Irine Goshkheteliani

ENGLISH
THEORETICAL GRAMMAR

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„ინგლისური ენის თეორიული გრამატიკის“ სახელმძღვანელო განკუთვნილია ინგლისური ფილოლოგიის სტუდენტებისათვის და ყველა დაინტერესებული პირისთვის. ის აგებულია საგნის სილაბუსის მიხედვით. მასში თავმოყრილია ცნობილი ლინგვისტების მოსაზრებები ინგლისური ენის გრამატიკის მთავარ პრობლემებზე და შედგენილია ბიბლიოგრაფიაში მოცემული წიგნების ბაზაზე.

ინგლისური ენის პრაქტიკული გრამატიკის კურსისგან განსხვავებით ეს სახელმძღვანელო საშუალებას აძლევს სტუდენტს ღრმად ჩაწვდეს გრამატიკის თეორიულ საფუძვლებს, ყურადღება გაამახვილოს გრამატიკულ კატეგორიებზე. პრაქტიკული გრამატიკა იძლევა ლინგვისტური სტრუქტურების პრაქტიკულად გამოყენების წესებს და გვასწავლის როგორ ვისაუბროთ და ვწეროთ გრამატიკულად, მაშინ როცა თეორიული გრამატიკა იძლევა ლინგვისტიკის პრინციპებზე აგებულ მსჯელობას ენის სტრუქტურის შესახებ. წიგნში წარმოდგენილი ფაქტები ინგლისური ენის შესახებ საშუალებას აძლევს ენის შემსწავლელს გაანალიზოს ისინი და გამოიტანოს დასკვნები.

ფილოლოგიის დოქტორების ნინო აროშოძის და ჟუჟუნა გუმბარიძისწიგნები „ინგლისური ენის თეორიული გრამატიკის პრაქტიკული კურსი“ საშუალებას მისცემენ სტუდენტს შეამოწმოს თავისი თეორიული ცოდნა პრაქტიკული სავარჯიშოების შესრულებით.

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„English Theoretical Grammar" is designed for the students of English Philology and may be of interest to all readers who would like to gain some information about theories of English grammar. Its subject matter fully corresponds to the Syllabus in the subject. It covers the ideas of the well-known linguists on the main issues of English grammar and is compiled from the books listed in the bibliography.

To describe the structure of a language, we focus on the units that make up the language and their relations, on the nature of the rules used in speech. Hence, we can speak of two types of grammar: practical and theoretical. Practical grammar gives practical rules of the use of the linguistic structures and teaches to speak or write correctly while theoretical grammar gives an analysis of the structures in the light of general principles of linguistics and the existing schools and approaches, presents facts of language, while analyzing them, and gives no prescriptions.

Nino Aroshidze's and Zhuzhuna Gumbaridze's book "Practical Course of Theoretical Grammar" will be a perfect opportunity for the students to test their understanding of the theory of English grammar.

Editor: Doctor of Philology, Professor **Tamar Siradze**

Reviewers: Doctor of Philology, Associate Professor **Nino Aroshidze**
Doctor of Philology, Associate Professor **Tea Shavladze**
Doctor of Philology, Assistant Professor **Zhuzhuna Gumbaridze**

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INTRODUCTION

Let us start from the basic concept that language is for communication. Many types of languages are used throughout the world to communicate daily our countless ideas, beliefs, intentions, actions and feelings. And with mass media and the Internet, this interaction is occurring faster and more frequently with every passing second. Even specialized languages, such as mathematics and computer programming, are being used more often in an effort to create much desired and needed new processes and systems and to educate people.

Like most of the systems in the world and universe in which we live, languages are organic and continuously evolving systems within larger changing systems, such as our local, national and international communities. Within all languages, cultural traditions and conventions have shaped, organized, reorganized and normalized language subsystems, thereby, structuring overall language systems. Therefore, like culture, language is ever developing as conventions, traditional systems are forever challenged, and language structure is permanently altered.

Besides the inherent ever-evolving nature of languages, in a global information age much can be lost in translation between different languages and in the inevitable meshing of cultures. Therefore, information dissemination and comprehension can be a challenge. However, as with many organic systems and their subsystems, chaos is a natural part of cycles, and in an all-encompassing global and ever-changing technological environment, as cultures and languages collide, they also merge to become one.

CHAPTER 1
THE SUBJECT OF THEORETICAL GRAMMAR. MAIN PRINCIPLES OF GRAMMATICAL ANALYSIS

For a start, let us try and answer the question "what is grammar?" The term grammar is derived from the Greek word *grammatikē*, where *gram*meant *something written*. The part *tikē*derives from *technē*and meant *art*. Hence g*rammatikē*is the *art of writing*. Since its appearance in ancient Greece the term has undergone considerable modifications. Historically, English grammars, according to their general aims andobjectives, can be divided into: a) traditional (prescriptive and non-structuraldescriptive): b) structural descriptive and c) transformational-generative.

If we wish to learn to speak and write, we will focus on the system of rules that underlie a given language, and if we wish to describe the structure of a language, we will focus on the units that make up the language and their relations, and if we wish to understand how speakers of a given language produce and understand sentences, we will focus on the nature of the rules used. Hence, we can speak of two types of grammar: practical and theoretical. Practical grammar gives practical rules of the use of the linguistic structures and teaches to speak (or write) correctly while theoretical grammar gives an analysis of the structures in the light of general principles of linguistics and the existing schools and approaches, presents facts of language, while analyzing them, and gives no prescriptions.

Unlike practical grammar, **theoretical grammar** does not always produce a ready-made decision. In language there are a number of phenomena interpreted differently by different linguists. To a great extent, these differences are due to the fact that there are various directions in linguistics, each having its own method of analysis and,

therefore, its own approach to the matter. But sometimes these differences arise because some facts of language are difficult to analyze, and in this case the only thing to offer is a possible way to solve the problem, instead of giving a final solution. It is due to this circumstance that there are different theories of the same language phenomenon, which is not the case with practical grammar.

Linguistic communications are channeled mainly through our senses of sound and sight. **Grammar** is the central component of language. It mediates between the system of sounds or of written symbols, on the one hand, and the system of meaning, on the other. **Phonology** is the usual term for the sound system in the language: the distinctive sound units and the ways which they may be combined. **Orthography** parallels phonology in that it deals with the writing system in the language: the distinctive written symbols and their possible combinations. **Semantics** is concerned with the system of meanings in the language: the meanings of words and the combinatory meanings of larger units. **Lexicology** refers to the set of rules that describe the structure of words. The word computer, for example, consists of two parts: the base compute (used separately as a verb) and the suffix -er (also found in many other nouns derived from verbs, e.g. printer, blender, cooker). **Pragmatics** is concerned with the use of particular utterances within particular contexts. For example, Will you join our group? is a question that, depending on the speaker's intention, is either a request for information or a request for action.

Language and Speech

The originator of the systemic approach in linguistics is considered to be a Swiss scholar ***Ferdinand de Saussure***. He was the first to divide the phenomenon of language in general (in French: '*language*') into two sides: an 'executive' side ('*parole*'), concerned with the pro-

duction, transmission, and reception of speech, and an underlying language system *('langue')*. **Language** is a collective body of knowledge, it is a set of basic elements, but these elements can form a great variety of combinations; it is a means of forming and storing ideas as reflections of reality and exchanging them in the process of human intercourse. In fact, the number of these combinations is endless. Language is social by nature; it is inseparably connected with the people who are its creators and users; it grows and develops together with the development of society.

Speech is closely connected with language, as it is the result of using the language, the result of a definite act of speaking. Speech is individual, personal while language is common for all individuals. To illustrate the difference between language and speech let us compare a definite *game of chess* and *a set of rules* how to play chess.

Language is opposed to speech and accordingly language units are opposed to speech units. The language unit *phoneme* is opposed to the speech unit – *sound*: phoneme /s/ can sound differently in speech /s/ and /z/). The *sentence* is opposed to the *utterance;* the *text* is opposed to the *discourse*.

To sum up, **language** in the narrow sense of the term is a system of means of expression, while **speech** is the manifestation of the system of language in the process of intercourse. The system of language comprises the body of lingual units and the rules of their use, while speech includes the act of producing utterances and the result of it (the utterances themselves, or the text).

Crucial for the systemic description of language are the two fundamental types of relations between lingual units: *paradigmatic* and *syntagmatic relations*. The term "syntagmatic relations" is derived from the word *syntagma*, i.e. a linear combination of units of the same level. Lingual units form various lingual strings, sequences, or constructions;

in other words, lingual units co-occur in the same actual sequences. The other type of relations, opposed to syntagmatic, are called *paradigmatic*. The term is derived from the word *paradigm* and denotes the relations between elements in paradigms in the system of language. Classical grammatical paradigms are those making up grammatical categories of words, or, morphological categories, e.g., the category of number or case of the noun: *toy – toys; tooth – teeth; children – children's*,

Languages are defined by the grammarians as a set of rules that allows a speaker (or signer in the case of a sign language) to generate permissible, well-formed utterances (and the knowledge that allows one to recognize *broken* utterances when they are encountered).

Your knowledge of English grammar allows you to figure out:

John went to the concert. Good utterance

John the concert to went. Not good

Grammar in the Systemic Conception of Language

There are two very different uses of the term grammar: (1) *descriptive grammar*, rules real speakers actually use, (2) *prescriptive grammar*, rules that English teachers (and other experts) believe speakers *ought to use.*

Examples of *prescriptive grammar* rules:

Don't end a sentence with a preposition

Don't split infinitives

Don't use 'like' like this: "So I was, like, 'Calm down, man; you're getting all agitated'.

Say "Betty and I went to the party," not "Betty and me went to the party."

Linguistics as a discipline is concerned almost exclusively with *descriptive grammar,* not *prescriptive grammar.*

One more point: *grammar* is sometimes used to refer specifically to *syntax* (word-order rules), but more recently it refers to all of the rules

of the language, including *syntax*, *semantics* (meaning), *morphology* (rules for creating words out of smaller units called morphemes), and *phonology* (sound pattern rules).

Now, finally, back to the two uses of the word language:

- *a specific language* (English, Dutch, Hungarian, etc.)
- *the general design structure of all human languages*

The 1st meaning is simple and obvious, but what about the 2nd? What features do all human languages have in common? Called the *Universal Grammar* – it's a huge and incomplete list.

Here a just a few:

1. Rules are always *structure dependent*. E.g., English question formation:

2. Nearly all languages have *agreement rules*. Subject and verb agree for *number* (plural vs. singular). E.g. *A student comes; The students come; All students come*. In Georgian: სტუდენტი მოდის; სტუდენტები მოდიან, but*ყველა სტუდენტი მოდის.*

Languages vary a lot in what kinds of things there needs to be agreement on. Not all languages enforce agreement on number, but *nearly all languages incorporate lots of agreement rules*.

3. Phonological rules: All languages incorporate sound-pattern rules called *phonological rules*.

bleed – bleat bid – bit league – leak

cub – cup cab – cap lag – lack

What do you notice about the lengths of the vowels on the left vs. those on the right?

Rule: *Vowels are lengthened when they precede voiced consonants.*

However, not all languages have this particular rule. Languages do not necessarily need to incorporate phonological rules – though all of them do.

4. Head First/Head Last

Phrases nearly in all languages contain a special "boss" word called the head. The *head* controls grammatical features of other words in the phrase.

The *girl* in socks *is* in the yard.

*The *girl* in socks *are* in the yard.

"Girl" is singular, "*socks*" is plural. Why is it that the verb agrees with the "*girl"* rather than "*socks"*? Because it's the "boss" word; i.e., the *head* of the noun phrase "girl in socks."

e.g. *Flying* out of Kalamazoo on small planes is scary.

Flying out of Kalamazoo on small planes are scary.(wrong)

"Flying" here is the head of the phrase because the phrase is mainly about flying, not planes, so the verb agrees with the singular "*flying*", not the plural "*planes*".

General principles of grammatical analysis

According to the Bible: 'In the beginning was the Word'. In fact, the word is considered to be the central (but not the only) linguistic unit of language. Linguistic units (or in other words – signs) can go into three types of relations:

a.**The relation between a unit and an object in the world around us (objective reality).** E.g. the word 'table' refers to a definite piece of furniture. It may be not only an object but a process, state, quality, etc. This type of meaning is called **referential meaning** of a unit. It is **semantics** that studies the referential meaning of units.

b.**The relation between a unit and other units (inner relations between units).** No unit can be used independently; it serves as an element in the system of other units. This kind of meaning is called **syntactic**. Formal relation of units to one another is studied by **syntax.**

c.**The relation between a unit and a person who uses it.** As we know too well, when we are saying something, we usually have some purpose in mind. We use the language as an instrument for our purpose. The same word or sentence may acquire different meanings in communication. This type of meaning is called **pragmatic**. The study of the relationship between linguistic units and the users of those units is done by **pragmatics.**

General characteristics of language as a functional system

Any human language has two main functions: the **communicative function** and the **expressive or representative** function – human language is the living form of thought. These two functions are closely interrelated as the expressive function of language is realized in the process of speech communication.

The expressive function of language is performed by means of linguistic signs and that is why we say that language is a semiotic system. It means that linguistic signs are of semiotic nature: they are informative and meaningful. There are other examples of semiotic systems but all of them are no doubt much simpler. For instance, *traffic lights* use a system of colours to instruct drivers and people to go or to stop. Some more examples: *Code Morse, Brighton Alphabet, computer languages,* etc. What is the difference between language as a semiotic system and other semiotic systems? Language is universal, natural; all members of society use it while any other sign systems are artificial and depend on the sphere of usage.

Language is regarded as a system of elements (signs, units) such as sounds, words, etc. These elements have no value without each other, they depend on each other, they exist only in a system, and they are nothing without a system.

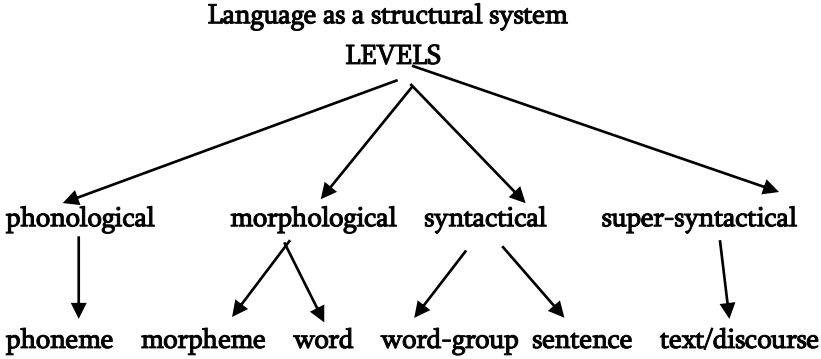
The phonological system is the subfoundation of language; it determines the material (phonetical)appearance of its significative

units.

The lexical system is the whole set of naming means of language, that is,words and stable word-groups.

The grammatical system is the whole set of regularities determining the combination of naming means in the formation of utterances as the embodiment of thinking process.

System implies the characterization of a complex object as made up of separate parts (e.g. the system of sounds). Language is a structural system.



Structure means hierarchical layering of parts in `constituting the whole. In the structure of language there are four main structural levels: **phonological, morphological, syntactical and super-syntactical**. The levels are represented by the corresponding level units:

The **phonological level** is the lowest level. The phonological level unit is the **phoneme**. It is a distinctive unit (*bag – back*).

The **morphological level** has two level units:

The **morpheme** – the lowest meaningful unit (*teach –teacher*);

The word - the main naming (`nominative) unit of language. The words are the basic units of language. When a baby begins to speak, his

first utterance is not a sentence but a word. Sentences come later, we are inclined to feel, when words are strung together meaningfully.

The **syntactical level** has two level units as well:

The word-group – the dependent syntactic unit;

The sentence – the main communicative unit.

The super-syntactical level has the **text** as its level unit.

To sum it up, each level has its own system. Therefore, language is regarded as a system of systems. This is how language works – a small number of elements at one level can enter into thousands of different combinations to form units at the other level.

Any linguistic unit is a double entity. It unites a **concept** and **a sound image**. The two elements are intimately united and each recalls the other. Accordingly, we distinguish the **content side and the expression side**. The forms of linguistic units bear no natural resemblance to their meaning. The link between them is a matter of convention, and conventions differ radically across languages.

The levels of language:

Phonetics. The physical properties of speech

Phonology. The study of linguistic sounds

Morphology. The study of word structure

Syntax. The study of utterance/sentence structure

Text/discourse structure. The study of higher-level structures

Context and use. The influence of situation, participants and functions

Systemic relations in language.

It is difficult to arrive at a one-sentence definition of such a complex linguistic unit as the **word**. First of all, it is the main expressive unit of human language which ensures the thought-forming function of the language. It is also the basic nominative unit of language with the help of which the naming function of language is realized. As any linguistic sign the word is a level unit. In the

structure of language, it belongs to the upper stage of the morphological level. It is a unit of the sphere of 'language' and it exists only through its speech actualization. One of the most characteristic features of the word is its indivisibility of meaning. As any other linguistic unit the word is a bilateral(two sides) entity. It unites a concept and a sound image and thus have two sides – **the content and expression sides**: concept and sound form.

The word, as different from the morpheme, is a directly naming (nominative) unit of language: it names things and their relations. Since words are built up by morphemes, the shortest words consist of one explicit morpheme only.Cf.:*man; will; but; I;* etc.

The next higher level is the level of phrases (word-groups), or **phrasemic** level.

To level-forming phrase types belong combinations of two or more notional words. These combinations, like separate words, have a **nominative function**,but they represent the referent of nomination as a complicated phenomenon, be it a concrete thing, an action, aquality, or a whole situation. E.g., *apicturesque village; to start with a jerk; extremely difficult; the unexpected arrival of the chief.*

Notional phrases may be of a stable type and of a free type.The stable phrases (phraseological units)form the phraseological part of the lexicon and are studied by the phraseological division of lexicology. Free phrases are built up in the process of speech on the existing productive models, and a restudied in the lower division of syntax.

Above the phrasemic levellies the level of **sentences, or "proposemic" level**.

The peculiar character of the sentence ("proposeme")as a signemic unit of language consists in the fact that, naming a certain situation, or situational event, it expresses **predication**, i.e. shows the relation of the denoted event to reality. The sentence is produced by the speaker in the process of speech as a concrete, situationally bound

utterance. At the same time it enters the system of language by its syntactic pattern which as all the other lingual unit-types, has both syntagmatic and paradigmatic characteristics.

But the sentence is not the highest unit of language in the hierarchy of levels. Above the proposemic level there is still another one, namely,the level of **sentence-groups**, "**supra-sentential constructions" or "supra-proposemic".**

The supra-sentential construction is a combination of separate sentences forming **a textual unity.** Such combinations are subject to regular lingual patterning making them into syntactic elements. The syntactic process by which sentences are connected into textual unities is analysed under the heading of "cumulation". **Cumulation,** the same as formation of composite sentences, can be both **syndetic** (connected by a conjunction)**and asyndetic** (omission of conjunction).

In the typed text, the supra-sentential construction commonly coincides with the **paragraph**. However, unlike the paragraph, this type of lingual signeme is realised not only in a written text, but also in all the varieties of oral speech, since separate sentences, as a rule, are included in a **discourse.**

As the word is the main unit of traditional grammatical theory, it serves the basis of the distinction, which is frequently drawn between morphology and syntax. **Morphology** deals with the internal structure of words, peculiarities of their grammatical categories and their semantics while traditional **syntax** deals with the rules governing combination of words in sentences (and texts in modern linguistics). We can therefore say that the word is the main unit of morphology.

CHAPTER 2
GRAMMATICAL CATEGORY. GRAMMATICAL MEANING.GRAMMATICAL FORMS. MORPHEMIC STRUCTURE OF THE WORD

The general notions of grammar which determine the structure of language and find their expression in inflection and other devices are generally called **grammatical categories**. As is known, a grammatical category is generally represented by at least two grammatical forms, otherwise it cannot exist. A simple case of oppositions in pairs of grammatical forms will be found, for instance, between the Singular and the Plural in nouns, or between Active and Passive in verbs. **A grammatical category** is a unit of grammar based on a morphological opposition of grammatical meanings presented in grammatical forms. The two main types of meaning that are readily observed are the grammatical and the lexical meanings to be found in words and word-forms. The most general meanings rendered by language and expressed by systemic correlations of word-forms are interpreted in linguistics as grammatical meanings.

Grammatical meanings are very abstract, very general. Therefore the **grammatical form** is not confined to an individual word, but unites a whole class of words, so that each word of the class expresses the corresponding grammatical meaning together with its individual, concrete semantics. Grammatical meanings ranged in oppositions and presented in grammatical forms build **grammatical categories.**

Grammatical forms can be morphemes, synthetic forms, and grammatical word combinations, which are analytical forms. **Synthetic forms** unite both lexical and grammatical meanings in one word. In analytical forms there are two or more words in which at least one element is an auxiliary. The **auxiliary** is a constant element of an

analytical structure, which is devoid of lexical meaning (it renders grammatical meanings and is a purely grammatical element). Analytical structures must be differentiated from free syntactical word combinations. In free syntactical word combinations all the elements possess both lexical and grammatical meanings. E.g. *waiter* and *waitress*.

The word combines in its semantic structure two meanings – **lexical and grammatical**. Lexical meaning is the individual meaning of the word (e.g. *table*). Grammatical meaning is the meaning of the whole class or a subclass. For example, the class of nouns has the grammatical meaning of **thingness**. If we take a noun (*table*) we may say that it possesses its individual lexical meaning (it corresponds to a definite piece of furniture) and the grammatical meaning of thingness (this is the meaning of the whole class). Besides, the noun *'table'* has the grammatical meaning of a subclass – countable/uncountable. Any verb combines its individual lexical meaning with the grammatical meaning of **verbiality** – the ability to denote actions or states. An adjective combines its individual lexical meaning with the grammatical meaning of the whole class of adjectives – **qualitative** – the ability to denote qualities. Adverbs possess the grammatical meaning of **adverbiality** – the ability to denote quality of qualities.

There are some classes of words that are devoid of any lexical meaning and possess the grammatical meaning only. This can be explained by the fact that they have no referents in the objective reality. All function words belong to this group – **articles, particles, prepositions**,**conjunctions,** etc.

Types of grammatical meaning

The grammatical meaning may be **explicit** and **implicit**. The implicit grammatical meaning is not expressed formally (e.g. the word *table* does not contain any hints in its form as to it being inanimate).

The explicit grammatical meaning is always marked morphologically – it has its marker. In the word *cats* the grammatical meaning of plurality is shown in the form of the noun; *cat's* – here the grammatical meaning of possessiveness is shown by the form *'s*; *is asked* – shows the explicit grammatical meaning of passiveness.

The implicit grammatical meaning may be of two types – **general** and **dependent**. The general grammatical meaning is the meaning of the whole word-class, of a part of speech (e.g. nouns – the general grammatical meaning of thingness). The dependent grammatical meaning is the meaning of a subclass within the same part of speech. For instance, any verb possesses the dependent grammatical meaning of transitive/intransitive, terminativeness /nonterminativeness (perfect/imperfect), stative/non-stative (dynamic); nouns have the dependent grammatical meaning of countable/uncountable and animate/inanimate. The most important thing about the dependent grammatical meaning is that it influences the realization of grammatical categories restricting them to a subclass. Thus the dependent grammatical meaning of countable/uncountable influences the realization of the grammatical category of number as the number category is realized only within the subclass of countable nouns, the grammatical meaning of animate/inanimate influences the realization of the grammatical category of case, terminativeness /nonterminativeness-the category of tense, transitivity/intransitivity – the category of voice.

Grammatical categories

Grammatical categories are made up by the unity of identical grammatical meanings that have the same form (e.g. singular::plural). Due to dialectal unity of language and thought, grammatical categories correlate, on the one hand, with the conceptual categories and, on the other hand, with the objective reality.

It follows that we may define grammatical categories as references of the corresponding objective categories. For example, the objective category of **time** finds its representation in the grammatical category of **tense**, the objective category of quantity finds its representation in the grammatical category of number. Those grammatical categories that have references in the objective reality are called **referential grammatical categories**. However, not all of the grammatical categories have references in the objective reality, just a few of them do not correspond to anything in the objective reality. Such categories correlate only with conceptual matters: They are called **significative categories**. To this type belong the categories of **mood** and **degree**. Speaking about the grammatical category of mood we can say that it has modality as its conceptual correlate. It can be explained by the fact that it does not refer to anything in the objective reality – it expresses the speaker's attitude to what he says.

The notion of opposition

Any grammatical category must be represented by at least two grammatical forms (e.g. the grammatical category of number – singular and plural forms). The relation between two grammatical forms differing in meaning and external signs is called **opposition** – book::books (**unmarked** member/**marked** member). All grammatical categories find their realization through oppositions, e.g. the grammatical category of number is realized through the opposition singular::plural.

The basic method of the use of **oppositions** was elaborated by the Prague School linguists. In fact, the term 'opposition' should imply two contrasted elements, or forms, i.e. the opposition should be binary. The **binary privative opposition** is formed by a contrastive pair of members in which one member is characterised by the presence of a certain differential feature **("mark"),** while the other member is characterised by the absence of this feature. The principle of binary oppositions is

especially suitable for describing morphological categories where this kind of relations is more evident.For example, the tense-forms of the English verb may be divided into two halves: the forms of the **present plane** and those of the **past**. The former comprises the Present, Present Perfect, Present Continuous, Present Perfect Continuous, and the Future; the latter includes the Past, Past Perfect, Past Continuous, Past Perfect Continuous, and the Future-in-the-Past. The second half is characterized by specific formal features – either the suffix –ed (or its equivalents) appear, or a phonemic modification of the root. The member in which the feature is present is called the **"marked", or "strong**", or "**positive**" member, and is commonly designated by the symbol **+ (plus);** the member in which the feature is absent is called the "**unmarked", or "weak", or "negative" member**, and is commonly designated by the symbol **— (minus).**The past is thus a **marked member** of the opposition 'present::past' as against the present sub-system, which is the **unmarked member (**e.g. work: work**ed)**. The same may be applied to perfect and non-perfect forms, active and passive forms, singular and plural forms in class nouns, etc.

Taking all the above mentioned into consideration, we may define the grammatical category as the opposition between two mutually exclusive form-classes (a form-class is a set of words with the same explicit grammatical meaning).

Transposition is the use of a linguistic unit in an unusual environment or in the function that is not characteristic of it (*He is a lion*). In the sentence *He is coming tomorrow* the paradigmatic meaning of the continuous form is reduced and a new meaning appears – that of a future action. Transposition always results in the neutralization of a paradigmatic meaning. **Neutralization** is the reduction of the opposition to one of its members: custom :: customs – x :: customs; x :: spectacles.

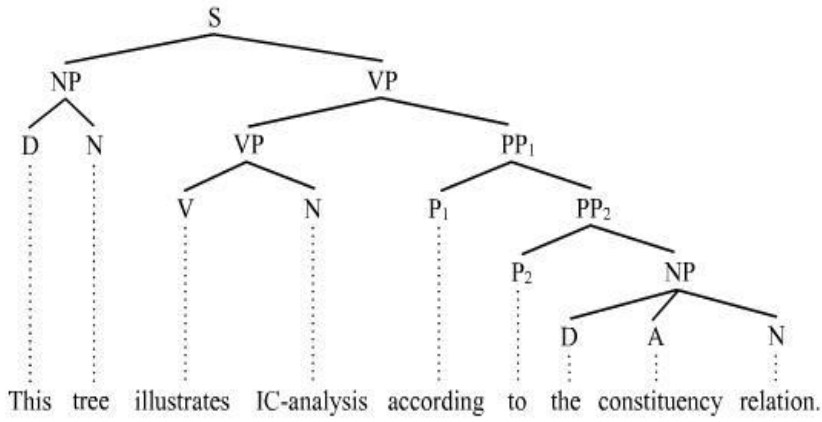
Modern methods of grammatical analysis

Modern methods of grammatical analysis are: a**. the method of immediate constituents(I.C. method), b. the oppositional, c. transformational and d. componential methods of analysis**.

a**. the method of immediate constituents(IC method),** introduced by American descriptivists, presents the sentence not as a linear succession of words but as a hierarchy of its ICs, as a 'structure of structures'. The aim of IC analysis is to discover and demonstrate the interrelationships of the words in a linguistic structure – the sentence or the word-combination.

The deeper is the layer of the phrase (the greater its number), the smaller is the phrase, and the smaller its ICs. The resulting units (elements) are called ultimate constituents (on the level of syntax they are words). If the sentence is complex, the largest ICs are the sentences included into the complex construction. the largest IC of a simple sentence are the NP (noun phrase) and the VP (verb phrase), and they are further divided if their structure allows.

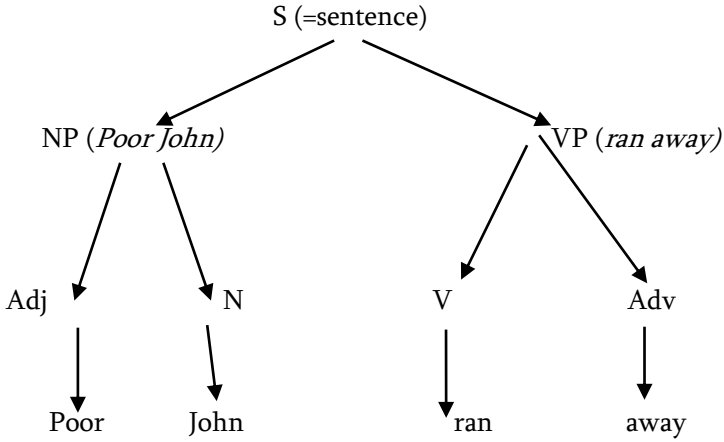
Table 2. IC analysis in phrase structure.



The analysis of the sentence *Poor John ran away* can be represented graphically in a number of ways:

a) we may use brackets: *(Poor/John) (ran/away)*

b) we may construct a tree diagram:



The tree-diagram is to be read as follows: the ultimate constituents(i.e. the smallest units-words) of the sentence are *poor, John, ran, away*. The two constructions *Poor John*and *ran away*are the immediate constituents of the highest-level construction, the sentence itself. If we turn the analytical ('candelabra') diagram upside down we get a new diagram which is called a 'derivation tree', because it is fit not only to analyze sentences, but shows how a sentence is derived, or generated, from the ICs.

b. The oppositional method of analysis was introduced by the Prague School. It is especially suitable for describing morphological categories. The most general case is that of the general system of tense-forms of the English verb. In the binary opposition *'present::past'* the second member is characterized by specific formal features – either the suffix *-ed,* or a phonemic modification of the root. The past is thus a

marked member of the opposition as against the present, which is unmarked (e.g. gradual oppositions (ternary) *fine – finer – the finest (*ternary); black :: grey :: dim :: vague :: clear :: bright :: radiant :: white (multi-element), which can be reduced to a binary privative opposition black :: white).

The obvious opposition within the category of voice is that between active and passive **(e.g. work : is worked);** the passive voice is the marked member of the opposition: its characteristic is the pattern *'be+Participle II'*, whereas the active voice is **unmarked.**

c. **The transformational method** of analysis was introduced by American descriptivists Z.Harris and N.Chomsky. It deals with the deep structure of the utterance which is the sphere of covert (concealed) syntactic relations, as opposed to the surface structure which is the sphere of overt relations that manifest themselves through the form of single sentences. For example: The structural potential of a linguistic unit can also be tested by this method:

a) my dog _ the dog of mine;

b) Susan's dog _ the dog of Susan _ the Susan dog;

c) John gave the book to me. _ John gave me the book _ The book was given to me.

d) John bought the book for me _ John bought me the book _ The book was bought for me

e) A number of people came _ People came _ but-*A number came_but - *The number of people came.

f) Bill fixed up a drink for John _ Bill fixed a drink up for John _ Bill fixed a drink for John up _ Bill fixed up John a drink.

d. The componential analysis belongs to the sphere of traditional grammar and essentially consists of 'parsing', i.e. sentence-member

analysis that is often based on the distributional qualities of different parts of speech, which sometimes leads to confusion.

E.g. ***My friend received a letter yesterday.*** **(A+S+P+O+AM)**

His task is to watch. (A+S+V(+?)

His task is to settle all matters. (A+S+V+?+A+O)

Words can be analyzed and described in terms of their semantic components, which usually come in pairs called semantic oppositions: "Up" and "Down," for example, are related in that they both describe vertical directions, one in one direction (call it "plus") and the other in the other (call it "minus"). There are several variations on these pairs, depending on how they related to each other and how they can be used with other words.

To sum it up, each level has its own system. Therefore, language is regarded as **a system of systems**. The level units are built up in the same way and that is why the units of a lower level serve the building material for the units of a higher level. This similarity and likeness of organization of linguistic units is called **isomorphism**. This is how language works – a small number of elements at one level can enter into thousands of different combinations to form units at the other level.

Morphemic Structure of the Word

Morphology is the section of grammar that studies the word form. In this study it deals with such basic notions as 'the word', 'the morpheme', 'the morph', 'the allomorph', 'the grammatical form and category of the word', as well as its 'grammatical meaning', and also 'the paradigm', 'the oppositional relations and the functional relations of grammatical forms'.

Morphology: **Rules for word formation (e.g.,** ***dog*** **->*****dogs;*** ***walk*** **->*****walking*****)**

If *boof* were a word, what kind would *boofable* be *(noun, verb, adjective, etc.)?*

You are applying your knowledge of *morphological rules– rules for forming words out of smaller units called morphemes*.

Morpheme: **The smallest unit of language that has meaning.**

Some examples – A word in all cases, but not always a morpheme:

Dog---dogs

Able----unable

Believe----believable----unbelievable

The notion of the morpheme. Types of morphemes. Morphs and allomorphs. One of the most widely used definitions of the morpheme is like this: '**The morpheme** is the smallest linear meaningful unit having a sound expression'. However, there are other definitions:

L.Bloomfield (1994:164): The morpheme is 'a linguistic form which bears no partial resemblance to any other form'.B. De Courtenay: The morpheme is a generalized name for linear components of the word, i.e. the root and affixes.Prof. A.I.Smirnitsky: The morpheme is the smallest language unit possessing essential features of language, i.e. having both external (sound) and internal (notional) aspects.

Morphemes may include **roots and affixes.** Hence, the main types of morphemes are the root morpheme and the affix morpheme. There also exists the concept of the zero morpheme for the word-forms that have no ending but are capable of taking one in the other forms of the same category, which is not quite true for English.

As for the **affix morpheme,** it may include either a prefix or a suffix, or both. Since prefixes and many suffixes in English are used for word-building, they are not considered in theoretical grammar. It deals only with word-changing morphemes, sometimes called **auxiliary or functional** morphemes.

An allomorph is a variant of a morpheme which occurs in certain environments. Thus a morpheme is a group of one or more allomorphs, or morphs.

The allomorphs of a certain morpheme may coincide absolutely in sound form, e.g. the root morpheme in 'fresh', 'refreshment', 'freshen', the suffixes in 'speaker', 'actor', the adverbial suffix in 'greatly', 'early'. However, very often allomorphs are not absolutely identical, e.g. the root morpheme in 'come-came', 'man-men', the suffixes in 'walked', 'dreamed', 'loaded'.

The grammatical form of the word. Synthetical and analytical forms

The grammatical form of the word is determined by its formal features conveying some grammatical meaning. The formal feature (flexion, function word, etc.) is the 'exponent' of the form, or the grammatical 'formant', the grammatical form proper being materialized by the unification of the stem with the formant in the composition of a certain paradigmatic row. Therefore, the grammatical form unites a whole class of words, each expressing a corresponding general meaning in the framework of its own concrete meaning (e.g. the plural form of nouns: books-dogs-cases-men-oxen-data-radii, etc.). Thus the grammatical form of the word reflects its division according to the expression of a certain grammatical meaning.

Synthetic forms are those which materialize the grammatical meaning through the inner morphemic composition of the word. **Analytical forms,** as opposed to synthetic ones, are defined as those which materialize the grammatical meaning by combining the 'substance' word with the 'function' word.

As mentioned above, **the grammatical category** is a combination of two or more grammatical forms opposed or correlated by their **grammatical meaning**. A certain grammatical meaning is fixed in a

certain set of forms. The ordered set of grammatical forms expressing a categorial function constitutes a paradigm. No grammatical category can exist without permanent formal features. Any grammatical category must include as many as two contrasted forms, but their number may be greater. For instance, there are three tense forms – Present, Past and Future, four aspect forms – Simple, Perfect, Continuous, Perfect Continuous, but there are only two number forms of nouns, two voices, etc.

The grammatical meaning in morphology is conveyed by means of:

Flexion, i.e. a word-changing formant which may be outer (streets, approached) or inner (foot-feet, find-found).

Suppletive word forms (to be-am-was, good-better-best).

Analytical forms (is coming, has asked).

The most general meanings conveyed by language and finding expression in the systemic, regular correlation of forms, are thought of as categorial grammatical meanings. Therefore, we may speak of the **categorial grammatical meanings** of number and case in nouns; person, number, tense, aspect, voice and mood in verbs, etc. Non-categorial grammatical meanings are those which do not occur in oppositions,e.g. the grammatical meanings of collectiveness in nouns, qualitativeness in adjectives, or transitiveness in verbs, etc.

An orderly combination of grammatical forms expressing a certain categorial function (or meaning) constitutes a **grammatical paradigm**. Consequently, a grammatical category is built up as a combination of respective paradigms (e.g. the category of number in nouns, the category of tense in verbs, etc.).

Polysemy, synonymy and homonymy in morphology.

Morphological polysemy implies representations of a word as different parts of speech, e.g. the word 'but' may function as a

conjunction (*last, but not least*), a preposition (*there was nothing but firelight*), a restrictive adverb (*those words were but excuses*), a relative pronoun *(there are none but do much the same*), a noun in the singular and plural (*that was a large but; his repeated buts are really trying).*

Morphological synonymy reflects a variety of representations by different parts of speech for the same meaning, e.g. *due to (adjective), thanks to (noun), because of (preposition),* etc.

Morphological homonymy may be described as phonetic equivalents with different grammatical functions, e.g. *He looks – her looks; they wanted – the job wanted; smoking is harmful – a smoking man; you read – we saw you*, etc.

The problems of **functional morphology** are many, the main are:

a. the functions of 'formal' morphemes (affixes) and allomorphs;

b. the functional correlation, i.e. connection of phenomena differing in certain features but united through others *(import-to import, must-should*);

c. the functional classification of words as parts of speech.

The morphological system of language reveals its properties through the **morphemic structure** of words. It follows from this that morphology as part of grammatical theory faces the two segmental units: **the morpheme** and **the word**. But, as we have already pointed out, the morpheme is not identified otherwise than part of the word; the functions of the morpheme are affected only as the corresponding constituent functions of the word as a whole.

Accidence (morphology) is the section of grammar that studies the word form. In this study it deals with such basic notions as 'the word', 'the morpheme', 'the morph', 'the allomorph', 'the grammatical form and category of the word', as well as its 'grammatical meaning', and also 'the paradigm', 'the oppositional relations and the functional relations of grammatical forms'.

For instance, the form of the verbal past tense is built up by means of the dental grammatical suffix: train-*ed* [-d]; publish-*ed* [-t]; meditat-*ed* [-id].

Within the framework of different linguistic trends and theories **the word** is defined as the minimal potential sentence, the minimal free linguistic form, the elementary component of the sentence, the articulate sound-symbol, the grammatically arranged combination of sound with meaning, the meaningfully integral and immediately identifiable lingual unit, the uninterrupted string of morphemes, etc.,

The notional one-stem word and the morpheme should be described as the opposing polar phenomena among the meaningful segments of language; it is these elements that can be defined by their formal and functional features most precisely and unambiguously. As for **functional words,** they occupy intermediary positions between these poles, and their very intermediary status is gradational. In particular, the variability of their status is expressed in the fact that some of them can be used in an isolated response position (for instance, words of affirmation and negation, interrogative words, demonstrative words, etc.), while others cannot (such as prepositions or conjunctions).

Overt morphemes are genuine, explicit morphemes building up words. **The covert morpheme** is identified as a contrastive absence of morpheme expressing a certain function. e.g. **Clock** has two morph. Root and 0-singualar. e.g. the word-form ***clocks*** consists of **two overt morphemes**: one lexical **(root**) and one grammatical expressing the plural.

On the basis of ***grammatical alternation,*** **"additive" morphemes and "replacive"** morphemes are distinguished.Interpreted as additive morphemes are outer **grammatical suffixes. Suprasegmental unities** are functionally connected not with morphemes, but with larger elements

of language: words, word-groups, sentences, supra-sentential constructions.

The morphemic composition of modern English words has a wide range of varieties; in the lexicon of everyday speech the preferable morphemic types of stems are **root-stems** (one-root stems or two-root stems) and **one-affix stems**. With grammatically changeable words, these stems take one grammatical suffix.

Thus, the abstract complete morphemic model of the common English word is the following: prefix + root + lexical suffix+grammatical suffix.

The syntagmatic connections of the morphemes within the model form two types of hierarchical structure. The first is characterised by the original prefix stem *(e.g.* prefabricated), the second is characterised by the original suffix stem *(e.g.* inheritors). If we use the symbols **St** for stem, **R** for root, **Pr** for prefix, **L** for lexical suffix, **Gr** for grammatical suffix, and, besides, employ three graphical symbols of hierarchical grouping — braces, brackets, and parentheses, then the two morphemic word-structures can be presented as follows:

W_1= {[Pr + (R + L)] +Gr}; W_2 = {[(Pr + R) +L] + Gr}

In the morphemic composition of more complicated words these model-types form different combinations.

Summing up, we may point out some of the properties of the morpheme and the word which are fundamental from the point of view of their systemic status and therefore require detailed investigations and descriptions.

CHAPTER 3
GRAMMATICAL CLASSES OF WORDS AND THEIR PROBLEMS

The words of language, depending on various formal and semantic features, are divided into **grammatically relevant sets or classes.**The whole lexicon of the English language, like the one of all Indo-European languages, is divided into certain lexico-grammatical classes traditionally called 'parts of speech' or word classes**.** The existence of such classes is not doubted by any linguists though they might have different points of view as to their interpretation. Classification of the parts of speech is still a matter of dispute; linguists' opinions differ concerning the number and the names of the parts of speech.

The main principles of word division into certain groups are lexical meaning, morphological form and syntactic functioning. Still, some classifications are based on some of the three features, for any of them may coincide neglecting the strict logical rules.

Words on the semantic (meaningful) level of classification are divided into notional and functional.

To the notional parts of speech of the English language belong the noun, the adjective, the numeral, the pronoun, the verb and the adverb.

Contrasted against the notional parts of speech are words of incomplete nominative meaning and non-self-dependent, mediatory functions in the sentence. These are functional parts of speech. To the basic **functional** series of words in English belong **the article, the preposition, the conjunction, the particle, the modal word, the interjection.**

From the point of view of their functional characteristics lexical units may belong to different lexico-grammatical classes. This kind of

syntactic transition is called **conversion** and represents a widespread phenomenon as one of the most productive and economical means of syntactic transpositions. E.g. *She used to comb her hair lovingly. – Here is your comb. They lived up north a few years ago. – You must be ready to take all these ups and downs easy.*

The notional domain of the lexicon is divided into four generalizing classes. The four notional parts of speech defined as the words with a self-dependent denotational-naming function, are the **noun** (substantially represented denotations), **the verb** (processually represented denotations), the **adjective** (feature-represented denotations of the substantial appurtenance) and **the adverb** (feature-represented denotations of the non-substantial appurtenance).

However, the typical functional positions of these classes may be occupied by representatives of the functional classes by virtue of substitution, that is why some scholars speak of additional notional subclasses.

The parts of speech are **classes of words**, all the members of these classes having certain characteristics in common, which distinguish them from the members of other classes. The problem of word classification into parts of speech still remains one of the most controversial problems in modern linguistics. The attitude of grammarians with regard to parts of speech and the basis of their classification varied a good deal at different times. Only in English grammarians have been vacillating between 3 and 13 parts of speech.

There are four approaches to the problem:

Classical (logical-inflectional)

Functional

Distributional

Complex

In linguistics there have been a number of attempts to build up such a classification of the parts of speech (lexico-grammatical classes) that would meet the main requirement of a logical classification, i.e. would be based on a single principle.

The **classical** parts of speech theory goes back to ancient times. It is based on Latin grammar. According to the Latin classification of the parts of speech all words were divided into **declinable**(ბრუნვადი) and **indeclinable** (უბრუნველი) parts of speech. This system was reproduced in the earliest English grammars. The first of these groups, declinable words, included nouns, pronouns, verbs and participles, the second – indeclinable words – adverbs, prepositions, conjunctions and interjections.

A new approach to the problem was introduced in the XIX century by **Henry Sweet**. He took into account the peculiarities of the English language. This approach may be defined as **functional**. He resorted to the functional features of words and singled out nominative units and particles. To **nominative parts** of speech belonged **noun-words** (noun, noun-pronoun, noun-numeral, infinitive, gerund), **adjective-words** (adjective, adjective-pronoun, adjective-numeral, participles), **verb** (finite verb, verbals – gerund, infinitive, participles), while adverb, preposition, conjunction and interjection belonged to the **group of particles**. However, though the criterion for classification was functional, Henry Sweet failed to break the tradition and classified words into those having morphological forms and lacking morphological forms, in other words, **declinable and indeclinable**.

A **distributional** approachto the parts to the parts of speech classification can be illustrated by the classification introduced by **Charles Frie**s. He wanted to avoid the traditional terminology and establish a classification of words based on distributive analysis, that is, the ability of words to combine with other words of different types. At

the same time, the lexical meaning of words was not taken into account. According to Charles Fries, the words in such sentences as *1. Woggles ugged diggles; 2. Uggs woggled diggs; and 3. Woggs diggled uggles* are quite evident structural signals, their position and combinability are enough to classify them into three word-classes. In this way, he introduced four major classes of words and 15 form-classes.

All the classifications mentioned above appear to be one-sided because parts of speech are discriminated on the basis of only one aspect of the word: either its meaning or its form, or its function.

In modern linguistics, word classes (i.e. parts of speech) are discriminated according to three criteria: **semantic, formal and functional**. This approach may be defined as complex. **The semantic** criterion presupposes the grammatical meaning of the whole class of words (general grammatical meaning). **The formal** criterion reveals paradigmatic properties: relevant grammatical categories, the form of the words, their specific inflectional and derivational features. **The functional** criterion concerns the syntactic function of words in the sentence and their combinability. Thus, when characterizing any part of speech we are to describe: **a) its semantics; b) its morphological features; c) its syntactic peculiarities.**

The linguistic evidence drawn from our grammatical study makes it possible to divide all the words of the language into: a. those denoting things, objects, notions, qualities, etc. – words with the corresponding references in the objective reality **notional words**. b. those having no references of their own in the objective reality; most of them are used only as grammatical means to form up and frame utterances **function words, or grammatical words.**

It is commonly recognized that the **notional** parts of speech are nouns, pronouns, numerals, verbs, adjectives, adverbs; the **functional**

parts of speech are articles, particles, prepositions, conjunctions and modal words.

The division of language units into notion and function words reveals the interrelation of lexical and grammatical types of meaning. In **notional** words, the lexical meaning is predominant. In **function** words, the grammatical meaning dominates over the lexical one. However, in actual speech the border line between notional and function words is not always clear-cut. Some notional words develop the meanings peculiar to function words - e.g. semi-notional words – *to turn, to get, etc.*

Notional words constitute the bulk of the existing word stock while function words constitute a smaller group of words. Although the number of function words is limited (there are only about **50** of them in Modern English), they are the most frequently used units.

The problem of word classification into word classes / parts of speech/ is far from being solved. Some words cannot find their proper place. The most striking example here is the class of adverbs. Some language analysts call it *a ragbag, a dustbin* (Frank Palmer). It can be explained by the fact that to the class of adverbs belong those words that cannot find their place anywhere else. At the same time, there are no grounds for grouping them together either. Compare: *perfectly (She speaks English perfectly)* and *again (He is here again)*. Examples are numerous (all temporals). There are some words that do not belong anywhere - e.g. *after all,anyway, actually, in fact*. Look at these sentences:

- *He ran **fast** so he wouldn't be late*. (describes how he ran...adverb)
- *They will **fast** to raise money for UNICEF*. (tells about an action...verb)
- *Their **fast** lasted for three days*. (names a thing...noun)

General characteristics of the word classes (parts of speech); meaning — form — function

The noun

The features of **the noun** within the identification triad "meaning — form — function" are, correspondingly, the following:

1) The categorial meaning of substance ("**thingness**");

2) The changeable forms of **number and case;** the specific suffix forms of derivation (prefixes in English do not discriminate parts of speech as such);

3) The **substantive** functions in the sentence (subject, object, substantival predicative); prepositional connections; modification by an adjective.

A noun can be:

Common: shop, school

Singular/Plural: boy/ boys

Proper: Bob, Mr Smith

Collective: crowd, swarm, flock

Compound: matchbox

Uncountable:water, flour

The pronoun

The pronoun is a part of speech, which points out objects and their qualities without naming them. Therefore, the pronoun possesses a highly generalized meaning that seldom materializes outside of the context.

The features of the pronoun:

1) The categorial meaning of indication (deixis);

2) The narrow sets of various statuses with the corresponding formal properties of category

changeability and word-building;

3) The substantival and adjectival functions for different sets.

The semantic classification of pronouns includes such subclasses as personal, possessive, demonstrative, interrogative, reciprocal, relative, indefinite, negative, conjunctive, defining and reflexive pronouns.

The deictic, or indicatory, function of the pronoun is inherent in many subclasses except, maybe, interrogative, indefinite and negative**. The anaphoric** function, or the function of connecting with the preceding sentence or clause, is characteristic of relative and conjunctive pronouns though it may be occasionally performed by the other subclasses.

Syntactic peculiarities of pronouns are accounted for by the fact that the pronoun is very close in its syntactic functions to those of the noun and the adjective. Hence, the main functions it performs are the ones of the subject, the predicative, the object, and the attribute.

The pronoun seems to have the grammatical categories of **person, gender** (personal and possessive pronouns), **case** (personal, and the relative and interrogative WHO – the nominative and objective cases; indefinite, reciprocal and negative – the common and genitive cases) and **number** (demonstrative, and the defining OTHER).

The numeral

The numeral is a part of speech, which indicates number or the order of persons and things in a series. Numerals are united by their semantics only. They have neither morphologic nor syntactic features. All numerals are subdivided into **cardinal and ordinal.** Both subclasses can perform equally well the functions peculiar of nouns and adjectives. Numerals possess a specific word-building system: suffixes –teen, -ty, -th. Some of them are easily substantivized and treated as nouns.

The features of the numeral:

1) the categorial meaning of number (**cardinal and ordinal);**

2) the narrow set of simple numerals; the specific forms of composition for compound numerals; the specific suffixal forms of derivation for ordinal numerals;

3) the functions of numerical attribute and numerical substantive.

The adjective.

The adjective is a part of speech expressing a quality of a substance. The grammatical meaning of the adjective lies in the fact that this part of speech names a quality possessing certain stability unlike Participle I, for example: a fast train – an approaching train.

The features of the adjective:

1) the categorial meaning of **property (qualitative and relative);**

2) the forms of the **degrees of comparison** (for qualitative adjectives); **the specific suffixal forms of derivation;**

3) **adjectival functions** in the sentence **(attribute to a noun, adjectival predicative).**

According to their meanings and grammatical characteristics, adjectives fall under two large classes: (1) **qualitative adjectives, (2) relative adjectives**. Qualitative adjectives denote qualities of a substance directly, not through its relation to another substance, as size, shape, colour, physical and mental qualities, qualities of general estimation: little, large, high, soft, warm, white, important, etc. Relative adjectives denote qualities of a substance through their relation to materials (silken, woollen, wooden, metallic), to place (Italian, Asian), to time (monthly, weekly), to some action (preparatory, educational).

Kinds of **adjectives**

- Demonstrative -**this,that**
- Distributive-**each, every**
- Interrogative-**which, what**
- Possessive-**my, your**

- Qualitative-**fat, thin**
- Quantitative-**some, a few**
- Comparative-**bigger, biggest**

Most adjectives have **degrees of comparison**: the comparative degree and the superlative degree. In a sentence the adjective may be used as an attribute or as a predicative, the former in preposition being more characteristic. **Substantivized** adjectives have acquired some or all of the characteristics of the noun, but their adjectival origin is still generally felt. They may be wholly substantivized (a native, the natives, a native's hut, valuables, sweets, the Georgians) and partially substantivized (the rich, the poor, the unemployed, the English, the good, the evil).

The verb

The verb is a part of speech which denotes an action.The grammatical meaning of action is understood widely. It is not only activities proper (He wrote a letter) but both a state (He will soon recover) and just an indication of the fact that the given object exists or belongs to a certain class of objects or persons (A chair is a piece of furniture). It is important that the verb conveys the feature as an action within some period of time, however unlimited.

Features of the verb

1) the categorial meaning of process (presented in the two upper series of forms, respectively, as finite process and non-finite process);

2) the forms of the verbal categories of person, number, tense, aspect, voice, mood; the opposition of the finite and non-finite forms;

3) the function of the finite predicate for the finite verb; the mixed verbal — other than verbal functions for the non-finite verb.

Semantically and grammatically English verbs are grouped as transitive **(to give),** intransitive **(to sleep),** regular, irregular, mixed,

notional, auxiliary, link (to grow, to turn, to look), terminative (სრული) (to come), non-terminative(უსრულო) (to live) and verbs of double lexical (aspect) character (to see).

The valency of verbs is their combinability. For example, all verbs are characterized by their subordination to the subject of a sentence; transitive verbs are usually combined with an object; auxiliary and link verbs need a notional predicative, etc.

The verb has the grammatical **categories** of person, number, tense, aspect, voice, and mood.

In Modern English there are but few forms indicating person and number in the synthetic forms of the verb.

As for the functional and semantic fields of state and modality, they may include a central group of verbs expressing these concepts both lexically and functionally, and a peripheral group of other parts of speech used in similar positions.

There are three verbals in English: **the participle, the gerund and the infinitive.**

The characteristic traits of the **verbals** are as follows:

1. They have a double nature, nominal and verbal. The participle combines the characteristics of a verb with those of an adjective; the gerund and the infinitive combine the characteristics of a verb with those of a noun.

2. The tense distinctions of the verbals are not absolute, but relative.

3. All the verbals can form predicative constructions.

The adverb

The adverb is a part of speech, which expresses some circumstances that attend an action or state.

The features of the adverb:

1) the categorial meaning of the secondary property, i.e. the property of process or another property;

2) the forms of the degrees of comparison for qualitative adverbs; the specific suffixal forms of derivation;

3) the functions of various adverbial modifiers.

The grammatical meaning of the adverb is pointing out some characteristic features of an action or a quality.

According to their meanings adverbs fall under several groups: adverbs of time (today, soon, etc.);adverbs of repetition or frequency (often, seldom, over, etc.);adverbs of place and direction (inside, backward, etc.);adverbs of cause and consequence (therefore, accordingly, etc.);adverbs of manner (kindly, hard, etc.);adverbs of degree, measure and quantity (very, almost, once, etc.)

Three groups of adverbs stand aside: interrogative (where, when, why, how), relative and conjunctive adverbs, the former being used in special questions and the latter two to introduce subordinate clauses.

Some adverbs are homonymous with prepositions, conjunctions (before, after, since) and words of the category of state.

Some adverbs have degrees of comparison. This grammatical category finds its morphological expression only in a limited group of adverbs, namely, the suppletive forms of 'well', 'badly', 'much', 'little', and the degrees of comparison of the adverbs 'fast', 'near', 'hard'. In other cases the forms are analytical (wisely - more wisely - most wisely). The adverb 'far' has a peculiar form.

The syntagmatics of the adverb is that of an adverbial modifier (said softly, nice in a way), and sometimes of an attribute (the then president).

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

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

The *article* expresses the specific limitation of the substantive functions.

The *preposition* expresses the dependencies and interdependences of substantive referents.

The *conjunction* expresses connections of phenomena.

The *particle* unites the functional words of specifying and limiting meaning.

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

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

CHAPTER 4
THE NOUN

General characteristics

The noun is the central lexical unit of language. It is the main nominative unit of speech. As any other part of speech, the noun can be characterised by three criteria: **semantic (the meaning), morphological (the form and grammatical categories) and syntactical (functions, distribution).**

Semantic features of the noun. The noun possesses the grammatical meaning of thingness, substantiality. According to different principles of classification nouns fall into several subclasses:

According to the type of **nomination** they may be **proper and common**;

According to the form of **existence** they may be **animate and inanimate**. Animate nouns in their turn fall into human and non-human.

According to their **quantitative** structure, nouns can be **countable and uncountable.**

This set of subclasses cannot be put together into one table because of the different principles of classification.

Morphological features of the noun. In accordance with the morphological structure of the stems all nouns can be classified into: simple, derived (stem + affix, affix + stem – *thingness*); compound (stem+ stem – *armchair*) and composite (the Hague). The noun has morphological categories of number and case. Some scholars admit the existence of the category of gender.

Syntactic features of the noun. The noun can be used in the sentence in all syntactic functions but predicate. Speaking about noun combinability, we can say that it can go into right-hand and left-hand

connections with practically all parts of speech. That is why practically all parts of speech but the verb can act as noun determiners. However, the most common noun determiners are considered to be articles, pronouns, numerals, adjectives and nouns themselves in the common and genitive case.

We may speak of three grammatical categories of the noun.

1. The category of number. **Nouns that can be counted have two numbers: singularand plural.**

2. The category of case is highly disputable. Yet, many scholars assume that nouns denoting living beings (and some nouns denoting lifeless things) have two case forms: the common case and the genitive (or possessive) case.

3. It is doubtful whether the grammatical category of gender exists in Modern English for it is hardly ever expressed by means of grammatical forms. There is practically one gender-forming suffix in Modern English, the suffix –ess, expressing feminine gender. It is not widely used (poet – poetess, actor – actress).

The category of **number.** (a)The basic meaning of the category of number is the opposition of the **singularity and the plurality** of objects. The plurality implies an amount exceeding one. The singular number is conveyed by the basic form i.e. by the form which has no endings and which coincides with the stem. The plural number is graphically conveyed by the –s formant that materializes itself as a number of allomorphs (/s/, /z/, /iz/) depending on the character of the final sound of the stem (*books, cats, dogs, potatoes, classes, bushes*). However, there are other, unproductive means of forming the plural form (*children, nuclei, phenomena, feet, mice*). And finally, there are some nouns that do not possess the formal features of either plural or singular number *(sheep, deer, swine, news, scissors, trousers*).

(b) Of the two number forms, the singular number is compulsory for all nouns, except for pluralia tantum (nouns that are used only in plural: *glasses, scissors,* etc.). The reason for this fact is that the singular number is capable of conveying not only the availability of quantity (one) but also the absence of quantitative measurements for uncountables. The plural form always conveys some quantitative relationship; it is due to this fact that the plural number is capable of conveying the concretion of an abstract notion: a noun denoting a generalized feature (a quality or a feeling) may also convey manifestations, which are occasional (attentions, joys).

The grammatical category of number is the linguistic representation of the objective category of quantity. The number category is realized through the opposition of two form-classes: the plural form :: the singular form. The category of number in English is restricted in its realization because of the dependent implicit grammatical meaning of countableness/uncountableness. The number category is realized only within subclass of countable nouns.The grammatical meaning of number may not coincide with the **notional quantity**: the noun in the singular does not necessarily denote one object while the plural form may be used to denote one object consisting of several parts. The singular form may denote:

oneness (individual separate object – *a cat*);

generalization (the meaning of the whole class – *The cat is a domestic animal*);

uncountableness - *money, milk*).

The **plural** form may denote:

The existence of several objects (*cats*);

The inner discreteness (pluralia tantum, *jeans*).

To sum it up, all nouns may be subdivided into three groups:

The nouns in which the opposition of explicit **discreteness/indiscreteness** is expressed: *cat::cats*. There are two groups of nouns in which this opposition is not expressed explicitly but is revealed by syntactical and lexical correlation in the context:

Singularia tantum. It covers different groups of nouns: proper names, abstract nouns, material nouns, collective nouns;

Pluralia tantum. It covers the names of objects consisting of several parts (jeans), names of sciences (mathematics), names of diseases, games, etc.

The nouns with homogenous number forms. The number opposition here is not expressed formally but is revealed only lexically and syntactically in the context: e.g. *Look! A sheep is eating grass. Look! The sheep are eating grass*.

The category of case.

Case is the immanent morphological category of the noun manifested in the forms of noun declension and showing the relations of the nounal referent to other objects and phenomena. Thus, the case form of the noun, or contractedly its "case" (in the narrow sense of the word), is a morphological-declensional form.

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

Most scholars usually point to the fact that the genitive case is mainly used with the nouns of person (*Jim's book, Mary's brother*) but it may be occasionally used with the nouns denoting lifeless things,

namely: periods of time, distance, and price (*a week's notice, a mile's distance, a dollar's worth of sugar*). It may also occur, though seldom, with the nouns which are situationally definite (*The car's front door was open*).

The scope of meanings rendered by the Genitive Case is the following :

Possessive Genitive : *Mary's father – Mary has a father*,

Subjective Genitive: *The doctor's arrival – The doctor has arrived,*

Objective Genitive : *The man's release – The man was released,*

Adverbial Genitive : *Two hour's work – X worked for two hours,*

Equation Genitive : a *mile's distance – the distance is a mile,*

Genitive of destination: *children's books – books for children*,

Mixed Group: *yesterday's paper*

Case Grammar. Ch.Fillmore introduced syntactic-semantic classification of cases. They show relations in the so-called **deep structure of the sentence**. According to him, verbs may stand to different relations to nouns. There are 6 cases:

Agentive Case (A) *John opened the door;*

Instrumental case (I) *The key opened the door; John used the key to open the door;*

Dative Case (D) *John believed that he would win* (the case of the animate being affected by the state of action identified by the verb);

Factitive Case (F) *The key was damaged* (the result of the action or state identified by the verb);

Locative Case (L) *Chicago is windy*;

Objective case (O) *John stole the book*.

The Problem of Gender in English

Gender plays a relatively minor part in the grammar of English by comparison with its role in many other languages. There is no gender

concord, and the reference of the pronouns *he, she, it* is very largely determined by what is sometimes referred to as 'natural' gender for English, it depends upon the classification of persons and objects as male, female or inanimate. Thus, the recognition of gender as a grammatical category is logically independent of any particular semantic association.

According to some language analysts (B.Ilyish, F.Palmer), nouns have no category of gender in Modern English. The words *husband* and *wife* do not show any difference in their forms due to peculiarities of their lexical meaning. The difference between such nouns as *actor* and *actress* is a purely **lexical** one. In other words, the category of sex should not be confused with the category of gender, because sex is an objective biological category and gender is social. It correlates with gender only when sex differences of living beings are manifested in the language grammatically (e.g. *tiger – tigress*). The existence of the category of gender in Modern English can be proved by the correlation of nouns with personal pronouns of the third person (*he, she, it*). Accordingly, there are three genders in English: the **neuter** (non-person) gender, the **masculine** gender, the **feminine** gender.

CHAPTER 5
NOUN: ARTICLE DETERMINATION

It is almost impossible to discuss the noun phrase without referring at some stage to the class of words known as **determiners**, since more often than not a noun will occur with one or more words from this grammatical class. Determiners include articles (a/an, the) and quantifiers.

Determiners consist of a relatively small number of mainly grammatical items that change very little and tend to serve only one specialised function in a sentence. Unlike verbs, nouns and adjectives as word classes, it is difficult, if not impossible, to add any new words to the class of determiners and for this reason it is called a **closed set.**

What kind of words make up this limited set? The most instantly recognisable is probably the **articles** namely *the, a/an*. In addition, there are others like: *that, those, every, some, several, all, much, both, no*, which can occupy the space before a noun.

The category of article determination shows the relations of the referent of the noun to the other referents of the same class. The article is *a determiner*, a unit which determines a noun in communicative collocation, but unlike other determiners (the *lexical means of determination*: *this, that, some, any,very, certain, kind of,* etc.), it is so general, that it has become a grammatical means of determination in modern English. When no lexical determiner is used, a noun is obligatorily modified either by a definite article '*the'*, or an indefinite article *'a/an'*, or by a meaningful absence of such, otherwise defined as a "zero article".

One of the peculiarity of the article is that, in the **absence of a determiner**, the use of the article with the noun is obligatory, in so far

as the cases of non-use of the article are subject to no less definite rules than the use of it.

The article is a **purely auxiliary** element of a special grammatical form of the noun which functions as a component of a definite morphological category, or it is a separate word.

The **definite article** ***the*** and the **indefinite article** ***a/an,*** at once discloses not two, but **three meaningful characterisations** of the noun referent achieved by their correlative functioning, namely: one rendered by the definite article, one rendered by the indefinite article, and one rendered by the **absence (or non-use**) of the article.

The **definite** article expresses the identification or individualisation of the referent of the noun: the use of this article shows that the object denoted is taken in its **concrete, individual quality.** This meaning can be brought to explicit exposition by a substitution test. The test consists in replacing the article used in a construction by a **demonstrative word**, e.g. a demonstrative determiner, without causing a principal change in the general implication of the construction.

E.g. *But look at the apple-tree!→ But look at this apple-tree! The town lay still in the Indian summer sun.—» That town lay still in the Indian summer sun. The water is horribly hot.→This water is horribly hot. It's the girls who are to blame.—» It's those girls who are to blame.*

What is meant by definite here can best be understood by looking at some examples containing the definite article. 1. ***The President of France*** *has appointed a new prime minister. 2.Where did you put* ***the key****?*

The indicates that the head of the NP is considered **sufficient in the context to identify the referent.**

The **indefinite article**, as different from the definite article, is commonly interpreted as referring the object denoted by the noun to a certain class of similar objects; in other words, the indefinite article

expresses a classifying generalisation of the noun referent, or takes it in a relatively general sense.

We passed ***a*** *water-mill. → We passed* ***a certain*** *water-mill. It is* ***a*** *very young country, isn't it? → It is* ***a*** *very young* ***kind of*** *country, isn't it? What* ***an*** *arrangement! → What* ***sort of*** *arrangement! This child is* ***a*** *positive nightmare. → This child is positively* ***like a*** *nightmare.*

The **indefinite article** does not indicate that the description in the head is defining. The description is not presented as unique in the context. Take these examples:

3. A cabinet minister *has been arrested.*

4. I'll give you ***a key****.*

.. ***A cabinet*** contains a number of ministers, and if I don't know which one of them got arrested I will use ***a*** rather than ***the***.

As for the various uses of nouns **without an article**, from the semantic point of view they all should be divided into two types. In the first place, there are uses where the articles are **deliberately omitted** out of stylistic considerations. We see such uses, for instance, in **telegraphic speech, in titles and headlines, in various notices**. *E.g.:* ***Telegram*** *received room reserved for* ***week end.*** *(The text of a telegram.)* ***Conference*** *adjourned until further notice. (The text of an announcement.)* ***Big red bus*** *rushes food to* ***strikers.*** *(The title of a newspaper article.)*

The purposeful elliptical omission of the article in cases like that is quite obvious, and the omitted articles may easily be restored in the constructions in the simplest "back-directed" refilling procedures. *E.g.:****The telegram*** *is received,* ***a room*** *is reserved for* ***the week-end****. ...→****The conference*** *is adjourned until further notice. ...→****A big red bus*** *rushes food to* ***the strikers****.*

Alongside of free elliptical constructions, there are cases of the **semantically unspecified** non-use of the article in various combinations of fixed type, such as **prepositional phrases** *(on fire, at hand, in debt,*

etc.), **fixed verbal collocations***(take place, make use, cast anchor,* etc.), **descriptive coordinative groups and repetition groups***(man and wife, dog and gun, day by day,* etc.), and the like. These cases of traditionally fixed absence of the article are quite similar to the cases of traditionally fixed uses of both **indefinite and definite articles** *(cf.: in a hurry, at a loss, have a look, give a start,* etc.; *in the main, out of the question, on the look-out,* etc.).

Outside the elliptical constructions and fixed uses, however, we know a really semantic absence of the article with the noun. It is this semantic absence of the article that stands in immediate meaningful correlation with the definite and indefinite articles.

As is widely acknowledged, the meaningful non-uses of the article are not homogeneous; nevertheless, they admit of a very explicit classification founded on the **countability characteristics of the noun**. Why countability characteristics? For the two reasons. **The first** reason is inherent in the nature of the noun itself: the abstract generalisation reflected through the meaningful non-use of the article is connected with the suppression of the idea of the number in the noun. **The second** reason is inherent in the nature of the article: the indefinite article which plays the crucial role in the semantic correlation in question reveals the meaning of oneness within its semantic base, having originated from the indefinite pronoun *one,* and that is why the abstract use of the noun naturally goes with the absence of the article.

The essential points of the said classification are three in number.

First. The meaningful absence of the article before the countable noun in the singular signifies that the noun is taken in an abstract sense, expressing the most general idea of the object denoted. This meaning, which may be called the meaning of "absolute generalisation", can be demonstrated by inserting in the tested construction a chosen generalising modifier (such as *in general, in the abstract, in the*

*broadest sense). .E.g.:**Law** (in general) begins with the beginning of human society. **Second.*** The absence of the article before the uncountable noun corresponds to the two kinds of generalisation: both relative and absolute. To decide which of the two meanings is realised in any particular case, the described tests should be carried out alternately. *E.g..:John laughed with **great bitterness** (that sort of bitterness: relative generalisation). The subject of **health** (in general: absolute generalisation) was carefully avoided by everybody. **Coffee** (a kind of beverage served at the table: relative generalisation) or **tea,** please? **Coffee** (in general: absolute generalisation) stimulates the function of the heart.*

Third. The absence of the article before the countable noun in the plural, likewise, corresponds to both kinds of generalisation, and the exposition of the meaning in each case can be achieved by the same semantic tests. *E.g.: **Stars, planets** and **comets** (these kinds of objects: relative generalisation) are different celestial bodies (not terrestrial bodies: relative generalisation). **Wars** (in general: absolute generalisation) should be eliminated as means of deciding international disputes.*

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

In accord with the said situational functions, the typical syntactic position of the noun modified by the definite articleis the "**thematic" subject**, while the typical syntactic position of the noun modified by the indefinite article or by the meaningful absence of the article is the "**rhematic" predicative**. *E.g.: **The day** (subject) was drawing to a close, **the busy noises of the city** (subject) were dying down. How to handle the situation was **a big question** (predicative). The sky **was pure gold** (predicative) above the setting sun.*

In this opposition **the** definite article should be interpreted as **the strong member** by virtue of its identifying and individualising function, while the other forms of article determination should be interpreted as the **weak member**, i.e. the member that leaves the feature in question ("identification") unmarked.

Identical nounal positions for the pair "**the definite article — the indefinite article**":

***The train** hooted (that train). — **A train** hooted (some train).*

Correlative nounal positions for the pair "**the definite article — the absence of the article**":

*I'm afraid **the oxygen** is out (our supply of oxygen). — **Oxygen** is necessary for life (oxygen in general, life in general).*

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

Finally, correlative nounal positions for the easily neutralised pair **"the zero article of relative generalisation — the zero article of absolute generalisation"**:

***New information** should be gathered on this subject (some information). — **Scientific information** should be gathered systematically in all fields of human knowledge (information in general).*

Difficulties often arise when the presence or absence of the article signals contrasted structural relationships. Such kind of contrast is seen, for instance in:

a bowl or vessel :: a bowl or a vessel.

The first will mean that *bowl* and *vessel* are synonyms and no contrast between the two is intended. In the second, the intention is to contrast the two and imply that if the object is *bowl,* it is not *a vessel.*

The indefinite article may occasionally be used with a unique referent noun,

e.g.: Ted Latimer from beyond her murmured: "The sun here isn't ***a real sun****"* (A. Christie).

The zero article may occasionally be used with an ordinary concrete noun the semantic nature of which stands, as it were, in sharp contradiction to the idea of uncountable generalisation, *e.g.:The glasses had a habit of slipping down her button nose which did not have enough* ***bridge*** *to hold them up (S. M. Disney). He went up a well-kept drive to a modern house with a square roof and a good deal of* ***window*** *(A. Christie).*

The definite and the indefinite article as mutually exclusive stand in obvious contrast. Their use is built around contrasting ***definiteness*** and ***indefiniteness, generalisation*** and ***concretisation***.

With absence of article functioning as a term in the article system (sometimes referred to as the zero-form) distinction must also be made between such contrastive uses based on the category of number as: ***Singular*** **(the indefinite article) ::** ***Plural*** **(absence of article)** ***Countable*** **(the indefinite article) ::** ***Uncountable*** **(absence of article)**

Having established the functional value of articles in oppositional estimation, we can probe the correlation of the meanings of articles with the meanings of functional determiners. As a result of this observation, within the system of the determiners two separate subsets can

be defined, one of which is centred around the definite article with its individualising semantics *(this — these, that — those, my, our, your, his, her, its, their),* and the other one around the indefinite article with its generalising semantics *(another, some, any).*

To sum up, ***A/an*** is used when the noun that we wish to refer to is unknown to our listener/reader or is not part of the common ground that we share. It is most often used to introduce new information (e.g. *I saw a UFO yesterday.Tell me a story.Have you ever seen a tornado?)*

By using ***the***, we are signalling to our listener that s/he is very likely to know what we are referring to and that the context of our conversation should help them to identify this. We can use *the*, therefore, to a. refer backwards to something that we have already mentioned; b. refer forwards to something that we can take for granted will happen; c. refer to our common ground or shared knowledge

The is also used with certain fixed expressions where there is often common knowledge, for example places of entertainment, oceans and seas, hotels etc. *the Alps, the cinema, the Pacific Ocean, the Hyatt* and even for some more generic tersms such as 'the High Street', 'the open seas'.

Note also that ***the*** is sometimes (but not always) used with some countries' names, such as: the UK. the Czech Republic; The DRC (Democratic Republic of Congo); the Philippines, the Netherland, the Hague, etc.)

In addition, when referring to some named or unnamed organizations, for example: the FBI, the BBC. The U.N. join the army, etc.)

No article is usaged if we want to refer to something general and the nouns that we are using are either plural or uncountable e.g. *I really like funfairs.* ('funfairs' in general; I have no specific funfair in mind.); *It's brought us nothing but trouble.* (uncountable noun)

Some of the other times when an article is *not* needed are: with proper nouns like people's names, countries, towns, cities, single mountains, streets, lakes, and countries (but see note above about certain countries and places); meals – *when are we having lunch, I have cereal for breakfast*. Certain time expressions – *next year, last month, this week, on Friday, at five o'clock*; in an institution – *he's in prison, I'm at school next week, do you go to university*.

CHAPTER 6
THE VERB. GRAMATICAL CATEGORIES. FINITE AND NONFINATE VERBS

General characteristics

Grammatically the verb is the most complex part of speech. First of all, it performs the central role in realizing predication - connection between situation in the utterance and reality. That is why the verb is of primary informative significance in an utterance. Besides, the verb possesses quite a lot of grammatical categories. Furthermore, within the class of verb various subclass divisions based on different principles of classification can befound.

Semantic features of the verb. The verb possesses the grammatical meaning of verbiality - the ability to denote a process **developing in time**. This meaning is inherent not only in the verbs denoting processes, but also in those denoting states, forms of existence, evaluations, etc.

Morphological features of the verb. The verb possesses the following grammatical categories: **tense, aspect, voice, mood, person, number, finitude and phase**. The common categories for finite and non-finite forms are voice, aspect, phase and finitude. The grammatical categories of the English verb find their expression in synthetical and analytical forms. The formative elements expressing these categories are *grammatical affixes, inner inflexion* and *function words.* Some categories have only synthetical forms *(person, number),* others - only analytical *(voice).* There are also categories expressed by both synthetical and analytical forms *(mood, tense, aspect).*The grammatical nature of the finite forms may be characterised by the following six oppositions with reference to:

a	**person**	*Iread : : He reads*
b	**number**	*She reads : ; They read She was : : They were*
c	**time relations**	*I write : : I wrote I write ; : I shall write*
d	**mood**	*If he knows it now : : If he knew it now*
e	**The aspective character of the verb**	*She was dancing for half an hour (durative aspect) : : She danced gracefully (common aspect)*
f	**Voice distinctions: active — passive**	*We invited him : : He was invited* *I asked : : I was asked*

We generally distinguish *finite* and *non-finite* forms of the verb.

The opposition between finite and non-finite forms of verbs expresses ***the category of "finitude"***. The grammatical meaning, the content of this category is the expression of **verbal predication**: the finite forms of the verb render *full (primary, complete, genuine) predication*, the non-finite forms render *semi-predication*, or *secondary (potential) predication*. The formal differential feature is constituted by the expression of verbal time and mood, which underlie the predicative

function: having no immediate means of expressing time-mood categorial semantics, the verbids are the weak member of the opposition.

The non-finites (verbids) are: **the Infinitives, the Gerunds and the Participles**. The following, for instance, are the non-finites of the regular verb *to paint:*

Non-progressive Infinitive	**active passive** **active perfect** **passive perfect**	*to paint* *to be painted* *to have painted* *to have been painted*
Progressive Infinitive	**active active** **perfect**	*to be painting* *to have been painting*
Gerund	**active** **passive active** **perfect passive** **perfect**	*painting* *being painted* *having painted* *having been painted*
Participle: **Present Perfect** **Past**	**active passive**	*painting* *being painted* *having painted* *having been painted painted*

Verbal forms denoting time relations are called **tenses**. The two concepts "time" and "tense" should be kept clearly apart. The former is common to all languages, the latter varies from language to language and is the linguistic expression of time relations so far as these are indicated in any given form.

Time is universally conceived as having one dimension only, thus capable of being represented by one straight line. The main divisions may be arranged in the following way:

past _____ **present** _____ **-future**

Syntactic features. The most universal syntactic feature of verbs is their ability to be modified by **adverbs**. The second important syntactic criterion is the ability of the verb to perform the syntactic function of the **predicate**. However, this criterion is not absolute because only finite forms can perform this function while non-finite forms can be used in any function but predicate. And finally, any verb in the form of the infinitive can be combined with a **modal verb.**

Classifications of English verbs

According to different principles of classification, classifications can be **morphological, lexical-morphological, syntactical and functional.**

A. **Morphological classifications.**

I. According to their stem-types all verbs fall into**: simple***(to go),* **sound-replacive***(food - to feed, blood - to bleed);* **stress-replacive** *(import - to im port, transport - to transport;* **expanded** (with the help of suffixes and prefixes): *cultivate, justify, overcome,* **composite** (correspond to composite nouns): *to blackmail);* **phrasal**: *to have a smoke, to give a smile* (they always have an ordinary verb as an equivalent).

2.According to the way of forming past tenses and Participle II verbs can be **regular and irregular.**

B. **Lexical-morphological** classification is based on the implicit grammatical meanings of the verb. According to the implicit grammatical meaning of transitivity/intransitivity verbs fall into **transitive and intransitive**. According to the implicit grammatical meaning of stativeness/non-stativeness verbs fall into **stative and dynamic**. According to the implicit grammatical meaning of terminativeness/non-terminativeness verbs fall into **terminative and durative.** This classification is closely connected with the categories of **Aspect and Phase**.

C. **Syntactic classifications**. According to the nature of predication (primary and secondary) all verbs fall into **finite and non-finite**. According to syntagmatic properties (valency) verbs can be of obligatory and optional valency, and thus they may have some directionality or be devoid of any directionality. In this way, verbs fall into the verbs of **directed** (*to see, to take, etc.*) and **non-directed action** (*to arrive, to drizzle, etc.*):

D. **Functional classification.** According to their functional significance verbs can be **notional** (with the full lexical meaning), **semi-notional** (modal verbs, link-verbs), **auxiliaries.**

Notional verbs are subdivided into several groups as follows.

On the basis of ***subject-process*** *relations* the verbs are subdivided into ***actional*** **and** ***statal*** *verbs*. The terms are self-explanatory: **actional verbs** denote the actions performed by the subject as an active doer, e.g.: *to go, to make, to build, to look,* etc.; **statal verbs** denote various states of the subject or present the subject as the recipient of an outward activity, e.g.: *to love, to be, to worry, to enjoy, to see*, etc. Mental and sensual processes can be presented as actional or statal; they can be denoted either by correlated pairs of different verbs, or by the same verbal lexeme, e.g.: *to know* (mental perception) – *to think* (mental activity)*, to see, to hear* (physical perception as such) - *to look, to listen* (physical perceptional activity); *The cake tastes nice* (*taste* denotes physical perception, it is used as a statal verb). – *I always taste food before adding salt (taste* denotes perceptional activity, it is used as an actional verb). The difference between actional and statal verbs is grammatically manifested in the category of aspect forms: actional verbs take the form of the continuous aspect freely, and statal verbs are normally used in indefinite forms in the same contexts, cf.: *What are you looking at? Do you hear me?*

Another subdivision of notional verbs is based on their ***aspective meaning***, which exposes the inner character of the process denoted, or, its mode of realization. According to the mode of realization, the process may be **instantaneous (momentary), durative (continual), repeated, starting, completed, uncompleted,** etc. For example: instantaneous actions are denoted by the verbs *to drop, to click, to jump*, etc.; starting, durative, terminated, or repeated actions are denoted by the combinations of verbids with semi-notional verbid-introducers, such as *to begin, to continue, to finish, used to*, etc.

In traditional grammar studies, on the basis of combinability, verbs are divided into ***transitive*** **and** ***intransitive*****:** transitive verbs denote an action directed toward a certain object; in a sentence they are obligatorily used with a direct object. Constructions with transitive verbs are easily transformed from active into passive, e.g.: *He wrote a letter. – The letter was written by him*.

The category of voice. The form of the verb may show whether the agent expressed by the subject is the doer of the action or the recipient of the action *(John broke the vase - the vase was broken).* The objective relations between the action and the subject or object of the action find their expression in language as the grammatical category of voice. Therefore, the category of voice reflects the objective relations between the action itself and the subject or object of the action.

The category of voice is realized through the opposition **Active voice::Passive voice**. The realization of the voice category is restricted because of the implicit grammatical meaning of transitivity/intransitivity. In accordance with this meaning, all English verbs should fall into transitive and intransitive. However, the classification turns out to be more complex and comprises 6 groups:

1. Verbs used only transitively: *to mark, to raise;*

2.Verbs with the main transitive meaning: *to see, to make, to build;*

3. Verbs of intransitive meaning and secondary transitive meaning. A lot of intransitive verbs may develop a secondary transitive meaning: *They laughed me into agreement; He danced the girl out of the room;*

4.Verbs of a double nature, neither of the meanings are the leading one, the verbs can be used both transitively and intransitively: *to drive home - to drive a car;*

5.Verbs that are never used in the Passive Voice: *to seem, to become;*

6. Verbs that realize their passive meaning only in special contexts: *to live, to sleep, to sit, to walk, to jump.*

Some scholars admit the existence of **Middle, Reflexive and Reciprocal** voices. "**Middle Voice**" - the verbs primarily transitive may develop an intransitive middle meaning:

That adds a lot; The door opened; The book sells easily; The dress washes well.

"Reflexive Voice": *He dressed; He washed* - the subject is both the agent and the recipient of the action at the same time. It is always possible to use a reflexive pronoun in this case:

He washed himself.

"Reciprocal voice":*They met; They kissed* - it is always possible to use a reciprocal pronoun here: *They kissed each other.*

We cannot, however, speak of different voices, because all these meanings are not expressed morphologically.

The class of verbs falls into a number of subclasses distinguished by different semantic and lexico-grammatical features.

On the upper level of division two unequal sets are identified: the set of verbs of ***full nominative*** **value (notional verbs)**, and the set of

verbs of ***partial nominative*** **value (semi-notional and functional verbs).** The first set is derivationally open, it includes the bulk of the verbal lexicon. The second set is derivationally closed, it includes limited subsets of verbs characterised by individual relational properties.

The subdivision of verbs into notional and (semi-)functional is grammatically relevant since the verbs of the two subclasses perform different syntactic functions in the sentence**: notional verbs function as** predicates**, semi-functional and functional verbs as** parts of predicates (predicators).

These "predicators" include auxiliary verbs, modal verbs, semi-notional verbid introducer verbs, and link-verbs.Auxiliary verbs constitute grammatical elements of the categorial forms of the verb. These are the verbs *be, have, do, shall, will, should, would, may, might.*

Semi-notional and functional verbs serve as markers of predication in the proper sense, since they show the connection between the nominative content of the sentence and reality in a strictly specialised way.

Functional and semi-functional verbs are further subdivided into a number of groups. ***Auxiliary functional verbs*** are used to build the analytical grammatical forms of notional verbs, e.g.: *have done, was lost,* etc. ***Link verbs*** connect the nominative part of the predicate (the predicative) with the subject. They can be of two types: *pure* and *specifying link verbs*.Pure link verbs perform a purely predicative-linking function in the sentence; in English there is only one pure link verb *to be*; specifying link verbs specify the connections between the subject and its property, e.g.: *He was pale. – He grew pale*.

The specification of the connections may be either "***perceptional***", e.g.: *to seem, to look, to feel,* etc., or "*factual*", e.g.: *to grow, to become, to get*, etc. The semi-functional link verbs should be distinguished from

homonymous notional verbs, e.g.: *to grow* can be a notional verb or a specifying link verb, cf.: *The child grew quickly. – He grew pale*.

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

*Tom **may stay** for the teleview if he will. →Tom is **permitted** to stay. The storm **may** come any minute, you had better leave the deck. →The storm **is likely** to come any minute.*

The modal verbs *can, may, must, shall, will, ought, need, used (to), dare* are defective in forms, and are suppletively supplemented by stative groups similar to those shown above. The supplementation is effected both for the lacking finite forms and the lacking non-finite forms.

A group of semi-notional verbs function as ***verbid introducers***, i.e., they introduce non-finite forms of verbs into the structure of the sentence: they are grammatically inseparable from the verbids and these two lexemes jointly make the predicate of the sentence, e.g.: *He happened to know all about it*. Verbid introducers render the following meanings: ***modal identity***, when the speaker evaluates the action denoted by the following verbid as seeming, accidental, or unexpected, e.g.: *to seem, to prove, to appear, to happen,* etc.; ***subject-action***

relations **(***try, fail, manage*, etc.)*)*, e.g.: *to try, to fail, to manage,* etc.; ***phasal semantics*****,** e.g.: *to begin, to start, to continue, to finish*, etc. These semi-notional verbs should also be distinguished from homonymous notional verbs, cf.: *It happened ten years ago* (*happen* is a notional verb). – *He happened to be there at the same time with her* (*happen* is a semi-notional verbid introducer of modal identity – the process denoted by the infinitive is presented as unexpected).

Link-verbs introduce the nominal part of the predicate (the predicative) which is commonly expressed by a noun, an adjective, or a phrase of a similar semantic-grammatical character. It should be noted that link-verbs, although they are named so, are not devoid of meaningful content. Performing their function of connecting ("linking") the subject and the predicative of the sentence, they express the actual semantics of this connection, i.e. expose the relational aspect of the characteristics ascribed by the predicative to the subject.

NON-FINITE VERBS (VERBIDS)

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

The English verbals include four forms distinctly differing from one another within the general verbal system: **the infinitive, the gerund, the present participle, and the past participle.** In compliance with this difference, the verbal semi-predicative complexes are distinguished by the corresponding differential properties both in form and in syntactic-contextual function.

The infinitive is the non-finite form of the verb, which combines the properties of the verb with those of the noun, serving as the **verbal** name of a process. By virtue of its general process-naming function, the infinitive should be considered as the head-form of the whole paradigm of the verb. With the English infinitive, its role of the verbal paradigmatic head-form is supported by the fact that it represents the actual derivation base for all the forms of regular verbs.

The infinitive is used in three fundamentally different types of functions: first, as **a notional**, self-positional syntactic part of the sentence; second, as the **notional constituent of a complex verbal predicate** built up around a predicator verb; third, as the **notional constituent of a finite conjugation form of the verb**. The first use is grammatically "**free**", the second is grammatically **"half-free**", the third is grammatically "**bound".**

The infinitive performs all the functions characteristic of the noun, of a **subject**. e.g.: *To write a letter was the main thing he had planned for the day*; of **a predicative**, e.g.: *The main thing he had planned for the day was to write a letter*; of **an object**, e.g.: *He wanted to write a letter to her*; of **an attribute**, e.g.: *It was the main thing to do*; of **an adverbial modifier**, e.g.: *He stood on a chair in order to reach for the top shelf.*

The gerund is the non-finite form of the verb which, like the infinitive, combines the properties of the verb with those of the noun. Similar to the infinitive, the gerund serves as the verbal name of a

process, but its substantive quality is more strongly pronounced than that of the infinitive. Namely, as different from the infinitive, and **similar to the noun**, the gerund can **be modified by a noun in the possessive case or its pronominal equivalents** (expressing the subject of the verbal process), and it can be used **with prepositions**.

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

As a matter of fact, the gerund cannot perform the function of the paradigmatic verbal head-form for a number of reasons. In the first place, it is more detached from the finite verb than the infinitive semantically, tending to be a far more substantival. Then, as different from the infinitive, it does not join in the conjugation of the finite verb. Unlike the infinitive, it is a suffix form, which makes it less generalized than the infinitive in terms of the formal properties of the verbal lexeme (although it is more abstract in the purely semantic sense). Finally, it is less definite than the infinitive from the lexico-grammatical point of view, being subject to easy neutralisations in its opposition with the verbal noun in *-ing,* as well as with the present participle. Hence, the gerund is no rival of the infinitive in the paradigmatic head-form function.

The functions of the gerund in the sentence are as follows - that of a **subject**, e.g.: *Your **listening t**o me is very much appreciated; It's no use crying over spilt milk*; of **a predicative**, e.g.: *The only remedy for such headache **is going** to bed;* of **an object**, e.g.: *I love **reading***; of an **attribute**, e.g.: *He had a gift of **listening***; of **an adverbial modifier**, e.g.: ***On entering** the house I said "hello".*

The present participle is the non-finite form of the verb, which combines the properties of the **verb** with those of the **adjective and**

adverb, serving as the qualifying-processual name. In its outer form, the present participle is wholly homonymous with the gerund, ending in the suffix *-ing* and distinguishing the same grammatical categories of retrospective coordination and voice.

Like all the verbids, the present participle has no category of time distinctions, and the attribute "present" in its conventional name is not immediately explanatory; Still, both terms "present participle" or participle I and "past participle" or "participle II" are used in grammar.

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

Participle I can function as a **predicative,** e.g.: *Her presence is extremely maddening to me*; as an attribute, e.g.: *The fence surrounding the garden was newly painted*; and as an **adverbial modifier,** e.g.: *While waiting he whistled*.

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

To sum up, the ***non-verbal features*** of verbids are as follows: a, they do not denote pure processes, but present them as specific kinds of

substances and properties; b. they are not conjugated (joined) according to the categories of person and number, have no tense or mood forms; c. in some contexts they are combined with the verbs like non-verbal parts of speech; d. they never function as independent predicates; e. their functions are those characteristic for other notional parts of speech.

The verbal features of verbids are as follows: a. their grammatical meaning is basically processual; b. like finites, they do have (at least, most of them have) aspect and voice forms and verbal combinability with direct objects and adverbial modifiers; c. they can express predication in specific semi-predicative constructions. Thus, verbids can be characterized as ***intermediary phenomena*** between verbs and other non-verbal parts of speech.

CHAPTER 7
VERB: PERSON AND NUMBER. TENSE. ASPECT

Traditionally, ***the category of number*** is treated as the correlation of the plural and the singular, and ***the category of person*** as the correlation of three deictic functions, reflecting the relations of the referents to the participants of speech communication: th number characteristics of the subject, denoted by the noun (or pronoun) with which the verb is combined in the sentence. And in the meaning of the subject the expression of number semantics is blended with the expression of person semantics; for example, in the paradigm of personal pronouns the following six members are distinguished by person and number characteristics combined: first person singular - *I*, first person plural - *we*, second person singular – *you* (or, archaic *thou*), second person plural - *you*, third person singular - *he/she/it*, third person plural - *they*. Second, formally, the categories of person and number are also used, being expressed by one and the same verbal form, e.g.: *he speaks*; this fact supports the unity of the two categories in the system of the verb.

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

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

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

The category of tense

The verbal category of tense in the most general sense expresses the time characteristics of the process denoted by the verb.

It is necessary to distinguish between ***time*** *as a general category* and ***time*** *as a linguistic category*. Factual time can be expressed only lexically, while absolutive and relative expressions of time in English can be not only lexical, but also grammatical. The grammatical expression of verbal time through morphological forms of the verbs constitutes *the* ***grammatical category of tense***.

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

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

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

Time, as well as space are the basic forms of the existence of matter, they both are inalienable properties of reality and as such are absolutely independent of human perception. On the other hand, like other objective factors of the universe, time is reflected by man through his perceptions and intellect, and finds its expression in his language.

The first verbal tense category, which can be called "*primary time", "absolutive time"*, or *"retrospective time"*, is expressed by the opposition of the past and the present forms. The suffix *"-ed*" of the regular verbs is the formal feature which marks the past as the **strong** member of the opposition. Besides this productive form, there are some unproductive past forms of verbs, such as suppletive forms (e.g.: *eat – ate*), or past forms homonymous with the present (*cut – cut*).

The marked forms denote past actions which receive retrospective evaluation from the point of view of the moment of speech. The present, like any other weak member of an opposition, has a much wider range of meanings than its strong counterpart: the present denotes actions taking place in the sphere of the present, during the period of time including the moment of speech, e.g.: *What are you doing?; Terrorism is the major threat of the twenty first century*; it may denote repeated actions, e.g.: *We go out every Friday night*; actions

unchanged in the course of time, e.g.: *Two plus two makes four*; universal truths, e.g.: *He who laughs last laughs best;* instanta-neous actions which begin and end approximately at the moment of speech (as in sports commentaries), e.g.: *Smith passes to Brown*; etc. To stress its weak oppositional characteristics the present is also referred to as "non-past".

The category of tense is a verbal category that reflects the objective category of time. The essential characteristic of the category of tense is that it relates the time of the action, event or state of affairs referred to in the sentence to the time of the utterance (the time of the utterance being 'now ' or the present moment). The tense category is realized through the oppositions. The binary principle of oppositions remains the basic one in the correlation of the forms that represent the grammatical category of tense. The present moment is the main temporal plane of verbal actions. Therefore, the temporal dichotomy may be illustrated by the following graphic representation (the arrows show the binary opposition):

Generally speaking, the major tense-distinction in English is undoubtedly that which is traditionally described as an opposition of past::present. But this is best regarded as a contrast of past:: non-past. Quite a lot of scholars do not recognize the existence of future tenses, because what is described as the 'future' tense in English is realized by means of auxiliary verbs *will* and *shall.* Although it is undeniable that *will* and *shall* occur in many sentences that refer to the future, they also occur in sentences that do not. And they do not necessarily occur in sentences with a future time reference. That is why future tenses are often treated as partly modal.

Words and phrases like *now, last week, in our century, in the past, in the years to come, very soon, yesterday, in a couple of days,* giving a temporal characteristic to an event from the point of view of

its orientation in reference to the present moment, are absolutive names of time.

The **relative expression** of time correlates two or more events showing some of them either as preceding the others, or following the others, or happening at one and the same time with them. Here belong such words and phrases as *after that, before that, at one and the same time with, some time later, at an interval of a day or two, at different times,* etc.

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

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

The opposition of the prospective time category can be reduced. Present forms are regularly used to denote future actions planned, arranged or anticipated in the near future: *We go to London tomorrow*; or in subordinate clauses of time and condition: *If you stay, you will learn a lot of interesting things about yourself.* These two examples can be treated as cases of neutralization: the weak member of the opposition is used instead of the strong one with no stylistic coloring involved. Transposition takes place when the future forms are used to express insistence, e.g.: *When he needs something, he will talk and talk about it for days on end.*

The **pragmatic** meaning of the past tense is it priority to the moment of speaking.

1. **Past tense of separate action**. Its role is to involve the zero vector of the axes of orientation into the process. It is realized by two tense-forms in English: Simple past and past continuous. Past continuous is based on the aspect-temporal sign of time localization. (He **came across** an old man yesterday. They **were talking** softly)

2. **Correlative past.** It is used in narration. The following semes are relevant to correlative Simple past: 1. dissociation to the present time axes of orientation. 2. to involve the zero vector of the past tense into the process; 3. action localization/non-localization in time; 4. to express simultaneous action 5. to express frequent/infrequent action.

3. Iterative past. It is the variant meaning of past simple, past continuous, past perfect continuous. It denotes the frequency of action. (**each time** he **came** to see a doctor)

4. **Prospective**-the nearest future action realized by past continuous. (passengers **were leaving** the ship **next day**).

Exclusiveness –is the main temporal-aspect variant of past perfect and past perfect continuous. (as soon as they **had regained** strength, they stood up)

The Category of Aspect

Aspect is a grammatical category that expresses how an action, event, or state, denoted by a verb, relates to the flow of time.The category of aspect is a linguistic representation of the objective category of Manner of Action. It is realized through the opposition Continuous::Non-Continuous (Progressive::Non-Progressive). The realization of the category of aspect is closely connected with the lexical meaning of verbs.

There are some verbs in English that do not normally occur with progressive aspect, even in those contexts in which the majority of verbs necessarily take the progressive form. Among the so-called 'non-progressive' verbs are *think, understand, know, hate, love, see,*

taste, feel, possess, own, etc. The most striking characteristic that they have in common is the fact that they are 'stative' - they refer to a state of affairs, rather than to an action, event or process. It should be observed, however, that all the 'non-progressive' verbs take the progressive aspect under particular circumstances. As the result of internal transposition verbs of non-progressive nature can be found in the Continuous form: *Now I'm knowing you.* Generally speaking the Continuous form has at least two semantic features - duration (the action is always in progress) and definiteness (the action is always limited to a definite point or period of time). In other words, the purpose of the Continuous form is to serve as a frame which makes the process of the action more concrete and isolated.

Among linguists there are some differences on how to consider the two grammatical categories tense and aspect. Some of them think that "while tense relates the time of a situation to some other time, commonly the time of speaking, **aspect** conveys other temporal information, such as **duration, completion, or frequency**, as it relates to the time of action. Thus tense refers to temporally when while aspect refers to temporally how". The other notion is that there are two elements of meaning in every English tense: time and aspect (here aspect becomes "part" of tense). Time refers to when, and aspect refers to how the speaker or writer sees the event. For example, when we consider Present Simple tense, 'Present' indicates the time and 'Simple' indicates the aspect of this tense. So we can see that the differences here (between the two definitions, the two notions) are only at the level of terminology but in both cases we cannot confuse aspect and tense - they are clearly distinguished (more detailed analysis of aspect see in Lecture8).

CHAPTER 8
THE VERB: LEXICAL AND GRAMMATICAL MEANS OF EXPRESSING ASPECTIVE MEANING

Like time, aspect can be expressed both by *lexical* and *grammatical means*. The expression of aspective semanticsin English verbal forms is interconnected with the expression of temporal semantics; that is why in practical grammar they are treated not as separate tense and aspect forms but as specific *tense-aspectforms*, cf.: the present continuous – *I am working*; the past continuous – *I was working*; the past perfect and the past indefinite – *I had done my work before.*

The aspective meaning is manifested in the lexical subdivision of verbs into limitive and unlimitive, e.g.: *to go – to come, to sit – sit down,* etc. But most verbs in English migrate easily from one subclass to the other and their aspective meaning is primarily rendered by grammatical means through special variable verbal forms.

Aspect refers to the internal temporal constituency of an event, or the manner in which a verb's action is distributed through the time-space continuum. **Tense**, on the other hand, points out the location of an event in the continuum of events.

Also be aware that there is no widespread agreement on terminology with regard to aspect. Among linguists, different people use the same terms in different ways; for example, the aspect which is properly called "**perfect**" is often called "**perfective**," and this can lead to confusion when discussing languages that mark both a **perfective-imperfective** and a perfect-nonperfect opposition.

Aspect is a grammatical category which refers to the way how the time of the concrete situation is viewed (by the person who talks or writes about this). The grammatical aspect of a verb defines the presen-

ce of a temporal flow or lack of such in every given action, event or state and doing it from the point of view of the speaker. "A basic distinction is with regard to whether the speaker looks at the situation as bounded and unitary, without reference to the flow of time during the situation ("I ate"), or with no reference to temporal bounds but with reference to the nature of the flow of time during the situation ("I was eating", "I used to eat")". When the view is unitary and there is no internal temporal flow we say that we have perfective aspect and when the view is non-bounded and have temporal flow, we talk about imperfective aspect.

Pretty often verbs in English are combined with adverbial elements, which combination leads to the formation of new verbs, so called phrasal verbs: *get by, put off* and other. The adverbial element here modifies the nature of the activity. Various combinations can be implied in this way: the **beginning of an activity** (*light up, doze off*), **the momentary** character of an activity *(cry out, sit down, wake up*), the **bringing of an activity to an end** or getting to a certain limit (*drunk up, drink down, pay off, hear out*), the **slow completion of an activity** (*melt down, fade away, die away*)" and also much other.

Very interesting means of expressing the character of the activity in English is the formation of phrases like*: "give a smile", "have a look", "give a try", "take a turn", "take a look"*. Here the verbs '*give', 'have'* and *'take'* combine with nouns which are homonyms of verbs, such as 'smile', 'look', 'try', etc. The result is that in these phrases is highlighted the momentary character of the activity symbolized by the homonymous verbs (smile*, look, smell,* etc.)" .

Link verbs with combination with adjectives and with prepositional phrases can point out change from one stage to another: *He grew/become pale.* (**gradual process**); He *turned/went pale*. (**sudden**

change). And one example with combination with prepositional phrase: "*The vase came to/in pieces in my hand*".

So, we have to say that although in the case of the English verb we should speak of the inability rather than of the ability of English verbs to convey the nature of an activity through some inherent features, it is obvious that the English language has other good lexical means to cope with this.

Simple Aspect:

The first grammatical aspect in the English language is the simple aspect. This aspect describes an event which is permanent, complete, habitual or a simple fact.The **habitual** aspect refers to a situation that is protracted over a long period of time, or a situation that occurs frequently during an extended period of time, to the point that the situation becomes the characteristic feature of the whole period. An example of the habitual aspect in the past tense is, *the neighbor's dog used to wake me up by barking every morning.* A present-tense example would be *I (usually) ride the bus home from work.* We must be careful to avoid two common misconceptions about the habitual. First, the habitual is not the same thing as the iterative or frequentative aspect, which merely refers to something that happens several times without being the foremost characteristic of a period of time (e.g. *he coughed over and over again, then recited his poem*). Second, the past habitual does not necessarily imply that the condition is no longer true; it is perfectly reasonable to say *Erik used to be a member of the Volapük League, and he still is.*

- *The sun rises in the East* (= all time).
- *The little girl reads a book every morning* (=habit).
- *When I've read the book, I'll lend it to you* (=complete).
- *This shop will close at 7.00 this evening* (=a fact)

- *She has red hair* (=permanent)

The simple aspect describes an action that is seen to be completed. The action is viewed as a whole unit. There is no internal temporal flow in it – it is bounded and unitary.

Perfect (retrospective) and prospective Aspect:

The second grammatical aspect of the English language is the **perfect aspect**. The perfect aspect allows speakers to express and emphasize the consequences of a previous action or state.Unlike most aspects, the perfect does not tell us anything about the internal temporal constituency of a situation. Instead, it indicates the continuing relevance of a past situation. In other words, the perfect expresses a relation between two points on the continuum of events.

Linguists are not unanimous in classifying the perfect as an aspect rather than as a tense. An example of the perfect, from English: *I have lost the book* (perfect) versus *I lost the book* (non-perfect). The perfect can indicate a relation between a state in the past and an even earlier event, e.g. *John had read the book;* it can express a relation between a past event and the present state, e.g. *John has read the book;* and it can express a relation between a future state and an event that occurs prior to it, e.g. *John will have read the book.*

English often uses the perfect to express a situation that started in the past and continues into the present, e.g. *we have lived here for a long time.* Many other languages use the present tense in such sentences.

The perfect verb form expresses a relation between a situation and some event that happened before it. In English the prospective is indicated by phrases such as “to be about to” and “to be on the point of,” as in *John is about to resign from his job.*It brings two ideas:

1. The action is completed before another time:

- *Have you ever been to England*? (=some time before now)

- *When I awoke, the sun had already risen.* (=some time before I awoke)

- *I hope I'll have finished the theoretical part of the paper by 11.00*. (=some time before 11.00)

2. The exact time of the verb action is not important. The perfect aspect refers to indefinite time:

- *Have you seen my keys? I have put them anywhere* (=before now, but not exactly when).

The exception to this is the Past Perfect, which can refer to the definite time:

- *I recognized the man immediately. I had seen him the previous day in the conference hall.*

The perfect aspect of a verb is indicated by a combination of auxiliary (which has two present tense forms – has and have, and one past form – had) with the -ed participle of that verb.

Progressive (continuous) aspect:

The third grammatical aspect in the English language is the progressive or also continuous aspect. The continuous aspect describes an event which is temporary, incomplete, or in progress. It focuses on the duration of an activity. We are aware of the passing of time between the beginning and the end of the activity. It is clear that activity is not permanent. Progressivity is a special type of imperfectivity which emphasizes that an action is in progress; often this is mentioned to provide a background or frame of reference for some other situation. An example of the progressive aspect is English *John is singing*.

English generally does not use progressive forms of verbs of passive perception; the phrase *you aren't hearing* seems odd in English. Also note that English environmental verbs, such as "to rain" and "to snow," almost always occur in the progressive form when they are in the present tense.

- *I 'm living with her until I find a suitable flat* (=temporary)

- *Don't phone at 8.00. I will be watching TV, a great match* (= the action is in progress and the focus is on the temporal flow).

The continuous aspect combines a form of the auxiliary *be* with the *–ing participle.* Because the expressed activity is seen in progress, it can be interrupted:

- *They were walking up the street when they were attacked by a dog.*

The action of some verbs (*live, work, play),* by definition, last a long time. The continuous gives these actions **limited duration** and makes them **temporary**. The action of some other verbs (*lose, cut, hit, crash*) lasts a short time. In the continuous, the action of these verbs seems longer or habitual.

- *She is living in London while she is learning English* (=limited duration of "long time" verb).

- *They are losing control* (= the "short verb" is prolonged).

Perfect-progressive aspect:

The fourth grammatical aspect in the English language is the perfect-progressive aspect. The perfect-progressive aspect allows speakers to express and emphasize the consequences of a previous ongoing or incomplete action or states. This is one example of the perfect-progressive aspect in the present tense:

- *Ruth has been reading this book.*

The present perfect-progressive is used in this sentence to show that Ruth started to read this book in the past and the reading continue into the present and may but not continue into the future. This aspect is indicated by the present tense form of the verb have plus the past participle of the verb be and the present participle of the main verb. The next sentence is an example of the past perfect-progressive aspect:

- He *had been jogging* when the storm hit.

It is expressed by the past tense form of the verb have, the past participle of the verb be and the -ing participle of the main verb. This aspect comes to express an action which had started in the past before other past moment and is done actively till this following moment and probably even after it.

These are the four grammatical aspects in English. Of course, the said above is only a minor part from this enormous topic: the category of aspect in English language.

CHAPTER 9
VERB: VOICE. MOOD

The verbal category of **voice** shows the direction of the process as regards the participants of the situation reflected in the syntactic construction.

Voice is a very specific verbal category: first, it doesnot reflect the actual properties of the process denoted, but the speaker's appraisal of it; the speaker chooses which of the participants in the situation – *the agent (the subject, the doer of the action)* or *the patient(the object, the receiver of the action, the experiencer)* – should be presented as the subject of the syntactic construction. Second, though it is expressed through the morphological forms of the verb, voice is closely connected with the structural organization of the syntactic construction: the use of passive or active forms of the verb involves the use of the passive or active syntactic construction.

The voice of the English verb is expressed by the opposition of the passive form of the verb to the active form of the verb. The sign marking the passive form is the combination of the auxiliary *be* with the past participle of the conjugated verb (in symbolic notation: *be ... en* —. In English, the verb *to be* is used both as a link verb and as an auxiliary verb, which makes the two constructions homonymous.

The passive form as **the strong** member of the opposition expresses reception of the action by the subject of the syntactic construction (i.e. the "passive" subject, denoting the object of the action); the active form as the weak member of the opposition leaves this meaning unspecified, i.e. it expresses "non-passivity".

In colloquial speech the role of the passive auxiliary can occasionally be performed by the verb ***get*** and, probably, ***become*** *E.g.:*

Sam ***got licked*** *for a good reason, though not by me. The young violinist* ***became admired*** *by all.*

In English not only transitive, but also intransitive objective verbs including prepositional ones can be used in the passive (the preposition being retained in the absolutive location). Besides, verbs taking not one, but two objects, as a rule, can feature both of them in the position of the passive subject. *E.g.:*

I've just been rung up *by the police. The diplomat* ***was refused*** *transit facilities through London. She* ***was undisturbed*** *by the frown on his face.* ***Have you ever been told*** *that you're very good looking? He* ***was said*** *to have been very wild in his youth. The dress* ***has never been tried on.*** *The child* ***will be looked after*** *all right. I* ***won't be talked to*** *like this. Etc.*

Still, not all the verbs capable of taking an object are actually used in the passive. In particular, the passive form is alien to many verbs of the **statal** subclass (displaying a weak dynamic force), such as *have* (direct possessive meaning), *belong, cost, resemble, fail, misgive,* etc. Thus, in accord with their relation to the passive voice, all the verbs can be divided into two large sets: **the set of passivised verbs and the set of non-passivised verbs.**

A question then should be posed whether the category of voice is a full-representative verbal category, i.e. represented in the system of the verb as a whole, or a partial-representative category, confined only to the passivised verbal set. Considerations of both form and function tend to interpret voice rather as a full-representative category, the same as person, number, tense, and aspect. Three reasons can be given to back this appraisal.

First, the integral categorial presentation of non-passivised verbs fully coincides with that of **passivised verbs** used in the **active voice***(cf. takes — goes, is taking —* is *going, has taken — has gone,* etc.). **Second**, the **active** voice as the **weak member** of the categorial opposition is characterised in general not by the "active" meaning as such (i.e. ne-

cessarily featuring the subject as the doer of the action), but by the extensive non-passive meaning of a very wide range of actual significations, some of them approaching by their process-direction characteristics those of non-passivised verbs *(e.g.*The door ***opens*** inside the room; The magazine ***doesn't sell*** well). **Third**, the demarcation line between the passivised and non-passivised sets is by no means rigid, and the verbs of the non-passivised order may migrate into the-passivised order in various contextual conditions *(e.g..* The bed *has not been* ***slept*** in; The house seems ***not to have been lived*** in for a long time).As a regular categorial form of the verb, the passive voice is combined in the same lexeme with other oppositionally strong forms of the verbal categories of the tense-aspect system, i.e. the past, the future, the continuous, the perfect. But it has a neutralising effect on the category of development in the forms where the auxiliary ***be*** must be doubly employed as a verbid (the infinitive, the present participle, the past participle), so that the future continuous passive, as well as the perfect continuous passive are practically not used in speech. As a result, the future continuous active has as its regular counterpart by the voice opposition the future indefinite passive; the perfect continuous active in all the tense-forms has as its regular counterpart the perfect indefinite passive. *E.g..:*

The police ***will be keeping*** *an army of reporters at bay. →An army of reporters* ***will be kept*** *at bay by the police. We* ***have been expecting*** *the decision for a long time. —» The decision* ***has been expected*** *for a long time.*

Besides passive and active constructions, there are also the so-called ***"medial"*** *voice types*, whose status is problematic: semantically, they are neither strictly passive nor active, though the verb used is formally active. There are three "medial" voice types distinguished in English: **"*reflexive*", "*reciprocal*", and "*middle*".** In **reflexive** construc-

tions the action performed by the referent of the subject is not passed to any outer object, but to the referent itself, i.e. the subject of the action is the object of the action at the same time, e.g.: *He dressed quickly*. This meaning can be rendered explicitly by the reflexive ***"-self"*** pronouns, e.g.: *He dressed himself; He washed himself;* etc. In **reciprocal** constructions the subject denotes a group of doers whose actions are directed towards each other; again, the subject of the action is its object at the same time, e.g.: *They struggled; They quarreled*; etc.This meaning can be rendered explicitly with the help of the reciprocal pronouns *one another, each other, with one another*, e.g.: *They quarreled with each other.*Let us consider the following examples:

I ***will shave*** *and* ***wash,*** *and be ready for breakfast in half an hour. I'm afraid Mary* ***hasn't dressed up*** *yet. Now I see your son is thoroughly* ***preparing*** *for the entrance examinations.*

The indicated verbs in the given sentences are objective, · transitive, used absolutely, in the form of the active voice. But the real voice meaning rendered by the verb-entries is not active, since the actions expressed are not passed from the subject to any outer object; on the contrary, these actionsare confined to no other participant of the situation than the subject, the latter constituting its own object of the action performance. This kind of verbal meaning of the action performed by the subject upon itself is classed as "reflexive". The same meaning can be rendered explicit by combining the verb with the reflexive "self-pronoun: I *will shave myself, wash myself;* Mary *hasn't dressed herself up* yet; your son *is* thoroughly *preparing himself.* Let us take examples of another kind:

The friends ***will be meeting*** *tomorrow. Unfortunately, Nellie and Christopher* ***divorced*** *two years after their magnificent marriage. Are Phil and Glen* ***quarrelling*** *again over their toy cruiser?*

Still, some cases remain ambiguous, with the status of the participle wholly neutralized, especially the past participle of limitive verbs, which combines the semantics of processual passive and resultative perfect, cf.: *I was impressed by his fluency; The job was finished at two o'clock*; such constructions are sometimes defined as "*semi-passive*" or "*pseudo-passive*".

VERB: MOOD

Most Indo-European languages, in addition to verb tenses (which demonstrate time), have verb moods (which indicate a state of being or reality).

The category of mood expresses *the character of connections between the process denoted by the verb and actual reality*, in other words, it shows whether the action is real or unreal. This category is realized through the opposition of the *direct (indicative) mood* forms of the verb and the *oblique mood* forms: the indicative mood shows that the process is real, i.e. that it took place in the past, takes place in the present, or will take place in the future, e.g.: *She helped me; She helps me; She will help me;* the oblique mood shows that the process is unreal, imaginary (hypothetical, possible or impossible, desired, etc.), e.g.: *If only she helped me!* The oblique mood has no morphological forms of its own; most of its forms are homonymous with the forms of the indicative. In this respect the category of mood resembles the category of voice: it shows the speaker's subjective interpretation of the event as either actual or imaginary.The most common moods in English include the following:

The **indicative** (indicating a state of factuality and reality): "A cat sits on the stove." Most sentences in English are in the indicative mood. It simply states a fact of some sort, or describes what happens, or gives details about reality.

The**imperative** (indicating a state of command): "Give me back my money." One marker of the imperative is that frequently the subject does not appear in the sentence, but is only implied: "(You) Give me back my money."

Theinterrogative(indicating a state of questioning): "Will you leave me alone now?" One marker of the interrogative is that frequently the speaker inverts the subject-verb order by placing the helping verb first, before the subject: "Will you leave me alone?" instead of "You will leave me alone." Frequently the interrogative appears with requests for a course of action or requests for information.

The conditional(indicating a conditional state that will cause something else to happen): "The bomb might explode if I jiggle that switch." Also, "The bomb could explode if you jiggle that switch." The conditional is marked by the words ***might, could,*** **and*would***. Frequently, a phrase in the conditional appears closely linked to a phrase in the **subjunctive** (see below) preceded by a subordinate conjunction like ***if***.All the oblique mood types share a common functional basis, the meaning of unreality, they may be terminologically united as ***subjunctive***. It is harder to explain the subjunctive. Five hundred years ago, English had a highly developed subjunctive mood. However, after the fourteenth century, speakers of English used the subjunctive less frequently. Today, the mood has practically vanished; modern speakers tend to use the **conditional forms** of *"could" and "would"* to indicate statements contrary to reality. The subjunctive only survives in a few, fossilized examples, which can be confusing.It is most often found in a **clause** beginning with the word ***if.*** It is also found in **clauses** following a verb that expresses *a doubt, a wish, regret, request, demand, or proposal.*

These are verbs typically followed by clauses that take the subjunctive:

ask, demand, determine, insist, move, order, pray, prefer, recommend, regret,request, require, suggest, and wish.

The mood which is traditionally called ***subjunctive I,*** expresses various *attitudes of the speaker*,*desire, consideration (supposition, suggestion, hypothesis), inducement (recommendation, request, command, order),* etc. On the functional basis subjunctive I can be defined as *the mood of attitudes*, or the ***spective mood*** (to use the Latin word for "attitude"). The form of subjunctive I is homonymous with the *bare infinitive*: **no** morpheme ***–s*** is added in the 3d person singular, and the verb *to be* is used in the form "*be*" in all persons and numbers, e.g.: *Long live the king! Whatever your mother say, I won't give up; I demand that the case be investigated thoroughly*; *It is imperative there be no more delays in our plans*.

Subjunctive II in form is homonymous with *the past tense forms* of the verbs in the indicative mood, except for the verb *to be*, which, according to standard grammar, in all persons and numbers is used in the form *were*. Subjunctive II is used mostly in the subordinate clauses of complex sentences with causal-conditional relations, such as the clauses of *unreal condition*, e.g.: *If she tried, (she would manage it); If I were you…;* of *concession*, e.g.: *Even if she tried, (she wouldn't manage it);* of *unreal comparison*, e.g.: *(She behaved,) as if she tried very hard, but failed;* of *urgency*, e.g.: *(It's high time) she tried to change the situation;* of *unreal wish*, e.g.: *(I wish) she tried harder; If only she tried!* So, the generalized meaning of subjunctive II can be defined as that of *unreal condition*: all the meanings outlined imply unreal conditions of some sort, cf.: *She behaved as if she tried → She behaved as she would behave if she tried;*

The form of the verb which denotes the corresponding consequence of an unreal condition in the principal part of the causal-conditional sentences is homonymous with the analytical *future in the past tense forms* (the past posterior) of verbs in the indicative mood, e.g.: (*If she tried*), *she would manage it*; *Without you she wouldn't*

manage it; *(Even if she tried*), *she wouldn't manage it*. This type of the oblique mood is called, in traditional grammar, the "*conditional*". It is possible to preserve the term and to specify it additionally as the "*consective conditional*" (to use the Latin word for "consequence"), in order to distinguish it from the "stipulative" conditional described previously. Thus, the stipulative conditional forms, denoting some unreal, imaginary condition, and the consective conditional forms, denoting some unreal, imaginary consequence, complement each other within the syntactic construction. To observe consistency with the simplified and unified numerical terminology, the consective conditional can be called *subjunctive III*.

One more type of the oblique mood, traditionally referred to as "*modal suppositional*" is built with the help of modal verbs, and expresses the same semantic types of unreality as subjunctive I, e.g.: *may/might + infinitive* – is used to denote *wish, desire, hope*, and *supposition* in some contexts (with the words "*whatever, however, though",* etc.), e.g.: *May it be so!* (cf. with subjunctive I: *Be it so!); I hoped he might come soon* (cf.: *I hoped that he come soon*); *Whatever he might say I am not afraid of him* (cf.: *Whatever he say, I am not afraid of him*); *should + infinitive* – is used to express *supposition, suggestion, speculation, recommendation, inducements* of various types and degrees of intensity, e.g.*: Whatever my mother should say about him, we'll marry one day* (cf. with subjunctive I: *Whatever my mother say about him, we'll marry one day*); *It is obligatory that she should be present at the meeting* (e.g.: *It is obligatory that she be present at the meeting*).

Here are the most common uses of subjunctives:

1. By far the most common use of the subjunctive is the use of the subjunctive after "if" clauses that state or describe a hypothetical situation.

Subjunctive: "*If I **were** a butterfly, I **would have** wings.*"

Note that in the **indicative,** we normally write, "***I was***." For instance, "*When I **was** a young boy, I liked to swim.*" However, to indicate the subjunctive, we write ***"I were."***The subjunctive indicates a statement contrary to fact. In the *butterfly* example above, I am not really a *butterfly,* but I am describing a hypothetical situation that might occur if I were one.

2. The subjunctive also survives in a few idiomatic phrases in English as well. For instance, when someone sneezes, we say, *"God bless you,"* or *"Bless you,"* rather than "*God blesses you.*" In this case, examine the subjunctive phrase and contrast it with the indicative.

Subjunctive: "*You sneezed! **God bless** you.*"

In the subjunctive, the phrase indicates a hope or desire that God bless the sneezing individual. Obviously, God isn't blessing that person at the moment, because the person is sick, so the subjunctive indicates a wish contrary to current reality in the speaker's viewpoint.

Indicative: "**God blesses** you each day."

In the **indicative,** the author indicates that God really does bless the individual. This speaker uses the indicative to reflect what he sees as reality; i.e., God blesses people.

3. Finally, the subjunctive can also appear in restrictive clauses after phrases like***I wish that, I hope that, I desire that,*** or***I suggest that,*** when the speaker wishes to emphasize the tentative, contingent, suppositional, or unreal nature of that wish, hope, or suggestion.

Subjunctive: *"I suggest that **John arrive** on Tuesdays this month."*

The day for the weekly arrival is a mere suggestion, a hypothetical idea that John might or might not follow. The statement does not necessarily mean *he will arrive at that time eachweek*. Thus it is subjunctive, not indicative.

Indicative: *"I believe that the **train arrives** on Tuesdays during this month."*

The indicative states a fact the speaker believes is **true**. *The train indeed arrives on Tuesdays each week of this month.*

Subjunctive*: "She wishes that **Americans** in the South **were** more formal today."*

The subjunctive indicates that, in fact, Americans are not formal today. The wish states a desire for an unreal state that does not reflect the current situation.

Indicative: "*She thinks that **Americans** in the South **are** more formal than most Americans today."*

Now the speaker has made a statement in the indicative, which implies that the statement reflects or indicates what reality is actually like.

Note, however, that sometimes the indicative appears after **"if"-** clauses when the speaker wishes to indicate that the possibility is quite realistic.

Indicative: "*If **he brings** Martha to Kosovo for the honeymoon (and he probably will), she will be upset."*

A good hint that the first clause should be indicative is the verb "will" in the second clause, which hints at a statement of reality.

Subjunctive: "If ***he were** to bring Martha to Kosovo for the honeymoon, she might be upset."*

(He might or might not bring her; it is only a possibility. The verb "might" in the last part of the sentence strongly hints that the situation is hypothetical; thus we use subjunctive in the first clause.)

4.Either the subjunctive or the indicative can appear after phrases or clauses including *"might"* and *"may."*

Indicative: "A *car will crash into his house if **he builds** it on Interstate-40."*

The sentence above indicates a real possibility that he is building his house on Interstate-40, and thus a car very likely will crash into it. Thus, it is indicative about reality.

Subjunctive: "*A car might crash into his house if* ***he were to build*** *it on Interstate-40."*

The sentence above using the subjunctive suggests that it is unlikely he actually is building his house on Interstate-40, but instead the speaker brings up the scenario as a hypothetical situation.

5. Finally, one more situation creates the subjunctive mood. The word *"let"* can be used to indicate the desire that some hypothetical situation come to pass or grant permission for this hypothetical situation to take place. This is called a "*jussive subjunctive*."

Indicate: *That peasant* ***eats*** *cake every day.*

Subjunctive: *Let that* ***peasant eat*** *cake every day*.

The category of mood, undoubtedly, is the most controversial category of the verb. On the face of it, the principles of its analysis, the nomenclature, the relation to other categories, in particular, to tenses, all this has received and is receiving different presentations and appraisals with different authors.

Thus, the analysed form-type presents the *mood of attitudes.* Traditionally it is called "subjunctive", or in more modern terminological nomination, "subjunctive one". Since the term "subjunctive" is also used to cover the oblique mood system as a whole, some sort of terminological specification is to be introduced that would give a semantic alternative to the purely formal "subjunctive one" designation. Taking into account the semantics of the form-type in question, we suggest that it should be named the "**spective"** mood, employing just the Latin base for the notion of "attitudes". So, what we are describing now, is the spective form of the subjunctive mood, or, in keeping with the

usual working linguistic parlance, simply the *spective mood,* in its pure, classical manifestation.

cf.: ***Be*** on your guard! *Be off! Do be* careful with the papers! *Don't be* blue! *Do* as I ask you! *Put down* the address, will you? About *turn!*

To sum up, the category of mood expresses the character of connection between the process denoted by the verb and the actual reality, either presenting the process as a fact that really happened, happens or will happen, or treating it as an imaginary phenomenon, i.e. the subject of a hypothesis, speculation, desire. It follows from this that the functional opposition underlying the category as a whole is constituted by the forms of oblique mood meaning, i.e. those of unreality, contrasted against the forms of direct mood meaning, i.e. those of reality, the former making up the strong member, the latter, the weak member of the opposition.

CHAPTER 10
GRAMMATICAL CATEGORIES OF ADJECTIVE AND ADVERB

The adjective expresses the categorial semantics of property of a substance. It means that each adjective used in the text presupposes relation to some noun the property of whose referent it denotes, such as its *material, colour, dimensions, position, state,* and other characteristics both permanent and temporary. It follows from this that, unlike nouns, adjectives do not possess a full nominative value. Indeed, words like *long, hospitable, fragrant* cannot effect any self-dependent nominations; as units of informative sequences, they exist only in collocations showing what is long, who is hospitable, what is fragrant. Even in contexts where no substance is named, it is presupposed (implied) or denoted by a substitutive word *"one"*, e.g.: *Red is my favourite colour; The blouse is a bit small. Have you got a bigger one?* When the adjective is used independently it is substantivized, i.e. it acquires certain features of a noun.

The semantically bound character of the adjective is emphasised in English by the use of the prop-substitute *one* in the absence of the notional head-noun of the phrase. *E.g.:* I don't want *a yellow balloon,* let me have *the green one* over there.

On the other hand, if the adjective is placed in a nominatively self-dependent position, this leads to its substantivisation. *E.g.: Outside it was a beautiful day, and the sun tinged the snow with* ***red.***

Adjectives are distinguished by a specific **combinability with nouns**, which they modify, if not accompanied by adjuncts, usually in pre-position, and occasionally in postposition; by a combinability with

link-verbs, both functional and notional; by a combinability with modifying adverbs.

In the sentence, the adjective performs the **functions** of ***an attribute***and ***a predicative***. Of the two, the more specific function of the adjective is that of an attribute, (either in preposition to the noun modified or in post-position if accompanied by adjuncts), e.g.: *a suspicious man; a man suspicious of his wife*; since the function of a predicative can be performed by the noun as well.

When combined with link verbs they perform the function of *a predicative* (part of a compound nominal predicate), e.g.: *The man was very suspicious of his wife*. Usually, constructions with the attributive and predicative use of the adjective are easily transformed into each other, as in the examples given. But there are adjectives that can be used only attributively, e.g.*: joint (venture), main (point), lone (wolf), live (music), daily (magazine),* etc.; there are adjectives that are used only predicatively (usually adjectives denoting states and relations), e.g.: *glad, fond, concerned*, etc.; in addition, the predicative or attributive use may differentiate homonymous adjectives or different lexico-semantic variants of the same adjective, cf.: *a certain man - I'm certain that the report is ready; ill manners – I'm ill*.

When used **as predicatives or post-positional attributes**, a considerable number of adjectives, in addition to the general combinability characteristics of the whole class, are distinguished by a complementive combinability with nouns. The **complement-expansions** of adjectives are effected by means of prepositions. *E.g. fond of, jealous of, curious of, suspicious of; angry with, sick with; serious about, certain about, happy about; grateful to, thankful to, etc.* Many such adjectival collocations render essentially verbal meanings and some of them have direct or indirect parallels among verbs. *Cf.: be fond of —*

love, like; *be envious of* - envy; *be angry with* — resent; *be mad for, about* — covet; *be thankful to* — thank.

Alongside of other complementive relations expressed with the help of prepositions and corresponding to direct and prepositional object-relations of verbs, some of these adjectives may render relations of **addressee**. Cf.: *grateful to, indebted to, partial to, useful for.*

To the derivational features of adjectives, belong a number of suffixes and prefixes of which the most important are: *-ful* (hopeful), *-less* (flawless), *-ish* (bluish), *-ous* (famous), *-ive* (decorative), *-ic* (basic); *un-* (unprecedented), *in-* (inaccurate), *pre-* (premature). Among the adjectival affixes should also be named the prefix *a-,* constitutive for the stative subclass which is to be discussed below.

All the adjectives are traditionally divided into two large subclasses: ***qualitative***and ***relative.***

Relative adjectives express such properties of a substance as are determined by the direct relation of the substance to some other substance. *E.g.:* wood — a *wooden* hut; mathematics — *mathematical* precision; history — a *historical* event; table — *tabular* presentation; colour — *coloured* postcards; surgery — *surgical* treatment; the Middle Ages — *mediaeval* rites.

The nature of this "relationship" in adjectives is best revealed by definitional correlations. *Cf.:* a *wooden* hut — a hut made of wood; a *historical* event — an event referring to a certain period of history; *surgical* treatment — treatment consisting in the implementation of surgery; etc.

Qualitative adjectives, as different from relative ones, denote various qualities of substances which admit of a quantitative estimation, i.e. of establishing their correlative quantitative measure. The measure of a quality can be estimated as high or low, adequate or inadequate, sufficient or insufficient, optimal or excessive. *E.g. :* an *awkward* situa-

tion — a *very awkward* situation; a *difficult* task — *too difficult* a task; an *enthusiastic* reception — *rather* an *enthusiastic* reception; a *hearty* welcome — *not* a *very hearty* welcome; etc.

In this connection, the ability of an adjective to form degrees of comparison is usually taken as a formal sign ofits qualitative character, in opposition to a relative adjective which is understood as incapable of forming degrees of comparison by definition. *Cf.:* a *pretty* girl — a *prettier* girl; a *quick* look — a *quicker* look; a *hearty* welcome — the *heartiest* of welcomes; a *bombastic* speech — the *most bombastic* speech.

In actual speech the described principle of distinction is not at all strictly observed, which is noted in the very grammar treatises putting it forward. Two typical cases of contradiction should be pointed out here.

In the first place, substances can possess such qualities as are incompatible with the idea of degrees of comparison. Accordingly, adjectives denoting these qualities, while belonging to the qualitative subclass, are in the ordinary use incapable of forming degrees of comparison. Here refer adjectives like *extinct, immobile, deaf, final, fixed,* etc.

In the second place, many adjectives considered under the heading of relative still can form degrees of comparison, thereby, as it were, transforming the denoted relative property of a substance into such as can be graded quantitatively. *E.g..:* a *mediaeval* approach—*rather* a *mediaeval* approach — a *far more mediaeval* approach; of a *military* design — of a *less military* design — of a *more military* design;

The suggested distinction is based on the evaluative function of adjectives. According as they actually give some qualitative evaluation to the substance referent or only point out its corresponding native property, all the adjective functions may be grammatically divided into

"evaluative" and **"specificative"**. In particular, one and the same adjective, irrespective of its being basically (i.e. in the sense of the fundamental semantic property of its root constituent) **"relative"** or "**qualitative**", can be used either in the evaluative function or in the specificative function.

For instance, the adjective *good* is basically qualitative. On the other hand, when employed as a grading term in teaching, i.e. a term forming part of the marking scale together with the grading terms *bad, satisfactory, excellent,* it acquires the said specificative value; in other words, it becomes a **specificative,** not an evaluative unit in the grammatical sense(though, dialectically, it does signify in this case a lexical evaluation of the pupil's progress). Conversely, the adjective *wooden* is basically relative, but when used in the broader meaning "expressionless" or "awkward" it acquires an evaluative force and, consequently, can presuppose a greater or lesser degree ("amount") of the denoted properly in the corresponding referent. *E.g.:Bundle found herself looking into the expressionless,* ***wooden*** *face of Superintendent Battle The superintendent was sitting behind a table and looking* ***more wooden****than ever .*

The degrees of comparison are essentially **evaluative formulas**, therefore any adjective used in a higher comparison degree (comparative, superlative) is thereby made into an evaluative adjective, if only for the nonce.

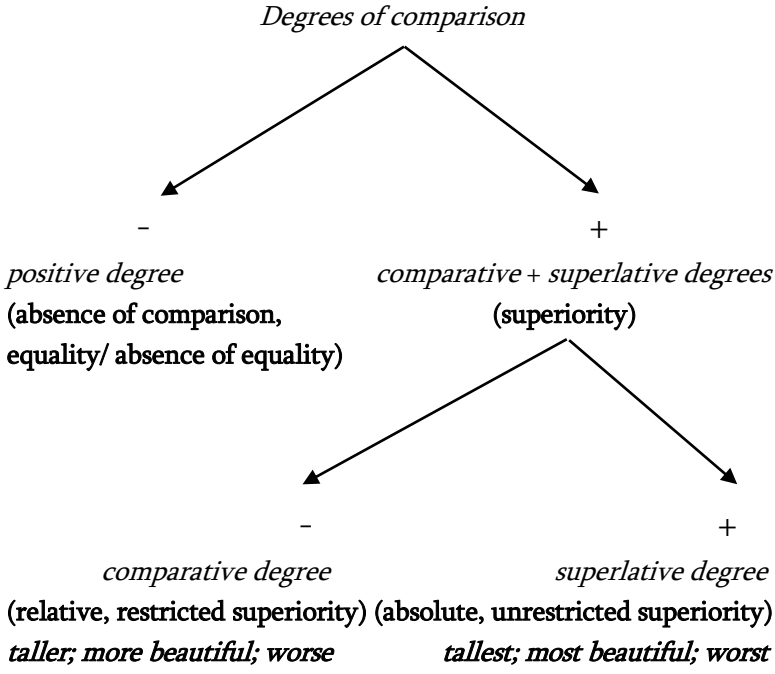
Thus, the introduced distinction between the evaluative and specificative uses of adjectives, in the long run, emphasises the fact that the morphological category of comparison (comparison degrees) is potentially represented in the whole class of adjectives and is constitutive for it.

The category of comparison expresses the quantitative characteristics of the quality rendered by theadjective, in other words, it expresses the relative evaluation of the amount of the quality of some

referent in comparison with other referents possessing the same quality.

Three forms constitute this category: ***the positive degree***, ***the comparative degree***, and ***the superlative degree*** forms of the adjective. The basic form, known as the positive degree, has no special formal mark, e.g.: *tall, beautiful*; the comparative degree is marked by two kinds of forms; synthetical forms with the suffix ***"-er"*** and analytical forms with the auxiliary word *more,* e.g.*: taller, more beautiful*; the superlative degree is also formed either synthetically with the help of the grammatical suffix ***"-est"***, or analytically with the help of the auxiliary word *most,* e.g.*: tallest, most beautiful*. The synthetic and analytical degrees stand in complementary distribution to each other, their choice is determined by syllabo-phonetic forms of adjectives. Also, there are **suppletive forms** of the degrees of comparison, e.g.: *bad – worse – worst.*The analytical forms of comparison perform a double function. **On the one hand**, they are used with the evaluative adjectives that, due to their phonemic structure (two-syllable words with the stress on the first syllable ending in other grapho-phonemic complexes than ***-er, -y, -le, -ow*** or words of more than two-syllable composition) cannot normally take the synthetical forms of comparison. In this respect, the analytical comparison forms are in categorial complementary distribution with the synthetical comparison forms. **On the other hand**, the analytical forms of comparison, as different from the synthetical forms, are used to express emphasis, thus complementing the synthetical forms in the sphere of this important stylistic connotation. E.g.: *The audience became* ***more and more noisy****, and soon the speaker's words were drowned in the general hum of voices.*

The category of comparison can be reduced to two binary oppositions correlated with each other in a hierarchy of two levels in the following way:



On the upper level the positive degree, as the unmarked member, is opposed to the comparative and superlative degrees, as the marked forms of the opposition, denoting the superiority of a certain referent in the property named by the adjective. The weak member, the positive degree, has a wider range of meanings: it denotes either *the absence of comparison*, or *equality/inequality* in special constructions of comparison, e.g.: *He is tall; He is as tall as my brother; He is not so tall as my brother*. On the lower level the comparative degree is opposed to the superlative degree. The comparative degree denotes *relative*, or *restricted superiority*, involving a restricted number of referents compared, normally two, e.g.: *He is taller than my brother*. The

superlative degree denotes *absolute,* or *unrestricted superiority*, implying that all the members of a certain class of referents are compared and the referent of the word modified by the adjective possesses the property in question to the highest possible degree, e.g.: *He is the tallest man I've ever seen.* The superlative degree at this level of the opposition is the strong member, being more concrete in its semantics

The opposition can be contextually reduced: the superlative degree can be used instead of the positive degree in contexts where no comparison is meant, to denote **a very high degree** of a certain quality intensely presented, cf.: *She is a **most unusual** woman (She is an extremely unusual woman); It was **most generous** of you (It was very generous of you)*. This kind of grammatical transposition is known as "***the elative superlative***". Thus, the superlative degree is used in two senses: the absolute superiority (unrestricted superiority) and the elative superiority (a very high degree of a certain quality). The formal mark of the difference between the two cases is the possibility **of indefinite article** determination or the use of the **zero article** with the noun modified by the adjective in the superlative degree, e.g.: *It was a most generous gesture; a sensation of deepest regret*.

The quantitative evaluation of a quality involves not only an increase in its amount or its intensity, but also the **reverse,** its reduction, rendered by the combination of the adjective with the words ***less*** **a**nd ***least,*** e.g.: *important, less important, least important*. These combinations can be treated as specific analytical forms of the category of comparison: they denote what can be called "***negative comparison***", or "***reverse comparison***" and are formed with the help of the auxiliary words ***less*** and ***least***.

Among the words signifying properties of a nounal referent there is a lexemic set which claims to be recognised as a separate part of

speech, i.e. as a class of words different from the adjectives in its class-forming features. These are words built up by the prefix ***a-***and denoting different states, mostly of temporary duration. Here belong lexemes like *afraid, agog, adrift, ablaze.* In traditional grammar these words were generally considered under the heading of "**predicative adjectives**" (some of them also under the heading of adverbs**), *the category of state words*", or "*statives*";** since their most typical position in the sentence is that of a predicative and they are but occasionally used as prepositional attributes to nouns.

The category of adjectival comparison expresses the **quantitative** characteristic of the quality of a nounal referent, i.e. it gives a relative evaluation of the quantity of a quality. The purely relative nature of the categorial semantics of comparison is reflected in its name.

Some linguists approach the number of the degrees of comparison as problematic on the grounds that the basic form of the adjective does not express any comparison by itself and therefore should be excluded from the category. This exclusion would reduce the category to two members only, i.e. the comparative and superlative degrees.

The structure of the analytical degrees of comparison is meaningfully overt; these forms are devoid of the feature of "**semantic idiomatism**" characteristic of some other categorial analytical forms, such as, for instance, the forms of the verbal perfect.

The reasons advanced, though claiming to be based on an analysis of actual lingual data, can hardly be called convincing as regards their immediate negative purpose.

Let us first consider the use of the *most*-combination with the indefinite article.

This combination is a common means of expressing elative evaluations of substance properties. The function of the elative *most*-const-

ruction in distinction to the function of the superlative *most*-construction will be seen from the following examples:

The speaker launched ***a most significant*** *personal attack on the Prime Minister.* ***The most significant*** *of the arguments in a dispute is not necessarily* ***the most spectacular one.***

While the phrase "a most significant (personal) attack in the first of the two examples gives, the idea of rather a high degree of the quality expressed irrespective of any directly introduced or implied comparison with other attacks on the Prime Minister. The phrase "the most significant of the arguments" expresses exactly the superlative degree of the quality in relation to the immediately introduced comparison with all the rest of the arguments in a dispute; the same holds true of the phrase "the most spectacular one". It is this exclusion of the outwardly superlative adjective from a comparison that makes it into a simple elative, with its *most*-constituent turned from the superlative auxiliary into a kind of a lexical intensifier.

ADVERB

The adverb is usually defined as a word expressing either property of an action, or property of another property, or circumstances in which an action occurs. This definition, though certainly informative and instructive, fails to directly point out the relation between the adverb and the adjective as the primary qualifying part of speech. The adverb is a notional part of speech denoting, like the adjective, property; the adverb denotes *non-substantive properties*: in most cases the properties of actions (*to walk quickly*), or the properties of other properties (*very quick*), or the properties of the situations in which the processes occur (*to walk again*). In other words, the adverb can be defined as a qualifying word of the secondary qualifying order, while the adjective is a primary qualifying word.

The adverb is the least numerous and the least independent of all the notional parts of speech; it has a great number of semantically weakened words intermediary between notional and functional words; this is why its notional part of speech status was doubted for a long time: the first grammarians listed adverbs among the particles.

Adverbs are characterized by their *combinability* with verbs, adjectives and other adverbs, which they modify. They perform the *functions* of various *adverbial modifiers*: of time (*yesterday*), place (*there*), of manner (*secretly*), etc. The adverbs which refer to whole situations are defined as situation-"*determinants*", e.g.: *They quarreled again.*

There are certain contexts in which adverbs combine with nouns and perform a peculiar *function of mixed adverbial-attributive character*,essentially in post-position, but in some cases also in pre-position e.g.: *the trip abroad, his return home, the then President of the US,* etc. This is the result of the nominalization of syntactic constructions in which the correspondent adverb functions as a regular adverbial modifier, cf.: *his return home ← he returned home; the then President of the US ← the person who was the president of the US then*; *The world today presents a picture radically different from what it was before the Second World War.*

The use of adverbs in outwardly attributive positions in such and like examples appears to be in contradiction with the functional destination of the adverb — a word that is intended to qualify a non-nounal syntactic element by definition.

In accord with this principle, each predicative syntactic construction **paradigmatically** correlates with a noun-phrase displaying basically the same semantic relations between its notional constituents. A predicative construction can be actually changed into a noun-phrase, by which change the dynamic situation expressed by the predicative

construction receives a static name. Now, adverbs-determinants modifying in constructions of this kind the situation as a whole, are preserved in the corresponding nominalised phrases without a change in their inherent functional status. *E.g.:*

The world that exists ***today****.* → *The world* ***today****. We kept vigil* ***overnight.*** → *Our vigil* ***overnight. Then*** *he was the President.* → *The* ***then*** *President.*

What is important here, is the fact that the adverb used to modify a noun actually relates to the whole corresponding situation underlying the nounphrase.

In accord with their word-building structure adverbs may be ***simple*** and ***derived.***

Simple adverbs are rather few, and nearly all of them display functional semantics, mostly of pronominal character: *here, there, now, then, so, quite, why, how, where, when.*

The typical adverbial affixes in affixal derivation are, first and foremost, the basic and only productive adverbial suffix *-ly (slowly, tiredly, rightly, firstly),* and then a couple of others of limited distribution, such as *-ways (sideways, crossways), -wise (clockwise), -ward(s) (homewards, seawards, afterwards).* The characteristic adverbial prefix is *a- (away, ahead, apart, across).* Among the adverbs there are also peculiar composite formations and phrasal formations of prepositional, conjunctional and other types: *sometimes, nowhere, anyhow; at least, at most, at last; to and fro; upside down;* etc. There is a large group of adverbs homonymous with words of other parts of speech, both **notional and functional**. Some adverbs are **adjective-stem conversives** (zero-derived adverbs), cf.: *a hard work – to work hard, a flat roof – to fall flat into the water*, etc.

Of quite a different nature are preposition-adverb-like elements which, placed in post-position to the verb, form a semantical blend

with it. By combining with these elements, verbs of broader meaning are subjected to a regular, systematic multiplication of their semantic functions. *E.g.:* to give — to give *up,* to give *in,* to give *out,* to give *away,* to give *over,* etc.; These functional words make a special set of particles; they are intermediary between the word and the morpheme and can be called "***postpositives***".

Adverbs are commonly divided into qualitative, quantitative and circumstantial. The qualitative adverbs denote the inherent qualities of actions and other qualities; most of them are derived from qualitative adjectives, e.g.: *bitterly, hard, beautifully, well*, etc. The quantitativeadverbs show quantity measure; genuine quantitative adverbs are usually derived from numerals, e.g.: *twice, three times, tenfold, manifold*, etc. The circumstantial adverbs denote mainly the circumstances of time and place (they can also be defined as "*orientative*"), e.g.: *today, here, when, far, ashore, abroad, often*, etc.

The adverbs interpreted as "quantitative" include words of degree. These are specific lexical units of semi-functional nature expressing quality measure, or gradational evaluation of qualities. They may be subdivided into several very clearly pronounced sets.

The first set is formed by adverbs of high degree. These adverbs are sometimes classed as **"intensifiers**": *very, quite, entirely, utterly, highly, greatly, perfectly, absolutely, strongly, considerably, pretty, much.* The second set includes adverbs of **excessive degree** (direct and reverse) also belonging to the broader subclass of intensifiers: *too, awfully, tremendously, dreadfully, terrifically.* The third set is made up of adverbs of **unexpected degree**: *surprisingly, astonishingly, amazingly.* The fourth set is formed by adverbs of **moderate degree**: *fairly, comparatively, relatively, moderately, rather.* The fifth set includes adverbs of **low degree:** *slightly, a little, a bit.* The sixth set is constituted by adverbs of **approximate degree**: *almost, nearly.* The seventh set

includes adverbs of **optimal degree**: *enough, sufficiently, adequately.* The eighth set is formed by adverbs of **inadequate degree**: *insufficiently, intolerably, unbearably, ridiculously.* The ninth set is made up of adverbs of **under-degree**: *hardly, scarcely.*

As for circumstantial adverbs of more self-dependent nature, they include two basic sets: first, adverbs of **time**; second, adverbs of **place**: *today, tomorrow, already, ever, never, shortly, recently, seldom, early, late; homeward, eastward, near, far, outside, ashore,* etc. The two varieties express a general idea of **temporal and spatial orientation** and essentially perform **deictic (indicative)** functions in the broader sense. Bearing this in mind, we may unite them under the general heading of **"orientative**" adverbs, reserving the term "circumstantial" to syntactic analysis of utterances.

Among the various types of adverbs, those formed from adjectives by means of the suffix *-ly* occupy the most representative place and pose a special problem.

The problem is introduced by the very regularity of their derivation, the rule of which can be formulated quite simply: each qualitative adjective has a parallel adverb in *-ly. E. g.:* silent — silently, slow — slowly, tolerable — tolerably, pious — piously, sufficient — sufficiently, tired — tiredly, explosive — explosively, etc.

Thus, the whole class of adverbs can be divided, first, into nominal and pronominal, then the nominal adverbs can be subdivided into qualitative and orientative, the former including genuine qualitative adverbs and degree adverbs, the latter divided into temporal and local adverbs, with further possible subdivisions of each group.

Like adjectives, adverbs are also subdivided *functionally* into *evaluative*and *specificative*. When used in their evaluative function, adverbs (qualitative adverbs, predominantly) distinguish *the category of comparison* and have five morphological forms: one positive, two

comparative (direct and reverse) and two superlative (direct and reverse), e.g.: *bitterly – more bitterly, less bitterly – most bitterly, least bitterly*. Their superlative degree form can also be used either in the *absolute sense* (to denote absolute superiority) or in the *elative sense*, denoting a high degree of the property, e.g.: *The youngest kid cried most bitterly of all. – The kid cried most bitterly.* When used in the specificative function, adverbs are unchangeable, e.g.: *We meet today; We came ashore*.

CHAPTER 11
THE WORD-GROUP THEORY. SYNTAX OF THE PHRASE.
NOUN, ADJECTIVE and VERB GROUPS (PHRASES)

There are a lot of definitions concerning the **word-group**. The most adequate one seems to be the following: **the word-group (phrase)** is a combination of at least two notional words, which do not constitute the sentence but are syntactically connected. According to some other scholars, a combination of a notional word with a function word (*on the table*) may be treated as a word-group as well. The problem is disputable as the role of function words is to show some abstract relations and they are devoid of nominative power. On the other hand, such combinations are syntactically bound and they should belong somewhere. Like the word, the **phrase** is a nominative unit, but it provides a complex nomination of the referent, a polynomination consisting of several (at least two) nominative components, presenting the referent as a complicated phenomenon, cf.: *a girl – a beautiful girl; a decision – his unexpected decision;* etc. Moreover, the regular **free phrase** does not enter speech as a ready-made unit like the word; it is freely formed in speech, like the sentence according to a certain grammatical pattern. As for the **fixed word-combinations, idioms,** they are closer to the word in the type of nomination: they are ready-made units fixed in dictionaries and studied mainly by lexicology. The basic **difference** between the phrase and the sentence is as follows: the phrase cannot express full predication, even if it denotes a situation;

According to the classification based on the internal structure of phrases, two groups can be singled out: **kernel phrases and kernel-free phrases**. **Kernel phrases** are grammatically organized structures in which one element dominates the others. This element is not subor-

dinated to any other element within the group, therefore it is the **leading element**, that is, the kernel of the given phrase (for example, *a nice place, well-known artists, absolutely*

positive, to run fast, to see a movie, to taste good).

Kernel-free phrases are divided into dependent and independent, which are further subdivided into one-class and hetero-class and characterized by a certain type of syntactic connection

General characteristics of the word-group are:

1) As a naming unit it differs from a compound word because the number of constituents in a word-group corresponds to the number of **different denotates**: a black bird – შავი ჩიტი (2), a blackbird – შავჩიტი(1);a loud speaker (2), a loudspeaker (1).

2) Each component of the word-group can undergo grammatical changes without destroying the identity of the whole unit: *to see a house - to see houses.*

3) A word-group is a dependent syntactic unit, it is not a communicative unit and has no intonation of its own.

Word-groups can be **classified** on the basis of several principles:

According to the type of **syntagmatic relations**: **coordinate** (*you andme*), **subordinate** (*to see a house, a nice dress*), **predicative** (*him coming, for him to come*),

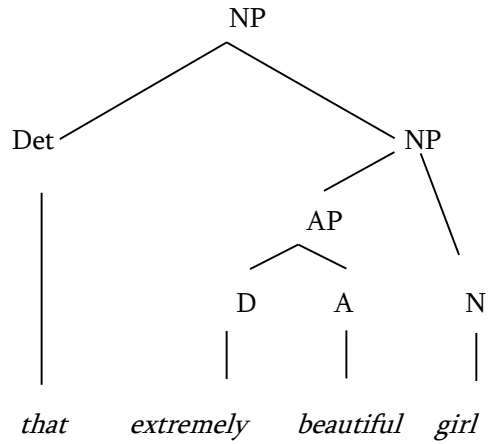
According to **the structure**: **simple** (all elements are obligatory), **expanded** (*to read and translate the text* – expanded elements are equal in rank), **extended** (a word takes a dependent element and this dependent element becomes the head for another word: *a beautifulflower – a very beautiful flower*).

On the basis of constituent rank, the groupings of notional words are subdivided into ***dominational* (*subordinative)* and *equipotent (coordinative)*.** The constituents of equipotent phrases are of equal syntactic rank; none of them modifies another, e.g.: *poor but honest; mad, bad and dangerous*; *his, not Mary's;* etc. In dominational phrases, one word

modifies another. The principal constituent, which dominates the other constituent syntactically, is called ***the kernel, the key-word,*** **or** ***the head word***; the subordinate (dominated) constituent, which modifies the kernel, is called ***the adjunct***, ***the adjunct-word,*** **or** ***the expansion*****(in noun-phrases) or the** ***complement*** **(in verb-phrases**). For example, in the word-combination *a beautiful girl* the word '*a girl'* is the kernel, and '*beautiful'* is the adjunct. In predicative groupings of words the subject dominates the predicate, determining the person of predication; formally, domination is manifested by the reflection of the person and number properties of the subject in the form of the verb performing the function of a predicate. The predicate dominates the subject, determining the event of predication, some action, state, or quality; in the transformation of nominalization the transform of the predicate occupies the position of the head-word, while the subject becomes its adjunct, cf.: *he decided → his decision*.

According to the nature of **their heads**, subordinate word-groups fall into **noun-phrases** (NP) – *a cup of tea*, **verb-phrases (VP)** – *to run fast*, *to see a house*, **adjective phrases (AP)** – *good for you*, **adverbial phrases (DP)** – *so quickly*, **pronoun phrases (IP)** – *something strange, nothing to do*.

The phrase, like any other lingual unit consisting of several components, can be analyzed in a linear way or in a hierarchical way, in an immediate constituents analysis, which shows the levels of dependences between its components. E.g. ***That extremely beautiful girl***



The formation of the subordinate word-group depends on the valency of its constituents. Valency is a potential ability of words to combine. The actual realization of valency in speech is called **combinability.**

The noun-phrase (NP). A noun phrase is any phrase which can act as a complete subject, object, etc. in a sentence; e.g. *The big red block", \Most of the first three coaches".* Noun phrases are typically used to refer to objects, but note the use of the dummy NPs `there' and `it'. as in (1) and(2).

(1) There is a dog howling in the yard

(2) It is impossible for me to see you now

Noun word-groups are widely spread in English. This may be explained by a potential ability of the noun to go into combinations with practically all parts of speech. The NP consists of a noun-head and an adjunct or adjuncts with relations of modification between them. Three types of modification are distinguished here:

Pre-modification that comprises all the units placed before the head: *two smart hard-working students.* Adjuncts used in pre-head position are called **pre-posed adjuncts**.

Post-modification that comprises all the units all the units placed over the head: *students from Boston.* Adjuncts used in post-head position are called **post-posed adjuncts**.

Mixed modification comprises all the units in both pre-head and post-head position: *two smart hard-working students from Boston.*

Noun-phrases with pre-posed adjuncts. In noun-phrases with pre-posed modifiers we generally find adjectives, pronouns, numerals, participles, gerunds, nouns, nouns in the genitive case (see the table). According to their position all pre-posed adjuncts may be divided into pre-adjectivals and adjectiavals. The position of adjectivals is usually right before the noun-head. Pre-adjectivals occupy the position before adjectivals. They fall into two groups: a) **limiters** (to this group belong mostly particles): *just, only, even, etc.* and b) **determiners** (articles, possessive pronouns, quantifiers – *the first, the last*).

Pre-modification of nouns by nouns (N+N) is one of the most striking features about the grammatical organization of English. It is one of devices to make our speech both laconic and expressive at the same time. Noun-adjunct groups result from different kinds of trans-formational shifts. NPs with pre-posed adjuncts can signal a striking variety of meanings:

e.g. world peace – peace all over the world; silver box – a box made of silver; table lamp – lamp for tables; table legs – the legs of the table; river sand – sand from the river; school child – a child who goes to school.

The grammatical relations observed in NPs with **pre-posed adjuncts** may convey the following meanings:

Subject-predicate relations: *weather change*;

Object relations: *health service, women hater;*

adverbial relations: a) of **time:** *morning star,* b) **place**: *world peace, country house,* c) **comparison:** *button eyes,* d) **purpose:** *tooth brush.*

It is important to remember that the noun-adjunct is usually marked by a stronger stress than the head.Of special interest is a kind of 'grammatical idiom' where the modifier is reinterpreted into the head: *a devil of a man, an angel of a girl.*

Noun-phrases with post-posed adjuncts. NPs with post-posed may be classified according to the way of connection into **prepositionless and prepositional.** The basic prepositionless NPs with post-posed adjuncts are: Nadj. – *tea strong*, NVen – *the shape unknown*, NVing – *the girl smiling*, ND – *the man downstairs*, NVinf – *a book to read*, NNum – *room ten*.

Pronouns are usually abbreviated references to objects that have recently been mentioned or are somehow available from the context: `it', `he', `she', `I', `them'. The form of a pronoun is generally determined by the role it is playing in the sentence, often known as its case (Figure 2). Proper nouns/proper names name specific items, whereas most nouns (common nouns) are viewed as naming some generic class of items or substance. Example proper nouns are `John', `Kate Bush', `Scotland', `AI2'.

Determiners are the usual specifies of noun phrases. A determiner can be an article(`the', `a' or `an'), a possessive pronoun (`his', etc), a quantifier (`many', `some'), a possessive noun phrase (`my father's'), or a demonstrative (`this' , `that').

Modifiers of noun phrases take the form of pre-modifiers (e.g. adjectives) and post modifiers (e.g. prepositional phrases and relative clauses). A Relative clause comes after a noun phrase; e.g. as in `*The man who you saw is here'*. It can start with or without a relative pronoun (`who', `which', `that', `where', `when'). A relative clause is

in form similar to a sentence, but with a noun phrase missing at some point.

Verb Phrases. A verb phrase is basically a verb plus its complement(s); e.g. `gave the parcel to the clerk',`runs'. Verb phrases have no obvious specifiers. As modifiers they can have adverbs and

prepositional phrases.

Adverbs are attached to a verb to qualify its meaning. However, this sometimes tends

to become something of an all-purpose class where difficult words (e.g. \only") can be put.

Examples: \beautifully", \quickly".

Prepositional Phrases

A prepositional phrase may be required (for instance, by a verb that it comes after) to contain a particular preposition (see below on subcategorisation). There are not many possible forms for PPs in English, though adverbs can act as modifiers to PPs, as indirectly above the window'.

Adjective Phrases

Adjective phrases usually consist of single adjectives, but it is possible for these to be accompanied by an indication of degree and some number of adverbs as modifiers, as in very commonly used'.

The verb-phrase. The VP is a definite kind of the subordinate phrase with the verb as the head. The verb is considered to be the semantic and structural centre not only of the VP but of the whole sentence as the verb plays an important role in making up primary predication that serves the basis for the sentence. VPs are more complex than NPs as there are a lot of ways in which verbs may be combined in actual usage.

Classification of verb-phrases. VPs can be classified according to the nature of their **complements** – verb complements may be nominal (*to see a house*) and adverbial (*to behave well*). Consequently, we distinguish **nominal, adverbial and mixed complementation**.

Nominal complementation takes place when one or more nominal complements (nouns or pronouns) are obligatory for the realization of potential valency of the verb: *to give smth. to smb., to phone smb., to hear smth.(smb.), etc.*

Adverbial complementation occurs when the verb takes one or more adverbial elements obligatory for the realization of its potential valency: *He behaved well, I live in Batumi (here).*

Mixed complementation – both nominal and adverbial elements are obligatory: *He put his hat on the table* (nominal-adverbial). According to the structure VPs may be basic or simple (*to take abook)* – all elements are obligatory; expanded (*to read and translate thetext, toread books and newspapers*) and extended (*to read an English book*).

Predicative word-groups. Predicative word combinations are distinguished on the basis of secondary predication. Like sentences, predicative word-groups are binary in their structure but actually differ essentially in their organization. The sentence is an independent communicative unit based on primary predication while the predicative word-group is a dependent syntactic unit that makes up a part of the sentence. The predicative word-group consists of a **nominal element** (noun, pronoun) and **a non-finite form of the verb**: N + Vnon-fin. There are Gerundial, Infinitive and Participial word-groups (complexes) in the English language: *his reading*, *for me to know, the boy running, etc.)*

Three types of **syntactic connections** can be singled out: **coordination, subordination and accumulation.**

Coordination: coordinate phrases consist of two or more syntactically equivalent units joined in a cluster which functions as a single unit. The member units can be potentially joined together by means of a coordinate conjunction.

Subordination: subordinate phrases are structures in which one of the members is syntactically the leading element of the phrase. This dominating element is called the headword, or the kernel, and can be expressed by different parts of speech.

Accumulation: the accumulative connection is present when no other type of syntactic connection can be identified. e.g. *(to give) the boy an apple – (to give) an apple to the boy.*

CHAPTER 12
SYNTAX. BASIC SYNTACTIC NOTIONS. SENTENCE MODELS. COMMUNICATIVE TYPES OF THE SENTENCE

The grammatical structure of language comprises two major parts – **morphology and syntax.** The two areas are obviously interdependent and together they constitute the study of grammar.

Morphology deals with paradigmatic and syntagmatic properties of morphological units – morphemes and words. It is concerned with the internal structure of words and their relationship to other words and word forms within the paradigm. It studies morphological categories and their realization.

Syntax, on the other hand, deals with the way words are combined.The word 'syntax' is derived from the Greek 'syntax is' which literal means '**composition', or 'order'**. It is concerned with the external functions of words and their relationship to other words within the linearly ordered units – word-groups, sentences and texts. Syntax studies the way in which the units and their meanings are combined. It also deals with the peculiarities of syntactic units, their behavior in different contexts.

Syntactic units may be analyzed from different points of view, and accordingly, different syntactic theories exist.

Basic syntactic notions.

The syntactic language level can be described with the help of special linguistic terms and notions: **syntactic unit, syntactic form, syntactic meaning, syntactic function, syntactic position, and syntactic relations.**

Syntactic unit is always a combination that has at least two constituents. The basic syntactic units are a **word-group, a clause, a**

sentence, and a text. Their main features are:they are hierarchical units – the units of a lower level serve the building material for the units of a higher level;as all language units the syntactic units are of two-fold nature:

$$\text{Syntactic unit} = \frac{\text{content side}}{\text{expression side}} = \frac{\text{syntactic meaning}}{\text{syntactic form}}$$

They are of communicative and non-communicative nature – **word-groups** and **clauses** are of **non-communicative nature** while **sentences** and **texts**are of **communicative nature**.

Syntactic meaning is the way in which separate word meanings are combined to produce meaningful word-groups and sentences. **Syntactic meaning** is based on the syntactical distributional classification of words. The main syntactic meanings given by American linguists (Bloomfild, Friers, Harries) are those of a noun, verb, adjective and adverb. Words outside this position are considered as function words of different syntactic values.

Green ideas sleep furiously.-This sentence is quite correct grammatically. However it makes no sense as it lacks syntactic meaning.

Syntactic form of the word is a form which is determined by the **combinability** of the given word. It demonstrates the connection between syntax and morphology. There are 2 forms of non-objection:1) nominative 2) objective case. **Syntactic form** may be described as the distributional formula of the unit (pattern).

John hits the ball – N1 + V + N2.

Syntactic function is the syntactic properties of the word. It is included to a larger unit: in the word-group *a smart student* the word 'smart' is in subordinate attributive relations to the head element. In traditional terms it is used to denote syntactic function of a unit within the sentence (*subject, predicate*, etc.). They can be divided into 2

groups:1) method of combining with other words; 2) function in the sentence (ex. A noun can function as a subject or an object, function of object is an attribute). It may combine in the sentence with adjective or verb.

Syntactic position is the position of an element. The order of constituents in syntactic units is of principal importance in analytical languages. The syntactic position of an element may determine its relationship with the other elements of the same unit: *his broad back, a back district, to go back, to back sm.***Syntactic position** is a position of a word in a syntagma. There are 2 types of position:1) preposition 2) postposition

There are **4 types of syntagma**:

1) predicative syntagmas: subject + predicate

2) objective syntagmas: verb + object;

3) attributive syntagmas: attribute + noun;

4) adverbial syntagmas: verb (adjective or adverb) + its adverbial modifier: to read fast, very bright, too late.

Syntactic relations are syntagmatic relations observed between syntactic units. They are immediate, linear relations between parts of a syntactic unit. They can be of three types – **coordination, subordination** and **predication**.

Coordination (SR1) – syntagmatic relations of independence. SR1 can be observed on the phrase, sentence and text levels. Coordination may be symmetric and asymmetric. **Symmetric** coordination is characterized by complete interchangeability of its elements – *pens and pencils*. **Asymmetric** coordination occurs when the position of elements is fixed: *ladies and gentlemen*. Forms of connection within SR1 may be **copulative** (*you and me*), **disjunctive** (*you or me*), **adversative** (*strict but just*) and **causative-consecutive** (sentence and text level only).

Subordination (SR2) – syntagmatic relations of dependence. SR2 are established between the constituents of different linguistic rank. They are observed on the phrase and sentence level. Subordination may be of three different kinds – **adverbial** (*to speak slowly*), **objective** (*to see a house*) and **attributive** (*a beautiful flower*). Forms of subordination may also be different – **agreement** (*this book – these books*), **government** (*help us*), **adjournment** (the use of modifying particles *just, only, even, etc.*) and **enclosure** (the use of modal words and their equivalents *really, after all, etc.*).

Predication (SR3) – syntagmatic relations of interdependence. Predication may be of two kinds – primary (sentence level) and secondary (phrase level). **Primary** predication is observed between the subject and the predicate of the sentence while **secondary** predication is observed between non-finite forms of the verb and nominal elements within the sentence. **Secondary** predication serves the basis for gerundial, infinitive and participial word-groups (predicative complexes).

Syntax as part of grammar. The main units of syntax.

Syntax as part of grammar analyses the rules of combining words into phrases, sentences and supra-sentential constructions or texts.

The rules of combinability of linguistic units are connected with the most general and abstract parts of content of the elements of language. These parts of content together with the formal means of their expression are treated as **"grammatical categories".** In syntax, they are, for instance, the categories of communicative purpose or emphasis, which are actualized by means of word-order. Thus, **word-order** (direct or indirect), viewed as a grammatical form, expresses the difference between the central idea of the sentence and the marginal idea, between emotive and unemotive modes of speech, e.g.:*In the center of the room stood the old man.*

The word arrangement in this sentence expresses a narrative description with the central informative element placed in the strongest position, i.e. at the end.

The sentence is the immediate unit of speech built up of words according to a definite syntactic pattern and distinguished by a communicative purpose. The sentence, naming a certain situation, expresses **predication**, i.e. shows the relation of the denoted event to reality through the grammatical categories of tense, person and mood. The **category of tense** is used to convey something new and define its place in reality as preceding, or following the act of communication. The **category of person** shows, whether the situation involves the communicators or not. Through the **category of mood** the event is shown as real or unreal, desirable or obligatory.

Thus, the sentence presents a unity in its nominative and predicative aspects, denoting a certain event in its reference to reality. The distinguishing features of the **sentence** are **predication, modality and communicative meaningfulness.**

It is stated that the center of predication in a sentence of verbal type is a **finite verb,** which expresses essential predicative meanings by its categorial forms (categories of tense and mood). Some linguists insist that predication is effected not only by the forms of the finite verb, but also by all the other forms and elements of the sentence, which help establish the connection between the named objects and reality. They are such means as intonation, word order, different functional words.

Communicative Types of Sentences

Due to their nominative meaning, both the sentence and the phrase enter the system of language by their syntactic patterns. The traditional linguistics considers four main **types of syntactic patterns: predicative (subject + predicate), objective (verb +object), attributive (attribute + noun), adverbial (verb/adverb/adjective + adverbial modifier).**

The sentence is above all a communicative unit; therefore, the primary classification of sentences is based on the communicative principle, traditionally defined as "*the purpose of communication*". According to the purpose of **communication,** sentences are subdivided into ***declarative***, ***interrogative*** and ***imperative***.

Declarative sentences are traditionally defined as those expressing statements, either affirmative or negative, e.g.: *He (didn't) shut the window.* **Imperative** sentences express inducements of various kinds (orders or requests); they may also be either affirmative or negative, e.g.: *(Don't) Shut the window, please.* **Interrogative** sentences express questions, or requests for information, e.g.: *Did he shut the window?*

The strictly declarative sentence immediately expresses a certain proposition, and the actual division of the declarative sentence presents itself in the most developed and complete form: the rheme of the declarative sentence provides the immediate information that constitutes the informative center of the sentence in opposition with its thematic part, e.g.: *He* (theme) *shut the window* (rheme).

The strictly **imperative** sentence does not express any statement of fact, i.e. any proposition proper. It is only based on a proposition, without formulating it directly, e.g.: *Let him shut the window (He hasn't shut the window)*. Thus, the rheme of the imperative sentence expresses the informative nucleus notof an explicit proposition, but of an inducement, an action wanted, required, necessary, etc. (or, unwanted, unnecessary, etc.).

The rheme of the **interrogative** sentence is informationally open: it is an informative gap, which is to be filled by the answer. This rhematic "zero" in pronominal ("special") questions is expressed by an interrogative pronoun, which is substituted by the actual information wanted in the answer, e.g.: *Who shut the window? – Tom (did).*

Traditionally, the so-called ***exclamatory sentence*** is distinguished as one more communicative type of sentence. Exclamatory sentences are marked by specific intonation patterns (represented by an exclamation mark in written speech), word-order and special constructions with functional-auxiliary words, rendering the high emotional intensity of the utterance.

CHAPTER13
GRAMMATICAL STRUCTURE OF THE SENTENCE. MEMBERS OF THE SENTENCE

It is rather difficult to define the **sentence** as it is connected with many lingual and extra lingual aspects – logical, psychological and philosophical. It can be defined as *the immediate integral unit of speech built up by words according to a definite syntactic pattern and distinguished by a contextually relevant communicative purpose*, *it is the central syntactic construction used as the minimal communicative unit that has its primary predication, actualises a definite structural scheme and possesses definite intonation characteristics.* This definition works only in case we do not take into account the difference between the sentence and the utterance.

The distinction between the sentence and the utterance is of fundamental importance because the **sentence** is an abstract theoretical entity defined within the theory of grammar while the **utterance** is the actual **use** of the sentence. In other words, the sentence is a unit of language while the utterance is a unit of speech.**The utterance** as opposed to the sentence is the unit of speech. The main categories of the utterance from the point of view of its informative structure are considered to be the **theme** and the **rheme.** They are the main components of the Functional Sentence Perspective (FSP) – actual division of the sentence (most language analysts stick to the term "sentence" but actually they mean "utterance").

In English, there is a "standard" word order of Subject + Verb + Object: *The cat ate the rat* – here we have a standard structure (N1 + V + N2). However, there are numerous other ways in which the semantic content of the sentence can be expressed:

The rat was eaten by the cat.

It was the cat that ate the rat.

It was the rat that the cat ate.

What the cat did was ate the rat.

The cat, it ate the rat.

Which of these options is actually selected by the writer or the speaker will depend on the context in which the utterance occurs and the importance of the information. One important consideration is whether the information has already been introduced before or it is assumed to be known to the reader or listener. Such information is referred to as given information or the theme. It contrasts with information which is introduced for the first time and which is known as new information or the rheme.

Informative structure of the utterance is one of the topics that still attract the attention of language analysts nowadays. It is well recognized that the rheme marking devices are:

Position in the sentence. As a rule new information in English generally comes last: *The cat ate the rat.*

The most **essential features** of the sentence as a linguistic unit are a) its structural characteristics – subject-predicate relations (primary predication), and b) its semantic characteristics – it refers to some fact in the objective reality.

We may define the **proposition** as the main predicative form of thought. Basic predicative meanings of the typical English sentence are expressed by the finite verb that is immediately connected with the subject of the sentence (primary predication).

To sum it up, the sentence is a syntactic level unit, it is a predicative language unit which is a lingual representation of predicative thought (proposition).

The basic difference between the phrase and the sentence is as follows: the phrase cannot express full predication, even if it denotes a

situation; this becomes obvious in their mutual transformations, for example, in the so-called phrasalization, or nominalization of the sentence, cf.: *They considered the problem. – their consideration of the problem; for them to consider the problem; their considering of the problem*.

The correlation of the word and the sentence shows some important differences and similarities between these two main level-forming lingual units. Both of them are *nominative units*, but the word just names objects and phenomena of reality; it is a *purely nominative* component of the word-stock, while the sentence is at the same time a *nominative and predicative lingual unit*: it names dynamic situations, or situational events, and at the same time reflects the connection between the nominal denotation of the event, on the one hand, and objective reality, on the other hand, showing the time of the event, its being real or unreal, desirable or undesirable, etc. A sentence can consist of only one word, as any lingual unit of the upper level can consist of only one unit of the lower level, e.g.: *Why? Thanks*. But a word making up a sentence is thereby turned into an utterance-unit expressing various connections between the situation described and actual reality. So, the definition of the sentence as a predicative lingual unit gives prominence to the basic differential feature of the sentence as a separate lingual unit: it performs the nominative signemic function, like the word or the phrase, and at the same time it performs the reality-evaluating, or predicative function.

Another difference between the word and the sentence is as follows: the word exists in the system of language as a ready-made unit, which is reproduced in speech; the sentence is produced each time in speech, except for a limited number of idiomatic utterances. The sentence belongs primarily to the sphere of speech; earlier logical and

psychological oriented grammar treated the sentence as a portion of the flow of words of one speaker containing a complete thought.

Being a unit of speech, the sentence is distinguished by a relevant ***intonation***: each sentence possesses certain intonation contours, including pauses, pitch movements and stresses, which separate one sentence from another in the flow of speech and, together with various segmental means of expression, participate in rendering essential communicative-predicative meanings (for example, interrogation).

The fundamental features of the sentence

The sentence is a unit of predication which, naming a certain situational event, shows the relation of the denoted event towards reality. **Predication** establishes the relation of the named phenomena to actual life. Predicativity is a category which refers the nominative contents of the sentence to reality.

The general semantic category of modality is also defined by linguists as exposing the connection between the named objects and surrounding reality. The definition of the category of predication is similar to the definition of *the* ***category of modality,*** which also shows a connection between the named objects and actual reality. However, modality is a broader category, revealed not only in grammar, but in the lexical elements of language; for example, various modal meanings are expressed by modal verbs (*can*, *may*, *must*, etc.), by word-particles of specifying modal semantics (*just, even, would-be*, etc.), by semi-functional modal words and phrases of subjective evaluation (*perhaps, unfortunately by all means*, etc.) and by other lexical units. Predication can be defined as *syntactic modality*, expressed by the sentence.

The sentence, being composed of words, may in certain cases include only one word of various lexico-grammatical standing. (*Congratulations! Why? Certainly*.)

The structural scheme of an English sentence is simple and fixed. It consists of the principal parts (subject and predicate) and the secondary parts (object, attribute, adverbial modifier). This scheme may be elementary (a simple sentence) or sophisticated (a composite sentence) but its syntactic characteristics are generally the same. Two-member sentences and one-member sentences are vivid examples of purely syntactical opposition, though some scholars treat them as examples of ellipsis.

In a sentence we distinguish the principal parts, secondary parts and independent elements. The principal parts of a sentence are the subject and the predicate. The independent elements are interjections, direct address and parenthesis.

The subject and the predicate have a unique standing in the system of sentence parts. They form the backbone of the sentence. They are interdependent and independent of any other sentence member while all other members can be dependent either on the subject or on the predicate. The subject and the predicate can form a sentence on their own. e.g. *She smiles. He is running.* **The secondary parts** include the *object, the adverbial modifier, and the attribute*. Other secondary parts are also sometimes mentioned —the apposition (its relation to the attribute is variously interpreted), the objective predicative, and occasionally some other parts, too.

The Subject

The subject is one of the two main parts of the sentence. It denotes the thing whose action or characteristic is expressed by the predicate. It may be expressed by different parts of speech, the most frequent ones being: a noun in the common case, a personal pronoun in the nominative case, a demonstrative pronoun, asubstantivised adjective, a numeral, an infinitive, and a gerund. It may also be expressed by a phrase. The subject performs two main functions:

categorial and relative. The **categorial function** of the subject consists in naming the possessor of the predicative feature expressed by the predicate. The **relative function** of the subject consists in its being the original element in the syntagmatic development of the sentence, thus constituting the predicate's left environment as opposed to its right environment. As it has already been mentioned, the subject always goes with the predicate; therefore, one-member nominal sentences do not have a subject.

The Predicate

The predicate denotes the action or property of the thing expressed by the subject. It can be expressed by numerous ways. The predicate expresses the predicative feature which characterized the object expressed by the subject, thus it realizes the **categorial function**. Being a link between the subject and the right environment of the verb, it performs the **relative function**. According to morphological characteristics, four types of predicates can be singled out: 1. Simple verbal, 2. Compound verbal 3. Compound nominal

The Simple Predicate is a verb in some tense, voice, person, number and mood.

I've been waiting for you for two hours.

The ***Compound Nominal Predicate*** consists of a link-verb and a predicative (the nominal part) which can be expressed with different parts of speech.

1. She is an actress. We are four. She is pretty. That is me. The news was terrifying. (PI)

He was drunk. (PII) Our aim is to find him. (Infinitive) My hobby is collecting stamps. (Gerund)

The Nominal part of the Predicate is the **Predicative.**

2. The ***Compound Verbal Modal Predicate*** consists of a modal verb plus the Infinitive. (I think...)

You should have told me about it yesterday.

There is a ***Compound Verbal Modal Predicate of special type***. It is a Compound Verbal Modal Predicate without a modal verb:

He is sure to be waiting for us.

3. The ***Compound Verbal Aspect Predicate*** consists of a verb denoting the beginning, the continuation or the end of the action plus the Infinitive or the Gerund.

She began to cry. She began crying.

The Secondary Sentence Parts

The Object

The complexity of the object as a sentence member makes difficult to workout an adequate approach to describing this phenomenon. Different classifications of objects have been proposed both by scholars. The most common ones are as follows:

Objects are divided into **direct, indirect and prepositional**.

Direct and indirect objects are singled out on the basis of the contents while prepositional objects are differentiated based on the formal feature (presence of preposition). Besides, indirect and prepositional objects can overlap.

The Adverbial modifier

It is a secondary part of the sentence modifying a part of the sentence expressed by a verb, a verbal noun, an adjective, or an adverb, and serving to characterise an action or a property as to its quality or intensity, or to indicate the way an action is done, the time, place, cause, purpose, or condition, with which the action or the manifestation of the quality is connected.

According to their meaning, adverbial modifiers are subdivided into adverbial modifiers of:

place and direction; time; frequency; degree; manner; attending circumstances; description;

purpose; cause; comparison consequence; concession condition; exception.

The Attribute

Attribute is a dependent element of a nominative phrase that denotes an attributive quality of an object expressed by a noun. It is a secondary part of the sentence modifying a part of the sentence expressed by a noun, a substantival pronoun, a cardinal numeral, and any substantivised word, and characterizing the thing named by these words as to its quality or property. According to the position relative to the head word, attributes can be prepositive and postpositive. The position of an attribute with respect to its headword depends partly on the morphological peculiarities of the attribute itself, and partly on stylistic factors.

Apposition has been often regarded as a special kind of attribute, and sometimes as a secondary part of a sentence distinct from an attribute. Apposition is a word or phrase referring to a part of the sentence expressed by a noun, and explaining and specifying its meaning by giving it another name. Appositions are usually expressed by nouns.

Subject-verb agreement

Being able to find the right subject and verb will help you correct errors of subject-verb agreement.

Basic Rule. A singular subject (*she, Bill, car*) takes a singular verb (*is, goes, shines*), whereas a plural subject takes a plural verb.

Example: *The list of items is/are on the desk.*

If you know that *list* is the subject, then you will choose *is* for the verb.

Rule 1. A subject will come before a phrase beginning with *of*. This is a key rule for understanding subjects. The word *of* is the culprit in many, perhaps most, subject-verb mistakes.

Hasty writers, speakers, readers, and listeners might miss the all-too-common mistake in the following sentence:

Incorrect: *A bouquet of yellow roses lend color and fragrance to the room.*

Correct: *A bouquet of yellow roses lends . . .* (*bouquet lends*, not *roses lend*)

Rule 2. Two singular subjects connected by *or, either/or,* or *neither/nor* require a singular verb.

Examples: *My aunt or my uncle **is** arriving by train today. Neither Juan nor Carmen **is** available.*

*Either Kiana or Casey **is** helping today with stage decorations.*

Rule 3. The verb in an *or, either/or,* or *neither/nor* sentence agrees with the noun or pronoun closest to it.

Examples: *Neither the plates nor the serving bowl goes on that shelf.*

Neither the serving bowl nor the plates go on that shelf.

This rule can lead to bumps in the road. For example, if *I* is one of two (or more) subjects, it could lead to this odd sentence:

Awkward: *Neither she, my friends, nor I am going to the festival.*

If possible, it's best to reword such grammatically correct but awkward sentences.

Better: *Neither she, I, nor my friends are going to the festival.*

OR *She, my friends, and I are not going to the festival.*

Rule 4. As a general rule, use a plural verb with two or more subjects when they are connected by *and.*

Example: *A car and a bike are my means of transportation.*

But note these exceptions:

Exceptions: *Breaking and entering is against the law.*

The bed and breakfast was charming.

In those sentences, *breaking and entering* and *bed and breakfast* are compound nouns.

Rule 5a. Sometimes the subject is separated from the verb by such words as *along with, as well as, besides, not,* etc. These words and phrases are not part of the subject. Ignore them and use a singular verb when the subject is singular.

Examples: *The politician, along with the newsmen, is expected shortly.*

Excitement, as well as nervousness, is the cause of her shaking.

Rule 5b. Parentheses are not part of the subject.

Example: *Joe (and his trusty mutt)* ***was*** *always welcome.*

If this seems awkward, try rewriting the sentence.

Rule 6. In sentences beginning with *here* or *there,* the true subject follows the verb.

Examples: *There are four hurdles to jump.*

There is a high hurdle to jump.

Here are the keys.

NOTE:

The word *there's*, a contraction of *there is*, leads to bad habits in informal sentences like. *There's a lot of people here today*, because it's easier to say "there's" than "there are." Take care never to use *there's* with a plural subject.

Rule 7. Use a singular verb with distances, periods of time, sums of money, etc., when considered as a unit.

Examples: *Three miles* ***is*** *too far to walk.*

Five years ***is*** *the maximum sentence for that offense.*

Ten dollars ***is*** *a high price to pay.*

BUT *Ten dollars (i.e., dollar bills)* ***were*** *scattered on the floor.*

Rule 8. With words that indicate portions—e.g., *a lot, a majority, some, all*—Rule 1 given earlier in this section is reversed, and we are guided by the noun after *of*. If the noun after *of* is singular, use a singular verb. If it is plural, use a plural verb.

Examples:

*A lot of the **pie** has disappeared.*

*A lot of the **pies** have disappeared.*

*A third of the **city** is unemployed.*

*A third of the **people** are unemployed.*

*All of the **pie** is gone.*

*All of the **pies** are gone.*

*Some of the **pie** is missing.*

*Some of the **pies** are missing.*

NOTE

In recent years, the SAT testing service has considered *none* to be strictly singular. However, according to *Merriam-Webster's Dictionary of English Usage*: "Clearly *none* has been both singular and plural since Old English and still is. The notion that it is singular only is a myth of unknown origin that appears to have arisen in the 19th century. If in context it seems like a singular to you, use a singular verb; if it seems like a plural, use a plural verb. Both are acceptable beyond serious criticism." When *none* is clearly intended to mean "not one," it is followed by a singular verb.

Rule 9. With **collective nouns** such as *group*, *jury*, *family*, *audience*, *population*, the verb might be singular or plural, depending on the writer's intent.

Examples: *All of my **family** has arrived* OR *have arrived.*

*Most of the **jury** is here* OR *are here.*

*A third of the **population** was not in favor* OR *were not in favor of the bill.*

NOTE

Anyone who uses a plural verb with a collective noun must take care to be accurate—and also consistent. It must not be done carelessly. The following is the sort of flawed sentence one sees and hears a lot these days:

The staff is deciding how they want to vote.

Careful speakers and writers would avoid assigning the singular *is* and the plural *they* to *staff* in the same sentence.

Consistent: *The staff* ***are*** *deciding how* ***they*** *want to vote.*

Rewriting such sentences is recommended whenever possible. The preceding sentence would read even better as:

The staff members are deciding how they want to vote.

Rule 10. The word *were* replaces *was* in sentences that express a wish or are contrary to fact:

Example: *If Joe* ***were*** *here, you'd be sorry.*

Shouldn't *Joe* be followed by *was*, not *were*, given that *Joe* is singular? But Joe isn't actually here, so we say *were*, not *was*. The sentence demonstrates the **subjunctive mood**, which is used to express things that are hypothetical, wishful, imaginary, or factually contradictory. The subjunctive mood pairs singular subjects with what we usually think of as plural verbs.

Examples: *I wish it* ***were*** *Friday.*

She requested that he ***raise*** *his hand.*

In the first example, a wishful statement, not a fact, is being expressed; therefore, *were*, which we usually think of as a plural verb, is used with the singular subject *I*.

Normally, *he raise* would sound terrible to us. However, in the second example, where a request is being expressed, the subjunctive mood is correct.

Note: The subjunctive mood is losing ground in spoken English but should still be used in formal speech and writing.

CHAPTER 14
TYPES OF SENTENCES

We communicate only with the help of sentences and it brings many linguists to a conclusion that syntax is the core, or the heart of grammar and morphology is subordinated to it as it serves the needs of syntax.

The main units of the syntactic level of the language are: 1) the word in its syntactic position in the sentence (a part of the sentence); 2) the phrase which is a combination of two or more notional words arranged according to the rules of a particular language; 3)the simple sentence as the minimum unit of communication; 4) the composite sentence which is a combination of two or more clauses based either on coordinate (a compound sentence) or subordinate (a complex sentence)relations; 5) the text as the highest unit of language.

The main components of the actual division of a sentence are ***the theme*** and ***the rheme***. The theme (originally called "*the basis*" by V. Mathesius) is the starting point of communication, a thing or a phenomenon about which something is reported in the sentence; it usually contains some old, "already known" information. The **rheme** (originally called "*the nucleus*" by V. Mathesius) is the basic informative part of the sentence, its contextually relevant communicative center, the "peak" of communication, or the information reported about the theme; it usually contains some new information.

Sentences can be classified according to their structural, semantic and pragmatic properties. In this lecture we will deal with structural classifications. One traditional scheme for classifying English sentences is by the number and types of finite clauses: sentences are divided into **simple and composite**, the latter consisting of two more clauses. Composite sentences will be the subject of the next lecture, and here we will focus on classifications of simple sentences.

On the basis of their representation in the outer structure of the sentence, sentences are subdivided into ***complete*** *sentences* and ***incomplete*** *sentences*: in complete sentences both the subject group and the predicate group are present; they are also called "*two-member sentences*" or "*two-axis sentences*"; if only one axis is expressed in the outer structure of the sentence, the sentence is defined as incomplete; it is also called "*one-member sentence*", "*one-axis sentence*", or **"***elliptical sentence***".**

Simple sentences are usually classified into **one-member and two-member**. This distinction is based on a difference in the main parts of a sentence. One member sentences do not contain two such separate parts; in these sentences there is only one main part (e.g. *Silence! Come here!*) Such sentences contain neither the subject nor the predicate. Instead there is only one main part. It is a disputed point whether the main part of such a sentence should, or should not, be termed subject in some cases, and predicate, in others. Grammatical subject and grammatical predicate are correlative notions and the terms are meaningless outside their relation to each other.

As for negation and affirmation formulas (*Yes; No; All right*), vocative sentences (*Ladies and gentlemen! Dear friends!),* greeting and parting formulas *(Hello! Good-bye!)* and other similar constructions, they constitute the periphery of the category of the sentence: they are not exactly word-sentences, but rather sentence-representatives, related to the corresponding two-axis sentences not by "vague" implications, but by representation. Most of them exist only in syntagmatic combinations with full-sense antecedent predicative constructions.

On the basis of *predicate categorial meaning*, sentences are divided into *process featuring* ("*verbal*") and *substance featuring* ("*nominal*"); process featuring sentences are further subdivided into *actional*, e.g.: *I play ball*; and *statal*, e.g.: *I enjoy your party*; substance

featuring sentences are further subdivided into *factual*, e.g.: *She is clever*; and *perceptional*, e.g.: *She seems to be clever*.

In practical courses on grammar, various subdivisions of simple sentences are usually based on the structure of the predicate: predicates are subdivided into *simple* (*I read*) and *compound*, which are further subdivided into *compound verbal predicates* (*She started crying*) and *compound nominal predicates* with pure and specifying link verbs (*She looked beautiful*).

Structurally, English sentences can be classified in four different ways, though there are endless constructions of each. The classifications are based on the number of independent and dependent clauses a sentence contains. An independent clause forms a complete sentence on its own, while a dependent clause needs another clause to make a complete sentence. By learning these types, writers can add complexity and variation to their sentences.

A simple sentence **consists of only one clause.**

Simple sentence: A sentence with one independent clause and no dependent clauses.

- *My aunt enjoyed taking the hayride with you.*
- *China's Han Dynasty marked an official recognition of Confucianism.*
- *The baby cried for food.*

There is a subject and a verb that expresses a complete thought.

Professor Maple's intelligent students completed and turned in their homework.

A simple sentence does not necessarily have to be short. It can have adjectives. In this case, there are two verbs "completed" and "turned in." However, the sentence expresses one completthought and therefore is a simple sentence.

Megan and Ron ate too much and felt sick.

Although there are two subjects and two verbs, it is still a simple sentence because both verbs share the same subjects and express one complete thought.

The composite sentence is a general term for all types of sentences with more than one predicative line. Composite sentence in which clauses are subordinated to one another is called a complex sentence. Composite sentence with coordinated clauses is termed as a compound sentence.

The composite sentence in general is formed by 2 or more predicative lines as different from the simple sentence. Composite sentence is a polypredicative construction which reflects 2 or more elementary situations making up a unity. Each predicative unit in a composite sentence makes up a clause. This clause corresponds to a separate sentence but is not equivalent to it. Let's consider the following sentence:

When she entered the hall the party was in full swing.

This sentence includes 2 clauses which correspond to the following sentences:

She entered the hall.

The party was in full swing.

A compound sentence consists of two or more independent clauses.

Compound Sentence: A sentence with multiple independent clauses but no dependent clauses.

- *The clown frightened the little girl, and she ran off screaming.*
- *The Freedom Riders departed on May 4, 1961, and they were determined to travel through many southern states.*

A **compound sentence** has two independent clauses. An independent clause is a part of a sentence that can stand alone because it contains a subject and a verb and expresses a complete thought.

Basically, a compound contains two simple sentences. These independent clauses are joined by a conjunction (for, and, nor, but, or, yet, so). Examples:

1. *The shoplifter had stolen clothes, so he ran once he saw the police*. Both sides of the conjunction "so" are complete sentences. "*The shoplifter had stolen clothes*" can stand alone and so can "*he ran once he saw the police."* Therefore, this is a compound sentence. 2. *They spoke to him in Spanish, but heresponded in English.* This is also a compound sentence that uses a conjunction to separate two individual clauses.

A complex sentence has at least one independent clause plus at least one dependent clause.

Complex Sentence: A sentence with one independent clause and at least one dependent clause.

- *After Mary added up all the sales, she discovered that the lemonade stand was 32 cents short.*
- *While all of his paintings are fascinating, Hieronymus Bosch's triptychs, full of mayhem and madness, are the real highlight of his art.*

A complex sentence is an independent clause joined by one or more dependent clauses. A dependent clause either lacks a subject or a verb or has both a subject and a verb that does not express a complete thought. - A complex sentence always has a subordinator (as, because, since, after, although, when) or relative pronouns (who, that, which). Examples: 1. *After eating lunch at The Cheesecake Factory, Tim went to the gym to exercise*. The independent clause is 'Tim *went to the gym to exercise."* The subordinating clause before it is dependent on the main, independent clause.

Punctuation patterns

A. Independent clause**,** coordinating conjunction independent clause. e.g. *Tom reads novels, but Jack reads comics*

B. Independent clause**;** conjunctive adverb**,** independent clause. e.g. *Tom reads novels; however, Jack reads comics*

C. Independent clause**;** independent clause. e.g. *Tom reads novels; his friend reads comics***.**

Complex-Compound Sentence: A sentence with multiple independent clauses and at least one dependent clause.

Catch-22 *is widely regarded as Joseph Heller's best novel, and because Heller served in World War II, which the novel satirizes, the zany but savage wit of the novel packs an extra punch.*

A compound-complex sentence has two independent clauses and at least one dependent clause. Examples: 1. *After the two soccer players lost their game*, they *joined their other teammates for lunch, and they went to the movies.* If we remove the dependent clause "after the two soccer players lost their game," we have a compound sentence. The dependent clause makes this sentence compound-complex.

CHAPTER 15.
THE STRUCTURE OF COMPOSITE SENTENCES

Compound sentence is a composite sentence, the clausal parts of which are equal in their status and are connected on the principle of coordination. The main semantic relations between the clauses in the compound sentence are copulative (მაერთებელი), adversative (მაპირისპირებელი), disjunctive (მაცალკავებელი), causal (მიზეზობრივი), consequential (თანმიმდევრული), resultative (შედეგობრივი). Similar relations are observed between independent sentences in the text. The compound sentence denotes the closeness of connection between the reflected events, while the independent sentences present the looseness of this connection.

From a semantico-syntactical point of view the connection between clauses can be regarded as **marked** or **unmarked**.

The **unmarked** coordination is realized by the coordinative conjunction **"and"** and also **asyndetically**. The semantic nature of the unmarked connection is not explicitly specified. The unmarked connection presents mainly copulative and enumerative relations, e.g.: *Police troops engaged in battle with a militant group of 15 people and six of the militants were killed. Police troops engaged in battle with a militant group of 15 people, six of the militants were killed.*

The **marked** coordination is effected by the connectors. Each semantic relation is marked by the semantics of the connector. In particular, connectors - *but, yet , still, however* express adversative relations; the discontinuous connectors *both…and, neither … nor* express correspondingly positive and negative copulative relations; the connectors *so, therefore, consequently* express causal consequence.

Compound sentence can often be transformed into complex sentences, because coordinative connectors and subordinative ones

correlate semantically, e.g., the sentence " *The place had a sinister look, and (so) we decided to leave the Marbles as soon as possible.* " may be transformed into a complex one: "*We decided to leave the Marbles as soon as possible because the place had asinister look."* – the sentence exposes causal relation.

According to the structure of the semi-composite sentences, they are divided into semi-complex and semi-compound ones, which correspond to the proper **complex** and c**ompound** sentences.

The **semi-complex** sentence is built up on the principle of **subordination.** It is derived from 2 or more base sentences, one is matrix and the other is insert. The **matrix** sentence/**principa**l clause becomes the dominant part of the resulting construction and the insert sentence – its subordinate semi-clause. The **insert** sentence/**subordinate** clause becomes embedded in one of the syntactic positions of the matrix sentence, e.g.: *I could see a tall man, coming in our direction*. (-embedded in the attributive position).

The composite sentence including no more than 2 predicative lines is called **elementary**.

Composite sentence displays 2 principal types of clause connection:

hypotaxis – that of subordination and **parataxis** – that of coordination.

Subordination is revealed between clauses of unequal rank, one of them being dominated by the other. From the structural point of view it means that one clause, the dominated or subordinate one, is in a notional position of the other clause (which is a principal one). It means that a subordinate clause refers to one notional constituent (expressed by a word or a phrase) in a principal clause. From the communicative point of view a subordinate clause renders the information which is additional to the principal clause.

Coordination is observed between the syntactically equal sentences, e.g.:*Soon he left the house and I followed him.*Ranking of clauses into equal or unequal comes from their relation to one another.

A sequential clause in a composite sentence with coordination refers to the whole of the leading clause. It is due to this fact that the position of a coordinate clause is rigidly fixed in all cases. As for the composite sentences with subordination a subordinate clause usually refers to one notional constituent in a principal clause, e.g.: *I would never believe the silly fact that he had been under her influence.*

There are two general ways of combining clauses into a sentence. They are **syndetic** (conjunctional) and a**syndetic** (non-conjunctional). According to the traditional point of view all composite sentences are classed into compound sentences and complex sentences, syndetic or asyndetic type of clause connection being specifically displayed with both classes. Consider the following examples:

compound sent.

asyndetic	syndetic
The day was hot,	*I was extremely disappointed*
we felt exhausted.	*but she never noticed it.*

Thus, the composite sentence is a polypredicative unit revealing 2 or more predicative lines connected with one another by coordination, that is a compound sentence, or subordination, that is a complex sentence.

Classifications of complex sentences according to the types of clauses

The **complex sentence** is a polypredicative unit built up on the principle of subordination. It is derived from 2 or more base sentences one of which becomes the principal clause and the other its subordinate clause. The principle and the subordinate clauses form a semantico-syntactic unity. It cannot be destroyed without affecting the

structure of the sentence. The existence of either of clauses is supported by the existence of the other, e.g.: *He looked as though he were looking at an absolute stranger.*

The subordinate clause is joined to the principal clause either by a subordinating connector (subordinator) or asyndetically. Sometimes asyndetic connection is called **zero subordinator**. In this way the meaningful function of the asyndetic connection is stressed.

In accord with the functional principle subordinate clauses are classed on the basis of their similarity in function with parts of a simple sentence. Namely, they are classed into **subject, predicative, object, attributive, adverbial clauses**. Actually, there are certain clauses that have no correspondences among the parts of a sentence, for example, some adverbial clauses. Still a general functional similarity between the clauses and parts of a simple sentence does exist and it can be clearly seen from their comparison, e.g.: I *was completely frustrated yesterday*. – "*yesterday*" can be substituted by a clause: - *I was completely frustrated when they told me about it yesterday*. – the clause answers the same question "*when*?".

Thus, the functional classification of subordinate clauses, based on the analogy with the parts of the simple sentence, reflects the essential properties of the complex sentences.

The categorial classification draws a parallel between subordinate clauses and parts of speech. According to the categorial principle subordinate clauses are classed by their nominative properties, that is on their analogy with the part-of- speech classification of notional words. From this point of view all subordinate clauses are divided into 3 categorial groups.

The first group is formed by the **substantive-nominal clauses**. It includes clauses that name an event as a certain fact. They are also called noun-clauses and are similar to the nominative function of a

noun. Their noun-like nature is easily revealed by substitution, e.g.*: I thought up what we could do under the circumstances.* – the clause can be substituted by *"the plan"- I thought up the plan.*

The second group of clauses is called **qualification-nominal or adjective clauses**. They name an event as a certain characteristic of another event. The adjective-like nature of these clauses can also be proved by substitution, e.g. *The man whom you saw in the hall was our client. – That man was our client;* e.g.: Did *you find a room where we could hold a meeting? – Did you find such kind of room?*

The third group of clauses can be called **adverbial.** They name an event as a dynamic characteristic of another event. Adverbial clauses are best tested by transformations, e.g.: *They will meet us half way if we follow the agreement.- They will meet us half way on condition that we follow the agreement; e.g.: I could hardly make up any plan, as I did not know the details.- I could hardly make up any plan for the reason that I did not know the details.*

The **princip**al clause dominates the subordinate clause positionally, but it doesn't mean that by its syntactic status it must express the central informative part of the communication. The actual division of any construction, be it simple or otherwise, is effected in the **context**, so it is as part of a continual text that the complex sentence makes its clauses into rheme-rendering and theme-rendering on the complex-sentence information level. *e.g. The boy was friendly with me because I allowed him to keep the fishing line.* In this sentence approached as part of stylistically neutral text the principal clause placed in the front position evidently expresses the starting point of the information delivered, while the subordinate clause of cause renders the main sentential idea, namely, the speaker's explanation of the boy's attitude. In accord with the ***functional principle***, subordinate clauses are to be classed on the analogy of the positional parts of the simple sentence.

In accord with the ***categorial principle,*** subordinate clauses are to be classed by their inherent nominative properties irrespective of their immediate positional relations in the sentence. The nominative properties of notional words are reflected in their part-of-speech classification.

From the point of view of their general nominative features all the subordinate clauses can be divided into **three categorial-semantic groups**. The **first** group includes clauses that name an event as a certain fact. These pure **fact-clauses** may be terminologically defined as ***"substantive-nominal"***. Their substantive-nominal nature is easily checked by a substitute test:

That his letters remained unanswered annoyed him very much. →That fact annoyed him very much. The woman knew only too well what was right and what was wrong. →The woman knew those matters well.

The **second group** of clauses also name an **event-fact,** but, as different from the first group, this event-fact is referred to as giving a characteristic to some substantive entity (which, in its turn, may be represented by a clause or a phrase or a substantive lexeme). Such clauses, in compliance with our principle of choosing explanatory terminology, can be tentatively called ***"qualification-nominal".***

Finally, the **third group** of clauses make their event-nomination into a dynamic relation characteristic of another, event or a process or a quality of various descriptions. In keeping with the existing practices, it will be quite natural to call these clauses ***"adverbial".***

Describe the picture as you see it. →Describe the picture in the manner you see it. All will be well if we arrive in time. →All will be well on condition that we arrive in time.

Subordinate clauses are introduced by functional connective words which effect their derivation from base sentences. The non-positional

subordinators are referred to as ***pure conjunctions***. Here belong such words as ***since, before, until, if, in case, because, so that, in order that, though, however, than, as if,***etc.

The positional subordinators are in fact ***conjunctive substitutes***. The main positional subordinators are the pronominal words ***who, what, whose, which, that, where, when, why, as.***Some of these words are **double-functional** (bifunctional).

Table of conjunctions

Common conjunctions	
Contrast clauses	although; though; even though; while;
Reason clauses	because; since; as
Place clauses	where; wherever; everywhere
Purpose clauses	so that; so; because + want
Result clauses	so that; so … that; such … that
Time clauses	when; before; after; since; while; as; as soon as; by the time; until
Conditional clauses	if; unless; provided (that); as long as

Clauses of primary nominal positions— subject, predicative, object— are interchangeable with one another in easy reshufflings of sentence constituents. *E.g. What you saw at the exhibition* is just *what I want to know.* →*What I want to know* is just *what you saw at the exhibition.* →I just want to know *what you saw at the exhibition.*

The ***subject clause,*** in accord with its functional position, regularly expresses the theme on the upper level of the actual division of the complex sentence.E.g. ***"What small reputation the town does possess*** derives from two things"

The ***predicative clause,*** in conformity with the predicative position as such, performs the function of the nominal part of the predicate, i. e. the part adjoining the link-verb. The link-verb is mostly expressed by the pure link *be,* not infrequently we find here also the specifying links *seem* and *look;* the use of other specifying links is occasional. *E. g.:*The trouble is *that* ***I don't know Fanny personally***.

The ***object clause*** denotes an object-situation of the process expressed by the verbal constituent of the principal clause. E.g. *They will accept with grace* ***whatever he may offer.***

Subordinate clauses of secondary nominal positions include attributive clauses of various syntactic functions. They fall into two major classes: **"descriptive**" attributive clauses and **"restrictive" ("limiting")** attributive clauses.

The descriptive attributive clause exposes some characteristic of the antecedent (i. e., its substantive referent) as such, while the restrictive attributive clause performs a purely identifying role, singling out the referent of the antecedent in the given situation.

e.g. *At last we found a place* ***where we could make a fire.***

Clauses of adverbial positions constitute a vast domain of syntax which falls into many subdivisions each distinguishing its own field of specifications, complications, and difficulties of analysis. Proceeding from the said insights, the whole system of adverbial clauses is to be divided into four groups.

The first group includes clauses of *time* and clauses of *place.* Their common semantic basis is to be defined as "localisation" — respectively, temporal and spatial.

With subordinate clauses of time the particularising localisation is expressed by such conjunctions as *while, as, since, before, after, until, as soon as, now that, no sooner than,* etc.

The **second group of adverbial clauses** includes clauses of ***manner*** **and** ***comparison.*** The common semantic basis of their functions can be defined as "qualification", since they give a qualification to the action or event rendered by the principal clause. The identification of these clauses can be achieved by applying the traditional question-transformation test of the ***how-type.***

E.g. *You talk to people* ***as if they were a group.***

All the adverbial qualification clauses are to be divided into **"factual"** and **"speculative**", depending on the real or unreal propositional event described by them. The semantics of comparison is inherent in the subordinators ***as if, as though, than,*** which are specific introducers of comparison clauses.

Clauses of **comparison** are subdivided into those of equality (subordinators ***as, as ... as, as if, as though****)* and those of inequality (subordinators ***not so ... as, than****).*

e.g. That summer he took a longer holiday than he had done for many years.

The **third** and most numerous group of adverbial clauses includes "classical" clauses of different ***circumstantial semantics,*** i.e. semantics connected with the meaning of the principal clause by various circumstantial associations; here belong clauses of ***attendant event, condition, cause, reason, result (consequence), concession, purpose.*** Thus, the common semantic basis of all these clauses can be defined as "circumstance". The whole group should be divided into two subgroups, the first being composed by clauses of ***"attendant circumstance****";* the second, by clauses of ***"immediate circumstance****". E.g. Indeed, there is but this difference between us — that he wears fine clothes* ***while I***

go in rags, and that while I am weak from hunger *he suffers not a little from overfeeding.*

The **fourth** group of adverbial clauses is formed by ***parenthetical*** or ***insertive*** constructions. Parenthetical clauses are joined to the principal clause on a looser basis than the other adverbial clauses; still, they do form with the principal clause a syntactic sentential unity, which is easily proved by the procedure of diagnostic elimination. E.g. Jack has called here twice this morning, ***if I am not mistaken***

Complex sentences which have two or more subordinate clauses discriminate two basic types of subordination arrangement: ***parallel*** **and** ***consecutive.*** e.g. ***When he agrees to hear me, and when we have spoken the matter over****, I'll tell you the result.*

The **semi-composite sentence** displays an intermediary syntactic character between the **composite sentence and the simple sentence**. Its immediate syntagmatic structure ("surface" structure) is analogous to that of an expanded simple sentence, since it possesses only one completely expressed predicative unit. Its **derivational structure ("deep" structure),** on the other hand, is analogous to that of a composite sentence, because **it is derived from two or more completely predicative units — its base sentences.**

There are two different causes of the existence of the semi-composite sentence in language, each of them being essentially important in itself.

The first cause is the tendency of speech to be economical. As a result of this tendency, reductional processes are developed which bring about semi-blending of sentences. The second cause is that, apart from being economical, the semi-composite sentence fulfils its own purely semantic function, different from the function of the composite sentence proper (and so supplementing it). Namely, it is used to show that the events described in the corresponding sentence parts are more

closely connected than the events described in the parts of the composite sentence of complete composition.

The sergeant gave a quick salute to me, and then he put his squad in motion. →*Giving a quick salute to me,* the sergeant put his squad in motion. →*With a quick salute to me,* the sergeant put his squad in motion.

Try these six guidelines as you decide which sentence types to use and when:

- Every sentence should provide clear and complete information.
- Most effective sentences are concise, conveying their meaning in as few words as possible.
- Effective sentences stress the main point or the most important detail. In most cases, the main point is located in the main clause to make it easier to find.
- Your choice of sentences depends on your *audience*. For example, you would use simple sentences and short words if your *readers* were children, while an audience of engineers would call for more technical language and longer sentences.
- Always consider your *purpose* for writing before you select a sentence type.
- The rhythm and pacing of your writing is determined by your sentences.

The description of each clause within the sentence will include information about related items in any immediately enclosing clauses, and in this way, a chain of any length can be constructed, from the gap to them is placed item.

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Glossary of grammatical terms

Term	Definition
active voice	one of two voices in English; a direct form of expression where the subject performs or "acts" the verb; see also passive voice eg: "Many people eat rice"
Accidence (morphology)	Accidence (morphology) is the section of grammar that studies the word form. In this study it deals with such basic notions as 'the word', 'the morpheme', 'the morph', 'the allomorph', 'the grammatical form and category of the word', as well as its 'grammatical meaning', and also 'the paradigm', 'the oppositional relations and the functional relations of grammatical forms'.
adjective	part of speech that typically describes or "modifies" a noun eg: "It was a big dog."
adjective clause	seldom-used term for relative clause
adjunct	word or phrase that adds information to a sentence and that can be removed from the sentence without making the sentence

Term	Definition
	ungrammatical eg: I met John at school.
adverb	word that modifies a verb, an adjective or another adverb eg: quickly, really, very
adverbial clause	dependent clause that acts like an adverb and indicates such things as time, place or reason eg: Although we are getting older, we grow more beautiful each day.
affirmative	statement that expresses (or claims to express) a truth or "yes" meaning; opposite of negative eg: The sun is hot.
affix	language unit (morpheme) that occurs before or after (or sometimes within) the root or stem of a word eg: un- in unhappy (prefix), -ness in happiness (suffix)
agreement (also known as "concord")	logical (in a grammatical sense) links between words based on tense, case ornumber eg: this phone, these phones

Term	Definition
allomorph	An allomorph is a variant of a morpheme which occurs in certain environments. Thus a morpheme is a group of one or more allomorphs, or morphs.
antecedent	word, phrase or clause that is replaced by a pronoun (or other substitute) when mentioned subsequently (in the same sentence or later) eg: "Emily is nice because she brings me flowers."
appositive	noun phrase that re-identifies or describes its neighbouring noun eg: "Canada, a multicultural country, is recognized by its maple leaf flag."
article	determiner that introduces a noun phrase as definite (the) or indefinite (a/an)
aspect	feature of some verb forms that relates to duration or completion of time; verbs can have no aspect (simple), or can have continuous or progressive aspect (expressing duration), or have perfect or perfective aspect (expressing completion)

Term	Definition
auxiliary verb (also called "helping verb")	verb used with the main verb to help indicate something such as tense or voice eg: I do not like you. She has finished. He can swim.
bare infinitive	unmarked form of the verb (no indication of tense, mood, person, or aspect) without the particle "to"; typically used after modal auxiliary verbs; see alsoinfinitive eg: "He should come", "I can swim"
base form	basic form of a verb before conjugation into tenses etc eg: be, speak
case	form of a pronoun based on its relationship to other words in the sentence; case can be subjective, objective or possessive eg: "I love this dog", "This dog loves me", "This is my dog"
causative verb	verb that causes things to happen such as "make", "get" and "have"; the subject does not perform the action but is indirectly responsible for it eg: "She made me go to school", "I had my nails

Term	Definition
	painted"
clause	group of words containing a subject and its verb. A clause is a series of words, which stands alone as a phrase which makes sense and conveys a meaning but which is shorter than a sentence. More loosely, a clause is interpreted to mean a sentence or statement, especially in formal documents. eg: "It was late when he arrived"
comparative, comparative adjective	form of an adjective or adverb made with "-er" or "more" that is used to show differences or similarities between two things (not three or more things) eg: colder, more quickly
complement	part of a sentence that completes or adds meaning to the predicate eg: Mary did not say where she was going.
compound noun	noun that is made up of more than one word; can be one word, or hyphenated, or separated by a space eg: toothbrush, mother-in-law, Christmas Day

Term	Definition
compound sentence	sentence with at least two independent clauses; usually joined by a conjunction eg: "You can have something healthy but you can't have more junk food."
conditional	structure in English where one action depends on another ("if-then" or "then-if" structure); most common are 1st, 2nd, and 3rd conditionals eg: "If I win I will be happy", "I would be happy if I won"
conjugate	to show the different forms of a verb according to voice, mood, tense, number andperson; conjugation is quite simple in English compared to many other languages eg: I walk, you walk, he/she/it walks, we walk, they walk; I walked, you walked, he/she/it walked, we walked, they walked
conjunction	word that joins or connects two parts of a sentence eg: Ram likes tea and coffee. Anthony went swimming although it was raining.
content word	word that has meaning in a sentence, such as a verb or noun (as opposed to astructure word,

Term	Definition
	such as pronoun or auxiliary verb); content words are stressed in speech eg: "Could you BRING my GLASSES because I've LEFT them at HOME"
continuous (also called"progressive")	verb form (specifically an aspect) indicating actions that are in progress or continuing over a given time period (can be past, present or future); formed with "BE" + "VERB-ing" eg: "They are watching TV."
contraction	shortening of two (or more) words into one eg: isn't (is not), we'd've (we would have)
countable noun	thing that you can count, such as apple, pen, tree (see uncountable noun) eg: one apple, three pens, ten trees
Cumulation	The syntactic process by which sentences are connected into textual unities
declarative sentence	sentence type typically used to make a statement (as opposed to a question or command) e.g: "Tara works hard", "It wasn't funny"

Term	Definition
defining relative clause (also called "restrictive relative clause")	relative clause that contains information required for the understanding of the sentence; not set off with commas; see also non-defining clause e.g: "The boy who was wearing a blue shirt was the winner"
demonstrative pronoun demonstrative adjective	pronoun or determiner that indicates closeness to (this/these) or distance from (that/those) the speaker eg: "This is a nice car", "Can you see those cars?"
dependent clause	part of a sentence that contains a subject and a verb but does not form a complete thought and cannot stand on its own; see also independent clause eg: "When the water came out of the tap..."
determiner	word such as an article or a possessive adjective or other adjective that typically comes at the beginning of noun phrases eg: "It was an excellent film", "Do you like my new shirt?", "Let's buy someeggs"
direct speech	saying what someone said by using their exact words; see also indirect speech. E.g: "Lucy said:

Term	Definition
	'I am tired.'"
direct object	noun phrase in a sentence that directly receives the action of the verb; see alsoindirect object eg: "Joey bought the car", "I like it", "Can you see the man wearing a pink shirt and waving a gun in the air?"
Discourse	A technical word for a communication of some sort, written or spoken, and often comprising a series of communications.
Double-negative	This is usually an incorrect grammatical use of two negative words or constructions within a single statement so that the technical result is an expression of the positive, or opposite of what the speaker/writer intends. Usage is commonly associated with regional vernacular inarticulate adults and children, although more complex yet still awkward forms of the double-negative can be found in supposedly expert communications. A common example in everyday speech is, "I don't know nothing.." (which equates to 'I know something'), or "They never did nothing about it.." Separately the double negative is often used simply, or potentially very cleverly, within

Term	Definition
	understatement, or litotes, as a way to emphasize something, and/or to make a humorous or sarcastic comment - for example "That's not bad..." to mean very good.
embedded question	question that is not in normal question form with a question mark; it occurs within another statement or question and generally follows statement structure eg: "I don't know where he went," "Can you tell me where it is before you go?", "They haven't decided whether they should come"
finite verb	verb form that has a specific tense, number and person eg: I work, he works, we learned, they ran
first conditional	"if-then" conditional structure used for future actions or events that are seen as realistic possibilities eg: "If we win the lottery we will buy a car"
fragment	incomplete piece of a sentence used alone as a complete sentence; a fragment does not contain a complete thought; fragments are common in

Term	Definition
	normal speech but unusual (inappropriate) in formal writing eg: "When's her birthday? - In December", "Will they come? - Probably not"
function	purpose or "job" of a word form or element in a sentence eg: The function of a subject is to perform the action. One function of an adjective is to describe a noun. The function of a noun is to name things.
future continuous (also called "future progressive")	tense* used to describe things that will happen in the future at a particular time; formed with WILL + BE + VERB-ing eg: "I will be graduating in September."
future perfect	tense* used to express the past in the future; formed with WILL HAVE + VERB-ed eg: "I will have graduated by then"
future perfect continuous	tense* used to show that something will be ongoing until a certain time in the future; formed with WILL HAVE BEEN + VERB-ing eg: "We will have been living there for three months by the time the baby is born"

Term	Definition
future simple	tense* used to describe something that hasn't happened yet such as a prediction or a sudden decision; formed with WILL + BASE VERB eg: "He will be late", "I will answer the phone"
genitive case	case expressing relationship between nouns (possession, origin, composition etc) eg: "John's dog", "door of the car", "children's songs", "pile of sand"
gerund	a verb used in the form of a noun typically by using the 'ing' suffix, for example 'when the going gets tough' (going being the noun) or 'it's the screaming and wailing that upsets people' (both screaming and wailing here being gerunds). Originally from Latin *gerundum*, which is the gerund of the Latin verb *gerere,* -to do. eg: "Walking is great exercise"
gradable adjective	adjective that can vary in intensity or grade when paired with a grading adverb ; see also non-gradable adjective eg: quite hot, very tall
grading adverb	adverb that can modify the intensity or grade of

Term	Definition
	a gradable adjective eg: quite hot, very tall
hanging participle	another term for dangling participle
helping verb	another term for auxiliary verb
imperative	form of verb used when giving a command; formed with BASE VERB only eg: "Brush your teeth!"
indefinite pronoun	pronoun does not refer to any specific person, thing or amount. It is vague and "not definite". eg: anything, each, many, somebody
independent clause (also called "main clause")	group of words that expresses a complete thought and can stand alone as a sentence; see also dependent clause eg: "Tara is eating curry.", "Tara likes oranges and Joe likes apples."
indirect object	noun phrase representing the person or thing indirectly affected by the action of the verb; see also direct object eg: "She showed me her book collection", "Joey bought his wife a new car"

indirect question	another term for embedded question
indirect speech (also called "reported speech")	saying what someone said without using their exact words; see direct speech eg: "Lucy said that she was tired"
infinitive	base form of a verb preceded by "to"**; see also bare infinitive eg: "You need to study harder", "To be, or not to be: that is the question"
inflection	change in word form to indicate grammatical meaning eg: dog, dogs (two inflections); take, takes, took, taking, taken (five inflections)
interjection	common word that expresses emotion but has no grammatical value; can often be used alone and is often followed by an exclamation mark eg: "Hi!", "er", "Ouch!", "Dammit!"
interrogative	(formal) sentence type (typically inverted) normally used when asking a question eg: "Are you eating?", "What are you eating?"
interrogative pronoun	pronoun that asks a question. eg: who, whom, which

intransitive verb	verb that does not take a direct object; see also transitive verb e.g. "He is working hard", "Where do you live?"
inversion	any reversal of the normal word order, especially placing the auxiliary verb before the subject; used in a variety of ways, as in question formation, conditional clauses and agreement or disagreement eg: "Where are your keys?","Had we watched the weather report, we wouldn't have gone to the beach", "So did he", "Neither did she"
irregular verb	verb that has a different ending for past tense and past participle forms than the regular "-ed"; see also regular verb eg: buy, bought, bought; do, did, done
isomorphism	This similarity and likeness of organization of linguistic units is called isomorphism.
lexicon, lexis	all of the words and word forms in a language with meaning or function
lexical verb	another term for main verb
linking verb	verbs that connect the subject to more information (but do not indicate action), such as

	"be" or "seem"
main clause	another term for independent clause
main verb (also called "lexical verb")	any verb in a sentence that is not an auxiliary verb; a main verb has meaning on its own eg: "Does John like Mary?", "I will have arrived by 4pm"
modal verb (also called "modal")	auxiliary verb such as can, could, must, should etc; paired with the bare infinitive of a verb. Modal verb is an additional verb, which expresses necessity or possibility from the standpoint of the writer's/speaker's belief or attitude, namely the verbs: must, shall, will, should, could, would, can, may, might.
Modality	An aspect of language, which expresses necessity or possibility from the standpoint of the writer's/speaker's belief or attitude. eg: "I should go for a jog"
modifier	word or phrase that modifies and limits the meaning of another word eg: the house => the white house, the house over there, the house we sold last year
mood	sentence type that indicates the speaker's view

	towards the degree of reality of what is being said, for example subjunctive, indicative, imperative
morpheme	unit of language with meaning; differs from "word" because some cannot stand alone e.g. un-, predict and -able in unpredictable
multi-word verb	verb that consists of a basic verb + another word or words (preposition and/or adverb) eg: get up (phrasal verb), believe in (prepositional verb), get on with (phrasal-prepositional verb)
negative	form which changes a "yes" meaning to a "no" meaning; opposite of affirmative eg: "She will not come", "I have never seen her"
nominative case	another term for subjective case
non-defining relative clause (also called "non-restrictive relative clause")	relative clause that adds information but is not completely necessary; set off from the sentence with a comma or commas; see defining relative clause eg: "The boy, who had a chocolate bar in his hand, was still hungry"
non-gradable	adjective that has a fixed quality or intensity and

adjective	cannot be paired with a grading adverb; see also gradable adjective eg: freezing, boiling, dead
non-restrictive relative clause	another term for non-defining relative clause
noun	part of speech that names a person, place, thing, quality, quantity or concept; see also proper noun and compound noun eg: "The man is waiting", "I was born in London", "Is that your car?", "Do you like music?"
noun clause	clause that takes the place of a noun and cannot stand on its own; often introduced with words such as "that, who or whoever" eg: "What the president said was surprising"
noun phrase (NP)	any word or group of words based on a noun or pronoun that can function in a sentence as a subject, object or prepositional object; can be one word or many words; can be very simple or very complex eg: "She is nice", "When is the meeting?", "The car over there beside the lampost is mine"
number	change of word form indicating one person or

	thing (singular) or more than one person or thing (plural) eg: one dog/three dogs, she/they
object	thing or person affected by the verb; see also direct object and indirect object eg: "The boy kicked the ball", "We chose the house with the red door"
objective case	case form of a pronoun indicating an object eg: "John married her", "I gave it to him"
part of speech	one of the classes into which words are divided according to their function in a sentence eg: verb, noun, adjective
participle	verb form that can be used as an adjective or a noun; see past participle, present participle
passive voice	one of two voices in English; an indirect form of expression in which the subject receives the action; see also active voice eg: "Rice is eaten by many people"
past tense (also called "simple past")	tense used to talk about an action, event or situation that occurred and was completed in the past eg: "I lived in Paris for 10 years", "Yesterday

	we saw a snake"
past continuous	tense often used to describe an interrupted action in the past; formed with WAS/WERE + VERB-ing eg: "I was reading when you called"
past perfect	tense that refers to the past in the past; formed with HAD + VERB-ed eg: "We had stopped the car"
past perfect continuous	tense that refers to action that happened in the past and continued to a certain point in the past; formed with HAD BEEN + VERB-ing eg: "I had been waiting for three hours when he arrived"
past participle	verb form (V3) - usually made by adding "-ed" to the base verb - typically used in perfect and passive tenses, and sometimes as an adjective eg: "I have finished", "It was seen by many people", "boiled eggs"
perfect	verb form (specifically an aspect); formed with HAVE/HAS + VERB-ed (present perfect) or HAD + VERB-ed (past perfect)
person	grammatical category that identifies people in a

	conversation; there are three persons: 1st person (pronouns I/me, we/us) is the speaker(s), 2nd person (pronoun you) is the listener(s), 3rd person (pronouns he/him, she/her, it, they/them) is everybody or everything else
personal pronoun	pronoun that indicates person eg: "He likes my dogs", "They like him"
phrasal verb	multi-word verb formed with a verb + adverb eg: break up, turn off (see phrasal verbs list) NB: many people and books call all multi-word verbs "phrasal verbs" (see multi-word verbs)
phrase	two or more words that have a single function and form part of a sentence; phrases can be noun, adjective, adverb, verb or prepositional
plural	of a noun or form indicating more than one person or thing; plural nouns are usually formed by adding "-s"; see also singular, number eg: bananas, spoons, trees
pluralia tantum	(Latin for "plural only", plural form: pluralia tantum) is a noun that appears only in the pliral form and does not have a singular variant for referring to a single object. In a less strict usage of the term, it can also refer to nouns

	whose singular form is rarely used. In English, pluralia tantum are typically words which denote objects that function as pairs or sets (spectacles, trousers, pants, scissors, clothes, electronics, bagpipes, genitals).
Pronoun	A word, which acts instead of a noun - for example, you, me, it, this, that, etc. From Latin pro, 'for, on behalf of', and noun
proper noun	a name/ noun for a particular person or place or other entity, such as a brandname or corporation, which usually warrants a capitalized first letter, for example, *Rome, Caesar, Jesus, Scrabble, Texaco*, etc.
position	grammatically correct placement of a word form in a phrase or sentence in relation to other word forms eg: "The correct position for an article is at the beginning of the noun phrase that it describes"
positive	basic state of an adjective or adverb when it shows quality but not comparative orsuperlative eg: nice, kind, quickly
possessive adjective	adjective (also called "determiner") based on a pronoun: *my, your, his, her, its, our, their*

	eg: "I lost my keys", "She likes your car"
possessive case	case form of a pronoun indicating ownership or possession eg: "Mine are blue", "This car is hers"
possessive pronoun	pronoun that indicates ownership or possession eg: "Where is mine?", "These are yours"
predicate	one of the two main parts (subject and predicate) of a sentence; the predicate is the part that is not the subject eg: "My brother is a doctor", "Who did you call?", "The woman wearing a blue dress helped me"
prefix	affix that occurs before the root or stem of a word eg: impossible, reload
preposition	part of speech that typically comes before a noun phrase and shows some type of relationship between that noun phrase and another element (including relationships of time, location, purpose etc) eg: "We sleep at night", "I live in London", "This is for digging"

prepositional verb	multi-word verb that is formed with verb + preposition eg: believe in, look after
present participle	-ing form of a verb (except when it is a gerund or verbal noun) eg: "We were eating", "The man shouting at the back is rude", "I saw Taraplaying tennis"
present simple (also called "simple present")	tense usually used to describe states and actions that are general, habitual or (with the verb "to be") true right now; formed with the basic verb (+ s for 3rd person singular) eg: "Canada sounds beautiful", "She walks to school", "I am very happy"
present continuous(also called "present progressive")	tense used to describe action that is in process now, or a plan for the future; formed with BE + VERB-ing eg: "We are watching TV", "I am moving to Canada next month"
present perfect	tense that connects the past and the present, typically used to express experience, change or a continuing situation; formed with HAVE + VERB-ed eg: "I have worked there", "John has broken his leg", "How long have youbeen in Canada?"

present perfect continuous	tense used to describe an action that has recently stopped or an action continuing up to now; formed with HAVE + BEEN + VERB-ing eg: "I'm tired because I've been running", "He has been living in Canada for two years"
progressive	another term for continuous
pronoun	word that replaces a noun or noun phrase; there are several types includingpersonal pronouns, relative pronouns and indefinite pronouns eg: you, he, him; who, which; somebody, anything
proper noun	noun that is capitalized at all times and is the name of a person, place or thing eg: Shakespeare, Tokyo
punctuation	standard marks such as commas, periods and question marks within a sentence eg: , . ? ! - ; :
quantifier	determiner or pronoun that indicates quantity eg: some, many, all
question tag	final part of a tag question; mini-question at end of a tag question

	eg: "Snow isn't black, is it?"
question word	another term for WH-word
reciprocal pronoun	pronoun that indicates that two or more subjects are acting mutually; there are two in English - each other, one another eg: "John and Mary were shouting at each other", "The students accused one another of cheating"
reduced relative clause (also called "participial relative clause")	construction similar to a relative clause, but containing a participle instead of afinite verb; this construction is possible only under certain circumstances eg: "The woman sitting on the bench is my sister", "The people arrested by the police have been released"
reflexive pronoun	pronoun ending in -self or -selves, used when the subject and object are the same, or when the subject needs emphasis eg: "She drove herself", "I'll phone her myself"
regular verb see regular verbs list	verb that has "-ed" as the ending for past tense and past participle forms; see alsoirregular verb eg: work, worked, worked

rheme	The rheme is the new, basic informative part of the utterance, the centre of the communication.
relative adverb	adverb that introduces a relative clause; there are four in English: where, when,wherever, whenever;
relative clause	dependent clause that usually starts with a relative pronoun such as who or which, or relative adverb such as where eg: "The person who finishes first can leave early" (defining), "Texas, where my brother lives, is big" (non-defining)
relative pronoun	pronoun that starts a relative clause; there are five in English: who, whom,whose, which, that; see also relative adverb
reported speech	another term for indirect speech
restrictive relative clause	another term for defining relative clause
second conditional	"if-then" conditional structure used to talk about an unlikely possibility in the future eg: "If we won the lottery we would buy a car"
sentence	largest grammatical unit; a sentence must always

	include a subject (except forimperatives) and predicate; a written sentence starts with a capital letter and ends with a full stop/period (.), question mark (?) or exclamation mark (!); a sentence contains a complete thought such as a statement, question, request or command eg: "Stop!", "Do you like coffee?", "I work."
Series	list of items in a sentence eg: "The children ate popsicles, popcorn and chips"
singular	of a noun or form indicating exactly one person or thing; singular nouns are usually the simplest form of the noun (as found in a dictionary); see also plural, number eg: banana, spoon, tree
singularia tantum	The term for a noun which appears only in the singular form is singulare tantum (plural: singularia tantum) like the English words "information", "dust", and "wealth". Singulare tantum is defined by the Shorter Oxford English Dictionary as "Gram. A word having only a singular form; esp. a non-count noun." Such nouns may refer to a unique singular object (essentially a Proper Noun), but more often than not, they refer to uncountable nouns, either mass

	nouns (referring to a substance which cannot be counted as distinct objects like "milk") or collective nouns. They do not have a number distinction.
split infinitive	situation where a word or phrase comes between the particle "to" and the verb in an infinitive; considered poor construction by some eg: "He promised to never lie again"
Standard English (S.E.)	"normal" spelling, pronunciation and grammar that is used by educated native speakers of English
structure word	word that has no real meaning in a sentence, such as a pronoun or auxiliary verb (as opposed to a content word, such as verb or noun); structure words are not normally stressed in speech eg: "Could you BRING my GLASSES because I've LEFT them at HOME"
subject	one of the two main parts (subject and predicate) of a sentence; the subject is the part that is not the predicate; typically, the subject is the first noun phrase in asentence and is what the rest of the sentence "is about" eg: "The rain water was dirty", "Mary is beautiful", "Who saw you?"

subjective case also called"nominative"	case form of a pronoun indicating a subject eg: Did she tell you about her?
subjunctive	fairly rare verb form typically used to talk about events that are not certain to happen, usually something that someone wants, hopes or imagines will happen; formed with BARE INFINITIVE (except past of "be") eg: "The President requests that John attend the meeting"
subordinate clause	another term for dependent clause
Suffix	affix that occurs after the root or stem of a word eg: happiness, quickly
superlative,superlative adjective	adjective or adverb that describes the extreme degree of something eg: happiest, most quickly
SVO	subject-verb-object; a common word order where the subject is followed by the verb and then the object eg: "The man crossed the street"
syntax	sentence structure; the rules about sentence structure

tag question	special construction with statement that ends in a mini-question; the whole sentence is a tag question; the mini-question is a question tag; usually used to obtain confirmation eg: "The Earth is round, isn't it?", "You don't eat meat, do you?"
tense	form of a verb that shows us when the action or state happens (past, present or future). Note that the name of a tense is not always a guide to when the action happens. The "present continuous tense", for example, can be used to talk about the present or the future.
terminative/ nonterminative (perfective/imperfective)	The terminative /perfective is concerned with how we are describing the time-frame of an action or state. In the perfective, we describe a situation as taking place within a single undivided moment. We're not concerned with how long that moment actually is, we're just not looking into the composition of it, its internal temporal structure. If I say "I read that book," I'm not telling you anything about that process, just that it happened. It could have taken an hour or it could have taken a year, but I'm not telling you about what happened within that hour or year. If I want to tell you about the process, if I want to describe this situation as having internal

	structure, I'm going to use nonterminative/imperfective meaning, e.g. "I was reading that book." This distinction doesn't have anything to do with what actually happened and how, just how I want to describe it in this context. I'm not looking at reading the book as a complete action, I'm looking at it as a process, and I'm probably going to start telling you about what happened while I was reading, rather than what happened after I read it or because I read it.
third conditional	"if-then" conditional structure used to talk about a possible event in the past that did not happen (and is therefore now impossible) eg: "If we had won the lottery we would have bought a car"
theme	The theme is the starting point of communication, something that is assumed to be known, usually an object or phenomenon about which something new is reported.
transitive verb	action verb that has a direct object (receiver of the action); see also intransitive verb. eg: "The kids always eat a snack while they watch TV"
uncountable nouns	thing that you cannot count, such as substances

(also called "mass nouns" or "non-count")	or concepts; see also countable nouns eg: water, furniture, music
verb	word that describes the subject's action or state and that we can change or conjugate based on tense and person eg: (to) work, (to) love, (to) begin
verb phrase	there are several slightly different complex technical explanations for this, so it's easier to consider the definition as all the parts of a (subject-verb-object) statement without the subject, for example, in the statement *'Peter went to the office'*, the verb phrase is *'went to the office'*.
voice	form of a verb that shows the relation of the subject to the action; there are two voices in English: active, passive
WH-question	question using a WH-word and expecting an answer that is not "yes" or "no"; WH-questions are "open" questions; see also yes-no question eg: Where are you going?
WH-word (also called	word that asks a WH-question; there are 7 WH-words: who, what, where, when, which, why,

"question word")	how
word order	order or sequence in which words occur within a sentence; basic word order for English is subject-verb-object or SVO
zero conditional	"if-then" conditional structure used when the result of the condition is always true (based on fact) eg: "If you dial O, the operator comes on"

გამომცემლობის დირექტორი – ნანა ხახუტაიშვილი
გამომცემლობის რედაქტორი – ლალი კონცელიძე
ტექნიკური რედაქტორი – ედუარდ ანანიძე

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დაიბეჭდა უნივერსიტეტის სტამბაში
ქ. ბათუმი, ნინოშვილის 35