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ТЕОРЕТИЧЕСКАЯ ГРАММАТИКА СОВРЕМЕННОГО АНГЛИЙСКОГО ЯЗЫКА

Учебное пособие

МИНИСТЕРСТВО ОБРАЗОВАНИЯ И НАУКИ РОССИЙСКОЙ ФЕДЕРАЦИИ
УРАЛЬСКИЙ ФЕДЕРАЛЬНЫЙ УНИВЕРСИТЕТ
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АНГЛИЙСКОГО ЯЗЫКА

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Учебное пособие содержит обзорный материал по основным разделам теоретической грамматики английского языка. Рассматриваются проблемы морфологии и синтаксиса. Представлены подходы различных школ и направлений научной грамматики, а также обширная библиография.

Для студентов специальности «Филология», специализации «Английский язык».

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Предисловие

Грамматика, основными разделами которой являются морфология и синтаксис, берет свое начало в философских теориях античности. Лингвистическое учение о частях речи, о строении слов, о составе предложения, о синтагматических и парадигматических отношениях между элементами языка имеет древнейшую историю. На протяжении многих веков своего развития грамматика была связана с гуманитарными и общеполитическими направлениями человеческой мысли. В XX веке проявились тенденции сближения грамматической теории с точными науками. Однако в наше время, которое характеризуется как эпоха постструктурализма, лингвисты проявляют все больший интерес к коммуникативным аспектам языковых явлений. Наблюдается переход от описания структурных особенностей естественного человеческого языка к исследованию его функционально-семантических и прагматических характеристик. Задача современных исследователей в области теории грамматики — обобщить весь богатейший опыт предшественников и найти то диалектическое равновесие, которое позволило бы представить объективную картину сложнейших взаимоотношений содержания, формы и функции языковых единиц. Теоретическая грамматика английского языка представляет в этой связи особый интерес, поскольку в ней в значительной степени нашли свое отражение и реализацию различные методы лингвистического анализа.

Лекционный курс «Теоретическая грамматика английского языка» входит в учебный план студентов филологического факультета отделения романо-германской филологии по специальности «Филология», специализации «Английский язык». Он рассчитан на один учебный год с завершением в 7-м семестре. Для изучения данной дисциплины требуется свободное владение английским

языком как в устной, так и в письменной форме. Курс теоретической грамматики читается на изучаемом языке. Ему должны предшествовать такие теоретические и практические дисциплины, как «Введение в языкознание», «Практическая грамматика английского языка», «Лексикология английского языка», «История английского языка», «Теоретическая фонетика английского языка». Необходимо, чтобы студенты в достаточной степени владели навыками восприятия, анализа и фиксирования в письменной форме основной информации по изучаемому предмету. Деятельность студентов на лекции представляет собой частично самостоятельную учебную работу. Задача преподавателя — побуждать слушателей к диалогу, к научной рефлексии, к включению в процесс анализа и разрешения проблемных вопросов.

Теоретическая грамматика является одним из наиболее сложных обобщающих курсов в цикле теоретических дисциплин изучаемого языка. Данный лекционный курс представляет собой системное описание строя современного английского языка во всем многообразии и сложности взаимоотношений составляющих его элементов. Рассматриваются различные аспекты, направления и тенденции в исследованиях грамматических явлений как в морфологии, так и в синтаксисе. Наряду с информированием студентов о достижениях и проблемах в области теоретической грамматики английского языка большое внимание уделяется выработке у них навыков многопланового лингвистического анализа и самостоятельного критического суждения о грамматических явлениях и их интерпретациях в научной литературе. В рамках системной деятельности по предмету находят свое обобщение и практические аспекты английской грамматики в их приложении к методике преподавания английского языка и переводческой практике.

В настоящем пособии дан обзор основных проблем научной грамматики современного английского языка. Фактически это краткое изложение содержания лекций по изучаемой дисциплине. Такая форма позволяет студентам сосредоточиться на основных понятиях и терминах, принятых в этой области лингвистики, освоить их самостоятельно. Каждый подраздел представляет собой

конспективное описание соответствующей проблемы. Он снабжен кратким списком литературы (Working bibliography), включающим первоисточники, которые легли в основу данного описания и к которым студенты должны обращаться для более глубокого изучения вопроса. Устная презентация материала в лекциях также предполагает расширенное описание и детализацию обозначенных проблем. В конце учебного пособия дается общий список учебной и научной литературы по теоретической грамматике английского языка и смежным дисциплинам.

Большое значение для освоения материала курса имеет самостоятельная работа студентов как во время учебных семестров, так и в периоды подготовки к итоговым контрольным мероприятиям — зачету и экзамену. Основным условием успеха этой деятельности является доступность учебных и научных материалов по изучаемой дисциплине.

Полученные студентами знания и навыки реализуются при написании курсовых и квалификационных работ по темам, предполагающим расширение и углубление исследований грамматических явлений, представленных в учебном курсе теоретической грамматики английского языка.

Section I

**THEORETICAL ENGLISH GRAMMAR
AS A BRANCH OF LINGUISTICS**

1. On the History of English Grammars

Until the 17th century the term “grammar” in English was applied only to the study of Latin. Latin grammar was the only grammar learned in schools (grammar schools). Until the end of the 16th century there were no grammars of English. One of the most popular Latin grammars was written in English by William Lily. It was published in the first half of the 16th century and went through many editions. This book was very important for English grammar as it set a standard for the arrangement of material. Latin grammatical paradigms with their English equivalents made possible the presentation of English forms in a similar way, using the same terminology as in Latin grammar. Lily’s “Latin Grammar” may be considered as the precursor of the earliest English grammars. The first English grammar was written by William Bullokar (“Bref Grammar for English”, 1585). There were 5 cases of nouns in Bullokar’s grammar (cf. 6 cases in Latin). However, even early grammarians noticed some typical features which made the structure of English different from that of Latin.

Generally speaking, the history of English grammars may be divided into two periods. The first is the age of prescientific grammar beginning with the end of the 16th century and lasting till about 1900. It includes two types of grammars which succeeded each other. The first type of grammars in the history of English grammar is represented by early prenormative grammars of English (the first among them is W. Bullokar’s “Bref Grammar for English”).

By the middle of the 18th century, when many of the grammatical phenomena of English had been described and the English language norms established, the prenormative grammars gave way to a new kind of grammar, a prescriptive (normative) grammar. It stated strict rules of grammatical usage and set up a certain standard of correctness to be followed by learners. One of the most influential grammars of that period was R. Lowth's "Short Introduction to English Grammar", first published in 1762 in London. On the other side of the Atlantic, in New York, Lindley Murray wrote a very successful work, "English Grammar Adapted to the Different Classes of Learners". It was first published in 1795 and later underwent 50 editions in its original form and more than 120 – in an abridged version. Some of the 19th-century normative grammars were reprinted in the 20th century. For example, W. Lennie's "Principles of English Grammar" underwent numerous editions, the 99th edition being published in 1905; or, else, J. C. Nesfield's grammar ("English Grammar Past and Present", 1898) underwent twenty five editions in different variants and was still on sale in the 1960s.

Grammars of the second type (prescriptive, or normative grammars) written by modern authors are usually referred to as practical grammars of English.

By the end of the 19th century, when the system of grammar known in modern linguistics as traditional had been established, there appeared a new type of grammar (the third on the list), the scientific grammar. In contrast with prescriptive grammars, the classical scientific grammar was both descriptive and explanatory. H. Sweet's grammar book appeared in the last decade of the 19th century (H. Sweet, "A New English Grammar, Logical and Historical". Part I. Oxford, 1892; Part II. Oxford, 1898). The title of the book speaks for itself, so it is common practice nowadays to take the date of 1900 as the dividing line between the two periods in the history of English grammars and the beginning of the age of the scientific grammar. Classical scientific grammar accepted the traditional grammatical system of prescriptive grammars. During the first half of the 20th century, an intensive development of scientific English grammar took place, with great contributions to it being made by O. Jespersen ("The Philosophy of Grammar", 1924; "Essentials of English Grammar", 1933; "A Modern English Grammar on Historical

Principles”, 7 vols, 1914–1949), E. Kruisinga (“A Handbook of Present-Day English”, 1909), H. Poutsma (“A Grammar of Late Modern English”, 5 vols, 1904–1929), C. T. Onions (“An Advanced English Syntax”, 1904), G. O. Curme (“A Grammar of the English Language”, 1931) and some other scholars.

In the 1950s a new trend in linguistic studies came to the fore, the structural grammar (the fourth on the list). It was very popular with grammarians for about 40 years and took different directions in its development which are known as Descriptive Linguistics, Transformational Grammar, Generative Grammar, Generative Semantics. The main ideas of structural approach to language were advanced by Ferdinand de Saussure (“Cours de linguistique generale”, 1922) and Leonard Bloomfield (“Language”, 1933). Those ideas were accepted and further developed by H. Whitehall (“Structural Essentials of English”, 1956), Z. S. Harris (“Methods in Structural Linguistics”, 1961), Ch. C. Fries (“The Structure of English”, 1963), H. A. Gleason (“Linguistics and English Grammar”, 1965), E. Bach (“An Introduction to Transformation Grammars”, 1964), N. Chomsky (“Syntactic Structures”, 1957; “Language and Mind”, 1968), and a great number of other linguists.

When comparing the two periods in the history of English grammars, one can see that during the first period (the 17th — 19th centuries) there was only one kind of grammar in use at a time, whereas in the 20th century there were several types of grammatical descriptions used and developed in parallel. The coexistence and a certain interaction of different types of grammars is a typical feature of the second period (the scientific one). Among modern trends we cannot but mention the communicative grammar (the fifth on the list), which has been gaining popularity since the 1980s. In grammar books of this type the grammatical structures are systematically related to meanings, uses, and situations of communication.

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- Iofik L. L.* Readings in the Theory of English Grammar / L. L. Iofik [et al.]. Leningrad, 1981. P. 5–40.
- Leech G.* A Communicative Grammar of English / G. Leech, J. Starvik. Moscow, 1983. P. 5–8.

2. Fundamental Ideas and Main Schools of Structural Linguistics

The first linguists to speak of language as a system or a structure of smaller systems were Beaudouin de Courtenay (1845–1929) of Russia and the Swiss linguist Ferdinand de Saussure (1857–1913). The work that came to be most widely known is de-Saussure’s “Cours de linguistique generale” (Course in General Linguistics), posthumously compiled from his students’ lecture-notes.

De-Saussure’s main ideas are as follows:

1. Language is a system of signals (linguistic signs), interconnected and interdependent. It is this network of interdependent elements that forms the object of linguistics as an independent science.

2. Language as a system of signals may be compared to other systems of signals (e.g. military signals). Thus, language may be considered as the object of a more general science — semeiology — a science of different systems of signals used in human societies.

3. Language has two aspects: the system of language and the manifestation of this system in social intercourse — speech. The system of language is a body of linguistic units (sounds, affixes, words, etc), grammar rules, and the rules of lexical series. Speech is the total of our utterances and texts. It is based on the system of language. Speech is the linear (syntagmatic) aspect of language, while the system of language is its paradigmatic aspect (“associative” as de Saussure called it).

4. The linguistic sign is bilateral, i.e. it has both form and meaning. We understand the meaning of the linguistic sign as reflecting the objects, events, situations of the outside world.

5. The linguistic sign is “absolutely arbitrary” (in the sense that there is nothing obligatory in the relation of the sound form of the word to the object it denotes) and it is “relatively motivated” (in the sense that in the system of language the linguistic sign is connected with other linguistic signs both in form and meaning).

6. Language is to be studied as a system in the “synchronic plane”, i. e. at a given moment of its existence, in the plane of simultaneous coexistence of its elements.

7. The system of language is to be studied on the basis of the oppositions of its units. The units can be found by means of segmenting the flow of speech and comparing the isolated segments.

There were three main linguistic schools that further developed these ideas: the Prague School that created Functional Linguistics, the Copenhagen School that created Glossematics, and the American School that gave rise to Descriptive Linguistics, the Immediate Constituent Grammar, and the Transformational Grammar.

The Prague School was founded in 1929 by Czech and Russian linguists: Mathesius, Trnka, Trubetzkoy, Jakobson, and some others. Their main contribution to modern linguistics is the technique for determining the units of the phonological level of language. The basic method is the use of oppositions (contrasts) of speech sounds that change the meaning of the words in which they occur. Nikolay Trubetzkoy developed a set of contrast criteria for the identification and classification of phonological oppositions. The most widely known is the binary privative opposition in which one member of the contrastive pair is characterized by the presence of a certain feature that is lacking in the other member. The element possessing the feature in question is called the “marked”, or “strong” member of the opposition, the other is called the “unmarked”, or “weak” member of the opposition. A phoneme is distinguished from all the other phonemes by a set of distinctive (differential) features, e. g. [p] is distinguished from [b] as a voiceless sound. The method of binary oppositions was extended to grammar and widely applied to morphological studies, e. g. Roman Jakobson used the principle of privative opposition for describing the morphological categories of the Russian language.

The Copenhagen School was founded in 1933 by Louis Hjelmslev and Viggo Brondal. In the early 1930s the conception of the Copenhagen School was given the name “Glossematics” (from the Greek word *glossa* — language). In 1943 L. Hjelmslev published his main work which was later translated into English and appeared in Baltimore in 1953 under the title “Prolegomena to a Theory of Language (Principles of Linguistics). A Russian translation was published in 1960. Glossematics tried to give a more exact definition

of the object of linguistics. L. Hjelmslev sought to develop a sort of linguistic calculus (исчисление) which might serve linguistics in the same way as mathematics served physical sciences. The object of linguistics was then understood as “language in the abstract”. The ideas of Glossematics have been used in cognitive linguistics, in semantic theory of language. They have made the basis of the componential analysis. Componential analysis is an approach which makes use of semantic components. It seeks to deal with sense relations by means of a single set of constructs. Lexical items are analyzed in terms of semantic features or sense components, treated as binary opposites distinguished by pluses and minuses (+male/-male).

The American school of Descriptive Linguistics began in the 1920s—1930s. It was promoted by the necessity of studying half-known and unknown languages of American Indian tribes. Those languages were dying and had no writing. Being agglomerating, they had little in common with the Indo-European languages. Descriptive linguists had to give up the traditional principles of analysis in terms of the parts of speech and members of the sentence. Some new principles for describing language structures were proposed by E. Sapir (1884–1939) and L. Bloomfield (1887–1949). The fundamental work of L. Bloomfield (“Language”) was published in 1933. The author understood language as a system of signals, i. e. linguistic forms by means of which people communicate. However, according to L. Bloomfield meanings of speech forms could be scientifically defined only if all branches of science including psychology and physiology were close to perfection. Until that time linguistic forms are to be described in terms of their position and their co-occurrence in sentences. The study of a language must be objective and based on formal criteria — the distribution of linguistic units (i. e. the contextual environment of linguistic units) and their structural characteristics. The meaning of the utterance can be found through the response of the hearers. A sentence has a grammatical meaning which does not entirely depend on the choice of its word-constituents. These ideas were further developed by Z. S. Harris, Ch. C. Fries, H. Whitehall, H. A. Gleason, E. Bach, N. Chomsky, Mc. Cawley and many other scholars. For example, Ch. Fries in his

book “The Structure of English” (1957) says that it is the classes of words used in the sentence, their formal devices (morphemes), and their positions that signal the structural meaning of the sentence and its parts. To illustrate this he presents a set of sentences with a quite clear grammatical meaning in spite of their being built up of senseless words:

Woggles ugged diggles;

Uggs woggled digs;

Woggs diggled uggs.

Cf.: Глокая куздра штеко будланула бокра и куздрячит бокренка (Л. В. Щерба).

In fact, the main contribution of American Descriptive School to modern linguistics is the development of the techniques of linguistic analysis, viz. the Distributional method and the IC-method (the method of immediate constituents). The distribution of a linguistic unit is the total of all environments in which it occurs. An immediate constituent is one of the two constituents of which the given linguistic form is directly built up. Immediate constituents are constituent elements immediately entering into any meaningful combination (e. g. *friendliness* = [*friend* + *ly*] + *ness*). The dichotomic division of a construction begins with the larger elements and continues to ultimate constituents.

The methods of Descriptive Linguistics gave rise to Transformational Grammar (T-Grammar) with its method of transformation understood as the transition from one syntactic pattern to another syntactic pattern with the preservation of the notional parts. The main problems of T-Grammar were to establish the set of kernel sentences (basic syntactic structures) and to establish the set and the order of transformation rules for deriving all the other sentences from kernel ones. R. B. Lees reduced the number of basic structures to the two: NV and N is N/A. Ch. Fries proposed the three patterns: N is N/A; NVN; NV.

Z. S. Harris gave the following list of kernel sentences in the English language:

- 1) N V (*The team went away*) — the V occurs without object.
- 2) N V N (*We'll take it*).

- 3) N V prep N (*The teacher looked at him*).
- 4) N is N (*He is an architect*).
- 5) N is A (*The girl is pretty*).
- 6) N is prep N (*The paper is of importance*).
- 7) N is D (*The man is here*).

Two more basic structures were also introduced:

- 8) N V N N (*The teacher gave him his pen*) — for the V of the “give” type.
- 9) N V N D (*He threw his coat on the sofa*) — for the V of the “put” type.

Transformational-Generative Grammar developed by N. Chomsky (“Three Models for the Description of Language”, 1956), is a more specific type of T-Grammar. It holds that some grammatical rules are transformational, i. e. they change one structure into another according to such prescribed conventions as moving, inserting, deleting, and replacing items. It stipulates two levels of syntactic structure: deep structure (an abstract underlying structure that holds all the syntactic information required for the interpretation of a given sentence) and surface structure (a structure that includes all the syntactic features of a sentence required to convert the sentence into a spoken or written version).

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3. General Linguistic Notions

Language is the system, phonological, lexical, and grammatical, which lies at the base of all speaking. Speech, on the other hand, is the manifestation of language, or its use by various speakers and writers of the given language. Text is the result of the process of speech. Language is social by nature; it grows and develops with the development of

society. It exists in individual minds, but serves the purposes of social intercourse through speech (originally oral, nowadays to a greater extent written). The three constituent parts of language are the phonological system, the lexical system, the grammatical system. The unity of these three elements forms a language. The system of language includes the body of material units: sounds (phonemes), morphemes, words (lexemes), word-groups, sentences, supra-phrasal unities. According to them we distinguish between 6 levels of linguistic analysis.

Phoneme is a linguistic unit, but not a linguistic sign. It has no meaning; it has a meaning differential function instead. It differentiates morphemes and words as material bodies. Units of all the other levels are meaningful. They are bilateral, possessing both form and meaning. The morphemes express abstract, “significative” meanings which are used as constituents for the formation of more concrete, “nominative” meanings. Words and all the higher units: phrases (word combinations, word-groups), sentences and supra-phrasal unities (sentence-groups, textual unities, or just text) are used to express referential meanings.

Three main branches of linguistics dealing with the main linguistic units are phonetics (phonology), lexicology and grammar. Grammar is the study of the grammatical structure of language. It includes morphology and syntax. Morphology is the part of grammar which treats of the forms of words. Syntax is the part of grammar which treats of phrases and sentences. The border-line between the two is conventional, and there are cases of overlapping. While free phrases fall under syntax, the formations like *have been found*, *has been raining* are referred to as analytical word-forms and fall under morphology. Set phrases make the subject of phraseology as a branch of lexicology.

Morphology deals with the paradigmatic relations of morphemes and words, while syntax deals with the syntagmatic relations in phrases and sentences.

Syntagmatic relations are immediate linear relations between units in a segmental sequence (string). Syntagmatically connected are words and word-groups in the sentence, morphemes within words, phonemes within morphemes and words. Syntax as a part of grammar studies syntagmatic relations of words in phrases and sentences.

There are four main types of notional syntagmas identified in the sentence *The small lady listened to me attentively*:

- 1) predicative syntagma — The lady listened;
- 2) objective syntagma — listened to me;
- 3) attributive syntagma — The small lady;
- 4) adverbial syntagma — listened attentively.

Paradigmatic relations exist between elements of the system of language outside the strings where they occur. Each linguistic unit is included in a set of connections based on different properties. This is evident in classical grammatical paradigms which express various grammatical categories (e. g. number, person, case, tense, aspect, mood). Morphology is a part of grammar which deals with the paradigmatic relations of word-forms. The major English verb paradigm includes 5 forms:

- 1) The Base Form (*work*).
- 2) The S-Form (*works*).
- 3) The ED-Form of the Past Simple (*worked*).
- 4) The ED-Form of the Past Participle (*worked*).
- 5) The ING-Form (*working*).

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Section II

MORPHOLOGY

4. Morphology as a Part of Grammar

The course of Modern English morphology consists of three main parts: 1) essentials of morphology, 2) the system of parts of speech, 3) the study of each part of speech in terms of its grammatical categories and syntactic functions.

The chief notions of morphology include the grammatical category, the word and the morpheme.

Grammatical category is a system of expressing a generalized grammatical meaning by means of paradigmatic correlation of grammatical forms (e. g. the category of number in nouns with the singular and plural forms).

Categorial grammatical meanings are the most general meanings rendered by language and expressed by systematical correlations of word-forms (e. g. tense, aspect, voice, mood in the verb system).

The paradigmatic correlations of grammatical forms in a category are exposed by the grammatical oppositions of various types (e. g. a binary privative opposition found in the category of number; a gradual opposition — in the degrees of comparison of adjectives, an equipotential opposition — in the three tense system).

Word is the principal and basic unit of the language system, the largest on the morphological and the smallest on the syntactic level of linguistic analysis. It is very difficult to give a complete definition to the word because the word is an extremely complex and many-sided phenomenon. Within different linguistic theories and trends the word is defined as the minimal potential sentence, the minimal free linguistic form, the elementary component of the sentence, the grammatically

arranged combination of sound with meaning, the uninterrupted string of morphemes, etc.

Being a linguistic sign, the word is a two-facet unit possessing both form and content, i. e. sound-form and meaning. The term “word“, or “lexeme“, is an abstraction. It refers to the word taken as an invariant unity of form and meaning. When used in actual speech, words occur in different forms. The system showing a word in all its word-forms is called its paradigm (e. g. *boy, boys, boy's, boys'*).

Morphemes are the smallest meaningful units into which a word-form may be divided (e. g. *workers* = [*work* + *er*] + *s*). The morpheme is the smallest meaningful part of a word expressing a generalized, significative meaning. There are root-morphemes and affixational morphemes; the latter include derivational affixes (prefixes, suffixes) and inflections.

Stem, or base, is the part of a word which remains unchanged throughout its paradigm. The most characteristic feature of word structure in Modern English is the phonetic identity of the stem with the root morpheme.

The root-morpheme is the common part within a word-cluster and the lexical centre of the word. Root-morphemes make the subject of lexicology. Derivational morphemes are lexically dependent on the root-morphemes, which they modify. But most of them have the part-of-speech meaning, which makes them grammatically significant. Inflectional morphemes have no lexical meaning. Inflections (endings) carry only grammatical meaning (of such categories as person, number, case, tense, aspect, etc).

Allomorphs, or morphs, are all the representations of the given morpheme, in other words, the morpheme phonetic variants (e. g. *please, pleasant, pleasure*; or else, *poor, poverty*).

“Zero-morpheme” is the term used to show that the absence of a morpheme indicates a certain grammatical meaning (e. g. *book* — singular number vs. *books* — plural number). The problem with zero-morpheme is that this designation contradicts the general definition of the morpheme as a two-facet linguistic unit having both form and meaning. Zero-morpheme does not have any sound form. To avoid

this contradiction, some scholars suggest that the term should be changed and the meaningful absence of a morpheme should be termed “zero-exponent”.

Modern English has several ways of expressing grammatical meaning, or several types of word-form derivation.

Synthetic types of word-form derivation imply changes in the body of the word without any auxiliary words (e. g. *work* — *works* — *worked*). Analytical types consist in using an auxiliary word, devoid of any lexical meaning, to express some grammatical category of another word (e. g. *work* — *have worked*). Modern English as a predominantly analytical language demonstrates comparatively few grammatical inflections, a sparing use of sound alternations to denote grammatical forms, a wide use of auxiliaries, prepositions, and word order to denote grammatical relations.

Sound alternations mean a way of expressing grammatical categories which consists in changing a sound inside the root (e. g. *man* — *men*).

Suppletive formation is a way of building a form of a word from an altogether different stem (e. g. *go* — *went*).

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5. Parts of Speech

The words of language are divided into grammatically relevant sets, or classes. Parts of speech are grammatical (or lexico-grammatical) classes of words identified on the basis of the three criteria: the meaning common to all the words of the given class, the form with the morphological characteristics of a type of word, and the function

in the sentence typical of all the words of this class (e. g. the English noun has the categorical meaning of “thingness”, the changeable forms of number and case, and the functions of the subject, object and substantive predicative).

The notion of “parts of speech” goes back to the times of Ancient Greece. Aristotle (384–322 B. C.) distinguished between nouns, verbs and connectives. Traditional grammars of English, following the approach which can be traced back to Latin, agreed that there were eight parts of speech in English: the noun, pronoun, adjective, verb, adverb, preposition, conjunction and interjection. Some books additionally mentioned the article. A. I. Smirnitsky and B. A. Ilyish are Russian scholars of English grammar notable, among other things, for the development of the three-criteria characterization of the parts of speech.

Modern classifications, proposed by different scholars, distinguish, as a rule, between notional parts of speech, having a full nominative value, and functional parts of speech characterized by a partial nominative value. The complete lists of notional and functional words, ever mentioned in those classifications, include the following items.

Notional words:

- 1) nouns;
- 2) adjectives;
- 3) verbs;
- 4) adverbs;
- 5) pronouns;
- 6) numerals;
- 7) statives;
- 8) modal words;
- 9) interjections.

Functional words:

- 1) prepositions;
- 2) conjunctions;
- 3) articles;
- 4) particles;
- 5) postpositions.

The main problem with the traditional classification is that some grammatical phenomena given above have intermediary features in this system. They make up a continuum, a transition zone, between the polar entities. For example, there is a very specific group of quantifiers in English (such words as *many*, *much*, *little*, *few*). They have features of pronouns, numerals, and adjectives and are referred to as “hybrids”.

Statives can be considered as making up a separate part of speech (according to B. A. Ilyish), or as a specific group within the class of adjectives (according to M. Y. Blokh).

There are hardly any reasons for the identification of postpositions as a separate functional class because these are prepositions and adverbs in a specific lexical modifying function. The separate notional class of modal words in this system is open to criticism because they are adverbs by nature. The same refers to the functional class of particles.

The grammatical status of the English article is not clear enough; in linguistic literature there are variants of its interpretation as a sort of an auxiliary word or even a detached morpheme.

In general, the items of the traditional part-of-speech system demonstrate different featuring. Sometimes one or even two of the three criteria of their identification may fail. Let's review the system in detail.

Noun is characterized by the categorial meaning of "thingness", or substance. It has the changeable forms of number and case. The substantive functions in the sentence are those of the subject, object and predicative.

Adjectives are words expressing properties of objects. There are qualitative and relative adjectives. The forms of the degrees of comparison are typical of qualitative adjectives. Adjectival functions in the sentence are those of attribute and predicative.

Verb is characterized by the categorial meaning of process expressed by both finite and non-finite forms. The verb has the changeable forms of the 6 categories: person, number, tense, aspect, voice and mood. The syntactic function of the finite verb is that of predicate. The non-finite forms of the verb (Infinitive, Gerund, Participle I, Participle II) perform all the other functions (subject, object, attribute, adverbial modifier, predicative).

Adverbs have the categorial meaning of the secondary property, i. e. the property of process or another property. They are characterized by the forms of the degrees of comparison (for qualitative adverbs) and the functions of various adverbial modifiers.

Pronouns point to the things and properties without naming them. The categorial meaning of indication (deixis) is the only common feature

that unites the heterogeneous groups of English personal, possessive, demonstrative, interrogative, relative, conjunctive, indefinite, defining, negative, reflexive, and reciprocal pronouns.

Numerals have the categorical meaning of number (cardinal and ordinal). They are invariable in English and used in the attributive and substantive functions.

Statives are words of the category of state, or qualifying a-words, which express a passing state a person or thing happens to be in (e. g. *aware, alive, asleep, afraid* etc).

Modal words express the attitude of the speaker to the situation reflected in the sentence and its parts. Here belong the words of probability (*probably, perhaps, etc*), of qualitative evaluation (*fortunately, unfortunately, luckily, etc*) and also of affirmation and negation.

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

Preposition expresses the dependencies and interdependencies of substantive referents.

Conjunction expresses connections of phenomena.

Article is a determining unit of specific nature accompanying the noun in communicative collocations. The article expresses the specific limitation of the substantive function.

Particle unites the functional words of specifying and limiting meaning (*even, just, only, etc*).

Each part of speech is further subdivided into groups and subgroups in accord with various semantic, formal and functional features of constituent words. Thus, nouns are subcategorized into proper and common, animate and inanimate, countable and uncountable, concrete and abstract, etc. Verbs are subcategorized into fully predicative and partially predicative, transitive and intransitive, actional and statal, terminative and durative, etc. Adjectives are subcategorized into qualitative and relative, etc.

When taking some definitions of the parts of speech, one cannot but see that they are difficult to work with. When linguists began to look closely at English grammatical structure in the 1940s and 1950s,

they encountered so many problems of identification and definition that the term “part of speech” soon fell out of favour, “word class” being introduced instead. Of the various alternative systems of word classes attempted by different scholars, the one proposed by Ch. C. Fries is of a particular interest. Ch. C. Fries developed the syntactico-distributional classification of words based on the study of their position in the sentence and combinability. It was done by means of substitution tests. Tape-recorded spontaneous conversations comprising about 250,000 word entries provided the material. The words isolated from that corpus were tested on the three typical sentence patterns (substitution test-frames) with the marked main positions of notional words:

Frame A. $\begin{matrix} & 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 \\ & \text{The} & \text{concert} & \text{was} & \text{good} \end{matrix}$ (*always*).

Frame B. $\begin{matrix} & 1 & & 2 & & 1 & & 4 \\ & \text{The} & \text{clerk} & \text{remembered} & \text{the} & \text{tax} \end{matrix}$ (*suddenly*).

Frame C. $\begin{matrix} & 1 & & 2 & & 4 \\ & \text{The} & \text{team} & \text{went} & \text{there.} \end{matrix}$

The notional words could fill in the marked positions of the frames without affecting their general structural meanings (“thing and its quality at a given time” for the first frame; “actor — action — thing acted upon” for the second frame; “actor — action — direction of the action” for the third frame).

As a result of successive substitution tests on the given frames, 4 positional classes of notional words were identified. They corresponded to the traditional grammatical classes of nouns, verbs, adjectives, and adverbs. The other words (154 units) were unable to fill in the marked notional positions of the frames without destroying their structural meanings. Ch. C. Fries distributed them into 15 groups of function words representing the three main sets: 1) the specifiers of notional words (the determiners of nouns, modal verbs, functional modifiers and the intensifiers of adjectives and adverbs); 2) the interpositional elements (prepositions and conjunctions); 3) the words, referring to the sentence as a whole (question-words; inducement words: *let*, *let's*, *please*, etc; attention-getting words; words of affirmation and negation; sentence introducers *it*, *there*; and some others).

Comparing the classification of word classes proposed by Ch. C. Fries with the traditional system of parts of speech, one cannot help noticing the similarity of the general principles of the two: the opposition of notional and functional words, the four cardinal classes of notional words and their open character, the interpretation of functional words as syntactic mediators and their representation by the list.

When discussing the strong and weak points of the morphological system of parts of speech, one should remember that traditional principles of part-of-speech identification were formulated as a result of profound research conducted on the vast material of numerous languages. The recently advanced interpretation of the part-of-speech system as a continuum, as a field structure having intermediary elements and transition zones between polar entities, provides a new promising approach to the intriguing problems of morphology.

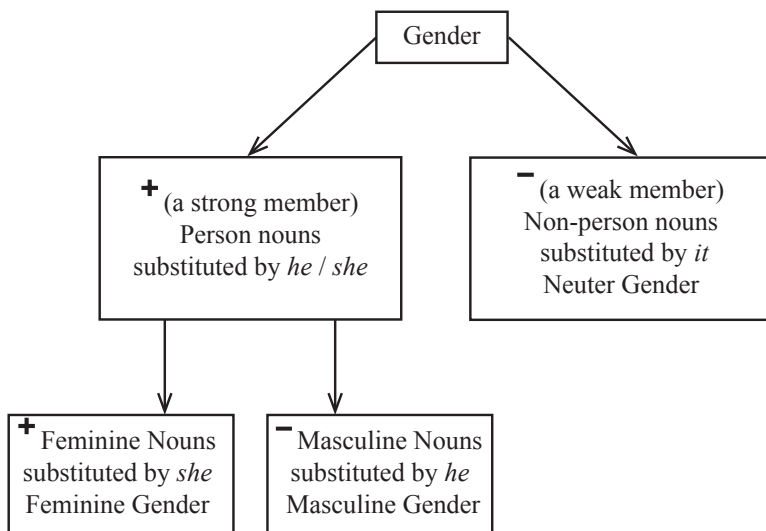
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6. Noun: General Characteristics

The grammatical class of nouns is characterized by the categorical meaning of “thingness”, or substance. The typical syntactic functions of the noun are those of the subject, object and predicative/complement. It is generally accepted that the noun in Modern English has only two

grammatical categories, those of number and case, normally expressed by the *-s* inflection of the plural number and the *-’s* inflection of the possessive case. However, the existence of case seems to be doubtful and has to be carefully analyzed further. As far as the category of gender is concerned, most scholars (both in Russia and abroad) agree that English makes very few gender distinctions, and the Modern English noun does not have the category of grammatical gender. Nevertheless, the opposite views can be found in linguistic literature. According to M. Y. Blokh the category of gender is expressed in English by the obligatory correlation of nouns with the personal pronouns of the third person: *he, she, it*. This category is regarded by M. Y. Blokh as being strictly oppositional, formed by two oppositions related to each other in a hierarchy:



This interpretation, however, is open to criticism. First, the principle of binary privative opposition has not been correctly applied here. Both strong and weak members are marked. Second, a great many person nouns in English are capable of expressing both feminine and masculine

genders, e. g. *person, parent, friend, cousin, doctor, teacher, manager*, etc. Third, in the plural forms the gender distinctions are neutralized.

There is another approach, typical of some British and American scholars. They identify the grammatical category of gender with a few closed groups of English nouns, e. g. kinship terms (*father — mother, son — daughter, brother — sister, husband — wife, uncle — aunt*, etc). The other groups include: *man — woman, boy — girl, gentleman — lady, king — queen*, or, else, *cock — hen, bull — cow*, etc. The problem with such words is that the biological sex distinctions are expressed here on the lexical level. It is the lexical meaning of these words which is responsible for the gender differentiations; no morphological correlations can be found with them.

On the other hand, there are several non-productive suffixal formations of the type: *actor — actress, host — hostess, waiter — waitress, duke — duchess, prophet — prophetess, lion — lioness*, etc. They are grammatically relevant and may be interesting in a diachronic study as the evidence of some former trends in the English language development. However, they are exceptional and cannot build up any grammatically significant paradigm within the Modern English noun system. The conclusion is that there is no grammatical category of gender in Modern English.

Subclasses of English Nouns. Very important for current grammatical usage are semantic subdivisions of English nouns into proper and common, animate and inanimate, countable and uncountable, concrete and abstract. In particular, the use of the English articles is affected by the noun belonging to the subclass of proper names or that of common nouns; or, else, concrete or abstract nouns. Within the category of number the plural form is impossible with uncountable nouns (names of substances and abstract notions). In the case system, inanimate nouns (with some exceptions) are not allowed to have the possessive case form.

Attributive Function of English Nouns. In Modern English a noun may just stand before another noun and modify it, making up with it an attributive syntagma, e. g. *stone wall, speech sound*, etc. Different ideas have been put forward concerning this grammatical phenomenon. The

view that the first element in such phrases as “stone wall” is a noun was expressed by H. Sweet and most other scholars; the view that it is an adjective or at least approaches the adjective state — by O. Jespersen. The third interpretation is that the first element is neither a noun nor an adjective, but a separate part of speech, viz. an attributive noun. The variety of opinions shows that the precise identification of the grammatical status of the element in question has run into considerable difficulties. First of all, it is difficult to apply here the criteria used to distinguish a noun from an adjective. The first element in the phrases like *stone wall* does not form degrees of comparison, but on the other hand, many English relative adjectives (e. g. *golden, linguistic, Japanese*) do not have degrees of comparison either.

Most practical English grammars have chosen the interpretation that the first element in such phrases as “stone wall” is a noun in a specific syntactic function. This view appears to be the most plausible.

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7. Noun: Category of Number

Modern English, as many other languages, distinguishes between two numbers, singular and plural. Their categorial meaning is clear enough: the singular number shows that one object is meant, the plural shows that two or more objects are meant. Thus, the opposition is “one — more than one” (e. g. *student — students, girl — girls, story — stories*, etc), with the plural forms being the strong member, marked by the *-s* inflection in its three phonetic variants: [s], [z], [ɪz].

There are some closed groups of nouns which display exceptional plural forms:

1) Four nouns add the non-productive suffixes *-en*, *-ren* (*ox — oxen*, *child — children*, *brother — brethren*, *aurochs — aurochsen*).

2) Seven nouns change their vowel; this process is known as mutation, or sound alternation (*man — men*, *woman — women*, *goose — geese*, *foot — feet*, *tooth — teeth*, *mouse — mice*, *louse — lice*). The change does not take place when there is a derived sense, as when *louse* refers to a person (*you, louses*) or *mouse* to a character (*We've hired three Mickey Mouses this month*).

3) A few nouns have the same form for both singular and plural, even though they are semantically variable, allowing a difference between “one” and “more than one”. Only the context enables us to know which meaning is intended (*sheep — sheep*, *deer — deer*, *salmon — salmon*, *aircraft — aircraft*, *offspring — offspring*, *series — series*, *species — species*).

4) Many nouns, borrowed from Latin or Greek, have kept the original plural (e. g. *alga — algae*, *larva — larvae*, *bacterium — bacteria*, *datum — data*, *phenomenon — phenomena*, *criterion — criteria*, *bacillus — bacilli*, *locus — loci*, *nucleus — nuclei*, *stimulus — stimuli*, *codex — codices*, *analysis — analyses*, *basis — bases*, *crisis — crises*, etc). There are variations of usage with some other Latin or Greek words, that is the original plural form vs Standard English one (e. g. *antenna — ae/-s*, *formula — ae/-s*, *aquarium — a/-s*, *maximum — a/-s*, *medium — a/-s*, *referendum — a/-s*, *forum — a/-s*, *focus — i/-es*, *fungus — i/es*, *cactus — i/es*, *syllabus — i/es*, *radius — i/es*, *index — ices/-es*, *appendix — ices/-es*, *apex — ices/-es*, *vortex — ices/-es*, *matrix — ices/-es*, etc).

Many English nouns do not show a contrast between singular and plural. They are classified into several groups.

Nouns with the descriptive plural. The plural form of such a noun has a pronounced stylistic coloring due to the usage of the uncountable noun in the function of the countable noun, e. g. the waters of the Atlantic; Arabia, the land of sands; “A Daughter of the Snows” (J. London). The opposition “one — more than one” does not apply here. We could not possibly say *three waters*, or *five snows*. The real difference in meaning between *water* and *waters*, or *snow* and *snows* is that the plural form serves to denote a landscape or seascape in order to impress (a vast

stretch of water; the ground covered by snow, etc). A peculiar stylistic value of such forms is evident.

Nouns with a fully lexicalized plural form. The plural form develops a completely new meaning which the singular does not have at all, e. g. *colour* — *colours* (флаг), *custom* — *customs* (таможня).

Pluralia Tantum nouns. These are nouns which have only a plural and no singular form. Here belong the names of “two-part” items (*trousers, scissors, binoculars, jeans*, etc) and nouns of indefinite plurality (*annals, amends, auspices, congratulations, dregs, outskirts, remains, thanks, tropics*, etc).

There are also a few nouns which look singular but are always plural (*vermin, people, livestock*, etc).

Singularia Tantum nouns. These are nouns which have only a singular and no plural form. In fact, they are uncountable, because they denote material substance (*air, milk, oxygen, oil*, etc) or abstract notions (*peace, usefulness, music*, etc). However, such nouns may become countable if they are used to denote objects made of the material (*iron* — *irons*), or special kinds of the substance (*wine* — *wines*), or objects/persons exhibiting the quality denoted by the noun (*beauty* — *beauties*).

Names of subjects, diseases, and games, such as *linguistics, mathematics, physics, mumps, billiards*, etc are always in the singular.

Collective nouns and nouns of multitude. These are nouns denoting groups of human beings (*family, folk, party, government, police*, etc) and also of animals (*cattle, poultry*) which can be used in two different ways: either they are taken to denote the group as a whole, or else they are taken to denote the group as consisting of a number of individuals (e. g. *My family is small* — *My family are early risers*).

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8. Noun: Category of Case

The problem of case in Modern English nouns is one of the most difficult problems in English grammar. The traditional view presented in most practical grammars is that English nouns have two cases: a common case (e. g. *father*) and a possessive or genitive case (e. g. *father's*). However, there are some other views which can be divided into two main groups: 1) the number of cases in English is more than two; 2) there are no cases at all in Modern English nouns.

The classical definition of the grammatical category of case reads: "Case is the category of a noun expressing relations between the thing denoted by the noun and other things, or properties, or actions, and manifested by some formal sign in the noun itself". This sign is almost always an inflection, and it may also be a zero sign i. e. the grammatically meaningful absence of any sign. It is obvious that the minimal number of case forms in a given language system is two because at least two grammatically correlated elements are needed to establish a category. Thus case is a part of the morphological system of a language. With this interpretation in view, it is hardly possible to accept the theories which hold that case may also be expressed by prepositions or by the word order. It is the position of Max Deutschbein and some other scholars that Modern English nouns have four cases, viz. nominative, genitive, dative and accusative, of which the genitive case is expressed by the *-s* inflection and by the preposition *of*, the dative — by the preposition *to* and also by the word order, and the accusative is distinguished from the dative by the word order alone. But there is a contradiction here pointed out by B. A. Ilyish. He says that once we admit prepositions, or word order, or any other non-morphological means of expressing case, the number of cases may grow indefinitely. There may be an instrumental case expressed by the preposition *with*, or a locative case expressed by the preposition *in*, or any other case. That view would mean abandoning the idea of the morphological category of case and confusing word-forms with syntactic phenomena.

It seems obvious that the two-case system (the common case and the possessive case) is a reasonable choice from the morphological point of view. It should be kept in mind, however, that the possibility of

forming the possessive case, also referred to as s-genitive, is limited to English nouns denoting living beings (first of all, person nouns, e. g. *my father's room*) and a few others (those denoting units of time, e. g. *this year's elections*, and also some substantivized adverbs, e. g. *yesterday's news*). It should also be noted that this limitation is not too strict and there seems to be some tendency at work to use the s-genitive more extensively (e. g. *a work's popularity*, *the engine's life*).

The other problem with the possessive case is the possibility in Modern English of such expressions as *Smith and Brown's office*, *the King of England's residence*, *the Oxford professor of poetry's lecture*, etc in which the -'s refers to the whole group of words. In such collocations as *somebody else's child*, *nobody else's business* the word immediately preceding the -'s inflection is an adverb which could not by itself have the possessive (genitive) case form. Formations of this kind are not rare. In Sweet's famous example, *the man I saw yesterday's son*, the -'s inflection refers to the whole attributive clause. All these phenomena give rise to doubts about the existence of a traditional morphological case system in Modern English, in particular about the form in -'s being a case form at all.

The problem of case in Modern English has been variously interpreted by many scholars, both in this country and elsewhere. M. Y. Blokh says that four special views should be considered as essential in the analysis of this grammatical phenomenon. The first view called "the theory of positional cases" is directly connected with old grammatical tradition and can be found in the works of J. C. Nesfield, M. Deutschbein, M. Bryant and some other scholars. According to them, the English noun, on the analogy on classical Latin grammar, could distinguish, besides the inflectional genitive case, also the non-inflectional, i. e. purely positional cases: nominative, vocative, dative, and accusative. The prerequisite for such an interpretation is the fact that the functional meanings rendered by cases can be expressed in language by non-morphological means, in particular, by word-order.

The second view is 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 collocations should be understood as morphological case forms. To these belong first of all the dative case (*to* + noun, *for* + noun) and the genitive case (*of* + noun). These prepositions, according to G. Curme, are “inflectional prepositions” equivalent to case inflections. The prepositional cases are taken, by the scholars who recognize them, as coexisting with positional cases together with the classical inflectional genitive (possessive) completing the case system of the English noun.

The third view of the English noun case recognizes a limited inflectional system of two cases in English: the common case and the possessive (genitive) case. The limited case theory is most broadly accepted among linguists. It was developed by such scholars as H. Sweet, O. Jespersen. In the works of A. I. Smirnitsky and L. S. Barkhudarov it is presented as an oppositional system, the genitive form marked with the -‘s inflection being the strong member of the categorical opposition, the common, or the non-genitive form being the weak member. The limited case theory applies to the noun-forms with the -‘s inflection; the specific word-combinations of the type *Smith and Brown’s office*, *somebody else’s daughter*, etc, where the -‘s refers to the whole phrase, are not taken into consideration.

The fourth view of the problem of the English noun cases treats the English noun as having lost the category of case in the course of its historical development. All the noun cases, including genitive, are regarded as extinct. The only existing case inflection -‘s is described by the proponents of this approach (G. N. Vorontsova and some other scholars) as a specific postpositional element — the possessive postposition. One cannot but acknowledge the rational character of this reasoning; it is based on the careful observation of the linguistic data. For all that, however, the theory of the possessive postposition fails to take into account the inflectional nature of the -‘s.

We have considered theoretical aspects of the problem of case of the English noun. As a result of the analysis, we may come to the conclusion that the inflectional case of nouns in English has practically ceased to exist. The remaining two-case system has a limited application in the expression of various case relations in Modern English.

The personal pronouns in English are commonly interpreted as having a case system of their own, quite different from that of nouns. The two cases traditionally recognized here are the nominative case (*I, you, he, etc.*) and the objective case (*me, you, him, etc.*).

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9. Adjective

It is common knowledge that adjectives are words expressing properties of objects. They are divided into qualitative and relative adjectives. But there is not much to be said about the English adjective from the morphological point of view; it has neither number, nor case, nor gender distinctions. To recognize adjectives in a text one should take into account their semantic and syntactic features. Derivative suffixes may also be helpful. Among these are the suffixes *-al*, *-ial* (*national, residential*), *-ful* (*doubtful*), *-less* (*useless*), *-y* (*dusty*), *-like* (*ghostlike*). They are used to derive adjectives from nouns. There are two suffixes, *-ive* (*progressive*) and *-able* (*readable*), to derive adjectives from verbal stems. On the whole, the number of adjectives which are recognized by their suffixes is insignificant as compared with the mass of English adjectives.

Degrees of Comparison. The only morphological problem concerning English adjectives is the category of degrees of comparison. Most practical grammars only focus on the ways of forming degrees of comparison: 1) the synthetical pattern (with the suffixes *-er*, *-est*); 2) the analytical pattern (*more* + Adj.; *the most* + Adj.); 3) the suppletive formations (e. g. *good* — *better* — *the best*; *bad* — *worse* — *the worst*). Theoretical interpretation of degrees of comparison is not so easy. The first question which arises here is about the number of them. How many degrees of comparison does the adjective have? If we take the

three forms, e. g. *large* (positive), *larger* (comparative), *the largest* (superlative), shall we say that they are all degrees of comparison? Or shall we say that only the latter two are degrees of comparison, whereas the first does not express any idea of comparison? Both views hold.

It is well known now that not every adjective has degrees of comparison. Since degrees of comparison express a difference of degree in the same property, only those of adjectives admit of degrees of comparison which denote properties capable of appearing in different degrees. For example, the adjective *middle* has no degrees of comparison. This refers to most relative adjectives and some qualitative, such as *blind*, *main*, *perfect*.

Amore complex problem is the grammatical status of such formations as *more difficult*, *the most difficult*. They are referred to as the analytical forms of degrees of comparison. In that case the words *more* and *most* would be auxiliary words devoid of their lexical meaning. In fact, they preserve their meaning in the word combinations under discussion and they should be treated as components of free phrases. But, on the other hand, qualitative adjective like *difficult*, *beautiful*, *interesting* express properties which may be presented in different degrees and, therefore, they are bound to have degrees of comparison. B. A. Ilyish says that considerations of meaning tend towards recognizing the formations of the type *more difficult* as analytical forms of degrees of comparison, whereas strictly grammatical considerations lead to the contrary view. The traditional interpretation of these formations as analytical forms prevails in linguistic literature.

Substantivization of Adjectives. Adjectives can, under certain circumstances, be substantivized, i. e. become nouns. This phenomenon can be found in many languages (e. g., in Russian: *ученый совет* — *ученый*). Substantivized English adjectives acquire the characteristic feature of nouns: 1) ability to form a plural; 2) ability to have a possessive case form; 3) ability to be modified by an adjective; 4) ability to have both definite and indefinite article; 5) the functions of subject and object in a sentence. If we take, for example, the word *relative*, we can find that it possesses all these features: *my close relatives*, *his relative's address*, etc.

Such words as *native, relative, representative* are fully substantivized. But there are cases of a different kind: *the poor, the rich, the Chinese, the English*, etc. They do not form a plural in *-s*; they have no possessive form; they cannot be used in the singular meaning and with the indefinite article. Such adjectives are said to be partially substantivized.

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10. Pronouns, Numerals, Statives

The grammatical status of pronoun as a separate part of speech is difficult to define. In fact, some pronouns share essential characteristics of nouns (e. g. *he*), while others have much in common with adjectives (e. g. *this*). The only feature which unites all the pronoun forms is the meaning of indication (deixis). Pronouns point to the things and properties without naming them. We usually find in grammars a classification of pronouns into personal, possessive, demonstrative, interrogative, relative, conjunctive, indefinite, negative, defining, reflexive, and reciprocal. There may be variations. For example, indefinite and negative pronouns are presented as a joint group of partitive pronouns. It is clear that this classification is semantic. As to the syntactic functions, some pronouns may be the subject (*he, what*), or the object in the sentence, while others are the attribute (*my, any*). Pronouns can also be predicatives.

The class of pronouns is heterogeneous, and we can see it when dealing with the morphological features of pronouns. Personal pronouns distinguish between nominative and objective case forms (*I — me; he — him*, etc), while some other pronouns (e. g. *somebody*,

anybody, another) are characterized by a different case system, viz. they distinguish between common and possessive (or genitive) case. As to the grammatical category of number, it is found in the group of demonstrative pronouns (*this — these; that — those*). There are no other grammatical categories in the English pronoun: there is no category of gender. The pronouns *he, she, it* are not morphologically correlated. Thus *she* is not a form of the word *he* but a separate word in its own right.

There are many examples in English pronouns of the same phonetic unit used to express different meanings in different contexts. So the question arises whether this is a case of polysemy, that is, different meanings of the same word, or of homonymy, that is, different words sounding alike. Consider, e. g. *that* demonstrative and *that* relative; *who* interrogative and *who* relative; *which* interrogative and *which* relative; *myself* reflexive and *myself* intensive (non-reflexive). The problem with *that* seems to be the easiest of all, as we know about the plural form of the demonstrative *that*. Hence there are two different pronouns: *that* relative and *that/those* demonstrative. With the other pronouns given above no criterion of this kind can be applied, as they do not have any special plural form. We have to rely on meaning and syntactic functions.

The limits of the pronoun class are difficult to define. There are words which have some pronominal features without being full pronouns or even have other features which are not pronominal at all. We can take the words *much, many, little, few* as a case in point. They are similar in functions and compatibility to pronouns (cf.: *many children / some children; many of them / some of them*). However, they have degrees of comparison (*many / more / the most*), which brings them together with adjectives. On the other hand, in their meaning they are closer to numerals and are even referred to as quantifiers. Thus we are to state that *much, many, little, few* are a sort of hybrids sharing features of adjectives, pronouns, and numerals.

Numerals have the categorical meaning of number (both cardinal and ordinal numerals). As to the formal distinctions, there is a narrow set of simple numerals; there are specific forms of composition for

compound numerals; there are also specific suffixal forms of derivation. But there are no morphological categories to discuss in numerals. There is no category of number, nor of case. So there is only the function of numerals to be considered and also the possibility of substantivization. The most characteristic function of numerals is that of an attribute preceding its noun. However, in the anaphoric usage, numerals can perform substantive functions in the sentence, those of subject, object, and predicative (cf.: *we are seven; one is missing; after a minute or two*). Ordinal numerals used as denominators of fractions are fully substantivized and have the morphological form of plurality (e. g. *two thirds, three sevenths*, etc).

Notional words signifying states and specifically used as predicatives were first described as a separate part of speech in the Russian language by L. V. Shcherba and V. V. Vinogradov. The two academics called the newly identified part of speech the “category of state”. Here belong the Russian words of the type *тепло, легко, одиноко* and also *жаль, лень*, etc. On the analogy of the Russian “category of state” the English qualifying a-words of the type *asleep, afraid, aware, afloat*, etc, were subjected to a lexico-grammatical analysis and given the heading “the words of the category of state”, or “the stative words”, or “the statives” for short. The analysis was first made by B. A. Ilyish and later continued by B. S. Khaimovich, B. I. Rogovskaya and some other scholars. The arguments for identifying this class of words as a part of speech separate of adjectives are as follows:

1) The statives are opposed to adjectives on a semantic basis since adjectives denote qualities or properties and statives denote states.

2) In the formal aspect, statives are characterized by the specific prefix *a-*; besides, they do not have the degrees of comparison.

3) The combinability of statives is different from that of adjectives as they are not used in prepositional attributive function. They are typically used as predicatives in the sentence.

The first scholar who undertook the reconsideration of the grammatical status of the stative and disclosed its fundamental relationship with the adjective was L. S. Barkhudarov; his view was

supported by M. Y. Blokh and I. P. Ivanova. They put forward the following contra-arguments:

1) The basic meaning expressed by the stative can be formulated as “stative property”. In this respect statives do not fundamentally differ from classical adjectives. For example, both can denote the psychic state of a person (cf. *afraid, aware, curious, happy*), or the physical state of a person (cf. *afoot, astir, sound, healthy, hungry*).

2) As to the set-forming prefix *a-*, it can hardly serve as a formal basis of the part-of-speech identification of statives because it is non-productive and has been fused with the root-morpheme in the course of the English language history (e. g. *aware, afraid*, etc). Statives do not take the suffixal forms of the degrees of comparison, but, like many adjectives, they are capable of expressing comparison by means of *more* and *most* (e. g. *Jack was the one most aware of the delicate situation*).

3) Functionally, statives are not used in attributive preposition, but like adjectives they are use with link-verbs and with nouns in postposition (e. g. *The household was all astir / The household was all active; It was strange to see the household astir / It was strange to see the household active*). Namely, the two basic functions of the statives are the predicative (as a rule) and the postpositional attribute (occasionally). There are adjectives which exhibit the same functional properties (e. g. *ill*).

The proponents of this view consider the stative-words to be a specific group of adjectives.

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11. Verb: General Characteristics

The verb is the most complex grammatical class of words. It is the only part of speech in English that has a morphological system based on the six categories: person, number, tense, aspect, voice, and mood. Besides, there are two sets of verb-forms, essentially different from each other: the finite forms and the non-finite forms (infinitive, gerund, participle I, participle II). The verb performs the central role in the expression of predication, i. e. the connection between the situation described in the sentence and reality. The categorical meaning of the verb is a process presented dynamically, that is, developing in time. It is the semantic characteristic of all verbs both in finite and non-finite forms. The difference in the functional aspect is that the finite verb with its categories of tense, aspect, voice, and mood always performs the function of the verb-predicate in the sentence while the non-finite forms are used in the functions of the syntactic subject, object, adverbial modifier, attribute.

Concerning their structure, verbs are characterized by specific word-building patterns. The verb-stems may be simple, sound-replacive, stress-replacive, expanded, compound, and phrasal. The group of simple verb-stems (e. g. *come, take, give*, etc) has been greatly enlarged by conversion as one of the most productive ways of forming verb lexemes in Modern English (cf. *a park — to park*).

The sound-replacive type and the stress-replacive type are non-productive (e. g. *food — to feed, blood — to bleed, import — to import, export — to export, transport — to transport*). The suffixes of expanded verb-stems are: *-ate (cultivate), -en (broaden), -ify (clarify), -ise/lize (normalize)*. The verb-deriving prefixes are: *be- (belittle), en-/em- (embed), re- (remake), under- (undergo), over- (overestimate), sub- (submerge), mis- (misunderstand), un- (undo)*.

The compound verb-stems in English are rare enough; they usually result from conversion (*blackmail — to blackmail, a benchmark — to benchmark*).

Phrasal verbs can be of two different types. The first is a combination of a head-verb (*have, give, take*) with a noun; this combination has an ordinary verb as its equivalent (e. g. *to have a smoke — to smoke*;

to give a smile — to smile). The second type is a combination of a head-verb with a postposition (*go on, give up, get out, sit down*, etc).

When taking the formal aspect of the English verbs, we are also to consider two different morphological groups: the regular verbs and the irregular verbs. With the regular verbs, making the bulk of the verb lexicon, the Past Indefinite and the Past Participle are formed by adding the suffix *-ed*. The other verbs referred to as irregular comprise various paradigmatic patterns (*put — put — put; send — sent — sent; come — came — come; begin — began — begun; go — went — gone; be — was/were — been*; etc).

The verb in English is unique for its grammatical categories. They are six: person, number, tense, aspect, voice, and mood. Each of them has a specific outer expression through a corresponding morphological form.

Person and number are specific substance-relational verbal categories reflected in the verb due to the agreement of the subject with the verb-predicate. The categories of person and number are closely connected with each other, they are jointly expressed. In the system of the present tense the inflection *-(e)s* is used for the third person singular, with the other persons remaining unmarked. The modal verbs have no personal inflections. The unique verb *to be* has three suppletive personal forms for the present tense (*am, are, is*) and two forms for the past tense (*was, were*). As to the future tense, the differentiation between the analytical forms “*shall + infinitive*” for the first person singular or plural and “*will + infinitive*” for the other persons is considered to be classical British, not observed in the present-day grammatical system of English.

The category of tense has both synthetic (the inflection *-(e)s* for the Present, the inflection *-ed* for the Past) and analytical forms “*will/shall + infinitive*” for the Future). With the irregular verbs one can also find various patterns of sound alternation (e. g. *write — wrote — written*) and two suppletive formations (*be — was/were — been; go — went — gone*).

The category of aspect is expressed by the analytical forms: “*be + Present Participle*” for the Continuous; “*have + Past Participle*”

for the Perfect. The oppositional differentiation within the category of voice is based on the marking of the Passive with the analytical form “*be + Past Participle*”. The morphological category of mood has both synthetic (the bare infinitive, the specific form *were*) and analytical (*should/would + infinitive*) forms of expressions.

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12. Grammatical Classes of Verbs

The class of verbs falls into a number of subclasses distinguished by different semantic and lexico-grammatical features as well as their syntactic functions. The first division is between the set of verbs of full nominative value (notional verbs) and the set of verbs of partial nominative value (semi-notional and functional verbs).

Notional verbs represent the bulk of the verbal lexicon. This set is derivationally open. It includes such grammatically relevant semantic subclasses as statal verbs, denoting the state of their subject (*be, live, suffer, know, see, etc*), and actional verbs, expressing the action, performed by the subject (*do, act, make, go, take, etc*). There are also terminative verbs, semantically related to the idea of a processual limit (e. g. *arrive*) and durative verbs, which are alien to any idea of a limit (e. g. *move*). The third categorization of notional verbs is based on their combinability. The finite verb as the centre of predication organizes all the other sentence members. This syntactic function of the verb results from its semantic compatibility with other words.

Syntactic valency is the combining power of words in relations to other words in syntactically subordinate positions. The obligatory valency must necessarily be realized for the sake of the grammatical

completion of the syntactic construction (e. g. the subject and the direct object are obligatory valency partners of the verb in the sentence). The optional valency is not necessarily realized in grammatically complete constructions (e. g. most of the adverbial modifiers are optional parts of the sentence). In terms of syntactic valency all notional verbs are classified into complementive (taking obligatory adjuncts) and supplementive (taking optional adjuncts). Complementive and supplementive verbs fall into minor groups: complementive verbs are subdivided into predicative, objective, and adverbial verbs; supplementive verbs are subdivided into adverbial and objective. There are also personal and impersonal verbs. Objective verbs take any objects, including prepositional ones. Transitive verbs are able to take direct objects, but there are also ditransitive verbs, taking a direct object and an indirect object as their valency partners, or complex-transitive verbs, taking a direct object and an adverbial as their valency partners.

Semi-notional and functional verbs serve as markers of predication as they show the connection between the content of the sentence and reality. These predicators include auxiliary verbs, link-verbs, modal verbs, and semi-notional verbal introducers.

Auxiliary verbs (*be, have, do, will, would,* etc) constitute the grammatical elements of the categorical forms of the verb.

Link verbs introduce the nominal part of a compound predicate (a predicative / complement). Their function is to link the subject with its predicated feature of identification or qualification. The class comprises the “pure link-verb” *be* and the “specifying link-verbs” falling into two main groups: those that express perceptions (*seem, appear, look, feel, taste, smell,* etc) and those that express factual link-verb connection (*become, get, grow, remain, keep,* etc). Besides the link verbs proper, there are also “the verbs of double predicate”. These are some notional verbs, which perform two functions simultaneously, combining the role of a full notional verb in a simple verbal predicate with the role of a link verb in a compound nominal predicate, e. g. *The moon rose red.* Such double function is typical of verbs expressing motion and position.

Modal verbs (*can, may, must, should, ought to, need, etc*) are used with the infinitive as predicative markers expressing the relational meanings of the subject attitude type i. e. ability obligation, permission, advisability, probability, etc. Modal verbs are defective in form, they are supplemented by stative groups, e. g. *be able*. The verbs *be* and *have* in the modal meanings *be planned, be obliged* are considered as modal verbs and usually included in the list of modal verbs.

Semi-notional verbal introducers are distributed among the sets of verbs of discriminatory relational semantics (*seem, happen, turn out, come out, etc*), of phasal semantics (*begin, start, continue, stop, etc*), of subject — action relational semantics (*try, manage, fail, want, like, love, etc*). These predicator verbs should be distinguished from their grammatical homonyms in the class of notional verbs (*They began to fight — They began the fight*). The verb of the first set are used in order to make up a compound verbal predicate with a modal meaning. The verbs of the second set are traditionally connected with a compound verbal phasal predicate (the synonymous term is a compound verbal aspect predicate). The functional problem arises with the verbs of the third set: according to one interpretation they make up a compound verbal predicate of attitudinal character (Blokh, Kaushanskaya, Kobrina et al), in the other approach they function in the sentence as a simple verbal predicate followed by an object in the form of the infinitive.

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13. Non-Finite Forms of the Verb

The English verbals include four forms: the infinitive, the gerund, the present participle (Participle I), and the past participle (Participle II). Verbals or the non-finite forms of the verb are the forms of the verb intermediary in many of their lexico-grammatical features between the verb and the non-processual parts of speech. They render processes as peculiar kinds of substances and properties. They are also different from finite verb-forms in their syntactic functions. While the finite forms perform in the sentence only one syntactic function, namely, that of predicate, the non-finite forms have various syntactic functions except that of the finite predicate. But the verbals, unable to express the predicative meanings of time and mood, still do express the secondary predication (potential predication, semi-predication) forming syntactic complexes directly related to certain types of subordinate clauses, e. g.: *We expect him to take this offer — We expect that he will take this offer.*

The infinitive (Base) is the non-finite form of the verb, which combines the properties of the verb with those of the noun, serving as the verbal name of the process. The English infinitive exists in two presentation forms: with the particle *to* (this form is called “the to-infinitive”) or without the particle *to* (“the bare infinitive”). The latter is found, for example, in the combinations of modal verbs with the infinitive. The particle *to* can be separated from the infinitive, forming the so-called “split infinitive”, e. g.: *Our problem is to quickly reproduce the experiment results.* The infinitive is capable of expressing the categorical meanings of aspect and voice. Thus, the categorical paradigm of the objective verb infinitive includes eight forms: the simple active, the continuous active, the perfect active, the perfect continuous active, the simple passive, the continuous passive (a rare form), the perfect passive, the perfect continuous passive (a rare form); e. g. *to ask, to be asking, to have asked, to have been asking, to be asked, to be being asked, to have been asked, to have been being asked.* The infinitive paradigm of the non-objective verb includes four forms, e. g.: *to come, to be coming, to have come, to have been coming.*

The infinitive is used in three different types of functions: 1) as a notional, self-dependent part of the sentence (subject, object, adverbial modifier, attribute); 2) as the notional constituent of a compound predicate; 3) as the notional constituent of an analytical form. Cf.:

- 1) *To find the solution is of prime importance.*
- 2) *I asked him to write about his progress.*
- 3) *To show the difference, we have compared the diagrams.*
- 4) *The problem to discuss next is our participation in the joint project.*
- 5) *Our task is to observe and analyze.*
- 6) *Your results can find various applications.*
- 7) *The experiment is to show the anticipated effect.*
- 8) *They continue to work with this material.*
- 9) *She does not speak French.*

If the infinitive in free use has its own subject introduced by the preposition *for*, we have the so-called “for-to-infinitive phrase”, e. g.: *It is not easy for him to show up in such a society.* With some transitive verbs (of perception, mental activity, desire, etc) the infinitive is used in the semi-predicative constructions of the Complex Object and the Complex Subject. Cf.: *We have never heard Charlie play his violin — Charlie has never been heard to play his violin.*

The Problem of the ING-FORMS. As there is no formal difference between the gerund and the present participle (they are formed by one and the same suffix *-ing*) some scholars (Kruisinga, Murphy, Gordon, Krylova) find no reason to treat them as two different sets of forms. However, the classical approach is to admit of the grammatical homonymy and to distinguish between the gerund and the present participle as two different sets of grammatical forms.

The gerund is the non-finite form of the verb, which like the infinitive combines the properties of the verb with those of the noun. Gerund is the verbal name of the process and it is referred to as the verbal noun. Half-gerund, or the participial gerund, is a form having mixed features, both participial and gerundial. Like the infinitive, the gerund is changeable. The paradigm of an objective verb gerund

includes four forms: the simple active, the perfect active, the simple passive, the perfect passive; e. g.: *asking, having asked, being asked, having been asked*. With the non-objective verb gerund there are only two forms: the simple active, the perfect active; e. g.: *coming, having come*. The gerund performs the functions of all the notional sentence parts (subject, object, attribute, adverbial modifier). It can also make a notional part of a compound predicate. Cf.:

- 1) *My coming was a surprise to her.*
- 2) *She was surprised at my coming.*
- 3) *I like to work in the reading room.*
- 4) *One can learn a lot by reading.*
- 5) *I began working at this office last week.*
- 6) *My hobby is jogging.*

Similar to the noun, the gerund can be used with prepositions (e. g. *on coming home*) and also modified by a noun in the possessive case or by its pronominal equivalents; e. g. *Jack's coming home, his coming home*. Such combinability allows the formation of semi-predicative gerundial complexes. Cf.: *She was surprised at my coming home so early — She was surprised that I came home so early.*

The present participle (Participle I) combines the properties of the verb with those of adjective and adverb. In its form the present participle is homonymous with the gerund, ending in the suffix *-ing*. The categorial paradigm of the present participle is the same with the gerund (e. g. *asking, having asked, being asked, having been asked*; or *coming, having come*). Like all the English verbals, the participles have no tense distinctions and the adjectives *present* and *past* in their names are conventional and traditional. In the sentence, the present participle performs the functions of the attribute, the adverbial modifier, the predicative of a compound predicate (with the link-verbs other than *be*), and also of the notional part in the analytical form of the simple verbal predicate. Cf.:

- 1) *The article deals with the events accompanying solar flares.*
- 2) *Rearranging the lenses of his telescope, Galileo found that he could magnify close objects.*

- 3) *The questions became more irritating.*
- 4) *They are going to the South.*

Participle I, similar to the infinitive, can be used in the semi-predicative constructions of Complex Object and Complex Subject, e. g.: *We've never heard him singing before — He's never been heard singing before.* The absolute participial construction is the other type of secondary predication; e. g.: *My chief being on a sick leave, I had to make a decision myself.*

The past participle (Participle II) is the non-finite form of the verb which combines the properties of the verb with those of the adjective, serving as the qualifying-processual name. The past participle is a single form, specific for each of the irregular verbs and ending in the suffix *-ed* with the regular verbs. It has no paradigm of its own. The past participle performs the functions of the attribute, the predicative of a compound predicate, and also of the notional part in the analytical form of the simple verbal predicate. Cf.:

- 1) *We passed through several deserted villages.*
- 2) *You are mistaken in this case.*
- 3) *The house has recently been rebuilt.*

Like the present participle, the past participle is used in the semi-predicative constructions of Complex Object, Complex Subject, and Absolute Participial Construction; e. g. *I must have my car repaired.*

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14. Verb: Category of Tense

Tense is a verbal category which reflects the objective category of time and expresses the relations between the time of the action and the time of the utterance. Tense is an inherent verbal category interrelated with Aspect. It is common practice to teach tense-aspect forms in general English courses. In grammatical theory, this approach is supported by I. P. Ivanova, who distinguishes between pure tense forms and tense-aspect forms, the latter being treated as the complexes expressing both temporal and aspective meaning.

Past, present, and future are the objective time divisions. However, it does not mean that tense systems of different languages are identical. Moreover, English grammar admits of two different tense systems. According to one interpretation, there are three tenses in English: present, past and future, represented by the synthetic forms (e. g. *write*, *writes*, *wrote*) or analytical forms (e. g. *will write*). This three tense system is supported by many scholars, in particular, B. A. Ilyish.

According to the other view, there are two grammatically relevant tenses in English: the present tense and the past tense. Some doubts about the existence of a future tense in English were first expressed by H. Sweet and O. Jespersen. They assumed that in the phrase “*shall/will* + infinitive” the verbs *shall* and *will* still preserved some of their original modal meaning (obligation and volition, respectively). This approach still prevails with many scholars (e. g. R. Quirk et al); the phrases “*shall/will* + infinitive” are treated by them as ungrammatical (a sort of free phrases which are used to express future actions).

Structural approach to English grammar admits of the binary opposition of the Past (the strong member, marked with the *-ed* inflection) and the Non-Past (the weak, unmarked member), with the Future being excluded. One of the major proponents of this approach, L. S. Barkhudarov based his reasoning on the analysis of the Future-in-the-Past forms. According to him these combinations express both the future and the past time. However, such double marking is impossible for a grammatical category understood in the framework of the oppositional theory. M. Y. Blokh also distinguishes between the past tense and the present tense, the two making up “the category of primary

time”. However, he introduces one more temporal category — “the category of prospect” as the binary opposition of the forms expressing “after-action” (+) and “non-after-action” (-). This innovation has been made in order to include the analytical form “*shall/will* + infinitive” in the grammatical system of temporal relations.

As regards the Future-in-the-Past forms, their position in the system of English tenses is very specific. They do not easily fit in the system of tenses represented by a straight line running out of the past to the future. They are rather a deviation from this line. Their starting point is not a present moment, from which the past and the future are reckoned, but the past itself. With reference to these forms it is said that the past is a new centre of this subsystem. The theory of shifted temporal centers was proposed by I. P. Ivanova, and she also suggested that the term “Future-in-the-Past” should be replaced by the term “dependent future”.

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15. Verb: Category of Aspect

The category of aspect reflects the inherent mode of the realization of the process. The aspective meaning can be in-built in the semantic structure of the verb. In the English verb system lexical aspective meanings are expressed in the subclasses of terminative verbs (e. g. *start, come*) and durative or non-terminative verbs (e. g. *go, move*). These aspective verbal subclasses are grammatically relevant in so far as they are not indifferent to the choice of the aspective grammatical forms of the verb. On the other hand, the aspective meaning can be

represented by various grammatical categories with their corresponding forms (e. g. English continuous, perfect, and perfect continuous forms). Aspective grammatical change is not typical of the Russian language. In Russian one can find a system of lexico-grammatical forms actualizing verbal aspective characteristics of the perfective and the imperfective.

When considering the English grammatical tradition, we are to deal with two sets of forms: the continuous forms and the perfect forms. There are different interpretations of these forms in linguistic literature.

The continuous verbal forms analyzed on the principles of oppositional approach admit of one interpretation and that is aspective. They reflect the inherent character of the process denoted by the verb. The opposition of the corresponding category is between the continuous and the non-continuous (indefinite/simple) verbal forms. It is based, in general, on the use and non-use of the pattern “*be* + Participle I”:

works — *is working*;

worked — *was working*;

will work — *will be working*;

has worked — *has been working*, etc.

The categorial meaning of the continuous discloses the nature of development of the verbal action. And the difference between the two sets of forms is the following: an action going on continuously, developing in time, and an action not thus limited. And again, it is a difference in the way, or the mode of realization of the action or process.

However, there are various interpretations of the continuous proposed by different scholars. Otto Jespersen treated the type *is working* as a means of expressing limited duration, that is, expressing an action which serves as a frame to another action performed within that frame. This temporal interpretation of the continuous was first developed in the works of Henry Sweet. The basic meaning of the form like “*is working*” is that of simultaneity of an action with another action. Such a situation can be described in a complex sentence, e. g. *He was working when I came in*. But in clauses such as “*What is he doing? — He is working*” there is no other action for the continuous one to be simultaneous with or to be “a time frame”.

There are also differences in terminology brought about by different views on the category of aspect. B. A. Ilyish differentiates between the forms *works* and *is working* by applying to them respectively the terms “common aspect” and “continuous aspect”, the latter being the marked member of the opposition. I. P. Ivanova finds no aspective meaning with indefinite or simple forms, when treating them as purely tense forms in contrast to aspect-tense forms. The continuous form is interpreted by I. P. Ivanova as rendering a blend of temporal and aspective meanings. This interpretation is also typical of practical grammars of English.

The semantic difference between indefinite and continuous forms can be reduced or neutralized, which is observed in the functioning of durative and terminative verbs and also of statal and actional verbs. The durative verbs are very easily neutralized in cases where the continuity of the action is expressed by means other than grammatical, e. g.: *The night is wonderfully silent. The stars shine with fierce brilliancy.* As to the statal verbs, their aspective neutralization is a grammatical rule. Among them are the never-used-in-the-continuous *be, have, know*, some other verbs of possession, verbs of relation, of physical perceptions, of mental activity. When occasionally used in the continuous, these verbs express some sort of intensity or emphasis e. g.: 1) *I had a feeling that she was seeing right through me;* 2) *You are being damn fools, both of you.* On the other hand, the continuous can be used transpositionally, to denote habitual actions in emphatic collocations, e. g. *You are always talking as if there is some funny business about me.*

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16. Verb: Problem of the Perfect

The position of perfect forms in the grammatical system of English verbs is a problem which has been treated in many different ways. Among various views on the grammatical essence of the perfect forms in Modern English, the following four main trends should be considered in detail.

1) In the first interpretation, the category of perfect is presented as a peculiar tense category, that is, a category which should be treated in the same way as the categories of “present” and “past”. This tense view of the perfect is found in the works of H. Sweet, G. Curme, O. Jespersen, M. Bryant, N. Irtenyeva. According to them, the difference between the perfect and non-perfect forms lies in the fact that the perfect denotes a secondary temporal characteristic of the action. Namely, it shows that the denoted action precedes some other action or situation in the present, past, or future. The focus is on the temporal function of the perfect, its meaning of precedence, but this view fails to expose its aspective function by which the action is shown as connected with a certain time limit.

2) The second grammatical interpretation of the perfect is the “aspect view”. According to this approach the perfect is an aspective form of the verb which expresses the mode of realization of the action. The aspect view is presented in the works of M. Deutschbein, A. S. West, G. N. Vorontsova. The most valuable Vorontsova’s contribution to the theory of the perfect is her interpretation of its categorial meaning. Instead of the resultative meaning ascribed to the perfect by many scholars, she proposed a more general conception of transmissive functional semantics. G. N. Vorontsova put forward the idea of successive connection of two events expressed by the perfect, and the transmission of the accessories of a pre-situation to a post-situation, e. g. *She has never been to Paris*.

3) The third grammatical interpretation of the perfect is the “tense-aspect blend view”. The perfect is considered as a form with both temporal and aspective meaning similar to the continuous. This view on the perfect is propounded by I. P. Ivanova. She says that the two verbal forms (the continuous and the perfect) express temporal and

aspective functions in a blend, in contrast to the indefinite forms which only express tense.

4) And there is also the forth interpretation of the perfect. In this trend the category of perfect is neither tense nor aspect, but a specific category different from both. This interpretation was presented by A. I. Smirnitsky in his article «Перфект и категория временной отнесённости» (Иностр. яз. в шк. 1955. № 1–2). His concept of the perfect is referred to as the “time relation view” or “time correlation view”. The functional content of the new category was defined as priority expressed by the perfect forms in the present, past or future, contrasted with the non-expression of priority by the non-perfect forms. A. I. Smirnitsky made the analysis of the present continuous form (e. g. *has been doing*) in which the perfect, the form of precedence, coexists with the continuous, the form of simultaneity. His course of reasoning is quite typical of the oppositional approach: since two expressions of the same categorical semantics are impossible in one and the same form, the perfect cannot be either an aspective form, if the marking “*be* + Participle I” refers to the continuous aspect, or a temporal form, if the marking *has* refers to the present tense. This view on the perfect as a self-dependent category became rather popular with Russian scholars of English. M. Y. Blokh proposed his own term “the category of retrospective coordination” for the perfect as the marked member of the opposition. This author treats the perfect as a separate verbal category semantically intermediate between aspect and tense but quite self-dependent in the general categorical system of the English verb. The perfect expresses priority and aspective transmission of the action, while the continuous presents the action as progressive.

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17. Verb: Category of Voice

The category of voice expresses the relation between the subject and the action, or, in the other interpretation, this category expresses the relation between the subject and the object of the action. The obvious opposition within the category of voice is that between active and passive, e. g. *He invited his friends — He was invited by his friends.* The relations between the subject (*He*) and the action (*invite*) in the two sentences are different. In the first sentence *he* performs the action and may be said to be the doer or agent, whereas in the second sentence *he* does not act and is not the doer but the object of the action. The opposition “active — passive” is represented by a number of forms involving the categories of tense, aspect and mood:

asks — is asked;

is asking — is being asked;

has asked — has been asked;

would ask — would be asked.

The passive is the marked member of the opposition, its characteristic feature is the pattern “*be* + Participle II”, whereas the active voice is unmarked.

It should be remembered that some forms of the active voice find no parallel in the passive, namely the future continuous, the present perfect continuous, the past perfect continuous, the future perfect continuous. There are also some lexical limitations, as not all the verbs capable of taking an object are actually used in the passive. In particular, the passive form is alien to many verbs of the statal subclass, such as *have*, *belong*, *cost*, *resemble*, *fail*. But one cannot draw a hard and fast line between these sets of verbs, because the verbs of one set can migrate into the other in various contextual conditions, e. g. *The bed has not been slept in for a long time.*

Of special interest is the fact that the category of voice has a much broader representation in the system of the English verb than in that of the Russian verb. In English not only transitive but also intransitive objective verbs including prepositional ones can be used in the passive, e. g. *The dress has never been tried on.* The so called ditransitive verbs

capable of taking two objects can feature both of them in the passive subject position, e. g. *I'll tell you the truth — You'll be told the truth — The truth will be told to you*. Differences in the systems of English passive voice and Russian “страдательный залог” account for the fact that English passive forms can be translated into Russian in various ways: by passive voice forms, by middle-reflexive voice forms ending in *-ся/-сь*, by impersonal sentences, by active voice forms. These are some practical aspects of the categorical opposition between the active voice and the passive voice. However, in theoretical approach the problems of the reflexive voice (*He shaved himself*), the reciprocal voice (*They greeted each other*), and the middle voice (*The door opened*) should also be considered.

To put the problems of the reflexive voice or the reciprocal voice into morphological terms is to find out if the self-pronouns or reciprocal pronouns can be auxiliary words serving to drive a voice-form of the verb. In term of syntax it is to wonder if a self-pronoun or a reciprocal pronoun always performs the function of a direct object or makes up a part of predicate. As a result of profound studies it has been shown that self-pronouns or reciprocal pronouns standing after verbs can be treated as denoting the object of the action. Cf.: *I am defending myself — an accused person; They kissed each other and the child*. Such cases as *to find oneself* are rare enough and should be referred to lexicology.

The problem of the middle voice is connected with the possibility to use some transitive verbs as intransitive. Cf.: *I opened the door — The door opened; I boiled the water — The water boiled; We apply this rule to... — This rule applies to...*

B. A. Ilyish discusses three different interpretations of this phenomenon presented in literature. One interpretation is that in each line we have two different though homonymous verbs: *open 1* — transitive and *open 2* — intransitive. The whole problem is thus shifted into the sphere of lexicology. Another interpretation is like this. The verb in both columns is the same, and the difference between the two is the difference of voice: in the first column we have an active voice form, while in the second column it is the middle voice which denotes a process going on within the subject without affecting any

object. The difference between the voices is not expressed by any morphological signs, but it is revealed in meaning and in syntactic structure. Still another interpretation does not admit of the middle voice in English. The verb in both columns is the same and the voice is the same, namely, the active voice, since there is no morphological difference between the forms under discussion. The third interpretation prevails in English grammars because it allows scholars to accept only two voices: the active and the passive. However, there is a possibility to treat the middle voice as an implicit grammatical category of Modern English.

The passive construction “*be + Participle*” should be distinguished from the identical pattern of the compound nominal predicate. Cf.: *You are mistaken (You are wrong) — You are often mistaken for your cousin.*

The constructions are alike, but their meanings differ. The first sentence expresses a state, while in the second sentence we have an action expressed. It is the context that shows the difference between the “passive of state” and the “passive of action”. Cf.: *The door on the right was closed, while the door on the left was open — The door was closed by the girl as softly as possible.*

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18. Verb: Category of Mood

The category of mood is the most controversial category of the verb. The only points in this sphere which have not been disputed are: 1) there is a category of mood in Modern English; 2) there are at least

two moods in English verb, one of which is the indicative. As to the number of the other moods, their meanings and names, opinions today are as far apart as ever. What makes the problem even more difficult is that the category of mood differs in principle from the verbal categories of tense and aspect. While the categories of tense and aspect characterize the action from the point of view of its various inherent properties, the category of mood expresses the outer interpretation of the action as a whole, namely, the speaker's introduction of this action as actual or imaginary.

The grammatical category of mood makes up a part of a general linguistic category of modality. Verbal mood is regarded as primary modality, while such lexical groups as modal verbs (e. g. *can*, *must should*) and modal words (e. g. *perhaps*, *probably*) as well as the prosodic feature of intonation are considered to be the means of secondary modality.

The category of mood has been given various definitions. One of them reads: The category of mood expresses the relation of the action to reality as stated by the speaker. In other words, the category of mood expresses the character of connection between the process denoted by the verb and the actual reality, either presenting the process as a fact that really happened, happens or will happen (the indicative mood), or treating it as an imaginary phenomenon, i. e. the subject of a hypothesis, speculation, desire (the imperative mood, the subjunctive mood). This system of three moods is typical of practical grammar courses.

The imperative mood in English is represented by the base form of the verb, or the bare infinitive, e. g. *Come!* There are also lexicogrammatical forms of the imperative with the verb *let*, e. g.: *Let the children do it; Let's go and have some coffee.* The imperative mood forms are limited in their use to one type of sentences, namely, imperative sentences. Most British and American scholars do not recognize the verbal category of the imperative mood, they prefer to speak about the imperative sentences as a special type of utterances.

The subjunctive mood has its own problems. It can be expressed by both synthetic forms (*infinitive*, *were*, the past indefinite) and analytical forms (*should/would* + infinitive). The latter are not recognized by

many British and American scholars because they are homonymous to the word-combinations of modal verbs with the infinitive.

In the sphere of mood, the main division which is generally accepted is the division into the indicative mood and the other (oblique) moods: the imperative, the subjunctive, the suppositional, the conditional, etc. In linguistic literature one can find the number of English moods ranging from two to sixteen. The binary opposition of two moods is typical of structural approach. L. S. Barkhudarov recognizes the indicative mood and the imperative mood in English, while M. Y. Blokh distinguishes between the indicative mood and the subjunctive mood. The other extreme of the range is the system of sixteen moods, proposed by M. Deutschbein who speaks of every English form expressing unreal action as of a separate mood. Between these two extremes there are several intermediate views such as that of A. I. Smirnitsky who proposed a system of six moods: Indicative, Imperative, Subjunctive I (the forms that do not contradict reality, e. g. *if he be, I suggest that he go*), Subjunctive II (the forms that contradict reality, e. g. *if it were, if he had known*), Suppositional (“*should + infinitive*” for all persons, e. g. *Should you meet him...*), Conditional (analytical forms of “*should/would + infinitive*” in the main clause of conditional sentences, e. g. *What would you answer if you were asked...*).

E. M. Gordon and I. P. Krylova have made a list of forms expressing unreality. These forms are: 1) the plain stem of the verb for all persons, e. g. *They propose that he borrow*; 2) *were* for all persons, e. g. *I wish I were ten years younger*; 3) the past indefinite form, e. g. *He looked as if he knew about it*; 4) the past perfect form, e. g. *He looked as if he had seen a ghost*; 5) “*should/would + infinitive*”, e. g. *If I had a garden I should grow tulips in it*; 6) “*should/would + perfect infinitive*”, e. g. *If it hadn't rained we would have gone for a walk*; 7) *should* for all persons, e. g. *I insist that he should meet us at the station*; 8) *would* for all persons, e. g. *I wish he wouldn't interrupt me*; 9) “*Can/could/may/might + infinitive*”, e. g. *I'm telling you this so that you can write to your parents about it*.

The variety of verbal moods is accounted for by the specific situation with this category in English as one and the same form may

have two or more different meanings. For example, *we should come* in the sentence *I think we should come here again tomorrow* is equivalent to *we ought to come*, in the sentence *If we knew that he wants us we should come to see him* denotes a conditional action, in the sentence *How queer that we should come at the very moment when you were talking about us* denotes a real action. On the other hand, one and the same meaning can be expressed by different forms, e. g. *I suggest that we go* — *I suggest that we should go*; *I wish they weren't so noisy* — *I wish they wouldn't be so noisy*.

The described system of English verbal moods has not been completed in the historical development of the language. On the contrary, it is in the state of making and change, which may be illustrated by the fluctuating use of the auxiliaries *should* and *would*. Thus, our task is to register these phenomena, to explain their mechanism, to show the tendencies of usage in terms of systematic context and stylistic preferences.

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Section III

SYNTAX

19. Phrase: General Characteristics

Syntax is a part of grammar which treats of phrases and sentences. B. A. Ilyish says that the theory of phrase seems to be the least developed element of English grammar whereas the theory of sentence has a long and fruitful history. Phrase is a separate linguistic unit which must be considered on a separate level of linguistic analysis.

Phrase is broadly defined as every combination of two or more words which is a grammatical unit but not an analytical form of some word (e. g. the perfect forms of verbs). According to this definition the constituent elements of a phrase may belong to any part of speech. But there is another interpretation of phrase, introduced by V. V. Vinogradov, stipulating that a phrase must contain at least two notional words. The inconvenience of this restriction for English grammar is that the group “preposition + noun” remains outside the classification and is neglected in the theory of syntax.

The number of constituents in a phrase is usually from two to five, although six or eight are not excluded. Actually, this limit is set by human mind capacities. There may be as many words in a phrase as can be kept in mind and identified as a phrase. Structural identity of a phrase in a sentence can be shown through the methods of substitution and representation developed by V. V. Burlakova. The first method is based on the fact that there are quite a number of words which function as substituting elements, of substitutes, or Pro-Forms. The obvious pro-forms for noun-phrases are the pronouns *he, she, it, they*, e. g.: *John's father did not know about it. He just thought...* Some other items which can be pro-forms for noun-phrases are: *that, those, one, none, some, any, both, all, each, either, neither*. Some time-relaters can be

pro-forms for time adjuncts, e. g.: *We saw John on Monday morning. We told him then...* Some place relaters (*here, there*) can be pro-forms for place adjuncts. The auxiliaries *do, does, did* can be pro-forms for verb-phrases, e. g. *He promised to come and so he did.*

The method of representation is different from substitution in that it does not use an extra word to represent a phrase. A part of the phrase is used in representation leaving the rest of it in implication, e. g. *He was not able to save them, though he tried to.* Representation by an auxiliary verb or a modal verb is highly typical of the English language.

The problem with the methods of substitution and representation is that they are not rigorous enough. Sometimes pro-forms can be used for both phrases and their constituents (*student's book — his book*), or else one pro-form can substitute two phrases (*We saw John at nine on Monday morning. We told him then...*).

The difference between a phrase and a sentence is a fundamental one. A phrase is a means of naming some phenomena or process, just as a word is. Each component of a phrase can undergo changes according to its grammatical categories (*write letters — wrote a letter — writes letters*, etc). The sentence, on the contrary, is a unit with every word having its definite form. Any formal change would produce a new sentence. Sentence is a unit of communication, and intonation is one of the most important features of a sentence, which distinguishes it from a phrase.

Theory of phrase has a historical background of its own. Early English syntax of the 17th century concerned itself with the study of word-groups, their structure and the relations between their elements. In the second half of the 18th century the term “phrase” was introduced to denote a word-group in English. This term was accepted by the 19th century grammarians. At first it denoted any combination of two or more words, including that of a noun and a verb. Later the notion of clause was introduced to designate a syntactic unit containing a subject and a predicate. As a result, the term “phrase” was limited in its application to any word-combination except that making up a clause. English scientific grammar of the early 20th century did not elaborate this part of syntax. Henry Sweet rejected the very term “phrase”. In the

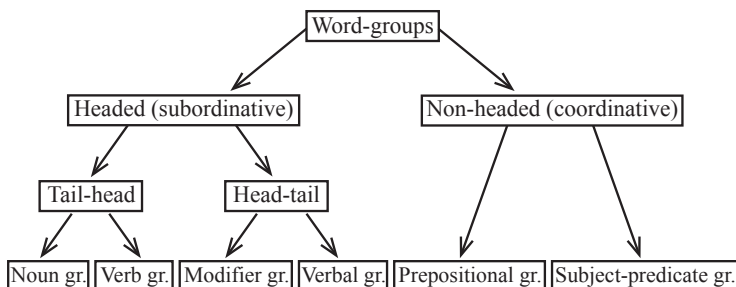
preface to his grammar book he wrote: “I reject “phrase” altogether as a grammatical term, because of the endless confusions that arise between the various arbitrary meanings given to it by various grammarians and its popular meaning” (H. Sweet. *A New English Grammar*. Part I, p. viii). The author prefers to speak of word-groups, but defines this notion in the same way as the phrase used to be defined. According to H. Sweet, the relations between the elements of a word-group are based on grammatical and logical subordination. E. Krusinga developed his own theory of close word-groups (including verb-groups, noun-groups, adjective-groups, adverb-groups, preposition-groups with the subordination of their elements) and loose words-groups (without subordination). In the history of phrase, O. Jespersen is known for his theory of three ranks and the differentiation of junction and nexus described in his book “*The Philosophy of Grammar*”. In any composite denomination he finds one word of supreme importance to which the others are joined as subordinated. The chief word is defined by another word which, in its turn, may be defined by a third word, etc. In the combination *extremely hot weather* the last word, which is the chief idea, is called primary; *hot* which defines *weather* — secondary, and *extremely* — tertiary. According to O. Jespersen there is no need to distinguish more than three ranks of subordination in the attributive combinations of this kind.

The difference between the notions of junction and nexus is the difference between attributive and predicative relations. In particular, O. Jespersen says that in a junction the joining of two elements is so close that they may be considered one composite name, e. g. *a silly person* — *a fool*. If we compare *the red door* (junction) on the one hand, and *the door is red* (nexus) on the other, we find that the former kind is more rigid and stiff, and the latter more pliable, there is more life in it. Junction is like a picture, nexus is like a drama or a process.

The basis of the structural theory of word-groups is the dichotomic division into endocentric (containing a head-word) and exocentric (non-headed) phrases, proposed by L. Bloomfield. Transformational grammar does not discuss word-groups in isolation, but the analysis of

sentences is based on the concept of phrase-structure (NP and VP), and some transformations result in word-groups, e. g. the transformation of nominalization.

Structural linguists give the following classification of word-groups:



V. V. Burlakova has made some amendments in the classification above. In the left-hand part, she added adverb-groups to the tail-head set. In her opinion, verb-groups as well as prepositional groups belong to the head-tail set; noun-groups and adjective-groups can be found in both tail-head set and head-tail set. In the right-hand part, she has introduced dependent and independent subclasses, distinguishing between coordinative groups, accumulative groups, groups with primary predication, and groups with secondary predication.

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20. Ways of Expressing Syntactic Relations

The major generally recognized syntactic relations between components of a phrase are subordination and coordination. Subordination is the syntactic relation of the constituents of a phrase one of which is principal (a head-word) and the other is subordinate (e. g. *a difficult problem*). Coordination is the syntactic relation of the constituents of a phrase characterized by their equality (e. g. *ladies and gentlemen*). It is realized either with the help of conjunctions (syndetically), or without it (asyndetically). The predicative syntactic relation existing between the components of the phrase pattern “noun + verb” is interpreted by M. Y. Blokh as bilateral (reciprocal) domination expressed by agreement, or concord. V. V. Burlakova, in her work of 1984, alongside with subordination and coordination identifies the predicative syntactic relation as a major one under the title of “interdependence” (e. g. *they talked*). Number four in her classification is the relation of accumulation, which is found between the subordinate elements of multi-component headed groups, e. g. *their own* (children), (to write) *letters to a friend*. I. I. Pribytok has added to those discussed the syntactic relation of apposition (приложение), e. g. *Uncle Andrew was very tall*, the syntactic relation of isolation (обособление), e. g. *Last night, everything was closed*, and the syntactic relation of parenthesis (вводность), e. g. *This is perhaps his first chance*.

Our task is to consider formal ways of expressing syntactic relations, namely, agreement (concord), government, and adjoinment.

Agreement, or concord, is a way of expressing a syntactic relation which consists in forcing the subordinate word to take a form similar to that of the head-word. Linguistic units agree in such matters as number, person, and gender. The two related units should both be singular or plural, feminine or masculine. In Modern English this can be found between a noun and a verb in a predicative phrase and also between the demonstrative pronouns *this/these/that/those* and their head-words in attributive phrases, such as *this book, these books*, etc.

Government is understood as the use of a certain form of the subordinate word required by its head-word, but not coinciding with the form of the head-word itself. In Modern English this way of expressing

subordination is limited to the use of the objective case forms of personal pronouns when they are subordinate to a verb or follow a preposition, e. g. *to invite me, to find them*, etc.

The third way of expressing syntactic relations, which is termed “примыкание” in Russian, has various designations in English: the adjoinment or the word order. In fact, it is the absence of both agreement and government. For example, in the sentence *He spoke of his intentions very softly* the adverb *softly* is subordinate to its head-word *spoke* without either agreeing with or being governed by it. The connection between the adverb and the verb is preserved due to their grammatical and semantic compatibility. As a matter of fact, this way of connecting components of a phrase is a predominant one in Modern English. Searching for an adequate designation of this phenomenon, linguistic scholars applied to the theory of syntactic valency based on semantic properties of words, i. e. their semantic compatibility.

Syntactic valency is the combining power of words in relations to other words in syntactically subordinate positions. The obligatory valency must necessarily be realized for the sake of the grammatical completion of the syntactic construction; e. g. in the sentence *We saw a house in the distance* the subject and the direct object are obligatory valency partners of the verb. The optional valency is not necessarily realized in grammatically complete constructions; most of the adverbial modifiers are optional parts of the sentence. According to V. V. Burlakova, syntactic valency is the major factor of syntactic relations in Modern English and within this type we should further differentiate between the inflected forms of agreement or government and non-inflected forms.

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21. Sentence: General Characteristics

Sentence is the second linguistic unit falling under syntax. Sentence, as well as phrase, must be considered on a separate level of linguistic analysis. Among various definitions given to the sentence the most general one is the following: Sentence is the minimal syntactic structure used in speech communication, distinguished by predication and built up of words according to a definite syntactic pattern.

This definition focuses on three aspects of the sentence: pragmatic, semantic and structural. The sentence is a means of communication, in contrast to a phrase which performs nominative function. Intonation is a specific feature of the sentence as a unit of communication. In the semantic aspect, the sentence is characterized by its specific category of predication which establishes the relation of the named phenomena to actual life. The centre of predication is a finite verb. Predication is performed through the verbal categories of tense and mood. The structural aspect is confined to the fact that every actual sentence is built up according to a definite syntactic pattern. The variety of such patterns is specific of a particular language, but their number is always finite. The exact number of sentence patterns in English is determined by the level of linguistic analysis: the most abstract level produces three basic structures (Ch. Fries), while the most detailed analysis results in fifty one (A.S. Hornby).

Each of the aspects presented in the definition makes a basis for classification of sentences. The sentence is a unit of communication therefore the primary classification is based on the communicative principle. This principle is formulated in traditional grammar as the purpose of communication.

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22. Communicative Types of Sentences

In accord with the purpose of communication three cardinal sentence-types have been recognized in linguistic tradition: the declarative sentence, the imperative sentence, the interrogative sentence. These communicative types are strictly identified, and their properties of meaning and form are correlated with the listeners' responses. Thus, the declarative sentence expresses a statement (affirmative or negative), has a direct word order (SVO...) and stands in syntagmatic correlation with the listener's responding signals of attention or appraisal. The imperative (or inductive) sentence expresses a request or command, features the initial position of the verb in its structure (V...) and urges the listener to make an action response. The interrogative sentence expresses a question, has an inverted word order (vSVO...) and is connected with an answer (verbal response), forming together with it a question-answer dialogue unity.

Alongside with the three cardinal communicative sentence-types, another type of sentences is recognized in syntax, namely, the exclamatory sentence. In the course of studies, it has been shown that exclamatory sentences do not possess the basic properties of cardinal sentence-types. Exclamation is considered as an accompanying feature which is actualized in the system of the three cardinal communicative types of sentences. Each of them can be represented in the two variants: non-exclamatory and exclamatory (e. g.: *It was a small house* — *What a small house it was!*).

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23. Actual Division of the Sentence

Actual division of the sentence, or functional sentence perspective, refers to the communicative properties of sentences. According to this theory the sentence is divided into two parts. Theme is the part of the sentence which contains a starting point of the statement. Rheme is the other part of the sentence containing the new information for the sake of which the sentence has been uttered or written. The terms “theme” and “rheme” are derived from Greek. The term “theme” means “what is set or established”, the term “rheme” means “what is said or told”. This pair of terms appeared to be best suited for the theory of actual division. They came into use in the works of several Czech linguists, first of all Jan Firbas, who wrote his thesis on the function of word-order in Old English and Modern English (1959).

The relation between the syntactic structure of the sentence and its actual division is a very important linguistic problem. The means of expressing a thematic or a rhematic quality of a word or phrase in a sentence depend on the grammatical structure of the given language. In a language with a developed morphological structure and free word-order, the latter (i. e. word-order) is effectively used to show the difference between theme and rheme. The word order plays a very important part in the communicative structure of Russian sentences. Cf.: *Женщина села на скамейку — На скамейку села женщина.* In each sentence the last word corresponds to a rheme. No such variation would be possible in the corresponding English sentence: *The woman*

sat on the bench. It would involve some additional changes in the grammatical structure and wording.

In Modern English there are several specific ways of showing that a word or phrase corresponds to the rheme.

1. The grammatical construction “...*It is ...which/that/who*” is used for the representation of the rheme enclosed between the two components, e. g. *It is our disagreement that matters in the long run*.

2. The subject or any other sentence member can be made a rheme by means of intonation, cf.:

Mary was playing the piano at the ‘moment.

‘Mary was playing the piano at the moment.

Mary was ‘playing the piano at the moment.

3. Another means of pointing out the rheme in the sentence is the intensifying particle (*just, even, only*, etc), followed by the word in question, e. g. *It is only a suggestion*.

4. The subject put at the end of the sentence becomes rhematic, which is typical of the existential sentences, e. g. *And there came some new information from the expert*.

5. Another means of indicating the rheme of a sentence may be the indefinite article, e. g. *There is a problem*.

There are also some means of showing up the theme in the English sentence:

1. This can be achieved by using the definite article, e. g. *The idea was good*.

2. The loose parenthesis introduced by the phrase *As to / As for* produces the so-called double subject focusing on the theme, e. g. *As for the others, they were not eager to interfere*.

3. Some scholars also believe that any notional constituent placed at the beginning of the sentence is made its theme, e. g.: *All that Dr Roberts found in the reference books; Next morning we are leaving for Boston*.

Many problems concerning the actual division of the sentence have not been solved yet. In particular, it is not certain that every sentence necessarily consists of the two parts: theme and rheme. In some cases

there are supposed to be intermediate elements. Jan Firbas in his analysis of English functional sentence perspective pointed out these intermediate elements and described their function as a transition zone.

R. Quirk closely relates the organized communicative system of the sentence to the English intonation patterns. He takes into consideration three aspects of this system: theme, focus, and emotive emphasis. According to this approach each tone unit represents the unit of information and the place where the nucleus falls is the focus of information (the rheme). The neutral position of the focus is called end-focus. It is stated that if the nucleus falls on the last stressed syllable of the clause (according to the principle of end-focus), the new information could be the entire clause, or the predication of the clause, or the last element of the clause. There are three factors contributing to the presentation of the content of a clause in one particular order rather than another. One is the tendency to place new information towards the end of the clause — the principle of end-focus. Another is the tendency to reserve the final position for the more complex part of a clause — the principle of end-weight. A third factor is the limitation of possible clause structures, with their sets of participant roles. These restrictions determine, for example, that an agentive role cannot be expressed by an object or complement, but only by the subject or by the agent of a passive clause, e. g.: *Who makes these chairs? — They are made by Morris.*

Actual division is different in different communicative types of sentences. The declarative sentence expresses a certain proposition, that is a statement of the fact, and the actual division of a declarative sentence presents itself in the most complete form. The rheme of the declarative sentence is the centre of the statement, e. g. *Now you know the truth.*

The imperative sentence does not express any statement of fact that is any proposition proper. M. Y. Blokh says that the proposition underlying the imperative sentence is reversely contrasted to the content of the expressed inducement. Thus, command or request to do something is based on the premise that something is not done. For

example: *Give me his address, please* (Premise — the address has not been given yet). The rheme of the imperative sentence expresses the informative nucleus of the inducement — a wanted (or unwanted) action together with its attending elements.

The interrogative sentence expresses an inquiry about information which the speaker does not possess. The rheme of the interrogative sentence is informatively open or gaping. Its function is to mark the rhematic position in the response sentence. Different types of questions present different types of open rhemes. In special questions the nucleus of the inquiry is expressed by a question-word. The gaping meaning is to be replaced in the answer by the wanted actual information. Thus, the rheme of the answer is the substitute of a question-word, the two making up a rhematic unity in the broader question-answer construction, e. g.: *Where did you meet him? — At a scientific conference.* The rheme of general questions is also open. But its openness consists in two suggestions presented for choice to the listener. It is clearly seen in the structure of alternative questions, e. g.: *Will you invite him home or visit him at the hotel?* The general question of the “yes — no” response type is implicitly alternative. Its inquiry concerns the choice between existence and non-existence of an indicated fact, e. g.: *Are you going to leave for good? — Yes / No.*

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24. Sentence Structures

Before we take the study of sentence structures it is worth considering the relationship between two notions: sentence and clause. The notion of clause is identical to that of sentence. A simple sentence consists of one clause. When we come to composite sentences, that is sentences consisting of two or more clauses, we have to deal with the notions of main clause and subordinate clause.

The first principle of classification of composite sentences is the way of joining clauses: either by means of special words designed for this function (syndetically), or without such words (asyndetically). In the syndetic way, the joining word may 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 relative pronoun or a relative adverb, it has a double function: it serves to join the clauses together and at the same time, it makes up a part of a subordinate clause, e. g. *I do not know what has happened.*

The transition zone between simple and composite sentences may be represented by sentences with homogeneous parts (e. g. *I took the child in my arms and held him*), by sentences with a comparative complex (e. g. *This bag is as big as my blue one*), and by sentences with secondary predication (e. g. *I did not expect you to come so early*).

Compound sentences consist of clauses joined together by coordinating conjunctions (*and, or, but, yet, so*). Clauses in compound sentences have equal rights, they are coordinated. However, there is a suggestion that the independence of the second clause is not complete, and its structure and content is predominated by the first clause. The other specific feature of this structural type is that there are compound sentences which consist of clauses belonging to different communicative types, e. g.: *It means something to her, but why?*

Complex sentences consist of clauses which are not on an equal footing. One of them is the main clause and the other (or others) — subordinate. There is a great variety of conjunctions (*after, before, though, since*, etc), a number of phrases (*as soon as, in order to*). Besides, there are relative pronouns (*who, which, that*, etc) and relative adverbs (*where, how, why*, etc). Complex sentence is a sentence containing at

least one subordinate clause. The structural classification of complex sentences is based on the classification of subordinate clauses which includes subject clauses, predicative clauses, object clauses, attributive clauses and various types of adverbial clauses (of place, time, result, purpose, cause, condition, manner, etc). However, the communicative classification of complex sentences depends on the main clause.

Structural types of simple sentences. It is usual to classify simple sentences into two-member sentences (having both subject and predicate) and one-member sentences (nominative, infinitive, imperative). Elliptical sentences are two-member sentences with either the subject or the predicate omitted, presented implicitly. Implication is the information which is not given explicit verbal expression to, but which is suggested by some other elements of the context. Such sentences are treated as incomplete because the missing parts can be easily understood from the context. They are mostly used in colloquial speech and especially in dialogue.

Simple sentences, both two-member and one-member, can be non-extended (consisting only of the main parts) and extended (consisting of the subject, the predicate and one or more secondary parts). Elementary sentence is a non-extended sentence which besides the main parts (the subject, the predicate) may have complementive secondary parts. This is a sentence all the positions of which are obligatory. According to R. Quirk et al, the set of elementary English sentences includes the following patterns:

- 1) SVA — *Mary is in the house;*
- 2) SVC — *Mary is kind/a nurse;*
- 3) SVO — *Somebody caught the ball;*
- 4) SVOA — *I put a plate on the table;*
- 5) SVOC — *We have proved him wrong/a fool;*
- 6) SVOO — *She gives me expensive presents;*
- 7) SV — *The child laughed.*

It should be kept in mind that one and the same verb can belong, in various senses, to a number of different classes. The verb *get* is particularly versatile and can be found in each type given above: SVC — *He is getting angry;* SVA — *He got through the window;* SVO — *He'll*

get a surprise; SVOC — He got his shoes wet; SVOA — He got himself into trouble; SVOO — He got her a splendid present; SV — He got up.

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25. Simple Sentence: Constituent Structure

As M. Y. Blokh puts it, simple sentence is organized as a system of function-expressing positions. The parts of the sentence are arranged in a hierarchy wherein all of them perform some modifying roles. Thus, the subject is a person-modifier of the predicate. The predicate is a process-modifier of the subject-person. The object is a substance-modifier of the process. The adverbial is a quality-modifier of the predicate part or the sentence as a whole. The attribute is a quality-modifier of a substantive part. The parenthetical enclosure is a detached speaker-bound modifier of any sentence-part or the sentence as a whole. The addressing enclosure (address) is a substantive modifier of the destination of the sentence. The interjectional enclosure is a speaker-bound emotional modifier of the sentence as a whole. The ultimate objective of this integral modification is the sentence as a whole and the reflection of the situation or the situational event.

The subject is one of the two main parts of the sentence. It denotes the thing whose action or characteristic is expressed by the predicate. In both practical and theoretical approaches, it is the problem of the

anticipatory subject which is worth considering first of all. It refers to the sentences of the type: *It is necessary to do this work*. The most convincing interpretation of this sentence structure, proposed by R. Quirk, is as follows. The subject is placed at the end of the sentence, and the subject position is filled by the anticipatory pronoun *It*. The sentence thus contains two subjects, which are identified as the postponed subject (the element which is notionally the subject of the sentence) and the anticipatory subject (*It*).

The predicate is one of the two main parts of the sentence. It denotes the action or property of the thing expressed by the subject. Structurally predicates may be simple or compound, morphologically — verbal or nominal. The resulting types are: a simple verbal predicate, a compound verbal predicate, a simple nominal predicate, a compound nominal predicate.

The compound nominal predicate always consists of a link-verb and a predicative (complement) of any type. The link-verb *be* is regarded as the most abstract (a pure link verb). The other link-verbs have each some lexical meaning, either factual (*become, get, grow, turn, remain, keep*, etc), or perceptual (*seem, appear, look, feel, taste*, etc). It must be kept in mind that some notional verbs (especially intransitive verbs of position and motion) can perform the function of a link-verb without losing their lexical nominative value, e. g.: *The moon rose red; He was found guilty*. Since such sentences have both a simple verbal predicate and a compound nominal predicate in their structure, they form a special or mixed type of sentences with a double predicate.

The simple nominal predicate is rare in English but still a living type. In fact, it is a compound nominal predicate with a link-verb omitted, e. g.: *My ideas obsolete!!!; Splendid game, cricket; so thoroughly English!*

The differentiation between the simple verbal predicate and the compound verbal predicate is a real problem. It arises from the fact that a considerable number of verbs can be followed by an infinitive (with or without the particle *to*). The combination of a modal verb (*can, may, must, should*, etc) with an infinitive makes up the compound verbal modal predicate, which is generally accepted. The combination

of a phasal verb (*begin, start, continue, etc*) with an infinitive or gerund is regarded as the compound verbal phrasal predicate, or the compound verbal aspect predicate. Some scholars, in particular V. V. Burlakova, do not agree with this interpretation and treat such forms as free word combinations of a simple verbal predicate with an object of any kind, infinitive included.

The theory of the secondary parts of the sentence has many weak points. First of all, there is a problem of definitions of the object, the attribute and the adverbial modifier. In Modern English, with its case system practically ruined, it is very difficult to give a definition of the object based on its formal and semantic properties, though it is common practice to speak about the direct object and the indirect object (including the prepositional one). R. Quirk proposes the following definition of the direct object: “The direct object is by far the most frequent kind of object and it must always be present if there is an indirect object in the sentence: *He had given the girl an apple*. As here, the indirect object almost always precedes the direct object: it is characteristically a noun referring to a person, and the semantic relationship is often such, that it is appropriate to use the term “recipient”. Loosely, one might say in most cases that something (the direct object) tends to be done for (or received by) the indirect object” (R. Quirk et al, p. 21). Sometimes it is hard to distinguish the object from the adverbial modifier, e. g.: *He entered the room; Mary lived with her parents*.

The traditional definition of the adverbial modifier is rather vague: it is a secondary part of the sentence serving to characterize an action or a property as to its quality or intensity, or to indicate the way an action is done, the time, place, cause, purpose, or condition with which the action is connected. R. Quirk describes three classes of adverbials: adjuncts, disjuncts and conjuncts. According to him adverbials may be integrated into the structure of the clause or they may be peripheral to it. If integrated, they are termed adjuncts, e. g. *He writes to his parents because of money*. If peripheral, they are termed disjuncts (*To my regret, they did not leave for home*) and conjuncts (*What’s more, I’m going to tell him that myself*), the distinction between the two being that conjuncts have primarily a connective function.

The attribute is defined as a secondary part of the sentence modifying a part of the sentence expressed by a noun, a noun-pronoun, a cardinal numeral or any other substantivized word, and characterizing the thing, named by these words, as to its quality and property. And here again we have the problem of differentiation between the object and the attribute in a sentence. B. A. Ilyish says that in many cases the answer to the question whether a secondary part expresses a thing or a property will be arbitrary, that is it will depend on the scholar's opinion and not on any objective criteria. In the sentence: *The gloom of winter twilight closed about her* the phrase *of winter twilight* modifies the noun *gloom* and may be either an object or an attribute (denoting either a thing or a property). Also compare: *The idea of such a travel was good; This pair of shoes does not fit you.*

Another problem with the attribute is its grammatical status. There is a view expressed by many scholars that the attribute is a part of a phrase rather than a sentence. In particular, B. A. Ilyish points out the fact that an attribute often comes within a part of a sentence, for example, between the article and the noun to which the article belongs. It speaks strongly in favor of the view that the attribute stands on a lower level than the usual parts of the sentence and that it should be considered a part of a phrase, not of a sentence.

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26. Text Grammar and Theory of Discourse

When talking about the relationship between the traditional sentence grammar and the theory of discourse, we should take into consideration the three main aspects of the sentence: structural, semantic, and pragmatic. Analyzing sentence in the text, M. Blokh focuses on the structural features as primary ones. In his opinion, sentences in speech are connected both semantically and syntactically. They combine with one another on syntactic lines in the formation of larger stretches of both oral talk and written text. It implies a succession of sentences with a common informative purpose (topic). The terms used are: “a complex syntactic unity”, “a super-phrasal unity”, and “the supra-sentential construction”. Text has two distinguishing features: first, it is a semantic (topical) unity, second, it is a syntactic cohesion. According to M. Y. Blokh, there are two types of text. Monologue is a one-direction sequence of sentences e. g.: *We'll have a lovely garden. We'll have roses in it and a lovely lawn for little Billy and little Barbara to play on. And we'll have our meals down by the lily pond in summer.* Dialogue is a two-direction sequence, in which sentences are uttered by the speakers in turn, e. g.: *Annette, what have you done? — I've done what I had to do.* The monologue formation is based on syntactic cumulation of sentences, whereas the dialogue formation is based on its sentences being positioned so as to meet one another. The monologue text, or “discourse” is a topical entity; the dialogue text, or “conversation” is an exchange-topical entity. Sentences in a cumulative sequence can be connected either prospectively or retrospectively. Prospective (epiphoric, cataphoric) cumulation is effected through connective elements (mainly, notional words) that relate a given sentence to one that follows it. This type can be found in scientific and technical texts, e. g.: *Let me add **a word of caution** here. The valve must be correctly engineered and constructed.* Retrospective (anaphoric) cumulation is effected through connective elements that relate a sentence to the one that precedes it. This type is usually found in ordinary speech, e. g.: *What curious class sensation was **this**? Or was **it** merely fellow-feeling with the hunted?* Conjunctive connectors include regular conjunctions (coordinative and subordinative), adverbial and parenthetical forms

(*then, yet, however, hence, besides, moreover, nevertheless, etc.*). Conjunctive cumulation is only retrospective. Correlative cumulation is both prospective and retrospective. It is effected through a pair of elements, one of which refers to the other, e. g.: **Spolding** *woke me with the noiseless efficiency of a trained housemaid. She drew the curtains, placed a can with hot water in my basin.*

M. A. K. Halliday focuses on the semantic aspect of the utterance as a dominating one. His main ideas are the following. The word text in linguistics refers to any passage, spoken or written, of whatever length, that forms a unified whole. It may be anything from a proverb to a whole play. A text is a unit of language in use. It is not a grammatical unit, like a clause or a sentence, and it is not defined by its size. A text is a semantic unit. A text does not consist of sentences, it is realized by sentences. A text has texture, derived from the fact that it functions as a unity with respect to its environment. The concept of cohesion is a semantic one; it refers to relations of meaning. Cohesion occurs when the interpretations of some element in the discourse is dependent on that of another. The one presupposes the other. Like other semantic relations, cohesion is expressed through the stratal organization of language. Language is a multiple coding system comprising three levels of coding: the semantic (meanings), the lexico-grammatical (forms), and the phonological and orthographic (expressions). In brief, meaning is put into wording, and wording is put into sound or writing. Within the layer (stratum) of wording there is no hard-and-fast division between vocabulary and grammar: the more general meanings are expressed through grammar, and the more specific meanings through the vocabulary. Cohesion is expressed partly through the grammar and partly through the vocabulary.

As contrasted to M. A. K. Halliday, T. A. van Dijk says that it is the pragmatic aspect of utterances which makes the basis of every text. Discourse is generally understood as text in social environments. Relations between sentences in a discourse cannot be described in semantic terms alone. The conditions imposed on connectives as well as coherence, topic, focus, perspective, and similar notions, also have a pragmatic base. In other words, we do not only want to

represent certain facts but at the same time we want to use a particular textual representation. The basic idea of pragmatics is that when we are speaking in certain contexts we also accomplish certain social acts. Our intentions for such actions as well as the interpretations of intentions of other speech participants are based on sets of knowledge and belief. These sets are different for speaker and hearer, although largely overlapping, and the knowledge set of the hearer changes during the communication, ideally according to the purposes of the speaker. By uttering a sentence a speaker accomplishes a referential act. It has a social point as soon as the speaker has an intention to demonstrate that he/she has the particular knowledge about the particular fact. The purpose is to change the knowledge of the hearer as a consequence of the interpretation of this semantic (referential) act. If this purpose is realized, the speaker has accomplished a successful communicative act, that is, he/she has been able to add some information to the knowledge of the hearer.

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