are registered in dictionaries, which gives the ground to suppose that the preposition does have a specific lexical meaning. The specificity of this meaning lies in that it is expressed by a preposition only in combinations with lexical words. Compare, for instance, the answer to the question *Where shall I put the gloves?* that may be *On/Under/By the box*. The answer *On/Under/By* is impossible. These observations lead us to believe that the preposition is deprived of the nomination ability: it does not name a relation, it only points this relation out.

The preposition marks a relation between words, and therefore it may be expected to function between the two words in order to relate them to each other. This expectation is not, however, always met. The most widespread case, with the left component absent, is quite frequent in titles (*Across the river and into the trees*) or in sentences where the subject is expressed by a prepositional phrase (*In the drawer is where you should put the money*). In the latter sentence, though the preposition *in* is semantically related with the verb *put*, syntactically they are separated. It should be noted that the left component is always present – explicitly or implicitly – and it is the left component that determines the choice of a preposition.



Prepositions, like all functional words, do not have any morphological properties. The majority of prepositions are root words that appeared in Old English or even earlier. Though one might expect prepositions to be a closed word class, new prepositions do appear. New formations are rare and the process of formation takes much time. A preposition is, as a rule, formed through desemantization of some morphological forms, for example, participles: *considering, during*.

Phonetically, a number of prepositions are absolutely identical with adverbs and so-called postpositives. Jespersen believed that these should be treated as two different uses of one and the same linguistic unit. However, since this linguist did not differentiate lexical and functional words, this interpretation might hardly be relevant in terms of our analysis. The majority of modern scholars argue that these cases are examples of linguistic homonymy, i.e. that the words, identical in their phonetic form, belong to different parts of speech.

The words *before, after* and *since* may be an example of a stumbling-block issue, i.e. an example of confused correlation between the preposition and other parts of speech. The majority of linguists believe that, depending on the distribution, each of these phonetic forms may belong to three parts of speech – the preposition (*Jack always arrives after his wife*), the conjunction (*Jack arrived after his wife picked up the kids*), and the adverb (*Jack came shyly after*). The adverb is easily recognizable, for it does not express any relation but stands on its own and functions as an independent sentence part. It is not so simple to interpret the difference between the preposition and the conjunction. The term “homonymy” in its conventional sense is not applicable here, since conventional homonyms are phonetically identical but semantically different. In this particular case, functional words, introducing either a word or a subordinate clause, have similar temporal meanings. Meanwhile, in the first sentence *after* preserves similarity with prepositions, whereas in the second sentence it resembles conjunctions.

## 2. Structural and semantic classifications

As to their morphological structure, prepositions fall under the following groups:

- 1) **simple** (*in, on, at, for, with, etc.*);
- 2) **derivative** (*behind, below, across, along, etc.*);

- 3) **compound** (*inside, outside, within, without, notwithstanding, etc.*);
- 4) **composite** (*because of, in front of, in accordance with, etc.*).

Linguists who recognize that prepositions have lexical meanings divide this part of speech into groups united semantically. As a result, they distinguish between **temporal, spatial, and grammatical** (also referred to as **logical**) prepositions. This classification is deficient, since the majority of prepositions with long history have by now become polysemantic. As a result, one and the same preposition, depending on its distribution, may express any of the three types of relation: spatial (*on the roof*), temporal (*on Monday*), and logical (*by, with, because of, etc.*). In the long run, for monosemantic prepositions, we may arrive at a semantic classification, whereas polysemantic prepositions will be classified according to their use. One must also keep in mind that spatial and temporal prepositions are contrasted with logical ones on the ground of transparency of their meaning. In addition, linguists state that logical prepositions are not semantically homogeneous: some of them are so abstract semantically that their meaning can hardly be defined (e.g. the prepositions *of, to, by, with*).

Some classifications are based on the type of relations between a preposition and semantic meanings of the environment where it occurs. Prepositions are divided into a group with the left indicator of prepositional meaning (*in the bag, with astonishment*), with the right indicator (*to accuse of smth, to object to smth*) and a group of bilateral indication, where a preposition can reveal its meaning both with the right and with the left indicator (*to eat with, with a fork*).

## 3. Syntactic functions

The most controversial opinions are expressed in connection with the syntactic status of prepositions. This issue has caused clashes between the opposing interpretations. Some linguists argue that the preposition is functionally equal to the morpheme rather than to a word, since it stands to mark case relations. Other scholars believe that the preposition may not be equivalent of the morpheme. This claim is based on two objections: first of all, the preposition, contrary to auxiliary words in analytical forms, has a specific lexical meaning; secondly, the grammatical category of case should correlate with the means of its expression, therefore, if the preposition is

a means of expressing this category, English should differentiate as many cases as there are prepositions.

Alongside of these arguments, many grammarians, granting prepositions the word-status, agree that the preposition is a functional word that connects words in a word combination but does not equal them.

Other linguists state that the preposition forms a word combination with a noun that depends on the preposition. One cannot but agree with this statement, but one should not at the same time forget that the preposition also depends on the noun, it cannot exist without the noun. Besides, it should be born in mind that the preposition, when introducing a noun, indicates its function in relation to the left word, which is actually the head member of the word combination. Thus, the preposition by its nature is controversial: formally, it dominates the noun introduced; functionally, the preposition is a means of connection of this noun with the left component of the sentence.

## CONJUNCTION

### 1. Grammatical meaning

Conjunctions are functional words that connect separate words, word combinations, clauses or sentences and in doing so mark the relations of coordination and subordination. Consequently, the grammatical meaning of conjunctions is similar to that of prepositions: conjunctions mark grammatical relations but these relations are even more abstract than those indicated by prepositions.

Conjunctions form a part of speech genetically related with words of other parts of speech. A number of conjunctions are derived from adverbs or prepositional phrases as well as from forms of lexical words, e.g. *provided, supposing, seeing*. Moreover, linguists claim that some nouns, in fact, function as conjunctions undergoing the process of partial desemantization. These nouns are *the moment, the instant, the way* and the adverb *once*: *I didn't like him the moment we were introduced to each other; I don't like the way he works this month; Once you are let down, you stop trusting people*. As a result, the problem of grammatical homonymy of conjunctions and other parts of speech is one of the most controversial and important. Some conjunctions have homonyms among adverbs, prepositions, particles, etc. We have

already considered the linguistic unit *after*. Another example is *but* that may function not only as a coordinating conjunction (*slow but efficient*), but also as a preposition (*nobody but him*) or a particle (*saw him but yesterday*).

One of the most controversial cases is the use of the comparative *like*. It seems quite acceptable to believe that distribution plays the crucial part for classification. Depending on the distribution, *like* is treated either as a preposition (*It's not like what we hoped for; He looked like a stranger*), or as a conjunction (*Try to live like you used to*), or sometimes as an adjective (*They are as like as two peas*) or a noun (*We shall not see his like again*).

Clearly, defining the conjunction, one faces difficulties in drawing a fast and ready borderline between the conjunction and the preposition. A relation, marked by a subordinating conjunction, resembles much that of the preposition. As a result, though the former is mainly used in the complex sentence, there are exceptions such as *if possible, when at a loss*, in which the subordinating conjunction connects separate lexical words or word combinations. As a rule, this function is performed by prepositions or coordinating conjunctions. These observations give rise to doubts whether is it justified to differentiate between these two parts of speech. Obviously, lexical meanings of functional parts of speech may hardly be separated from grammatical relations marked by these words; it is for this reason that combinability of functional words and their distribution determine to which part of speech these words should be referred. Consequently, all these disputable cases should be regarded as cases of homonymy.

### 2. Structural and semantic classifications

According to their morphological structure, conjunctions are divided into the following groups:

- 1) **simple** (*and, or, but, till, after, that, so, where, when, etc.*);
- 2) **derivative** (*until, unless, etc.*);
- 3) **compound** (*however, whereas, wherever, etc.*);
- 4) **composite** (*as well as, as long as, in case, on the ground that, for the reason that, etc.*).

Simple conjunctions remarkably outnumber compound ones. Composite conjunctions give rise to debates over the possibility to consider word combinations as a part of speech.

It should be noted that some conjunctions are used correlatively: *both...and*, *either...or*; *not only...but (also)*, *neither...nor*, *whether...or*.

As to their function, conjunctions fall into two classes:

- 1) coordinating conjunctions;
- 2) subordinating conjunctions.

Coordinating conjunctions (*and*, *not*, *neither...nor*, *or*, *either...or*, etc.) join words, word combinations as well as coordinate clauses in a compound sentence, or homogeneous subordinate clauses in a complex sentence, or independent sentences.

Coordinating conjunctions are divided into four semantic classes. Each class includes conjunctions that introduce a certain type of compound sentences:

- a) **copulative conjunctions:** *and*, *nor*, *as well as*, *both...and*, *not only...but (also)*, *neither...nor*. Copulative conjunctions chiefly denote that one statement or fact is simply added to another, with *nor* and *neither* expressing that relation in the negative sense;
- b) **disjunctive conjunctions:** *or*, *either...or*, *or else*, *else*. Disjunctive conjunctions offer some choice between one statement and another;
- c) **adversative conjunctions:** *but*, *while*, *whereas*. Adversative conjunctions show that one statement or fact is contrasted with or set against another;
- d) **causative-consecutive conjunctions:** *so*, *for*. Causative-consecutive conjunctions denote consequence, result, or reason. These conjunctions indicate that one statement or fact is inferred from another. It should be pointed out that the conjunction *for* is a borderline case between a coordinating and a subordinating conjunction. When expressing cause, it semantically approaches the subordinating conjunctions *as* and *because*.

Some of the coordinating conjunctions are polysemantic. Thus the coordinating conjunction *and* may indicate different relations: cf. *Jack had breakfast and left for the office* (the copulative *and*); *You started working here two days ago, and I've been here for five years already* (the adversative *and*); *Jog five miles every morning and you'll be fit* (the consecutive *and*).

One cannot but notice that the use of coordinating conjunctions is not unlimited, i.e. there are some grammatically similar structures that may not be joined by coordinating conjunctions. The analysis of these limitations brings up the concept of presupposition. By **presupposition** we mean ex-

tralinguistic conditions that make the utterance relevant and liable to interpretation. As a result, clauses, joined by a coordinating conjunction, are expected to have a common topic, which may be either implicit or explicit: e.g. the coordinating conjunction is possible in the sentence *Jane is a lawyer and her father is a marketing expert*, if *her* refers to *Jane*, whereas the sentence *Jane wears wonderful perfume and all Parisians are chic* implies the presupposition that Jane is a Parisian, but the sentence *Jane is a vegetarian and underage children are not allowed to watch the movie* can hardly be backed up by any presupposition, as well as the sentence *John is a kind man and he is cruel and violent*, where the first part contradicts the second one.

Apart from these limitations of the conjunction *and* in natural languages, it cannot escape our attention that, though coordination means equality of clauses, their rearrangement is not always possible. The reason lies in that the conjunction *and* combines the copulative meaning with the temporal one. Therefore the order of predications usually presupposes the succession of events or actions: cf. *He lay on the bed and died* vs. *He died and lay on the bed*. Besides, the conjunction *and* may express the causative-consecutive relation, e.g. *You move and I'll shoot* (=If you move, then I'll shoot). Coordination that does not permit rearrangement of its components is called asymmetric.

The terms "symmetry" and "asymmetry" may also be applied to other coordinating conjunctions, such as *but* (in the sentence *Jeremy is well-behaved but his brother is naughty*, the conjunction is symmetric, whereas in *He was listened to but nobody followed his advice* the conjunction is asymmetric). The correlative conjunctions *either...or* exhibit the same properties (compare their symmetric use in *Either Jane will lay the table or she will pop out for some fresh bread* with the asymmetric use *Either you do what you are told, or I'll tell your father about your behaviour!*). It is easy to notice that the asymmetric use of the disjunctive conjunction is caused by the causative-consecutive relation between the clauses.

Subordinating conjunctions (e.g. *that*, *while*, *because*, *as*, *though*, *since*, *in case*, *suppose*) introduce, as a rule, dependent predicative units (i.e. subordinate clauses within a complex sentence). They are differentiated on the ground of the clause-type. For example, the subordinating conjunction *if* introduces object clauses and adverbial clauses of condition: *Greg cannot know if the plane will arrive on time*; *If Greg has no other plans for tonight, he will join us for dinner*. *That*, in its turn, may introduce subject clauses,

predicative clauses, object clauses, adverbial clauses of purpose and of result: *That Jill has come late is no surprise for us; What Greg means is that she spends money like water; He reports that the company has lost half of its clients this year; He turned to the sales assistant that she should help choose the present; We had so many options that we were at a loss.*

Only rarely does a subordinating conjunction join homogeneous members: *He was pleased though tired.*

It should also be mentioned that some conjunctions may combine coordinating and subordinating meanings, which is observed with the conjunction *while*: *Jack has been overlooked for promotion for two years while his friends have been successfully climbing up the career ladder* (coordination); *While talking on the phone, he made several notes* (subordination).

### 3. Conjunction-words

Conjunction-words are used alongside of conjunctions to mark subordination. Among conjunction-words, there are conjunction-pronouns (*who, whoever, what, which*) and pronominal adverbs (*when, where, why, how, etc.*) that combine the properties of a functional part of speech with those of a lexical one. It is subordinate clauses that are introduced by conjunction-words, since a conjunction-word carries out a relative function, i.e. it introduces a pronoun or an adverb into a subordinate clause replacing some of sentence parts: *Dan is a friend who has been tested in many ups and downs in my life.*

Conjunction-words are adjacent with conjunction adverbs that are treated as distinct from conjunctions proper. Conjunction adverbs (also referred as **discourse markers**) are *however, nevertheless, therefore, accordingly, thus, furthermore, hence, consequently, etc.* Contrary to conjunction-pronouns and pronominal adverbs, conjunction-adverbs function to join parts of compound sentences or independent sentences. The meanings marked by these units are logical, which brings them close to coordinating conjunctions rather than to subordinating ones. This property, as well as variation of their location in a sentence proves their peripheral status among conjunction-words. Syntactically, these words function as a parenthesis.

There is a tendency for these words to transform into ordinary coordinating conjunctions. The units *yet* and *still* are the most advanced in this process: cf. *The house was so convenient yet so expensive that Frank could*

*not afford it even though it was hard for him to turn down the offer.* The function to join two homogeneous sentence parts is not typical of conjunction-adverbs, therefore here *yet* apparently should be classified as a conjunction proper.

Alongside of the described system of connecting linguistic units, represented by the two classes of functional words (prepositions and conjunctions) and complemented by conjunction-words, combining properties of functional parts of speech with those of lexical word classes, some scholars suggested a different distribution of connecting elements. According to this point of view, all the mentioned connecting units should be united under the term "connector" that undergo a further subdivision into prepositions, coordinating conjunctions and subordinating conjunctions. The fact of uniting all the three groups would underline their similarities and differences.

## PARTICLE

### 1. Grammatical meaning

Particles are subject to heated disputes in linguistics, since their interpretation depends on linguistic traditions as well as on an individual author. For example, Western scholars do not, as a rule, mention particles as a part of speech; in their classifications, these words are referred to adverbs, pronouns, and conjunctions. Thus, British and American grammarians do not differentiate between particles and adverbs at all. In these classifications, adverbs are divided, on the ground of their syntactic functions, into adjuncts, disjuncts, and conjuncts. While disjuncts are associated with modal words, adjuncts and conjuncts have primarily a connective function and consist of words that in other classifications are qualified as particles. Thus, adjuncts include such words as *alone, just, merely, only even*, while the group of conjuncts includes *yet* and *still*. In other words, adjuncts and conjuncts contain units that are treated as particles within Slavonic linguistic tradition.

In Soviet linguistics, academician Vinogradov was the first to distinguish particles as a separate part of speech, equal in their status with prepositions and conjunctions in the Russian language. Since then, a number of grammars by Soviet linguists have treated particles as a functional part of speech, deprived of any formal markers. In these works, particles are quali-

fied as a separate class of function-words that semantically specify, limit, emphasize other words in the sentence without expressing any grammatical relations between them.

At first, particles were defined as a part of speech formed by morphologically unchangeable words giving modal or emotional emphasis to other words or groups of words or clauses. This definition could hardly be taken as satisfactory, for in this case none of the properties could be called a categorical one. It is obvious that, firstly, morphological unchangeability is not restricted to particles only; secondly, emotional meaning can also be hardly taken as a categorical one; thirdly, emphatic meaning, conveyed by particles and treated as one of their main characteristics, is also typical of modal words, intensifying adverbs and even some syntactic constructions. Disputes over the definition have resulted in differences in the number of particles that have been pointed out by grammarians as well as in differences in further subdivision of these linguistic units. As a rule, grammar books mention the following groups of particles: 1) **limiting** (*even, else, only*), 2) **modal** (*never, hardly, scarcely*), 3) **emotive** (*but, just, simply, still*), and 4) **grammatical** (*not, to*).

The classification given above is inconsistent, since the grammatical particles are distinguished on the ground of grammatical rather than semantic relations. These "grammatical" particles function as indicators within a morphological form and, therefore, cannot be analyzed independently of the structure in which they appear.

Arguments against simultaneous differentiation between modal, emotive, and limiting particles are of different nature. The ability of a word to carry out the limiting function may not be treated as a purely semantic meaning, since the limiting function implies some "limited" units. It follows from this that the notion of "limitation", as it is understood within this classification, presupposes both semantic and syntactic aspects. Besides, the ability to limitation is not restricted exclusively to the limiting particles: it is characteristic of the rest of particles as well, which makes limitation the property of the entire class.

The difference between "modal" and other particles is also very doubtful, since all the particles, without exception, express the speakers' subjective attitude to the content of an utterance, therefore, they are all emotively marked. This leads us to argue the term "emotive" particles, since if we

restrict emotiveness to only these words, then we must admit that other particles may not be emotive, which does not hold.

Some scientists distinguish between **modal** and **logical particles**, interpreting modal particles as words that refer to the entire sentence and express such modal meanings as possibility, certainty, uncertainty, etc., i.e. modal particles are regarded as complementary to the verbal Mood. These particles are usually found in imperative sentences and various types of interrogative and exclamatory sentences. The borderline between these two classes is very vague, though, since modal meanings may combine with the meaning of logical relations.

All in all, the groups of particles as they are given above raise more questions than answers. It is obvious that diversity of classifications and approaches to particles stem from different points of view on the main functions of this part of speech: some scholars emphasize emotiveness, some see logical relations as the most important for identification, others are guided by grammatical meanings. This confusion may apparently be traced back as far as the old tradition to refer to all morphologically unchangeable function-words as "particles".

Researchers' interest was again drawn to particles in the 1980s. Then the main function of particles was reconsidered. As a result, the role of this part of speech acquired an interpretation, other than expression of emotions and emphasis. In the 80s, particles came to be believed a means of expressing implied meanings. This view became possible only when linguistic analysis stopped being restricted to an isolated sentence and linguists' attention was turned to text with its additional, implicit meanings.

At the same time, it is in the 80s that the body of particles was blown up beyond measure. For example, some linguists started distinguishing between **additive particles** (*equally, likewise, similarly, etc.*), **temporal particles** (*already, at last, any longer, so far, still, yet*), **limiting-specifying particles** (*chiefly, especially, essentially, in particular, largely, mainly, notably*), etc. In this list, a number of the words, qualified as particles, preserve adverbial properties – semantic, syntactic and morphological. The words *equally, likewise, similarly* may to a certain degree resemble the particles *too, either* and *also* but they differ in level of abstraction as well as in their syntactic functions. Temporal particles bring about even more confusion, since the rest of groups share a meaning of logical relation. Besides, as long

as particles are sometimes identified as “semantic-grammatical connectors that join some components of an utterance and transform it into a semantic and grammatical whole”, it is not surprising that a number of so-called “discourse markers” (*after all, similarly, especially, etc.*) came to be qualified as particles.

In modern linguistic analysis, it is the concept of presupposition that is relevant to particles more than to any other part of speech. The theory of presuppositions and the theory of implicit nomination have given theoretical foundation and instruments to study peculiarities of particles. Research showed that particles mark implicit meanings incorporated in utterances. This approach helped to reveal and eliminate such a drawback of previous classifications as inconsistency: the classifications given above did not distinguish between semantic, pragmatic, and formal functions of particles, i.e. one can hardly treat as equal such concepts as limitation, emotivity and differentiation of grammatical forms. Lexical meaning of particles may not be studied without using the term “implicit meaning”, since particles are markers of implications embedded in explicit meaning of a sentence. Particles indicate that a word (a so-called **nuclear component**) is not used in isolation but is correlated with some other component in the text (**counterpart**). In other words, particles show that their nuclear components have certain counterparts, and this constitutes the main presupposition marked by particles.

Types of counterparts may be reduced to the following three: 1) explicit counterpart (the counterpart is expressed verbally); 2) situational counterpart (the counterpart is tied to the given situation); 3) conceptual counterpart (the counterpart is defined by a logical presupposition, i.e. it is part of background knowledge shared by the language community members). It should be noted that, no matter how a counterpart may be represented, it is always familiar to speakers, it constitutes their (either situational or background) common knowledge.

A counterpart is either negated as a participant of a situation, or is included in this situation, e.g. *Jane saw Sam. I saw him too*. The particle *too* in the sentence correlates the two persons, namely *Jane* and *I*, as identical on the ground of their performing one and the same action. The presupposition here is affirmative. If we examine the sentences *Everyone saw Sam. Only Jane didn't see him*, we will arrive at the conclusion that the particle

*only* correlates the nuclear component *Jane* with the counterpart *everyone*, marking between them the relation “common – exception”. With *only*, the presupposition is negated.

It should be added that in the examples above the counterparts are expressed verbally. Sometimes speakers do not mention counterparts, e.g. *Only you wouldn't taste our home wine!*, where the speaker and the hearer involved in the current communication understand that the nuclear component *you* is contrasted with the implied counterpart *the rest of the guests*. Counterparts are dropped in the sentence *Only men are allowed to go out alone in orthodox Muslim countries*, since it is our background knowledge that men are as a rule contrasted with women, therefore it is possible not to mention explicitly the counterpart *women*.

Returning to the problem of presuppositions indicated by particles, one cannot but mention presuppositions of expectation. Particles always mark negation of these presuppositions, i.e. the speaker reports something totally unexpected instead of something ordinary and predictable. Presuppositions of expectation are peculiar to only some particles, such as *even, only, never*, e.g. *My friends were enjoying the party. Even Martin was having fun* means actually far more than *Martin was having fun*, since *even* marks the presupposition that the speaker did not expect Martin to enjoy himself. Attention should be drawn here to the inclusive meaning of *even* in contrast to the limiting one of *only*.

If we compare the sentence *they even rented a flat* with the sentence *Jill likes Italian food too*, we may arrive at the conclusion that, potentially, particles may be markers of two types of presupposition: 1) the presupposition of expectation, and 2) the presupposition of a counterpart, as it is the case with *too*. The presupposition of expectation is restricted to several particles, while the presupposition of a counterpart is obligatory for all the particles. Therefore, the presupposition of a counterpart to the nuclear component may be treated as a grammatical meaning of particles as a part of speech.

## 2. Semantic classification

Taking into account this categorical meaning, it is possible to distinguish the following types of particles:

- 1) **additive** (*also, either, even, neither, too*) that correlate the nuclear component with its counterpart on the ground of their similar properties:

*Jack was not prepared to deliver the report. Linda was not at her best at the meeting either.*

2) **limiting** (*alone, barely, hardly, just, merely, only, solely, scarcely, simply*) that make the nuclear component distinct from the (otherwise similar) counterpart on the ground of some peculiar property: *Henry just tried to help! He did not mean to pry into your private life!*

3) **adversative** (*but, still, though, yet*) that indicate the contrast between the nuclear component as an unexpected, paradoxical consequence that results from the previous situation-counterpart:

*"I can't see anything in the letter of great interest!" "Yet there is one point that struck me at once".*

4) **adversative-negative** (*never*) that marks emphatically contrast between expectations, promises, plans, desires with reality:

*He promised to come back next day but he never did.*

Grammarians suppose that particles, in the majority of cases, have developed from other parts of speech: adverbs (*never, simply*), adjectives (*alone, even, only*), conjunctions (*but*). Particles, like modal words, appear as a result of new meanings and syntactic functions, gradually acquired by words. It should also be noted that the majority of English particles are morphologically simple, monosyllabic words; the issue of composite particles has not yet been raised for this part of speech in English linguistics.

### 3. Syntactic functions

There are heated debates as to the syntactic status of particles. Some scholars believe that particles should not be treated as sentence-parts. Clearly, these scholars assume that the function of particles is only to emphasize, to deliver some emotional colouring. However, there may be solid arguments against this point of view, since particles may not be eliminated from the utterance without affecting its meaning (cf. *(Only) Daniel knew the way in the mountains, Anyone (but) Sarah would yield to the plead*). If we accept the claim that particles mark some logical relations between two components of the utterance (or utterances), then we cannot deny the semantic value of particles for the utterance (or utterances). As a result, we have to grant particles some syntactic status. The problem of their status within a sentence is not solved, since on the one hand, particles do not have their

independent regular position in the sentence: they are always tied up with their nuclear component; on the other hand, there are a number of cases when particles are separated from their nuclear components (e.g. *He will only receive the letter tomorrow* in which *only* modifies *tomorrow* though they are separated). These observations lead some grammarians to interpret this type of syntactic relations as government. Others believe that particles and their nuclear components constitute some specific type of relation. This point of view cannot be undermined even by the claim that particles may not function without their nuclear component, because the very same observation also holds for adjectives or adverbs of measure and degree, which does not prevent them from performing a syntactic function. Still, despite similarities, particles are syntactically different from them in that 1) particles may be combined with a much more diverse parts of speech – nouns, verbs, pronouns, numerals, adjectives, adverbs; 2) particles may not be used in isolation.

Thus, particles may be regarded as a sentence part, though their specific syntactic function may not be reduced to any others that have been studied; as a result, the particle requires further syntactic research that will suggest a special term to denote the specific syntactic status of this part of speech.

# Part II. Syntax

## Chapter I

### Syntax as branch of grammar. Syntactic theories

#### 1. General remarks

The term **syntax**, originating from the Greek words *syn*, meaning “co-” or “together”, and *taxis*, meaning “sequence, order, arrangement”, is the branch of grammar dealing with the ways in which words are arranged to show connections of meaning within a sentence. It concerns how different words (which, going back to Dionysius Thrax, are categorized into parts of speech) are combined into clauses, which, in turn, are combined into sentences. For example, in *It smells nice*, there are connections of meaning among *it*, *smells* and *nice* which are shown by the order of words (*it+smells+nice*, not *nice+smells+it*) and also, in part, by inflectional agreement between the verb and pronoun (*it smells*, not *it smell*). Similar connections are found in other combinations: for example, in *They taste salty* and *It felt stronger* or, as parts of larger sentences, among *he*, *was* and *cleverer* in *They said he was cleverer*, or among *which*, *smell* and *spicy* in *She likes perfumes which smell spicy*.

For the syntactic characterization of a sentence, or of any smaller unit distinguishable within it, grammarians use the equivalent Latin term **construction**. In *They said he was cleverer*, the last three words have a construction of their own (some grammarians use the term **syntagm** to refer to such syntactic units). We can then talk of a larger construction in which this unit as a whole (*he was cleverer*) is related to *said*, which in turn is related to *I*. Such relations may be called constructional relations. For example, in *She likes perfumes which smell spicy*, there is a syntactic unit, *which smell spicy*, where *spicy* and *which* stand in constructional relations to *smell*. This forms part of a larger unit, *perfumes which smell spicy*, in which the whole of *which smell spicy* stands in constructional relations with *perfumes*, that in turn construes with *likes* within the sentence as a whole.

Any syntactic unit can now be looked at from two angles. First we can consider it as a whole, for it functions either in isolation or as part of a larger unit. In *perfumes which smell spicy* the last three words form what grammarians call a **relative clause** – a clause whose function is “in relation to” an antecedent noun. In *It smells nice*, we have a **main (or principal) clause** which in addition is declarative (having the form appropriate to a statement) as opposed to interrogative (having the form appropriate to a question), and so on. Therefore, we may conclude that any unit can be characterized on more than one dimension. Thus, *It smells nice* is at once a clause and not a word combination, declarative and not interrogative, main and not (for example) relative, and so on.

The second characterization is in terms of a unit’s internal connections. In *It smells nice*, the relationship of *it* to *smells nice* is that of a subject to a predicate, where the predicate, in its turn, consists of the predicator *smells* and the predicative *nice*. The unit can then be said to have a “subject – predicator – predicative” pattern. Likewise, in the construction of the word combination *perfumes which smell spicy*, there are two elements which are represented by the noun *perfumes*, on the one hand, and the relative clause, on the other. This is one type of the head – modifier construction, with the clause as a modifier of the head *perfumes*.

The roots of all this lie in the grammatical tradition. What seems important is, firstly, that constructions are to be described in terms of functions and relations, and not simply in terms of parts of speech and their sequential distribution. In *It smells nice*, the first word is a subject related to a predicator *smells*; it is not simply a pronoun which is immediately followed by a verb. Secondly, constructional relations are at bottom relationship of meaning. Patterns of arrangement are important. But that is because they are the means by which constructions are shown, not because constructions ARE arrangements.

A difference of construction can now be seen as a difference of meaning, either of the whole or in at least one relationship between elements. But not every difference of meaning is relevant. *He sounded a fool* means that, from what one heard, it seems that he is foolish; *He sounded a trumpet* means that he held the instrument and blew it. For grammarians, that is a difference of construction as well as simply a difference of words, *a fool* having the function of predicative (like *nice* in *It smells nice*) and *a trumpet* that of an object.



We will start our analysis of the main syntactic theories and notions from the smallest unit – a word combination. It should be noted in passing that the term “word combination” is used by some grammarians as synonym to the terms “phrase” and “group of words” (or “word group”). Here, we will stick to the terms “word combination” and – sometimes to avoid tautology – “group of words”. Having discussed the problems of the theory of the word combination, we will move on to considering larger units such as simple and composite sentences.

## 2. Syntactic theory in Soviet linguistics

The theory of the word combination is traced back to works by Russian scientists as early as the 18th century. The first remarks on the word combination referred to cases of rather practical language use. It was at the close of the 19th – the beginning of the 20th centuries that a truly scientific theory of the word combination started to form. Its development is related with such outstanding Russian linguists as Fortunatov, Shakhmatov and Peshkovskiy. The theory has undergone several transformations throughout its history. Up to the 50s of the 20th century, the term “word combination” was understood rather broadly. As a result, any syntactically organized group of words, regardless its structure and relations between its components, was treated as word combination. This point of view is still maintained by many scientists.

In the 50s, however, there appeared a different understanding of the issue, and the term “word combination” acquired an extremely narrow meaning and started to be applied only to combinations that consisted of at least two lexical words one of which was subordinated to the other. Coordinate word combinations were either excluded from the theory or included with much reservation. Predicate and prepositional groups were ignored altogether. This approach was formulated by academician Vinogradov and found support from many Soviet linguists.

This syntactic theory which cultivates the narrow interpretation of the word combination attempts to bring together, probably even to equate, the notions “word” and “word combination”.

This approach was subject to criticism from many distinguished Soviet scholars (e.g. academician Zhirmunskiy, professor Ilyish, etc.) who pointed out its drawbacks: the term “word combination” was not treated within this

theory as synonym to “a combination of words”. The scholars called the tendency to narrow the meaning of the term “unjustified terminological pedantry”. However, this approach became dominant in the middle of the 20th century. As a result, the traditional interpretation of the word combination was reduced exclusively to subordinate constructions.

## 3. Syntactic theories in Western linguistics

### 3.1. Descriptive linguistics

Absence of set terminology is typical of Western syntactic research. The most frequent term for “word combination” (Укр. *словосполучення*) used by Western scholars is “phrase”. Still, some scientists choose some other term. Thus, “phrase” was quite popular in the 17th, 18th, and 19th centuries but at the beginning of the 20th century Henry Sweet condemned the use of the term, since it had acquired too many meanings and did not meet the requirements to scientific terminology. As a result, “phrase” was replaced with a number of new terms, namely “word group”, “word cluster”, “cluster of words”, etc.

In Western linguistics, the theory of the word combination appeared much later. It was only in the 30s of the 20th century when American linguist **Leo Bloomfield**, one of the most outstanding descriptivists, formulated the solid theoretical foundation of syntactic theory. It was Leo Bloomfield who returned to the term “phrase” in his new theory. (It is worth mentioning in passing that the “phrase” tends to be more typical of American linguists, while English scholars seem to be more inclined to speak of “word group”).

Speaking of descriptive linguistics, we cannot but mention that its central idea, its methodological foundation was to turn linguistics, speculative by nature, into an exact science. In order to achieve the goal, scientists tried to free linguistics from influence of philosophy, logic, and psychology. The general aim to transform linguistics into an exact science required to review the terminological system (and, consequently, notions) peculiar to traditional linguistics. As a result, descriptive linguists started to make use of mathematical symbols, since mathematics was viewed as the strictest and most exact way to deliver scientific observations. The aspiration to modify linguistic analysis also made some scholars reduce linguistic research to pure description, i.e. to simple enumeration of language facts and speech rules.

Another issue, important for descriptive linguistics, is meaning, namely the place that meaning occupies in linguistic analysis in general and syntactic analysis in particular. The term "meaning" has not yet been defined. The discussion still goes on over the question whether meaning is a part of language units or it should be regarded only as their function, as a cultural, behavioural, extralingual fact. While denying language units any meaning, Bloomfield, however, considers meaning to be important. Not once he notes that, in the language, the form may not be separated from the meaning; that while studying a language, relevant characteristics of a sound may be distinguished if and only if a researcher knows its meaning. It is not surprising, then, that descriptive linguists tend to develop a more tolerant attitude to methods and notions of traditional linguistics as well as to admit deviations from the strict requirements, accepted in descriptive linguistics.

Language forms, according to Bloomfield, may be divided into free and bound. Free forms may be "uttered in isolation", i.e. they have their own lexical meaning. Bound forms acquire meaning only in combination with other forms. Roughly speaking, free forms are lexical parts of speech, whereas bound forms are grammatical and derivational morphemes.

Bloomfield claims that some languages lack the distinction between free and bound forms but if the distinction exists, constructions made up of free forms differ greatly from constructions with bound forms. As a result, grammars of such languages consist of two parts: syntax and morphology. It should be noted that though the linguist recognizes the distinction between syntax and morphology, he treats both syntactic and morphological phenomena in the same terms.

In Leo Bloomfield's theory, the definition of "word combination" is rather broad. The scholar does not think it necessary to narrow the sphere of the word combination down to certain groups. In other words, Bloomfield treats any organized syntactic group as a word combination. According to Bloomfield, different language units in a certain syntactic position make up a formal class. The largest main formal word classes are parts of speech. Syntactic "formal classes" are phrases. Bloomfield distinguishes between **endocentric** and **exocentric phrases**. A phrase is called exocentric if it does not belong to the class similar to its principal elements (e.g. the *boy is writing* is an exocentric phrase, since it cannot be treated either as nominal or as verbal). If, on the contrary, a phrase may be referred to the class similar to

its principal element, it is called endocentric (e.g. *poor John*, *fresh milk* are constructions that may be regarded as "nominal phrases").

The differentiation between endocentric and exocentric constructions is based on the properties of a phrase that come to the fore in a larger syntactic structure. In other words, this approach ignores the inner structure of a word combination. Thus, for instance, despite differences in their inner structure, such word combinations as *poor John* and *Tom and Mary* are referred to the same type, since they exhibit the same properties in an extended sentence. To solve this problem, Bloomfield suggests a further elaboration, based on the inner structure of the word combination. Thus, endocentric phrases are further divided into serial (or co-ordinate) and attributive (or subordinate). In the latter case, the phrase belongs to the class of its principal element, called head, the other element is called attribute. The attribute, in its turn, may be a subordinate phrase, e.g. *very fresh milk*. Thus, there may appear several ranks of subordination. Exocentric phrases are divided into predicative (i.e. *John ran away*) and prepositional (*beside John*). As a result, we may observe that both exocentric and endocentric phrases may be described in terms of formal word classes (parts of speech). Consequently, the notion of formal word classes is of primary importance for syntax.

One may notice some inconsistency in the subcategorization of exocentric phrases, since predicative constructions are discerned on the ground of the syntactic relation, while the morphological criterion is chosen to distinguish prepositional constructions. This division, however, is rather convenient, as it distinctly defines characteristic features of phrases.

Bloomfield develops his syntactic theory further and claims that, as the choice (selection) of formal word classes plays the main part in syntactic constructions of many languages, the primary task of syntactic studies, then, is to clarify the ways in which different formal classes are used in syntax. Therefore, distinguishing between syntax and morphology, Bloomfield focuses his research on defining formal word classes and their positions in phrases. As to the notion "sentence", Bloomfield considers the sentence to be a specific phenomenon, different from the notion "phrase" in that the sentence is an independent language form, that is, a form in the absolute position, since the sentence is not a part of a larger form.

In Bloomfield's system, the sentence is not, in fact, specified in comparison with the phrase, and the analysis of the sentence structure is not the

subject of Bloomfield's syntactic theory. Bloomfield supposes that every language tends to have its "favorite", more frequent forms of the sentence. In English, for example, he points out two forms: 1) the construction "doer + action" (e.g. *Mary sings. Who sings? Does Mary sing?*) and 2) "the Infinitive expressing an order" (e.g. *Go on! Don't say that!*)

As Bloomfield believes that the internal sentence structure and the phrase structure may be described using the same terms, such notions as predication, subject, predicate, secondary sentence parts turn out to be superfluous for his theory. According to Bloomfield, these terms do not denote any specific syntactic notions. Predication is a term used to refer to a two-member construction typical of many languages: the component denoting substance is called "subject", whereas the other component is termed "predicate". Bloomfield claims that these terms are relevant only when applied to languages that have several types of two-member sentences. In languages that are characterized by only one type of two-member sentence (as it is the case in English) these terms make no sense.

One of the most important terms in Bloomfield's syntactic theory is **immediate constituents**, i.e. the elements that make up a particular phrase. For example, the complex form *Mary's mother brought in the tea* consists of two parts – *Mary's mother* and *brought in the tea*.

A further development of the immediate constituents theory is found in the book *Immediate Constituents* by Wells published in 1947. According to Wells' syntactic **theory of immediate constituents**, successive morphemes in a sentence are divided into certain types and classes. The classes are defined in the following way: if there is sequence S, then the class where sequence S belongs is defined as class that includes all sequences whose successive morphemes belong to the same classes as the morphemes of sequence S. All the elements of the class, therefore, contain an equal number of morphemes. An important peculiarity of Wells' classes is that a sequence belonging to a certain class may be replaced by a sequence of a different class. In other words, two sequences of morphemes may be found in similar distribution, though their internal form may differ. The relationship between these two sequences is interpreted as follows: if one of the sequences is not shorter than the other (i.e. contains the same number of morphemes) and differs structurally, i.e. does not belong to the same class, the second sequence is called "**extension of the first sequence**", while the first is called "**model**".

Thus, if we compare *John worked* and *The king of England opened the parliamentary session*, then *The king of England* may be the extension of *John*, while *opened the parliamentary session* is the extension of *worked*.

The notion of extension is extremely important for Wells, since, in terms of his theory, to define immediate constituents means actually pointing out extensions that make up a certain sequence of morphemes. It is the principle of extension that allows to break the sentence *The king of England opened the parliamentary session* into *The king of England + opened the parliamentary session*. It is impossible to divide the sentence into *The king + of England opened the parliamentary session*, since *of England opened the parliamentary session* cannot be regarded as extension of anything shorter.

Principles and methods of descriptive linguistics are systemically highlighted by Harris in *Methods in Structural Linguistics* published in Chicago in 1951. Harris sees the aim of descriptive analysis in studying the structure of the sentence in terms of morphemic classes and their positions. According to Harris, the sentence is a segment of speech produced by one speaker and separated from all the preceding and following speech with a pause. The scholar insists on eliminating the distinction between morphology and syntax. It should be added that, though Harris differentiates between morphological and syntactic criteria, these terms acquire in his book a specific meaning, since Harris on principle ignores the difference between a word, its part, a word combination and a sentence. To overlook this difference is characteristic, to a greater or lesser extent, of all descriptive linguists.

Thus, the morphological structure of a sentence, according to Harris, is a sequence of the most general morphemic classes and constructions (the term "construction" stands here either for a word or for a phrase). It is typical of Harris to formalize syntactic studies making use of mathematic symbols. For example, classes of mutually interchangeable forms are described by other linguists as forms or morphemic sequences occurring in similar environment. Harris, in his turn, expresses this in the following way: if A and B occur in environment C – D, they are members of the same class. Harris also distinguishes between morphemic classes: class N occurring before –s (plural inflection) and after *the* and adjectives; class V before –ed, –ing and after *should, will*, etc.; class A occurring between *the* and N; class D used between *the* and A but never occurring between *the* and N (e.g. *rather and very*).

Harris believes that having defined elements and their classes, one may describe any speech segment as combination of these elements, applying the same method on all the levels – phonological, morphological and syntactic.

Differences between morphological and syntactic criteria, used to distinguish between various morphemes, are analyzed by Harris as follows. Morphological criteria are necessary to consider the immediate environment of morphemes, e.g. *-ly* in *largely*. But these criteria are not enough. It appears necessary to take into account the “broad environment” of a morpheme, i.e. the whole sentence, which means application of the syntactic criterion. It is on the ground of these criteria that larger morphemic classes are distinguished. For example, for English *largely* and *manly* the immediate environment is *-ly*. However, *largely* is classified as a qualitative adverb, whereas *manly* is an adjective. To reveal this distinction between these seemingly identical cases, it is necessary to consider their positions and relations with the environment.

For the English language, the final aim of the analysis is to bring to light such syntactic patterns as Noun + Noun, Noun + Verb + Preposition, Noun + Verb + Preposition + Noun, etc. Consequently, descriptive linguistics deems such notions as “sentence parts”, “subject”, “predicate” as meaningless and refuses to operate with them, which leaves the notion “sentence” useless as well. Harris does not explicate the methodology of distributive analysis, but it may obviously be reduced to the following stages: 1) segmenting of a sentence into components, and 2) comparing the components and referring similar components to groups.

It should be noted that the approach suggested within descriptive linguistics for syntactic studies is of use for machine translation, since it may lay the foundation for formalized symbolic syntactic description. Issues of text processing and further transferring texts to machines have become the subject of a branch of linguistics called machine translation. Thorough research into the subject has given interesting results, both positive and critical, which has corroborated certain claims of descriptive linguistics but also has revealed its inadequate or fallacious postulates. The unsolved issues are expected to be solved by generative grammar.

Charles Fries, in his turn, tries to prove that rigorous application of formal methods is impossible, if the aim is to describe the syntactic structure of a language used in various communicative situations. In his work *The Struc-*

*ture of English* published in New York in 1952, Fries defines the sentence as “singular free utterance”. The sentence is free as it is incorporated into a larger syntactic structure with the help of grammatical means.

Fries applies the fundamental notions of behaviourism and classifies sentence on the ground of the notions “stimulus” and “reaction”. Depending on the type of reaction, sentences are divided into:

### I. Communicative utterances:

1. utterances stimulating only verbal reactions:
  - a) greetings,
  - b) forms of address,
  - c) questions;
2. utterances, stimulating actions, i.e. requests and orders;
3. statements, i.e. utterances that attract the communicative partners' attention without interrupting their speech.

II. Non-communicative utterances, i.e. expression of grief, joy, disappointment, etc.

Fries does not support the traditional analysis in terms of sentence parts because the aim of this type of analysis is to study meaning, whereas, from the scholar's point of view, grammar should consider structures that signal meanings such as the meaning of number, time, doer, object, etc. Therefore, Fries believes that linguistic analysis should begin with the descriptions of rules and move on to meanings only as the final result. The main task is, then, to describe those structural rules, structural forms and their arrangement which signal structural meanings.

As we have seen in Chapter I, the English sentence, according to Fries, consists of formal classes (see p. p. 19–21). The main structure of the English sentence is made up of Classes 1 and 2. Words which belong to the first four classes are of ambiguous formal nature, since they are characterized both by properties, peculiar to their class, and by the position they occupy in a sentence. Fries notes that sometimes the former and the latter properties may contradict each other: e.g. *the poorest need state support*, where the word *poorest* has a formal property of Class 3 (*-est*) and simultaneously is preceded by *the*, which is typical of Class 1. Thus, functionally, *poorest* should be referred to Class 1. Therefore, we may draw the general rule of syntax: properties, peculiar to a position (i.e. function) in the sentence, dominate over morphological characteristics, since a part of speech, according to

Fries, is a function performed by a word in a sentence, i.e. a part of speech is identified on the basis of syntactic rather than morphological criteria.

In fact, Fries returns to the previously refuted notion, namely "sentence part", interpreted as a syntactic class. The scholar also concludes that the notion "sentence part" should be distinguished from the notion "part of speech". However, Fries, as well as other descriptive linguists, is preoccupied with speech and does not intend to study the correlation between parts of speech as language units and sentence parts as speech units.

According to Fries, the subject, the direct object and the indirect object are grammatical terms of certain formal structures within the sentence. Fries notes that one and the same situation may be described with the help of different structures. This leads Fries to state that the subject is a Class 1 word, related with a Class 2 word, where they together make up the main structure of a sentence. The object is interpreted as a technical term to denote structures that include Class 1 word and may have various meanings.

As a result, Fries' syntactic analysis operates with the traditional categories, but they are provided with new definitions, based on formal criteria. In his work, Fries demonstrates the positive aspects of descriptive syntactic theory, in that he does not refute the accumulated linguistic experience, he develops rational ideas of the descriptive school whose principal requirement is to ground conclusions on observations of actual speech, to draw syntactic notions out of speech structure and avoid imposing speculative conclusions. Meanwhile, Fries, as well as other descriptive linguists, prefers describing immediate application of syntactic rules without their generalization. As a result, he fails to produce a systemic description of language as a means of communication, he also does not succeed in analyzing the function performed by language units within this system as well as in acquiring insight into language development.

### 3.2. Glossematics

**Glossematics** is a rigorous study of language at the level of its most basic unit or component which carries meaning, the glosseme. The term was coined by the Danish linguists, **Louis Hjelmslev** and **Hans Jørgen Uldall**, as a neologism combining glossary with mathematics to indicate a formalized system of study. The scientists' ideas formed the basis of the Copenhagen School of linguistics founded by Hjelmslev on September, 24, 1931.

Initially, their interest lay mainly in developing an alternative concept of the phoneme, but it later developed into a complete theory which was called *glossematics*, and was notably influenced by structuralism. Membership of the group grew rapidly and a significant list of publications resulted, including an irregular series of larger works.

The ultimate goal of the linguist who studies glossemes is the same as that of a physicist who studies atoms, to wit a more perfect understanding of the whole through a thorough study of the structure of its constituent parts. To the greatest extent possible, glossematics seeks to take a *tabula rasa* approach, constructing an internally consistent framework of axioms and principles with minimal reliance on external terms. This system, constructed without recourse to any particular language, seeks to establish a universal standard by defining the necessary and sufficient conditions of language.

Like Ferdinand de Saussure (1857-1913), Hjelmslev treats language as a system of signs and approaches the language system from the point of view of its use. Furthering Saussure's remarks on fallacious differentiation between syntax, morphology, and lexicology, Hjelmslev arrives at the conclusion that grammar should be regarded as indivisible discipline - the theory of forms opposed to the theory of sounds. Any syntactic phenomenon is morphological in a sense it concerns only a grammatical form, whereas any morphological phenomenon may be interpreted as syntactic, since it is always based on syntactic relations between grammatical elements. In other words, the difference between morphology and syntax lies only in the difference between paradigmatic functions (in a system) and syntagmatic functions (in a text).

The scholar divides the subject of research (so-called class) into parts, called "periods of a class". The procedure results in distinguishing between classes and their derivatives. In other words, the analysis produces a certain hierarchy that may be either correlating (i.e. paradigmatic, a system) or relational (syntagmatic, a process, a text). Texts are divided consistently into periods, periods undergo further divisions into sentences, sentences - into words, words - into syllables. Hjelmslev notes that periods are derived from texts, sentences are derivatives from texts and periods, words are derivatives from texts, periods and sentences, and syllables are derivatives from texts, periods, sentences and words. Simultaneously, syllables are parts of words but not sentences. Words are parts of sentences but not periods or texts, and, finally, periods are parts of texts.

Hjelmslev's most famous book, *Omkring sprogteoriens grundlæggelse*, or in English translation, *Prolegomena to a Theory of Language*, first published in 1943, criticizes the then-prevailing methodologies in linguistics as being descriptive and not systematizing. The Danish scholar views language as an immanent ideal substance. In relation to the ideal substance, speech and its sounds may be regarded as its shadow. Not only content and objects, described in actual speech, are secondary; the very form of expression retreats to the secondary position. Being ideal and immanent, language organizes the objective world; language may be materialized in sounds as well as in letters or in any other way. Thus, the substance of expression can be sounds, as is the case for most known languages, but it can have any material support whatsoever, for instance, hand movements, as is the case for sign languages. As a result, this interpretation of language puts linguistics in the position when linguistic observations are subordinated to some abstract linguistic categories, known to researchers beforehand and predetermining their studies. The aspiration to investigate the nature of language makes Hjelmslev in his later works focus his attention on simple systems – street-light signals, various codes, etc. These simple systems help analyze language as such, specify principles of general semiotics, and only then transfer the acquired knowledge onto human language.

The main and general principle of sign systems, according to Hjelmslev, may be explained in the following way: any system does not consist of parts, it consists of relations between these parts, therefore scientists should not be concerned with parts, they should focus their attention on relations between the parts in the system.

Hjelmslev distinguishes three types of relations in human language:

- 1) interdependence;
- 2) determination, i.e. one-side dependence;
- 3) constellation, i.e. weak dependence or even no dependence.

Thus, traditional linguistics that divides grammar into morphology and syntax and treats relations between words in word combinations and relations between parts of speech as different is of no value. Universal relations, discovered by glossematics, reveal analogous relations within a word as well as within a word combination. Thus we may find the relation of determination (i.e. one-side dependence when one member determines the

other and not vice versa) both between elements of a word combination and between a stem and affixes in a derivative.

In conclusion, it is important to note that though glossematics has been subject to strong criticism, it is currently applied to studies of language-mediators, necessary in the field of machine linguistics. Within glossematics, the problem of an abstract theory of language comes to the fore, since it may contribute to machine translation which is based on the presumption that certain units, deprived of any substance of expression, merely correspond to alphabetical symbols.

Hjelmslev's works lack argumentation of postulated statements, therefore, in order to have clearer understanding of the glossematic syntactic approach, it is better to turn to his followers' works. One of them, Aage Hansen, in *On the So-called Indirect Object in Danish* (1949), applies the glossematic notion "selection" to what is called indirect object in traditional syntax. In the English sentence *I gave him the book*, *him* and *the book* are traditionally treated as objects of the verb *gave*. The interpretation results from the tradition to focus attention on the "principal word" in the sentence and consider other words as syntactically governed, auxiliary or secondary. Contrary to the traditional approach, Hansen operates with the terms "selecting" and "selected" elements. Thus, in the sentence *He wrote a letter*, *letter* selects the word *wrote* and not vice versa. In *He loved her*, *her* selects *loved*, since in English *He loved* may be used without *her*, whereas *her* may not function on its own.

As to the indirect object, Hansen points out that in Danish indirect objects immediately follow the verb, i.e. they are expressed by means of word order. If two objects – direct and indirect – change their places, the sentence will become meaningless. Hansen also notes that the indirect object may be dropped, while the direct is obligatory (e.g. the sentences *He gave the girl a kiss* and *He gave a kiss* are possible, but one cannot say *He gave the girl* without affecting the meaning). Taking into consideration these observations and using the notion of selection, the scholar suggests analyzing sentences in a different way. He believes that it is the object that "selects" the verb and not vice versa. Thus, the words *give* and *kiss* form a new verbal unit which in its turn is selected by such forms as *her* and *the girl*. As a result, the relation between *give* and *kiss* turn out functionally identical with the relation between *give a kiss* and *her*, which enables the linguist to

define the so-called indirect object (in languages like Danish and English) as "object of a verbal phrase containing a (direct) object". What seems typical of English and Danish is that the indirect object is capable of moving within the phrase it selects.

To sum up, we may note that linguistic methods of glossematics and descriptive linguistics are often referred to with the general term "structural linguistics". For these two approaches, language, indeed, is a self-sufficient, self-contained structure. These two schools see no connection between language and thinking; they both do not consider a word to be the main linguistic unit and try to give up traditional linguistic notions. In syntax and semantics, however, descriptive linguists and adepts of glossematics show major differences. While descriptive school treats speech as initial and, in fact, exhaustive subject for syntactic studies, glossematics, on the contrary, emphasizes the abstract, the general and the achronistic in linguistic research arguing that language is an ideal, abstract system that exists before and besides speech. Consequently, the view on the correlation between language and speech significantly influences syntactic studies. In fact, it is this correlation that makes syntax fundamentally different from phonetics and morphology, since the main subject of syntactic research – the sentence – is a speech unit. As a result, neglect of speech in syntactic analysis cannot but bring about detrimental effect. It is ignoring speech that seems to be the reason for little success of glossematics in the field of syntax.

### 3.3. Post-Saussurean syntactic theories

Saussure's *Course of general linguistics* published in 1916 has become the basis for a number of other syntactic theories, besides descriptive linguistics and glossematics. These theories cannot be grouped into a particular school, since they represent independent syntactic systems. However, they share similar views on the subject and tasks of syntactic research, based on Saussure's ideas. In other words, the correlation between language and speech comes in these theories to the fore. The solution of the correlation problem helps to solve such fundamental syntactic issues, as the subject-matter of syntax, relations between syntax and morphology, interpretation of the terms "sentence", "sentence parts", etc. All these problems are discussed both from the point of view of language and of speech. As a rule, language is understood as a psychic phenomenon, while its material, acous-

tic aspect is treated as referring to speech. As a result, according to this approach, language does not exist in speech, it only realizes in speech. Here, however, it is not quite clear whether the conclusions referring to speech may be projected onto the language system as well.

One of the outstanding post-Saussurean works is *The Theory of Speech and Language* by Sir Alan Gardiner published in 1932. Resolving the problem of the word and the sentence, Gardiner, in fact, resolves the problem of the form and the function. The distinction between language and speech, in the scholar's point of view, is the distinction between the form and the function. The form belongs to language, while the function refers to speech.

Characteristics of a word as language unit are defined by its form, whereas the sentence – speech unit – is created by a function. The form of a word is not changeable, it is a permanent property, it does not depend on speech. Therefore, since distinctions between parts of speech lie in their form, the parts of speech belong to language and not to speech. Here we have to deal with the inadequate term "part of speech" that may be justly changed into "parts of language". According to Gardiner, true parts of speech are, in fact, the subject and the predicate. The form has two aspects: internal (semantic) and external. In speech, the form performs a certain function, i.e. it contributes to a certain aim pursued by the speaker in a speech act. As a result, the form is a language fact; the language fact in a certain speech act is a function.

The function of a form may be congruent, i.e. conditioned by a certain construction, or incongruent, i.e. unconditioned. The incongruent function is realized when language and speech interact, i.e. when language dictates the use of the form but speech ignores it. Incongruent functioning may be acknowledged as a language fact creating a new form.

The subject of grammar, according to Gardiner, is a linguistic form in its congruent function, while incongruent function enters grammar only after it has been acknowledged and has entered language. Therefore, the scholar concludes that grammar deals with language and does not deal with speech.

Gardiner also distinguishes between the form of a word, the form of a word combination (i.e. syntactic form) and the intonation form. All the three are constantly reproduced and passed over generations, which leads Gardiner to believe that these forms belong to language. The three forms are parts of the sentence. In other words, the sentence form is built up by means of these three. Therefore, the sentence form is a language phenomenon. How-

ever, the sentence is created by a function rather than by a form, since words become a sentence only in a certain speech act, only when it is uttered with a purpose. The emphasis that Gardiner makes on communicative nature of the sentence is extremely important for further development of grammar. Firstly, it allows to define the sentence as such and, secondly, the emphasis on communicative aspects of speech, on speakers' intentions as one of the components of communication has become the foundation of pragmatics.

Gardiner elaborates the sentence form. He discerns **locutional form** and **elocutional form**. The locutional form results from the words used in the sentence, whereas the elocutional form depends on intonation.

According to Gardiner, any word or word combination may form the sentence, if it is purposeful and has an elocutional form. In other words, Gardiner's claim that the elocutional form is obligatory for any sentence but the locutional form is optional allows to treat as sentence such formations as *Yes! Alas! Not yet! Hurry up!*

The locutional form and the elocutional form of a sentence may be at variance with each other. If it is the case, the prevailing form is elocutional, since it is elocutional form (or intonation) that points out whether the sentence should be referred to declarative, interrogative, exclamatory or imperative classes (e.g. the interrogative *Could you pass the salt please?* under certain conditions may be treated as imperative one expressing a polite request).

Gardiner also argues that the sentence may lack the subject and the predicate. To the linguist's mind, the subject is a word that points out the thing spoken about, while the predicate delivers information about the thing. Both the subject and the predicate belong to speech rather than to language. These are temporary characteristics of words acquired in speech compared to permanent characteristics (i.e. their part-of-speech status). The subject and the predicate have the locutional form and the elocutional form. The latter is of primary importance. The locutional form of subjects and predicates may be incongruent, which is never the case with the elocutional form. For example, in the sentence *Henry has arrived*, according to the locutional form, *Henry* is the subject, but if *Henry* is marked by stress, then it is *Henry* that contains information about the arrival. Thus, it is necessary to distinguish between formal and true subjects and predicates. In this particular case, the formal subject performs the function of the true predicate. As a result, Gardiner suggests the division into grammatical and logical subjects and predicates.

These notions are natural in Gardiner's research, as he studies speech and cannot but deal with its psychological and logical factors. The logical subject is defined as a word or a phrase functioning in speech as a subject. The grammatical subject is, then, a word or a phrase with the locutional form of the subject. Thus, the oppositions "language - speech", "forms - functions" are complemented by another opposition - "grammar - logic".

Though Gardiner's theory is a rather all-embracing and convincing description of the problem, it has some weak points. Firstly, the scholar states that any linguistic form belongs to language, but, at the same time, he, in fact, identifies the locutional form with the function. As a result, the locutional form should belong to speech. Secondly, defining sentence parts, Gardiner is guided by the purely logical principle and, consequently, reduces sentence parts to the subject, the predicate and the parenthesis, which does not seem to be linguistically justified. Also, though he emphasizes that words objectively exist in language in general, Gardiner does not clarify the nature of the word as such. The scholar erroneously equates phraseological units to words, which proves that Gardiner underestimates the importance of formal characteristics of the word.

Analyzing syntactic theories, worked out on the basis of Saussurean work, one cannot but mention works by the leaders of the **Prague Linguistic Circle** founded in 1926. The Circle became known around the world as the Prague School. It has had significant continuing influence on linguistics and semiotics. After the World War II, the Circle was disbanded but the Prague School persisted as a major force in linguistic functionalism. It included Russian émigrés such as **Roman Jakobson**, **Nikolay Trubetzkoy**, and **Sergey Karcevskiy**, as well as the famous Czech literary scholars **Rene Wellek** and **Jan Murakovsky**. Among its founders was the eminent Czech linguist **Vilem Mathesius** who was the president of the Prague Linguistic School until his death in 1945.

The leaders of the Prague School believed that syntax as study of changeable, individual elements (speech) may not be opposed to morphology that is interpreted as focused on constant, collective, or social elements (language), since these branches of grammar (syntax and morphology) act to regulate the norm and to realize normative elements. Segmenting the sentence into parts does not result in extracting morphological units (i.e. words and morphemes) and vice versa - building up morphological elements does not necessarily



create a syntactic element – a sentence, since the sentence is much more than a sequence of isolated words, just like a building is much more than a sum of bricks it is built with. Consequently, one of the main tasks set in syntactic analysis is, on the one hand, to identify syntagmatic relations and morphological means expressing them and, on the other hand, to identify combinations of these relations (complex sentences and relations within them).

Thus, the representatives of the Prague School treat syntax and morphology as two different branches of science. It should be noted that these scholars do not support the notion of immediate constituents proposed by structuralists, since it results in a simplified interpretation of language units regardless of their morphological or syntactic nature.

The claim that morphology and syntax interact with lexicology is important for linguistic research, first of all, because these three branches of language interact in communication. The structural relation between vocabulary and morphology may not be doubted, since any morpheme (stem, suffix, prefix) must have its meaning, without which it would be merely a group of phonemes. The bond between vocabulary and syntax is obvious: it is the sentence where various meanings of a word are revealed. From the point of view of the Prague School, lexicology deals with more or less exhaustive factual material gained from phonological, morphological, syntactic and stylistic branches of linguistics.

The overview of syntactic research would not be complete without mentioning the name of **Vilem Mathesius**. His notion of functional perspective of the sentence is drastically different from the traditional formal differentiation into sentence parts (see p. p. 294–300). The functional perspective provides the scholar with the possibility to get into semantic structure of the sentence. The functional perspective is responsible for the main function of language – communicative. In the functional perspective, Mathesius distinguishes the **theme** (also referred to as topic), i.e. the part of the sentence that is being talked about (predicated). Once stated, the theme is therefore “old news”, i.e. the thing already mentioned and understood (e.g. in the following sentences the topic is underlined: *The dog bit the little girl*, *The little girl was bitten by the dog*, *It was the little girl that the dog bit*, *The little girl, the dog bit her*). The other part of the sentence gives information on the theme and is called **rheme** (or topic-comment). The rheme delivers new information, it forms communicative centre of the sentence.

Contrary to the formal (grammatical) division of the sentence into sentence parts (subject, predicate, attribute, object, adverbial modifier), functional sentence perspective is based on semantic structure of the sentence, it provides researchers with the tools to consider sentences from the point of view of their message in a given situation, i.e. functional correlation of their components. Functional perspective is the foundation that is used to distinguish already known elements of the sentence (theme), on the one hand, and, on the other hand, elements that deliver new information and mark the core of sentence content (rheme), i.e. they indicate the information for the sake of which the sentence is produced. The theme and the rheme are accompanied by various transitional elements that connect the theme to the dynamic core of the sentence, its rheme.

The idea of the “given” and the “new” as basis of sentence structure that determines its communicative functioning is also articulated in **Karl Boost**’s syntactic theory. The scholar believes that the hearer’s first reaction to the first word in a sentence is tension (*Spannung*) which then is transformed into communicative resolution, i.e. elimination of the tension with the help of its adequate termination.

It is Boost who first uses the term “rheme” in reference to the part of the sentence that informs the hearer of something new about the theme. In fact, the term “rheme” was used by ancient Greeks to denote what we now call “predicate”. Introduction of the term is conditioned by the necessity to refer to the sentence part, larger than the predicate, i.e. the part that contains everything predicated to the theme.

It is obvious that Mathesius and Boost agree on the following ideas: the theme is a part of the sentence delivering least information and expressing the already known starting point in order to introduce something new. The scholars’ positions, nevertheless, are essentially different in that Boost identifies functional perspective with linear sequence. We have stated in the paragraphs devoted to Gardiner’s theory that this identification is not justifiable (see the analysis of the sentence *Henry has arrived* from the point of view of divergence between the locutional and elocutional forms).

The dependence between the order of the elements in the sentence and their informative value may be interpreted only in terms of the information theory. The oppositions “given – new”, “theme – rheme” are just several of those oppositions that make up the sentence (consider, for example, the op-

position "speaker – hearer", the opposition of immediate constituents within a word combination, the opposition "locutional form – elocutional form" etc.). Alongside of other oppositions, it may be used in order to study only one aspect of the essential and most complex speech unit – the sentence. Just like the other oppositions, the opposition "theme – rheme" should not be considered absolute.

To sum up, the Prague School interprets speech (*parole*) as "utterance". The utterance is defined as an informative unit, i.e. the smallest message that under certain condition is perceived by the hearer as comprehensible unity. It enables linguists, adapting this viewpoint, to approach the sentence from the two positions: on the one hand, the sentence is treated as semiological unit formed by various language means and, on the other hand, as a complex system of language means. The two approaches are closely connected and complement each other: the former is individualizing, while the latter is abstract and generalizing.

## Chapter II

### Theory of word combination

#### 1. Definition of the word combination

In this book, we shall operate with the term "word combination", though it should be pointed out that the syntactic terminology varies from author to author. Thus, Professor Illiysh operates with the term "phrase". The definition given by the scholar to the phrase ("every combination of two or more words which is a grammatical unit but is not an analytical form of some word") leaves no doubt as to its equivalence to the term "word combination".

The word combination, along with the sentence, is the main syntactic unit. The smallest word combination consists of two members, whereas the largest word combination may theoretically be indefinitely large though this issue has not yet been studied properly.

Despite its cornerstone status for the syntactic theory, the generally recognized definition of the word combination has not been agreed upon: it receives contradictory interpretations both from Ukrainian and Western

linguists. The traditional point of view, dating back to Prof. Vinogradov's works (i.e. to the middle of the 20th century), interprets the word combination exclusively as subordinate unit. Meanwhile, many linguists tend to treat any syntactically organized group of words as word combination regardless the type of relationship between its elements.

As a rule, the word combination is defined negatively, i.e. such "negative" definitions point out what is not a word combination. Obviously, this is hardly an apt approach, but with no other definition at hand, it may be considered acceptable.

Under any definition of the word combination, this unit is, syntactically, a grammatical structure. Therefore, to study its morphological composition in order to clarify combinatorial properties of parts of speech and to consider possibilities of substitution within a word combination is one of the tasks of the syntactic theory.

One of the most spread negative definitions states that the word combination is not communicatively oriented. The observation is absolutely adequate, since absence of communicative orientation is one of the most indisputable properties of the word combination. Thus, the difference between a word combination and a sentence is a fundamental one. A word combination, just like a word, is a means of naming some phenomena or processes. Each component of a word combination can undergo grammatical changes in accordance with grammatical categories represented in it, without destroying the identity of the word combination. For instance, in the word combination *sell Newspapers*, the first component can change according to the verbal categories of tense, mood, etc., and the second component may be modified according to the category of number. Thus, *sells a newspaper, has sold a newspaper, would have sold newspapers* are grammatical modifications of one word combination. In this respect, when the sentence is concerned, things are entirely different. The sentence is a unit with every word having its definite form. A change in the form of one or more words would produce a new sentence.

It must be borne in mind that a word combination as such (just like a word) has no intonation. Intonation is one of the most important features of any sentence, which distinguish it from any word combination.

Thus, despite disagreements concerning the nature of the word combination, the most convincing point of view seems to be the one that defines

the word combination as a syntactically organized group containing a combination of either lexical words such as *to meet the requirements*, *happy end*, *very young* or function words and lexical words such as *in the sun*, *in the middle*, *by the window*. The words within a word combination must be bound by one of the types of syntactic relation.

The word combination theory studies the structure of word combinations, positions of their elements, forms combined within a word combination, and syntactic relations established between elements. The word combination is defined here as a linear language unit that, introduced in speech, may function either as part of a sentence or as whole sentence, pronounced with a certain intonation and stress but also with a certain communicative purpose. Thus, for example, the word combinations *I am*, *he is* or *we stare*, *he stares*, though based on predicative relations, i.e. on the type of syntactic relation peculiar to two-member sentences, are not sentences proper, as they are deprived of a phrasal stress, intonation and communicative purpose. In other words, they lack every feature that transforms a syntactic structure into a sentence. These constructions may not even be considered sentence schemes, as they have no suprasegmental elements obligatory for a sentence. The groups of words given above are word combinations, since they only show the arrangement of certain forms and establish a type of relation on which the structure is based. It is irrelevant that these elements may occur in a sentence as two main members. The level of word combinations presupposes only linear distribution of language elements and forms where they have to combine in order to create a syntactic structure.

Last but not least, it is necessary to dwell on one of the most difficult questions involved in the study of word combinations: the grammatical aspect of that study as distinct from the lexicological one.

The difference should be basically this: grammar has to study the aspects of word combinations which spring from the grammatical peculiarities of the words making up the word combination, and of the syntactic functions of the word combination as a whole, while lexicology has to deal with the lexical meaning of the words and their semantic groupings.

Thus, for example, from the grammatical point of view, the two phrases *visit friends* and *order steaks* are identical, since they are built according to the same pattern "verb + noun denoting the object of the action". From the lexicological point of view, however, these word combinations are es-

entially different, as the verbs belong to a totally different semantic sphere, and so do the nouns; one of them denotes a human being, while the other denotes a thing. Thus, the basic difference between the grammatical and the lexicological approaches to phrases appears to be clear. However, it is not always easy to draw this demarcation line while carrying out concrete research in this sphere.

## 2. Classifications of word combination

Word combinations may be classified according to their function in the sentence. This criterion divides word combinations into

- 1) those which perform the function of a sentence part, for example, predicate, object, adverbial modifier etc., and
- 2) those which do not perform any such function but whose function is .... equivalent of that of a preposition, or a conjunction, and which are, in fact, to all intents and purposes equivalent of those parts of speech.

It should be noted that the former of these two classes comprises the overwhelming majority of English word combinations, but the latter is, however, no less important.

Speaking of potential classifications, it is impossible to overlook Bloomfield's theory of the word combination. It has already been mentioned that Bloomfield distinguished such word combinations as endocentric and exocentric (see p. p. 147-149). He also introduced the term denoting the member of an endocentric phrase that may replace the whole phrase in a larger structure. In subordinate endocentric constructions this member may be referred to either as **head** or **centre**, while the member of a co-ordinate phrase was termed **centre**. Chatman commented in this connection that, according to Bloomfield, "all heads are centres, but not all centres are heads".

Further elaboration of Bloomfield's classification dealt with the types of relations within the word combination. As a result, there appeared ways of analyzing a number of word combinations that did not fit in Bloomfield's classification. The sphere of syntactic analysis, therefore, was widened and included syntactic groups with loosely bound elements. These constructions were classified as **paratactic** (e.g. *No, thanks*). Other word combinations were referred to as **hypotactic**, since they are based on **hypotaxis**. Here, by hypotaxis we mean dependence or subordination of one element (or sen-

tence) to the other element (or sentence). Parataxis is interpreted as juxtaposition of correlating elements without formal expression of syntactic dependence. This interpretation of "parataxis" makes it a convenient term to refer to such groups as *No, thanks* where the link between the components is hard to explicate.

The changes made to the classification and the introduction of the two new types of syntactic constructions resulted in different interpretation of endocentric and exocentric word combinations. Thus, all word combinations in a language may be divided into two main groups: 1) word combinations based on hypotaxis, and 2) word combinations based on parataxis. Further subcategorization of hypotactic groups follows Bloomfield's scheme, i.e. all hypotactic structures are divided into endocentric and exocentric. The same holds for endocentric groups that fall into co-ordinate and subordinate word combinations.

The division of word combinations into hypotactic and paratactic is based on relations inside the structure, i.e. between its components. Next stages of analysis cover only hypotactic constructions; the attempt to subcategorize paratactic constructions has not been endorsed and is usually not carried out.

As it has been mentioned, the second stage of analysis presupposes the division of hypotactic structures into endocentric and exocentric. This division is based on the role of the group as a whole in an extended syntactic construction rather than on relations between elements within the group. Thus, the second stage is grounded on a different principle of categorization. The third stage, in its turn, exhibits yet another principle of syntactic categorization: endocentric word combinations are divided into subordinate and co-ordinate, while exocentric – into predicative and prepositional, which ever more disagrees with the principle of the classification. Consequently, on every stage, the principle of the previous classification changes, and word combinations are characterized either on the ground of their internal or external relations. Besides, endocentric constructions are further subcategorized in terms of more general syntactic relations that define the status of combining elements in their relation to each other (co-ordination vs subordination), whereas exocentric constructions are provided with a mixed syntactic – morphological subcategorization. Groups, termed predicative, are distinguished on the basis of syntactic relations within the group and are

described in terms of syntactic relations of a more concrete kind than co-ordination – subordination, while prepositional groups are characterized on the basis of their morphological features. This inconsistency in the approach to syntactic subcategorization considerably reduces scientific value of the classification in question.

In Ukrainian linguistics, word combinations are classified **according to their internal structure**. This approach proposes two groups of word combinations: 1) those with the head element, and 2) those without the head element. These two types of word combinations should not be mixed up with endocentric and exocentric groups, introduced by Bloomfield. Dividing word combinations according to presence/absence of the head element is based exclusively on relations within the word combination.

**Word combinations with the head element** are represented by word groups that form a grammatically organized structure with one element subordinate to the other element. The subordinating element is called the head of the word combination. In the following examples, the head elements are underlined: *green leaves, to type a letter, to smile brightly, quite simple.*

As it can be seen, relations in head word combinations are based on subordination and may be represented by all the types of subordinate relations, i.e. attributive, object, adverbial, and existential. The dependent element (or elements) does explicate its syntactic status on the word combination level, whereas the head does not reveal its syntactic function on this level. This constitutes the differential peculiarity of the head. In other words, the head of the subordinate structures (head-structures) is the element whose syntactic function may not be identified within the structure in question. For example, in the word combination *quite simple*, the adjective *simple* is the head, since its syntactic function may not be identified on the level of this particular structure.

The adverb *quite* is a dependent element and therefore its syntactic function is identified within the given word combination, namely it occurs as an adverbial modifier of degree. In case of extension, the head is shifted: cf. *quite simple tasks*. Within this word combination, the functions of two elements are explicit – that of the adverb *quite* (adverbial modifier of degree) and the adjective *simple* (attribute); the function of the noun remains unidentified within the word combination, which gives us the ground to treat this element as the head. A further extension of the word combination shifts

the head again: in *to give quite simple tasks* the Infinitive *to give* performs the function of the head, whereas the noun *tasks* is used as an object.

Taking into consideration the mutual position of the head and the dependent element in a head word combination, one may distinguish **between regressive and progressive word combinations**. Let us consider this division in more detail.

#### Regressive word combinations with adverbial head

This type of word combinations is structurally most homogeneous, since the dependent element may be represented by the only morphological class – adverbs-intensifiers. The most typical representatives of these word combinations are structures such as *very sweetly, rather unexpectedly, quite easily, extremely furiously, pretty clearly*.

Some adverbs are unable to form constructions with intensifiers. These are mainly qualitative adverbs, as well as adverbs denoting temporal characteristics (like *suddenly*). Heads of regressive word combinations with the adverbial head may also be adverbs of place – *far away, farther north*. Other types of spatial adverbs as well as temporal adverbs are not usually capable of combining with a subordinate element.

In the majority of cases, regressive groups with the adverbial head are represented by two-member structures, though three-member constructions are also possible: *so very easily, almost too late, far too long*.

Though adverbial word combinations with the head tend to be regressive, there is a dependent element, namely the adverb *enough*, which always follows the head. As a result, it forms a progressive word combination: *I could do it fast enough*.

#### Regressive word combinations with attributive head

Word combinations with the adjectival head may be both regressive and progressive. Regressive word combinations with the head-adjective are very similar to adverbial structures and tend to contain two members. Dependent elements in these constructions may be expressed either by intensifiers or by adverbs: *very sweet, quite unexpected, rather easy, extremely furious, pretty clear*.

Besides intensifiers and other adverbs, dependent elements may be expressed by nouns: *dirt cheap, ice cold, knee deep, dog tired*.

Like in adverbial groups, the adverb *enough* occupies in adjectival structures the place to the right of the head: *professional enough*.

Word combinations with participles and words denoting state should also be referred to this type: *extremely terrified, absolutely alone*.

Regressive adjectival groups, just like adverbial word combinations, are characterized by the left-hand position of a dependent element to the head.

One may come across cases where a regressive adverbial group is combined with a regressive adjectival group, which creates mixed constructions with a hierarchical two-layer structure: *very much happy, almost too polite*.

#### Regressive word combinations with nounal head

Nounal word combinations may be both with the regressive and with the progressive positions of dependent elements, which makes them similar to adjectival constructions.

Regressive word combinations with the nounal head may vary when the number and the morphological properties of left-hand dependent elements are concerned. In case there is only one dependent element, morphological ways of its expression are also quite numerous. This position tends to be taken by possessive pronouns (*my house, their parents*), demonstrative pronouns (*this restaurant, those actors*), adjectives (*white roses, lucky day*), participles (*lost generation, falling leaf*). One cannot but mention the group of adjectives that may function only in pre-position, i.e. as left-hand dependent elements: *a mere trifle, utter fear, sheer absurdity*.

The position of left-hand dependent elements within word combinations in question is often occupied by nouns: *world war, power supply, cigarette smoke, family reunion*. The noun may also be formed by the formant 's: *Frank's invitation, Cynthia's opinion, boys' toys*. The left-hand position may be taken by numerals, both cardinal and ordinal: *five books, first love*.

If there are several dependent elements in nounal word combinations, the dependents tend to be morphologically different: *my own decision, these hot summer days, the only upstairs occupant*.

Though traditionally either the Infinitive or words of state or finite forms of the verb are not mentioned as possible ways to express pre-positional attributes, one may come across some cases of their use in Modern English, e.g. *his to-die-for car collection; I'm-going-to-treat-you-like-a-grown-up talks; a dog-eat-dog world*, etc.

One of the most disputable questions related with the structure of regressive nounal groups is the order of pre-positional attributes, particularly

### Progressive word combinations with verbal head

Progressive verbal constructions are numerous and diverse. They are usually subdivided into three main types: 1) **object**, 2) **adverbial**, and 3) **existential**.

The **object subgroup** is based on two relations that appear between the verb and the object: **prepositional** and **without a preposition**. Structures without a preposition contain transitive verbs and intransitive verbs that are capable of being used with the so-called cognate objects: *to live a miserable life, to smile a happy smile, to die a violent death, to grin a crooked grin*, etc.

Verbal word combinations with transitive verbs are formed by verbs with diverse meanings. These are verbs denoting concrete physical actions (*to close the door, to wrap the cake, to pour water*), verbs of perception (*to see a picture, to hear voices*), verbs of psychic state (*to need attention, to forget a verse*). This group also includes such verbs as *to say, to answer, to tell, to whisper*.

Prepositional verbal structures may be illustrated by the word combinations *to laugh at the joke, to object to the suggestion*, etc. As we can see, both prepositional word combinations and combinations without a preposition may contain dependent elements of various morphological status: nouns as well as non-finite forms, e.g. *to detest arguing, to start to smoke, to suggest returning back, to insist on paying back, to speculate on what he would have done*.

Intransitive verbs may not combine with any type of objects except cognate one, but such verbs tend to be combined with various types of **adverbial modifiers**: *to dismiss off-hand, to drive slowly, to arrive in time, to travel north*. Here the dependent element may be expressed not only by the adverb (though it is often the case) but also by a prepositional group, non-finite forms or predicative units: *to go to Edinburgh, to stay for two days, to turn up to help, to go looking around, Jack wanted to talk to you before he left home*.

As to **existential word combinations** with the head, they are based on existential relations, form only progressive structures and are represented by a very limited number of morphological variants. The only morphological type of the head of such word combinations may be a link (copula) verb, the dependent element may belong to various parts of speech, the most typical being the adjective: *to be happy, to seem delighted, to stay calm, to appear stunning, to become cheerful*.

When the link-verb is used in the finite form, the whole word combination performs the function of the compound nominal predicate. Verbal non-finite forms in existential word combinations indicate that they may function as any sentence part except the predicate: *Staying brave in danger is next to impossible; Turning old remained for Clair the most terrifying thing*.

### Progressive word combinations with prepositional head

Progressive structures with the prepositional head require specific theoretical argumentation. Traditionally, the preposition is ascribed the status of a function word. Therefore, one may doubt whether the preposition can function as head of a prepositional word combination. Still, the claim that there are prepositional word combinations is supported by the fact that the preposition is able to govern the following element: government indicates relations of subordination within a word combination and helps to identify the head, since it is the governing element that dominates in a given word combination. Though in English subordination is peculiar only to personal pronouns, theoretically it is sufficient ground to prove the head status of the preposition. In some cases, the form of the element following the preposition remains unchanged. This phenomenon stems from the fact that English nouns have lost the form of the accusative case.

Recently, the interpretation of lexical meaning expressed by the preposition has been reviewed. Some linguists believe that prepositions do have lexical meaning, which resulted in a different interpretation of this part of speech. If prepositions are treated as words with their own semantic content and extralinguistic reference, as words that, when included in the sentence, are capable of contributing to the information expressed, then the preposition may not be interpreted as element linking lexical words, or as equivalent to case inflections or other linking morphological means. Consequently, in syntactically organized groups, the preposition is thought to fulfill two functions: on the one hand, it is an element with its own lexical meaning, used alongside of other elements to express certain information, on the other hand, the preposition links these other elements. The functions of the preposition have much in common with those of link-verbs: these are also used to express the link between the subject and the predicative as well as to deliver a certain semantic message: cf. *His hair is grey* and *His hair is growing grey*. The claim that the preposition does have lexical meaning leads to the following conclusion: the preposition is not a formal word used

to link two lexical words. It conveys its own meaning and may be related to other words by various syntactic relations, government included: *to look at them – to look at the girl, to rely on her – to rely on industry.*

As to **word combinations without head**, they do not seem to share any common structure, peculiar to all groups within this type. In other words, word combinations without the head are structurally more various than word combinations with the head. Elements in word combinations without the head may be linked by the three types of relations: interdependence, co-ordination and accumulation (see p. p. 218–222). First of all, however, word combinations without the head are divided into two main groups: independent and dependent. Independent word combinations are structures that may be identified as grammatically organized groups without complimentary context: *short and simple, winning and losing, they married.*

Dependent groups have other specific features. These word combinations may not be identified as grammatically organized groups without complimentary context that functions as background against which dependent word combinations are interpreted as syntactically organized structures: *her successful (career), quaint baroque (architecture), (agree) straight away, (write) him a letter, (stay) at home all day.*

Both independent and dependent groups are divided into further structures: 1) **morphologically homogeneous** and 2) **morphologically heterogeneous**. Morphologically homogeneous word combinations consist of units belonging to one part-of-speech: *short and simple, hot tasty (pie)*. Morphologically heterogeneous word combinations are formed by elements of different word classes: *Jack smiled, (see) them approaching.*

Independent morphologically homogeneous word combinations are based on co-ordination expressed either by means of a co-ordinate conjunction (*ladies and gentlemen*) or without it (*insects, birds, mammalia*).

Independent morphologically heterogeneous word combinations are represented by the only type, namely by word combinations based on predication: *she sang, the car broke down.*

Morphologically homogeneous word combinations include only one type of constructions, i.e. groups based on accumulation: *old black (cat)*.

Morphologically heterogeneous dependent structures may be of two types: 1) with accumulative relation between components (e.g. *his black (shoes)*), and 2) with secondary predication (e.g. (to see) *him leave*).

Morphologically heterogeneous dependent structures are usually represented by attributive regressive word combinations if they are based on accumulative relations (e.g. *their expensive (house)*). However, constructions of object and adverbial nature are also possible: (to speak) *to me about this event, (to come) here to interfere into my work.*

Dependent word combinations without the head based on interdependence (secondary predication) are expressed by means of the complex object – (to hear) *the door slam* – or absolute constructions – (she left the room), *her face pale; the wind getting chilly, (we returned to the hotel).*

The list of word combinations mentioned above does not exhaust all possible classes. Still, the list contains the main types of constructions. As a result, word combinations with pronominal heads have not been highlighted, since pronouns as well as numerals have syntactic peculiarities similar to those of nouns and adjectives but are characterized by a narrower combinability: (to have touched) *the real you.* (For more detail see Table on p. 299).

When dealing with the attempts to classify word combinations, it is impossible not to mention structural types of components within word combinations. Elements of a word combination turn out to be either structurally simple or structurally complex, which enables us to form another classification.

Complex structures may be formed in many ways, which requires special study. Simple components are, in their turn, interpreted as separate words or word groups that include either attributive elements or adverbial elements denoting degree.

Complex elements are traditionally treated as structures based on secondary predication, e.g. complex object (*Illness made her feel desperate*). However, word combination members are defined in terms of syntactic elements. It is well-known that syntactic elements are characterized by certain positions that may be filled both by a certain morphological class and by other units. In other words, syntactic positions may be filled not only by words but also by word combinations of various types. Thus, particular attention should be paid to syntactic positions that may be taken by predicative units, i.e. by units traditionally called “subordinate clauses”.

Studies show that any syntactic element, except simple predicate, may be expressed by means of a certain type of predicative unit. For example, the position of the object may be occupied by a predicative unit: *I know where they lived.*

Similar phenomena may occur in other syntactic positions: the subject and the predicative – *What we thought was that they had returned back to the hotel a bit earlier*, the attribute – *the letter we sent*, the adverbial modifier – *When she e-mailed the request, she found the information in the Internet*.

### Classification of word combinations

Word combinations with the head						
Regressive			Progressive			
1. Adverbial Head	2. Adjectival head	3. Nounal head	4. Nounal head	5. Adjectival head	6. Verbal head	7. Prepositional head

**Examples:** 1. *very slowly*; 2. *absolutely beautiful*; 3. *a high building*; 4. *expectations of success*; 5. *prone to disobedience*; 6. *paint a picture*; 7. *at a station*

Word combinations without the head				
Independent		Dependent		
8. Syndetic co-ordination	9. Asyndetic co-ordination	10. Interdependent primary predication	11. Accumulation	12. Interdependent secondary predication

**Examples:** 8. *black and white*; 9. *men, women, children*; 10. *they left*; 11. *old quaint* (house); 12. (they watched) *the sun go down*

As one may see, any position in the sentence may be taken by the predicative unit. It is an acknowledged fact in linguistics that predicative units may function as part of a word combination. This fact, however, results in controversy, since recognizing a predicative unit as a component of a word combination means denying the subordinate clause its status of a unique syntactic structure.

Sometimes word combinations are analyzed in terms of the morphological status of words combined rather than in terms of the relations between

these words. If studied from this angle, the type “noun + noun” is a most usual type of word combination in Modern English. It must be divided into two subtypes, depending on the form of the first component, which may be in the common or in the possessive case.

Another very common type is “adjective + noun”, which is used to express all possible kinds of things with their properties.

The type “verb + noun” may correspond to two different types of relation between an action and a thing. In the vast majority of cases the noun denotes an object of the action expressed by the verb, but in a certain number of word combinations it denotes a measure, rather than the object, of the action. This may be seen in such word combinations as *walk a mile*, *sleep an hour*, *wait a minute*, etc. It is only the meaning of the verb and that of the noun that enables the hearer or reader to understand the relation correctly. The meaning of the verb divides, for example, the word combination *wait a minute* from the word combination *appoint an hour*, and shows the relations in the two word combinations to be basically different.

In the similar way other types of word combinations should be set down and analyzed. Among them will be the types “verb + adverb”, “adverb + adjective”, “adverb + adverb”, “noun + preposition + noun”, “adjective + preposition + noun”, “verb + preposition + noun”, etc.

An important question arises concerning the pattern “noun + verb”. In linguistic theory, different opinions have been put forward on this issue. One view is that the word combination type “noun + verb” (which is sometimes called “predicative word combination”) exists and ought to be studied just like any other word combination type such as we have enumerated above. The other view is that no such type as “noun + verb” exists, as the combination “noun + verb” constitutes a sentence rather than a word combination. The opponents to this approach do not consider this argument convincing. They believe that if one takes the combination “noun + verb” as a sentence, which is sometimes possible, one analyzes it on a different level, namely, on the sentence level, and what one discovers on the sentence level cannot affect analysis on the word combination level. They argue that if one takes, for example, the group *a man writes* on the word combination level, this means that each of the components can be changed in accordance with its paradigm in any way so long as the connection with the other component does not prevent this. In the given case, the first component, *man*, can be



changed in number, that is, it can appear in the plural form, and the second component, *writes*, can be changed according to the verbal categories of aspect, tense, correlation, and mood (the change of the verb in person is dictated by the first component, and the change of voice is impossible due to the meaning). Thus, the groups *a man writes*, *a man wrote*, *men are writing*, *men have written*, *a man would have been writing* etc. may all be viewed as variants of the same word combination, just as *man* and *men* are forms of the same noun, while *writes*, *wrote*, *has written* etc. are forms of the same verb. Proponents of this approach insist that a word combination as such has no intonation of its own, no more than a word as such has one. On the sentence level things are different. *A man writes as* a sentence is not the same sentence as *Men have been writing*, but a different sentence.

It is in such a way that the status of the pattern "noun + verb" as a word combination is corroborated.

Word combinations consisting of two components may be enlarged by addition of a third component, and so forth, for instance the word combination pattern "adjective + noun" (*warm day*) may be enlarged by the addition of an adjective in front, so that the type "adjective + adjective + noun" arises (*wonderful warm day*). This, in its turn, may be further enlarged by more additions. The limit of the possible extension of a word combination is impossible to define.

### 3. Correlation between the meaning of a word combination and the meaning of its components

The meaning of a word combination does not equate to a simple sum of the meanings of its components but appears an intricate interlacement of lexical meaning of combining units.

Thus, for instance, the isolated use of the noun *axis* is associated, first of all, with a part of a construction. However, when this noun is included in a word combination, its meaning undergoes modifications. Thus, for example, in the combination *axis of evil*, the word *axis* ceases to denote "axis" as "a technical part", and the whole group *axis of evil* means "the countries whose governments are suspected by the USA in supporting terrorists". The word *house* denotes, under normal conditions, a building. Still, the word combination *the White House* means the US administration.

It should be noted, however, that word combinations where the main meanings of components are preserved appear considerably more typical. Still, the general meaning of a word combination contains something new compared to the meaning of each component and is not a simple sum of meanings of components.

Attributive groups, formed by two nouns, are the best illustration of the statement. Here, the meaning of the whole word combination depends not only on meanings of the components but also on their position in relation to each other. One of the most popular examples of this statement in linguistic literature, illustrating that two groups, with identical components and different in word order, may deliver different meanings, is the combinations *a dog house* and *a house dog*. The meaning of the word combination *a dog house* may be explicated as "a house in which a dog lives" but the word combination *a house dog* does not necessarily mean "a dog that lives in a house".

Relations between an attribute and a modified noun may be diverse. For example, the word combination *meat pie* denotes a dish, whereas the combination *a meat market* exhibits different relations between the components – it is a market where meat is sold and bought. Accordingly, the combination *a Vietnam village* denotes a village in Vietnam, and the group *an Oxford man* stands for a person educated in the Oxford University.

It is also worth mentioning the correlation between two attributive word combinations formed by nouns: *horse shoes* – "U-shaped iron shoe for a horse" and *alligator shoes* – "shoes made of crocodile skin". The combination *horse shoes* does not mean footwear made of horse skin.

The comparison drawn between groups where the head is expressed by an animate noun also reveals different relations between their elements. Compare, for example, the word combinations *an orphan child* and *a wine waiter*. The former may be paraphrased *a child who is an orphan*, while the latter does not allow for such transformations.

Absence of identity between the meaning of a word combination and the simple sum of meanings of its components marks groups of different morphological structure as well. For example, in a group that consists of the combination "adjective + noun", the meaning of the adjective is modified by the noun. Compare, for example, the meanings of the adjective *black* in the following word combinations: *black hair*, *a black list*, *a black market*, *black humour*.

Similarly, the same process is observed in verbal combinations:  
*She moved the tray, and put the table back in its place* (*move* means "change position");

*The story moved me* (*move* means "touch");

*Curiosity moved me to open the box* (*move* means "induce, impel");

*I move that we accept the proposal* (*move* means "suggest");

*Let's move before it's too late* (*move* means "act, take measures");

*The story moved far too slowly* (*move* means "develop");

*Booksellers moved easily* *The Da Vinci Code* by *Den Brown* (*move* means "sell"), etc.

Besides semantic modifications, members of a word combination acquire additional characteristics as units participating in syntactic structures and marked by certain types of syntactic relations. In the groups like *meat pie*, there is an attributive relation between the components. In groups with the verbal centre, there is either an object relation (*to move the tray, to move somebody*) or circumstantial (*to move slowly, to move south*).

Thus, when a word is introduced into a syntactic structure, it may change its properties and acquire such characteristics that are not typical when it is used in isolation. These characteristics are the status of a certain sentence part or a word combination (attribute, object, adverbial modifier, etc.).

#### 4. Word combination level and sentence level

The notion of "level", generally accepted in linguistic analysis, is very convenient for scientific linguistic research. The analysis requires that every language level should have its own unit. Naturally, the word combination is the smallest unit of the word combination level.

According to the deep-rooted tradition, a language unit may be considered as such if and only if it is a component of a higher level. Thus, for example, phonemes are parts of units of a higher level, i.e. parts of morphemes. Therefore, phonemes may be treated as units of a level lower than that of morphemes.

The correlation of syntactic units, called "word combination" and "sentence", is slightly different. The sentence is usually regarded as unit of a higher level than a word combination. Still, as some linguists point out, the word combination may function as a sentence or part of a sentence, while

the sentence may be realized as word combination, a number of word combinations, or a single word.

#### 5. Structural completeness of word combination

Structural completeness of linear language organization is provided in two ways: by means of substitution and representation. Substitution is based on inclusion of a unit that replaces the unit mentioned before in order to avoid repetition as well as for the sake of brevity: the substituting unit may be much shorter than the substituted one, a single element may substitute for the whole group. Thus, substitution is always based on anaphora, since it should be correlated with the element given before.

There are a number of language elements capable of functioning as substitutes. Each morphological class has its own substituting units. For example, to replace nouns, the word *one* is the most frequent: *an English book and several German ones; he is a doctor and his wife is one, too*. As some linguists note, the word *one* is also capable of substituting for nouns, used to deliver identifying meaning. Such use requires the singular form: *Such a question is an inevitable one*.

Most linguists, Western ones in particular, treat third person personal pronouns singular and plural as substitutes. These words, too, function in text anaphorically, just like the substitute *one*. Unlike *one*, however, the third person pronouns replace the whole nominal group, i.e. including its attributive components: cf. *a blue pencil and five black ones* vs *John and Sandra's bedroom is the coziest in the house. It is exquisitely furnished*.

Besides personal pronouns, the function of substitution may be performed by demonstrative pronouns *that/those*: *The best fruits are those from the Crimea; Which shirt would you prefer? – I'd rather buy that of pure cotton*.

Notional words are usually replaced by the verb *do*: *Jill sings better than I do; Jeremy went to bed late, so did we*.

When other parts of speech are concerned, substitution is not so explicit, though it does exist. For example, an adjective in the predicative position may be replaced by the word *so*: *Mary is smart, but her daughter is still more so; Is she happy? – Yes, very much so*.

Representation differs from substitution in that it does not presuppose introduction of any new element into the construction. What it means is

using only a part of the construction pronounced previously: *I have never ridden a horse but I'd love to*. The pre-Infinitive particle *to* represents the whole group *to ride a horse*. Though the rest of the structure remains implied, the group expressed by *to* is structurally complete and presents a grammatical construction. It should be noted, though, that while groups with words-substitutes may function as grammatically independent units (*a black one*), groups with representatives cannot exist independently, without correlating with the represented structure.

## 6. Valence

The theory of valence stems from the study of combining properties of language units. The theory, like the term itself, has appeared in linguistics comparatively recently: it was used for the first time in works by the famous French structuralist, **L. Teniere**, who introduced the term "valence" in linguistics borrowing it from chemistry. A little later, the term appeared in works of Russian scholar S. Katznelson.

Originally, the term "valence" was used only in reference to combining capabilities of the verb. Later on, the functions of the term became more extended, and now linguists believe the term "valence" to be applicable to a wide circle of morphological units.

Teniere's theory is peculiar in that he granted the verb with the central role in the sentence, while the rest of sentence parts were thought to be subordinated to the verb. However, the set of verbal valence was reduced by Teniere to the subject and the object which he called actants. Meanwhile, various types of adverbial modifiers, called circostants, were excluded from the verbal valence set. This interpretation of verbal valence stems from the semantic analysis according to which any action requires a certain number of participants who, on the sentence level, may be represented either as objects or as subject. According to Teniere, neither of adverbial elements is conditioned by verbal semantics and, therefore, does not enter the set of verbal valence.

Later on, this approach was revised, and some types of adverbial modifiers, required by verbal semantics, have been included in the verbal valence set.

Defining the number of actants has given the possibility to classify verbs in accordance with the number of required participants and, thus, define types of word combinations formed by verbs.

The theory, put forward by Teniere, has been elaborated by many contemporary linguists and has occupied its place in modern linguistics. Further development of the theory has led to some changes in the meaning of the term "valence" which has followed many other linguistic terms and acquired many meanings.

The primary meaning of the term did not differ from "combination". This interpretation of the term is supported by many researchers. Recently, however, there has been a tendency to narrow down the meaning of valence, i.e. to apply it either only to denote the potential combinability of language units or to denote speech realization of these capabilities. Neither of the suggested interpretations of valence has become established in linguistics, which is quite natural, since the limitations bring about unnecessary complications in its use. However, the tendency to use the term "valence" to refer to potential qualities of language units has gained great popularity. Therefore, it seems justified to use the term "valence" to denote both potential qualities of language units (language level) and to denote peculiarities of combinability in speech.

## 7. Types of syntactic relations in word combination

Traditionally, the main types of relations in syntax are believed to be co-ordination (parataxis) and subordination (hypotaxis). Besides this two-member opposition, there may be distinguished one more, consisting of four members, namely predicative, object, adverbial and attributive relations. How these two oppositions correlate, their similarities and differences remain unclear though this question is quite essential for more adequate syntactic research.

Recently, some linguists (for example, L. Barkhudarov) extended the two-member opposition and introduced, besides co-ordination and subordination, the third type of relations – predicative. The new term definitely adds adequacy to research, though the term itself is hardly an apt one. The terms "co-ordination" and "subordination" do not specify elements joined from the point of view of their syntactic function, whereas the term "predicativity" does deliver the information on relations between two combining elements, i.e. subject and predicate. In other words, the term not only indicates the mutual status of the elements but also character-

izes their syntactic function. Therefore, the term "predicativity" should be taken with much reserve.

It was Hjelmslev who noted that relations between two elements may be of three types: 1) both elements are relatively independent of each other (which corresponds to our term "co-ordination"); 2) the first element depends on the second one with the second element independent of the first (which is obviously synonymous to subordination); and, finally, 3) the first element depends on the second one and the second element, in its turn, depends on the first, which may correspond to the relation called "predicativity". Hjelmslev named the third relation "interdependence". This term seems to be adequate and may be borrowed to fill the tertiary opposition: "co-ordination – subordination – interdependence". The opposition of syntactic relations appears more homogeneous, since the terms co-ordination and subordination do not explicate syntactic functions of elements but only mark their mutual status. Since these three types of relations identify the status of elements in reference to each other, the opposition may be called "status opposition".

### 7.1. Co-ordination

Elaborating the three types of status relations is rather complicated and acquires different meanings in works by different authors. The majority of linguists used to believe that co-ordination presupposed equality of components and mutual independence, which resulted in their positional variation. Nowadays this point of view is dismissed, since there are cases when components in a co-ordinate word combination may not change places. As a result, modern syntactic theory distinguishes between symmetric co-ordinate groups, whose elements may mutually change positions, and asymmetric ones where elements occupy strictly fixed positions to each other. Fixed positions in co-ordinate word combinations may result from several reasons. For instance, in binary, i.e. two-member, co-ordinate structures, the initial position is taken by the element containing fewer syllables: *men and women, ladies and gentlemen, Oxford and Cambridge*, etc. Violation of the rule may be caused by requirements to preserve a certain order in enumeration or some ethnic considerations (e.g. *my boss and I*).

Presently, co-ordinate word combinations are defined as those that consist of relatively independent elements joined by means of a co-ordinating

conjunction. As a rule, and is regarded as the most typical co-ordinating conjunction, but there are also other co-ordinating connectives.

However, some scientists do not share the traditional point of view. A number of Western and Ukrainian linguists interpret co-ordination differently: co-ordinate word combinations, in this case, are those whose components correlate in the same way with some third item outside the co-ordinate group. For example, in *James was surprised but did not show his astonishment*, the verbs *was surprised* and *did not show*, according to this approach, maintain the co-ordinate relation, since they both correlate with the word *James* outside the co-ordinate structure. Similarly, in *Jeremy and his family gathered in the dining-room in the evening*, the nouns *Jeremy, his family* form a co-ordinate group not because they are joined by the co-ordinating conjunction and but because they display similar, parallel correlation with the predicate of the sentence gathered.

It is believed that, theoretically, a co-ordinate group may be extended without restrictions. Still, though in speech one may come across quite long co-ordinate word combinations, their components seldom exceed ten or fifteen items. And even these co-ordinate groups occur only occasionally.

### 7.2. Subordination

Linguists are more unanimous in their interpretation of subordination in comparison with co-ordination. Traditionally, subordination is thought to be based on inequality of combining words: one of the components dominates over the rest and subordinates them when their form and position are concerned. The dominating element is called head of a subordinate word combination and may be expressed by various parts of speech.

The head of the subordinate word combination, i.e. its principal element, is also characterized by its own features that permit its identification. However, there are no formal grammatical criteria that would distinguish the head element within the subordinate word combination. As a rule, the head element is identified against the background of syntactic relations as an element whose syntactic function remains unspecified on the given level of analysis. For example, in *extremely expensive*, the adverb *extremely* is treated as adverbial modifier, whereas the function of the adjective *expensive* remains outside the analysis of the word combination. As a result, the adjective is regarded as head of the word combination. Extending the word combination

(i.e. introducing new subordinating units) leads to shifting the head element. For example, in *extremely expensive cars*, the adverb *extremely* is treated as adverbial modifier, the adjective *expensive* functions as attribute, the syntactic function of the noun *cars* within the given word combination remains unidentified, which permits to interpret the word as head. Introduction of one more subordinating element has similar effect and shifts the head again: *to sell extremely expensive cars*, where syntactic functions of the three components – *extremely*, *expensive* and *cars* – is clear but the newly introduced element *to sell* does not reveal its syntactic function within the word combination in question and, consequently, is the head of the group.

The above mentioned test allows clarifying two issues: firstly, syntactic functions of dependent elements in a word combination back up the claim of subordinate relations between them; secondly, impossibility to identify syntactic function of an element in the group signals its dominating status. It should be borne in mind that both the head and dependent elements are analyzed without turning to a wider context.

To many researchers' mind, in English, like in other Indo-European languages, subordinate groups are more widely used than co-ordinate ones and dominate in a number of syntactic groups used in speech.

Structurally, subordinate constructions are diverse: dependent elements may be positioned on the left (so-called regressive structures): *a small cotton dress; rather pretty; absolutely amazing; to bluntly deny*. Dependent elements may also be placed on the right forming a progressing structure: *a grain of truth, to accuse of lying, afraid of water, good at languages*. There are also subordinate constructions with the head in the centre, framed on two sides by dependent elements: *a winding path to the house, a thick pile of paper*, etc.

Unlike co-ordinate constructions, the number of components in subordinate groups is traditionally considered finite. Research, however, has proved that a word combination with a noun as head and an attribute in post-position, expressed by a prepositional group with local meaning, may have an unlimited number of components: *the man in the store across the street by the bank under the bridge*, etc.

So, the majority of linguists recognize the three-member opposition: "interdependence – co-ordination – subordination". These relations are very abstract and do not characterize syntactic functions of elements but only mark their mutual status.

### 7.3. Accumulation

The tertiary opposition is not sufficient to characterize all types of syntactic relations. And though Hjelmslev claims that there may be only three types of relations between two elements, the claim is correct only in the sphere of logic. Language material proves that, here, the situation is more complicated, and logical relations are not able to cover all the diversity of syntactic relations within grammatically organized structures.

Although syntactic studies are replete with the term "relation", this notion is rarely explained and specified. Without going into philosophical implications, "relation" may be defined, in syntactic analysis, as "mutual dependence of elements" which may (or may not) be expressed formally. Any relation is objective and as real as the elements between which it appears.

For example, if we distinguish such a word combination as *the girl a letter* from the larger construction *to write the girl a letter*, the nouns *girl* and *letter* appear to be interdependent and, consequently, mutually related. The relation between them may be proved by means of replacement that causes changes of the form: (to write) *the girl a letter* – (to write) *a letter to the girl*. The relations between these nouns may not be identified with the help of the types distinguished within syntax. The two nouns do not reveal any relations of equitable elements and may not be joined by any co-ordinate conjunction, i.e. they do not show co-ordination. It is hardly possible to claim that one of these elements is the head and the other depends on it, which proves absence of subordinate relations. The relations within the word combination are not those of interdependence, since each of the two nouns may function without the other – *to write a letter, to write to the girl*. This operation is impossible for interdependent elements.

As the relations of the type are not very distinct and groups, linked in such a way, may be identified as syntactic structures only if we bear in mind the element outside the word combination in question, this type of relations may be termed accumulative in order to show its amorphous properties.

Accumulative relations are observed not only in groups of two objects of different types. Accumulative relations are widely spread in attributive groups that consist of attributes expressed by different morphological classes (e.g. *these suede shoes, some famous authors*). The examples above contain elements that are not indifferent to each other, since their syntactic

position is fixed and they may not change places: \**suede these shoes*, \**famous some authors*.

The fixed position proves that the elements in a given attributive group are linked by a certain types of relation. The relation is not that of co-ordination, since the elements may not be joined by any co-ordinate conjunction. The relations of subordination and interdependence between the components are not revealed either, as none of the attributes dominates the other and the elements may function without each other: *these shoes – suede shoes*; *some authors – famous authors*. Thus, we have the grounds to claim that the attributive group is based on accumulation.

In Slavonic linguistics, these constructions are usually classified as attributive groups with heterogeneous subordination. This term defines the relation of attributive elements to a unit outside the group without qualifying the relation between the elements within an attributive group. In attributive groups with homogeneous subordination (e.g. *beautiful blue eyes*; *cold windy evening*), however, the relations between attributes are classified as co-ordinate. In other words, in cases of homogeneous subordination of pre-positional attributes, both external (homogeneous subordination) and internal (co-ordination) relations are distinguished. Unlike these structures, heterogeneous subordination defines only the type of relations between the modified word and the modifier, without specifying relations between the modifiers. Introducing the notion accumulative relation fills in the gap.

As a result, at this stage, our classification includes the four types of syntactic relation: interdependence – co-ordination – subordination – accumulation.

## 8. Members of word combinations

The absence of widely accepted terms to refer to members of the word combination is well-known. The only existing term of this level – “modifier” – describes members of attributive groups. The rest of word combination members are not named. Meanwhile, though linguists admit that there may be object, adverbial or attributive relations within a word combination, still they dismiss any possibility of functioning within a word combination such syntactic units as objects, adverbial modifiers and attributes. If object, adverbial and attributive relations are distinguished within a word combination, then it is inevitable that there are syntactic elements to which these re-

lations are peculiar. Otherwise we arrive at the contradiction: syntactic units exist abstractly, outside relations, while syntactic relations, in their turn, are capable of existing on their own outside the elements which they link. This interpretation leads to logically absurd conclusions and must not be accepted. If object, circumstantial and attributive relations may appear within a word combination, it presupposes the existence of the corresponding syntactic elements. This approach brings about the following inconvenience: terms, used to describe members of a word combination, traditionally correlate in linguistics with sentence parts. Thus, attributive relation may be observed only in word combinations where there is a secondary member, called attribute; object relation is conditioned in the sentence by an object, whereas adverbial relation presupposes adverbial modifiers of various types.

A minimal, i.e. two-member word combination, may be analyzed in terms of syntactic functions performed by a dependent element. Thus, for example, the word combination *hot summer* contains the dependent element *hot* treated as attribute, while the word combination *to deliver mail* contains the noun *mail* classified as object. Similarly, it is possible to distinguish adverbial modifiers in *to speak quickly* where the adverb *quickly* is subordinated to the verb and functions as adverbial modifier of manner. Moreover, the level of the word combination suffices to define not only objects, attributes and adverbial modifiers but also their types: direct and indirect objects, adverbial modifiers of place, time, manner etc.: *to send her an e-mail*, *to go to school early*, *to play fair*, *to sign his name*. It is the possibility to identify sentence parts on the word combination level that gives ground to analyze components of word combinations in terms of sentence parts.

It should be noted that, while dependent elements in subordinate word combinations are identified in terms of secondary members, in predicative word combinations, naturally, components are classified in terms of principal syntactic elements, i.e. as subject and predicate: *The sun was shining*, *The car broke down*.

## 9. Combinatorial relations

Besides the above mentioned status relations, there may be distinguished one more concrete type of relations, namely, predicative – object – adverbial – attributive. These relations are as a rule classified as relations stemming from semantic properties of combining elements. This definition, however,

is not quite precise. Though meaning certainly influences syntax, the above mentioned types of syntactic relations are based elsewhere. It becomes obvious when combinatorial peculiarities of morphological classes are analyzed without paying attention to their meaning, since, in order to identify the type of relation, it suffices to indicate morphological status of combining elements. For example, the combination of the verb and the adverb (V+Adv) is always treated as adverbial group, while the combination of the adjective and the noun (A+N) stands for an attributive group. It follows, then, that one may predict syntactic relations between elements if one knows their morphological status and does not know their lexical meaning.

As predicative – object – adverbial – attributive relations result from combinations between certain word classes, they are usually called combinatorial syntactic relations. It should be noted that verbal groups require more detailed analysis that includes not only roughly morphological classes but also takes into consideration their subclasses, i.e. it presupposes certain semantization, since subclasses within a certain part of speech are based on semantic differentiation. Compare, for example, *stop the car* and *stop three times* where the dependent element acquires different syntactic interpretation, as the noun *the car* denotes a thing, while the nounal group *three times* stands for quantitative interruptions of an action. In purely nounal word combinations, however, these nuances are not taken into account and, regardless lexical meanings, all elements, subordinate to a noun, are treated as attributes.

To put in order the present tradition, it is necessary to accept a single principle to identify syntactic elements. The most convenient one is based on consistently applied classification based on morphological properties of syntactic elements and their mutual arrangement. However, the set of relations (predicative – object – adverbial – attributive) is not exhaustible, i.e. it does not describe all types of relations that appear between various morphological classes and subclasses. There are word combinations that have not been described in terms of combinatorial syntactic relations, despite their syntactically organized structure. These word combinations include those consisting of a link (copula) verbs and a nominal part (predicative) – *to be happy, to turn pale, to grow thick*. If the link verb is used in its finite form, the whole word combination is treated as compound nominal predicate. The compound nominal predicate is thought to be formed by means of a link verb and a nominal part (predicative). As a rule, the level of the terms “link

verb” and “nominal part” (or “predicative”) remains unspecified. Neither of the terms can be referred to morphology, since these characteristics appear only when the elements are included in the sentence and, consequently, the terms should be referred to the sphere of syntax. However, neither the link verb nor the nominal part belongs to sentence parts, their syntactic status not being defined. Some scholars consider it more reasonable to treat the terms – “link verb” and “predicative” – as referring to the level of word combinations (like, for example, the term “modified”), since the terms describe an internal structure of certain word combinations. Syntactic groups that consist of a link verb and a predicative are widely used not only as predicates but also as other sentence parts when the link verb is used in the infinite form: *Stop being so fussy!*; *Feeling guilty he tried to be nice later in the evening*; *Being cautious spares you troubles*; *Accusations of being irresponsible*, etc.

In order to clarify relations in this type of word combinations, it is important to identify morphological properties of combining elements. It is the first element expressed by the verb that is permanent in these structures. The second element lacks stability and may be expressed either by adjectives or by a wide range of morphological units or even word combinations. According to the principle of naming combinatorial relations on the basis of their meaning, syntactic relations between the link verb and the predicative may be called existential, since the combination serves to state existence of a certain quality expressed by the predicative. Even when the link verb denotes development of a quality, still the quality in question already exists.

Thus, the final set of combinatorial relations includes the following five types: predicative – object – circumstantial – attributive – existential.

One cannot but mention here peculiarities of the attributive groups of the Noun+Noun type. Attributive relations usually appear in such structures as Adjective+Noun. Nevertheless, attributive relations may also result from combinations of other morphological classes and subclasses: Numeral + N (five books), Pronoun + Noun (her book); Participle I + Noun (writing pupils), Participle I + N (broken glass). There are also groups with attributes in postposition: *feeling of responsibility*; *distance from Rome to Naples*.

Attributive word combinations may be characterized on the basis of morphological status of their components. As a rule, combinatorial relations, based on subordination, require combinations of morphological units

of different classes. Meanwhile, it is well-known that attributive combinations may arise from the combination of one and the same morphological class, namely nouns (N + N): *evening newspaper, silk dress, ebony colour, heart disease, silver ring, adventure stories*, etc. Despite being formed by words of the same morphological class, these combinations are undoubtedly treated as subordinate attributive word combinations, unlike other nounal combinations that are identified as co-ordinate structures. Thus, the construction *men women children*, even without punctuation marks, are interpreted as a co-ordinate group.

In nounal groups of the subordinate – attributive type, the relation of subordination results from the combination of nouns of different subclasses or different semantic fields. For example, in the combination *silk dress* the first element denotes material, the second – item of clothing. In nounal co-ordinate groups, the combinatorial principle is different. Co-ordination requires combining nouns of the same subclass or the same semantic field: *Items of clothing such as shirts, skirts, trousers and dresses*.

## 10. Notions of agreement, government and parataxis

In Modern English, there may be distinguished three ways of syntactic relation: 1) **agreement** (or **concord**), 2) **government**, and 3) **parataxis**. These means are interpreted as members of one set, having similar value and different forms of expression. **Agreement** is traditionally defined as means of syntactic relations which presupposes formal correspondence between members of a syntactic group. In Modern English this can refer only to the category of number: a subordinate word agrees in number with its head word if it has different number forms at all. For example, this is practically found in two demonstrative pronouns *this* and *that*, which agree in number with their head word.

As to the problem of agreement of the verb with the noun or pronoun denoting the subject of the action (*Mary plays, We play*), this is a controversial issue. Usually it is treated as agreement of the predicate with the subject, that is, as a phenomenon of sentence structure. However, if we assume that agreement and government belong to the word combination level, rather than to the sentence level, and that word combinations of the pattern “noun + verb” do exist, we have to treat this problem in the paragraphs devoted to word combinations.

The controversy is this. Does the verb stand in the plural number because the noun denoting the subject of the action is plural, so that the verb is in the full sense of the word subordinate to the noun? Or does the verb, in its own right, express by its category of number the singularity or plurality of the doer (or doers)?

There are phenomena in Modern English which seem to prove that the verb does not always follow the noun in the category of number. Such examples as *My family are cinema aficionados*, on the one hand, and *The United Nations is an international organization*, on the other, show that the verb can be independent of the noun in this respect: though the noun is in the singular, the verb may be in the plural, if the doer is understood to be plural; though the noun is plural, the verb may be singular if the doer is understood to be singular. Examples of such usage are arguments in favour of the view that there is no agreement in number of the verb with the noun expressing the doer of the action.

The fact that sentences like *My family is tightly-knit* and *My family are cinema aficionados* exist side by side proves that there is no formal agreement of the verb with the noun in either case: the verb shows whether the subject of the action is to be thought of as singular or plural, regardless of the form of the noun as such.

Thus, some linguists claim that the sphere of agreement in Modern English is extremely small: it is restricted to two pronouns – *this* and *that*. These pronouns agree with their head word in number when they are used in initial position in a word combination whose head word is a noun.

**Government** also presupposes formal changes, but the changes are limited to the element that is governed. Traditionally, government was used to describe relations between the verb and its object, with the verb governing. Government is also registered between the preposition and its object. If it is the case, the governing element is the preposition. As a result of government, the object is to take the form required by the governing element.

The role of government in Modern English is almost as insignificant as that of agreement. We do not find in English any verbs, or nouns, or adjectives, requiring the subordinate noun to be in one case rather than in the other. Nor do we find prepositions requiring anything of the kind.

In Modern English formal modifications are restricted only to personal pronouns and to the pronoun (interrogative and relative) *who* when they



are subordinate to a verb or follow a preposition. It gives us the ground to claim that government is characteristic of these morphological classes alone if they function as objects: *to tell him; to rely on them*. Even this type of government is, however, somewhat doubtful due to the obvious tendency to use the forms *me, him*, etc. outside their original sphere as forms of the objective case. The notion of government has also become doubtful as applied to the form *whom*, which is rather often superseded by the form *who* in such sentences as *Who(m) did you see?*

As to nouns, the notion of government may be said to have become quite uncertain in present-day English. Even if we stick to the view that *chemist* and *chemist's* are forms of the common and the possessive case, respectively, we could not assert that a preposition always requires the form of the common case. For example, the preposition *to* can be combined with both case forms: compare *Sam wrote to the chemist* and *I went to the chemist's*, or, with the preposition *at*: *I looked at my friend* and *I spent the weekend at my friend's*. It seems, therefore, that the notion of government does not apply to forms of nouns.

**Parataxis** is recognized predominantly in Slavonic linguistics. Western scholars do not, as a rule, distinguish this means of syntactic relation, unlike agreement and government. The latter were mentioned in theoretical and practical grammars as early as the 16th – 17th centuries. The notion of parataxis appears in Western linguistics only in theoretical studies of the 20th century.

Parataxis means combining components without any formal changes. For example, in the word combination *nod his head gloomily*, both the noun *head* and the adverb *gloomily* are linked with the verb *nod* by means of parataxis. Internal markers of this link are, however, missing. Relations between the verb *nod* and the noun group *his head*, on the one hand, and the verb with the adverb *gloomily*, on the other, are not explicated. These relations are based exclusively on the valences of these combining units. Parallel use of these units is not obligatory. Moreover, these units may be separated from each other in a sentence.

Taking into account specific nature of parataxis, it may hardly be treated as the third item in the opposition "agreement – government". As it has been stated above, in Modern English parataxis means no more than the fact of a priori knowledge of combinatorial properties of morphological units, i.e. their valence, whereas agreement and government are grounded on other

principles, though they are also related to the prior knowledge of morphological valence. In other words, parataxis and agreement/government appear to be a two-step process: firstly, words are divided into those whose valence properties permit combining. Words lacking inflections are stuck on this stage – these are the cases of parataxis. Words capable of changing their form pass on to the second stage. Here, either both combining items are changed (agreement), or only one of them gets affected (government). Both agreement and government may appear only between the parts of speech that have mutual valence, i.e. may be used parallel. In other words, parataxis is the obligatory condition, while agreement and government are further elaboration of parallel use. Thus, we receive a certain hierarchy, where only agreement and government appear to be opposed.

Selection of combining classes in cases of agreement and government is usually not analyzed in grammars, therefore the degree of valence actualization is not discussed. Further realization of these phenomena requires data of a different type, namely paradigmatic data: agreement involves grammatical number of combining elements without employing their morphological properties. Government presupposes paradigmatic data alone. Meanwhile, both agreement and government are possible only between those elements whose valences are compatible.

Thus, agreement, government and parataxis belong to different levels. Parataxis involves actualization of valence properties in combining words, whereas agreement/government are based on paradigmatic characteristics of combining words with compatible valences.

## 11. Correlation of syntactic and semantic structures in word combinations

The syntactic structure of a word combination is tightly bound with the content of the word combination. Many modern linguists are inclined to believe that it is meaning that determines the structure of the word combination. Even if we do not completely agree with this statement, it may not be doubted that meaning and structure are interdependent. It is impossible to claim, however, that meaning alone determines structure, since it is obvious that one and the same meaning may be expressed by different syntactic constructions: cf. *I have some letters for you to sign.* – *There are some letters*

for you to sign. – There are some letters that you should sign. – I have got some letters for you to sign. – I have got some letters that you should sign, etc. It should be noted, however, that some linguists believe that structural changes bring about semantic changes. These scholars insist that different structures may describe the same referent (or fact) but they do not convey the same meaning. The issue of meaning and form is one of the most complicated problems in linguistics and, since it is not the subject of the book, we will not dwell on it further.

Returning to the structures that denote possession, we may compare the following: *He has a car* and *his car*. Semantically, both of the structures tell about possession in its traditional interpretation (“somebody owns something”). If we analyze the verbal and the nominal representation of the fact, we will discover not only syntactic differences, but also certain semantic differences. The structures under consideration convey different degrees of certainty with which the fact of possession is declared. The verbal structure *He has a car* contains less certainty than the nominal one, since here the noun functioning as object has a significant meaning. In other words, the noun conveys “notional” content but it does not refer to any real, concrete thing. The significant meaning of the noun in the verbal structure results in that the thing is presented not as an individual thing but as a set of characteristics and features of the ideal thing, i.e. as an abstract image of a real thing. Therefore, the utterance sounds hypothetical, allowing for some element of doubt. The nominal group *his house*, unlike the verbal one, conveys denotative meaning, since the noun refers to an individual real thing, naming a certain existent object.

Different degrees of certainty about declared relations lead to different functioning of the structures. The nominal structure is created to convey the meaning of possession that is seen as something certain, real and unchangeable, whereas in case of the verbal structure, the truthfulness of the statement may be questioned. Thus, the meaning of possession, common for the word combinations under consideration, is not sufficient for the constructions to function identically. Moreover, the very meaning of possession is expressed so differently in these structures that even on the sense level they may not be interpreted as synonyms. Consequently, the commonality of the content does not suffice to consider word combinations synonymous either on the logical or on the semantic levels.

### 11.1. Morphological status of the head and meaning of a word combination

The influence of formal characteristics on meaning deserves special attention, since the specific nature of a language unit results in significant role played by formal features in language structures.

As it has already been mentioned, one and the same situation may be expressed by different syntactic constructions. Meanwhile, one and the same action or state must correlate with one and the same number of participants. Correspondingly, a meaningful morphological form expresses a certain participant of an action/state explicitly in a syntactic construction. In other words, valence of a part of speech determines participants and their syntactic positions in a word combination. Despite remarkable importance of the morphological status for syntactic structures, it has been neglected in linguistic analysis which has been mainly focused on lexical meanings of combining items. It is obvious, however, that morphological units may be combined only with certain word classes and perform a definite set of syntactic functions. This conclusion may result from the observation of syntactic functions of words, derived from the same root but morphologically different, e.g. *eager* – *eagerly* – *eagerness*, *honest* – *honestly* – *honesty*, *cautious* – *cautiously* – *caution*, etc. It appears that the adjective *eager*, the adverb *eagerly* and the noun *eagerness* are semantically close, as they denote a psychic state of the same type. One may conjecture that they combine with a similar set of participants, i.e. dependent elements subordinated to one of the above mentioned words. It is, however, not so. Syntactically, these words are different.

Thus, the adjective *eager* in the function of the predicative usually combines with dependent elements that reveal the nature of the psychic state: *She was eager to meet her friends*.

The adverb *eagerly*, despite conveying the analogous psychic state, never combines with dependent elements. Like other qualitative adverbs, *eagerly* may be modified only by the adverb of degree *very* and some others. Yet, qualitative adverbs tend to function in isolation: *Sam pursues his goals eagerly*.

Unlike adverbs, nouns are characterized by much more varied combinatorial possibilities and are able to combine with attributes both in pre- and post-position. Though the noun is not as formally limited as adverbs, in

text it resembles them, i.e. it is rarely followed by dependent elements. The isolated position of the noun results not so much from combinatorial restrictions but from different communicative functions in the sphere of functional sentence perspective (see p. p. 294–300). Word combinations are usually formed according to communicative tasks which they acquire in an actualized sentence.

Different parts of speech with a common meaning (i.e. words from different word classes but derived from the same root) acquire different functions: every part of speech performs functions of either theme or rheme.

Nouns and adverbs are, as a rule, contextually bound. Their interpretation depends on the preceding information, which makes both the noun and the adverb a thematic element.

Unlike the noun and the adverb, the adjective may function both as contextually bound and as contextually free element, whose content may not be revealed from the previous context. When the adjective functions as contextually free element, it is used as rheme. As a result, different parts of speech, derived from the same root, perform different communicative functions in the sentence. Thus, adjectives and nouns share syntactic positions related with the functional sentence perspective. Nouns are comparatively rare in the function of predicatives, since predicatives, as a rule, occur as rheme. Adjectives, on the contrary, tend to occur in the rhematic position.

## 11.2. Lexical meaning of an element and choice of other members in word combinations

The lexical meaning of an element influences choice of other combining elements, and the influence is manifold and may have both semantic and grammatical consequences. For example, the adverb *together* presupposes that the agent of the action in *to walk together* is not singular. Plurality of the adverb *together*, however, may refer to other elements of the syntactic unit: *he talked for hours together* (i.e. continuously).

Adjectives may also contain semantic characteristics that influence choice of the combining noun. Some adjectives, for example, require animate nouns, while others presuppose inanimate ones. Thus, the adjective *fearless* presupposes either animate noun as its head (*fearless soldier*) or names of activities performed by living things (*fearless actions/behaviour*). Unlike *fearless*, the adjective *fearful* may be combined not only with ani-

mate nouns and nouns, denoting actions of living things, but also with other nouns: *a fearful hurricane, a fearful tragedy, a fearful picnic*. The list of adjectives, used exclusively with animate nouns, may be added with the adjectives *eldest, sick* (*the eldest brother, a sick child*).

There are also adjectives that may be combined only with inanimate nouns: *edible, eatable*, etc. Moreover, some adjectives combine only with those inanimate nouns that possess a certain peculiar property (i.e. of being eatable). Therefore, the selectiveness of these adjectives is directed not so much onto grammatical features of nouns but onto their lexical meaning.

Lexical meaning of verbs may also predetermine grammatical forms of combining language units. For example, the verbs *to gather, to differentiate*, combining with concrete countable nouns, usually presuppose plural forms: *to gather shells/friends; to differentiate varieties of plants*.

Just like adjectives, the verb is susceptible to the nominal category "animate – inanimate". A number of verbs may be used exclusively with inanimate nouns. These are the verbs denoting psychic states, mental activities, speech, mimic, as well as the verbs *to prohibit, to praise* and some other smaller verb groups, such as the verbs of "insincere behaviour" *to shame, to pretend, to feign, to imitate*. Some verbs may have objects expressed only by inanimate nouns: *to flatter, to insult, to delegate, to discourage, to emancipate*.

Certain verbs are even more limited when the set of potential combining elements is concerned. For example, the verb *to elope* presupposes not only animate participants and their plurality, but also their definite number, usually reduced to "two". Besides, the verb determines certain relations between the participants, since the verb *to elope* usually refers to two escaping lovers.

Some semantic verbal groups are very selective when their objects are concerned. There are, for example, verbs that may combine only with objects naming substances of certain consistence: *to drink / sip / slurp / gulp – tea / coffee / cocoa / milk / water / wine / soup*, etc.

Despite numerous verbal groups with limited semantic combinability, the majority of verbs exhibit indifference to noun classes. It should be emphasized, however, that verbs tend to be more selective to objects than to subjects. When the combinability with the subject is concerned, verbs may be divided into three subgroups: 1) verbs that require animate subjects; 2) verbs that require inanimate subjects, and 3) verbs indifferent to the nominal category "animate – inanimate". The most typical of the first group are

verbs of speech as well as verbs denoting human labour and specific human activities (*to read, to write, to count, to dictate, to sign*). The second group is formed by a limited number of verbs: *to rust, to curdle* (about milk), etc. The third group is extremely diverse: *to lie, to stand, to float, to consist, to bend, to fill*, etc.

In conclusion, one may sum up that the word combination is a syntactic unit formed on the level preceding the sentence. The word combination is deprived of suprasegmental elements, typical of the sentence, and, unlike the sentence, is not communicatively oriented. The word combination acquires a certain intonation pattern and becomes communicatively meaningful only when it is included in the sentence as a sentence part, part of a sentence part or a sentence.

Unlike the sentence that may be expressed by a word, the word combination may not contain less than two language units. The maximum number of language units within the word combination is not limited.

Combinability of words within the word combination is mainly determined by the two factors: their lexical meaning and their morphological status.

## Chapter III

### Simple sentence

#### 1. Definition of the sentence

The notion of sentence has not so far received a satisfactory definition, which would enable us by applying it in every particular case to find out whether a certain linguistic unit is a sentence or not. As a result, there are many definitions of the sentence and many new definitions still appear, which results from complexity of the phenomenon.

The adequate definition should refer the phenomenon to a certain genus and then point out specific features of the phenomenon that make it unique. Accordingly, we may state that the sentence is one of syntactic constructions. The sentence is a meaningful construction, therefore, discussing its specific features, we should characterize the sentence in terms of the three

aspects of any meaningful language unit: structure, meaning and communicative function.

Let's begin with the last aspect. The sentence is a minimal unit of communication. Structural units of a lower rank (i.e. words and word combinations) may function only as its constituents. They are not able to be used in speech independently from the sentence.

A sentence (even comprising one word), unlike a word or a word combination, denotes some actualized situation, i.e. a situation correlated with the real world. For example, *night* as word is only a vocabulary item naming a natural phenomenon. The noun *night* is nothing else but a language expression of the concept "night". The sentence *Night* differs from all the two. The sentence *Night* presents the phenomenon of night as a fact of reality. It has acquired modality (the speaker interprets the phenomenon as real), as well as certain time perspective (past, present, future). Actualization is even simpler in sentences with finite verbs: cf. *the day breaks* vs *day break*. Actualization as syntactic phenomenon is termed **predication** that consists of the unity of the modal and the tense categories.

Finally, relations, binding sentence components, are restricted by sentence boundaries, which appears the most important structural peculiarity of the sentence. None of the words of a given sentence may either subordinate or be subordinated to words outside the sentence.

The list of peculiarities is not exhaustive, but it suffices to identify sentences in speech. Thus, the sentence may be defined as a minimal syntactic construction, used in language communication, characterized by predication and a certain structural pattern.

The definition of the sentence given above includes a rather limited number of features and, therefore, many properties of the sentence are neglected, though they may in some way or the other be related to the properties mentioned in the definition. Consequently, the following discussion in this paragraph may be treated as extended definition of the sentence. Let us discuss its other properties.

The sentence is the result of the speaker's creative activity.

Creative thought is among other abilities of the human being. Thus, since thought is closely related to speech, creativity in syntax is most natural and obvious. Speakers generate an infinite variety of new sentences. The

average speaker does not store in memory sets of ready-made sentences but constructs for occasional use new sentences even in similar situations.

It is the sentence that enables the speaker to react creatively and actively to ever-changing dynamic reality, to interact (with the help of language means) with new conditions (both in terms of content and participants of the communication). In the sentence, the structure (i.e. structural patterns) is rigid and stable, but it is also characterized by new content and novelty of every sentence. (Meantime, one should bear in mind such formulas as *Nice to meet you, Take care, Happy birthday, See you later*, etc.) Thus, having a certain number of words and a finite set of rules, the speaker is capable of constructing an endless number of sentences with different structure and content.

#### The sentence has a form.

The sentence, like any other meaningful language unit, has a form, though native speakers usually see the sentence form as something natural and do not pay particular attention to this sentence characteristic. However, such constructions as *A diggled woggle uggled a wiggled diggle* (suggested by Ch.Fries) highlight the importance of the form. Some scientists believe that the sentence in question consists of word forms rather than a sentence form. Still, the sentence is a composite sign and its form consists of a set of signs of a definite form, variable or invariable, and positioned in a certain order. It is on the basis of formal properties that we treat *Jake owes me five pounds* as sentence and *Five me Jake pounds owes* as non-sentence. Thus, the form of the sentence presupposes many layers and components. In particular, the sentence form includes formal properties of components – sentence parts, their order as well as their number. Grammatically, the order is their mutual sequence, while, phonetically, it is their general intonation pattern.

#### Every sentence is intonationally arranged.

Intonational arrangement characterizes every sentence. What is important for sentence intonation is intonation patterns, special for different communicative types of sentences (cf. the intonation patterns of declarative and imperative sentences). Thus, intonational patterns add to structural and grammatical organization of sentences. Interestingly, grammar and phonetics may interact within a sentence, which leads to neutralization of grammatical features. As a result, declarative sentences, pronounced with a certain intonation, may acquire interrogative meaning: cf. *You don't agree with*

*me?* This shows that phonetic indicators rather than grammatical ones are important in the hierarchy of language means expressing “declaration/interrogation”.

## 2. Predication and some other features of sentence

Let us start discussing predication as a logical notion. In logic, it is the phenomenon of predication that permits people to describe a situation and to present a sentence as product of human thought. One of the most important parameters of human thought processing is representing a situation as subject – predicate structure, called **proposition**. In the sentence, the link between the logical subject and the logical predicate is regarded as predication.

As it has been mentioned above, the sentence as language sign for extralingual reality should be actualized. Actualization of sentence content makes predication compulsory and inseparable feature of any sentence.

It should be emphasized that predication, which may be defined as act of relating two notions expressed by independent words in order to describe a situation, an event, etc., is one of the most essential features of the sentence. Language is characterized by an infinite variety of references even to the same phenomenon. Studies of lexical nomination make it particularly obvious: e.g. one and the same person may be referred to as *John, you, I, this (young) man, my friend, Peter's son, her brother*, etc. The list of potential lexical names of a person is endless and is never complete.

The same feature of variation is typical of syntactic units. The set of possible variants is, however, finite, therefore the correlation “phenomenon – name” is here more regulated. To denote a situation, possible variants may include a sentence as an independent unit or a subordinate clause (*Mary taught English. When Mary taught English...*), a word combination (*Mary's teaching English*) and a word as sentence element (*English*). The most essential difference between them lies in predication, registered in the sentence and absent in word combinations and words. The last two correlate with reality only when used in a sentence or as a sentence.

Sentence parts, however, do correlate with reality, though in this case they are not independent. In the sentence *I enjoyed your e-mails*, each lexical word denotes phenomena of reality. Still, this correspondence may be formed only within a sentence.

### 3. Sentence as central syntactic unit

In syntax (and even in grammar), the sentence is the central unit, since it is the ultimate product of language.

In the hierarchy "morpheme – word – sentence part – sentence", the sentence tops the pyramid, since the rest of the hierarchy serves, in the long run, to form the sentence. In other words, these elements are used to construct sentences, whereas the sentence performs a different, communicative function, since it is a structural-communicative unit.

If we recognize the sentence as central unit of syntactic (and even linguistic) analysis, there appears the question concerning the status of forms larger than the sentence. How should we treat paragraphs or texts? Is the sentence the ultimate or an intermediate unit? Existence of texts and paragraphs may not be questioned. However, they may not be interpreted as structural language units, since texts have no strict and regular structural characteristics. There are no text patterns. None of the structural-semantic means, used to introduce sentences into texts (e.g. anaphora, representation, etc.), are text-specific, since they perform certain functions in the sentence as well, i.e. in text their use is not different but extended.

Texts may not be considered structural language units, since unlike morphemes, words, sentence parts and sentences, texts are not characterized by any categorical correlation in reality.

Thus, the central status of the sentence is accepted in language research.

The sentence is a broad notion that covers various sentence constructions – from one-word to complex. Speaking about the central role of the sentence, we mean, first of all, simple sentences, i.e. constructions with one predication. The simple sentence meets all criteria, put forward to the structural and communicative unit. Meanwhile, it is a foundation for all other syntactic constructions of various complexity. Therefore, taking into account brevity and semantic transparency of the simple sentence, we use it as a sample for describing "sentence as such".

Another important issue is correlation between the notions "sentence" and "utterance".

Being a communicative unit, the sentence in communication realizes its potential properties, i.e. becomes actualized in speech. For example, *It's*

*stuff* here may just state the fact, but under certain conditions it may be used as inducement to act, equivalent to the sentence *Open the window*. Actualized sentences, i.e. utterances, acquire additional characteristics. Meanwhile, utterances contain only the potential of the sentence. Thus, every utterance (i.e. actualized sentence) is a speech realization of a language unit – sentence. Therefore, central status of the sentence is not denied. (We shall not further the analysis of sentence actualization, since this type of research is carried out within pragmalinguistics.)

### 4. Sentence as multidimensional phenomenon

The sentence is the most complex language unit. Its complexity stems from the multitude of its components whose number is not structurally limited: the sentence may be endlessly long and any sentence may be prolonged though the number of elements within every sentence is finite. The complexity of the sentence also results from the multidimensional relations between its components. These are relations between sentence parts and relations connecting components of word combinations as well as relations of linear sequence of sentence elements and roles played by separate components in sentence or word combination meanings. And finally, the sentence complexity stems from the multitude of its semantic and formal correlation. As a result, the sentence should be analyzed only after its various aspects have been defined.

The sentence, being a language unit and a sign, is characterized by form and meaning. The sentence form is specific. The sentence usually consists of a number of components (since one-member sentences are rather rare). Thus, it is important to study the process of sentence-construction. In other words, we should clarify the difference between the sentence and a set of words. This aspect of the sentence is called structural.

Formal markers of grammatical meanings also require analysis. Affirmation vs negation, imperative meaning vs interrogative meaning – these as well as other meanings should be discussed within syntactic study of the sentence. Formal markers of meanings are also part of the structural aspect of the sentence.

The second aspect of the sentence – semantic – has been touched upon above. Semantic properties characterize sentence components: subordinate clauses and sentence parts. Certain semantic relations exist between parts

of the complex sentence. And finally, alongside of the functional-semantic meanings "object" or "adverbial modifier", etc., sentence elements may be classified according to such role meanings as "agent", "patient", "instrument", etc. (see p. p. 48–51). Both semantic roles and role configurations are included in semantic sentence study.

The sentence may also be considered from the pragmatic point of view. Pragmatics means, roughly speaking, use of sentences in speech acts, in communication. The sentence is a language unit that performs a very important function, i.e. it is used as main unit of verbal communication.

As a result, one may classify sentences choosing various criteria: structure (complete – incomplete, extended – unextended, compound – composite sentences), semantics (declarative – interrogative – imperative sentences) or pragmatics (directive, commissive, assertive, quesitive, performative sentences, etc.).

The three aspects – structural, semantic and pragmatic – form a trichotomy that correlates with form, meaning and usage.

## 5. Classifications of sentences

As it has been mentioned above, the three aspects lay the foundation for sentence classifications. The classifications are based, correspondingly, on sentence structure, sentence meaning and pragmatic peculiarities. Here we shall not dwell on pragmatic features of sentences, since it constitutes the subject of a special branch of linguistics – pragmalinguistics rather than syntax.

There are many structural characteristics that potentially may be chosen to form a structural classification. Thus, one may distinguish **one- and two-member sentences**, **complete and incomplete sentences**, **verbal and nominal sentences**. These and other classifications describe objective language reality and each of them is equally valid and rightful.

According to another structural classification, sentences are divided into **simple and composite**: a simple sentence contains only one predication, whereas a composite sentence consists of two (or more) predications. The detailed analysis of both simple and composite sentences will be given below.

It is important, however, to find a quality that may both characterize all the sentences and be the basis for sentence differentiation. This quality may be modality taken in its broad sense. If, by definition, the sentence is characterized by predication, it is logical to take predication for the basis of the

most general structural classification. Sentences with different modality differ remarkably when their structure is concerned. The table below presents the classification.

sentences						
sentences proper				quasi-sentences		
declarative <i>Sally sings</i>	interrogative <i>Does Sally sing</i>	imperative <i>If Sally sang</i>	optative <i>Sing</i>	vocative <i>Sally</i>	interjectional <i>Oh</i>	meta-communicative <i>Hello</i>

**Sentences proper** are information of something, they have (with the exception of nominal sentences) the subject and the predicate and differ from each other only when the way of their correlation with reality is concerned (in the examples, it is different representations of *Sally's singing*).

**Quasi-sentences** do not contain a message and have no subject-predicate foundation. These are either forms of address (vocatives) or interjectional sentences expressing emotions or, finally, unchangeable formula-like sentences that serve to establish or to terminate verbal contact.

Let us discuss each of the two groups in more detail.

Among sentences proper, **declarative** and **interrogative sentences** may be united into a certain subgroup, since they both organize information exchange: interrogative sentences inquire, while declarative sentences provide information.

The two other types of sentences (**optative** and **imperative**) have in common the speaker's attitude to a certain event. The difference between them lies in that the optative sentence expresses unrealized volition, whereas the imperative sentence is aimed to induce the hearer to perform an action.

The relation between declarative and interrogative sentences is more complicated than the comments above may suggest. The interrogative sentence is not a mere question but it usually delivers certain affirmative information. Thus, the sentence *Why did you do that?* conveys the message *You did that*. Informative content of declarative sentences, on the other hand, may vary. For example, the declarative sentence as an answer to the question may replicate its affirmative part. As a result, the declarative sentence does not contain any new information: *Was he at home? – Yes, he was at home.*

Optative and imperative sentences contain different verb forms: *If he had confessed, he would have been released on bail. Don't speak so loudly!*

In grammars, the list of sentence types, distinguished on the basis of purpose of utterance, usually contains only declarative, interrogative and imperative sentences. The examples given above suggest that, firstly, this classification is incomplete. Secondly, this classification appears structural, since inducement may be expressed by declarative and interrogative sentences as well (e.g. *Can you tell me the way to the post office please?*) and still they are not treated as imperative sentences.

Each of the sentence types is characterized by specific peculiarities: word order, interrogative pronoun, verb forms, etc. One of the important differentiating means seems to be intonation. Thus, modifying intonation, one may transform a declarative sentence into an interrogative one: *You are not kidding?*

Quasi-sentences are granted the status of the sentence only because in speech they may occur independently as the sentence and are intonationally similar to sentences. They may, however, enter the sentence structure, functioning as syntagmatically independent elements. Deprived of their nominative content, quasi-sentences may deliver only implicit meaning of qualitative evaluation. Thus, *Sally!* pronounced with a certain intonation, may mean admiration, indignation, approval, reproach, etc. The interpretation, however, depends on the context and is not structurally conditioned. Therefore, the vocative *Sally!* remains a quasi-sentence deprived of structural and categorical semantic characteristics of the sentence proper. Due to their conventionality and lack of nominative meaning, quasi-sentences are easily replaced with non-verbal signals. Thus, instead of addressing by name, a person may draw the partner's attention by coughing or tapping on the shoulder. Many emotions are displayed with the help of facial expressions or gestures. Many meta-communicative sentences correspond to traditional gestures that are treated as functional equivalents of language signals.

Intonation may make any of the above mentioned sentence type particularly emotional. If it is the case, sentences become exclamatory. Exclamation is, therefore, an optional rather than structural property of a sentence. Some sentence types are regularly associated with exclamation due to traditional punctuation where the mark of exclamation is used in imperative, vocative and some other sentence types. In speech, however, these sentences are not

always emotional and, consequently, the speaker may utter them without any intonational emphasis.

Emotional colouring of the utterance results not only from specific exclamatory intonation. There are structural patterns that are inherently, structurally emotional: *What a beautiful day! You little monster!* Thus, emotional colouring and exclamation are different sentence characteristics. The former contributes to the content of the sentence, whereas the latter refers to prosodic peculiarities.

It is necessary here to dwell on the problem of interrogative and negative sentences.

Grammatical meaning and form of **interrogative sentences** as well as their pragmatic characteristics may vary. Therefore, one may say that interrogative sentences are distinguished only on the ground of the most general formal and semantic properties. The essential formal properties are specific interrogative intonation, inverted word order, interrogative pronouns each of which is distributed differently in different types of interrogative sentences. As to their content, interrogative sentences are characterized by the idea of an informational lacuna expressed structurally: *Where is the book?* The formal properties mentioned above may occur in various combinations: cf. *How long have you been waiting?* (inversion, interrogative verb form, interrogative pronoun); *What is it?* (inversion, interrogative pronoun); *Why not?* (interrogative pronoun); *You don't like my cooking, do you?* (tag question attached); *Can you do me a favour?* (intonation, inversion, etc.).

Interrogative intonation is here the main means. It is interrogative intonation that may neutralize structural properties of a declarative sentence transforming any of its parts into an interrogative sentence: cf. *You are sure about it?*

Diversity of interrogative sentences gives rise to a variety of their classifications. The two main types of interrogative sentences are the **general question** and the **special question**. They differ semantically and formally.

The general question is formally characterized by absence of pronominal interrogative words and specific interrogative intonation. It is rather difficult to characterize the general question from the point of view of its content. In comparison with declarative sentences, the general question seems to be an inquiry about the trustworthiness of the new information conveyed in the utterance. Thus, the general question to the statement *She typed a report*



will be *Did she type a report?* If the rheme of the statement is *a report*, the question will be *Did she type a report?* If, however, the rheme of the statement is *she*, then the stress will be placed on a different word *Did she type a report?*, i.e. the latter variant means *Was it her who typed a report?*

This interpretation of the general question is, however, rather narrow, since, firstly, some general questions are not immediately connected with the preceding statement. Thus, the general question may concern a sequence following the statement: *"I have been working non-stop this week."* – *"Aren't you going out tonight?"* – *"No, I'm staying at home to relax."* Secondly, the general question may have no connection whatsoever with any preceding statements. Consider, for example, the sentence starting off the conversation: *May I ask you a question?*

Some linguists (for example, Quirk) have tried to characterize interrogative sentences by classifying answers. From the point of view of the linguist, so-called general questions presuppose *yes* or *no* answers. This is, however, an indirect explanation. It remains unclear which sentences presuppose this answer: *Do I sound bored?* – *You do!* On the other hand, *yes/no* may be used in contexts other than questions: *He wanted to be always the first.* – *Yes, he tried to be the best.*

The **general question** may be characterized as a question to predication, i.e. it contains an inquiry about the connection between the subject and the quality predicated to this subject. The answer to the general question either supports or refutes this connection and therefore may be reduced to the affirmative word *yes* or the negative word *no*. Modal words (*certainly, maybe, perhaps, of course*), frequently occurring in answers to general questions, prove that the general question is an inquiry about predication.

The **special question** contains an inquiry about information of a definite type: *Where are you going?* – *Back home.* The required information does not concern predication – it refers to its lexico-semantic content. Since lexico-semantic content is very diverse, signals requiring information should be diverse as well. As a result, the function of the signals is performed by interrogative pronouns such as *what, which, when, how, whose*, etc., that usually occur in the initial position in the sentence. Therefore, the distinguishing feature of special questions is interrogative pronouns. It is not surprising that special questions are sometimes referred to as pronominal (whereas general questions are called non-pronominal).

To consider any other types of interrogative sentences alongside of general and special questions seems illogical, as they all appear to be modifications of the two main types, though since Henry Sweet's time, British linguists have been distinguishing between the three types of interrogative sentences: general, special and alternative (Henry Sweet provided the following sentence to illustrate the alternative question: *Is he an Oxford or a Cambridge man?*). It is obvious, however, that **alternative questions** are a modified general question, since they both convey an inquiry about the subject and its predicated quality. Unlike the typical general question, alternative questions offer two qualities, one of which should be chosen for affirmation. The idea of choice (alternative) may be introduced in special questions as well: cf. *Whom do you trust – Peter or Mary?* Thus, alternative is an additional element, occurring both in general and special questions. Therefore, it would be logical to consider the "general – special" division to be primary, while each of them may contain the idea of alternative.

From the point of view of content, the so-called **disjunctive interrogative sentences (tag-questions)** – *You have met John, haven't you?* – belongs to the class of general questions. Structurally, they analytically represent an inquiry about predication (expressed by the interrogative part) and affirmation that occurs as focus of the inquiry (expressed in the affirmative part). The difference between the two parts in terms of affirmation/negation makes the contrast between the statement and the inquiry more perceptible.

The problem of **negative sentences**, briefly stated, is this: do negative sentences constitute a special grammatical type, and if so, what are their grammatical features? In other words, if we say, "This is a negative sentence," do we thereby give it a grammatical description?

The difficulty of the problem lies in the peculiarity of negative expressions in Modern English. Let us take two sentences, both negative in meaning: (1) *She did not know what to say* and (2) *No one believed her words*. They are obviously different in their ways of expressing negation. In (1) there is a special form of the predicate verb (*did...know*) which is due to the negative character of the sentence and is in so far a grammatical sign of its being negative. In (2), on the other hand, there is no grammatical feature to show that the sentence is negative. Indeed, there is no grammatical difference whatsoever between the sentences *Nobody believed her words* and *Everybody believed her words*. The difference lies entirely in the meaning

of the pronouns functioning as subject, that is to say, it is lexical rather than grammatical. The same is true of such sentences as *I saw nobody* and *I saw everybody*. On the other hand, in the sentence *I did not see anybody*, there is again a grammatical feature, viz. the form of the predicate (*did...see*).

The conclusion drawn from these observations by some linguists is as follows: since in a number of cases negative sentences are not characterized as such by any grammatical peculiarities, they are not a grammatical type. They are a logical type, which may or may not be reflected in their grammatical structure. Accordingly, the division of sentences into affirmative and negative should not be included into their grammatical classification.

Predicate relations between the subject and the predicate may be refuted. If it is the case, the sentence is called negative. Negation is a marked member of the "affirmation – negation" opposition, since there is a grammatical marker of negation, the particle *not*. Each structural sentence type may be negative or affirmative.

The sentence is called negative only if negation concerns predication. This type of negation is called **general**. It is concentrated in the predicate, in its finite part: *You don't know the truth. James can't make a mistake. Partial negation* may refer to any sentence part except the predicate: *Not a word was spoken. I live not far from here.*

The possibility of parallel use of general and partial negation within a sentence proves that these are two different types of negation: *Oh, but Helen isn't a girl without no interests...* (E. M. Forster) or even within a predicate *She cannot very well not bow* (E. M. Forster).

It is obvious that the rule "one sentence – one negation" needs specifying. In the English language, unlike in Ukrainian, general and partial negations interact within an elementary sentence. Partial negation of any non-verbal components of an elementary sentence excludes the possibility to use general negation and vice versa, general negation makes impossible to use negation with other components. Thus, we should speak of the elementary sentence rather than of the sentence in general. We should take into consideration that the markers of negation may not be restricted exclusively to the negative particle *not* but may be incorporated in a morphemic structure of a word: *nobody* = negative particle + *anybody*, *nowhere* = negative particle + *where*, etc.

The difference between general and partial negation, unless we take the purely formal criterion of the negative particle as a part of the predicate, appears very relative. On the one hand, general negation in a compound predicate may be semantically bound with one of the components. Thus, according to Quirk, in the sentence *The girl isn't / now / a student / at a / large / university*, negation in different semantic interpretations may refer to any of the marked elements. On the other hand, many sentences with partial negation are semantic equivalents of sentences with general negation. Cf. the possibility to transform *You can do nothing about it* <-> *You can't do anything about it*. The sentence *It was not Peter* seems ambiguous, since the negative particle may refer to several components. As a result, negation here may be interpreted both as partial and as general.

Negative-interrogative sentences (general questions) should be discussed with particular attention. Affirmative interrogative sentences differ from negative interrogative ones not only because the latter contain negation. Negative-interrogative sentences imply that the speaker assumes the situation in question highly likely to take place. The answer "No" to such a question contradicts the speaker's expectations. Thus, *Didn't she leave a message?* unlike the question *Did she leave a message?* – is not just an inquiry but an implication that the speaker assumes that she did leave a message. The question without negation does not convey these implications.

Special questions (unless these are interrogative sentences that repeat the negative form of the preceding declarative sentence in a dialogue: *I don't know. – What don't you know?*) may not be negative. Such sentences as *\*What haven't you read? \*What exactly don't you mean?* may hardly occur in communication.

## 6. Sentence structure

Before we proceed with our study of sentence structure it will be logical to consider the relation between the two notions, namely, sentence and clause. Among different types of sentences treated in a syntactic investigation, it is naturally the simple sentence that comes first. It is with specimens of simple sentences that we study such categories as sentence parts, principal and secondary; homogeneous parts, word order, etc. As long as we limit ourselves to the study of simple sentences, the notion "clause" need not occur at all.

When, however, we come to composite sentences (that is, sentences consisting of two or more clauses), we have to deal with the notions of principal clause (head clause) and subordinate clause. Everything we have said about the simple sentence will also hold for clauses: a clause also consists of sentence parts (principal and secondary), it can also be a two-member or a one-member clause, etc.

So then we will take it for granted that whatever is said about the simple sentence will also apply to an independent clause within the composite sentence.

The study of sentence structure begins with sentence segmentation, i.e. division of the sentence into constituents.

There are a number of ways to conduct the procedure in grammar. It may be the very fact of multitude of possibilities to segment the sentence that make Hjelmslev doubt the importance of segmentation into constituents for linguistic analysis. However, linguistically justified segmentation contributes to research and appears a necessary stage in investigation. Notably, many of well-known methods to study sentence structure are named after sentence constituents distinguished in segmentation and taken as fundamental in a given theory: cf. analysis of parts of the sentence, word combination analysis, analysis of immediate constituents, chain analysis etc.

Particular attention paid to sentence components does not result from merely heuristic tasks, but have objective foundation: sentences are not given to language speakers ready-made but are every time "assembled", constructed by language speakers of words that acquire in the sentence functional syntactic meanings. As sentences differ structurally, it is important to establish the top and bottom boundaries of sentence segmentation. Establishing the boundaries will guarantee that researchers will not occupy themselves with units of some other language level.

The top limit does not present much difficulty as the sentence boundaries are definite. This is a predication unit (in traditional grammar the term clause is used which refers to parts of compound as well as complex sentences). The item of the bottom boundary may be taken the word, which results from our concentration on predominantly graphic image of the sentence where sentence is segmented into separate words. Still, it is not so. Possible transformations of linear sentence organization (*Jack never failed us.* – *Never did Jack fail us*), substitution variants (*at home* <-> *here*, *failed*

<-> *will fail*, etc.), correlation between elementary semantic configurations and parts of the sentence as well as some other peculiarities justify the claim that the elementary syntactic unit is equivalent of the part of the sentence. Thus, the parts of the sentence are the bottom boundary in sentence segmentation. If one goes on with segmentation, we enter the realm of components of the sentence parts, represented by words, word forms or morphological components of words.

The sentence as language unit functioning in communication must, on the one hand, reflect all possible, ever-changing situations, while, on the other hand, it must follow general structural patterns and semantic configurations that would systematize speakers' conception of the situations. Only if all these requirements are met, language can be an effective means of communication and mental activity. The parts of the sentence as sentence constituents are naturally expected to provide realization of these functions.

The part of the sentence preserving its syntactic function in all possible sentences (e.g. the subject as source or object of an action, the predicate as quality predicated to the subject, etc.) may be expressed by different lexemes, it may correlate with new objects, their qualities, etc. As a result, the part of the sentence provides realization of infinite variety of situations with the help of a finite variety of language means. Meanwhile, finite, historically and socially honed set of sentence patterns presents every new situation – with its participants and their relations – as something typical and therefore known.

The part of the sentence has both meaning and form. The meaning corresponds to its syntactic function, i.e. the relation between the given syntactic element and other syntactic elements in a syntactic sequence. The form of the sentence part presupposes not only syntactically meaningful morphological word form but also its part-of-speech properties, its position in the sentence, absence/presence of function words, intonation – in a nutshell, all the features that help to identify a word or a word group as having a certain syntactic meaning. Thus, the syntactic form, unlike the morphological form, consists of many components.

The variety of possible syntactic and semantic configurations is infinite. Grammar may only describe acceptable combinations of word classes and the most wide-spread configurations. Their combinatorial potential is realized in speech-generating process.

## 6.1. Sentence parts

Like sentences, parts of the sentence are produced in speech. In this sense, we have to agree with Gardiner's claim that the term "parts of speech" should be reserved for what is traditionally called "part of the sentence", since it is them that appear in speech. Nouns, adjectives, verbs are not "parts of speech" but rather "parts of language" as they do not belong to speech but to language as such, as they represent certain word classes.

The theory of parts of the sentence is inseparable from the sentence theory. Division within the sentence is, in fact, division of thought, expressed in the sentence. Every part of the sentence plays a specific part in order to express the idea, i.e. it refers in a specific way to predication. It is the function of this part of the sentence and its value in the sentence that determines its place among other sentence constituents.

According to the theory proposed by A.I. Smirnitkiy, the function of a part of the sentence is determined by the content of relations formed between words in the sentence. The content is conditioned, for the most part, by relations between meanings of words and meanings of syntactic means. It may be "thingness", process, quality, circumstance. Thus, the object is characterized by the content "thingness", the attribute – "quality", the adverbial modifier – "circumstance".

Consequently, roughly speaking, the content expressed by parts of the sentence corresponds to lexical categorical meanings of word classes – parts of speech: the noun, the verb, the adjective, and the adverb. Therefore, we may claim a certain correlation between sentence parts and parts of speech. However, since a part of the sentence is not a word as such but is formed by interaction of words with other language units, parts of speech and parts of the sentence are not similar.

Thus, the relation between parts of speech and parts of the sentence results from the distinction between speech and language. Parts of speech may not be differentiated without reference to their functions and the relations formed by a word with other words.

Parts of the sentence produced in speech, in their turn, are inseparable from parts of speech. They are not, however, identical with them, since they are formed in speech as a result of interaction with other language units.

What elements make up the system of sentence members? Their nomenclature is well-established and hardly needs any substantiation. It is com-

mon in grammatical theory to distinguish between **main** (also known as **principal**) and **secondary** sentence parts. Besides these two types, there is one more – elements which are said to stand outside the sentence structure. There are two generally recognized main parts of the sentence – the **subject** and the **predicate**. As to the secondary parts, their number varies slightly. Among them we usually find the **object** (with its subdivisions), the **attribute**, and the **adverbial modifier**. Other secondary parts of the sentence are also sometimes mentioned – the **apposition** (its relation to the attribute is variously interpreted), the **objective predicative**, and occasionally some other parts, too.

It should be mentioned that, to a certain extent, this system correlates with the system of parts of speech, but it is only to a certain extent, since even the seemingly monofunctional adverb may be used attributively, e.g. *the then president, essentially a bachelor*. The two systems cannot be absolutely parallel, since structural and semantic nature of some morphological classes inherently presuppose polyfunctioning in syntax. Thus, the noun denoting a thing may occur as subject, object, attribute and predicative.

The traditional division into **principal and secondary parts of the sentence** is quite relative, since so-called secondary parts, as well as principal ones, may form a structural minimum of the sentence (cf., e.g. the subject and the object). The division, however, is based on the important property of sentence parts, namely capability of a part to form the predicate core of the sentence.

If one grounds the classification on the role played by parts of the sentence in the structural-semantic minimum of the sentence, then the majority of objects and some adverbial modifiers (it depends on the verb-predicate) are just as important and necessary as the subject and the predicate. Omission of objects and adverbial modifiers in the sentences below makes them grammatically and semantically unmarked: *She closed the book. She was there.*

The distribution of sentence parts in the system will be different if they are considered in terms of their importance for functional sentence perspective. It is secondary sentence parts that appear communicatively essential (i.e. rhematic), whereas the subject and (to a lesser extent) the predicate make up the starting (i.e. thematic) point of the sentence.

Thus, elements of the system seem to be organized differently, if considered from different points of view. As a result, to describe parts of the

sentence as a system requires taking into account functions of the sentence parts and relations established between them. If the aspects mentioned above are taken into consideration, there may be distinguished three main groups of parts of the sentence.

The first group is formed by the subject and the predicate. The status of the subject and the predicate is distinct from the rest of the sentence members. It is the subject and the predicate that are interconnected and independent from any other sentence part, whereas the rest of the sentence elements may be traced through various links to the subject and the predicate. This hierarchy of dependences is quite obvious in the sentence *The little girl played lonely in the mornings in the tiny yard* (see table below):

girl	played		
little	lonely	in the mornings	in the yard
			tiny

The subject and the predicate (if the lexical positions of these sentence parts are properly filled) may suffice to form a sentence: *Sam nodded*.

The second group consists of objects and adverbial modifiers. The objects and the adverbial modifiers are always dependent sentence parts. They may be (and in the majority of cases are) verb-oriented, i.e. syntactically dependent on verbs. (The object may depend on the adjective as well. Yet, if it is the case, the adjective is used as predicative: *She is very good at trouble shooting*). The object and the adverbial modifier may be obligatory, i.e. they are necessary to make the elementary sentence structurally and semantically complete. Cf. the object and the adverbial modifier may not be dropped in the sentence *She treated her husband like a child*.

The third group is formed by the attribute. The attributes, being always dependent like the object and the adverbial modifier, differ from these secondary sentence parts in that they depend on the noun. Their non-verbal syntactic orientation proves that they belong to a different division within the sentence. Unlike the object and the adverbial modifier, the attribute is not part of the structural pattern of the sentence.

It seems difficult to formulate hard and fast rules for differentiation between sentence parts. The division into principal and secondary sentence parts appears relatively obvious. It is principal parts of the sentence that express the category of predicativity, whereas the secondary parts do not

contribute to its formation. Scholars have to face certain challenges. If the predicate is expressed by a verb, the differentiation between the subject and the predicate is based on morphological properties of words: the noun is the subject, the verb is the predicate. When the predicate consists of a link verb and a noun, it is sometimes difficult to distinguish between the predicate and the subject, since they may be inverted. Consider also the following example. What is the subject and what is the predicate in the sentence *Gossip wasn't what I meant*? If the sentence parts change places, it will not change the content of the sentence, cf. *What I meant wasn't gossip*. It is difficult to define either the former or the latter constructions. To define the syntactic status, one may hardly use either morphological or quantitative characteristics (it is mentioned sometimes that the predicate group is usually twice or four times larger than the subject group, though one should bear in mind that it is a tendency rather than a structural regularity and, therefore, cannot be a criterion for classifications).

Analyzing the communicative situation when the sentence above was uttered (*"How do you do, Miss Preyscott," Christine said. "I've heard of you." Marsha had glanced appraisingly from Peter to Christine. She answered coolly, "I expect, working in a hotel, you hear all kinds of gossip, Miss Francis. You do work here, don't you?" "Gossip wasn't what I meant," Christine acknowledged. (A. Hailey)*), one may notice peculiarities that help to identify syntactic value of the elements *gossip* and *what I meant*. The noun *gossip* has no referent, it means quality. These are all properties of noun occurring as predicatives. The subject of the message (i.e. the syntactic subject) is what Christine meant uttering *I've heard you*. The subject of the message is ascribed the quality of "not gossip". Thus, the sentence *Gossip wasn't what I meant* is an inverted variant of *What I meant wasn't gossip*. Back to the sentence *Gossip wasn't what I meant*, one may note that *gossip* is logically emphasized, which is not typical of the subject. (To stress the subject syntactically, one would re-structure the sentence following the pattern *It is N who/that...*). These are plausible arguments to back up the interpretation of *gossip* as predicative and *what I meant* as subject.

One of the disputable questions in the theory of sentence parts remains the issue of possible and, what is more important, necessary boundaries of inner differentiation of sentence parts. Shall we keep our research within few traditional types of the object or shall we advance the research? Shall

we complete the differentiation when we have distinguished the adverbial modifier of place or shall we distinguish between the adverbial modifier of place proper and the adverbial modifier of direction, or shall we go even beyond the division? More advanced analysis appears possible, since we may divide the adverbial modifiers of direction into limited and unlimited: cf. *toward the church* and *westward*. If yes, what is the basis for the detailed classification and how do the subgroups correlate between each other?

To differentiate between **secondary parts**, it is necessary to consider the way they are related to predication. As a result, one may establish a certain hierarchy. For example, secondary parts of the sentence may either join predication as independent units, developing the sentence as a whole, or they are introduced together with another part of the sentence as its component. The first type of secondary parts of the sentence is called **independent secondary parts of the sentence**. These are the object and the adverbial modifier. The second type of secondary parts of the sentence is referred to as **dependent** (the attribute).

It should be noted that while secondary parts of the sentence are obviously opposed to the principal parts of the sentence due to the absence of predication, it is difficult in some cases to draw a demarcation line between various types of non-predicative relation. The transition here may be gradual, as both the relations may grow more or less close. The reason for the variation lies in that semantically similar relations may be expressed in different ways, or vice versa – a part of the sentence may express different relations. Some of the combinations occur regularly and are typical. It gives grounds to claim certain categories within a group of secondary parts of the sentence. Thus, the attribute presupposes qualitative relations (“quality – its bearer”), the object delivers the “thing – process” relation, the adverbial modifier is associated with adverbial relations. However, combinations of these diverse meanings are quite common. It is then that one may observe intermediate, less typical cases. It does not mean that the classification should be turned down altogether. It only signals that the differentiation between secondary parts of the sentence is to a certain extent relative and reflects combinations that occur in speech more frequently.

The observations above may be illustrated with the following example. It is well-known that the traditional division into secondary parts of the sentence does not define unambiguously the adverbial modifier. This category

is filled by members that differ drastically in form, meaning, types of relations, position in the sentence. They are treated as adverbial modifiers only because they refer to the verb without denoting an object of an action.

Vague boundaries of this category result, no doubt, from vague criteria applied in the traditional syntactic analysis. Meanwhile, the diversity within this syntactic class springs obviously from mistaken identification of different parts of the sentence. Academician Shcherba, focusing his attention on the Russian language, has pointed out that the so-called adverbial modifiers of manner, denoting a quality of a process and expressed by qualitative adverbs, are mistakenly treated as adverbial modifiers because they are, in fact, a specific type of the attribute. Another outstanding scientist, Smirnit-skiy, who focused his research on English, agrees that adverbial modifiers of manner do differ semantically from such typical adverbial modifiers as adverbial modifiers of time and place (direction) and, consequently, should be treated as attributes. Like the attribute, the adverbial modifier of manner occurs in close attributive relation with a modified word and expresses qualitative meaning. Such “adverbial modifiers” do not function as independent parts of the sentence that contribute to the whole sentence (like it is the case with, for example, adverbial modifiers of time and place) but are rather introduced into the sentence with the modified verb and may be regarded, consequently, as part of the modified element (verb). Smirnit-skiy supports this claim with a number of arguments:

- 1) in English, unlike circumstantial adverbial modifiers, such adverbs regularly precede the modified verb, i.e. in the position typical of attributes;
- 2) the adverb and the verb make up a certain semantic unity, whose main meaning is concentrated in the verb, while the adverb only specifies its meaning and does not have any semantic independence, since its relation to the verb enters the sentence ready-made.

Thus, it may hardly be doubted that in English, the adverbial modifier of manner in a pre-position to a verb appears syntactically related to adjectives, modifying nouns, and must be therefore treated as attribute. In other words, qualitative adverbs exist as part of the complex formed by the verb. The complex may be regarded as a unity. These adverbs tend to be placed near the verb and form a rhythmic and intonational group. All in all, the role of the qualitative adverb in the sentence may be defined as “verbal at-

tribute". At the same time, it is already a less distinct, less typical attribute, acquiring some properties peculiar to adverbial modifiers.

These indistinct intermediate cases seem to be inevitable. They result from the very nature of parts of the sentence as produced in speech and created from interaction of various language units. In cases when interacting syntactic, morphological and lexical properties coincide, there appear "classical" parts of the sentence. When they diverge, there occur less clear, borderline cases, combining properties of different parts of the sentence.

In practice, differentiation in linguistic analysis, or level of analysis, is limited by a researcher according to his objectives and capabilities. The latter means scientific ideas and concepts of contemporary linguistics rather than individual capabilities of a certain scholar (though they are important). Thus, school grammars provide the most general description of sentence parts, while scientific grammars and scientific research contain more detailed and differentiating analysis of the same subject.

### 6.1.1. Principal sentence parts

As it has been mentioned above, the status of the subject and the predicate in the sentence is unique. They express the category of predicativity; it is the essential structural and semantic property of the sentence. Strictly speaking, predicativity is formally expressed by the verb-predicate. Since the forms appear and exist on the basis of unity and simultaneously opposition of the subject and the predicate, some linguists claim that the subject indirectly expresses predicativity.

The interaction between these two sentence parts is also unique, since neither of them is the head or a dependent element. As it has been mentioned above, the relation between the subject and the predicate is called **interdependence**.

Meanwhile, the rest of the sentence parts are directly or indirectly subordinated to the subject or the predicate. Consequently, the first and basic division of the sentence into immediate constituents is carried out along the lines of the subject group and the predicate group.

The subject and the predicate are the only parts of the sentence that always constitute the structural and semantic minimum of the sentence. In English, only two-member sentences are possible. In imperative sentences, the subject (the pronoun *you*) is not usually named but implied. This claim is supported by imperative sentences with the explicit subject such as *You*

*back off!* A similar explication is found in imperative sentences with reflexive pronouns: *Dress yourself!*

#### The subject

The subject simultaneously completes and opposes the predicate. The subject performs two syntactic functions: categorical and relating.

The categorical function of the subject lies in that it names the thing or person whose property is indicated by the predicate. The compulsory two-member structure of the English sentence makes the subject an essential sentence constituent.

The relating function of the subject presupposes that the subject is the starting element in consecutive syntagmatic development of the sentence. The subject is the left-hand surrounding of the predicate that is opposed to its right-hand surrounding, to the object or objects.

As part of the sentence, the subject is formed only in opposition to the predicate. If the predicate is missing, the noun in the common case is not necessarily the subject of the sentence. (Components of one-member sentences such as *Night* or *She* are not subjects but elements that combine the features of the subject and the predicate.) On the other hand, it is the quantitative meaning of the noun-subject that defines the verb form when its number is concerned (cf. *The government have not agreed on the economic policy of the state* and *The bread and cheese was brought in*).

In discussing problems of the subject, we must mention the argument about sentences of the following type: *It took Mary some time to understand the situation*. Two views have been put forward concerning such sentences. One lies in that the pronoun *it* at the beginning of the sentence is the formal subject, and the real subject is the Infinitive (in this particular case, *to understand*). According to the other viewpoint, *it* is the subject of the sentence, and the Infinitive – an apposition to it.

#### The predicate

The categorical nature of the predicate is defined in its relation to the subject. The predicate expresses a predicate property of the thing or the person named by the subject. The categorical function of the predicate is to express this property.

Besides categorical, i.e. predicate function, the predicate performs the relating function, since it appears a mediator-link between the subject and the right-hand elements – the object and the adverbial modifier. Thus, in re-

lation to sentences with the Passive and Active Voice, verbs form a specific axis around which the subject and the object "rotate". Cf:

*The secretary sent the e-mail ten minutes ago.*

*The e-mail was sent by the secretary ten minutes ago.*

The relating function of the predicate, performed in relation with the subject and the adverbial modifier, is less obvious, but it does exist. It is due to this function that sentences with adverbial modifiers expressed by qualitative adverbs may occur. The sentence *The bay slept quietly, quietly*, taken formally, states a property of the action, but it is, in fact, a property of the substance. Such sentences are easily transformed into sentences with corresponding adjectives used as predicatives (*The bay was quiet*) or attributes (*The quiet bay slept*).

The predicate expresses two types of structural meanings: categorical meaning, i.e. the meaning peculiar to the predicate as sentence part and meanings stemming from the grammatical categories of forms of the finite verb (the meanings of Mood, Tense, Voice, Number and Person). Parallel expression of the two types of meanings in a word is possible only in a simple predicate: *He nodded*.

Though grammatical descriptions present verbal predicates and nominal predicates as isolated, they may, in fact, correlate. The correlation comes to the fore in constructions where these two types of the predicate share lexico-semantic meaning: the verb (in a verbal predicate) and the predicative (in a compound nominal predicate) are derivatives from the same stem: *Mary paled* – *Mary went pale*. The given predicates share lexical and structural meanings but the latter is distributed differently in each of the predicates.

Thus, the two main types of the predicate are **verbal** and **nominal**. They are elementary, i.e. they may not be turned into formally or semantically simpler structures.

Simple predicates may turn into **compound verbal** or **compound nominal predicates**.

	verbal	nominal	phraseological	mixed
elementary	+	+	+	+
compound	+	+	+	+

Most of the predicate types mentioned here do not call for any comment. However, something has to be said on the two questions: the simple nominal predicate and the limits of the compound verbal predicate.

The **simple nominal predicate**, that is, a predicate consisting merely of a noun or an adjective, without a link verb, is rare in English, but it is nevertheless a living type and must be recognized as such.

The spheres of its use appear to be mainly two. One of these is found in sentences where the immediate surrounding of a subject noun and a predicate noun or an adjective is used to suggest the impossibility or absurdity of the idea that they might be connected. Sentences with this kind of simple nominal predicate are always exclamatory, that is, they are pronounced with the exclamatory intonation, and have an exclamation mark in writing. For instance, the sentence from a play by Shaw, *My ideas obsolete!!!!!!* (with seven exclamation marks) expresses the speaker's indignation at hearing his ideas characterized as obsolete by a young man (O. Jespersen calls such sentences "nexus of deprecation"). Some scholars argue that such sentences should be treated as elliptical, whereas their opponents believe it would not do to refer to them as elliptical, since the link verb cannot be added without completely changing the meaning of the sentence.

Another type of sentences with a simple nominal predicate is that in which the predicative comes first, the subject next, and no link verb is either used or possible. Such sentences seem to occur chiefly in colloquial style, for example: *Your daughter, such a beauty*. This is a sentence with a simple nominal predicate. It represents a case of inversion, and the style is very colloquial. The phrase expressing the theme comes first, and after it comes the word representing the rheme. If changed into the usual compound nominal predicate pattern, the sentence would run: "*Your daughter is such a beauty*"; the meaning would be quite the same as in the original sentence but the specific colloquial colouring would be gone altogether.

Now we come to the second question, about the limits of the **compound verbal predicate**. It arises from the fact that a rather considerable number of verbs can be followed by an infinitive, some of them with, others without the particle *to*. Among such verbs are: *shall, will, should, would, can, may, must* (without *to*); *ought, begin, start, continue, commence, finish*, etc. (with *to*).

The relation between these phrases and parts of the sentence is of course not the same in all cases. We can at once eliminate the phrases "*shall, should, will, would* + Infinitive", which constitute Tense or Mood forms of the verb. Thus, the phrase *shall write* is a form of the verb *write* (as it does not differ from the forms *write, writes, wrote* in its lexical meaning) and, consequent-



ly, it is a simple verbal predicate. The phrases with the verbs *can, may, must, ought* constitute a compound verbal predicate (this is almost universally recognized). But the phrases with *begin, start, continue, etc.* give rise to doubts and controversies. On the whole, there are two views expressed on this matter. According to one of them, all such phrases are also a compound predicate: the finite verb (*start, etc.*) does not denote any action of its own, it merely denotes a phase in the development of that action, namely its beginning, continuation, etc.; consequently, it is argued, the phrase as a whole constitutes the predicate of the sentence: it is a compound verbal predicate, just as in the case of *can, may, or ought*.

This argument, as we will see, is based on semantic reasons: its decisive point is, that the finite verb does not denote any special action: it only denotes the subject's attitude to it, or a phase of the action itself. Thus, the predicates formed by a verb denoting a phase (i.e. start, continuation or end) of an action and an Infinitive (or in some cases a Gerund) is called **compound aspect predicate**.

Another question of a similar kind arises with reference to sentences containing idioms of the pattern "verb + noun", e.g. *to make a mistake, to make up one's mind, to get rid, to take notice, etc.* Here two different approaches are possible, and the approach chosen will predetermine all conclusions to be arrived at in considering concrete examples.

One approach would be to say that if a phrase is a phraseological unit, that is, if its meaning is not equal to the sum of the meanings of its components, it cannot be divided into two parts of the sentence, and has to be taken as one part, namely the predicate. The **phraseological predicate** is thus expressed by a phrase that contains a noun denoting an action and a transitive verb: *He gave a gasp, He took a shower, He made up his mind.*

The other approach would be to say that such phraseological phenomena belong to the sphere of lexicology alone and are irrelevant for grammar, that is, for sentence analysis.

The choice between the two approaches depends entirely on the view one takes of grammar, its place in linguistics, and its relation to lexicology. It does not seem possible to prove that one of the approaches is right and the other wrong.

One of the arguments in favour of the view that phraseological units should be treated as one part of the sentence, is this. If the phrase "verb

+ noun" is not a phraseological unit, a separate question can be put to the noun, that is, a question to which the noun supplies an answer. For instance, if we take the sentence *He takes books* the question would be, *What does he take?* and the answer would be supplied by the word *books*, which, accordingly, is a separate sentence part, namely, the object. If, on the other hand, we take the sentence, *He takes a shower*, it would not be possible to ask the question, *What does he take?* and to give *shower* as an answer to it. Consequently, according to this view, we cannot say that *shower* is a separate part of the sentence, and we must conclude that the phrase *take a shower* as a whole is the phraseological predicate.

However, this sort of argument is not binding. The method of asking questions, though widely used in school language teaching, is not a scientifically valid method of syntactic study. In a number of cases the choice of the question is arbitrary, and there are even cases when no question at all can be asked. Still, the phraseological predicates have a definite specific feature: they all denote a single action.

Thus, the decision between the two alternatives presented above rests with the scholar. This is, and most probably will always be, a matter of opinion rather than of proved knowledge. Whatever the approach may be, the constructions of the *to give a gasp* type become more frequently used. Some linguists explain this tendency noting that speakers perceive nouns as more concrete and prefer them to more abstract verbs. There may be a different explanation. The grammatical meaning of the *to give a gasp* constructions is complementary in the English verb system: the constructions predominantly mean single actions that cannot be expressed by any other grammatical means. Increasing frequency of the constructions goes in line with the tendency to analytical structure of the English language.

Before we proceed further, let us consider another case also belonging here, namely phrases of the type *fall out, bring up, give in, etc.* Should these phrases be taken as the predicate, or should the predicate be limited to the verb alone (*fall, bring, give, etc.*)? This, again, is a matter of opinion. The phrase *go out*, for example, can equally well be analyzed as the predicate of the sentence, and as a combination of the predicate and a secondary part. On the other hand, the phrase *fall out* (as in the sentence *They fall out very often for people in love*) would be treated as predicate, rather than a combination of the predicate with a secondary part, and this certainly is due to

the meaning of the phrase, which is undoubtedly not equal to the sum of meanings of the verb *fall* and the adverb *out*. This semantic consideration leads us to the conclusion that the whole phrase should be regarded as one sentence part (predicate). But again, the argument is not binding. Whether such semantic considerations should or should not be taken into account in syntactic analysis is a matter of opinion. It is possible to argue that considerations of semantic kind should not carry weight when we are engaged in syntactic studies.

The **compound nominal predicate** always consists of a link verb and a predicative, which may be expressed by various parts of speech, usually a noun, an adjective, also a stative, or an adverb (as in the sentence *He is out*). Sometimes, the predicative is represented by a phrase, most usually of the pattern "preposition + noun", which may or may not be a phraseological unit.

Now we must find the characteristic features of a link verb. It should first of all be noted that the term "link verb" (as well as the term "copula") is not a very happy one. The idea of "link" suggests that its function is to connect the predicative with the subject. This, however, is hardly intelligible. Why should the predicative need some special word to connect it with the subject? It could stand side by side with the subject without the help of any "link". Indeed it does not require any link as it is the case with sentences containing simple nominal predicates. The true function of a link verb is not a connecting one. Its function lies in expressing the Tense and the Mood of the predicate. The link verb *be*, which expresses these categories, and also those of Number and Person, is rightly considered to be the most abstract of all link verbs, that is, the one most devoid of any meaning of its own, whereas other link verbs do have some lexical meaning.

Though the term "link verb" is purely conventional, we will retain it, as it is in common use. Any attempt to substitute it for some other term would stand little chance of success.

Besides the verb *be*, there are a number of other link verbs with different meanings which we need not discuss here, for example, *become*, *get*, *grow*, *turn*, *go*, etc., e.g. *His hair went grey*, *She turned pale*, etc.

If we approach the problem of link verbs and predicatives from another angle, we may say that, roughly speaking, if a verb is followed by a predicative it is, to some extent, a link verb. The restriction "to some extent" is necessary because there are sentences where the finite verb is a predicate in

itself, that is, it contains some information about the subject which may be taken separately, but at the same time the verb is followed by a predicative (a noun or an adjective) and is in so far a link verb. This may be observed in sentences like the following: *He came home exhausted*, *She married young*, *He died a bachelor*, etc. The finite verb in such sentences conveys a meaning of its own (*he came*, *she married*, *he died*), but the main point of the sentence lies in the information, conveyed by the predicative noun or adjective. We might deliver the meaning of these sentences in another way, namely *He was exhausted when he came home*, *She was young when she married*, *He was a bachelor when he died*, etc. The finite verb, besides being a predicate in itself, also performs the function of a link verb.

Since such sentences have both a simple verbal predicate and a compound nominal predicate, they form a special or mixed type: predicates of this kind may be termed **double predicates** (other examples may be *The mood rose red*, *His blood ran cold*). The same is found in the following sentences: *You've come to the catwalk such a stunning star*, *She left home hungry*.

It should also be noted that the verb preceding the predicative and therefore performing (at least partly) the function of a link verb, may be in the Passive Voice. This is especially true of the verbs *find*, *think*, *report* as in the sentences *He was found guilty*, *He was reported missing*.

From such sentences there is an easy transition to sentences in which the finite verb is followed by an Infinitive, as in *He was known to have arrived*, etc. It may be the Infinitive of the verb *be*, which is then in its turn followed by a predicative, for example, *He was said to be a knowledgeable lawyer*, *He was reported to be missing*, etc.

As far as meaning is concerned, there seems to be no difference between the sentences *He was reported missing* and *He was reported to be missing*, or between the sentences *He seems smart* and *He seems to be smart*. As far as structure is concerned, the second variant in each case is somewhat more complicated, in that the finite verb is first followed by an Infinitive, which apparently is bound to be a predicative (since it follows the link verb), but which is itself the Infinitive of a link verb and therefore followed by another predicative.

Summing up, the predicate falls into the following types:

**simple verbal predicate**

*Jim smiled*

simple nominal predicate	<i>Jim modest!!!</i>
simple phraseological predicate	<i>Jim gave a look</i>
simple contaminated (also called double) predicate	<i>The moon rose red</i>
compound verbal (subdivided into compound modal and compound aspect)	<i>Jim could not move</i> <i>Jim began to understand</i>
compound nominal	<i>Jim turned out to be kind</i>
compound phraseological	<i>Jim can give you a call</i>
compound contaminated	<i>Jim can stay awake all night</i>

### 6.1.2. Secondary sentence parts

The usual classification of the secondary parts of the sentence into objects, attributes, and adverbial modifiers is familiar to everyone. Yet it has many weak points. The characteristic features of each of the three types are not clearly defined, and describing a given word or word combination as an object or an attribute in some cases, or again describing them as an object or an adverbial modifier, in others, often proves to be a matter of personal opinion or predilection.

We will now look at the three traditional secondary parts of the sentence (object, attribute, and adverbial modifier) and try to find out on what principles their distinction is based and what objective criteria can be found to identify them. Apart from that, there will be a special problem concerning the attribute.

#### The object

One of the remarkable features of the object (in comparison with the adverbial modifier) in the English language is its correlation with the subject. Indeed, both parts of the sentence have common morphological peculiarities and one may be converted into the other (cf. *X wrote Y* < - > *Y was written by X*). In other words, the object is easily transformed into the subject in passive sentences. The subject and the object are parts of the sentence, semantically and syntactically closest to the verb-predicate. The object is always a component of a sentence pattern. The object, as a rule, is predetermined by the meaning of a verb or an adjective-predicative. As a result, the object is characterized by a restricted distribution.

As to classifications of the object, none of the sentence parts arouses more debates. It is well known that there are several types of objects and some kind of classification has to be found for them. Objects differ from one another, on the one hand, when their morphological composition is concerned. In other words, parts of speech or word combinations which perform the function of the object vary considerably. On the other hand, in some cases objects, modifying a sentence part expressed by a verb form (and that is most usually the predicate), differ as to the type of their relation to the action expressed by the verb (it is this difference that gives rise to the terms "direct object" and "indirect object"). All the controversies certainly result from the complex nature of the object. Thus, the object, unlike the subject, is not characterized by any single structural meaning. While classifications of other sentence parts are based on their morphological or lexical properties (e.g. the adverbial modifier), the object has no lexico-grammatical correlation of the kind.

If we take the classification of objects based on morphological differences, we must draw a distinction between **non-prepositional** and **prepositional** objects. Under the latter heading, we will include every object of the type "preposition + noun or pronoun", no matter what preposition makes part of it. In establishing the two types of objects (non-prepositional and prepositional), we do not ask the question whether a prepositional object can or cannot be synonymous with a non-prepositional (as is the case with some objects containing the preposition *to*). Both non-prepositional and prepositional objects (more especially the latter) may sometimes be hard to distinguish from adverbial modifiers.

The idea of the formal classification was put forward by Smirnitkiy who was the first to differentiate between prepositional and non-prepositional objects. The classification produces the classes that do not overlap, yet its only criterion does not seem essential enough to be the key reason for differentiation. Patterns containing prepositions are peculiar to other sentence parts as well (cf. the adverbial modifier and the attribute). Meanwhile, the differentiating principle requires that the classification criterion is specific for a given set of items.

It should be emphasized that it is not so much the formal criterion that makes the division into prepositional and non-prepositional objects unacceptable. In general, it is acceptable to operate with a formal classification which takes into account a l l formal peculiarities of syntactic units on the

basis of their combinability with other syntactic units. Moreover, this classification will inevitably correlate with a functional classification. If there were no correlation between the form and the meaning, it would be impossible to express and differentiate grammatical meanings. Therefore, both formal and semantic classifications are equally feasible. Working out classifications on the ground of a set of properties is quite complicated both in theory (the notion of form still lacks clarity in syntax) and in practice (how, for example, shall we give order to diverse and heterogeneous formal properties?). Therefore, a formal classification may not give satisfactory results.

The classification of objects into **direct** and **indirect** applies only to objects expressed by nouns or pronouns (and, occasionally, substantivized adjectives). It has no reference whatsoever to objects expressed by an Infinitive, a Gerund, or a phrase. With objects of these kinds the question whether they are direct or indirect would be meaningless. But even with objects expressed by nouns or pronouns, the distinction is far from being always clear.

We will begin the study of direct and indirect objects with a type of sentence in which both objects are found simultaneously and no other interpretation of the facts seems possible.

A case in point are sentences in which the predicate is expressed by the verbs *send*, *show*, *lend*, *give*, and the like. These verbs usually take two different kinds of objects simultaneously: (1) an object expressing the thing which is sent, shown, lent, given, etc, and (2) a person or persons to whom the thing is sent, shown, lent, given, etc. The difference between the two relations is clear enough: the direct object denotes the thing, immediately affected by the action denoted by the predicate verb, whereas the indirect object expresses the persons towards whom the thing is moved. This is typical of sentences like *We sent him a letter*, *I showed Jane my photos*, etc. It is well known that when the two objects occur together in a sentence, they are distinguished by their relative places in the sentence, that is, by word order: the indirect object stands first, and the direct object follows.

However, even in sentences where there are two objects simultaneously, the distinction between direct and indirect objects is not always clear. With some verbs, and owing to their peculiar meanings, there are not sufficient objective facts to prove that one object is direct, and the other indirect. This is the case with the verbs *tell* and *teach*. They can take simultaneously two

objects, one denoting the person addressed and the other the news told or the subject taught, as in the sentences *He told me the whole story*, or *She taught the kids English*. So far the structure seems to be the same as in the above sentences with the verbs *send*, *show*, etc., and we might call the objects *me* and *the kids* indirect, and the objects *the whole story* and *English* direct. There is, however, something to be said against this view. The verbs *tell* and *teach* can also be used in a different way, as will be seen from the following sentences, *He told me about his problems*, and *She taught the kids*. In the former sentence, the first object denotes the person addressed but the second is expressed by a prepositional phrase and cannot be called a direct object; in the latter sentence there is no second object at all. Under these circumstances there would seem to be no reasonable objective ground for calling the first object in each of these sentences an indirect object.

Some scholars (e.g. Pocheptsov, Ivanova, Burlakova) suggest taking semantic as well as formal features to classify the English object. This approach leads the linguists to divide the object into three main types: the **object proper** (додаток об'єкта), the **object of the addressee** (додаток адресата), and the **object of the agent** (додаток суб'єкта).

The **object proper** depends on the verb, the adjective or the stative and denotes the object of an action or quality. The object proper may be used with or without a preposition, which is a purely formal property, hardly motivated extralinguistically. Semantically similar verbs may require different forms of the object, cf. *He saw me* – *He looked at me*, *I heard a noise* – *I listened to the noise*, etc. And contrariwise, verbs denoting the same processes may have objects of different formal properties: *to ask for* – *to beg*, *to think of* – *to consider*, *to accuse of* – *to blame*, etc. Some verbs may be used both with prepositional and non-prepositional objects without registering any semantic difference: *to prevent (from) something*, *to doubt (of) something*, *to follow (after) something*. These observations justify the classification which unites the traditional direct and prepositional objects into one class – the object proper.

The object proper is opposed to the **object of the addressee**. It denotes a person or a thing that appear objects of an action performed by the subject. Formal features of the object of the addressee may vary: cf. *They offer me a profitable deal* – *They offer it to me*.

In Modern English, the object of the addressee is usually used with the object proper, direct (*They gave him money*) or prepositional (*She wrote to*

*me of new staff*). The object of the agent exhibits slight differences from the types considered above. The object of the agent depends on the verb in the passive form and denotes the doer of an action named by the verb. This type of the object is always prepositional: *by/with + N*. If the sentence is transformed into Active, the object of the agent will take the place of the subject.

Semantically, the three types of the object are distinguished on the ground of participation in an action: starting from no participation (the object proper) to periphery participation (the object of the addressee) and finally to the doer of an action (the object of the agent). Structurally, they differ in their mutual combinatorial and transformational potential. The latter to a great extent depends on semantic roles performed by the noun-object.

It should be emphasized that the three types of the object correlate quite distinctly with certain semantic roles. Thus, the object of the addressee often occurs in the role of destination (*He gave her the flowers*) and beneficiary (*She prepared sandwiches for the kids*). The object of the agent expresses, accordingly, the semantic role of the agent (*The rioters were detained by the police*).

#### The adverbial modifier

We must begin by stating that the term "adverbial modifier" cannot be said to be a very happy one, as it is apt to convey erroneous ideas about the essence of this secondary part of the sentence. The word "adverbial" may give rise to two notions, both of them wrong. For one thing, we may suppose that an adverbial modifier is always expressed by an adverb, which of course is not true: an adverbial modifier may be expressed by different morphological means. Secondly, the term "adverbial" may give rise to the notion that an adverbial modifier always modifies a verb, which is also wrong: an adverbial modifier may modify a part of the sentence expressed by an adjective or by an adverb, as well as by a verb. As the term "adverbial modifier" is firmly established, it would be futile to try and substitute it for the other term. So we will keep the term, bearing in mind what has been said about its meaning.

There are several ways of classifying adverbial modifiers:

- 1) according to their meaning,
- 2) according to their morphological peculiarities,
- 3) according to the type of their head word.

Of these, the classification according to meaning is not in itself a grammatical classification. For instance, the difference between an adverbial modifier of place and an adverbial modifier of time is basically semantic

and depends on the lexical meaning of the words functioning as adverbial modifiers. However, this classification may acquire some grammatical significance, especially when we analyze word order in a sentence and one semantic type of adverbial modifier proves to differ in this respect from another. Therefore the classification of adverbial modifiers according to their meaning cannot be ignored by syntactic theory.

The classification based on morphological peculiarities, i.e. according to parts of speech and phrase patterns, is essential: it has also something to do with word order, and stands in a certain relation to the semantic classification.

The classification on the ground of the head element is the syntactic classification proper. It is of course connected in some ways with the semantic classification. For instance, an adverbial modifier can modify a sentence part expressed by a verb only if the meaning of the modifying word (or phrase) is compatible with the meaning of a verb, etc.

A complete classification of adverbial modifiers according to their meaning, i.e. a list of all possible meanings they can have, is hardly possible to achieve. Types of adverbial modifiers are at large predetermined by semantic classes of adverbs. A certain number of meanings can be found quite easily, such as place, time, condition, manner of an action, degree of a quality, etc., but whatever list we may compile along these lines, there are bound to be special cases which will not fit in. For instance, in the sentence *I met Joe at the festival*, it is hard to tell whether the adverbial modifier *at the festival* expresses place or time; and the dilemma appears to have no solution. Since all this depends on the lexical meanings of words, possibilities here are practically boundless. We must therefore content ourselves with establishing some main categories and abstain from trying to squeeze every single adverbial modifier that may occur in a sentence into a "pigeonhole" prepared for it.

As to the morphological classification, it can probably be made exhaustive, although some of the morphological types are met with very seldom indeed.

The most usual morphological type seems to be the adverb. This is testified, among other things, by the fact that the very term for this sentence part is derived from the term "adverb". Some grammarians do not differentiate between the two terms. As a result, Henry Sweet, for example, speaks of adverbs, where he obviously means adverbial modifier.

The adverbial modifier may, however, be expressed by a number of other word classes: these are nouns, participles, infinitives. The noun and the adverb as means to express adverbial modifiers complement each other, appear mutually interchangeable (*with anxiety – anxiously*) and may be joined by co-ordinate conjunctions (*He spoke incoherently and in a hurry*). Another very frequent morphological type of the adverbial modifier is the pattern "preposition + noun". This type of the adverbial modifier is one of those which are sometimes indistinguishable from objects, or rather where the distinction between the object and the adverbial modifier is neutralized.

A noun without a preposition can also under certain circumstances be an adverbial modifier. To distinguish it from the object, we take into account the meanings of the words, namely the meaning of the verb functioning as predicate, and that of the noun in question. It must be admitted, though, that even this criterion will not yield quite definite results, and this means that the decision will be arbitrary, that is, the distinction between the two secondary parts is neutralized here, too. Let us consider, for example, the function of the noun *hour* in a sentence like *They appointed an hour* and in a sentence like *They waited for an hour*. Since the noun is the same in both cases, the distinction, if any, can only be due to the meaning of the verb in its relation to that of the noun. In the first sentence, we will treat the noun *hour* as an object – on the analogy of many other nouns, which can also follow this particular verb (e.g. *appoint a meeting, appoint a manager*), and which can all be made the subject of this verb in a passive construction (e.g. *A meeting has been appointed, A manager has been appointed*). In the second sentence, things are different, as the verb *wait* can only be followed by a very few nouns without a preposition (e.g. *Wait a minute*), and a passive construction is impossible. This appears to constitute an essential difference between the two.

However, we should not overestimate the force of these observations. In the first place, there are cases when a noun, following the predicate verb, is undoubtedly an object, and yet a corresponding passive construction does not exist (e.g. the verb *resemble* can, and even must, have a direct object, but it cannot be used in Passive Voice). In the second place, a passive construction proves to be possible in some cases when we should rather call the noun in the active construction an adverbial modifier. Something similar is found in the familiar example *The bed has not been slept in*, which corresponds to the sentence with the verb in Active Voice, *Nobody has slept in the bed*. If we had been given only the latter sentence for analysis, we should probably

have said that *in the bed* was an adverbial modifier of place; the possibility of the corresponding passive construction rather shows that it is an object. But the absence of a corresponding passive construction is hardly the final proof of the secondary part being an adverbial modifier. Perhaps we will do best to say that the opposition between the object and the adverbial modifier tends to be neutralized here, too.

A very frequent morphological type of the adverbial modifier is the Infinitive or an infinitive word combination. This is especially true of the adverbial modifier of purpose, which may be expressed by the Infinitive preceded by the particle *to* or the infinitive word combination *in order to*. However, we cannot say that every Infinitive or infinitive word combination acting as a secondary part of the sentence must necessarily be an adverbial modifier of purpose, or indeed an adverbial modifier of any kind.

Let us compare the following two sentences: *I wanted to go to the shop* and *I stopped to go to the shop*. From a purely structural point of view, there would seem to be no difference between the two sentences. It is the meanings of the verbs *want* and *stop* which lie at the bottom of the difference. Grammatically speaking, a transformation test is possible which will bring out the difference in function between the two Infinitives. In the sentence *I stopped to go to the shop*, we can insert *in order* before the particle *to*, or, in other words, replace the particle by *in order to*: in doing so, we get the sentence *I stopped in order to go to the shop*, which is good English and does not differ in meaning from the original sentence. With the sentence *I wanted to go to the shop*, such a change would not be possible. If we consider this experiment to be a grammatical proof, we can say that the difference in the functions of the Infinitive in the two sentences is grammatical. If we deny this, the conclusion will be that the distinction between the two secondary members is neutralized too.

There are also cases when the Infinitive is an adverbial modifier but not one of purpose. This is the case, on the one hand, in such sentences as *I was glad to see him*, where the meaning of the adjective *glad* shows the semantic relations, and, on the other hand, in such sentences as the following: *Jill entered the room to find everybody brainstorming the problem*. It is clear from the lexical meanings of the words *entered* and *find* that the Infinitive as adverbial modifier does not indicate the purpose of the action but the circumstances that followed it. The Infinitive *to find* is indeed typical of the adverbial modifiers of result.

A different kind of relation between an adverbial modifier and its head word is found when the head word is an adjective or an adverb preceded by the adverb *too*: *Jack was too generous to ask about money; Belinda was too posh to wear cheap perfume*. Here the actual meaning resulting from the pattern "*too* + adjective (adverb) + *to* + Infinitive" is that the action denoted by the Infinitive did not take place.

Roughly speaking, in summing up the relations between the semantic and the morphological types of adverbial modifiers, we may say that some general statements on their relations can be made: for example, an adverbial modifier of place can never be expressed by an Infinitive; an Infinitive can express either an adverbial modifier of purpose, or one of subsequent events (result), etc. No straightforward rule about correspondences between the two classifications is possible.

As to the parts of the sentence which the adverbial modifier may modify, the adverbial modifier cannot modify a sentence part expressed by a non-verbal noun; in other words, a syntactic element, modifying a part of sentence expressed by a noun, cannot be an adverbial modifier. This may be taken as a guiding principle, though it is purely conventional, being the logical consequence of the definition adopted. But it must also be stated that from a scientific point of view it is irrelevant whether we call an adverb or a word combination modifying a noun an attribute or an adverbial modifier.

The adverbial modifier in many (if not all) aspects is the opposite from the object. The adverbial modifier may not be transformed into the subject. It may or may not be determined by the meaning of a verb. Therefore, free as it is in its use, the adverbial modifier may be characterized as sentence part with the least bound distribution. It is with a limited set of verbs that the adverbial modifier appears an obligatory sentence element.

**Loose adverbial modifiers** are very frequent. This is especially true of those adverbial modifiers which do not modify any particular sentence part but refer to the sentence as a whole. They are often found at the beginning of the sentence and point out the place, time, or general conditions in which the action takes place. This is what we see, for example, in the following sentences:

*Near the window, a family argued about who should go back home and walk the dog.* (Tylor)

*Two days after her mother's funeral, Mrs. Bickerdike, from The Lilacs, had met her in the pharmacy...* (Hill)

Adverbial modifiers of place and time specifying time-space characteristics of an action, provided their use is not required by the meaning of a verb, cease being closely bound with the verb and start specifying time-space characteristics of the whole situation:

*Between tea and dinner... Walter went to the door.* (Hartley)

*And there, on a corner opposite the hotel, and the putting green, she saw Mr. Curry.* (Hill)

*Outside, by now, the light had faded.* (Bates)

These adverbial modifiers are called **determinants** (the term used by Ivanova, Burlakova, and Pocheptsov).

As a rule, determinants are placed initially, in a so-called zero-position. Yet, some of them like *then* are mobile and may occur in almost all positions.

Determinants are often relevant not only to the sentence where they are used. Normally, they create the time-space background of an event described throughout several sentences. The number of sentences is not in any way limited. This feature of determinants makes them one of the text-forming means.

Determinants may also be adverbial modifiers of purpose and cause.

The important feature of determinants is their optionality. They do not belong to a structural sentence pattern. Though their information is important, since they determine an event in time and space, structurally, they are not essential and may be easily dropped without breaking structural and semantic integrity of the sentence.

Unlike adverbial modifiers of time, place, purpose and cause, adverbial modifiers of manner do preserve their dependence on a verb, even if they occur in the zero-position:

*Abruptly he changed the conversation. Mrs. Palgrave was assiduously polishing her finger-nails.* (Bates)

Since combinability of verbs and adverbial modifiers of manner is considerably limited by compatibility of meanings, adverbial modifiers of manner tend to be incapable of characterizing events, described in a sequence of sentences. All these arguments justify the exclusion of adverbial modifiers of manner from the list of determinants.

As determinants do not depend on valence of verbs, this type of adverbial modifiers is characterized by a broad combinability of structural sentence patterns. Cf.:

*Behind the door, two men stood arguing*

"Behind the door, he took him by the hand

" Behind the door, it was raining

" Behind the door, hush fell, etc.

Another characteristic feature of determinants is their invariably thematic nature. A determinant prepares the following new part of the message. Cf. in this connection differences between *In 1991, Ukraine became independent* and *Ukraine became independent in 1991*. The first sentence is an appropriate answer to the question *What occurred in 1991?* while the latter answers the question *When did Ukraine become independent?* Independent use of determinants, their broad combinability with different sentence patterns, predominantly initial position and thematic nature all mark this type of adverbial modifiers.

Meanwhile, it is worth noting that determinants are not completely independent of the sentence structure. Thus, determinants are appropriate only in sentences containing a verb. Determinants do not have any specific meaning, different from regular sentence parts. Therefore, it is possible to consider determinants not as a type of traditional parts of the sentence but as a specific use of the latter, when an adverbial modifier is oriented to a sentence as a whole rather than to a particular word. Adverbial modifiers of manner and degree remain adverbial modifiers. Thus, the difference between the adverbial modifier and the determinant is based on syntactic relations, while the meaning of a sentence part remains unchanged.

Discussing adverbial modifiers, one cannot but mention disputes on possible structural interpretations of such sentences as *Jack is here*, or *They are in the office*, etc. Two views have been put forward.

The traditional view, which had remained undoubted for a long time, was that these were sentences with a simple verbal predicate, expressed by a form of the verb *to be*, and followed by an adverbial modifier of place expressed either by an adverb or by a word combination of the pattern "preposition + noun". According to this view, sentences of this type are grammatically quite different from such sentences as *He is strong* or *They are at a loss*, which of course contain a compound nominal predicate consisting of the link verb *to be* and a predicative, expressed either by an adjective or a noun, or by a word combination of the pattern "preposition + noun".

However, this approach began to arouse doubts and it was pointed out that there was no essential difference between the meaning and function of

the verb *to be* in one type and in the other; accordingly, it would seem that the verb was a link verb in all cases, and whatever followed it was a predicative in all cases, too. It is this view that may be found in Prof. A. Smiritsky's book on English syntax. He considers the group *is here* in a sentence like *Jack is here*, and the group *are in the office* in a sentence like *They are in the office* to be a special type of predicate, which he terms the adverbial predicate. In this way the types *Jack is in London* and *Jack lives in London* are separated from each other: with the verb *to be* the word combination "verb + preposition + noun" is an adverbial predicate, while with the verb *to live* the verb alone is the predicate and the word combination "preposition + noun" is an adverbial modifier, that is, a secondary sentence part.

The type *Jack is in London* is thus brought closer together with the type *Jack is glad*, where no doubt arises about the structure of the sentence.

It would seem that this is one of the questions which do not admit of a definite solution that might be proved to be the only correct one. The answer which this or that scholar will give to the question is bound to be subjective, that is, some personal predilection for this or that way of treating language phenomena is sure to play some part in it. For example, there is a strong argument in favour of the view that the word combination "preposition + noun" is part of the predicate, not a special secondary sentence part, and this is the fact that without the prepositional word combination the sentence with the verb *to be* would not be possible: we could not say *Jack is*. This is an important point, and a point marking a real difference between the sentences *Jack is in London* and *Jack lives in London*: in the latter sentence we certainly might drop the prepositional word combination, and the sentence would not on that account become impossible: *Jack lives* is quite a normal sentence, though its meaning is quite different from that of the sentence *Jack lives in London*: *Jack lives* means much the same as *Jack is alive*.

The sentence *Jack is in London* is similar to the sentence *Jack is happy*, in so far as in both cases it is impossible to drop what follows the verb *to be*: in both cases the result would be *Jack is*, which is impossible.

Those, on the other hand, who would prove that the prepositional word combination is an adverbial modifier, might point out that the word combination *in London* in both cases shows the place of the action and that the impossibility of leaving out the prepositional group is irrelevant for defining its syntactic function.



In this way the argument might be protracted indefinitely. In order to arrive at some sort of decision, we must give such an answer as will best suit our view of syntactic phenomena with its inevitable subjective element. So, if we have to choose one of the above alternatives, it would seem that the arguments in favour of the group *is in London* being the predicate are more convincing than those given by the other side. So we will rather prefer to say that in the sentence *Jack is in London*, there is only the subject and the predicate and no adverbial modifier at all. A similar question would of course arise in a number of other sentences and the same sort of reasoning would have to be applied there.

### The attribute

Unlike the parts of the sentence mentioned above (the subject, the object and the adverbial modifier), which syntactically may be verb-oriented or are exclusively verb-oriented, the attribute is noun-oriented. The attribute is a dependent member of a nounal word combination, Denoting an attributive quality of a referent expressed by a noun. It appears difficult to explicate the difference between the attribute and the predicate, since they both denote a quality of a referent. The predicate, unlike the attribute, denotes a predicative quality. Besides, the attribute is an element of a word combination, while the subject and the predicate do not form a word combination (though, as it has been mentioned above, the interpretation of the word group "subject + predicate" may be quite different). And finally, while the predicative quality may refer only to the subject, the attribute modifies nouns performing any syntactic function.

Taking into account the position of the head noun, attributes are classified into **pre-positional** and **post-positional** (correspondingly, we distinguish between **prepositive** and **postpositive attributes**). It should be noted in this connection that English adjectives do not possess any differentiating means to express their syntactic dependence. It does not hold, however, for nouns used attributively: they occur without prepositions before the modified word and with prepositions after the modified word.

In pre-position, there may be found modifiers of various structure – from a word up to a predicative unit presented as a word:

*"Excuse me," says this woman with one of those posh, would-you-mind-not-breathing-the-same-air-as-me voices. (Calman)*

The hyphens connecting the various elements do not of course mean that the whole has coalesced into one monstrous word: they merely serve to show the unity of the syntactic formation functioning as an attribute. It goes without saying that such possibilities are due to the absence of inflections for number, gender, and case in the part of speech which most usually performs the function of an attribute, namely, the adjective.

This consideration makes some scholars question the status of the attribute in the general system of sentence parts. Some linguists doubt whether the attribute is a secondary sentence part, since its syntactic function does not seem to be equal to the object and the adverbial modifier. As a result, the attribute appears a unit of a lower rank. Approached from another angle, the question may be rephrased: is the attribute a constituent of the sentence, or does it belong to the level of word combinations? This is of course a problem of general linguistics. Here we will treat this issue, taking into account the specific conditions of Modern English.

The problem can best be approached in the following way. If we take the sentence: *The novel was written in the nineteenth century* and if we want to identify the parts of the sentence, we shall stop at the word combination *in the nineteenth century*. We shall have to choose between two views:

- 1) *in the nineteenth century* is an adverbial modifier of time; *nineteenth* is an attribute; the two secondary sentence parts stand on the same syntactic level;
- 2) *in the nineteenth century* is an adverbial modifier of time and is (as a whole) a secondary part of the sentence, modifying the predicate verb *was written*, *nineteenth* is a part of that adverbial modifier, which is expressed by a word combination, and it is a part of the word combination, not of the sentence: it stands on a lower level than the sentence with its parts, i.e. it belongs to the word combination level, being an attribute to the noun *century*.

It is obvious that the status, granted to the attribute, depends on the approach chosen rather than on any objective factors. Here we will treat the attribute as a sentence part, though admitting the possibility to regard it as a syntactic element of the word combination level.

Like other parts of the sentence, the attribute may be syntactically extended. Elements of an extended structure have a common principal word but are characterized by mutual semantic and syntactic independence. Homogeneous sentence parts may be of different morphological classes. Thus,

among homogeneous attributes one may find participles and adjectives, nouns with prepositions and adjectives, etc.: *her face, heart-shaped and kind, was easy to remember; a young officer, assertive and with the air of self-importance.*

Linguistic literature suggests describing these two types of homogeneity as partial homogeneity and absolute homogeneity (the former is characterized by common syntactic functions and the latter takes into account the unity of morphological classes as well). Regarded as relative, these terms are quite acceptable. Taken literally, these terms are subject to objection, since sentence parts (e.g. subject, predicate, adverbial modifier, etc.) are expressed by a number of word classes, which does not affect their syntactic status. Thus, one should not establish a set of morphological requirements to a sentence part, since morphology, though used as one of parameters, is not syntactically essential.

Moreover, syntactic and categorical homogeneity does not presuppose their lexico-semantic similarity. Each of several attributes, modifying a noun, characterizes the thing denoted by the noun in a specific aspect, thus forming a mosaic, multi-faceted characteristic of the thing.

One should, perhaps, dwell on the order of attributes and study on what principle it is based. The principle of arranging attributes in such a way lies in that if they are semantically similar, they may be arranged in various ways; if, however, they are not semantically similar, their linear arrangement may depend on a number of factors – from euphonic to structural. As a rule, qualitative attributes tend to be placed to the left, relative ones – to the right. This principle (called sometimes the principle of positional polarization of qualitative and relative attributes) is valid regardless of morphological properties of attributes: *a wonderful summer day, received British pronunciation, a new steel plant.* One may trace a more general rule in the principle of positional polarization: a subjective or evaluative characteristic is placed before a characteristic of more objective nature. (The detailed order of attributes according to their lexico-semantic meaning see on p. p. 204).

The important role of meaning is particularly obvious when a lexeme takes different positions depending on its meaning. Cf. the position occupied by the adjective *old* referring to age and the position of the same adjective when it means “ordinary, usual, well-known”: *the heavy old table vs the old angry gleam.*

This peculiarity of the attribute requires special detailed study which would take into consideration the structure and the meaning of attributes and adjectival groups. Structural properties are morphological characteristics of adjectives and dependent elements that may modify an attribute. That latter property may influence pre- or post-positional use of an attribute. For example, an extended attribute with dependent words usually occupies the place after the modified element:

*He wandered along a line of people queueing outside a cinema for the last show... (Barstow)*

The **loose attribute** may be expressed by the same kind of words and phrases as the usual attributes. Their peculiarity lies in that they are separated from their head word by a pause, an intonation or by a punctuation mark (usually a comma) in writing. In actual speech such loose attributes often acquire additional shades of meaning, for example, causal or concessive, which are not expressed by any specific means, lexical or grammatical, and depend entirely on the meanings of the words in the sentence:

*His room, with its smell of cough drops and stale clothing, the bed-spread drawn clumsily over the pillow, seemed emptier than was natural. (Tylor).*

Loose attributes have a somewhat larger sphere of application than ordinary ones: whereas a personal pronoun can hardly ever be a head word for an ordinary attribute, it can be one for a loose attribute. For instance, in the sentence *Too numb with all the shock of the accident, he could not say a word,* the word combination *too numb...* is a loose attribute to the subject, which is a personal pronoun. In this case the loose attribute acquires a distinctly causal shade of meaning, and this is due to the lexical meanings of the words *numb* and *to say*.

The **apposition** has been often regarded as a special kind of attribute, and sometimes as a secondary sentence member distinct from an attribute.

By apposition we mean a word or word combination referring to a part of a sentence expressed by a noun, and giving some other designation to the person or thing named by that noun. If the noun denotes a person, the apposition will often be a word or phrase naming the title, or profession, or social position of the person, etc., as the word *brother* in the sentence

*It was an English setting; but Mary and her brother Simon never seemed very English, and it was scarcely a surprise to discover that their mother had been a Persian. (Garnett)*

One may distinguish between **close** and **detached (loose) appositions**. The example above illustrates a close apposition. Detached appositions follow their head word and are separated by commas:

*His second cousin, Lord Carmine, had presented him with the living of Dry Moreton (Garnett)*

Here, the same question may arise as concerning the attribute, namely whether the apposition is not part of a word combination rather than of a sentence, and arguments similar to those applied to the attribute may be put forward.

As to the relation between an apposition and an attribute, there seems to be no convincing reason for considering the apposition a special kind of attribute. The apposition appears to have distinctive features, strong enough to establish it as a separate secondary part of the sentence: it is always expressed either by a noun, or by a word combination, centred around a noun, and characterizes the person or thing in a way, different from that of an attribute. This will become clear if we compare the word combinations *rose garden* and *President Bush*: the relations between their components are entirely different

### 6.1.3. Independent sentence parts

Now we come to speak of some sentence parts whose syntactic position has been variously treated by different authors. These are some elements of the sentence which are neither its main parts, nor any of the usual secondary ones: the direct address and the parenthesis.

The direct address and the parenthesis are often said to be outside the sentence, in the sense that they are not an integral part of its structure but are added to it "from the outside". This view, however, seems hardly justified and it is based on a rather too narrow view of the structure of a sentence. If we were to take the term "outside the sentence" at its face value, we should have to omit these elements, for example, when asked to read a sentence aloud. This is never done, and should not be done. By "structure of the sentence" we should mean the whole of a sentence, with all the elements which it may contain, with their varying degrees of organic unity. In this sense, then, the direct address is no less a part of the sentence than any other word or word combination.

The **direct address** is a name or designation of the person or persons (or, occasionally, thing or things) to whom the speech or writing is addressed.

We should not include in a definition of direct address the purpose of its use, as it is done occasionally in grammars. The purpose may be different in different circumstances, but this does not alter the fact that it is a direct address in all cases.

The direct address may consist of one word or of a word combination. If it is one word, this may be the person's name, or profession, or title, or it may denote a relationship between the person addressed and the speaker. If it is a word combination, this may again be any of the types just mentioned, or it may be some emotional address, whether friendly, as *my sweetheart*, or hostile, as *you bastard, you old jerk*, etc. In the latter case, it is quite clear that the speaker's purpose in using a direct address is to express his attitude towards the person spoken to, whether it be friendly or otherwise.

Besides the direct address, there are other syntactic elements which are usually said to be outside the sentence. Until recently, they used to be all taken together under the name of parenthesis. This term would then cover a considerable variety of syntactic elements. To illustrate this, we will give the following example:

*In any case it gave no clue to the thought then uppermost in Hercule Poirot's mind, which was that Sir Joseph certainly was (using the term in its more colloquial sense) a very plain man indeed. (Christie)*

It will be readily seen that there is a great difference between the additional elements: *certainly* expresses the speaker's attitude to the thought expressed in the sentence, whereas the phrase in brackets is of a different kind: it delivers some extra information about something mentioned in the sentence.

Some scholars define the **parenthesis** as follows: words and word combinations which have no syntactic ties with the sentence, and express the speaker's attitude towards what he says, a general assessment of the statement, or an indication of its sources, its connection with other statements, or with a wider context in speech.

In a vast majority of cases, a parenthesis refers to the sentence or clause as a whole. Sometimes, however, it refers only to a secondary part of the sentence. This may be seen, for example, in the following sentences:

*Amy Carnaby? Oh! She's quite all right. A good soul, though foolish, of course. (Christie).*

Here the parenthesis of *course* refers only to the connection between *good soul* and *foolish*.

*Once only, after her good-night kiss from the children, and possibly exhilarated by getting out two games running, she murmurs something to Frank about how things had come right again as soon as he had given up the idea of a divorce. (Cary)*

Here the parenthesis *possibly* refers only to its special sphere in the sentence, without affecting the main predication expressed in it.

Besides those parentheses which consist of one word or of a short word combination and are not separated from the main body of the sentence either in speech or in writing (e.g. *perhaps, probably, no doubt, maybe*, etc.), there are also parentheses, consisting of a larger number of words and necessarily separated from the main body of the sentence. Their semantic relation to the sentence is basically the same as with parentheses of the first kind. These are such phrases as *to be sure, roughly speaking, in a nutshell*, etc.

As to **insertions**, they are described as various additional statements introduced in the sentence. The main carcass of the sentence may be interrupted by additional remarks, clarifications, corrections, extra information about something, or remarks containing comparison or contrasting something with what is expressed in the sentence, etc.

In analyzing these definitions, we must first of all see what the difference between a parenthesis and an insertion is and what principle lies at the bottom of it.

It is obvious at once that the difference between the two types as stated here is, in the first place, semantic: it is a difference in the body of the sentence. The connection in the case of parenthesis is much closer than in the case of insertions. This is, however, hardly sufficient to describe the two as different grammatical types. We must therefore see what the syntactic aspect of the matter is like. This is not evident from the above definitions. Parentheses are described as having no syntactic connection with the sentence, and the insertions as statements inserted in the sentence, which of course amounts to the same thing. So the grammatical difference between the two types is not well brought out.

If the distinction between parentheses and insertions is to be upheld, a difference in their syntactic peculiarities must be found.

The difference would seem to be this. Parentheses are rather close to adverbial modifiers in their relation to the rest of the sentence. They are, to a certain extent, a part of the sentence and so they cannot be said to have no connection at all with it. Let us, for example, compare the following sentences, the first of which has an adverbial modifier at the beginning, while the second begins with a parenthesis:

*Gradually I brought myself to bear on the situation, to clarify it... (Durrell).*

*Apparently they could not distract on him, only on his property. (Durrell).*

There is a clear difference between the two, yet at the same time there is something they have in common.

Now let us take a sentence with an insertion:

*Her second husband – ex-husband, now – was a very wealthy man. (Tyler).*

Here things are quite different. The insertion contains some additional information about the character's marital status.

The very fact that an insertion can only come in the middle of a sentence, interrupting its course, while a parenthesis can also be at the beginning or at the end of a sentence, is an important point of grammatical difference between the two.

These distinctions are not always equally clear. As in so many other spheres, borderline cases, which show no clear and unmistakable signs of a word or a phrase performing this or that syntactic function, are quite possible here.

## 7. Semantic characteristics of sentence parts

One of the most serious mistakes made within generative linguistics lay in that its adherents interpreted sentence parts as merely relational phenomena, deprived of any meaning. This interpretation established the opposition of sentence parts to words and word groups.

In fact, parts of the sentence do convey a certain meaning. In the sentence like Gleason's *The iggle squiggs trazed wombly in the harlish hoop*, one may, on the ground of the formal markers (syntactic position, function words, inflections), not only understand the nature of syntactic relations between the sentence constituents and their syntactic functions. The sentence appears as structurally organized unit, divided by speakers into elements called sentence parts. And though lexical meanings of the words in the sentence above are not familiar, the reader gets a certain idea of the

sentence meaning that may be explicated in the following way: "Somebody/ something [plural] performed a certain action in a certain way in a certain something".

Meaning of sentence parts is not homogeneous, which results from their different level of syntactic abstraction. To prove this statement, it suffices to compare the subject and the adverbial modifier. The meaning of the subject is so abstract and the meaning of the adverbial modifier is so concrete, that grammatical description of their semantic properties requires different notions. The subject is predominantly defined on the ground of its relations with the predicate as well as its lexico-morphological properties. The definition of the adverbial modifier usually includes, besides comments on its relations and ways of expression, concrete semantic properties, peculiar to adverbial modifiers. Semantic differences in the system of sentence parts result in different relations to semantic roles maintained by sentence constituents. The more concrete the meaning of a sentence constituent is, the more distinct is a set of its semantic roles, and vice versa, the more abstract the meaning of a sentence part appears, the more diverse seems a set of its potential semantic roles. This regularity may be observed for the subject and the adverbial modifier. Potential roles of the subject embrace almost all the roles (cf. the ability of the subject perform the role of a Locative in *The sea was stormy*, whereas the adverbial modifier combines both functional and semantic meaning in *It was stormy in the sea*).

It follows, then, that the opposition between the deep and the surface levels of the sentence as semantic and asemantic is relative. Semantic units are part of the surface level as well.

One cannot but comment on correlations between semantic roles and semantic configurations. Observing semantically correlating sentences in Active and Passive Voice (*The muffler silenced the shot. – The shot was silenced with the muffler*), sentences describing one and the same situation with different coverage (*The carpenter struck the nail with a hammer. The hammer struck the nail. The hammer struck*, etc.) or presenting the situation from different perspectives (*Jack bought the house from Mr. Smith. – Mr. Smith sold the house to Jack*) leads us to believe that sentences with different constituents, structure and lexemes may be based on a certain invariant semantic configuration. Thus, the first pair informs of a situation with two participants, expressed by *the muffler* and *the shot*, linked by the

verb *silence*. The second group contains three participants (*the carpenter, the nail and the hammer*) and the action *strike* linking them in a semantic configuration.

Semantic units, correlating with participants to a situation, are called semantic roles. The basic means that express semantic roles are nounal groups. Semantic roles, namely a set of semantic roles and an action expressed by a verb, are a linguistic semantic model of an extralinguistic situation. The lexico-semantic content of the verb determines a set of semantic roles and establishes a **role structure of the verb**. Thus, the role structure of the verb *to give* presupposes an agent, a recipient and a patient, e.g. *Jack gave money to Sandra* (see p. p. 48–51).

## 8. Compulsory and optional in syntax

Every sentence is a certain syntactic construction. In other words, the sentence consists of a certain structural frame and of some elements that may be dropped without essentially affecting the sentence. The procedure of eliminating the "surplus" components and the nature of the remaining structure will be dealt with in this paragraph. At present, it is important to note that the importance of a syntactic element is proportionate to its optional or compulsory use within the sentence.

The sentence is characterized by closed relations between its elements, which makes the sentence a whole. Besides closed syntactic relations, the unity of sentence elements is achieved to a great extent with the help of compulsory-distributive relations between sentence elements. Thus, it is not surprising that every dependent element has its head-element. It turns out, however, that the opposite occurs quite regularly: the head-element presupposes a dependent element as its compulsory distribution.

**Compulsory distribution** of an element is an inseparable syntactic characteristic of this element, inevitably realized in its syntactic actualization. This type of relations is typical of certain verbs and adjectives, e.g. the verb *say* is always followed by the object – *said that* as well as the adjective *subject* – *It is subject to consideration*. Syntactic relevance of compulsory-distributive properties of words is obvious, since they affect the sentence structure, possibility or impossibility of ellipsis (omission is possible only with elements of compulsory distribution, as they, though formally dropped from the sentence, are suggested by remaining elements).

Compulsory – distributive relations, characterizing an element and its compulsory distribution, may result from several factors. The subject determines the predicate – this is a structural peculiarity of the sentence. They are differentiated on the basis of their mutual opposition.

Co-occurrence may stem from semantic peculiarities. Thus, such verbs as *enjoy, visit, examine*, etc. inevitably require a direct object. Other verbs may be used with other types of objects and adverbial modifiers. The semantic factor is particularly obvious when a polysemantic word is characterized by compulsory distribution in one of its meanings and does not have this property in the other meaning: *James was full of anger* but *The glass was full*.

Compulsory distribution of a word does not mean that it is expressed explicitly in the sentence. It is compulsory words that may be dropped from the surface sentence structure but remain in the speaker and the hearer's background knowledge. Regular distribution of the element makes this omission possible. The omission is impossible with optional distribution.

**Optional distribution** is not structurally necessary. The potential capability of an element to have dependent distribution may be realized in speech when the element is used in a syntagmatic chain but may remain unrealized. The example of optional elements is adverbial modifiers of manner with verbs of speech: "*You are right,*" *he said* *confidently* vs "*Thanks,*" *he said*.

## 9. Structural sentence patterns. Elementary sentence

One of the most remarkable features of language is flexibility of its system in respect to needs and tasks of communication. In vocabulary, this feature is realized in word formation and figurative meanings of words. In syntax, a large but still limited set of words and a much smaller set of grammatical rules enable us to construct an infinite variety of sentences. Yet, while the sentence may be endlessly extended, it may not be reduced beyond its limits. This limit is called "elementary sentence". Omission of any of its elements ruins it as structural and semantic unit. Thus, the sentence *At first I offered her the same help which I had always found it necessary to confer on the others* (Ch.Bronte), quite complicated as such, may be made even more complicated by adding new attributes, introducing subordinate clauses, extending sentence parts by means of co-ordinate relations, etc. Newly introduced elements may also become more complicated. Yet, omis-

sion of elements that do not influence structural and semantic completeness of the remaining part may progress only to a certain point, which for the given sentence is *I offered her help*. It is a realization of the syntactic structure "subject + simple verbal predicate + indirect object + direct object".

The number and grammatical nature of sentence parts of the verbal distribution are determined by the meaning of a verb. Thus, we may confidently assert that the predicate expressed by *hate* requires as its compulsory distribution the subject and the direct object, etc.

This interpretation of the role of the verb does not mean regarding the verb as self-sufficing sentence element, i.e. it does not mean that the verb is primary and the rest of the sentence is secondary. Valence properties of the verb result from the use of verbs in sentences. But verbs are associated with their valence, even taken separately from sentences, i.e. occurring as vocabulary items alongside of their semantic and stylistic features.

The construction, structurally minimal and grammatically and semantically basic, is called **structural pattern** of the sentence. The construction, based according to the structural pattern with components, expressed explicitly, is called **elementary sentence**.

A set of structural patterns, specific for a language, makes up the basis for actual sentences in speech. Taking into account various combinations of structurally-meaningful sentence constituents, Prof.Pocheptsov proposed to consider 39 elementary sentence patterns. These are the main ten:

1. Subject – Predicate.
2. Subject – Predicate.
3. Subject – Predicate – Object Proper – Object of Addressee.
4. Subject – Predicate – two Objects Proper.
5. Subject – Predicate – Prepositional Object Proper.
6. Subject – Predicate – Prepositional Object Proper – Object of Addressee.
7. Subject – Predicate – two Prepositional Objects Proper.
8. Subject – Predicate – Object Proper – Prepositional Object Proper.
9. Subject – Predicate – Object Proper – Prepositional Object Proper – Object of the Addressee.
10. Subject – Predicate – Object of the Addressee.

These ten patterns are based on different combinability of verbs with objects. The next fourteen patterns illustrate various verbal combinability with adverbial modifiers.

Let us dwell on the issue of passive sentences. Shall we include passive sentences into the set of structural patterns alongside of active sentences or shall we consider them to be secondary constructions derived from active sentences? If we support the second point of view, the set of structural patterns must be reduced to active constructions only. Some scholars, however, insist on passive sentences being included into structural patterns. These linguists argue that passive sentences are not generated in speech with the help of transforming active sentences. This thesis has been proved as a result of a number of psycholinguistic experiments. In particular, there are passive sentences that have no parallel active constructions (e.g. *I was born in London; He was killed in the war; Yesterday they were drenched in a thunderstorm*), which proves derivational independence of passive sentences. And vice versa, some active sentences may not be transformed into passive ones. These arguments back up the claim that passive sentences are not derivatives from active sentences but passive constructions seem to constitute an independent syntactic phenomenon.

Thus, among elementary sentences, there are patterns based on passive constructions, as well as sentences with link verbs and the constructions *there is* and *here is*. One-member sentences close the list.

Meanings of structural patterns may be described in terms of categorical meanings, characterizing sentence parts. Being not exhaustive, the description suffices for syntactic analysis on the level of sentence parts. Dealing with sentences like *The house had three storeys/There were three storeys in the house/Three storeys were in the house* or with active-passive counterparts like *John employed Sam/Sam was employed by John*, we inevitably realize that describing one situation, these constructions, though different as to their components, are semantically invariant. This semantic unity requires semantico-configurational level of sentence analysis. Here, we shall give only some brief remarks.

An event, described in the active and passive sentences above (*John employed Sam – Sam was employed by John*) may be presented as an action that presupposes two participants (*John* and *Sam*). The participants have different roles. Their semantic content may be best described with the help of semantic roles. These are agent (*John* in this case) and patient (*Sam*). The verb forms a semantic configuration. The two different elementary sentences that may be schematically presented as *N1 V N2* (*John employed Sam*)

and *N2 be Ved by N1* (*Sam was employed by John*) share the common semantic configuration (*employ agent patient*). Correspondingly, the sentence *John blushed* is based on the semantic configuration (*blush experiencer*), the sentence *He offered the officer a bribe* (*offer agent recipient beneficiary*).

## 10. Syntactic processes

Mutual relations between the elementary sentence and the sentence that exceeds its limits may be presented as extension of the elementary sentence or vice versa as reduction of the latter to the elementary sentence. This interpretation of the relations between the elementary and the “complete” sentences makes it possible to treat the elementary sentence as **unextended**, and the sentence, whose structure is not reduced to components of a minimal structural pattern, is usually referred to as **extended**. These relations present the elementary sentence as a complete but open construction.

Extension of the elementary sentence results from syntactic processes. Therefore, it is necessary to consider syntactic processes as such, i.e. to analyze all the processes that have something to do with the sentence structure.

Syntactic units on the level of sentence parts correlate in a certain way not only in a syntagmatic chain. They are also interrelated in the language system, i.e. one may register definite paradigmatic relations between them. It is also possible to establish the relation of syntactic derivation between some types of syntactic units. The term “syntactic process” is used to describe correlation of syntactic units, related by means of syntactic derivation. Thus, the phenomenon of syntactic derivation is not reduced to the sentence level. It is observed on the level of sentence parts as well.

Having investigated elementary sentences of a certain language and ways of their extension, one can provide an adequate, comparatively compact description of syntactic structure of the language.

The main syntactic processes are extension, elaboration, contamination, addition and inclusion.

**Extension** is based on recurrence that means adding to a certain syntactic unit other units of the same syntactic status. Elements of extension are not structurally conditioned. A word combination and, respectively, a sentence are structurally complete without extension. A set of elements, interrelated by extension, may be treated as one extended part of the sentence or as sequence of syntactic elements of a common syntactic status and syntactic relation.

The simplest type of extension is repetition of a certain element in a syntagmatic chain. It may be a sentence part or its component: *the voice grew louder and louder, we need your determination, your expertise and your experience to achieve our common goal*. Relations between elements of extension may be additive and specifying.

In compound and structurally complex syntactic elements, their common part may remain unextended. We may call this phenomenon **compression**. Being a phenomenon that accompanies extension, compression is not referred to the main syntactic processes. For example, *Jack had to support the decision and pass it on to his subordinates*. Compression does not admit of joining two lexico-semantic variants of a word: *He was happy, back from the long journey*.

**Addition** presupposes that each of extension elements refers to another as to a semantically and syntactically independent unit. They are related to each other only by the common syntactic position within a construction. The issue of the order, in which additive elements occur, is not studied properly. Thus, their order may be influenced by a number of factors: from extralingual (the sequence may be dictated by their succession in space or time; it may also depend on the speaker's subjective evaluation, etc.) to linguistic (structure of additional elements, links with pre- and post-text, language usage, etc.).

**Specification** takes place when a syntactic element semantically develops, specifies the other element. As a rule, one may observe the process where the notion is narrowed in order to achieve a more concrete and exact characteristic of a respective property or a thing: *Let's meet here in the lobby tomorrow morning at ten o'clock*.

Specifying syntactic elements, despite their common syntactic position, are not homogeneous. They are consecutively interrelated: every following element is related syntactically and semantically not only with its head word but also with its "antecedent". We do not find here syntactic autonomy peculiar to additional elements.

It is sometimes difficult to differentiate between additional and specifying extension, since a construction may admit ambiguous interpretations. Cf. *I hope to hear from you interesting, fresh ideas*. If it is a mere enumeration of qualities, then it is addition; if, however, the second adjective elaborates what *interesting* means in this particular context, then one may see here a case of specification.

Different types of sentence parts may appear syntactic derivatives. If it is the case, one structure is treated as primary, while others are its derivatives. These relations may be registered in the predicates *laughs* and *started to laugh*. These elements have the same syntactic status (since they are interchangeable and have identical distribution) but are structurally different. The latter construction, unlike the former, is characterized by a compound structure.

Elements of a compound sentence part exhibit formal dependence: the elaborating element either determines the form of the main syntactic component (thus, *started* requires either the infinitive or the gerund of the verb) or should have a certain form itself (we find the determined form of the elaborating element in the complex object).

Thus, **elaboration** is a syntactic process that presupposes structural changes in a syntactic element that makes the syntactic element compound. As a result, components of the compound sentence element are mutually dependent.

Elaboration is peculiar to sentence parts other than the predicate. Thus, one may find elaboration of the direct object which occurs after certain verbs and consists of the Infinitive, the Participle or the stative. Sentences with complex objects contain secondary predication, which appears the most important property of the construction.

Classifications of the complex object present certain difficulties, as the verbs, admitting or requiring elaboration of the direct object, are semantically diverse. One of the possible classifications consists of the following four groups of verbs:

- 1) verbs denoting mental activity;
- 2) verbs denoting communicative processes;
- 3) provocative verbs;
- 4) verbs denoting physical perception.

It should be noted, however, that the first group, alongside of the verbs of mental activity as such (e.g. *to think, to consider, to remember, etc.*), includes verbs denoting psychic activity as well (*to like, to wish, to want, etc.*). One should also specify the notion "provocative" verbs. The term, appropriate for the verbs like *to make*, is not quite correct, when applied to verbs like *to push* (*He pushed the door open*), since the result of an action, expressed by the verbs of the latter type, is not another action. Yet, one cannot but see that they have much in common: an action of a provocative verb results or



may lead to an action or – with *to push* – a new quality, ascribed to the object. Taking this into account, some scholars suggest a more adequate term for the verbs in the third group – provocative-causative. This group may include other verbs such as *to keep, to hold, to leave, to send*, etc.

Here is an example of the complex object used after verbs of mental activity: *He thought the plan acceptable*; after verbs of communicative processes: *I call it ridiculous*; *The Board declared the company bankrupt*; after provocative-causative verbs: *He got his check cashed*; *Your honesty makes you a great business partner*; *We will keep the process going*; after verbs of physical perception: *She heard him telling the story to his lawyer*; *He felt sweat covering his forehead*.

Other sentence parts may also become elaborated. Thus, for example, there may be found an elaborated subject: *There were police talking loudly over their walkie-talkies*.

**Contamination** occurs quite rarely and is observed only in the system of the predicate. Contamination produces a so-called **double** (or **contaminated**) predicate: *She lay awake till morning*; *He appeared angry and resolute in the room*.

**Parenthesis** may be treated as a type of syntactic processes. It occurs when the sentence contains modal words or their functional equivalents: *Really, you never know what to expect! It is, after all, out of the question!* It has been pointed out above that the specific status of these sentence elements (their meaning, free position in the sentence, syntactic independence) makes it impossible to treat them as secondary sentence part, therefore they are referred to as independent elements of the sentence.

**Embedded constructions** constitute a syntactic process of emphasis. A certain sentence part is emphasized by prosodic means in speech (pause) and by punctuation in writing:

*So she's arranged – with a little of scheming – for me to have it.* (King)

Embedded constructions are, as a rule, dependent syntactic elements that may be missing without affecting the sentence either grammatically or semantically. Their optional nature makes it possible to separate them from the rest of the sentence.

A frequent case of embedded constructions is **parceling** where a sentence element forms a separate sentence:

*"Invitations. For my farewell party." She turned to Bob and Mary. "I hope that you can come."* (King)

*But all of it happening so quick; bang on the footbrake, then that dreadful bump. Oh, Christ, I've hit him. Getting out of the car, all shaking, then seeing him there, his body, and the shock again, this time the double shock, the body and the blood. Slumped over, with his back to me. And then the other feeling, stronger, suddenly recognizing, recognizing.* (Glanville)

Parceling may lead to weakening of the relations between the parceled sentence and the independent sentence in case the former is extended.

Embedded constructions are frequently found in fiction, adding to variety and destroying monotony of phrases.

The syntactic processes mentioned above are related with structural transformations of syntactic elements which make them more complex.

A different role is performed by substitution and omission. What makes them specific is their dependence on text, syntactic correlation of an element with a preceding or following element. And the second specific quality of these syntactic processes is their function to compress speech.

**Substitution** means using general words instead of words with concrete meanings mentioned in pre-text. These elements may be qualified as pronominalization performed by such words as *one, do, so, not, it* (see p. p. 65, 79).

**Omission (ellipsis)** presupposes dropping some structurally necessary element of a construction. Omission as syntactic process is based on the compulsory distributive relations between two or more elements that make omission of one of them possible. As a result, the speaker may leave an element unsaid and the hearer is able to reconstruct it:

*"Where did she get my address?" "Well, the office perhaps..."* (Cary)

*"When did you get in?" "Yesterday morning."* (Bates)

Reconstruction of missing elements may be conducted not only with the help of pre-text but also by means of comparing with a typical structure. If it is the case, ellipsis affects only a structural, deprived of lexical meaning element: *Kidding, aren't you?* In other words, by "elliptical sentences" we mean sentences with one or more of their parts left out, which can be unambiguously inferred from the context or from their grammatical structure.

The main sphere of elliptical sentences is of course dialogue: it is here that one or more parts of the sentence are left out because they are either to

be supplied from the preceding sentence (belonging to another speaker) or may be easily dispensed with.

Thus, having taken the elementary sentence as realization of a structural pattern and a syntactic process as the essential elements of the syntactic theory, we are able to describe the sentence as a unity of the invariable and the variable. On the one hand, every actual sentence is a construction whose structure is dictated by the language system. On the other hand, the structure acquires its individual lexical meaning, may be extended or, on the contrary, reduced depending on communicative goals or conditions. It should be noted that a sentence may be influenced by various syntactic processes simultaneously.

## 11. Functional sentence perspective

Since the sentence is a communicative unit, it should be actualized, i.e. included into a situation or a context, which presupposes that the content of the sentence should be structured. Thus, in studying the structure of a sentence, we are faced with the problem of dividing the sentence into two sections, one of them containing the starting point of the statement, and the other – the new information for whose sake the sentence has been uttered or written. This division has been termed “**functional perspective of the sentence**”.

Before we go on to study the problem, it is necessary to clarify the terms which we will use to denote the parts of the sentence from the view of functional perspective.

There have been several pairs of terms proposed for this purpose, such as “psychological subject” and psychological predicate, “lexical subject” and “lexical predicate”, “semantic subject” and “semantic predicate” as well as others. Some of these are distinctly unacceptable, as they either suggest a wrong view of the phenomena in question, or are incompatible with our general principles for analyzing language phenomena.

Thus, the terms “psychological subject” and “psychological predicate”, proposed by German scholar H. Paul, obviously will not do, since they introduce the notion of individual psychology, which lies beyond the sphere of linguistic investigation: the question we are discussing is not what individual interpretation an individual reader or hearer may give to a sentence

but what is objectively expressed in it, independently of a hearer's personal views or tastes.

The terms “lexical subject” and “lexical predicate”, proposed by Professor Smirnit'skiy, will not do either, because they appear to take the whole problem out of the sphere of syntactic study and to include it into that of lexicology, which, however, has nothing to do with it. We are not going to analyze the lexical meaning of individual words, which are treated in lexicology, but the function of a word or word combination within a sentence expressing a certain thought: their function, that is, in expressing either what is already assumed or what is new in the sentence uttered.

We would rather avoid all terms built on the principle of combining the already established terms “subject” and “predicate” with limiting epithets, and use a pair of terms which have not yet been used to express any other kind of notion.

The pair of terms best suited for this purpose would seem to be “theme” and “rheme”, which came into use in the works of several Czech linguists, who specially studied the problem, notably with reference to the English language, both from the modern and from the historic viewpoint. Among the Czech scholars who have widely used these terms we should first of all mention Jan Firbas, who developed a theory of his own on the historical development of the English language in this sphere.

The terms “theme” and “rheme” are both derived from Greek, and are parallel to each other. The term “theme” comes from the Greek root *the-* “to set”, or “establish”, and means “that which is set or established”. The term “rheme” is derived from the root *rhe-* “to say”, or “tell”, and means “that which is said or told” (about that which was set or established beforehand). These terms are also convenient because adjectives are easily derived from them: “thematic” and “rhematic”, respectively.

The etymology of the terms presupposes that the **thematic part** of the sentence contains the topic, while the **rhematic part** conveys new information about the topic. This interpretation of the theme and the rheme is rather close to the logical definition of the principal sentence members, the subject and the predicate. This is not a mere coincidence. It is often the subject (unless it is not formal) that appears a communicative theme of an utterance, while the predicate functions as its rheme. The topicality of the subject is achieved in many ways, e.g. with the help of the passive constructions. The

examples below describe the same situation, but in each of them, the theme is expressed by a different participant:

*Jack* (theme) *sent an e-mail to Greg* (rheme)

*Greg* (theme) *was sent an e-mail by Jack* (rheme)

*An e-mail* (theme) *was sent to Greg by Jack* (rheme)

The degree of rhematization of the predicate, however, may vary and depends on its semantic "completeness" and absence/presence of dependent elements. The general tendency is the following: the less notional the verb is, the less likely it performs the rhematic function and vice versa. The thematic function may be independent of the context if the verb belongs to auxiliaries or is not informative: *A long silence followed*, where the two-member sentence may be replaced with a nominal sentence *A long silence*. The thematic function of the verb-predicate may depend on the context in, for example, replies where the verb-predicate duplicates a corresponding element in the stimulus: "*Do you mind my contributing?*" "*I mind any interference.*"

It should be noted that Mathesius, the founder of the functional sentence perspective theory, stated that some elements might be regarded as joining the starting point of the utterance with its nucleus. This observation has been developed and the utterance has come to be viewed as a trichotomy, i.e. alongside of the theme and rheme, the utterance also contains a transitive element. The transitive element is, as a rule, associated with verbs. This point of view is opposed by some linguists who claim that, since the functional sentence perspective deals with the informational aspect and the verb has a lexical meaning, the predicate may not be qualified as an element belonging neither to the theme nor to the rheme of the sentence. In other words, it is part either of the theme or the rheme. It may not function as a link-element, since the functional sentence perspective presupposes the division of the sentence content. It should be admitted, though, that as a rhematic element, the verb-predicate may convey less important information than that of the object or the adverbial modifier it introduced into the sentence. Thus, the theme as well as the rheme is subject to gradation.

It cannot be said, however, that every sentence must necessarily consist of the theme and the rheme. Some sentences (especially one-member sentences) cannot be divided up in this way, and doubts are also possible about some other types. Still, most sentences do consist of these two sections and the relation between the syntactic structure of the sentence and its division

into the theme and the rheme presents a linguistic problem deserving our attention.

The theme-rheme organization of the sentence is tightly connected with the context, it is the context that gives the clue to the correct interpretation of the sentence. In other words, a sentence, even a two-member sentence, may be interpreted in different ways from the point of view of its functional perspective.

If, for example, a teacher, on entering the class-room, says *I see someone is absent today* and gets the answer *John is absent*, then the theme of the utterance is *is absent*, while the rheme is *John*. In a different situation, the organization may be different. If, for example, the sentence *John is absent* is an answer to the teacher's utterance *Today I'm going to ask John*, the subject *John* occurs as a theme and the predicate *is absent* functions as rheme.

The dichotomy of the communicative sentence structure is not always obligatory, since one may find one-member sentences. Also, there are cases where the whole sentence constitutes either a theme or a rheme (the whole sentence *Suddenly, it is two in the morning* (Parks) opening a chapter is a rheme).

Naturally, grammatical description is mostly interested in language means that signal the functional sentence perspective. These means are numerous: 1) intonation, 2) word order, 3) syntactic constructions, and 4) lexical means.

These are all, however, additional means, i.e. these are means of emphasis – logical and sometimes emotional. The majority of sentences contain themes and rhemes that correspond to, respectively, the subject and the predicate. The situation or the context may change this established theme-rheme distribution, which only proves that both the situation and the context may neutralize any systemic language oppositions, not only grammatical ones at that.

Let us dwell on the means marking the functional sentence perspective.

Intonation renders thematic subjects into the rheme (*'Sam is to leave on Friday*) or indicates that the rheme is an element of the predicate (*Sam is to leave on Friday. Sam is to leave on 'Friday*), with the rest of the elements being thematic.

Positioning certain elements at the beginning of the sentence may also make them rhematic. It may occur with the object: *That I will never forget!*,

the adverbial modifier: *Around her neck twinkle some sparkly beads, Over the years things did not change a bit.*

Positioning the subject at the end of the sentence makes it rhematic too: *And then came a turning point.* The predicate in post-position may be preceded by *there*: *In the garage there hung a lawnmower and winter tyres.* Sentences with inverted principal sentence parts (with the rhematic subject) may undergo a further categorization. They are a particular case of existential sentences that typically have a rhematic subject (the most widespread among them are sentences with *there is*).

The examples above show that the word order is one of the most important markers of functional sentence perspective. Against the background of the fixed word order in English, even the slightest deviations appear most noticeable.

Syntactic constructions used to rhematize sentence elements include those beginning with *here/there*, constructions like *It is...X that/who...*, etc. And, finally, *only*, *almost*, *at least*, etc., used for the sake of emphasis, are simultaneously signals of rhematization.

Another means of indicating the rheme of a sentence may sometimes be the indefinite article. Whether this is a grammatical or lexical means is open to discussion. The answer will depend on the general view we take of the articles. Considering the article here in connection with functional sentence perspective is justified, as it does play a certain part in establishing the relations between the grammatical structure of a sentence and its functional perspective.

Owing to its basic meaning of "indefiniteness", the indefinite article will of course tend to signal the new element in the sentence, the element which represents the rheme. By opposition, the definite article will, in general, tend to point out elements which are already known, that is, the theme. We may observe it if we take an example with the indefinite article and put the definite article in its place to see what consequence that change will produce in the functional sentence perspective. Let us take the sentence *The door opened and a tall woman in a long black dress entered the room.* The indefinite article before *tall woman* shows that this phrase is the centre of the sentence: we are told that when the door opened the person who appeared was a tall woman. This meaning is further strengthened by the second indefinite article, the one before *long black dress*. Since the woman herself is

represented as a new participant in the situation, obviously the same must be true of her clothes.

Now let us replace the first indefinite article by the definite. The text then will turn into *The door opened and the tall woman in a long black dress entered the room.* This would mean that the woman had been familiar in advance, and the news communicated in the sentence would be, that she entered the room. The indefinite article before *long black dress* would show that the information about her clothes is new, i.e. that she had not always been wearing that particular dress. This would still be a new piece of information but it would not be the centre of the sentence because the predicate group *entered the room* would still be more prominent than the group *in a long black dress*. Finally, if we replace the second indefinite article by the definite, too, we get the text *The door opened and the tall woman in the long black dress entered the room.* This would imply that both the tall woman and her long black dress had been familiar before: she must always have been wearing the dress, or at least long enough for the people in the story and the reader to remember it. In this way the whole group *the tall woman in the long black dress* would be completely separated from the rhematic part of the sentence.

This experiment is sufficient to show the relation between the indefinite article and the rheme, that is, functional sentence perspective.

There are also some means of showing that a word or phrase represent the theme in a sentence. Sometimes, as we have just seen, this may be achieved by using the definite article. Indeed, the contrast between the two articles can be used for that purpose.

But there are other means of pointing out the theme as well. One of them, which includes both grammatical and lexical elements, is a loose parenthesis introduced by the prepositional phrase *as for* (or *as to*), while in the main body of the sentence there is bound to be a personal pronoun representing the noun which is the centre of the parenthetical *as-for*-phrase. This personal pronoun may perform different syntactic functions in the sentence but more often than not it will be the subject. A typical example of this sort of construction is the following sentence: *As for your comments, they will be considered most closely.* After the theme of the sentence has been stated in the prepositional phrase *as for your comments*, the subject of the sentence, *they*, represents it and the rest of the sentence represents the rheme.

Sometimes a word or phrase may be placed in the same position, without *as for*: *Your promises – do you ever keep them?* One should note that there are two possible ways of interpreting the grammatical structure of this sentence. Firstly, it may be taken as a simple sentence, which seems on the whole preferable. Then the phrase *your promises* must be said to represent the theme of the sentence: it announces what the sentence is going to be about. In the body of the sentence itself, it is replaced by the pronoun *them*, which is obviously an object. Another possible view is that the sentence is an asyndetic composite one. In this case the phrase *your promises* is a one-member clause, and the rest of the sentence is another clause.

There are two more points to make concerning the functional sentence perspective:

1. The theme need not necessarily be something known in advance. In many sentences it is, in fact, something already familiar, as in some of our examples, especially with the definite article. However, that need not always be the case. There are sentences in which the theme, too, is something mentioned for the first time and yet it is not the centre of the prediction. It is something about which a statement is to be made. The theme is here the starting point of the sentence, not its conclusion. This will be found to be the case, for example, in the following sentence:

*The sand on the seaward side of the dunes glittered like fine white sugar in the sun. (Bates)*

The sentence opens a short story. Nothing in this sentence can be already familiar, as nothing has preceded and the reader does not know anything about the setting of the narration. What are the ways of interpreting the theme and the rheme in this sentence? Apparently, there are two possible interpretations. Either we say that *the sand on the seaward side of the dunes* represents the theme and the rest of the sentence *glittered like fine sugar in the sun* its rheme. Or else we say that there is no theme at all here, that the whole of the sentence represents the rheme, or perhaps that the whole division into theme and rheme cannot be applied here.

2. Many questions concerning functional sentence perspective require further investigation. It is by no means certain that every sentence can be divided into two clear-cut parts representing the theme and the rheme respectively. In many cases there are probably intermediate elements, not belonging unequivocally to this or that part, though perhaps tending rather one way or another.

## Chapter IV

### Composite sentence

#### 1. From simple to composite sentences

Though the notions of simple sentence and composite sentence seem to be well defined and distinctly opposed to each other, this does not mean that there are no transitional elements between them. Like in so many other cases, in the sphere of sentence types, we find a considerable number of phenomena which, though not exactly transgressing the limits of the simple sentence, do not quite fit into it, and show some peculiarities which justify our treating them as transitional between the simple and the composite sentence.

Of these, we will consider the following syntactic phenomena:

- 1) sentences with homogeneous sentence parts (sometimes also called “contracted sentences”),
- 2) sentences with a dependent appendix,
- 3) sentences with secondary predication.

Different as they are in many respects, these phenomena are alike in that they gradually get out the limits of the simple sentence and approach the composite sentence (some of them – the compound, others – the complex sentence).

#### Sentences with homogeneous sentence parts

By homogeneous parts we mean parts of the same category (two or more subjects, two or more predicates, two or more objects, etc.), standing in the same relation to other parts of the sentence (homogeneous secondary parts stand in the same relation to the same head word). According to the other terminology, such sentences used to be termed “contracted sentences”, as if they had been “contracted” out of two or more simple sentences. For example, the sentence *I read your e-mail and Tim’s report* would be said to have been contracted out of two sentences: *I read your e-mail* and *I read Tim’s report*. This treatment does not seem to be justified, as it introduces a sort of historical element, implying the origin of such sentences, which is both doubtful and completely irrelevant for the study of these sentences as they exist in the modern language.

This category of sentences covers a wider variety of phenomena. Some types of sentences with homogeneous parts quite clearly fit into the general type of simple sentences. This is the case, for instance, with sentences having two or more homogeneous objects to one predicate, e.g.

*Rebecca rushed off for her purse and Poppy's Medicare card. (Tylor)*

The same can be said about sentences having two or more homogeneous adverbial modifiers to one predicate:

*Rebecca collected her purse and followed the woman through the swinging doors, down a linoleum-floored corridor. (Tylor)*

And this is also true of sentences having two or more homogeneous attributes to one head word – even if we take an attribute to be a secondary sentence part on the same level as objects and adverbial modifiers. If, on the other hand, we take an attribute to be a part of a word combination rather than of a sentence, the presence of homogeneous attributes is still more irrelevant for the general character of the sentence.

However, the number of homogeneous parts in a sentence can be much larger than that. We will here give an example of the gradual growth of a sentence due to accumulation of homogeneous parts but we will at once proceed to sentences in which only the subject keeps, as it were, the sentence together: it is the case when there are two verbal predicates, and each predicate has either its objects, or adverbial modifiers, or attributes to nouns functioning as objects, etc.:

*She answered the questions all over again, signed several forms, and then chose a chair as far as possible from anybody else. (Tylor)*

The reason why we cannot call this sentence compound is that it has only one subject and thus cannot be separated into two clauses. If we repeat the subject before the second predicate we shall get a compound sentence consisting of two clauses and identical in meaning with the original sentence with homogeneous parts.

#### Sentences with a dependent appendix

Under this head we will consider some phenomena which clearly overstep the limits of the simple sentence and tend towards the complex sentence, but which lack the essential feature of a complex sentence. Some of these phenomena are common to English, Ukrainian, and other languages, while some of them are typical of English alone.

In the first place, there are the word combinations consisting of the conjunction *than* and a noun, pronoun, or word combination following an adjective or adverb in the comparative degree, as in the sentence *Jack works harder than anyone in the group*. It would always be possible to expand this appendix into a clause by adding the required form of the verb *to be* (or *to do*, or, in some cases, *can*). Thus, for example, the sentence above can be expanded into *Jack works harder than anyone in the group does*. After this change, we get a clause introduced by the conjunction *than* and the sentence is a complex one. But that should not make us think that in the original text the verb *to do* has been “omitted”. There is no ground whatever for such a view. The sentences have to be taken for what they are, and classified among those intermediate between a simple and a complex sentence.

Very similar to these are the sentences containing an adjective or adverb, which may be preceded by the adverb *as*, and an additional member consisting of the conjunction *as* and some other word (an adjective, a noun, or an adverb), as in the following examples: *His attitude to you is as unbearable as that to me, Sandra must have remained as conceited in her second marriage as in the first one*. In each case a finite verb might be added at the end (either *to be*, or *to do*, or *to have*, or *can*, etc.), and then the sentence would become a complex one. But it is irrelevant for the syntactic characteristic of the original sentences, as given above. They contain something which does not fit into the pattern of a simple sentence, yet at the same time they lack something that is necessary to make the sentence complex. So it is most natural to say that they occupy an intermediate position between the two.

Now we shall consider the type of sentence containing a word combination which is introduced by a subordinating conjunction: *He was careful with all the answers, as though afraid of telling too much*. The subordinate part *as though afraid* is here clearly distinguished from the secondary parts expressed by participle word combinations in the following sentence *He talked in a low voice, afraid of being heard in the adjacent room*.

Sometimes a secondary sentence part of a sentence is added on to it, connected with the main body of the sentence by a co-ordinating conjunction, although there is not in the main body any part that could in any sense be considered to be homogeneous with the part thus added. Here is an example of this kind of sentence: *I tried to help, but in vain*. It is probably best not to suppose that anything has been “omitted” in this sentence and may be

supplied. The sentence *I tried to help, but it was in vain*, and other possible variants would be grammatically entirely different from the actual text.

The co-ordinating conjunction makes it difficult to term such word combinations secondary sentence parts: it gives them something of a specific status. As in all preceding instances, each of the sentences might be made into a compound sentence by adding a noun or pronoun, and a link verb: *I tried to help, but it was in vain*. The sentence thus obtained is compound, but it must not be taken as a starting point in the syntactic study of the original sentence, as given above, which is intermediate between a simple and a composite sentence.

Sentences containing a part thus introduced by a subordinating or co-ordinating conjunction are best classed as sentences with a dependent appendix.

#### Secondary predication

Another syntactic phenomenon which is best considered under this heading of transition to the composite sentence is based on what is very aptly termed "secondary predication". Though we have already touched upon the problem, we shall remind briefly what is meant by secondary predication.

In every sentence there is bound to be predication, without which there would be no sentence. In a usual two-member sentence the predication is between the subject and the predicate. In most sentences this is the only predication they contain. However, there are also sentences which contain one more predication, which is not between the subject and the predicate of the sentence. This predication may conveniently be termed secondary predication.

In Modern English, there are several ways of expressing secondary predication. One of them is what is frequently termed the **complex object**, as seen in the sentences *I watched them arguing*, *They heard the woman sing*, *I will keep the project going*, *He wants you to talk to him first*, etc. Let us take the first of these sentences for closer examination. The primary predication in this sentence is between the subject *I* and the predicate *watched*. *I* is the doer of the action expressed by the predicate verb. But in this sentence there is one more predication, that between *them* and *arguing*: the verb *to argue* expresses the action performed by *them*. This predication is obviously a secondary one: *them* is not the subject of a sentence or a clause, and *arguing* is not its predicate. The same can be said about all the sentences given above.

Views on the syntactic function of the group *them arguing* (or its elements) tend to vary. The main difference is between those who think that *them arguing* is a syntactic unit, and those who think that *them* is one part of the sentence, and *arguing* is another. If the word combination is taken as a syntactic unit, it is very natural to call it a complex object: it stands in an object relation to the predicate verb and consists of two elements.

If, on the other hand, the word combination *them arguing* is not considered to be a syntactic unit, its first element is the object, and its second element is conveniently termed the objective predicative.

The choice between the two interpretations remains arbitrary and neither of them can be proved to be the only right one. In favour of the view that the word combination is a syntactic unit, a semantic reason can be put forward. In some cases the two elements of the word combination cannot be separated without changing the meaning of the sentence. This is true, for example, of sentences with the verb *to hate*. If we take as an example the sentence *I hate you to go*, which means much the same as *I hate the idea of your going*, or *The idea of your going is most unpleasant to me*. Now, if we separate the two elements of the word combination, that is, if we stop after its first element: *I hate you...*, the sense is completely changed. This shortened version expresses hatred for "you", which the original full version certainly did not imply. Discussing these phenomena, Henry Sweet, in his turn, referred to the sentence *I like boys to be quiet*, which, as he pointed out, does not imply even the slightest liking for boys.

In other cases, that is, with other verbs, the separation of the two elements may not bring about a change in the meaning of the sentence. Thus, if we look at our example *I watched them arguing*, and if we stop after *them*: *I watched them*, this does not contradict the meaning of the original sentence: *I watched them arguing* implies that *I watched them*.

Another case in which the two elements of the word combination cannot be separated is found when the verb expresses some idea like order or request and the second element of the word combination is a passive Infinitive. With the sentence *I asked the letter to be sent* we cannot possibly stop after *the letter*.

There is no doubt, therefore, that with some verbs (and some nouns, for that matter) the two elements of the word combination following the predicate verb cannot be separated. It is, however, not certain that this is a proof of

the syntactic unity of the word combination. This is again one of the phenomena which concern the mutual relation of the semantic and syntactic aspects of the language. The choice between the two possibilities – complex object or object and objective predicative – remains largely a matter of arbitrary decision. If we make up our mind in favour of the second alternative, and state in each case two separate sentence parts, this will add to our list of secondary sentence parts one more item: the objective predicative. The objective predicative need not be a Participle: it may be an Infinitive (*I heard them knock on the door*), an adjective (*I found him clever; She thought us superstitious*), a stative (*I found them asleep*), sometimes an adverb, and a prepositional word combination. The sentence *I found him there* admits of two different interpretations. One of them, which seems to be the more usual, takes the sentence as an equivalent of the sentence *There I found him*: the adverb *there* is then an adverbial modifier belonging to the verb *to find*. The other interpretation would make the sentence equivalent to the sentence *I found that he was there*. In this latter case the adverb *there* does not show where the action of finding took place, and it is not an adverbial modifier belonging to the predicate verb *found*. It is part of the secondary predication group *him there* and has then to be taken as an objective predicative: *I found him there* is syntactically the same as *I found him clever*, or *I found him awake*.

The choice between the two alternatives evidently depends on factors lying outside grammar. From a strictly grammatical viewpoint, it can be said that the difference between an adverbial modifier and an objective predicative is here neutralized. This group of secondary predication brings the sentence closer to a composite one.

Jespersen has proposed the term “nexus” for every predicative grouping of words, no matter by what grammatical means it is realized. He distinguishes between a “junction”, which is not a predicative group of words (e.g. *dancing girl*) and “nexus”, which is one (e.g. *the girl dances*). If this term is adopted, we may say that in the sentence *I watched them arguing* there are two nexuses: the primary one *I watched*, and the secondary *them arguing*. In a similar way, in the sentence *I found him awake*, the primary nexus would be *I found*, and the secondary *him awake*.

#### The absolute construction

Another type of secondary predication may be seen in the so-called absolute construction. This appears, for example, in the following sentence:

*The preparations completed, the department started the project.* Here the word combination *the preparations completed* constitutes an absolute construction. The absolute construction is of course a case of secondary predication, or, in Jespersen's terminology, a nexus. The Participle *completed* is not a predicate, and *preparations* is not the subject either of a sentence or of a clause. This is evidence that the predication contained in the phrase is a secondary one. Participles seem to be the most widely used type of predicative element in the absolute construction.

The absolute construction expresses what is usually called attendant circumstances – something that happens alongside of the main action. This secondary action may be the cause of the main action, or its condition, etc., but these relations are not indicated by any grammatical means. The position of the absolute construction before or after the main body of the sentence gives only a partial clue to its concrete meaning. Thus, for example, if the construction denotes some secondary action which accompanies the main one without being either its cause or its condition, it always follows the main body of the sentence; if the construction indicates the cause or condition, or time of the main action, it can come both before and after the main body of the sentence.

Thus the grammatical factor plays only a subordinate part in determining the sense relations between the absolute construction and the main body of the sentence.

The stylistic colouring of the absolute construction should also be noted. It is quite different in this respect from the constructions with the objective predicative, which may occur in any sort of style. The absolute construction is basically a feature of literary style and unfit for colloquial speech that practically always has subordinate clauses where literary style may have absolute constructions.

A Participle is by no means a necessary component of an absolute construction. The construction can also consist of a noun and some other word or phrase, whose predicative relation to the noun is made clear by the context. Here is an example: *She was lying awake, her eyes wide open*. This example is characteristic in so far as the subject of the sentence is a noun denoting a human being, the predicate group tells of her position in space, and the subject of the absolute construction is a noun denoting parts of her body, while the predicative parts of the construction describe the position of the parts.



## 2. Composite sentences. General remarks

The syntactic analysis given above has been concentrated mainly on the simple sentence. The simple sentence is not the only sentence type. Structurally, it opposes the composite sentence. The difference between the two lies in that the former contains only one predication, whereas in the latter predication occurs more than once. This is the most general characterization of the composite sentence that will be specified in discussion below.

The composite sentence is classified according to the way in which the parts of a composite sentence (i.e. its clauses) are joined together. This may be achieved either by means of special words designed for this function, or without the help of such words. In the first case, the method of joining the clauses is syndetic, and the composite sentence itself may be called syndetic. In the second case the method of joining the clauses is asyndetic, and so is the composite sentence itself.

We should distinguish between two variants of syndetic joining of sentences, the difference depending on the character and syntactic function of the word used to join them.

This joining word may either be a conjunction, a pronoun or an adverb. If it is a conjunction, it has no other function in the sentence but that of joining the clauses together.

If it is a pronoun or an adverb (i.e. a relative pronoun or a relative adverb), its function in the sentence is twofold: on the one hand, it is a member of one of the two clauses which are joined, and on the other hand, it serves to join the two sentences together, that is, it has a connecting function as well.

It is to syndetic composite sentences that the usual classification into compound and complex sentences should be applied in the first place.

We start from a distinction of compound sentences and complex sentences. The basic difference between the two types would appear to be clear enough: in **compound sentences**, the clauses of which they consist have equal rights, that is, none of them is below the other in rank, they are co-ordinated.

In **complex sentences**, on the other hand, the clauses are not on an equal footing. In the simplest case of a complex sentence consisting of two clauses, only one of them is the main clause, and the other – a subordinate clause, that is, it stands beneath the main clause in rank. Of course, there may be more than one main clause and more than one subordinate clause in a complex sentence.

It should be noted that the term “clause” eliminates ambiguity: a component of the composite sentence does not equal sentence, since it has no independent communicative meaning. The clause is used in communication only as a component of a larger syntactic unit – composite sentence. Even parts of the composite sentence may hardly be called communication units. As a rule, they are linked by cause-consequence, temporal or other types of relations, and breaking these relations by presenting a clause as an independent syntactic unit means breaking these syntactic and semantic relations.

Polypredication of the composite sentence does not mean just multiple predications as such. For example, in the sentence *He shut the door and left*, predication appears twice: *shut the door* and *left*. Each of the predicates is related to *he*, yet there is no composite sentence. Therefore, it is essential that the composite sentence contains several predication centres represented by the subject and the predicate.

Two or more consecutively placed sentences are also characterized by several centres, still it is obvious that they do not make up a composite sentence. Clauses form a certain type of the composite sentence on the basis of syntactic relations. In complex sentences, the syntactic relation is explicitly expressed by subordinating conjunctions. The issue of the compound sentence is much more complicated. Even if there is a conjunction (e.g. *and*, *but*, etc.), the predicate construction may be an independent sentence:

...*some letters were written and Mitrofan Ocheretko was rehabilitated under amnesty, and obtained a job teaching sword-fencing in the military academy in Kiev. And it was here in Kiev that Ludmilla and I first met.* (Le-wicka)

Functionally, the composite sentence is similar to the simple sentence. Like the simple sentence, the composite sentence constitutes a communicative integrity and is complete intonationally. From the point of view of their communicative content, composite sentences, like simple sentences, may be declarative, interrogative, optative and imperative.

The composite sentence is more specific when its structural characteristics are concerned. Predication here is realized on the level of constituents rather than on the sentence level. Unlike the simple sentence, constructed with qualitatively different units (word forms, words, word combinations), the composite sentence is constituted with the help of units similar to sentences.

While discussing the simple sentence, predication has been mentioned as its essential characteristic. Will it hold for the composite sentence? Is predication its constituting property? In order to answer the question, one should consider predication once again. Predication is a quality of a syntactic unit that makes it particularly relevant and expresses the relation between reality and the situation described in the sentence. Due to these qualities, the sentence performs both the nominative and the communicative functions. The composite sentence describes several situations. Each of its constituents describes a particular situation and contains predication. Therefore, the composite sentence is not deprived of predication, but there is no predication common for the whole composite sentence. Thus, in the composite sentence, predication is an essential feature of its constituents.

As a result, the composite sentence is a structural and semantic unity of two or more syntactic constructions each of which has its own predication centre. The composite sentence is based on the syntactic relation and is used in communication as a unit parallel with the simple sentence.

Like the simple sentence, the composite sentence may be infinitely long and extremely complicated. One of the most popular examples of the statement is an abstract from the *Winnie-the-Pooh* by A. Milne:

*Then he put the paper in the bottle, and he corked the bottle up as tightly as he could, and he leant out of his window as far as he could lean without falling in, and he threw the bottle as far as he could throw – splash! – and in a little while it bobbed up again on the water; and he watched it floating slowly away in the distance, until his eyes ached with looking, and sometimes he thought it was the bottle, and sometimes he thought it was just a ripple on the water which he was following, and then suddenly he knew that he would never see it again and that he had done all that he could do to save himself.*

Another example of this kind may be the final sentence of *The House That Jack Built*. One may see that there is no much point in investigating possible combinations of co-ordination and sub-ordination within the composite (complex and compound) sentence, since its structure is determined by extralingual factors. So far the classification of syndetic composite sentences looks simple enough. But as we come to the problem of the external signs showing whether a clause is co-ordinate with another or subordinated to it, we often run into difficulties. As often as not, a clear and unmistakable sign, pointing this way or that, is wanting. In such cases we have to choose

between two possible ways of dealing with the problem. Either we shall have to answer the question in an arbitrary way, relying, that is, on signs that are not binding and may be denied; or else we shall have to establish a third, or intermediate, group, which cannot be termed either clear co-ordination or clear subordination, but is something between the two, or something indefinite from this point of view. It is also evident that the problem is connected with that of co-ordinating and subordinating conjunctions.

### 3. Compound sentences

Compound sentences consist of clauses joined together by co-ordinating conjunctions. These are very few: *and, but, or, for, yet, so*. Concerning some of them, there may be doubts whether they are conjunctions (thus, *yet* may also be supposed to be a particle or an adverb). As to the word *for*, its status as co-ordinating or subordinating may be subject to debate. The meanings of the conjunctions themselves are of course a question of lexicology. What concerns us here is the type of connection between the clauses in the compound sentence.

The degree of independence of the clauses making up a compound sentence is disputable. According to one view, they are completely independent of each other. It is supposed that clauses were nothing but independent sentences with a co-ordinating conjunction between them indicating their semantic relations. Within the other approach, independence of clauses, and especially of the second clause (and those which follow it, if any) is not complete, and the structure of the second and following clauses is to some extent predetermined by the first.

We will now consider some questions related to the grammatical structure of compound sentences in English.

The semantic relations between the clauses, making up the compound sentence, depend partly on the lexical meaning of the conjunction uniting them, as well as on the meanings of the words making up these clauses. It should be noted that the co-ordinating conjunctions differ from each other in definiteness of meaning: the conjunction *but* has an adversative meaning which is so clear and definite that there can hardly be anything in the sentence to substantially alter the meaning conveyed by this conjunction. The meaning of the conjunction *and*, on the other hand, which is one of "addition", is broad enough to admit of various semantic transformations that

result from semantic interaction with other words in the sentence. This will be quite clear if we compare the following two compound sentences with clauses joined by this conjunction:

*The olive had a pit, she discovered as she bit down. She removed it with a thumb and forefinger and hid it under her roll. Luckily, Will's eyes were on his plate and he didn't seem to notice. (Tylor)*

*There was always an element of risk in a life such as hers, and Christie seemed to her harmless enough. (Barstow)*

The first sentence contains the cause – result meaning. In the second sentence, one may detect elements of adversative meaning. In a similar way, other shades of meaning may arise from other semantic relations between words in two co-ordinate clauses.

Compound sentences with clauses joined by the conjunction *or* (or by the double conjunction *either – or*) seem to be rather rare:

*They had probably met in kindergarten, or perhaps their first encounter had taken place in some play group in the little park by the river. (Tylor)*

The number of clauses in a compound sentence may of course be greater than two, and in that case the conjunctions uniting the clauses may be different; thus, the second clause may be joined to the first by one conjunction, while the third is joined to the second by another, and so forth:

*The stipend of a young curate is not sufficient on which to marry, and Mary looked forward to an engagement of several months, or even years, but Nelson did not believe in letting the grass grow under his feet and applied for the headmastership of a Mission School that was being started in New Guinea. (Garnett)*

A typical example of a compound sentence with the conjunction *so* is the following:

*A big part of Zeb's profession was soothing parents' anxieties; so she turned to him. (Tylor)*

Besides the conjunctions so far considered, there are a few more, which are generally classed as subordinating, but which, under certain conditions, tend to become co-ordinating, so that the sentences in which they occur may be considered compound rather than complex, or perhaps we might put it differently: the distinction between co-ordination and subordination, and consequently that between compound and complex sentences, is in such cases neutralized. This concerns mainly the conjunction *while* and the ad-

verbial clauses of time introduced by it, and the conjunction *though* and the adverbial clauses of concession introduced by it.

#### 4. Complex sentences

Complex sentences consist of the principal and the subordinate clauses. The terms "principal" and "subordinate" are very relative, since in some constructions the principal clause is represented by only a component of a sentence part, e.g. *What we did not know was that the issue had already been settled*. Complex sentences correlate quite distinctly with the simple sentence and are formed according to the same structural patterns.

Subordinate clauses correlate with sentence parts, but unlike sentence parts, clauses express the idea of a thing, qualitative or adverbial feature through a certain situation, expressed by means of a subject-predicate structure. The latter feature is essential: subordinate clauses are never nominal (*Dawn*), while principal clauses may be nominal. (Note that the word combination *the President's departure* also denotes a situation but this idea is not expressed by means of a subject-predicate construction.)

The complex sentence does not always consist of one main and one subordinate clause. It may contain two, three, or more subordinate clauses, which may or may not be connected with one another. Two subordinate clauses are connected with one another if they belong to the same type (for example, if they are both object clauses). In this case, they may be joined by a co-ordinating conjunction. We can see an example in the following sentence:

*His mind soaked up everything, but particularly of a zoological, geographical or anthropological nature, he said that he never forgot a fact, and that you never knew when something might prove of use. (Hill)*

Correspondingly, there may also be homogeneous clauses, that is, two or more subordinate clauses, connected either with or without a conjunction, and performing the same syntactic function in the sentence. Thus, in the example above, there are two homogeneous object clauses.

The subordinate clauses, occurring in one complex sentence, may have different functions: one may be attributive, another an object clause, a third may be adverbial, and so forth.

So far we have only considered complex sentences with subordinate clauses of the first degree, that is, clauses immediately subordinated to the main clause. However, that is far from being the only possible structure of a

complex sentence. A subordinate clause may in its turn have another clause subordinated to it, that is, a subordinate clause of the second degree. The clause of the first degree to which another clause (of the second degree) is subordinated, has thus a twofold syntactic connection: on the one hand, it is a subordinate clause with reference to the main clause, and on the other, it is a head clause with reference to the second-degree subordinate clause. This may be seen, for example, in the following complex sentence:

*After she saw him into the dining room she went upstairs again, this time to the hall cedar closet where she stored items she couldn't quite bring herself to throw away. (Tylor)*

In this sentence, there is an attributive clause of the first degree (*where she stored items*) and an attributive clause of the second degree (*she couldn't quite bring herself to throw away*).

It goes without saying that a sentence need not necessarily be either only compound or only complex. It may combine both types of clause connections within its structure. Thus, for instance, there may be a compound sentence in which each of the main clauses has one or more subordinate clauses (possibly of different degrees) attached to it. Besides, the subordinate clauses may certainly differ from each other in various ways; for example, one subordinate clause may be attributive while another is adverbial, and so forth:

*It might have been better if Oscar had left me with two children (a girl, perhaps) so I could have spread my love a little more evenly and Eddie would not grow up thinking that the world revolves around him. (Parks)*

The properties mentioned above – correlation with sentence parts and expression of elementary notions through a situation – become criteria of the two classifications.

The first classification divides subordinate clauses according to the sentence part with which it correlates. Thus, one may distinguish between the subject clause, the predicative clause, the object clause, the attributive clause and the adverbial clause.

The second classification is based on the correlation with parts of speech. The clauses may be substantive (subject, predicative and object in the first classification), adverbial (= adverbial) and adjectival (= attributive). It cannot escape our attention that the two classifications do correlate with each other, which is quite natural, since there is a correlation between a morphological status and a syntactic function.

The classifications above point out an interesting peculiarity: they do not suggest any subordinate clauses that would correlate with the verbal predicate or the verb. Thus, we have to state one more property, unique to the verb (besides being the centre of the sentence, i.e. its ability to determine other sentence elements). The verbal meaning of an action may not be expressed with the help of a situation. As the verb may not be substituted for a clause, the time reference and the modality, expressed by a finite verbal form in the principal clause, remain the unchanged starting point throughout the sentence, no matter how long it may be and no matter how many subordinate clauses it may contain. It should be noted, however, that it holds for the complex sentence alone, whereas the compound sentence may exhibit different types of modality in each component.

## 5. Interrelation between sentences of different types

Components of the compound sentence may register semantic relations similar to those existing between some types of complex sentences, e.g. cause-consequence relations (*It was rather hot in there; I opened the window*) or temporal (*Next day we got the necessary data, and the Board could make the final decision*, cf. the possibility to transform the sentence into *When next day we got the necessary data, the Board could make the final decision*). Meanwhile, components of the compound and complex sentences may be joined *asyndetically*. If the status of a sentence is not quite definite, it belongs to the periphery of the "simple – complex sentence" system.

There is much more to be said about the complex sentence than about the compound. This is due to several causes, which are, however, connected with each other.

For one thing, the semantic relations, expressed by subordination, are much more numerous and more varied than those of co-ordination: all such relations as time, place, concession, purpose, etc. are expressly stated in complex sentences only. Then again, the means of expressing subordination are much more numerous. There is a great variety of simple conjunctions: *when, after, before, while, till, until, though, although, that, as, because, since*; a number of composite conjunctions: *as soon as, so long as, in order that, notwithstanding that*, etc. Besides, a certain number of conjunctive words are used: the relative pronouns *who, which, that, whoever, whatever, whichever*, etc.

The complex sentence is not completely separated from the simple sentence, since components of the simple sentence, due to ellipsis, intonation or punctuation, may approach predication units as parts of the complex sentence. Cf.

*Peter tilted his head and studied the contraption critically, his hands deep in his pockets, his back angled forward beneath the weight of his knapsack. (Tylor)*

Here the verbless constructions resemble structurally a nominal sentence. It is only the correlation with the "full" construction that makes it possible to identify them as components of the simple sentence: *his hands were deep in his pockets, his back was angled forward beneath the weight of his knapsack.*

Another argument against the stark opposition lies in that there is a number of common conjunctions (including co-ordinating *and, but,* etc., as well as some subordinating *though, if, when, than,* etc.) that may introduce a sentence part into the simple sentence and a predication construction – into the complex sentence, cf. *The evening was quiet but cold* and *He tried to speak persuasively but his words fell flat.*

In the examples above, the two sentence types (the simple sentence with homogeneous predicatives and the compound sentence) differ quite distinctly from each other. The difference is less obvious in the sentence *Though curious, he refrained from questions.* At some stages, grammarians tried to eliminate disputable issues by means of "explicating a missing part of a sentence", by transforming a sentence into a grammatically more explicit construction. This method may lead to considerably simplified conclusions concerning the language system. Thus, sentences like *Though curious, he refrained from questions* correlate with complex sentences like *Though he was curious, he refrained from questions* – and it is no more than an issue of correlation. Modern English offers a developed system of syntactic constructions, introduced with the help of subordinating conjunctions and expressing concession, time and other adverbial meanings. The frequency of the constructions stems from the general tendency to replace polypredication with monopredication, if predicates have a common subject. The adverbial constructions also illustrate absence of any borderline between syntactic units of a different categorical status.

Another case, where the simple and the complex sentences are rather close, is sentences with co-ordinate predicates or subjects. For example:

*I brew some coffee and consider breakfast; Bella and I leave Starbucks together. (Parks)*

Each of the sentences may be transformed into a set of simple ones and, therefore, may be interpreted as compound sentence, though compressed in a certain way. The matter is, however, that differences between syntactic units lie in differences of their syntactic form. If we search for a semantic invariant corresponding to various constructions and ignore their form, we may unite into one class constructions of quite different syntactic types. The complex sentence presupposes several predication centres, each having its own subject and predicate. Sentences with homogeneous subjects or predicates do not, therefore, contain several subjects and predicates. In language system, simple sentences with extended subjects or predicates constitute a definite structure, while compound sentences represent a different structure. The constructions like *I was not impolite, but I was persistent* illustrate these relations quite well: here, though the subject is the same in both of the parts, the compound sentence may not be modified in any way to form a simple sentence.

## 6. Asyndetic composite sentences. Inserted clauses

As has been pointed out above, by asyndetic we mean composite sentences whose constituent clauses are not joined together either by a conjunction or by any kind of connecting word (e.g. relative pronoun). This does not mean that there is nothing at all at the beginning of the second clause to express some kind of relation between the clauses. The second (or third, etc.) clause may begin with some word that does indicate some relation of this kind: for instance, if it begins with the words *however,* this indicates a semantic relation between the clauses akin to that expressed by the co-ordinating conjunction *but;* if it begins with the word *instead* this, too, indicates some sort of relation. Something similar may be said about such words as *nevertheless, nonetheless, therefore, notwithstanding,* etc. It may also be said that a personal or a demonstrative pronoun, referring back to some person or thing, mentioned in the first clause of an asyndetic composite sentence (the so-called anaphoric use), performs a certain connecting function.

Yet we will consider sentences built in this way to be asyndetic, as they do not contain any grammatical link between the clauses.

It must be admitted that the boundary between syndetic and asyndetic joining of clauses in a composite sentence is not clear. To some extent, it depends on the way we view a particular word. For instance, the word *yet* may be treated either as an adverb, or a particle or a conjunction. Correspondingly, if the second clause of a composite sentence opens with this word, the interpretation of the sentence will depend on the position the linguist takes as to the morphological status of *yet*.

There are, however, asyndetic composite sentences where the connecting elements are dropped for the sake of brevity or due to a general tendency to economy in speech. It appears that the connecting elements are, as a rule, missing before attributive or object clauses, as in

*What about your silk dress you had on that time I was patching the bathroom?* (Tylor)

*I hadn't realized I was carrying around a gap respectively.* (Parks)

The missing connective *that* is easily restored in transformations, which leads us to believe that these sentences are actually complex. The same may be observed in complex sentences with conditional subordinate clauses: *Had you told me about your doubts, I would never have asked you for help.* So, summing up, such sentences are formally asyndetic, though belong to the class of complex sentences.

Things are different with the following sentences:

*She had never aimed for the emaciated look; it wasn't that.* (Tylor)

*People ask for autograph, reach out to touch me, women jump around me and plant quick pecks on my face and hands' – it's surreal.* (Parks)

Though we still may explicate semantic relations between the parts, it is a far more complicated task than restoring subordinating connectives. What binds these clauses together is of course semantic relations but, grammatically, this is the use of tenses, mood, aspect, etc., or the use of any other syntactic means with the same function.

Among clauses joined asyndetically, we should also note those which correspond in meaning to parenthetical subordinate clauses of the syndetic type. Here is an example: *You have, I suppose, expected this to happen.* Of course it is the lexical meaning of the verb functioning as predicate in the clause (*to suppose, to think, to feel*) which shows the relation between it

and the rest of the sentence. In these cases, there is no formal sign to show whether the clause is subordinate or not, and thus the distinction may be said to be neutralized here.

Thus, we may claim that in some asyndetic composite sentences (those including attributive, object, and conditional clauses), there is a main and a subordinate clause, while the other types of asyndetic sentences do not admit of such a distinction.

By an **inserted clause** we mean a clause appearing within another clause and interrupting its structure. A clause of this kind may either be asyndetic, or it may be introduced by a conjunction, most usually perhaps by the conjunction *for*. An inserted clause usually contains some information serving to elucidate what is said in the main body of the sentence, or it may be a causal interruption due to the speaker suddenly thinking of something vaguely connected with what he is talking about, etc. There is certainly no reason for calling an inserted clause "subordinate", since no signs of subordination are to be found. Neither is there any valid reason for saying it is co-ordinate in the sense that clauses are co-ordinate within a compound sentence, indeed there are no clear signs which would prove that a sentence with an inserted clause is a composite sentence at all – though this of course depends on the exact interpretation we give of the notion of "composite sentence". The question whether a sentence with an inserted clause should or should not be considered a composite sentence is, after all, of little theoretical interest, and we here content ourselves with stating that we will not take it as composite. The sentence with the inserted clause taken out of it is a simple sentence (unless of course it contains co-ordinate or subordinate clauses) and with the inserted clause it may be reckoned as a special type – a simple sentence with an inserted clause.

Now let us consider a few examples of a sentence with an inserted clause. Consider the following sentence:

*The bride had been ivory plastic, she recalled, with a pinpoint-sized dot of red lipstick and two little beady brown eyes.* (Tylor)

Here the inserted clause contains information about the author of the statement, and in this respect it is akin to parenthetical clauses.

In the two following examples, the inserted clause has nothing of a parenthesis about it:

*She would buy him – she and Will would buy him – books about dinosaurs, and Atlantis, and the boyhood of Thomas Edison. (Tylor)*

*I'm already looking forward to introducing her to my mates because John will make her laugh (last night I discovered just how cool it is when Laura laughs) and Dave will reflect will on me, he's into the environment and saving whales and stuff, girls are impressed by blokes like that (they don't go out with them, though). (Parks)*

While in the first sentence the inserted clause *she and Will would buy him* specifies the content, in the second sentence the clause *last night I discovered just how cool it is when Laura laughs* can be introduced by the conjunction *for*, which would not involve any essential change of meaning but would make it somewhat more explicit, while the relation of the second inserted clause *they don't go out with them, though* may be defined as adverbative.

It must be owned, however, that the boundary line between inserted clauses remaining outside the structure of the sentence proper, and clauses making part of that structure, is not always easy to draw; in certain cases it may depend on the grammarian's view, that is, it may be to some extent arbitrary.

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Навчальне видання

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# КУРС ТЕОРЕТИЧНОЇ ГРАМАТИКИ СУЧАСНОЇ АНГЛІЙСЬКОЇ МОВИ

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