Міністерство освіти і науки України

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Теоретична граматика сучасної англійської мови:

матеріали до лекційного курсу

та завдання для самостійної роботи

Харків – 2010

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Методична розробка, що відповідає вимогами кредитно-модульної системи організації навчального процесу, містить, по-перше, матеріали до лекцій та семінарів із теоретичної граматики сучасної англійської мови, по-друге, матеріали для самостійної роботи студентів. Методична розробка складається з двох частин, що відповідають двом модулям цієї теоретичної дисципліни – морфології та синтаксису. Додатки містять матеріали, скеровані на підготовку студента до написання поточних і модульних тестів та підсумкових екзаменаційних робіт. Список рекомендованої літератури задає вектор поглиблення знань студентів у галузі теоретичної граматики сучасної англійської мови.

ЗМІСТ

ПЕРЕДМОВА

Теоретична граматика сучасної англійської мови в загальній програмі підготовки студентів за спеціальністю «Англійська мова та література»

Навчальна дисципліна «Теоретична граматика сучасної англійської мови» посідає важливе місце в системі професійної підготовки викладача англійської мови. Її загальною метою є ознайомлення студентів зі станом наукового знання в цій галузі й подальше формування їх навичок наукового мислення та вмінь аналізу емпіричного матеріалу.

Метою створення цієї методичної розробки є забезпечення відповідного теоретичного курсу супровідними до лекцій матеріалами, а також сучасними матеріалами для самостійного опрацювання студентами.

Методична розробка складається з двох частин (морфології та синтаксису), співвідносних із двома модулями курсу. Згідно з вимогами кредитно-модульної системи організації навчального процесу, матеріал кожного модуля зорганізовано в теми відповідно до структури навчальної дисципліни «Теоретична граматика сучасної англійської мови». Кожен модуль та тему розраховано на передбачену робочим планом кількість годин аудиторної та самостійної роботи, які наведено у таблиці нижче.

Модуль	Ауди-торна робота	Само-стійна робота
1. МОРФОЛОГІЧНА СИСТЕМА АНГЛІЙСЬКОЇ МОВИ Тема 1.1. Теоретична граматика англійської мови як галузь мовознавства …………………………………………..	2 год.	0,6 год.
Тема 1.2. Роль граматики в системі англійської мови ………	2 год.	0,6 год.
Тема 1.3. Частини мови ………………………….…………...	2 год.	0,6 год.
Тема 1.4. Англійські іменники та артиклі …………………...	2 год.	0,6 год.
Тема 1.5. Англійські прикметники та прислівники …………	2 год.	0,6 год.
Тема 1.6. Англійські дієслова ……………………………...	4 год.	1,2 год.
2. СИНТАКСИЧНА СИСТЕМА АНГЛІЙСЬКОЇ МОВИ Тема 2.1. Синтаксичні одиниці. Словосполучення …………	2 год.	0,6 год.
Тема 2.2. Речення …………………………………………….	2 год.	0,6 год.
Тема 2.3. Конституенти простого речення: члени речення	2 год.	0,6 год.
Тема 2.4. Конституенти складного речення: клаузи ………..	2 год.	0,6 год.
Тема 2.5. Логіко-семантичні відношення між клаузами …..	2 год.	0,6 год.
Тема 2.6. Глибинні семантичні ролі ………………………	2 год.	0,6 год.
Тема 2.7. Прагматичний синтаксис …………………..………	2 год.	0,6 год.

До кожної теми включено матеріали, призначені для самостійного опрацювання студентами, а також завдання, спрямовані на формування професійно значущих навичок дослідницької роботи.

До матеріалів додаються критерії оцінювання знань студентів із курсу теоретичної граматики сучасної англійської мови, зразки поточних, модульних та екзаменаційних робіт, питання до екзамену. Список рекомендованої літератури задає вектор поглиблення знань студентів у галузі теоретичної граматики сучасної англійської мови.

MODULE 1
ENGLSIH MORPHOLOGY

Theme 1.1
THEORETICAL GRAMMAR AS A SUBFIELD OF LINGUISTCS
Outline

1. The content of the term "grammar"
2. Kinds of grammars
    2.1. Universal vs. particular grammars
    2.2. Descriptive vs. prescriptive grammars
    2.3. Mentalist vs. formalist grammars
    2.4. Active vs. passive grammars
3. Approaches to the study of English grammar
    3.1. Traditional
    3.2. Structuralist
    3.3. Formalist
    3.4. Functionalist

1. THE CONTENT OF THE TERM "GRAMMAR"

Gr. *grammatikē*	→	M.E. *grammarye*	→	*grammar*
			→	*glamour*
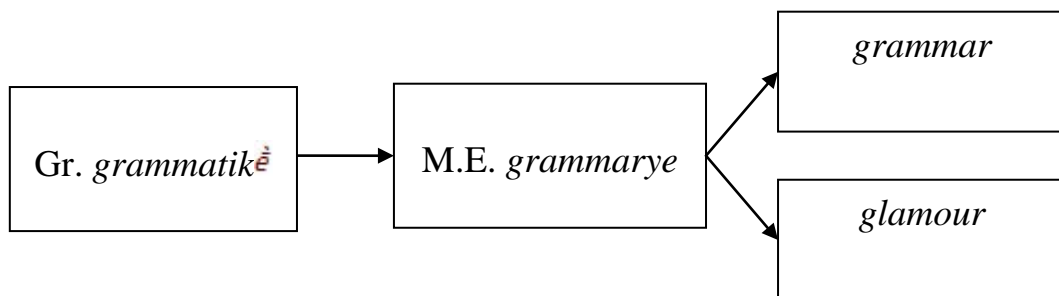
Fig. 1.1. Etymology of the word *grammar*

grammar
1 - "doing grammar"	2 - "knowing about grammar"	3, etc.
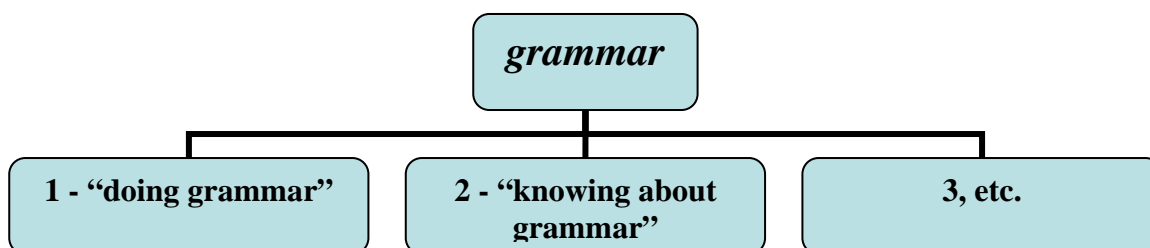
Fig. 1.2. Senses of the word *grammar:*

1 – "expressing oneself in conformity with the norms of the language"
2 – "being aware of how the language works"

Science	Subject Matter
chemistry	how substances combine to form other substances
psychology	how individuals behave
sociology	how people behave in groups
cultural anthropology	how human cultures resemble and differ from each other
linguistics	how language works

Fig. 1.3.   Some sciences and informal descriptions of the phenomena they are concerned with

2. KINDS OF GRAMMARS

2.1. Universal vs. particular grammars

Table 1.1

**Other language correspondences
to the general and specific senses of the English word *language***

	General	Specific
	"a unique human ability to communicate with conventional signs"	"a particular system of signs"
English	*language^{1}*	*language^{2}*
French	*langage*	*langue*
Italian	*linguaggio*	*lingua*
Spanish	*lenguaje*	*lengua*

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┌─────────────────────┐        ┌─────────────────────┐
│  General Linguistics │────────│ Particular Linguistics│
└─────────────────────┘        └─────────────────────┘
           ┌─────────────────────┐    ┌─────────────────────┐    ┌─────────────────────┐
           │  French Linguistics │    │  English Linguistics │    │      ………..         │
           └─────────────────────┘    └─────────────────────┘    └─────────────────────┘
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Theoretical Grammar of the English language	Phonology of the English language	Lexicology of the English language

Pragmatics	Semantics
Sociolinguistics	Psycholinguistics
Textlinguistics	Stylistics
	....
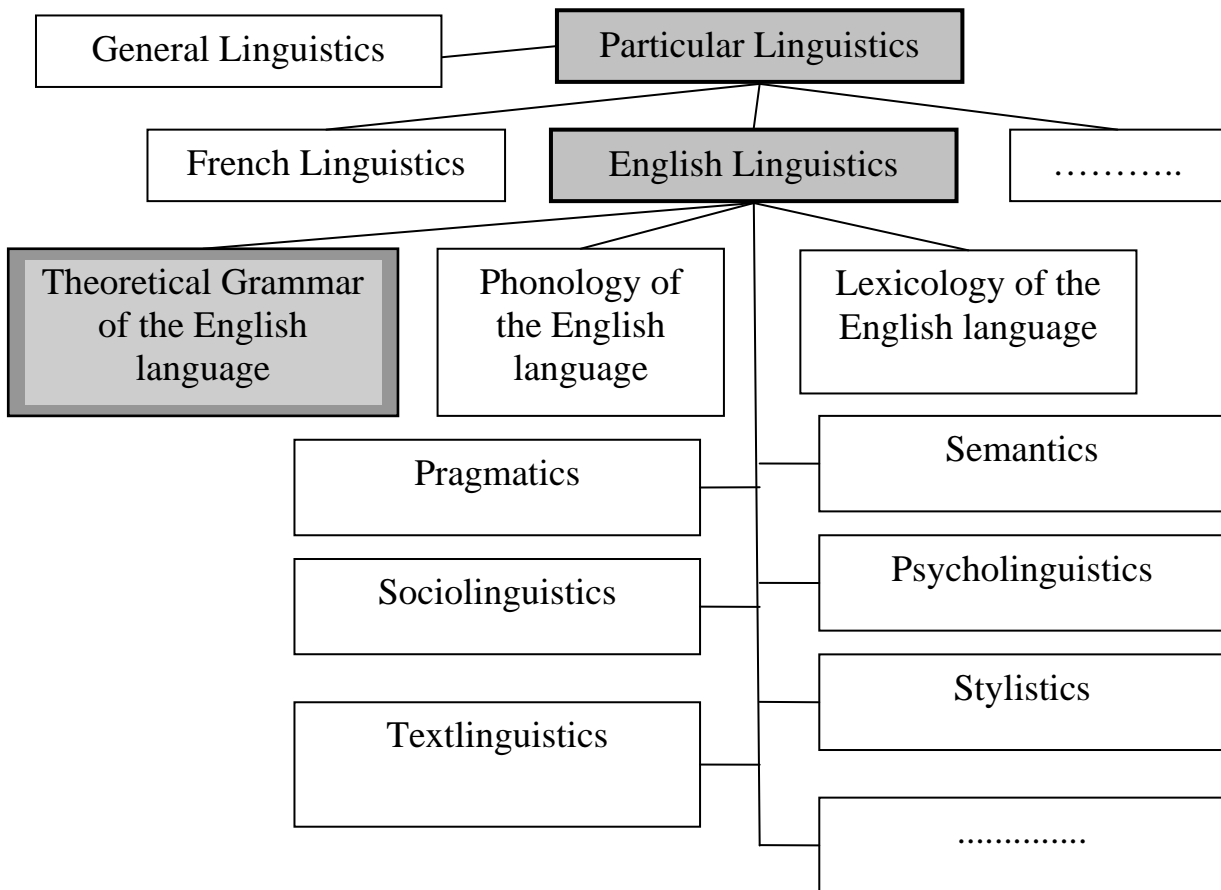
Fig. 1.4. Theoretical Grammar of English among other linguistic disciplines

2.2. Descriptive vs. prescriptive grammars

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                    ┌──────────────┐
                    │   Grammars   │
                    └──────────────┘
        ┌───────────────────────┐   ┌──────────────────────────────┐
        │ Descriptive (fundamental,│   │ Prescriptive (pedagogical, applied)│
        │      theoretical)      │   │                              │
        └───────────────────────┘   └──────────────────────────────┘
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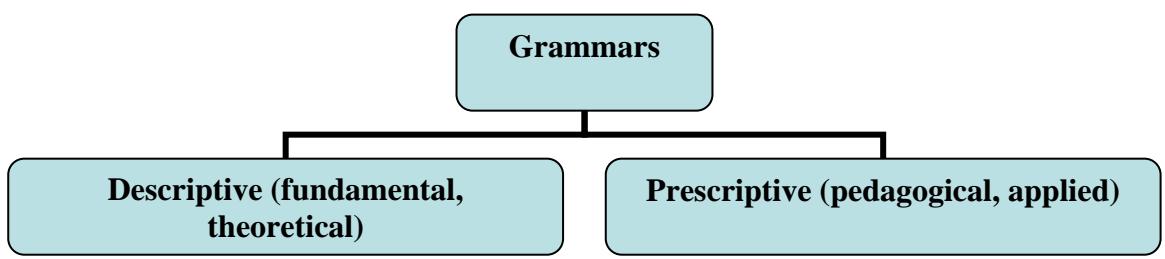
Fig. 1.5. Kinds of grammars according to their purpose

2.3. Semantic vs. formalist grammars

sign/form

SIGN

object/referent   meaning/concept
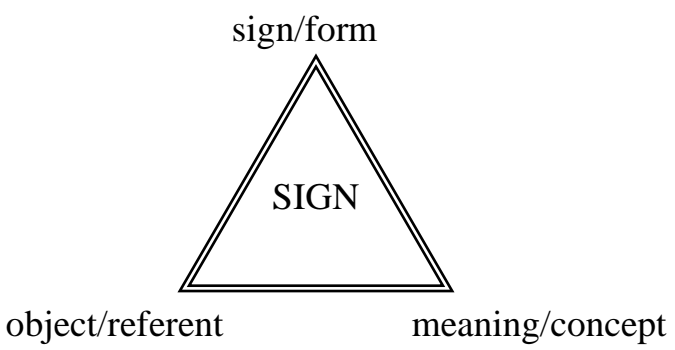
Fig 1.6. The semantic triangle
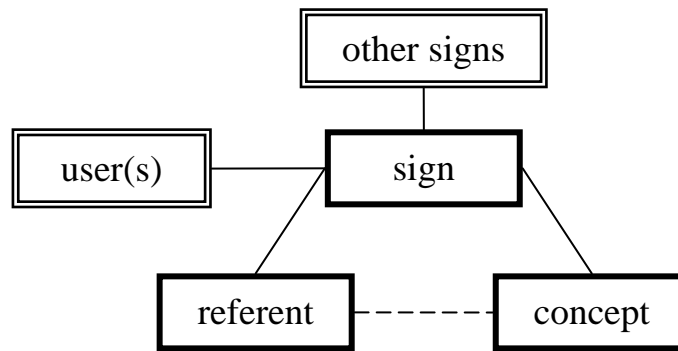
Fig. 1.7. Connections of the linguistic sign

Communicative grammars are based on the relation "sign – user of the sign").
Situational / referential grammars hold in view the relation "sign – referent".
Cognitive grammars' main concern is the relation "sign – concept".
Structural grammars deal primarily with the relation "sign – another sign").
These types of grammars can be grouped into **semantic grammars** (communicative, referential and cognitive) and **formalist grammars**.

2.4. Active vs. passive grammars
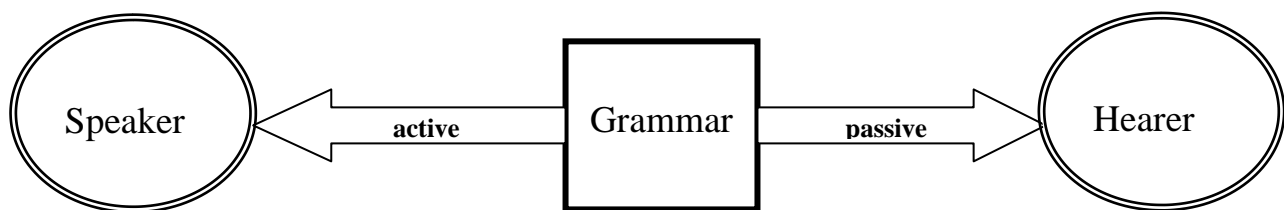
Fig. 1.8. Active (speaker-oriented) vs. passive (listener-oriented) grammars

3. APPROACHES TO THE STUDY OF ENGLISH GRAMMAR
(self-study material)

English grammar theories are many and various, but each of them can be defined as belonging to traditional, structural, formal or functional approach. Pre-twentieth-century theories represent *traditional* grammar, while most twentieth-century grammar theories are varieties of *structuralism*. Among the more *formal* theories, which have developed since the 1950^s , the more prominent ones are Generative Grammar and Transformational Grammar. Among the theories embedded within *functionalism* the most prominent ones are Systemic Linguistics and Cognitive Grammar.

3.1. Traditional

In the development of traditional grammar two periods are distinguished: prescriptive (pre-scientific) and descriptive (scientific).

3.1.1. Prescriptive grammars. Until the end of the sixteenth century, the only grammars used in English schools were Latin grammars. They were aimed at teaching students to read, write and sometimes converse in this *lingua franca* of Western Europe. One of the earliest and most popular Latin grammars written in English was *William Lily's* grammar, published in the first half of the 16th century. It was an aid to learning Latin, and it rigorously followed Latin models.

The Renaissance changed this state of things, and first – prescriptive – grammars of the English language started to appear, which resembled the Latin ones in their rigorous and orderly treatment of grammar. The most influential grammar of that period was *Robert Lowth's* "Short Introduction to English Grammar" (1762), which formulated its aim in the following way: "to teach us to express ourselves with propriety <...> and to enable us to judge of every phrase and form of construction, whether it be right or not". The criterion for telling right from wrong, quite naturally, was Latin.

By the second half of the XIXth century, the development of prescriptive grammar had achieved its peak. The best prescriptive grammars – *Charles Peter Mason's* "English Grammar" (1858) and *Alexander Bain's* "Higher English Grammar" (1863) – paved the way for grammars of a new – scientific – type.

3.1.2. Descriptive grammars (non-structural). The second half of the XIXth century witnessed the need for a grammar which could give a scientific explanation to the instances of language use without assessing their correctness. *Henry Sweet* (1845–1912), the father of the approach which met this requirement, characterized it in the preface to his "New English Grammar, Logical and Historical" (1891) in the following way: "As my exposition claims to be scientific, I confine myself to the statement of facts, without attempting to settle the relative correctness of divergent usages. If an 'ungrammatical' expression such as *it is me* is in general use among educated people, I accept it as such, simply adding that it is avoided in the literary language".

Like prescriptive grammarians, Sweet concerned himself mostly with the written language but the method he employed was descriptive (in linguistics the **method** is understood as a way of collecting and describing language data). The essence of the ***descriptive method*** runs down to making inventories of linguistic units and explaining their structural and functional characteristics at a certain stage of the development of the language, i.e. synchronically.

Application of this method envisages the following stages:

- singling out the units of analysis (phonemes, morphemes, words, etc.).

- dividing these units into smaller constituent parts, i.e. splitting sentences into phrases, phrases into word-forms, word-forms into morphemes, etc.

- classifying and interpreting these units.

The non-structural descriptive approach to language had its heyday between 1900 and 1930. By the end of this period it came to be replaced by structuralism.

3.2. Structuralist

Structuralism is an approach to the study of language which views a language as a structured system.

Before the XXth century, linguists took an atomistic view of language: they saw the latter as essentially a collection of individual elements, such as speech sounds, words and morphemes. At the beginning of the XXth century, a Swiss linguist **Ferdinand de Saussure** put forward a very different view: he argued that a language is best viewed as a structured system, with each element in it defined primarily by how it is related to other elements. In this view, which has come to be called structuralism, it is the system which is the primary object of study, and not separate elements of that system.

Saussure's influence helped to make structuralism the dominant approach in linguistics. In his book "Language" (1933) **Leonard Bloomfield**, father of American structuralism, defined the essence of the new approach in the following way: "The study of language can be conducted <...> only so long as we pay no attention to the meaning of what is spoken". Proponents of the structural approach to language sought to describe the structure of a language as objectively as possible, without reference to the meaning of its units or to other languages. By other languages they meant in the first place Latin and Greek, the languages which served as models for prescriptive and, to a lesser degree, descriptive non-structural grammars.

English came to be regarded by structuralists as a language with its own organization to be revealed by specific methods. Structuralists confined themselves to formal methods of analysis of observable, objective data because they proceeded from the assumption that meaning is an unreliable feature of linguistic units since it is not immediately observable. In contrast to traditional grammarians who focused on the written variety of language, structuralists preferred to built their theories on spoken data.

Striving to be maximally objective, structural grammarians used formal methods of analyzing language: distributional, transformational, oppositional and immediate constituents analyses.

The **distribution** of a linguistic element is the set of its environments, or the sum total of all the positions of the element relative to the positions of other elements, within sentences in which the element can appear. For instance, the distribution of *hair* in written English is the set of the following contexts: *I combed my hair; Give me the hair spray; My hair is too long,* etc. Thus the distribution of the word *hair* can be described as follows: (1) it can follow the word *my*; (2) it can precede the word *spray*; (3) it can precede the verb *be*.

If we analyze other words, we shall find other positions they occupy, or other environments in which they are used. Words that have the same distribution are words of the same class. We test their distribution by substituting them for other words. Consider the sentence *I combed my hair*. The word *hair* can be formally substituted for other words, such as *place*, *town*, *wood*, etc. Distribution and substitution were used by structuralists for classifying linguistic units.

The method of distribution was treated as a method that enables an analyst to classify words into classes objectively, i.e. without having recourse to meaning.

The *transformational* method was developed by ***Zellig Harris*** in the 1950^s. The aim of a transformational operation was to reveal similarities and differences in the structure of the units under scrutiny or to reveal their structural potential.

To provide an illustration of how transformational method works, let us consider the following examples:

(1) *Mary has a new car.*

(2) *Mary has a good time.*

At first sight, the two sentences are identical in structure. However, it is not so since sentence (1) cannot be turned into the passive while sentence (2) can:

(1) *Mary has a new car. - *A new car is had by Mary.*

(2) *Mary has a good time. - A good time is had by Mary.*

Transformational analysis is primarily used in syntax. It presupposes dividing all the sentences into kernel sentences and their transforms. **Kernel** sentences are the basic elementary sentences of the language from which all other sentences of a language can be derived by means of certain transformational rules. The latter are:

(1) transformation of kernel sentences into other simple sentences (S →S);

(2) transformation of simple sentences into noun phrases (NP), or nominalization (S→NP);

(3) transformation of two or more simple sentences into a complex or compound sentence (S1+S2→ S3).

Transformations in simple sentences are those of (1) expansion of the verb phrase and the noun phrase (e.g. *John is at home.* → *John must be at home; We like him.* → *We came to like him; John is walking.* → *John is walking in the park*); (2) use of negation words (e.g. *The evening was warm.* → *The evening was not warm*; (3) introduction of functional words (e.g. *He arrived tonight.* → *Did he arrive tonight?*); (4) tag question (e.g. *Ted is smart.* → *Ted is smart, isn't he?*); (5) special question; (6) exclamation; (7) command or request; (8) passivisation (e.g. *The teacher praised the boy.* → *The boy was praised by the teacher)*; (10) preposition introduction; (11) permutation, or the change of the word order (e.g. *The pencil is here* → *Here is the pencil*); (12) use of introducers (there, it) (e.g. *A man appeared in the room* → *There appeared a man in the room*); (13) deletion of an element (e.g. *Do you like it?* → *Like it?*).

The transformation of nominalization, which converts the kernel sentence into a noun-phrase retaining the same semantic relations, implies the following procedures:

(1) deletion of the verb (e.g. *The boy has a pencil* → *The boy with a pencil*);

(2) the introduction of prepositions (e.g. *The man is wise* → *The wisdom of the man*);

(3) permutation of NP1 and NP2 (e.g. *The bowl is for sugar* → *A sugar bowl*);

(4) the derivation of the corresponding N from V (e.g. *The bird sang* → *The song of the bird*);

(5) transformation of V-finite into V-*ing* and V-*to* (e.g. *We rely on it that he will come* → *We rely on him to come; we rely on his coming*).

Oppositional analysis is based on the principle of binary privative oppositions. It is equally effective on different linguistic levels – phonological, lexical, grammatical. In particular, the binary opposition is the minimal necessary condition for the existence of a morphological category. A binary opposition juxtaposes the marked and the non-marked members. For instance, the category of number of nouns is based on the opposition of the marked member (the plural form) to the unmarked member (the singular one).

Componential analysis (CA) is used in lexicology (semantics), word-building, and syntax. It aims to reveal how linguistic units of higher levels are made up of the units of lower levels. In syntax this method is known under the name of **Immediate Constituents** (IC) analysis. The term "immediate constituent" was introduced by L. Bloomfield. Each of the IC's of a sentence can be further divided at the next lower level till one arrives at a set of **ultimate constituents**.
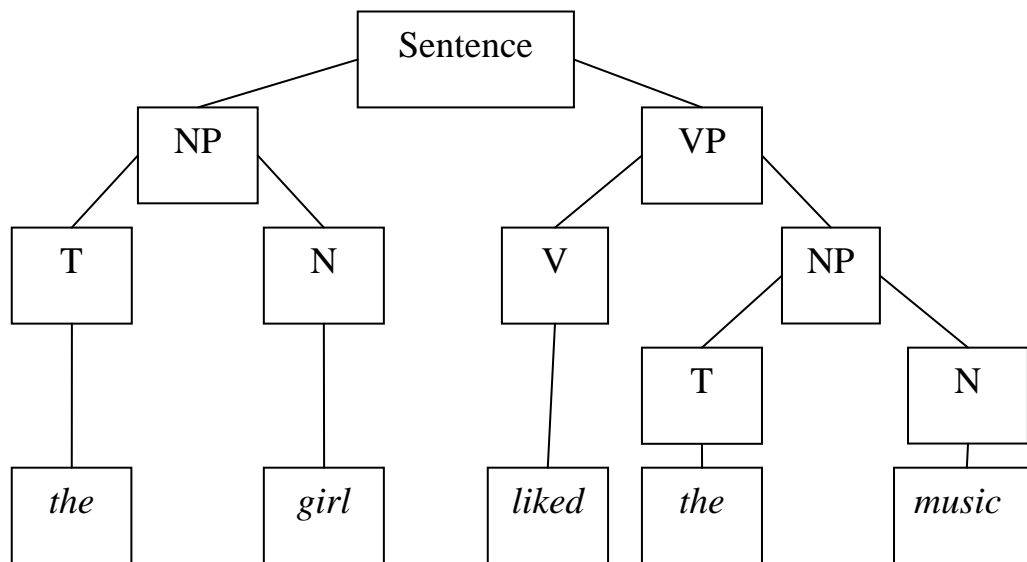
Fig. 1.9. Immediate and ultimate constituents of a sentence

The ICs of the sentence *The girl liked the music* are the two phrases *The girl* and *liked the music*. Each of them, in its turn, is a complex form. The ultimate constituents of *the girl* are *the* and *girl;* the ICs of *liked the music* are *liked* (which is at the same time the ultimate constituent of the sentence considered) and *the music*; the ultimate constituents of the phrase *the music* are *the* and *music*. To put it in a more simple language, the ICs *The girl* and *liked the music* belong together, for they stand side by side. They are the most important constituents since they make the core of the sentence. The same principle of togetherness underlies the constituents *the* and *girl, liked* and *the music, the* and *music*. However, as compared to *The girl* and *liked the music*, they are constituents of a lower level: they are subconstituents of the higher level *The girl* and *liked the music*. Hence two levels of analysis: higher and lower where the lower level is subordinated to the higher level.

3.3. Formalist

The transformational method and the method of immediate constituents paved the way for the emergence of a new type of grammar – generative – aimed at providing a formalized account for the way sentences are generated.

Unlike the structural grammarian, the generative scholar is not content with describing what he finds in a corpus of sentences collected from native speakers. He is interested in all possible sentences, i.e. the speaker's-hearer's knowledge of a language (**competence**), rather than in his actual use of it (**performance**).

The earliest version of generative grammar was developed by ***Zellig Harris*** in concert with his pupil ***Noam Chomsky***, in the 1950ˢ. According to this model, in a language there is a finite number of **kernel** sentences (i.e. structurally the simplest ones) and their **transforms** (i.e. structures derived from them).

Kernel sentences are generated by the use of the IC model. The set of rules showing how a sentence is generated is called **rewrite rules**, or rewriting rules. Consider the kernel sentence *The man hit the ball*. This sentence is generated by the application of the following rules:
1) Sentence: NP + VP
2) NP: T (a determiner) + N
3) T: *the*
4) N: *man*
5) VP: V + NP
6) V: *hit*
7) NP: T + N
8) T: *the*
9) N: *ball*

This sentence is derived by the use of 6 rules (rules 7, 8, 9 are recursive, i.e. they have already been used before). From this sentence, applying transformational rules, we can derive other sentences, such as *The ball was hit by the man; Did the man hit the ball?; The man did not hit the ball; What the man did was hit the ball; It was the man who hit the ball,* etc.

By the end of 1950ˢ, the ways of Zellig Harris and Noam Chomsky had parted. The latter introduced into linguistics the notion of a particular type of generative grammar, which has proved to be very fluential and to which he gave the name **transformational grammar**, or **TG**; TG has sometimes also been called transformational-generative grammar.

Most types of generative grammar in which anybody has ever been interested can be usefully viewed as working like this: starting with nothing, the rules of the grammar build up the structure of a sentence piece by piece, adding something at each step, until the sentence structure is complete. Crucially, once something has been added to a sentence structure, it must remain: it cannot be changed, deleted or moved to a different location.

TG is hugely different. In TG, the structure of a sentence is first built up in the manner just described, using only context-free rules, which are a simple type of rule

widely used in other types of generative grammar. The structure which results is called the **deep structure** of the sentence. But, after this, some further rules apply. These rules are called **transformations**, and they are different in nature.

Transformations have the power to change the structure which is already present in a number of ways: not only can they add new material to the structure (though only in the early versions), but they can also change material which is already present in various ways, they can move material to a different location, and they can even delete material from the structure altogether. When all the relevant transformations have finished applying, the resulting structure is the **surface structure** of the sentence. Because of the vast power of transformations, the surface structure may look extremely different from the deep structure.

TG is thus a theory of grammar which holds that a sentence typically has more than one level of structure. Apart from the structure which it obviously has on the surface, it also has an abstract underlying structure (the deep structure) which may be substantially different. The point of all this, in Chomsky's view, is that certain important generalizations about the structures of the sentences in a language may be stated far more easily in terms of abstract deep structures than otherwise; in addition, the meaning of a sentence can often be determined much more straightforwardly from its deep structure.

TG has developed through a number of versions, each succeeding the other. In his 1957 book *Syntactic Structures*, Chomsky provided only a partial sketch of a very simple type of transformational grammar. This proved to be inadequate, and, in his 1965 book *Aspects of the Theory of Syntax*, Chomsky proposed a very different, and much more complete, version. This version is variously known as **the Aspects model** or as **the Standard Theory**. All textbooks of TG published before 1980 (and a few of those published more recently) present what is essentially the Standard Theory, sometimes with a few additions from later work.

Around 1968 the Standard Theory came under attack from a group of younger linguists who hoped to equate deep structure, previously a purely syntactic level of representation, with the semantic structure of a sentence (its meaning). This programme, called **Generative Semantics**, led to the positing of ever more abstract underlying structures for sentences; it proved unworkable, and it finally collapsed. Around the same time, two mathematical linguists demonstrated that standard TG was so enormously powerful that it could, in principle, describe anything which could be described at all – a potentially catastrophic result, since the whole point of a theory of grammar is to tell us what is possible in languages and what is not possible. Yet these Peters-Ritchie results suggested that TG was placing no constraints at all on what the grammar of a human language could be like.

Chomsky responded to all this in the early 1970s by introducing a number of changes to his framework; the result became known as **the Extended Standard Theory**, or **EST**. By the late 1970^s further changes had led to a radically different version dubbed **the Revised Extended Standard Theory**, or **REST**. Among the major innovations of the REST were the introduction of traces, invisible marking the former positions of elements which had been moved, a reduction in the

number of distinct transformations from dozens to just two, and a switch of attention away from the transformations themselves to the constraints which applied to them.

But Chomsky continued to develop his ideas, and in 1981 he published *Lectures on Government and Binding*; this book swept away much of the apparatus of the earlier transformational theories in favour of a dramatically different, and far more complex, approach called **Government-and-Binding Theory**, or **GB**. GB retains exactly one transformation, and, in spite of the obvious continuity between the new framework and its predecessors, the name 'transformational grammar' is not usually applied to GB or to its even more recent successor, **the minimalist programme**. Hence, for purposes of linguistic research, transformational grammar may now be regarded as dead, though its influence has been enormous, and its successors are maximally prominent.

3.4. Functionalist

A large number of linguists have preferred to combine the investigation of structure with the investigation of function; an approach which does this is a **functionalist** approach. There are very many functionalist approaches which have been put forward, and they are often very different from one another. Two prominent ones are Role-and-Reference Grammar, developed by William Foley and Robert Van Valin, and Systemic Linguistics, developed by Michael Halliday. Role-and-Reference Grammar approaches linguistic description by asking what communicative purposes need to be served and what grammatical devices are available to serve them. Systemic Linguistics is chiefly interested in examining the structure of a large linguistic unit – a text or a discourse – and it attempts to integrate a great deal of structural information with other information (social information, for example) in the hope of constructing a coherent account of what speakers are doing.

Systemic linguistics is an important version of functionalism. In the 1930^s and 1940^s, the British linguist *John Rupert Firth* began laying the groundwork for a somewhat novel social approach to language. His student *Michael Halliday* greatly developed Firth's ideas in distinctive directions of his own. Beginning in the 1960^s with a new approach to grammatical analysis which he called **Scale-and-Category Grammar**, Halliday went on to construct an elaborate and ambitious framework which eventually came to be called **Systemic Linguistics**, or **SL**.

SL is an avowedly functionalist approach to language, and it is arguably the functionalist approach which has been most highly developed. In contrast to most other approaches, SL explicitly attempts to combine purely structural information with overtly social factors in a single integrated description. Like other functionalist frameworks, SL is deeply concerned with the purposes of language use.

Systemicists constantly ask the following questions: What is this writer (or speaker) trying to do? What linguistic devices are available to help them to do it, and on what basis do they make their choices?

Halliday distinguishes among three distinctive functions of language (or metafunctions). The **ideational** (or experiential) function is the conveying of semantic content representing information about our experience of the external world

(including our own minds). The **textual** function is the linking of linguistic elements to other linguistic elements, so that the various parts of a text can be integrated into a coherent and cohesive whole and related to the wider context of our speech or writing. The **interpersonal** function is the establishment and maintenance of social relations, including persuading other people to do things or to believe things.

Systemicists stress the utility of their framework in the analysis of texts, an area beyond the scope of many other approaches, and they accordingly devote more attention to the treatment of texts than to the analysis of isolated sentences. Because of this preoccupation with texts, the concepts of coherence and cohesion play a central role in the framework. And SL has proven useful especially in the fields of stylistics and critical discourse analysis.

Halliday and his followers have recently been applying the name **Functional Grammar** to the more explicitly grammatical aspects of SL, and the term systemic **Functional Linguistics** has also been used.

Functionalist approaches have proved fruitful, but they are usually hard to formalize, and they often work with 'patterns', 'preferences', 'tendencies' and 'choices', in place of the explicit rules preferred by non-functionalist linguists.

Theme 1.2
THE ROLE OF GRAMMAR
IN THE ARCHITECTURE OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE
Outline
1. Conceptual categories and linguistic categories
      1.1. Concepts and categories
      1.2. Linguistic categories: lexical and grammatical
2. Levels of language structure and their units
      2.1. Phonemic level
      2.2. Morphemic level
      2.3. Lexical level
      2.4. Syntactic level
      2.5. Textual level
3. Relation of grammar to other components of linguistic description

The **concept** is a person's idea of what something in the world is like. The process of concept formation is called **conceptualization**.

Different people may conceptualize the same thing in the world differently and even the same person can do so at different times
e.g.   *a glass: half full* or *half empty;*
       a person: firm or pig-headed.
Each person's choice between various alternatives is called **construal.**

Such concepts which slice our ideas of reality into large chunks are called **conceptual categories**, and the process of their formation is called **categorization**.
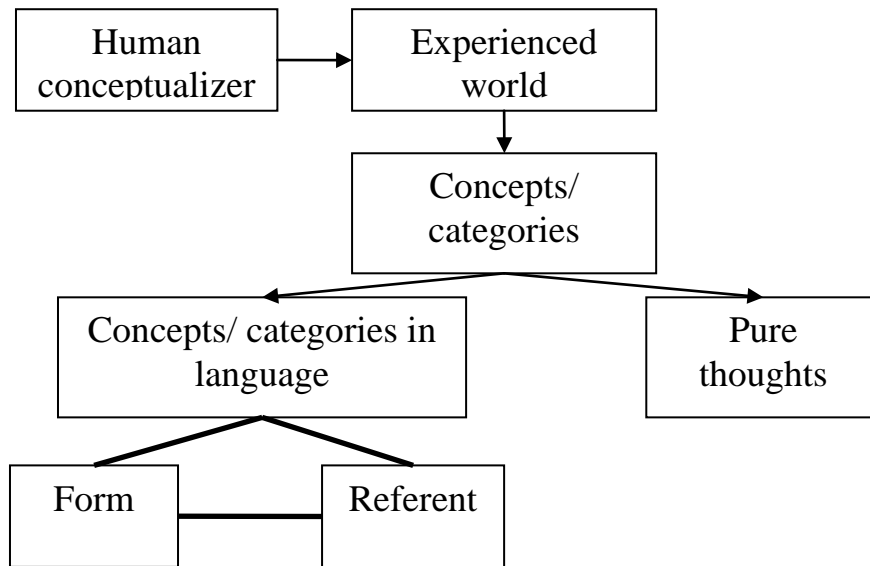
Fig. 2.1. Conceptual world model
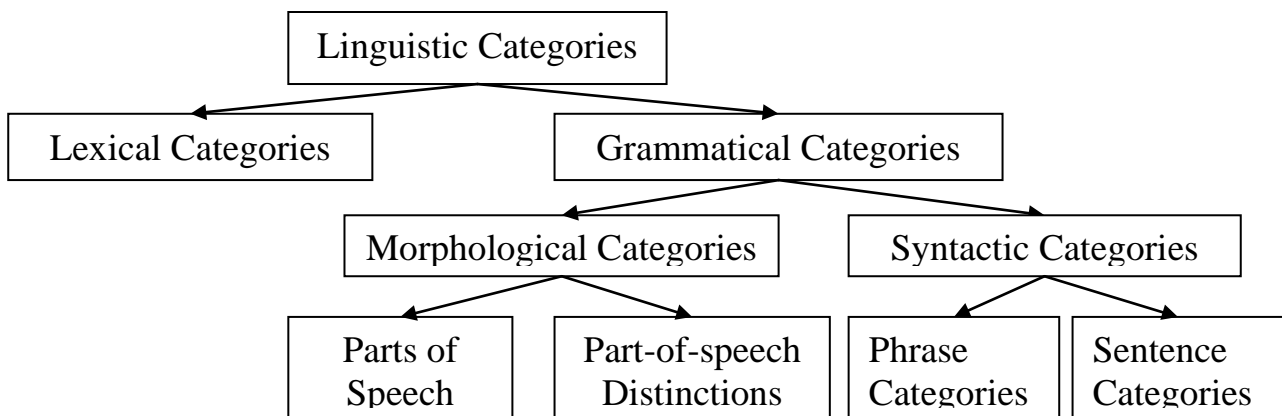
Fig. 2.2. Types of linguistic categories

Levels of Language Structure	Units of Language (abstractions)	Units of Speech (instantiations)
syntactic	sentence	utterance
lexemic	word	word-form
morphemic	morpheme	morph
phonemic	phoneme	phone

Fig 2.3. Levels of language structure and their units

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                          ┌─────────────┐
                          │  Morphemes  │
                          └──────┬──────┘
           ┌─────────────────────┼─────────────────────┐
   ┌───────────────┐    ┌─────────────────┐    ┌─────────────────┐
   │ Lexical / stem│    │  Derivational / │    │  Inflexional /  │
   └───────┬───────┘    │  word-building  │    │  stem-building  │
           │            └─────────────────┘    └─────────────────┘
    ┌──────┴──────┐
┌────────┐   ┌─────────┐
│  Free  │   │  Bound  │
└────────┘   └─────────┘
```

Fig 2.4. Semantic types of morphemes

Unit of Language		Aspect of Language	Linguistic Discipline
Text		Text organization	Textlinguistics
Sentence		Syntax	Grammar
Word	Inflexion	Morphology	Grammar
	Derivational morpheme	Word-Building	Lexicology / Grammar
	Stem	Lexical Semantics	Lexicology
Phoneme		Phonetics	Phonology

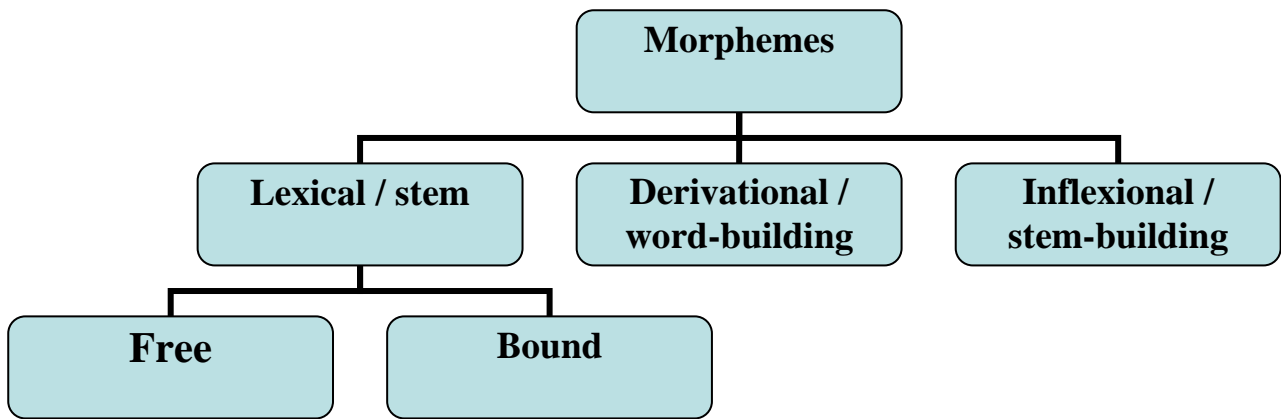**Fig.2.5**. **Units of language as the object matter of linguistic disciplines**

2. RELATION OF GRAMMAR
TO OTHER COMPONENTS OF LINGUISTIC DESCRIPTION
(self-study material)

Grammar and Vocabulary:

1. Morphological indicators serve to differentiate:
2.
• meanings of polysemous words.
advice = counsel; advices = information;
damage = injury; damages = compensation.
• style:
brother - brethren, brothers;
cloth - cloths, clothes;
• figurativeness:
fruit - fruits of labour;

19

2. Grammar constructions restrict the word meanings:

I *remember doing* so. - *Remember to drop* at the post-office.
He *treated* my words *as* a joke. - The book *treats of* poetry.

3. Word-making is grammatically relevant:

• transitive - intransitive:
be- , out- : *beweep, belie, besmear; outrun, outshine, outvote;*
• causative:
-en: greaten, harden, quicken;
en-: enfeeble, embitter, endear;
• repetitive:
re-: remake, rejoin;
• deverbal nouns - aspective meanings:
a glance, a jump, a run.

4. The use of some grammatical rules is known to be lexically restricted (e.g. certain verbs are not used in Continuous forms; Pluralia / Singularia Tantum nouns, etc.)

Interrelation between grammar and vocabulary will be readily seen in the etymology of some function words which have come from the notional parts of speech: e.g. *provided, regarding, etc.*

Grammar and Phonetics

Phonetic interpretation is well known to affect both morphology and syntax.

1. The system of reading rules manifests itself in inflexional morphology:
e.g. the rules determining the pronunciation of the possessive forms of nouns, the plural of nouns, the past of the verbs.

The sound interchange is another manifestation of the connection between morphology and phonetics.

The word making through the so-called "morphological", or "semantic" stress.

2. Changes   in the intonation pattern can affect the functional sentence perspective, change the interpretation of the whole utterance:

*You have done me a good service.*
She spoke with a pretty French accent.
Only old men and women are allowed to sit here.
I have instructions to leave.

PARTS OF SPEECH IN ENGLISH
Outline
1. The definition of the parts of speech and criteria for singling them out
2. The inventory of the parts of speech in English
3. Limitations to the traditional classification of the parts of speech
4. Alternative approaches to the traditional classification of the parts of speech
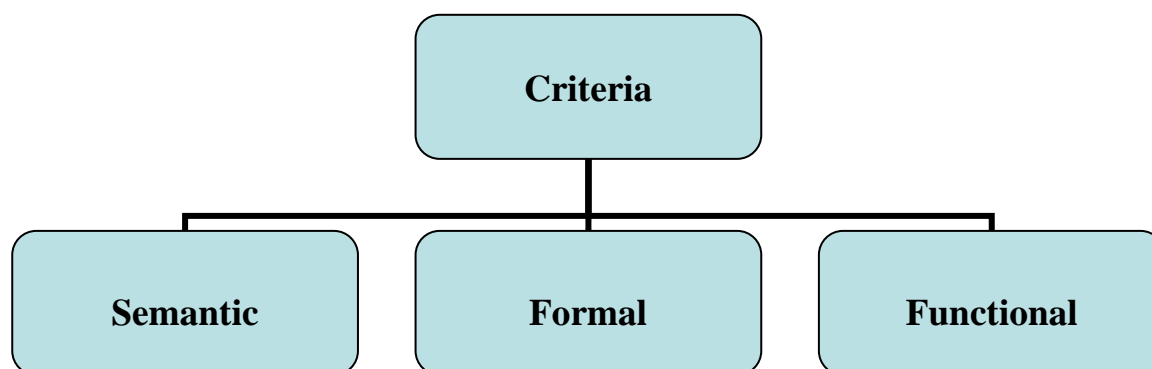
Fig. 3.1. Criteria for singling out parts of speech

PART OF SPEECH	BASIC FUNCTION	EXAMPLES
noun	names a person, place, or thing	*pirate, Caribbean, ship*
pronoun	takes the place of a noun	*I, you, he, she, it, ours, them, who*
verb	identifies action or state of being	*sing, dance, believe, be*
adjective	modifies a noun	*hot, lazy, funny*
adverb	modifies a verb, adjective, or other adverb	*softly, lazily, often*
numeral	identifies exact number of things	*one, first, thousand*
preposition	shows a relationship between a noun (or pronoun) and other words in a sentence	*up, over, against, by, for*
conjunction	joins words, phrases, and clauses	*and, but, or, yet*
interjection	expresses emotion	*ah, whoops, ouch*

Fig. 3.2. Parts of speech in English

Traditional definitions for the parts of speech

The following definitions are taken from the work of a respected American scholar G. O. Curme "Parts of Speech and Accidence", Boston: Heath, 1935. Read them and answer the questions which follow.

(a)   A noun, or substantive, is a word used as a name of a living being or lifeless thing: *Mary, John, horse, cow; hat, house, tree, London, Chicago; virtue*;

(b)   A pronoun is a word used instead of a noun;

(c)   The verb is that part of speech that predicates, assists in predications, asks a question, or expresses a command: *The wind <u>blows</u>; He <u>is</u> blind; <u>Did</u> he <u>do</u> it? Hurry!*. By 'predication' Curme evidently means 'assertion', the term that appears in the shorter version of his grammar: 'The verb is that part of speech by which we make an assertion or ask a question: *The wind <u>blows</u>; Is the wind <u>blowing</u>?);*

(d)   An adjective is a word that modifies a noun or a pronoun, i.e. a word that is used with a noun or pronoun to describe or point out the living being or lifeless thing designated by the noun or pronoun: *a <u>little</u> boy, <u>that</u> boy, <u>this</u> boy*;

(e)   An adverb is a word that modifies a verb, an adjective or another adverb;

(f)   A preposition is a word that indicates a relation between the noun or pronoun it governs and another word, which may be a verb, an adjective or another noun or pronoun: *I live in <u>this</u> house*;

(g)   A conjunction is a word that joins together sentences or parts of a sentence: *Sweep the floor <u>and</u> dust that furniture; He waited <u>until</u> I came*;

(h)   An interjection is an outcry to express pain, surprise, anger, pleasure, or some other emotion, as *Ouch!, Oh!, Alas!, Why!*

Question. Are these definitions adequate as language-particular definitions, i.e. do they provide clear criteria that would enable one to assign words to the 'correct' class?

If you find difficulty in answering this question, go through the following ones carefully:

• Instead of what nouns are the pronouns used in the following sentences:

The boy said he was ill; I am ill; Nobody came; Everything was destroyed; What is the new teacher like? It was John who broke the window.

• Do assertions, questions and the like involve verbs or whole sentences? Is Curme's definition helpful in defining verbs in the following sentences:

- *Are you ill?* (Is it the verb *are* that asks a question?);

- *If John knows her, we're in trouble* (Does the speaker assert in the sentence that John knows her?);

- *They destroyed the residue unnecessarily. – Their destruction of residue was unnecessary.* (Is there anything in the definition of the verb as a word denoting an action or state that will enable us to include the *destroyed* into the class of verbs and to exclude *destruction*?);

- How is the 'state of being' to be interpreted in such a way as to include verbs like *know* or *love* while excluding adjectives like *knowledgeable* or *fond*?

- If an adjective is a word that 'describes' what is designated by a noun or pronoun, why is it that in *They are fools* the word *fools* is a noun, not an adjective (like *foolish* in *They are foolish*?).

If the point that part-of-speech definitions provided by traditional grammars are not quite adequate as language-particular definitions is obvious to you now, find its further demonstrations.

4. ALTERNATIVE APPROACHES TO THE TRADITIONAL CLASSIFICATION OF THE PARTS OF SPEECH
(self-study material)

H. Sweet is a prominent English grammarian. His *"New English Grammar, Logical and Historical"* (1891) is an attempt of a descriptive grammar intended to break away from the canons of classical Latin grammar and to give scientific explanation to grammatical phenomena. His classification of parts of speech makes distinction between:

1) *declinables:*
- *noun-words*: nouns, noun-pronouns, noun-numerals, infinitives, gerunds;
- *adjective-words*: adjectives, adjective-pronouns, adjective-numerals, participles;
- *verbs*: finite verbs, verbals (infinitive, participle, gerund);

2) *indeclinables* (particles): adverbs, prepositions, conjunctions, interjections.

H. Sweet could not fully disentangle himself from the rules of classical grammar (Greek, Latin). That is why we can see that adjectives, numerals and pronouns, which in English have but a few formal markers, get into the group of "declinables".

Sweet's classification is an attempt to reflect the two-fold functions, or rather positions in word combinations of such classes as numerals and pronouns, and the double nature of verbals. The result of such a distribution is a mixture of morphological and syntactic criteria, and the distorted picture of actual word-classes existing in English.

Thus, a rational in essence attempt to reflect the facts of English and to depart from the laws of Latin grammar has in fact brought about a classification in which *no distinction is made between the formal and meaningful features*. On this basis it is impossible to create a theory of independent word-classes, each with its own properties.

O. Jespersen analyses word classes on different bases. In *"The Philosophy of Grammar"* (1924) he presents his *Theory of Three Ranks* describing the hierarchy of syntactic relations underlying linear representation of elements in language structures. The theory is based on the concept of *determination*. The "rank" of a word (primary, secondary, or tertiary*)* depends upon its relation (that of defined or defining*)* to other words in a sentence. e.g. *extremely hot weather: weather* (the independent word) has the status of *primary*; *hot* (defines *weather*, i.e. determines, or is subordinated to, the primary) is *secondary*; *extremely* (defines *hot*, i.e. modifies the secondary) is *tertiary*. Though a tertiary word may be further defined by a (*quarternary*) word, and this again by a (*quinary*) word, and so forth, there are no formal or other traits that distinguish words of these lower orders from tertiary words.

If now we compare the word combination *a furiously barking dog (a dog barking furiously)* with the sentence *The dog barks furiously*, we can see that the

same subordination obtains in the latter as well as in the former (*dog* - primary; *barking* - secondary; *furiously* - tertiary). Yet there is a fundamental difference between them, which calls for separate terms for the two kinds of structure: the former kind is called ***junction***, and the latter ***nexus***.

It should be noted that *the dog* is primary not only when it is the subject, as in *the dog barks,* but also when it is the direct object, as in *I see the dog,* or a prepositional object, as in *he runs after the dog.*

The words *primary*, *secondary*, and *tertiary* are applicable to nexus as well as to junction, but O. Jespersen also uses some special names: ***adjunct*** for a secondary word in a junction, and ***adnex*** for a secondary word in a nexus. For tertiary words the term ***subjunct*** is used, and quarternary words, in the rare cases in which a special name is needed, are termed ***sub-subjuncts***.

There is certainly some degree of correspondence between the three main parts of speech and the three ranks outlined above. O. Jespersen does not deny the validity of the traditional classification of parts of speech, but he reserves the latter "for the dictionary" as he puts it. But the two things, ***word-classes and ranks, really move in two different spheres***. The two classifications represent different angles at which the same word or word-form may be viewed, first as it is in itself and then as it is in combination with other words.

No one would dispute the value of O. Jespersen's analysis and his deep inquiry into the structure of language. In the theory of three ranks he offered much that was new in content and had most notable merits. With all this, O. Jespersen's analysis contains some disputable points and inconsistency. The very definition of the notion of rank is not accurate which in some cases leads to inadequacy of analysis. Applying his principle of linguistic analysis to sentence structures, such as *the dog barks furiously* he ignores the difference between junction and nexus and does not distinguish attributive and predicative relations and thus seems to leave out the most important word-class – the verb.

Nothing cardinally different from the traditional approach in the part-of-speech classification was produced by various English grammars within the period between the works of O. Jespersen and the appearance of **Ch. Fries's** book *"The Structure of English"* (1952). Ch. Fries belongs to the American school of descriptive linguistics for which the starting point and basis of any linguistic analysis is the distribution of elements. In contrast to other representatives of that school, who excluded meaning from linguistic description, Fries recognized its importance. He introduced the notion of structural meaning as different from the lexical meaning of words. In his opinion, the grammar of the language consists of the devices that signal structural meanings.

This principle is illustrated by means of linearly arranged nonce-words, the structural meaning of each evident from the form. As an example, Ch. Fries gives a verse from *"Alice in Wonderland"* (the signals are underlined):*:*

> <u>Twas</u> brillig, <u>and</u> <u>the</u> slithy toves
> <u>Did</u> gyre <u>and</u> gimble <u>in</u> <u>the</u> wabe;
> <u>All</u> mimsy <u>were</u> <u>the</u> borogoves,
> <u>And</u> <u>the</u> mome raths outgrabe...

Any speaker of English, says Fries, will recognize the frames in which these words appear (Gf.: the famous *глокая куздра...* of L. V. Sčerba). So a part of speech, according to Ch. Fries, is ***a functional pattern***. All the words which can occupy the same 'set of positions' in the pattern of English utterances must belong to same part of speech. Fries recorded 50 hours of conversation by 300 different speakers and analyzed 250.000 word entries. As a result of this analysis he singles out four word-classes (1, 2, 3, and 4) and 15 subclasses of function words (designated by the letters of Latin alphabet), in which the properties of different word-classes, which are singled out by traditional grammar, are dissolved in the distributional patterns. Ch. Fries's book presents a major linguistic interest as an experiment rather than for its achievements.

Theme 1.4
ENGLISH NOUNS AND ARTICLES
Outline

1. Categorial meaning of English nouns
2. Lexical/grammatical subclasses of English nouns
3. Morphemic structure of English nouns
4. Categories of English nouns
    4.1. Number
    4.2. Case
    4.3. Gender
5. Syntactic functions of English nouns
6. The categorial status of English articles
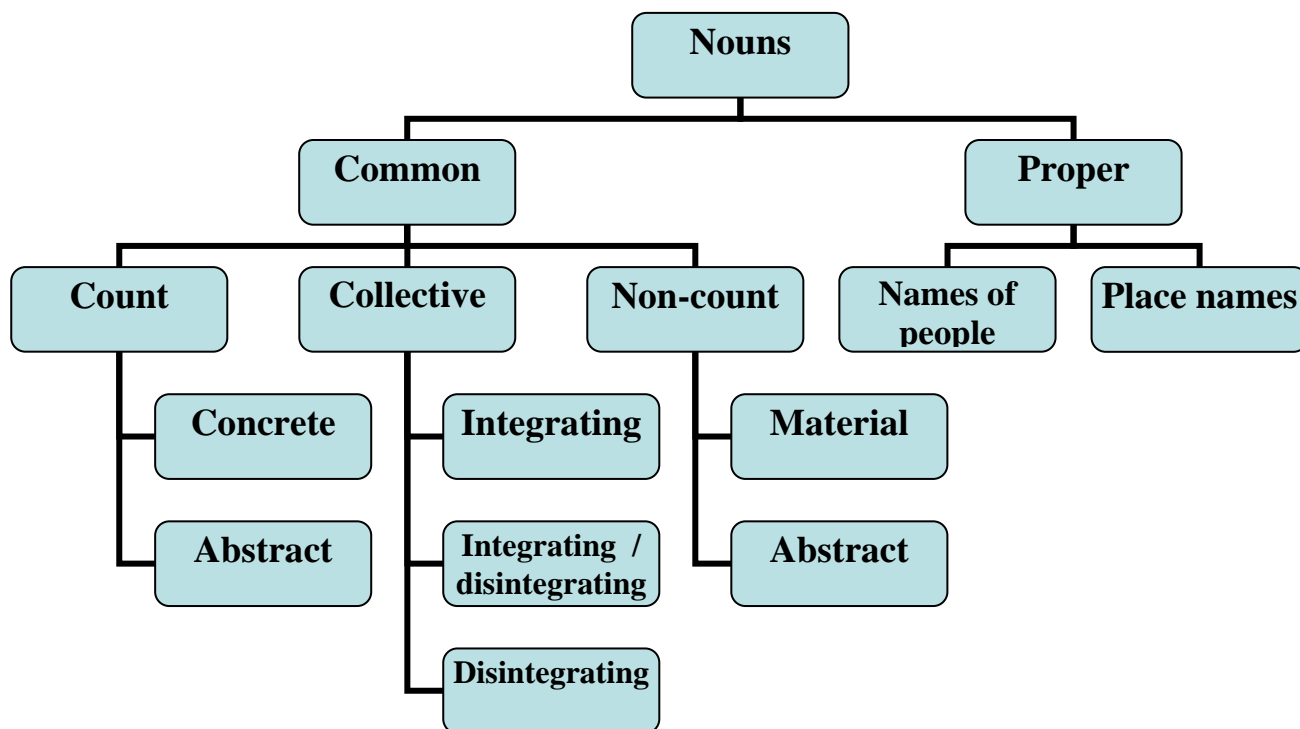
Fig.4.1. **Lexical/grammatical subclasses of English nouns**

SYNTACTIC FUNCTION	EXAMPLE
Subject	*Our **neighbours** bought a car.*
Object	*Our neighbours bought a **car**.*
Predicative	*David Garrik was a prominent **actor**.*
Attribute	*The **bus** inspector looked at the passenger.*

Fig. 4.2. Syntactic functions of English nouns

COLLECTIVE NOUNS
(self-study material)

A collective noun is the one (such as *team* or *family*) that refers to a collection of individuals. Collective nouns can be replaced by both singular and plural pronouns, depending on their meaning.
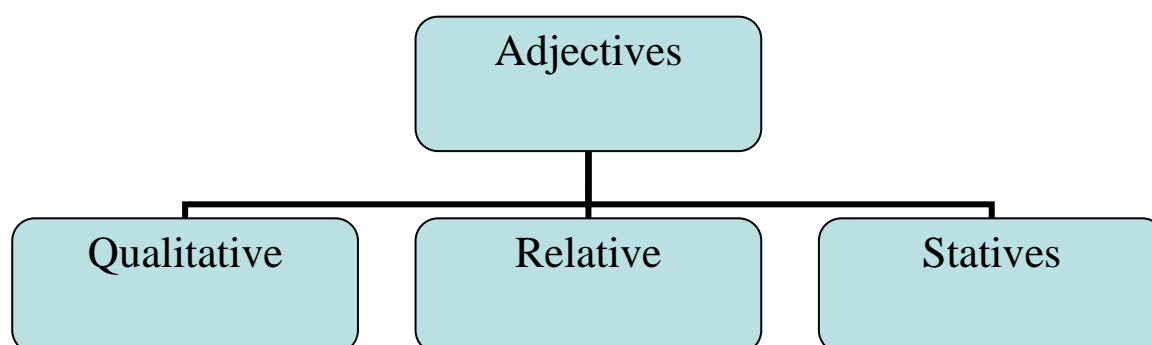
Examples and Observations:
- "The *family* is one of nature's masterpieces" (George Santayana)
- "The *minority* is sometimes right; the *majority* always wrong" (G.B.Shaw)
- "The penalty for laughing in a courtroom is six months in jail; if it were not for this penalty, the *jury* would never hear the evidence" (H.L. Mencken)
- "Make sure you have finished speaking before your *audience* has finished listening" (Dorothy Sarnoff)
- "*Liverpool* are magic, *Everton* are tragic" (Emlyn Hughes, referring to two English football teams)
- "Nouns such as *committee, family, government, jury*, and *squad* take a singular verb or pronoun when thought of as a single unit, but a plural verb or pronoun when thought of as a collection of individuals:
- The committee gave its unanimous approval to the plans.
- The committee enjoyed biscuits with their tea.
- "Many noncount nouns have an equivalent countable expression using such words as *piece* or *bit* (*partitive* or collective nouns) followed by *of*:
- luck: a piece of luck
- grass: a blade of grass
- bread: a loaf of bread

A common quiz question is to find the special collective term which describes such groups of things: *a flock of sheep, a pride of lions*. English has some highly specialized (but nowadays rarely used) collective nouns, especially for animals. . . . One of them [is] *a kindle of kittens*. Other colourful collectives are:
- an exaltation of larks
- a muster of peacocks
- a rout of wolves
- a skulk of foxes"

ENGLISH ADJECTIVES
Outline
1. The categorial meaning of adjectives
2. Lexical/grammatical subclasses of English adjectives
3. The morphemic structure of English adjectives
4. The categories of English adjectives
 4.1. The morphological category of degrees of comparison
 4.2. The semantic category of intensity
5. The syntactic functions of English adjectives
6. The categorial status of *a*-adjectives

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                    ┌──────────────────┐
                    │   Adjectives     │
                    └──────────────────┘
          ┌───────────────┼───────────────┐
┌─────────────┐  ┌─────────────┐  ┌─────────────┐
│ Qualitative │  │  Relative   │  │  Statives   │
└─────────────┘  └─────────────┘  └─────────────┘
```

Fig. 5.1. Lexical/grammatical subclasses of English adjectives

Syntactic function	The nature of the property denoted	The aspect specified
Attributive	Temporally non-limited	Conceptual
Predicative	Temporally limited	Referential/denotational

Fig. 5.2. Characteristics of adjectives according to their syntactic function

6. THE CATEGORIAL STATUS OF *A*-ADJECTIVES
(self-study material)

There is a distinct group of English adjectives which are characterized by the following features: 1) the lexical/grammatical meaning of state, namely, the psychological state of a person, e.g. *afraid, aghast;* the physical state of a person, e.g. *asleep, awake*; its location in space, e.g. *afloat, asquint*; the physical state of an object, e.g. *afire, abalze, aglow*; 2) the prefix *a-;* 3) no grammatical categories; 4) combinabilty with link verbs, e.g. *to be afraid*; 5) the syntactic function of a predicative complement.

In the 60-70-s of the XXth century, certain scholars suggested that *a*-adjectives are to be considered as a separate part of speech. B.A.Ilyish suggested a name for them – **the category of state words**, B.S. Khaimovich and B.I.Rogovskaya called them **adlinks** (Cf. adverbs are combined with notional verbs, adlinks – with link verbs).

L.S.Barkhudarov puts forward the following arguments against this approach:

1) the state is a variety of the property of a substance; 2) as it were, *a*-adjectives are not totally excluded from the morphological category of degrees of comparison and the lexical/semantic category of intensity, 3) Cf. *Of all of us, Jack was the one <u>most aware</u> of the situation in which we found ourselves; I saw that the adjusting lever stood <u>far more askew</u> that was allowed by the direction;* 4) the number of *a*-adjectives in English is relatively small: a couple dozen of stable ones and perhaps twice as many of coinages.

Thus *a*-adjectives, though forming a unified set of words, do not constitute a separate part-of-speech class which exists in English on a par with nouns, verbs, adjectives, and adverbs. They should rather be treated as a subclass within the part-of-speech class of adjectives.

Theme 1.6
ENGLISH VERBS
Outline

1. The categorial meaning of English verbs
2. Lexical/grammatical subclasses of English verbs
    2.1. Notional verbs
    2.2. Semi-notional and functional verbs
3. The morphemic structure of English verbs
4. The categories of English verbs
    4.1. Person and number
    4.2. Aspect
    4.3. Tense
    4.4. Voice
    4.5. Mood
5. The verbids
6. The syntactic functions of English verbs

| STATAL VERBS denote the state of the inactive experiencer	ACTIONAL VERBS denote the action of the active doer
1. **Physical**	
e.g. *to thaw, to ripen, to deteriorate*	e.g. *to write, to fight, to help*
2. **Mental**	
e.g. *to understand, to forget*	e.g. *to calculate, to compare*
3. **Perceptual**	
e.g. *to see, to hear, to smell*	e.g. *to look, to listen, to smell*

Fig. 6.1. Statal verbs vs. actional verbs

ASPECT SEMANTICS	EXAMPLES
durative / continual	*continue, linger, last, live, exist*
iterative / repeated	*reconsider, return*
terminate / concluded	*terminate, finish, end, conclude, close, solve*
interminate / non-concluded	*live, study, think*
instantaneous / momentary	*burst, click, drop, fall*
ingressive / starting	*begin, start, resume, set out*
supercompleted	*oversimplify, outdo*
undercompleted	*underestimate, underpay*

Fig. 6.2. The aspect features of verbal semantics

TRANSITIVE VERBS take a prepositionless complement (the direct object)	INTRANSITIVE VERBS as a rule cannot take the direct object (though sometimes they do)
OBJECTIVE VERBS combine both with the subject and the object	SUBJECTIVE VERBS are connected to the subject only

Fig. 6.3. The combinatory potential of the verb

Verbs

Auxiliaries | **Modals** | **Verbid introducers** | **Copulas**
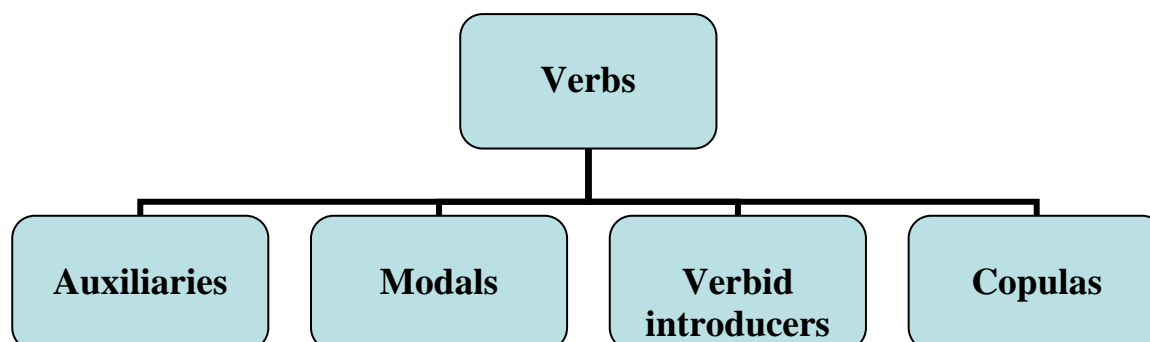
Fig. 6.4. Semi-notional and functional verbs

The category of *tense* (primary time)	PAST *worked* *was working*	NON-PAST *works* *is working*
The category of *retrospect* (time correlation)	PERFECT *has worked* *had worked* *has been working*	NON-PERFECT *works* *worked* *is working*
The category of *prospect*	FUTURE *will work* *will be working* *would work*	NON-FUTURE *works* *is working* *worked*

Fig. 6.5. The forms of the English verb denoting time relations

5. THE VERBIDS
(self-study material)

Introductory

Verb forms make up two distinct classes: finites and non-finites (also called verbals, verbids). Finites serve to express a primary predication, i.e. they 'tie' the situation described by a proposition to the context. In this finites are aided by the categories of person, number, tense, mood, aspect, voice, and order. Non-finites serve to express a secondary predication. Consider:

1. She was walking in the garden. vs.

2. I saw her walking in the garden.

Sentence (1) is based on one proposition, or on one predicative unit; sentence (2) is based on two propositions, or on two predicative units (*I saw + she was walking in the garden*).

With the help of non-finites we can expand the simple sentence and thus compress the text. Cf. *We are sitting here in the sun. We can see hills. The hills are covered with snow*. vs. *Sitting here in the sun, we can see snow-covered hills*.

Non-finites, then, could be referred to as a language economy device.

Non-finites do not express the categories of person, number, tense or mood. But they express time, which is either simultaneous with or prior to the time expressed by the finite form.

Non-finite forms (the infinitive, the gerund, and the participle) express a 'transposed' process, i.e. in the non-finites, which are derivationally related to the verb, the meaning of a process either includes the component of substantivity (thingness) or the component of quality or property. The infinitive is a process including the component of substantivity; the gerund is also a substantival process; the participle is an adjectival process. The question arises: if the verbids possess the components of substance and property, why are then they included in the system of the verb? The answer is very simple: their fundamental meaning is that of a process. Their processuality, or verbality, is revealed by their morphological categories (aspect, voice, order).

The Infinitive

Historically, the infinitive is a verbal noun. Hence its double nature: it combines the features of the verb with those of the noun. It is the form of the verb which expresses a process in general, i.e. a process that is not specified by person, number, tense or mood. Because of its general processual meaning, the infinitive is treated as the head-form of the whole paradigm of the verb: all other forms of the verb are derived from it.

The infinitive has two forms: the marked one and the unmarked one.

The marked infinitive is distinguished be the grammatical word-morpheme *to*, historically a preposition. Similar to other grammatical word morphemes, *to* can be used to represent the corresponding construction as a whole, e.g. *you can read any of the books if you want to (read)*. It can also be separated from its notional part by a word or phrase, usually of adverbial nature, forming the so-called split infinitive,

e.g. *To systematically rid this town of layabouts, we must adopt a special law*. The marked infinitive is an analytic grammatical form.

The other form of the infinitive is unmarked; it is traditionally called **the bare infinitive**. It is used in various analytic forms (non-modal and modal), with verbs of physical perceptions, with the verbs *let, bid, make, help* (optionally), with a few modal phrases (*had better, would rather, would have*, etc.), with the relative *why*.

The Verbal Features of the Infinitive. Like the finite form of verb, the infinitive distinguishes the categories of aspect, voice. It will be obvious that the paradigm of the infinitive is determined by the semantic / syntactic properties of the process. If the process is intransitive, we shall not be able to derive voice forms, e.g.

to walk – to be walking vs. **to be being walked*

to have walked – to have been walking vs. **to have been being walked*

Consider a few examples:

1. John hopes to learn Chinese.
2. The courses to be taught are listed in the catalogue.
3. The term 'discourse' is seen to be being used extremely diversely.
4. He's lucky to have found such a wonderful wife.
5. It's better to have loved and lost than never to have loved at all.
6. He looked too young to have been publishing for five years.
7. This bridge seems to have been being built for two years.

Of all the forms of the infinitive, the most common are non-perfect non-passive forms. Such forms as used in sentence (3) and sentence (7) are less common. The principle is: the more simple the form is, the more common it is.

Syntactically, the infinitive is similar to the finite form of verb in several respects: first, it is part of the predicate; second, it can be followed by an objective complement (e.g. *John hopes to learn Chinese,* where *hopes to learn* is the predicate and the infinitive is its notional part; *Chinese* is an objective complement of the predicate and, of course, of the infinitive); third, it can function as an adjunct, e.g. *Man eats to live*. Cf. *Man eats so that he can live*; last but not least, it can replace the finite form of the verb, e.g. *All I need is the money. Ah, but how to get it?*

Transformationally, sentences like *John hopes to learn Chinese* have an embedded sentence of the form *He learns Chinese*. In other words, this sentence is based on two predications: *John hopes + John learns Chinese*. This treatment is in keeping with the history of such sentences. According to G. O. Curme (1931: 49), the infinitive clause introduced by *to* was originally a clause introduced by *that* and constituted by a subject and a finite verb. Cf. *I am not eager that I should go _I am not eager to go*. As the subject of the subordinate clause refers to the same entity as the subject of the principal clause, the use of such a subject was redundant and, consequently, suppressed. Cf. *John hopes that he will learn Chinese.* vs. *John hopes to learn Chinese.* However, in cases where clauses contained different subjects, the subject of the subordinate clause was not suppressed. Cf. *I should prefer to wait until evening.* vs. *I should prefer you to wait until evening.*

As already said, the temporal meaning of the non-finites is determined by its categorial properties: if the infinitive is non-perfect, it denotes a process which is

simultaneous with the process of the finite verb; if the infinitive is perfect, it denotes a process preceding the process of the finite verb.

As to their meaning in the co-text, the infinitives can be divided into two groups: non-factive and factive. Consider:

Mary does not want this news to be made public yet.

Mary remembered to visit her old friend.

The infinitive, unlike the gerund, is said to express something hypothetical, unfulfilled, or future. Indeed, in the first sentence to be made public is non-factive, i.e. it denotes only a hypothetical process. In the second sentence, however, to visit is factive, i.e. it denotes an accomplished process. The actual meaning of the infinitive depends on the meaning of the finite verb or the finite- verb construction as a whole: if the finite verb is not implicative (e.g. *want, plan, hope, be eager, be sure*, etc.), the infinitive denotes a hypothetical process; if the finite verb is implicative, the infinitive denotes an accomplished process.

To implicative verbs, or verb phrases, belong: *manage, fail, remember, dare, care, venture, happen, begin, start, take the opportunity*, etc. These verbs can be divided into two groups: positive and negative. Note that if you negate a positive implicative verb, you get a negative, or a nonfactive meaning,

e.g. *John managed to get the loan* (it implies that John got the loan). vs.

John failed (did not manage) to get the loan (it implies that John did not get it).

But if you negate a negative implicative verb, you get a positive, or factive meaning, e.g. *We didn't fail to finish the job in time* (it implies that we finished the job in time). The majority of verbs taking infinitive complements are not implicative.

The Nounal Features of the Infinitive. Semantically and morphologically, the infinitive is much more similar to the verb than to the noun: its verbal features outweigh its nounal features. What reminds us of the noun is the syntax of the infinitive. Similar to the noun, the infinitive can be used as the subject or part of the subject, part of the objective complement, the predicative, and the attribute. Consider:

A. *To see his children again will make him very happy.*
    It will make him very happy to see his children again.
    He was seen to leave the house.
B. *I saw the man cross the road.*
    Did anyone hear John leave the house?
    We can't let the matter rest here.
    She would like John to go abroad.
    They thought him to be an honest man.
C. *To decide is to act.*
    Our intention was to help you.
    His desire was to leave the country.
D. *She was the last to learn the news.*
    He is not the man to do such a thing.
    It was a sight to gladden one's heart.

The Gerund

The gerund is originally a verbal noun in *–ing* (until about 1250 also with the form *–ung*. Similar to the infinitive, the gerund is the name of a process but its

substantive meaning is more strongly pronounced than that of the infinitive (M. Blokh, p. 108): unlike the infinitive, the gerund can be modified by a noun in the genitive case or by the possessive pronoun and used with prepositions.

If the gerund is an abstract name of a process, why is then the infinitive, not the gerund, the citation, or standard, form of the verb in general? There are several reasons: 1) it is more substantival than the infinitive; 2) it does not take part in the conjugation of the verb: 3) structurally it is more complex than the infinitive – it has an inflectional form(-ing).

The verbal features of the gerund. Like the verb, the gerund distinguishes the categories of voice and order: *writing* (non-passive, non-perfect) – *being written* (passive, non-perfect), *having written* (non-passive, perfect) – *having been written* (passive, perfect). It will be obvious that gerunds derived from intransitive verbs will have only two forms: non-perfect active and perfect active, e.g. *walking vs. having walked*.

The gerund has the following syntactic features of the verb: it can function as part of the verbal predicate (e.g. *If he stops working, he will die*); it can be followed by an objective complement (e.g. *I remember locking the door*) and an adverbial (e.g. *He avoids driving fast*).

The nounal features of the gerund. Similar to the noun, the gerund can be modified by a noun in the genitive case or in the common case, which, when pronominalized, turn into the possessive and objective forms, respectively:
She did nothing to encourage John's going abroad.
She did nothing to encourage John going abroad. vs.
She did nothing to encourage his going abroad.
She did nothing to encourage him going abroad.

The standard form is the form with the noun in the genitive case or with the possessive pronoun. The other form is more common in spoken English. The gerund in the latter construction is traditionally called the half-gerund. The semantic difference between the two types of construction is inconsiderable: the gerund modified by a noun in the genitive or a possessive pronoun is generally thought to be more nounal in meaning and the gerund modified by a noun in the common case or the objective form of the pronoun is thought to be more verbal. According to B. Khaimovich and B. J. Rogovskaya (op. cit., 195), "This usage is suggestive of the further verbalization of the gerund".

Unlike the noun, the gerund cannot be used in the plural; it cannot be preceded by the article (or its substitute); it cannot be determined by the adjective.
Cf.   *His coming at such a late hour disturbed me* (gerund). vs.
         His comings and goings disturb me (verbal nouns).
         I resented his constantly questioning my motives (gerund). vs.
         I resented his constant questioning of my motives (verbal noun).
         There's no point in breaking the seal (gerund). vs.
         She had witnessed the breaking of the seal (verbal noun).
         His coming, however, can also be interpreted as a verbal noun.
Cf.   *Telling Mary was a big mistake (*gerund).

Like the noun, the gerund can be used as the subject, the objective complement, the predicative, and the attribute:

1. Going there would have been imprudent.

2. I prefer seeing a play to reading it.

3. Seeing is believing.

4. She gave the impression of being more interested and excited than ever.

The gerund and the infinitive. As already known, some verbs can be followed by either the gerund or the infinitive (*like, begin, start, continue, try, regret, remember, forget*, etc.). According to D. Bolinger (1968), the gerund expresses something "real, vivid, fulfilled", whereas the infinitive expresses something "hypothetical, future, unfulfilled":

1. John hopes to learn French.

2. Max enjoys swimming.

In the first sentence, the infinitive to learn denotes a process that will be fulfilled in the future, i.e. it is not a factive process; in the second sentence the gerund swimming denotes a process that has already been fulfilled before the moment of speaking: we can only enjoy things we have already directly experienced.

D. Bolinger's principle of factivity vs. non-factivity also helps to explain the difference between such sentences as *I like camping in the mountains* and *I like to camp in the mountains.* Camping suggests that the person has already experienced the process while to camp is a non-factive process, which is especially obvious when like is modified by a modal. Cf. *I would like to camp in the mountains.*

However, most native speakers do not readily perceive the difference between *like + doing* and *like to do*.

Another interesting case is presented by the verbs *start* and *begin*:

1. Helen started doing her homework.

2. Helen started to do her homework.

In the first sentence, doing suggests entry into the middle phase of the process while in the second sentence to do suggests entry into the initial phase of the process. Cf. *Helen started to do her homework but the phone rang and she had to interrupt her work.* vs. **Helen started doing her homework but the phone rang and she had to interrupt her work.*

With factive implicative verbs, the difference between the gerund and the infinitive concerns a different temporal perspective. Consider:

I remember locking the door. vs.

I remembered to lock the door.

Both sentences speak of the process of locking as accomplished: in the first sentence locking occurred before remembering (i.e. *I locked the door and I still remember this*); in the second sentence, locking occurred after remembering (i.e. *I remembered and, consequently, locked the doo*r).

With non-factive verbs, the difference is more obvious: the gerund expresses factivity while the infinitive expresses non-factivity, e.g. *I tried closing the window* (i.e. I actually closed the window by way of making an experiment). *I tried to close the window* (i.e. I made an attempt to close it).

On second thoughts, however, the second sentence is neutral between factivity and non-factivity. To resolve its neutrality, we can qualify it (i.e. neutralize it) by adding appropriate information:

I tried to close the window and in fact I closed it in the end (i.e. I not only tried, but I succeeded in closing it).

The Participle

The participle is a term applied to adjectival forms of verbs. It is a form that 'participates' in the features of the verb (e.g. *The girl is sitting there*) and of the adjective (e.g. *The girl sitting here*).

There are two types of participle: the present participle and the past participle.

The present participle. The term present participle may be misleading since the participle does not express tense distinctions. It is a traditional term, originally applied to adjectival forms of verbs in Ancient Greece which were inflected for tense, aspect, and case. It was borrowed from Greek grammar through Latin grammar and uncritically applied to English verbal forms which had an adjective-like use. As to its temporal meaning, the present participle expresses a process simultaneous with or prior to the process of the finite verb: it may denote present, past, and future. Consider: *I see/saw/ will see a child crying in the street.* vs. *Having heard the noise, we stopped talking.*

Present participles, in their outer form, are homonymous with the gerund. They are similar in meaning to the gerund: both forms denote a process – the present participle (or the past participle) denote a qualifying process while the gerund denotes a substantival process. Both the present participle and the gerund distinguish the same grammatical categories of voice and order:

A.   *writing* (non-perfect, non-passive) – *being written* (non-perfect, passive)
       having written (perfect, non-passive) – *having been written* (perfect, passive)

B.   *walking* (non-perfect, non-passive) – *having walked* (perfect, non-passive)

As already indicated, the said grammatical categories relate the present participle to the verb. What are the other verb traits of the present participle? Like the verb, it combines with the object (e.g. *Entering the room, I was dazzled by the bright ligh*t), the adjunct (e.g. *He came in laughing loudly*); like the verb, it participates in the formation of the verbal predicate (e.g. *Lucy is writing now*). To verbal features we can also attribute the use of the present participle as secondary predicate:

Believing that Juliet was dead, Romeo decided to kill himself.

Having failed twice, he didn't want to try again.

Walking along the street, I met a friend whom I had not seen for a long time.

What are its adjectival properties? Like the adjective, the present participle can be used as an attribute – generally as a postposed attribute, e.g. *The man talking to John is my boss*. More problematic is the use of the present participle in preposition to the noun: the point is that such attributes must denote permanent, or characteristic properties.

Cf.   *The girl is clever _ the clever girl* vs. *The girl is smiling _ *the smiling girl*.

But if the process of smiling is conceived as habitual, the word combination the smiling girl is acceptable, e.g. *Where is that smiling girl*? Cf. also: *I was awakened by a barking dog*. or *The beginning student should be given every encouragement.*

The past participle. The forms of the past participle are derivationally related either to transitive or intransitive verbs, e.g. *write _ written, go _ gone.*

Unlike the present participle, it has no paradigm of its own. Its verbal features are participation in the structure of the verbal predicate (e.g. *The house was destroyed by a bomb*) and the use as secondary predicate (e.g. *Her spirit, though crushed, was not broken*). Its adjectival feature is its attributive function, e.g. *She looked at the broken cup.*

The meaning of the past participle is determined by the aspective peculiarities of the underlying verb: if the verb expresses a bounded perfective process, the past participle expresses priority (e.g. *He stopped before a closed door*); if the verb expresses an unbounded process, the participle expresses simultaneity (e.g. *This man, loved and respected by all his friends, is a teacher*); if the bounded verb is both perfective and imperfective, the meaning of such a participle is determined by the co-text: it may denote priority or simultaneity (e.g. *His was a victory gained against all rules.* vs. *The questions discussed at the meeting are of great importance,* where *discussed,* because of the double nature of the verb it derives from, can be interpreted in this co-text as expressing either simultaneity or priority.

Similar to the present participle, the past participle can be used in postposition or in preposition to the noun: *the broken cup vs. the cup broken.*

But as compared to the present participle, the past participle occurs in preposition to the noun more frequently, which is especially true of past participles derived from bounded perfective verbs, e.g.
1. The police used hidden television cameras.
2. The teenager was shot and killed while driving a hijacked car.
3. He loved to feel the covers of newly printed books.
Past participles derived from unbounded verbs are less common as preposed attributes, e.g. **a watched game, *loved people.* But if such participles are modified by adverbs, we can use them in this position more freely, e.g. *a carefully watched game, well-loved people.*

It will be noted that it is mostly participles derived from transitive verbs that are used as attributes; past participles derived from intransitive verbs are more usual as parts of analytic words. The exceptions are: *runaway, fallen, collapsed, vanished, gone, come, faded, withered, retired.* E.g. *a fallen idol, vanished civilizations, retired people,* etc. In these examples the idea of a process is suppressed and the idea of a quality is made prominent.

We have said earlier that the participle has no category of aspect. But the existence of such examples as *Questions discussed at the House of Parliament are of great importance* and *The questions being discussed now are of great importance* show that the forms discussed and being discussed can be regarded as aspective pairs. Consider such examples:
A.   *The music which is played at the concert hall is by Bach -*
       The music played at the concert hall is by Bach.
B.   *The music which is being played now is by Bach -*
       The music being played now is by Bach.
Theoretically, even perfective participles can have aspective pairs: *having played* vs. *having been playing*. Practically, however, such forms are not generally used.

MODULE 2

ENGLISH SYNTAX

Theme 2.1
SYNTACTIC UNITS. THE PHRASE
Outline

1. Inventory of syntactic units
2. Meaning of syntactic units
3. Syntagmatic connections of words. The phrase
4. Phrase vs. sentence
5. Types of syntagmatic relations
6. Structural classifications of phrases

SYNTACTIC UNITS

Unit	Status		Linguistic discipline / area
the sentence	primary	main	major syntax
the phrase		elementary	minor syntax
the complex syntactic whole	subsidiary		textlinguistics
the complex thematic whole	subsidiary		textlinguistics

THE WORD, THE PHRASE, AND THE SENTENCE

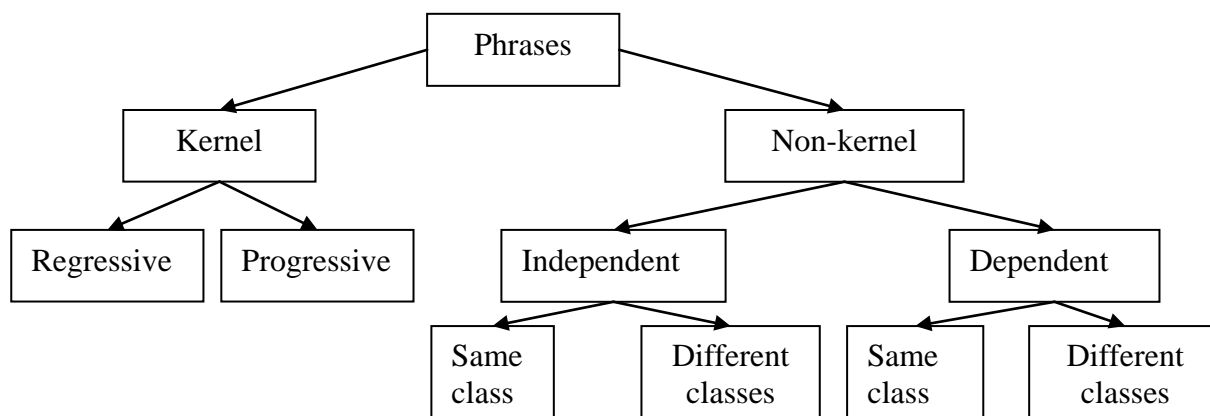|	**The word**	**The phrase**	**The sentence**
Function	nominative	nominative	nominative, predicative
Referent	a simple object	a complex object	a situation
Number of notional words	min/max 1	min 2 max not limited	min 1 max not limited

TYPES OF SYNTAGMATIC RELATIONS BETWEEN THE COMPONENTS OF A PHRASE ACCORDING TO THE FORM OF THE SUBORDINATE WORD

The form is changed	The form is not changed
agreement, government	adjoining, enclosure/nesting

CLASSIFICATION OF PHRASES BASED ON THE PART-OF-SPEECH STATUS OF THEIR CONSTITUENTS

The phrase is made up of notional words	The phrase is made up of function words
N+N; Adi+N; V+N; V+Adj; Adv+Adj; Adv+Adv	

CLASSIFICATION OF PHRASES BASED ON THE RELATIONS OF THEIR CONSTITUENTS

```
                          Phrases
                    /                \
             Kernel                    Non-kernel
           /        \                 /          \
   Regressive   Progressive   Independent        Dependent
                              /        \         /        \
                         Same      Different  Same    Different
                         class      classes   class    classes
```

4. STRUCTURAL CLASSIFICATIONS OF PHRASES
(self-study material)

The traditional classification of phrases is ***based on the part-of-speech status of their constituents***. According to this criterion, two types of phrases are distinguished:

➢ phrases made up of notional words:

e.g. N + N: *a stone wall*
   Adj + N: *a high wall*
   V + N: *to see a wall*
   V + Adj: *to see suddenly*
   Adv + Adj: *surprisingly tall*
   Adv + Adv: *very easily*

➢ phrases made of notional words and function words:

e.g.   *in accordance with, due to, apart from, as soon as*
   Such phrases function as prepositions or conjunctions.

The classification of phrases ***based on the relations of their constituents*** is an alternative to traditional classification. According to this principle, phrases are subdivided into kernel (ядерні) and non-kernel (без'ядерні).

In **kernel** phrases one element (the kernel) dominates the other(s):

e.g. *a good <u>job</u>, famous <u>doctors</u>, sufficiently <u>normal</u>, to <u>walk</u> fast, to <u>watch</u> a man, slightly <u>stiff</u>, to <u>be</u> careful, to <u>seem</u> true*

The relations between the elements of kernel phrases can be attributive, complementary, adverbial or existential in their nature.

Kernel phrases with *attributive* relations can be *regressive* (the kernel follows other elements) or *progressive* (the kernel precedes them):

Regressive kernel phrases:

1. Adverbial kernel:

e.g.   *very carefully, fairy easily, more avidly*

2. Adjectival kernel:

e.g.   *completely empty, entirely natural, emerald green, knee deep, ice cold,*
       very much upset, almost too easily

3. Substantive kernel:

e.g.   *my book, his brother, this room, white blossom, real friendship, a mere trifle,*
       world leaders, water power, kitchen window, wealthy city dwellers

Progressive kernel phrases:

1. Substantive kernel:

e.g.   *a candidate for the prize, the fruits of his labour, the number of students,*
       any fact in sight, an action that could poison the plant, a child of five who has
       been crying, the road back, the man downstairs, problems to solve

2. Adjectival kernel:

e.g.   *available for study, rich in minerals, full of life, fond of music,*
       easy to understand

3. Verbal kernel:

e.g.   *to smile a happy smile, to grin a crooked grin, to turn the page, to hear voices,*
       to become unconscious

4. Prepositional kernel:

e.g.   *(to depend) on him, (to look) at them*

In **non**-**kernel** phrases none of the elements are dominant. They are subdivided into *independent* non-kernel phrases (no context is needed in order to understand them) and *dependent* non-kernel phrases, which require a context in order to be understood.

Independent kernel phrases:

e.g.   *easy and simple, shouting and singing, she nodded*

Words in an independent kernel phrase can belong to:

1. The same word- class:

e.g.   *men and women* (syndetic joining), *men, women, children* (asyndetic joining)

2. Different word- classes:

e.g.   *He yawned* (a primary predication)

Dependent kernel phrases:

e.g. *his own (dog), (send) him a letter*

Words in a dependent kernel phrase can belong to:

1. The same word- class:

e.g.   *wise old (men), faded green (hat)* (accumulative relations)

*2. Different word- classes:*

e.g.   *his old (friend)* (accumulative link);
       (to find) the car gone, (to see) the man leave,
   *(stumped out), his face red and wrathful* (secondary predicates)

THE SENTENCE
Outline
1.   The definition of the sentence and its distinctive features
2.   Aspects of the sentence: formal, semantic, functional
3.   The structural classification of English sentences

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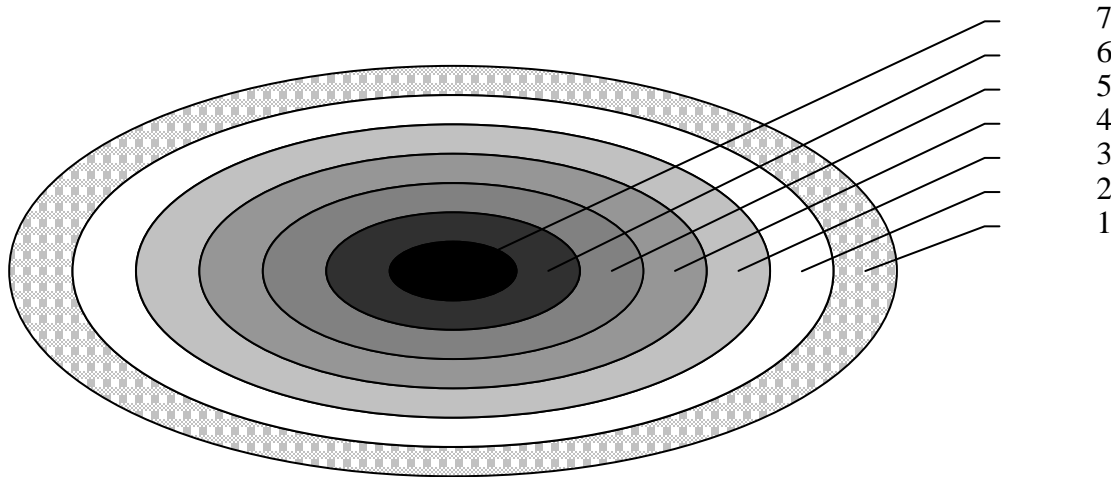
Fig. 2.1. The Sentence onion

The sentence onion suggests the image of a hard core and many 'grounding' layers around it. The outermost layer (1) represents the speaker's attitude to the event described (modality). The next layer (2) represents the speaker's objective evaluation of the event described (mood). The next one (3) pertains to the speaker's perspective of viewing the situation described in the sentence (voice). Layer (4) relates to the moment the event occurs (tense). Layer (5) represents the time at which this event is situated in relation to the speech act time or other events (perfective aspect / retrospect). The innermost layer (6) concerns the internal progression of the event (progressive aspect / development). The core of the sentence onion (7) is formed by the subject-relational categories of the verb (person and number).
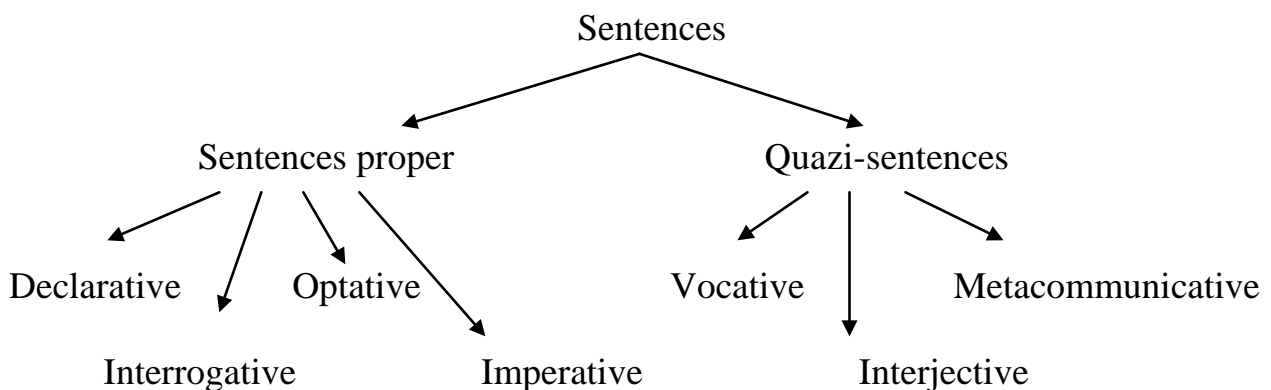
Fig 2.2. The structural classification of English sentences

	Sentence pattern	Syntactic characteristics	Communicative function
Declarative	*John is leaving.*	subject + whole predicate	giving information about sth
Interrogative	*Is John leaving?*	part of predicate + subject + rest of predicate	asking for information about sth
Optative	*If John only left!*	*if* + subject + whole predicate	expressing one's desire that smb do sth
Imperative	*Leave!*	predicate by itself	getting smb do sth

Fig 2.3. Characteristic features of the types of sentences

	Sentence pattern	Syntactic characteristics	Communicative function
Vocative	*John!*	subject	to address someone
Interjective	*Hey!*	interjection	to get information from someone
Metacommunicative	*See you!*	greeting/parting words	to establish or terminate contact

Fig 2.4. Characteristic features of the types of quasi-sentences

3. THE STRUCTURAL CLASSIFICATION OF ENGLISH SENTENCES
(self-study material)

English sentences are classified on the structural basis in agreement with their semantic features (otherwise it would be just artificial pseudo-scholarship). Since predicativity is the main distinctive feature of the sentence, it would be logical to use it as the basis for a most general structural classification of sentences. Sentences proper are subdivided into: declarative(e.g. *John smiled*); interrogative (e.g. *Did John smile?*; optative (e.g. *If John smiled!*); imperative (e.g. *Say 'Cheese'!*). Sentences proper (further on just sentences) are characterized by predicativity, while quasi-sentences are not. They serve to express: address (vocative, e.g. *John*!), emotion (interjective, e.g. *Oh*!) or establishing or terminating speech contact (metacommunicative, e.g. *Good day!*).

1. Sentences are subdivided into declarative, interrogative, optative, and imperative on heterogeneous grounds.

Declarative and interrogative sentences differ in their informational aspect: the former provide information, and the latter call for information.

Declarative sentences vary in the amount of information they carry. For example, the sentence *I am asking that because I want to know* as an answer to the question *Why are you asking that?* repeats the predicate of the preceding sentence thus providing redundant information.

Declarative sentences can be **positive** or **negative**, i.e. they affirm or negate the predicative link between the subject and the predicate. The term *positive* is preferable to the traditionally used term *affirmative*, otherwise we would have to qualify the sentence *Do you know him?* as an "*affirmative interrogative sentence*" as opposed to the "*negative-interrogative*" sentence *Don't you know him?*

A sentence is called negative only if negation concerns the predication (the so-called "**general negation**"), e.g. *You don't understand him at all.* **Particular negation** can refer to any member of the sentence except the predicate, e.g. *Not a person could be seen around.*

Positive and negative sentences make an opposition (POSITIVE :: NEGATIVE), where negation is the marked member.

Interrogative sentences, in their turn, are not "pure questions": they do convey some positive information, which is called ***the presupposition of the question***. For example, the question *Why are you asking that?* has a presupposition *You are asking that*; the question *Why have you murdered your wife?* has a presupposition *You have murdered your wife.*

Interrogative sentences demonstrate a great variety of grammatical meanings and forms as well as of pragmatic functions. Due to that, only a few of their most general formal and semantic features can serve as a basis for setting them apart: a specific interrogative intonation contour; the inverted order of words; interrogative pronouns; the content (information gap in the knowledge of the subject about the denotatum).

There are two main types of interrogative sentences – general questions and special questions, – which differ in their formal and semantic features:

General questions	Special questions
Formal features	
- no interrogative pronouns	- *wh*-pronouns
- a rising intonation contour	- a falling intonation contour
Semantic features	
- a request for information about the predicative content of the sentence, i.e. the existence of a link between the entity expressed by the subject and its characteristics	- a request for some specific information
- are to be answered with: "Yes"/"No", "Certainly", "Perhaps", "Never", etc.	- are to be answered with declarative sentence

Alternative questions do not form a special type of questions. Alternativity can be brought both into general and special questions, e.g. *Is it Peter or John? Who(m) do you like better, Peter or John?*

Disjunctive (tag) questions are a variety of general questions.

Optative and imperative sentences deal with the volitional (волюнтативне) attitude of the speaker to a certain event The desire of the subject of optative sentences remains unrealized, while imperative sentence are aimed at its realization.

2. Quasi-sentences are called sentences due to their: ability to substitute a sentence (take its position in a speech chain); discreteness; intonation properties.

On the other hand, they cannot be said to have a full sentential status since they can be embedded into a sentence as syntagmatically dependent elements. Hence they:
- do not have a nominative meaning (just evaluative);
- are context dependent, e.g. *John!* (amazement, indignation, approval, reproof);
- are easily substituted by non-verbal signals, e.g. *John!* Attracting attention: punch in the ribs, tap on the shoulder, clearing one's throat); *Well done! Yak! Good bye! Hi!*
- can be combined, e.g. *Oh, John! Hello Cliff!*
- can be emotionally coloured (become exclamatory).

Exclamation is not a structural element of a sentence, it is optional. Yet certain types of quasi-sentences demonstrate a tendency to being exclamatory (conventionality of the exclamation mark), e.g. *Dear sir !* (Cf. Здравствуй, Аня!).

Theme 2.3
CONSTITUENTS OF THE SIMPLE SENTENCE: SENTENCE MEMBERS
Outline
1. Types of sentence constituents
2. The system of simple sentence constituents/sentence members in English
    2.1. The subject
    2.2. The predicate
    2.3. The object (complement)
    2.4. The (adverbial) modifier
    2.5. The attribute

Fig. 3.1. A toddler cartoon

Out of all the details in an event or situation, a speaker can name the following aspects: one or more participants, attributes of these participants, and information about the setting of the event or situation.

First of all, the speaker names at least one person or thing and says something about him, her or it. In these cartoons, there are a few things that stand out most: the little boy, the balloon, and the cactus. In a typical sentence, the person or thing that stands out the most (for us humans that is usually a person doing something) is named first. We will call this person or thing the *first participant*.

Then the speaker names the **process**, such as *is, is holding, is walking,* which describes the act, deed, state of being or becoming that the first participant is involved in. The speaker may then say something about the first participant or name one or two more participants. As you can see in the following examples, if the speaker says something about the first participant, it will be an attribute describing a quality or characteristic, or one or more words identifying the participant or giving the class the participant is a member of.

The little boy	*is*	***happy.***	a quality
He	*turned*	***three years old.***	a characteristic
He	*must be*	***Annie's little brother.***	identification
He	*was*	***a toddler.***	class membership

But the speaker may also choose to mention a **second participant**, which is another thing, person, event, or situation that stands out in the scene.

The little boy   *is holding*   ***a balloon.***

And, in some cases it is possible to name **an attribute** of the second participant. In the following sentences, *unpoppable* and *his treasure* describe the second participant.

The little boy	*considered*	*the balloon*	***unpoppable***.
The little boy	*made*	*the balloon*	***his treasure.***

It is also possible for the speaker to name ***three participants***. In such cases, something is transferred from one participant to another. In the following sentences, *the mother* is the first participant, *a balloon*, the second one, and *the boy*, the third one.

The mother	*had given*	***the boy***	*a balloon.*
The mother	*had bought*	***the boy***	*a balloon.*

Besides naming participants and attributes of these participants, the speaker may choose to give information about the ***setting***, which tells how, where, when, why, under what condition, in spite of which condition the process or the event or situation takes place. The term 'setting' is to be taken very broadly. It may refer to time, reason, condition, cause and so on. Basically it refers to anything that is not a participant, an attribute or a process. In the following examples, *yesterday* tells when the event took place. *Up high* tells how the balloon was held, *for his birthday* tells why the event took place and *when he walked through the hallway* tells when the event took place.

*The little boy was very proud **yesterday**.*
*He was holding his balloon **up high**.*
*The mother had given him the balloon **for his birthday**.*
When he walked through the hallway, *he considered it unpoppable.*

Task 1. Go back over the sentences you jotted down about the cartoons and identify the elements you named (e.g. which one is first participant, second participant, process, attribute, and so on).

So far we have talked about the roles different sentence parts may name in a sentence. A group of words used to name a particular role has a technical **function** in the sentence. The technical terms and the abbreviations we will use for these are shown in Table 1.

To summarize, main participants, which tell us who or what, are *subjects*, *direct objects*, or *indirect objects*. The part that names the process is called the *predicator*, and characteristics of one of the participants are called *attributes*. Finally, those parts of the sentence that tell us when, why, how, and so on are called *adverbials*.

Role	Function	Abbre-viation
first participant	subject	S
process	predicate	P
sth about a participant	attribute	Attr
second participant	direct object	O(d)
third participant	indirect / benefactive object	O(i)
the setting	adverbial	Advl

Fig. 3.2. Semantic roles and syntactic functions

The mother (S) / had given (P) / the boy (O(i)) / a balloon (O(d)) / for his birthday (Advl).
The little (Attr) boy (S) / was very proud (P) / yesterday (Advl).
All day long (Advl), / the little (Attr) boy (S) / considered (P) / the balloon (O(d)) / his greatest treasure (A Predicative).

Task 2. In the following passage (adapted from *True Trash* by Margaret Atwood), some sentence constituents have been set off with square brackets. Identify the functions of those constituents.

[The waitresses] [are basking] [in the sun] like a herd of skinned seals, their pinky-brown bodies shining with oil. [They] [are wearing] [their bathing suits] [because it's the afternoon]. [In the early dawn and the dusk] [they] [sometimes] go skinny-dipping, which makes this itchy crouching in the mosquito-infested bushes across from their small private dock a great deal more worthwhile.

[Donny] [has] [the binoculars, which are not his own but Monty's]. [Monty's dad] [gave] [them] [to him] [for bird-watching] but [Monty] isn't interested in birds. [He] [has found] [a better use for the binoculars]: [he] rents [them] out to the other boys, five minutes maximum, a nickel a look or else a chocolate bar from the tuck shop, though he prefers the money.

To sum up, the system of sentence members in English embraces: the subject, the predicate, the object (complement), the (adverbial) modifier, and the attribute. To a certain extent, this system parallels the part-of-speech taxonomy, though there are certain distinctions between them. In particular, the attribute can be expressed not only with an adjective, but also with an adverb (e.g. *the then government, essentially a bachelor*, etc.).

THE SENTENCE MEMBERS GROUPINGS

(1)   the subject – the predicate
(2)   the object complement – the adverbial modifier
(3)   the attribute
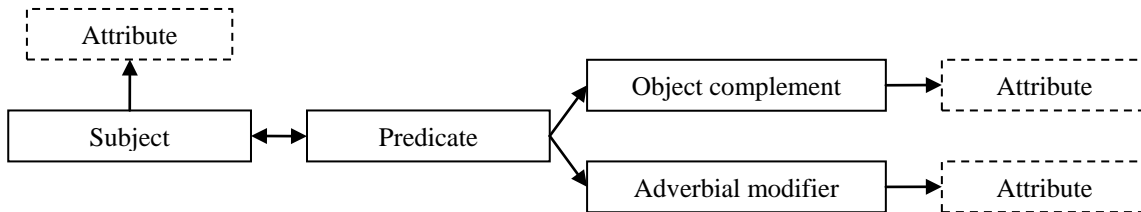
Fig. 3.3. **The relations of the members of the sentence**

STRUCTURAL TYPES OF PREDICATES

- Simple verbal
- Complex verbal
- Complex nominal
- Phraseological
- Blended
- Elaborated

STRUCTURAL TYPES OF OBJECTS

- Object-oriented: direct (non prepositional) – prepositional
- Addressee-oriented: direct (non prepositional) – prepositional
- Subject-oriented

The Adverbial Modifier	The Object Complement
cannot be transformed into the subject	can be transformed into the subject
its presence is not always determined by verbal semantics	its presence is always determined by verbal semantics
is a component of the structural scheme of the sentence only with certain verbs: e.g. *He stayed alive.*	is always a component of the structural scheme of the sentence
can be expressed with nouns, pronouns, adverbs or participles, e.g. *with eagerness – eagerly; with dignity – quietly*	can be expressed only with nouns or pronouns

Fig. 3.4. Characteristics of the modifier and the object compared

STRUCTURAL TYPES OF ATTRIBUTES

- prepositive
- postpositive

OP (opinion/ epithet)	SH (size/ shape)	A (age)	C (colour)	O (origin)	M (material/ substance)	Gerund, etc.	Noun
daring		young					man
	small round				oak		table
dirty		old	brown				coat
charming				French		writing	desk
	large		green	Chinese			carpet
famous				German		medical	
wonderful						autumnal	panorama
attractive	small						property

Theme 2.4
CONSTITUENTS OF THE COMPOSITE SENTENCE: CLAUSES
Outline

1. Parataxis and hypotaxis
2. English composite sentence
    2.1. Properties of composite sentences
    2.2. Classification of English composite sentences

*Table 1. **Parataxis and Hypotaxis***

		Parataxis (Coordination of Elements)	**Hypotaxis (Subordination of Elements)**
		The elements are: - of equal status; - free (i.e. each one can stand as a functional whole); - logically symmetrical (*pepper and salt – salt and pepper*)	The elements are: - of unequal status; - the dominant element is free, while the dependent one is not; - logically asymmetrical (*I breathe when I sleep. ≠ I sleep when I breathe*)
Words		*apples and pears, easy and simple* (non-kernel independent phrases); *his own (dog)* (a non-kernel dependent phrase)	*John's books, completely empty* (kernel regressive phrases); *the road back* (a kernel progressive phrase)
		initiating element – continuing element	***dominant element (the head) – dependent element (the modifier)***
Clauses		*Dogs bark and cats mew.*	*I don't know what you're talking about.*
		initiating clause – continuing clause	***dominant clause – dependent clause***
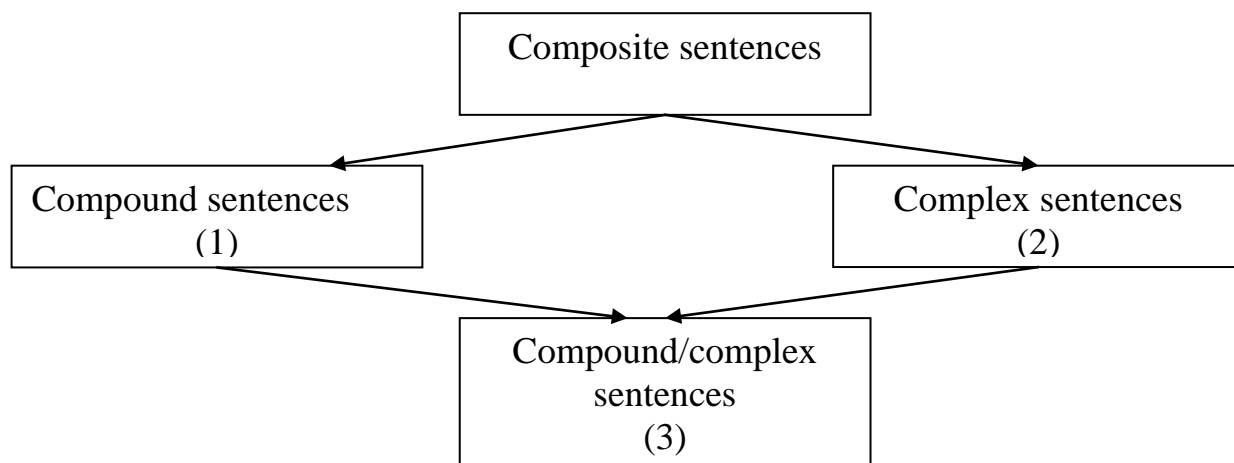
Fig. 4.1. Classification of composite sentences

*Table 2. **Coordinators***

Coordinate conjunctions		Correlative conjunctions
and	*for*	*both... and*
but	*yet*	*not only... but also*
or	*so*	*either... or*
nor		*neither... nor*

*Table 3. **Subordinators***

after	*however much*	*though*	*whether*
although	*if*	*unless*	*which(ever)*
as	*in order that*	*until*	*while*
as if	*how that*	*what(ever)*	*who*
as though	*once*	*when*	*who(m)(ever)*
because	*rather than*	*whenever*	
before	*since*	*where*	
even though	*so that*	*whereas*	
how	*that*	*wherever*	

(1) <u>*Jason*</u> <u>*offered*</u> *the girl his handkerchief* (the initiating co-clause) *and* <u>*she*</u> <u>*took*</u> *it without a moment's hesitation* (the continuing co-clause).

(2) *Whales have lungs instead of gills; therefore, they cannot breathe under water.*

(3) Often tell your kids (the principal clause) *how terrific they are* (the sub-clause).

(4) Whales cannot breathe under water because they have lungs instead of gills.

(5) Whales, which cannot breathe under water, have lungs instead of gills.

(6) John, who always kicks the ball hard, is the player who scores the most.

(7) John, who always kicks the ball hard, is the player who scores the most.

(8) What is surprising is that whales cannot breathe underwater.

(9) That John kicks the ball hard is common knowledge.

(10) It is common knowledge.
(11) We all know that John kicks the ball hard.
(12) We all know it.
(13) A fact is that John kicks the ball hard.
(14) That John kicks the ball hard is a fact.
(15) The teacher realized (the principal clause) *that the class did not understand the rule* (the 1st sub-clause) *which had just been explained to them* (the 2nd sub-clause which is subordinated to the 1st one).
(16) It won't be surprising if people complain if they don't punish him if he's guilty.
(17) John reported that Mary told him that Fred had said the day would be fine.
(18)   Mr. Bloomberg was very proud (the principal clause) *when he heard about his son's success* (the sub-clause) *but at the same time he knew* (the principal clause) *that it was just luck* (the sub-clause)
(19) I would if I could but I can't.
(20) The headmaster told the teachers that Weekly Reviews were to be written on Fridays and that they should be marked by Mondays.
(21) I don't mind if you leave as soon as you're finished as long as you're back when I need you.
(22) A tone is what you hear in music, and a note is the symbol that you write for a tone.
(23) *Thomas Jefferson who is quoted more often and on more different subjects than any other president of the United States and who was thirty-five years old when he drafted the Declaration of Independence was the third president of the United States.*

Theme 2.5
LOGICAL /SEMANTIC RELATIONS BETWEEN CLAUSES
Outline

1. The logical structure of the sentence
2. Logical/semantic relations between clauses

	Primary	**Secondary**
Parataxis	initiating	continuing
Hypotaxis	dominant	dependent

(1) Expansion:

    (a) elaborating   =   ('equals')   [*i.e.*]

(restating in other words, specifying in greater detail, commenting or exemplifying)

    (b) extending   +   ('is added to')   [*and, or*]

(adding some new element, giving an exception to it, or offering an alternative)

    (c) enhancing   x   ('is multiplied by')   [*so, yet, then*]

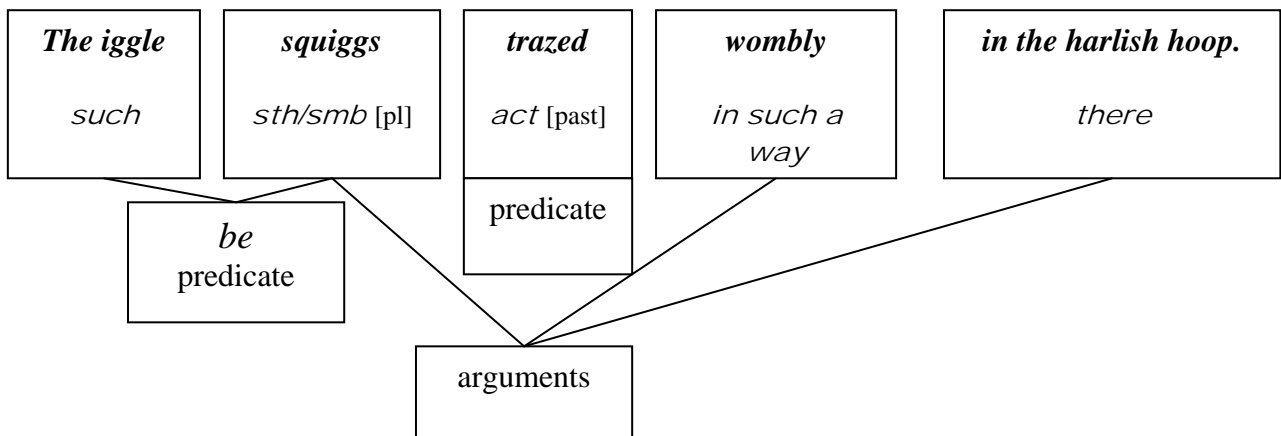(qualifying it with some new circumstantial feature of time, place, cause or condition)

(2) Projection:

    (a) locution   "   (double quotes)   [*says*]

(presenting a locution, a construction or wording)

    (b) idea   '   (single quotes)   [*thinks*]

(presenting as an idea, a construction of meaning)

		Paratactic	**Hypotactic**
Expansion	**Elaboration**	John didn't wait; he ran away	John ran away, which surprised everyone
	Extension	John ran away, and Fred stayed behind	John ran away, whereas Fred stayed behind
	Enhancement	John was scared, so he ran away	John ran away, because he was scared
Projection	**Locution**	John said: "I'm running away"	John said he was running away.
	Idea	John thought to himself: 'I'll run away'	John thought he would run away

Theme 2.6
SEMANTIC ROLES
Outline

1. Proposition
2. Semantic roles

The iggle **such**	*squiggs* **sth/smb** [pl]	*trazed* **act** [past]	*wombly* **in such a way**	*in the harlish hoop.* **there**

be predicate

predicate

arguments

AGENT	the instigator of the action, controls it, typically animate	*John opened the door.* *The door was opened by John.*
ELEMENTATIVE	inanimate	*The war scattered people.*
EXPERIENCER	the receiver of information with the verbs of perception or a bearer of uncontrollable feeling	*He saw her. He hesitated. His eyes twinkled. My head aches.*
OBJECT	the thing affected by the action (AFFECTIVE) or effected by the action (EFFECTIVE)	*He broke the window. The stone fell.* *The yard was overlooked. He wrote a poem. She told a lie.*
PATIENT	the animate OBJECT	*He has been robbed.*
ADDRESSEE	the recipient of the message with the verbs of speech	*They told him the news.*
BENEFICIARY / RECIPIENT	the animate participant involved into the action in terms of harm / benefit	*He offered his seat to a disabled person. She received a gift.*
COUNTERAGENT (RECIPROCANT)	the participant of a symmetrical relationship with the AGENT	*We are friends with Tom.* *They trade with many countries.*
INSTRUMENT	the inanimate object or force causally involved in the action; does not undergo any changes	*The key opened the door.* *John opened the door with a key.*
MEANS		*It was written in ink.*
SOURCE	the place from where the action initiates; verbs of dynamic spatial location; of occupation	*She moved from her apartment.* *She teaches English.*
STIMULUS	the source of information with the verbs of perception or the source of uncontrollable feeling	*He saw the girl.* *The very idea is shocking.*
GOAL	the place towards which the action is directed	*They left for Poltava.*
LOCATION	location/spatial orientation of the state or action identified with the verb	*Chicago is windy.* *It is windy in Chicago.*

PRAGMATIC SYNTAX
Outline

1. Linguistic pragmatics
2. Speech acts: Definition and classifications
3. Maxims of conversation

  Linguistic pragmatics is concerned with the ability of language users to pair sentences with the context in which they would be appropriate. Much of our contextual knowledge is the knowledge of who is speaking, who is listening, what objects are being discussed, and general facts about the world we live in, called ***situational context***.

  Thus present-day linguists draw a distinction between two types of meaning. The first type of meaning is intrinsic to a linguistic expression containing it, and it cannot be separated from that expression. The study of this kind of meaning is the domain of ***semantics***, as we now understand the term. The second kind of meaning is not intrinsic to the linguistic expression carrying it, but which rather results from the interaction of the linguistic expression with the context in which is it used. And to the study of this kind of meaning we give the name ***pragmatics***.

Table 1

Situational context	Initiating replica (Jessica's)	Response replica (Jessica's interlocutor)	The message communicated by Jessica's interlocutor
[Jessica is trying to have smoking banned in offices]	*Can you ask Susie to sign this petition?*	*Susie is a heavy smoker.*	Susie is unlikely to sign the petition, so there's no point in asking her.
[Jessica is trying to arrange a blind date for Dave, a non-smoker who hates cigarette smoke]	*Would Susie like to go out with Dave?*	*Susie is a heavy smoker.*	Dave and Susie won't get on, so there's no point in fixing them up.
[Jessica, a medical researcher, is looking for smokers to take part in some medical tests]	*Do you know of anybody I could ask?*	*Susie is a heavy smoker.*	Susie will be a suitable person for your study.

The following sentences illustrate the usage of performative verbs:

I *bet* you ten dollars our team wins.
I *challenge* you to a match.
I *dare* you to step over this line.
I *promise* to improve.
I *resign*!
I *pronounce* you husband and wife.

Task 1. Specify the illocutionary force of *How old are you?* in the situations below:

(a)   [A young boy is talking to a colleague of his father]: *It's my birthday today.*
        [The colleague]: *Many happy returns. How old are you?*
(b)   [A father is talking to his son, 15, smoking]: *How old are you?*
(c)   [A psychiatrist is talking to a female patient]: *What do you do?*
        [The woman]: *I am a nurse, but my husband won't let me work.*
        [The psychiatrist]: *How old are you?*

J. SEARLE'S CLASSIFICATION OF SPEECH ACTS

CLASS	ROUGH DESCRIPTION
Assertive	Giving information
Directive	Telling someone to do something
Commissive	Committing oneself to doing something
Expressive	Expressing a feeling
Declarative	Performing a ritual act

Task 2. Provide each class of acts with an example and with at least three performative member verbs.

MAXIMS OF CONVERSATION

MAXIM	FORMULATION
of quantity	make your contribution as informative as it is required for the current purposes of the conversation; do not make your contribution more informative than is required
of quality	make your contribution one that is true, specifically: do not say what you believe to be false; do not say that for which you lack adequate evidence
of relevance	make your contribution relevant
of manner	be perspicuous, and specifically: avoid ambiguity, avoid obscurity, be brief, be orderly

Task 3. Which maxim(s) of conversation has/have been violated in the conversations below?

<div align="center">I</div>

A: *Where is Bill?*
B: *There is a yellow VW outside Susan's house.*

<div align="center">II</div>

POLONIUS:	What do you read, my lord?
HAMLET:	Words, words, words.
POLONIUS:	What is the matter, my lord?
HAMLET:	Between who?
POLONIUS:	I mean, the matter that you read, my lord.
HAMLET:	Slanders, sir: for the satirical rogue says here that old men have gray beards, that their faces are wrinkled, their eyes purging thick amber and plum-tree gum, and that they have a plentiful lack of wit, together with most weak hams: all which, sir, though I most powerfully and potently believe, yet I hold it not honest to have it thus set down; for yourself, sir, should grow old as I am, if like a crab you could go backward

<div align="right">(Hamlet, Act II, Scene ii)</div>

:   :

<div align="center">54</div>

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Навчальне видання

Морозова Олена Іванівна

Теоретична граматика сучасної англійської мови:
матеріали до лекційного курсу
та завдання для самостійної роботи

Розподіл балів, які отримують студенти

Поточне тестування та самостійна робота		Підсумковий семестровий контроль (екзамен)	Сума
Модуль 1	Модуль 2	40	100
30	30		

Форми контролю навчальних здобутків студентів:
Теми 1 та 2 – тест множинного вибору на 10 питань (поточний) та на 20 питань (модульний); семестровий тест множинного вибору на 30 питань.

Критерії оцінювання:
Шкала відповідності оцінки (за національною системою)
кількості штрафних балів

	Кількість активних моментів	Кількість штрафних балів на «5»	Кількість штрафних балів на «4»	Кількість штрафних балів на «3»	Кількість штрафних балів на «2»
Тест множинного вибору	30	0-3	4-9	10-15	16 і більше
Тест множинного вибору	20	0-2	3-6	7-10	11 і більше
Тест множинного вибору	10	0-1	2-3	4-5	6 і більше

Мінімальна кількість балів, які повинен набрати студент для зарахування кожного окремого модуля – 15.

Студент отримує допуск до підсумкового семестрового контролю, якщо він впорався з 50 % учбового матеріалу 2-х модулів, тобто набрав не менше 30 балів.

SAMPLE TEST
10 minutes

Your test consists of 10 numbered items. Each of them contains a question and four variants of answers to it, or the beginning of a statement and four ways of ending it, or a term and four possible definitions. Only one choice is correct. On your answer sheet, find the number of the question and circle the letter that stands for the answer you have chosen. If more than one letter is marked in one number, the answer is considered to be wrong anyway. Start with writing you name and the number of the group __on the reverse side of the answer sheet__ and begin the test.

1. The core linguistic disciplines are:
a. Morphology and Syntax
b. Phonology and Lexicology

c. a + b
d. c + Stylistics, History of Grammar

2. Tense is a _____ category.
a. grammatical
b. lexical

c. phonetic
d. textual

3. Which of the following categories is <u>not</u> morphological?
a. nouns
b. proper names

c. the subject
d. a+b

4. What kind of morpheme is *free-* in *freedom*?
a. a free stem
b. a bound stem

c. word-building
d. form-building

5. What kind of morpheme is *-dom* in *freedom*?
a. a free stem
b. a bound stem

c. derivational
d. inflexional

6. The allomorph is _____.
a. a morpheme
b. a positional variant of a morpheme

c. the smallest bilateral unit
d. none of the above

7. The phoneme is _____.
a. a morpheme
b. a positional variant of a morpheme

c. the smallest bilateral unit
d. none of the above

8. Which morphemes have the most abstract meaning?
a. lexical
b. derivational

c. grammatical
d. they are all equally abstract

9. A morph is _____.
a. a unit of language
b. a unit of speech

c. an abstraction
d. none of the above

10. The levels of language structure are _____.
a. phonemic, morphemic, lexemic
b. a + syntactic

c. b + morphological
d. none of the above

ANSWER SHEET

1	a	b	c	d
2	a	b	c	d
3	a	b	c	d
4	a	b	c	d
5	a	b	c	d
6	a	b	c	d
7	a	b	c	d
8	a	b	c	d
9	a	b	c	d
10	a	b	c	d

EXAMINATION QUESTIONS
FOR THE COURSE OF THE THEORY OF ENGLISH GRAMMAR

1.   General linguistics and English linguistics
2.   Levels of language structure and their units
3.   Types of grammatical description of the English language
4.   Theoretical grammar of English in its relation to other components of linguistic description
5.   Methods of grammatical analysis
6.   Parts of speech in English: definition, criteria and inventory
7.   Limitations to the traditional classification of the parts of speech in English
8.   Alternative approaches to the traditional classification of the parts of speech
9.   Categorial meaning of English nouns. Their lexical/grammatical subclasses and morphemic structure
10.   Morphological categories of English nouns; the problematic status of the category of gender
11.   Syntactic functions of English nouns
12.   Categorial status of English articles
13.   Categorial meaning of English adjectives. Their lexical/grammatical subclasses and morphemic structure
14.   Morphological category of degrees of comparison of English adjectives
15.   Semantic category of intensity of English adjectives
16.   Syntactic functions of English adjectives
17.   Categorial status of a-adjectives in English
18.   Categorial meaning of English verbs, their lexical/grammatical subclasses and morphemic structure
19.   Morphological categories of English verbs English verbids
20.   Syntactic functions of English verbs
21.   Inventory of syntactic units and their meaning
22.   Syntagmatic connections of words and their types
23.   The phrase
24.   Structural classifications of English phrases
25.   The definition of the sentence and distinctive features of English sentences
26.   Aspects of the sentence (formal, semantic, functional)
27.   Types of syntactic description of English sentences
28.   Structural classification of English sentences
29.   Types of sentence constituents.
30.   The system of simple sentence constituents / sentence members in English
31.   Properties of composite sentences
32.   Classification of English composite sentences
33.   Logical structure of the sentence. Proposition
34.   Deep semantic structure of the English sentence (semantic roles)
35.   Basic notions of pragmatics
36.   Speech acts

PARTS OF SPEECH
Traditional

- 6 **notional** parts of speech (they denote notions): *Nouns, Adjectives, Numerals, Pronouns, Verbs, Adverbs*
- 2 **functional** parts of speech (they denote relations): *Prepositions, Conjunctions*
+ 1 **suprasyntactic** entity (it denotes the emotional attitude of the speaker to the situation of speech): *Interjections*

Problematic

- **particles** (specify or limit the meaning of different members of the sentence): e.g. *not, never, almost, nearly*;
- **words of the category of state** (a-adjectives): e.g. *awake, afraid, afloat*
- **modal words** (sentence adverbs): e.g. *probably, maybe, possibly, fortunately, luckily*
- **articles** (determiners of nouns): *a(n), the*

Part of Speech	Categorial Meaning	Lexical / Semantic Sets	Morphemic Structure	Paradigm	Syntactic Functions
Noun	substance	common, proper	simple, derived (suffixation)	number, case; gender ? article determination?	subject, object, predicative complement; attribute
Adjective	property of a substance	qualitative, relative, scalar, stative	simple, derived	degrees of comparison; intensity?	attribute (pre-, post-), predicative complement
Numeral	number	cardinal, ordinal	simple, derived, composite, compound		numerical attributes and numerical "substantives"
Pronoun	indication	personal, possessive, demonstrative, indefinite, negative, interrogative, reflexive, reciprocal, relative, conjunctive, universal	simple, composite, compound,	case, number – with certain sets	substantival or adjectival functions for different sets
Verb	process	notional; semi-notional and functional	simple, derived, compound, formed by conversion, sound or stress replacement, phrasal verbs	person, number, tense, aspect, voice, mood; lexical/semantic category of finitude	predicate (finite verbs); substantival and adjectival functions (the verbids)
Adverb	secondary property (of a process or another property)	qualitative, quantitative, circumstantial	simple, derived	degrees of comparison	adverbial modifiers, situational determiners