А. С. Персидская

ТЕОРЕТИЧЕСКАЯ ГРАММАТИКА (английский язык)

Практикум

МИНИСТЕРСТВО ПРОСВЕЩЕНИЯ РОССИЙСКОЙ ФЕДЕРАЦИИ
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А. С. Персидская

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Ю. А. Зеремская

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В практикуме изложен материал по истории становления теоретической грамматики как науки и подходах к ее изучению, вопросам морфологии и синтаксиса английского языка. Теоретические материалы сопровождаются заданиями для семинаров: темами докладов, вопросами для проверки, тестами и практическими заданиями.

Предназначен для студентов высших учебных заведений направлений подготовки 45.03.02 Лингвистика, 45.05.01 Перевод и переводоведение.

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Системные требования:
ПК не ниже класса Pentium II; RAM 512 Mb; Windows XP/7–10 (32-разрядная или 64-разрядная версии); разрешение экрана 1 024 × 768 (768 × 1 024); CD-ROM-дисковод, мышь; Adobe Acrobat Reader DC (либо другое, открывающее PDF-файлы).

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Оглавление

Предисловие

Практикум «Теоретическая грамматика» предназначен для студентов высших учебных заведений направлений подготовки 45.03.02 Лингвистика, 45.05.01 Перевод и переводоведение и соответствует рабочей программе учебной дисциплины «Теоретическая грамматика».

Цель настоящего практикума – донести до студентов теоретические основы грамматики английского языка и закрепить их с помощью практических заданий.

Курс по теоретической грамматике следует за курсом практической грамматики и представляет собой более углубленное изучение теории данного языкового аспекта.

Планируемыми результатами обучения по курсу «Теоретическая грамматика» являются: знание основных положений теории грамматики английского языка, разработанной в отечественном и зарубежном языкознании; владение терминологией и понятийным аппаратом теоретической грамматики; знание основ морфологического и синтаксического анализа, способов извлечения необходимой информации для характеристики грамматических явлений; знание основных методов исследования, применяемых в теоретической грамматике.

Предлагаемый практикум отличается от аналогичных пособий других авторов более кратким изложением теоретического материала. После каждой темы предлагаются вопросы и задания для обсуждения и выполнения на семинарах. При этом в представленном теоретическом материале прослеживается преемственность концепций, предлагаемых в учебных и научных публикациях более ранних лет других авторов.

Практикум состоит из трех глав и списка рекомендуемой литературы. Каждая глава включает теоретическую часть (Lecture notes), где в лаконичной форме представлен необходимый минимум информации для освоения темы. После каждой темы следуют вопросы (Questions for revision) для проверки качества освоения теоретических знаний. Завершается каждая глава материалами для семинаров (Seminars), в которых предлагаются темы для докладов, и практическими заданиями (Practical Tasks), включающими текст для проверки знаний теоретической части главы и упражнения для применения полученных знаний на практике. Практические задания охватывают все темы глав.

В первой главе представлена наиболее общая информация об истории становления теоретической грамматики как науки и подходах к ее изучению. Во второй главе рассматриваются вопросы морфологии английского языка, в третьей главе – синтаксис английского языка.

Данный практикум может быть использован для аудиторной и самостоятельной работы со студентами любой формы обучения.

Chapter 1. General Notion of Theoretical Grammar

1.1. Lecture Notes

1.1.1. Grammar as a Science

Language Definition

Language is considered by linguists from three main positions:

1) language as a text (the result of the speech activity of speakers, presented in the form of a variety of speech products: literary texts, newspapers, interviews, various documents, etc.);
2) language as a system (the result of linguistic research, reflected in dictionaries, monographs, dissertations, devoted to various aspects of the language and aiming to establish their systemic patterns);
3) language as a competence (language in the speaker's mind, i.e. knowledge of the language and readiness to realize this knowledge).

The foundations of a systematic description of the language were developed in the late 19th – early 20th century in the works of such scientists as Jan Niecisław Ignacy Baudouin de Courtenay, Aleksandr Afanasievich Potebnya.

Ferdinand de Saussure is the founder of a systematic approach to linguistics.

According to him a language is treated as follows:

– in broad sense, **a language** is a unity of two sides:
  1) a system of special language units, the language itself,
  2) the use of language units, speech itself.
– in narrow sense, **a language** is a system of means of expression, and **speech** is a manifestation of the language system in the process of communication.

Language Units

Main **functions** of a language is:

– **communicative**,
– **expressive** (linguistic signs – **semiotic system**).

Linguistic **signs** are **informative** and **meaningful**.

Ferdinand de Saussure developed the study of linguistic units as special signs.

Types of language units are:

– ***segmental*** (phonemes, morphemes, words, sentences, etc.),
– ***super-segmental*** (intonation pattern, stress, pause, word order models, etc.).

Examples of super-segmental units:

He is at home. (statement)

Is he at home? (question)

Language levels can be presented hierarchically (Table 1).

Table 1

A Hierarchy of Language Levels

A hierarchy of language levels:	Examples:
1) phonetic (phonemic), 2) morphemic, 3) lexical, 4) phrase (phrase), 5) the sentence level (syntactic), 6) text level	*m**a**n – m**e**n*; *step-**s***; *cat*; *a beautiful girl, a sudden departure*; *Their departure was sudden. Fire!*; *Just do it!*

Isomorphism is the similarity and likeness of organization of linguistic units.

Language Subsystems

The phonetic system (phonetic structure of the language): sounds, phonemes, intonation models, accentual models – phonetics (phonology).

The lexical system (the lexical structure of the language): words and stable phrases – a lexicology course.

The grammar system (the grammatical structure of the language): the rules and patterns of using language units in the construction of utterances in the process of communication between people – grammar.

Practical grammar is aimed at describing grammar as a set of rules to be observed.

Theoretical grammar is aimed at explaining the mechanisms and rules by which the grammar system of the language operates.

Morphology studies word-formation, different types of inflections: *nouns, verbs, adverbs, auxiliary parts of speech.*

Paradigmatics studies the patterns of changes in the word form according to the existing inflectional categories: *number, case, time, type, mood, voice*.

Syntax studies collocation and sentence theories: *simple, complex sentences.*

Collocation theory considers the nature of collocation components, syntagmatic problems of a word, types of syntactic links, etc.

The Concept of 'Grammar'

The purpose of grammar is to describe the grammatical structure of a language as a system, parts of which are connected by certain rules.

The grammar norm is a set of rules that should be followed in speech activity.

Usage is prevailing trends in the use of language forms by members of a given language community.

The Grammatical Structure of the English Language

Types of languages are ***synthetic*** and ***analytical***.

The English language is the analytical types with some features of the synthetic type.

Features of the grammatical structure of the English language:

1. **Quite flexible:** *They had another **round** of talks yesterday. Her face was **round** and cheerful. They live just **round** the corner.*
2. Polysemy and homonymy.
3. The direct order of words in a sentence. The scheme: subject (subject) – predicate (verb) – addition (object). *The hunter killed the bear. The bear killed the hunter. / What are you interested **in**?*
4. All sentences must have a subject. *It is never too late to learn.*
5. The absence of inflections in words.
6. The predominant use of nouns in sentences: *Make a guess! – Guess!*
7. Non-personal forms of the verb prevail: *I have never seen her playing the piano. "I never saw her play the piano."*

Questions for Revision:

1. What is language?
2. What is speech?
3. What types of language units exist?
4. What are the levels of language, determine their structural and functional characteristics. Give examples.
5. Name the three component parts, or subsystems of the language. Characterize them.
6. What does morphology study?
7. What does syntax learn?
8. What is a grammar norm?
9. What is the difference between a grammar norm and a usage?
10. What are the features of the grammatical structure of the language? Give examples.

1.1.2. Types of Relations

Syntagmatic relations

Syntagmatic relations are immediate linear relations between units in a segmental sequence (string).

For example: *The spaceship was launched without the help of a booster rocket.*

In this sentence we can differentiate:

- words and word-groups: *the spaceship, was launched, the space-ship was launched, was launched without the help, the help of a rocket, a booster rocket,*
- morphemes: *space/ship; launch/ed; with/out; boost/er,*
- phonemes: *the processes of assimilation and dissimilation.*

The combination of two words or word-groups one of which is modified by the other forms a unit which is referred to as a **syntactic syntagma**.

There are four main types of **notional syntagmas** (according to M. Ya. Blokh):

1) predicative (the combination of a subject and a predicate);
2) objective (the combination of a verb and its object);
3) attributive (the combination of a noun and its attribute);
4) adverbial (the combination of a modified notional word, such as a verb, adjective, or adverb, with its adverbial modifier).

An example of syntagmatic relations: *A litter of milk – litter* contrasts with *a, of, milk*; *l, i, t, t, e, r*.

Three types of syntagmatic relations are:

1) **coordinate syntagmatic relations** – the homogeneous linguistic units: *you and me; They were tired, but happy*;
2) **subordinate syntagmatic relations** – one linguistic unit depends on the other: *teach + er* – morphological level; *a smart student* – word-group level; *predicative and subordinate clauses* – sentence level;
3) **predicative syntagmatic relations** – primary and secondary predication: *I saw him working. We heard them talk. The audience watched the team play. I want you to call tomorrow. We expect you to visit us.*

This type of relations is called 'in the presence'.

One more example of syntagmatic relations: *He started laughing.*

Here we observe linear relationships between:

– sounds: *[h + i:] = [hi:]; [s + t + a: + t + i + d] = [sta: tid]*,
– morphemes: *star + ed = started; laugh + ing = laughing*,
– phrases and sentences: *He + started; started + laughing*.

Linear relationships in the text can be exemplified as follows: *He started laughing. Everybody thought it was rather odd.*

Paradigmatic relations

Paradigmatic relations are revealed in:

– morphological paradigms: *toy – toys; tooth – teeth; children – children's*,
– sentence: *He laughed. – Did he laugh? – Let him laugh.*

Paradigmatic relations can be of three types:

1) **semantic paradigmatic relations** are based on the similarity of meaning: *a book to read = a book for reading. He used to practice tennis every day. – He practiced tennis every day*;
2) **formal paradigmatic relations** are based on the similarity of forms*: man – men; play – played – will play – is playing*;
3) **functional paradigmatic relations** are based on the similarity of function: *a, the, this, his, Ann's, some, each.*

This type of relations is called 'in the absence'.

Questions for Revision:

1. What are syntagmatic relations?
2. What are the levels where the syntagmatic relations may occur? Give examples.
3. What types of syntagmatic relations exist? Give examples.
4. What is an invariant?
5. What are paradigmatic relations?
6. Give examples of paradigmatic relations of different language levels.
7. What types of paradigmatic relations exist? Give examples.
8. How are syntagmatic and paradigmatic relations connected?
9. What is the minimum number of elements that syntagmatic and paradigmatic relations can consist of?
10. What types of relations referred to as relations ‘in the presence’ and relations ‘in the absence’?

1.1.3. History of the English Theoretical Grammar

The **main development stages** of English theoretical grammar are:

– the first (the 16th century – the beginning of the 19th century),
– the second (the first quarter of the 19th century – the 1930s),
– the third (the 1930s – present day).

The 16th century – the beginning of the 19th century is the period of:

– descriptive grammar,
– prescriptive grammar.

In 1586 *Bref grammar for English* by W. Bullokar was published. It is called the **pre-normative grammar**.

In 1762 *Short Introduction to English grammar* by R. Lowth was published. It is called the **normative (prescriptive) grammar**.

In the 16th century – the beginning of the 19th century several books on grammar were published among them are:

– grammar by J. J. Scaliger (1540–1609) gave the first schemes of the genealogical groups,
– "Grammaire general at raisonnee" ("General and Rational Grammar") (1660) by A. Arnauld and C. Lancelot,
– "Art of thinking" by A. Arnauld and P. Nicole ("The Port-Royal Logic") (1662),
– "New Method for Learning the Latin Language Easily and Quickly" by C. Lancelot **(**1644).

In the first quarter of the 19th century – the 1930s, **theoretical grammar** appears. It is also called the **classical scientific grammar**. The following books were published:

– "New English grammar, Logical and Historical" by H. Sweet (1891) described a system of parts of speech;
– "English grammar" by C.P. Manson (1858);
– "Higher English grammar" by A. Bain (1863).

} These books gave basis for scientific grammar

The period of the 1930s – present day is divided into 2 stages (according to I. Pribytock):

1. In the period from H. Sweet's book to 1940's, two types of grammar were developed:
   – **prescriptive** (J. C. Nesfield),
   – **explanatory** (C. T. Onions, H. R. Stokoe, G. Gurme, O. Jespersen and others).
2. In the period from 1940s till now: new different types of grammar appeared.

According to some other grammarians, English grammars in the 20th century may be divided into two parts:

1. From the beginning of the 20th century to 1940's, the **prescriptive** and the **classical scientific grammar** existed, e.g. grammar by J. Nesfield describing the system of members of the sentence.
2. In the modern period, the **classical scientific grammar** appeared, e.g. grammar books by L. G. Kimball, C. T. Onionsand, H. R. Stokoe, H. Poustma, A. Kruisinga, G. O. Curme, M. M. Bryant, O. Jespersen describing syntax and morphology.

Main types of grammar are:

– the structural grammar (Ch. Fries),
– the transformational grammar (Z. Harris, N. Chomsky),
– communicatively oriented grammar (V. Mathesius, J. Firbas),
– semantically oriented grammar (Ch. Fillmore, W. L. Chafe),
– pragmatically oriented grammar (J. Austin, J. Searle),
– textual grammar (Z. Harries, V. Waterhouse, T. van Dijk, M. K. Halliday).

There are also some other types of grammar:

– a synchronic grammar,
– a diachronic / historical grammar,
– a descriptive grammar (linguists, spoken language),
– a prescriptive grammar (people, rules and norms of correct speech),
– a theoretical grammar,
– a practical grammar.

There are several methods of linguistic analysis:

1) historical method;
2) comparative method;
3) general method.

The historical comparative method of language study was developed in some stages:

1) in the first quarter of the 19th century by Sir William Jones (1746–1794);
2) by F. Bopp (1791–1867), R. K. Rask (1787–1832), J. Grimm (1785–1863), A. Ch. Vostokov (1781–1864);
3) F. Dietz (1794–1876), A. F. Pott (1802–1887), A. Schleicher (1821–1868), F. I. Buslayev (1848–1897), F. F. Fortunatov (1848–1914), F. de Saussure (1857–1913), A. Meillet (1866–1936).

The historical comparative method of language study had a drawback – it did not give any exact definition of the object of linguistics as an independent science.

An **atomistic approach** to the language concerned with the separated, individual parts of a subject, rather than approaching the subject as a whole.

The language as a system was represented by I. A. Beaudouin de Courtenay, F. F. Fortunatov, F. de Saussure.

Three major linguistic schools are:

- the **Prague School** (1929, V. Mathesius, B. Trnka, N. Trubetskoy, R. Jakobson),
- the **Copenhagen School** (1933, L. Hjelmslev and V. Brondal, "Glossemantics" (from Gk. *glossa* "language")),
- the **American School** (Descriptive linguistics) (F. Boas, E. Sapir, L. Bloomfield).

* A. I. Bauduin de Courtenay (1890's) developed **oppositional**, or paradigmatic, or categorical **grammar**.

* N. Chomsky (late 1950's) developed **generative** or **transformational grammar**.

The main methods of linguistic analysis are:

- the **distributional** method,
- the method of **immediate constituents**.

The **transformational grammar** was firstly suggested by Z. S. Harris; later elaborated by Noam Chomsky.

The distributional analysis was suggested by L. Bloomfield in early 1930's.

The Distributional method offers to use symbols to denote parts of speech (N – noun, A – adjective, T – article, V – verb, D – adverb) and present the structure of the sentence schematically:

He makes me do it (NVNVN), *He makes up for smth* (Nvup for N), *I make a present* (NVTN), *I make a bed* (NVTN).

In each particular environment an element develops peculiar qualities. Variants of morphemes in different environments are called allomorphs: *phenomena, genii, teeth, children, tables, cats, brushes* – the morpheme of plurality.

Morphemes standing in:

– contrastive distribution – *jump : jumped*,
– uncontrastive distribution – *learnt : learned*,
– complementary distribution – *bed*: *beds, house: houses, child: children, etc.* (*plural*).

The drawback of the distributional method is the structures of the sentences may coincide while their meaning are different:

I make a bed, I make a basket, I make a road, I make a promise – NVTN.

No structural difference is observed in the following phrases:

– *Napoleon's victory and Napoleon's defeat*,
– *John's eager to please* ($NV_{be}AV_{to}$), *John's easy to please* ($NV_{be}AV_{to}$).

The syntactico-semantic syncretism of the element *greyly* in the following sentence remains unrevealed: *The rain falls* ***greyly***.

The Method of Immediate Constituents aims at describing any complex form ranging from long sentences to multi-element words in terms of their constituents. The parts are devided into smaller parts until ultimate indivisible pieces are arrived at (morphemes):

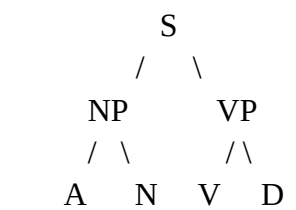
– *un][gent]le][man][ly*,
– *book||let*; *let* – a diminutive suffix,
– *ham||let (a small village); ham* – ?,
– *Poor][John// ran][away*.

There are several varieties of diagramming of the Method of Immediate Constituents (Fig. 1, 2).

Poor][John// ran][away
candelabra diagram

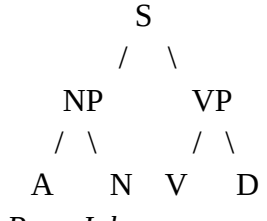
Poor John ran away
└---------┘ └------┘
└--------┘

Poor][John// ran][away
a derivation tree division

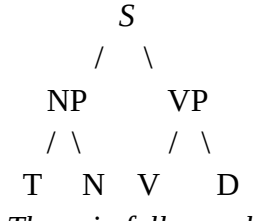


Poor John runs away

Figure 1. The Candelabra Division



Poor John runs away



The rain falls greyly

Figure 2. The Derivation Tree Division

Questions for Revision:

1. What scientific directions in linguistics can you name?
2. What does the descriptional and prescriptional grammar mean?
3. Explain the difference between practical and theoretical grammar.
4. What does glossemantics study?
5. What method did the Prague School linguists use?
6. What does an atomistic approach mean?
7. What was the historical method applied for?
8. What does the comparative grammar do?
9. What is distributional analysis?
10. Name the main development stages of English theoretical grammar (centuries, types of grammar, names of linguists).

1.1.4. Morphemic Structure of the Word

Segmental units are: the morpheme, the word.

For example, Past tense: *train-ed [-d]; publish-ed [-t]; meditat-ed [-id]*.

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.

American scholars, representatives of Descriptive Linguistics founded by L. Bloomfield, recognised the phoneme and the morpheme:

– *water, pass, yellow,*
– *watery, passer, yellowness,*
– *waterman, password, yellowback.*

The peculiar property distinguishing composite words from phrases is the linear indivisibility, i.e. the impossibility for them to be divided by a third word: *has met – has **never** met; is coming – is **not by any means or under any circumstances** coming.*

There are two sets of lingual phenomena. **Polar phenomena** are the most clearly identifiable, they stand to one another in an utterly unambiguous opposition. **Intermediary phenomena** are located in the system in between the polar phenomena, making up a gradation of transitions or the so-called "continuum".

One-stem word and the morpheme should be described as the **opposing polar phenomena** among the meaningful segments of language.

Functional words, they occupy intermediary positions between these poles, and their very **intermediary status** is **gradational**.

Examples of "negative delimitation" (i.e. delimitation as a residue after the identification of the co-positional textual elements) are: *the/people; to/speak; by/way/of.*

The elementary character (indivisibility) of the morpheme is established in the structure of words, **the elementary character of the word (as a nominative unit)** is realised in the system of lexicon.

The morpheme:

– is a meaningful segmental component of the word,
– is formed by phonemes,
– as a meaningful component of the word it is elementary.

The word:

– is a nominative unit of language,
– is formed by morphemes,
– enters the lexicon of language as its elementary component,
– together with other nominative units the word is used for the formation of the sentence.

Two basic criteria of the study of the morphemic structure of the word:

1. **Positional** (the location of the marginal morphemes in relation to the central ones).
2. **Semantic** or **functional** (the correlative contribution of the morphemes to the general meaning of the word).

The combination of these two criteria led to **the rational classification of morphemes**.

The traditional classification of morphemes

On the upper level the morphemes are divided into:

– **root-morphemes** (roots) – express the concrete, "material" part of the meaning of the word,
– **affixal** morphemes (affixes) – express the specificational part (of lexico-semantic and grammatico-semantic character) of the meaning of the word.

The affixal morphemes are prefixes, suffixes, and inflexions:

– prefixes and lexical suffixes have **word-building** functions,
– inflexions (grammatical suffixes) express different **morphological categories**.

Functional morpheme can be used as an affix (mostly, a prefix), as a root:

– ***out*** – a root-word (preposition, adverb, verbal postposition, adjective, noun, verb); *through**out*** – a composite word, in which *-out* serves as one of the roots (the categorial status of the meaning of both morphemes is the same),
– ***out****ing* – a two-morpheme word, in which *out* is a root, and *-ing* is a suffix,
– ***out****look*, ***out****line*, ***out****rage*, ***out****-talk*, etc. – words, in which *out-* serves as a prefix,
– *look-**out***, *knock-**out***, *shut-**out***, *time-**out***, etc. – words (nouns), in which *-out* serves as a suffix.

Morphemic types of stems can be:

– root-stems (one-root stems or two-root stems),
– one-affix stems.

Peculiarities:

– stems take one grammatical suffix,
– two ‘open’ grammatical suffixes are used only with some plural nouns in the possessive case: *the child**en's** toys, the ox**en's** yokes.*

The abstract complete morphemic model of the common English word is as follows: prefix + root + lexical suffix + grammatical suffix.

The syntagmatic connections of the morphemes are of hierarchical structure.

The structure of the word can be presented schematically: St – stem, R – root, Pr – prefix, L – lexical suffix, Gr – grammatical suffix, and braces, brackets, and parentheses:

PREFABRICATED	INHERITORS
W1 = {[Pr + (**R + L**)] +Gr}	W2 = {[(**Pr + R**) +L] + Gr}

Descriptive Linguistics offered the **allo-emic** theory.

Eme-terms denote the generalised invariant units of language characterised by a certain functional status: **phonemes**, **morphemes**.

Allo-terms denote the concrete manifestations, or variants of the generalised units dependent on the regular co-location with other elements of language: **allophones**, **allomorphs**.

The allo-emic identification of lingual elements is achieved by the distributional analysis:

Left	–	Right
un-	pardon	-able
right|*left*		

The distribution of a unit may be defined as the total of all its environments.

The distribution of a unit is its environment in generalised terms of classes or categories.

The steps of the distributional analysis on the morphemic level:

1. The analysed text is divided into recurrent segments consisting of phoneme: *the/boat/s/were/gain/ing/speed* – morphs.
2. The environmental features of the morphs are established and the corresponding identifications are effected.

The distribution is c**ontrastive**, if meanings (functions) are different, e.g. the suffixes *-(e)d* and *-ing*.

The distribution is **non-contrastive** (or free alternation), if meaning (function) is the same, e.g. the suffixes *-(e)d* and *-t* in the verb-forms *learned*, *learnt*.

Complementary distribution concerns different environments of formally different morphs which are united by the same meaning (function). If two or more morphs have the same meaning and the difference in their form is explained by different environments, these morphs are said to be in complementary distribution and considered the allomorphs of the

same morpheme: the allomorphs of the plural morpheme */-s/, /-z/, /-iz/* – the plural allomorph *-en* in *oxen, children.*

According to **the degree of self-dependence**, the morphemes are divided into:

- **bound morphemes** cannot form words by themselves, they are identified only as component segmental parts of words,
- **free morphemes** can build up words by themselves.

For example, *hand-ful (hand- – free morpheme, -ful – bound morpheme).*

Free productive morphemes are:

1) the segments *-(e)s [-z, -s, -iz]*;
2) the segments *-(e)d [-d, -t, -id]*;
3) the segments *-ing*;
4) the segments *-er, -est*.

Semi-bound morphemes are the auxiliary word-morphemes.

According to **the formal presentation**, the morphemes are divided into:

- **overt morphemes** which are genuine, explicit morphemes building up words,
- **covert morpheme** identified as a contrastive absence of morpheme expressing a certain function.

Examples: clocks – 2 overt morphemes; *clock* – 1 overt morpheme and 1 covert morpheme.

According to the **segmental relation**, the morphemes are divided into:

- segmental morphemes,
- supra-segmental morphemes.

According to **the grammatical alternation**, the morphemes are divided into:

1. **Additive morphemes** are outer grammatical suffixes, since, as a rule, they are opposed to the absence of morphemes in grammatical alternation – *look+ed; small+er*, etc.
2. The root phonemes of grammatical interchange are considered as **replacive morphemes**, since they replace one another in the paradigmatic forms – *dr-i-ve – dr-ove – dr-i-ven; m-a-n – m-e-n*; etc.

According to **the linear characteristic**, the morphemes are divided into:

- continuous (or linear) morphemes,
- discontinuous morphemes.

By the **discontinuous** morpheme (opposed to the common, i.e. uninterruptedly expressed, continuous morpheme), a two-element grammatical unit is meant which is identified in the analytical grammatical form comprising an auxiliary word and a grammatical suffix:

be ... ing – for the continuous verb forms (e.g. is going);

have ... en – for the perfect verb forms (e.g. has gone);

be ... en – for the passive verb forms (e.g. is taken).

Questions for Revision:

1. What segmental units does morphology as part of grammatical theory face?
2. What are the basic categories of linguistic description according to American scholars (Descriptive Linguistics)? Why?
3. What are the polar and intermediary phenomena?
4. How are the elementary characters of the morpheme and the word realised?
5. What groups are the morphemes divided into according to the traditional classification?
6. How are the syntagmatic connections of the morpheme characterized in two types of hierarchical structure?
7. What is the immediate aim of the distributional analysis?
8. What are the bases for differentiating distributional morphemic types?
9. What are overt and covert morphemes? Give examples.
10. What are the discontinuous morphemes? Give examples.

1.1.5. Grammatical Meaning and Form

Aspects of Meaning

The study of meaning is called **semantics**, that is the branch of linguistics.

Scholars define **meaning** as the information that is linked with the forms of language, whether they are words (lexical meaning) or constructions (compositional meaning).

The principle of compositionality is the way the words are formed and combined into constituents and clauses of various types determining the meaning of the construction.

According to **A. Baker**, a word has a form and a meaning.

The **arbitrary nature** of the words is based on social convention: English – "horse", French – "cheval", Polish – "kon", Dutch – "paard".

The **natural relation** between the form and meaning: English "cuckoo", French "coucou", Polish "ku ku", Dutch "koekoek".

Content words:

- make up core of the meaning of the sentence as a whole,
- can be syntactic heads,
- can refer to something that exists and obtains in reality or in some fictional world.

Function words:

- act like the mortar that keeps the bricks, the content words, in place,
- cannot be syntactic heads,
- primarily serve a function within the grammatical system of the language and add further semantic and pragmatic nuances,
- establish relations between the lexical elements and connect everything into the grammatical network of the sentence.

The semantic and pragmatic nuances can be illustrated by the use of the article. The article *the* indicates a particular book, and the indefinite article *a* indicates a more general meaning of any book: *He has **the** book. He has **a** book.*

Lemmas are the meanings, which are given in the dictionary under one single heading.

According to **R. L. Trask**, the meaning of a sentence depends on two things:

1) the meaning of the words;
2) the grammatical structure of the sentence.

For example:

The dog bit the milkman. The dog bit the postman.

The dog is biting the postman. The postman bit the dog.

Frege's Principle of Compositionality offers that if we want to know the meaning of a sentence we need to know the meanings of all the words and all grammatical structure elements in it.

According to **P. R. Kroeger**, ***language*** is a complex form of communication, and people talk in order to share or request information.

Compare the Teochew form with its English translation:

1. *Li chya? Pa boy? You eat full not yet.*
2. *Have you already eaten?*

The study of word meaning is called ***lexical semantics***, which deals not just with meaning of individual words, but also with the way in which the meanings of words are related.

Consider the examples of different relations between words.

Example 1.

lazy ← ***young*** – *old*

Example 2.

flower

rose – *lilac*

One form of the word can be of different register in various language dialects (Table 2).

Table 2

Example 3. Differences in Register of the Words

Register	Scotland	the northern USA	the southern USA
Normal	*pail*	*pail*	*bucket*
Rustic	*bucket*	*bucket*	*pail*

Hyponyms are words that are more specific than a given term, while **superordinates** are words that are more general.

In Dyirbal, an Australian language, there is no generic term for lizards: *banggarra* 'blue-tongue lizard', *biyu* 'frilled lizard', *buynyjuk* 'red bellied lizard'.

Lexical meaning is the individual meaning of the word.

Grammatical meaning is the meaning of the whole class or subclass.

Grammatical meanings of notional words are rendered by their grammatical forms, e.g. the grammatical suffix *-(e)s* for the meaning of the plural: *cats, books, clashes.*

Grammatical meanings of individual grammatical forms are established in paradigmatic correlations, e.g. the plural correlates with the singular: *cat – cats*; the genitive case of the noun correlates with the common case: *cat – cat's*; the definite article determination correlates with the indefinite article determination: *a cat – the cat.*

Aspects of Linguistic From

Grammatical form and grammatical meaning of the word are interconnected. According to **I. Pribytok**, there exits neither formless grammatical meaning, nor meaningless grammatical form.

People can understand forms being grammatically correct or incorrect as well as the meaning of a sentence even if it is grammatically incorrect:

Those guys was trying to kill me.

When he came here?

The form of the sentence may be accepted as correct even when the meaning is obscure or absurd:

Jabberwocky

"Twas brillig, and the slithy toves
Did gyre and gimble in the wabe;
All mimsy were the borogoves,
And the mome raths outgrabe".
"Beware the Jabberwock, my son!
The jaws that bite, the claws that catch!
Beware the Jubjub bird, and shun
The frumious Bandersnatch! "
He took his vorpal sword in hand:
Long time the manxome foe he sought –
So rested he by the Tumtum tree,
And stood awhile in thought (L. Carroll *Throgh the Looking-Glass, and What Alice Found There*, 1871).

Synthetic grammatical forms are built by means of the morphemic composition of the word with the help of adding grammatical suffixes to the stems of the words:

- **outer inflexion**, e. g. *cat – cats*,
- **inner inflexion**, or vowel interchange inside the root, e. g. *goose – geese*, and
- **suppletivity**, when different roots are combined within the same paradigm: *go – went*.

Analytical grammatical forms are built by the combination of the notional word with auxiliary words, e. g. *come – have come*.

Analytical forms consist of two words which together express one grammatical meaning, so they are **grammatically idiomatic**.

Examples of specific analytical forms are: *a bit of joy, the last two items of news, thousands and thousands* – the use of quantifiers with uncountable nouns or repetition groups.

Questions for Revision:

1. What is an arbitrary and conventional form of a word?
2. What are the differences between content and function words?
3. What do closed and open classes mean?
4. Is a lemma the same as the meaning of a word?
5. What are a superordinate and a hyponym?
6. What are grammatical meaning of notional words rendered by?
7. How are grammatical meanings of individual grammatical forms established?
8. How are grammatical form and grammatical meaning of the word interconnected? Give examples.
9. What are synthetic grammatical forms?
10. What are analytical grammatical forms?

1.1.6. Categorical Structure of the Word

The variations are of **more systemic** (phonological conditioning) and **less systemic** (etymological conditioning) nature, e.g.: *faces, branches, matches, judges; books, rockets, boats, chiefs, proofs; dogs, beads, films, stones, hens; lives, wives, thieves, leaves; girls, stars, toys, heroes, pianos, cantos; oxen, children, brethren, kine; swine, sheep, deer; cod, trout, salmon; men, women, feet, teeth, geese, mice, lice; formulae, antennae; data, errata, strata, addenda, memoranda; radii, genii, nuclei, alumni; crises, bases, analyses, axes; phenomena, criteria*.

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

The **opposition** (in the linguistic sense) may be defined as a generalised correlation of lingual forms by means of which a certain function is expressed.

Two types of features:

- **common** features,
- **differential** features.

The oppositional theory originates from the phonological theory.

The qualitative types of oppositions:

- **privative**,
- **gradual**,
- **equipollent**.

By the number of members contrasted the oppositions can be:

– **binary** (two members),
– **more than binary** (ternary, quaternary, etc.).

The most important type of opposition is the binary privative opposition.

The **privative** opposition has:

– **marked**, or **strong**, or **positive** member – the symbol + (plus) – [**b, d, g** – p, t, k],
– **unmarked**, or **weak**, or **negative** member – the symbol – (minus) – [b, d, g – **p, t, k**].

The **graduational** opposition distinguishes a contrastive group of members by the degree of the feature, e.g. the degree of the openness of the front vowels [i: – i – e – ae].

The **equipollent** opposition distinguishes a contrastive group of members by different positive features, e.g. [m] and [b] are both bilabial, but [m] is sonorous, [b] is plosive (Table 3).

Table 3

A System of the Features

Features	[p]	[b]	[t]	[m]
Voice	–	+		
Labialisation	+		–	
Nazalisation	–			+

In morphology the main type of opposition is also the binary privative opposition.

The privative opposition has:

– **marked**, or **strong** member – the symbol + (plus)?
– **unmarked**, or **weak** member – the symbol – (minus).

For example, the expression of the verbal present and past tenses is based on a privative opposition the differential feature of which is the dental suffix *-ed*:

– Past – *we worked* – *-ed* (+) strong?
– Present – *we work* – no *-ed* (–) weak.

The meanings differentiated by the oppositions of signemic units (signemic oppositions) are referred to as ***semantic features***, or ***semes***.

Another example of binary opposition:

– *cats* – the seme of plurality – marked member + (strong) – plural?
– *cat* – the seme of singularity – unmarked member – (weak) – **non-**plural.

The meaning of the **weak** member is more **general** and **abstract**, so it can be used in a wider range of contexts.

The meaning of the **strong** member is more **particular** and **concrete**:

*The sun **rises** in the East.*

*To err **is** human.*

*They **don't speak** French in this part of the country.*

The equipollent opposition in the English morphology can be exemplified by the link verb *be: am – are – is.*

The gradual opposition in morphology is exemplified by the degrees of comparison of an adjective: *strong – stronger – strongest*.

A word-form can be presented by a bundle of values of differential features: *listens* – the present tense (tense –), the indicative mood (mood –), the passive voice (voice –), the third person (person +), etc.

A **morphological** description is more compact and precise.

Oppositional reduction or **oppositional substitution** is called the phenomena when in various contextual conditions, one member of an opposition can be used in the position of the other, countermember, e.g.:

Man *conquers nature.* – the weak member (singular number) replaced the strong one (plural number).

Tonight we ***start*** *for London.* – the weak member (present) replaced the strong one (future).

The oppositional reduction is stylistically indifferent; it is called "neutralization of opposition"; it is the use of weak member due to more general semantics: *Tonight we* ***start*** *for London.*

Stylistically marked is "transposition", that is the use of strong member due to limited regular functions: *That man* ***is*** *constantly* ***complaining*** *of something.*

Member-forms of categorial opposition are devided into:

– synthetical?
– analytical.

Synthetical grammatical forms can be:

– inner-inflexional,
– outer-inflectional,
– suppletive.

Inner-inflexion (phonemic interchange): take – took – taken, drive – drove – driven, keep – kept – kept, etc.; man – men, brother – brethren, etc.

Suppletivity (correlation of different roots):

1) be – am – are – is – was – were; go – went; good – better; bad – worse; much – more; little – less; I – me; we – us; she – her;
2) can – be able; must – have (to), be obliged (to); may – be allowed (to);
3) one – some;
4) man – people; news – items of news; information – pieces of information; etc.

Outer-inflection (affixation): boy + ø – boys; go + ø – goes; work + ø – worked; small + ø – smaller.

Marginal analytical form-type is **repetition**:

*He **knocked** and **knocked** and **knocked** without reply*.

*Oh, I feel I've got such **boundless**, **boundless** love to give to somebody*.

*Two white-haired severe women were in charge of **shelves** and **shelves** of knitting materials of every description*.

The grammatical categories can either be innate for a given class of words or be expressed on the serface and be a sign of correlation with some other class:

- noun – *one **ship** – several **ships***,
- verb – *The **girl is** smiling. – The **girls are** smiling. The **ship is** in the harbour. – The **ships are** in the harbour*.

From the point of view of referent relation, **grammatical categories** should be divided into **immanent categories**, i.e. categories innate for a given lexemic class, and **reflective categories**, i.e. categories of a secondary, derivative semantic value.

Division of grammatical categories based on the changeability factor of the exposed features:

- **constant** (unchangeable, derivational),
- **variable** (changeable, demutative).

Constant features:

It (non-human): *mountain, city, forest, cat, bee*, etc.

He (male human): *man, father, husband, uncle*, etc.

She (female human): *woman, lady, mother, girl*, etc.

He or she (common human): *person, parent, child, cousin*, etc.

Variable features:

- the substantive number (singular – plural),
- the degrees of comparison (positive – comparative – superlative).

Marginal categorial forms have an intermediary status.

The nouns singularia tantum and pluralia tantum are **hybrid variable-constant formations**, since their variable feature of number are rigid, or **lexicalised**: *news, advice, progress; people, police; bellows, tongs; colours, letters*; etc.

The gender word-building pairs are **hybrid constant-variable formations**, since their constant feature of gender has acquired some changeability properties, i.e. are **grammaticalised**: *actor – actress, author – authoress, lion – lioness*, etc.

Declension is the nominal change and forms the case system.

Conjugation is the verbal change and expresses the verbal forms of person, number, tense, etc.

Immanent features are declensional; reflective features are conjugational.

Features of Russian and Latin:

– the noun is **declined** by the forms of gender, number, and case,
– the adjective is **conjugated** by the same forms.

Features of English:

– the verb is **conjugated** by the reflective forms of person and number, but **declined** by the immanent forms of tense, aspect, voice, and mood.

Questions for Revision:

1. What are categorial grammatical meanings?
2. What is opposition in linguistics?
3. What is the privative morphological opposition based on?
4. What are semes?
5. What is oppositional reduction or oppositional substitution?
6. What are transposition and neutralization of opposition?
7. What is suppletivity? Give examples.
8. What word combinations are recognized as grammatically idiomatic? Give examples.
9. Give characteristics to immanent and reflective categories.
10. What types of grammatical categories are differentiated on the basis of the changeability factor of the exposed feature?

1.2. Seminars

Seminar 1. The Science of Language: Understanding Grammar, Structure, and Linguistic Relations

Seminar Objective: the main goal of this seminar is to provide participants with a comprehensive understanding of language as a scientific discipline. We aim to explore the various dimensions of language, including its definition, structure, functions, subsystems, and the intricate relationships between linguistic units. By delving into both theoretical and practical aspects of grammar and linguistic analysis, participants will gain valuable insights into the functioning of language as a tool for communication and expression, as well as its systematic description.

Topics for Presentations:

1. Defining Language: Three Perspectives.

An examination of the three primary definitions of language – language as text, language as system, and language as competence. This presentation will explore how each perspective contributes to the overall understanding of language.

2. The Foundations of Linguistic Study.

Discussing the historical development of linguistic analysis, focusing on the contributions of key figures like Ferdinand de Saussure, Jan Baudouin de Courtenay, and Aleksandr Potebnya in establishing language as a systematic subject of study.

3. **Understanding Language Units: Types and Functions.**

A deep dive into language units, including segmental and super-segmental units, and their roles in communication. The presentation will also highlight the main functions of language, such as communication and expression.

4. **Hierarchy of Language Levels.**

Exploring the hierarchy of language levels (phonetic, morphemic, lexical, phrase, sentence, text) and their structural and functional characteristics, with examples to illustrate each level.

5. **Language Subsystems: Phonetics, Lexicology, and Grammar.**

Analyzing the three subsystems of language: phonetics, lexicology, and grammar. This presentation will define each subsystem and explore its role in the overall structure of language.

6. **Morphology and Syntax: The Building Blocks of Grammar.**

Investigating the fields of morphology and syntax, discussing how they study word formation, inflections, collocations, and sentence structures.

7. **Grammar Norms vs. Language Usage.**

Clarifying the difference between grammar norms and usage, examining how they shape language structure and influence communication.

8. **Features of the Grammatical Structure of English.**

Identifying and discussing key features of the English language's grammatical structure, including flexibility, polysemy, the importance of word order, and the predominance of non-personal verb forms.

9. **Syntagmatic and Paradigmatic Relations in Language.**

An exploration of syntagmatic and paradigmatic relationships, examining their significance in understanding how linguistic units interact both linearly and in terms of meaning, form, and function.

10. **Implications for Language Teaching and Learning.**

A concluding presentation discussing how the insights gained from understanding grammar and linguistic relationships can inform effective language teaching and learning strategies.

Seminar 2. The Evolution and Methods of English Theoretical Grammar

Seminar Objective: the seminar aims to provide an extensive overview of the historical development of English theoretical grammar, highlighting its key stages, significant contributions from various scholars, and the evolution of methodological approaches in linguistic analysis. Participants will engage with the foundational theories and contemporary applications of grammatical frameworks, enhancing their understanding of both historical and modern English grammar.

Topics for Presentations:

1. **Historical Overview of English Theoretical Grammar: From the 16th Century to the Present Day.**

This presentation will outline the significant stages in the evolution of English theoretical grammar, from its descriptive and prescriptive roots to contemporary grammar theories, providing a timeline of key publications and their impacts.

2. **Descriptive vs. Prescriptive Grammar: The Early Foundations of English Syntax.**

An exploration of the differences between descriptive and prescriptive approaches to grammar in the 16th to 19th centuries, emphasizing the works of W. Bullokar and R. Lowth along with their contributions to the understanding of grammatical norms.

3. **The Rise of Classical Scientific Grammar in the 19th Century.**

This talk will focus on the development of theoretical grammar during the first quarter of the 19th century, discussing the influential works of H. Sweet, C. P. Manson, and A. Bain in establishing foundational principles of grammar.

4. **The Evolution of Grammatical Theory: From the 1930s to Today.**

A comprehensive review of the major advancements in grammatical theory from the 1930s onwards, examining both prescriptive and explanatory approaches as well as the emergence of new grammatical frameworks in the modern era.

5. **The Historical-Comparative Method: Pioneers and Implications for Linguistics.**

A critical analysis of the historical-comparative method as developed by linguists like Sir William Jones and F. de Saussure, discussing its significance and limitations in defining the object of linguistics.

6. **Major Linguistic Schools and Their Contributions to Grammar.**

This presentation will investigate the three major linguistic schools: the Prague School, the Copenhagen School, and the American School, highlighting their unique contributions to the understanding of grammar and language structure.

7. **The Role of Transformational Grammar: Chomsky's Impact on Linguistic Theory.**

A focused session on the development of transformational grammar by Noam Chomsky and Z. Harris, analyzing how their ideas revolutionized the field of syntax and influenced modern linguistic theory.

8. **Methods of Linguistic Analysis: Distributional and Immediate Constituent Methods.**

This presentation will compare and contrast the distributional method proposed by L. Bloomfield with the method of immediate constituents, providing insights into their application and limitations in linguistic analysis.

9. **Exploring Semantic and Pragmatic Approaches to Grammar.**

An exploration of semantically oriented grammar (Ch. Fillmore, W. L. Chafe) and pragmatically oriented grammar (J. Austin, J. Searle), discussing their importance in understanding meaning and context in language.

10. The Future of English Grammar: Emerging Trends and Directions.

This concluding session will reflect on the current state of English grammatical studies, discussing emerging theories and potential future directions for research within the discipline.

Seminar 3. Exploring Morphemic Structures: The Fundamentals of Word Formation and Meaning in Linguistics

Seminar Objective: the primary goal of this seminar is to deepen the understanding of morphemic structures within the framework of linguistic theory. Participants will explore the complexities of morphemes, their classification, and their role in the formation of words and meaning. Through discussions, presentations, and analyses, attendees will gain insight into the significance of morphemic theory in descriptive linguistics and its applications in language understanding and education.

Topics for Presentations:

1. The Definition and Role of Morphemes in Language.

This presentation will cover the concept of morphemes as the smallest meaning-bearing units in language, differentiating between free and bound morphemes, and illustrating their significance in the structure of words.

2. Analyzing the Morphemic Structure of English Words.

Focused on the syntagmatic connections of morphemes, this talk will provide a detailed examination of the morphemic structure of various English words, illustrating the relationships between prefixes, roots, lexical suffixes, and grammatical suffixes.

3. Distributional Analysis of Morphemes.

This session will explore the distributional analysis approach in identifying morphemes, detailing the steps involved in segmenting texts, determining environments, and understanding the concepts of complementary and contrastive distribution.

4. Functional and Semantic Contributions of Morphemes.

Analyzing the positional and semantic functions of morphemes, this presentation will discuss how the arrangement and meaning of morphemes contribute to the overall meaning of words.

5. The Interplay of Root and Affixal Morphemes.

Focusing on how root-morphemes and affixal morphemes interact, this talk will delve into how these elements construct complex words, highlighting examples of word formation processes, such as compounding and derivation.

6. Traditional vs. Contemporary Morphemic Classification.

This presentation will contrast traditional classifications of morphemes with contemporary approaches, emphasizing the evolution of morphemic theory in descriptive linguistics.

7. The Role of Allomorphs in Morphological Analysis.

Participants will examine the concept of allomorphs and their relevance in understanding morphological variations within languages, accompanied by practical examples that illustrate their use.

8. Grammatical Alternation and Its Implications.

Analyzing additive and replacive morphemes, this session will discuss how grammatical alternation affects meaning and word formation, providing practical linguistic examples to illustrate these concepts.

9. Exploring Continuous vs. Discontinuous Morphemes.

This discussion will explore the characteristics of continuous and discontinuous morphemes, with a focus on their implications for grammatical structure and meaning in English.

10. Applications of Morphemic Theory in Language Teaching.

This final presentation will focus on how an understanding of morphemic structures can be applied in language instruction, highlighting effective strategies for teaching morphemes to enhance vocabulary development and grammatical understanding among learners.

Seminar 4. Exploring the Interplay Between Grammatical Meaning and Form in Linguistics

Seminar Objective: the primary objective of this seminar is to delve into the intricate relationship between grammatical meaning and form, highlighting how these elements coexist and interact within language. Participants will explore the foundational principles of semantics, examine content and function words, analyze the role of grammatical structures in sentence meaning, and discuss various linguistic frameworks that elucidate the complexities of meaning and form.

Topics for Presentations:

1. Introduction to Semantics and the Principle of Compositionality.

An overview of semantics as a linguistic discipline, emphasizing the principle of compositionality and its implications for sentence meaning.

2. Content Words vs. Function Words: Understanding Their Roles.

A detailed exploration of the distinctions between content and function words, illustrating how they contribute differently to sentence structure and meaning.

3. Lexical Semantics: Relationships Between Word Meanings.

Examining the study of lexical semantics, including the concepts of hyponyms and superordinates, and how word meanings relate to one another in various contexts.

4. Grammatical Meaning Across Languages: A Comparative Analysis.

Investigating grammatical meanings as expressed through various forms, and analyzing examples from different languages to demonstrate diversity in grammatical structures.

5. The Interdependence of Grammatical Form and Meaning.

Discussing the interconnectedness of grammatical meaning and form through examples of syntactically correct yet semantically obscure sentences, alongside creative works that challenge traditional grammatical norms.

6. Synthetic vs. Analytical Grammatical Forms: Understanding Structures.

Differentiating between synthetic and analytical grammatical forms, analyzing their construction and implications for understanding meaning, and providing examples from various linguistic traditions.

7. The Role of Articles in Semantic Nuance.

Exploring how articles (definite and indefinite) impact the meaning of sentences and establish specific versus general references.

8. Paradigmatic Correlations and Grammatical Meaning.

Examining how paradigmatic relationships shape our understanding of grammatical forms, using examples like pluralization, case distinctions, and article usage.

9. Cross-Linguistic Perspectives on Grammatical Meaning.

Investigating how different languages express grammatical meanings through unique morphological and syntactic strategies, illustrated with specific examples.

10. Practical Applications of Grammatical Theory in Language Teaching.

Discussing how understanding grammatical meaning and form can enhance language pedagogy, providing strategies for teaching grammar effectively in diverse classroom settings.

Seminar 5. Linguistic Oppositions and Grammatical Categories: Understanding the Structure of Language

Seminar Objective: the seminar aims to explore the intricacies of grammatical categorization and the concept of oppositional theory within linguistics, emphasizing their roles in the formation of meaning and structure in language. Participants will engage with the systemic and non-systemic variations of word forms, analyze different types of oppositions, and examine the implications of these linguistic frameworks across various languages.

Topics for Presentations:

1. Theoretical Foundations of Categorical Structures.

Investigate the origins of oppositional theory and its relationship with phonological theory. Discuss the significance of common and differential features in linguistic forms.

2. Types of Oppositions in Language.

Examine the qualitative types of oppositions: privative, gradual, and equipollent. Present examples from English and other languages to illustrate each type.

3. Binary Privative Opposition in Morphology.

Analyze the prevalence and importance of binary privative opposition, particularly in English morphology, focusing on marked and unmarked members through examples such as verb tenses.

4. Semantic Features and Signemic Oppositions.

Explore how oppositional theory differentiates meanings through semes. Discuss the semantic impact of weak and strong members in linguistic expressions.

5. Analytical vs. Synthetical Forms.

Contrast synthetical grammatical forms (inner-inflexional, outer-inflectional, suppletive) with analytical forms, highlighting their roles in language structure.

6. Marginal Forms and Their Linguistic Status.

Investigate the concept of marginal categorial forms such as singularia tantum and pluralia tantum, discussing their characteristics and examples from various languages.

7. Immanent and Reflective Categories in English.

Discuss how grammatical categories express innateness (immanent) vs. secondary relationships (reflective), providing exemplification through nouns and verbs.

8. Comparative Analysis of Declension and Conjugation.

Compare and contrast the systems of declension and conjugation in English, Russian, and Latin, emphasizing their respective grammatical implications.

9. Stylistic Implications of Oppositional Reduction and Transposition.

Analyze the stylistic aspects of oppositional reduction and transposition, examining how they affect the meaning and function of linguistic structures.

10. Application of Oppositional Theory in Teaching Linguistics.

Discuss potential pedagogical strategies for incorporating oppositional theory into language teaching, focusing on practical applications and curriculum development.

1.3. Practical Tasks

1. Do the test.

1. What types of language units exist?
   a) phonetic and morphemic;
   b) segmental and supersegmental;
   c) phrase and superphrase;
   d) morphemic and syntactic.

2. A Grammar norm is …
   a) … a prevailing trends in the use of language forms by members of a given language community;
   b) … aimed at explaining the mechanisms and rules by which the grammar system of the language operates;
   c) … a set of rules that should be followed in speech activity and which are purposefully taught at school and rule breaking in this case is considered as deviations from generally accepted standards;
   d) … aimed at describing grammar as a set of rules to be observed.

3. What types of syntagmatic relations exist?
   a) coordinate, subordinate and predicative;

b) inflexional and suppletive;
c) semantic, formal and functional;
d) relations in the presence and relations in the absence.

4. An invariant is …
   a) … the paradigm in its most general form presented by a system of variants of the same unit;
   b) … the paradigm in its particular form presented by a system of variants of different units;
   c) … the relation between linguistic units in the language system;
   d) … the relation between paradigms in the language system.

5. What are the three parts that the upper level of the lexicon is divided into?
   a) notional words, substitutes of names (pro-names), specifiers of names;
   b) notional words, functional words, words of intermediary status;
   c) notional words, auxiliary words, words of intermediary status;
   d) notional words, functional modifiers, specifiers of names.

6. What was the historical method applied for?
   a) all natural languages;
   b) all indigenous languages;
   c) the group of the German languages;
   d) the group of the Indo-European languages.

7. What is the immediate aim of the distributional analysis?
   a) to fix and study the units of language in relation to their invariants;
   b) to develop the rational classification of morphemes;
   c) to fix and study the units of language in relation to their textual environments;
   d) to develop the rational classification of lexemes.

8. What are the bases for differentiating distributional morphemic types?
   a) main distribution, complementary distribution, free distribution, bound distribution;
   b) purpose of the distribution, hierarchy of the distribution, ways of distribution formation;
   c) degree of self-dependence, formal presentation, segmental relations, grammatical alternation, linear characteristics;
   d) meanings of the segments, status of the linguistic unit, function of the linguistic unit, capability to word-formation of the linguistic unit.

9. Synthetic grammatical forms are built by …
   a) … means of the morphemic composition of the word with the help of adding grammatical suffixes;

b) … adding the words with the opposite meaning;
c) … adding the words with the identical meaning;
d) … the combination of the notional word with auxiliary words.

10. Analytical grammatical forms are built by …
a) … means of the morphemic composition of the word with the help of adding grammatical suffixes;
b) … adding the words with the opposite meaning;
c) … adding the words with the identical meaning;
d) … the combination of the notional word with auxiliary words.

11. Categorial grammatical meanings are…
a) ... the peculiar meanings rendered by language and expressed by systemic correlations of word-forms;
b) … the most general meanings rendered by language and expressed by systemic correlations of word-forms;
c) … the most general notions reflecting the most general properties of phenomena;
d) … the peculiar notions reflecting the most specific properties of phenomena.

12. Opposition in linguistics is …
a) … a generalized correlation of lingual forms by means of which a certain function is expressed;
b) … the relation between antonymic lexemes;
c) … a system of expressing a generalized grammatical meaning by means of paradigmatic correlation of grammatical forms;
d) … the method of studying morphemes in view of their position.

13. What is "subcategorization" of parts of speech?
a) subdivision of categories into subseries according to various particular semantico-functional and formal features of the constituent words;
b) subdivision of part of speech into subseries according to various particular semantico-functional and formal features of the constituent words;
c) subdivision of categories into subseries according to various particular oppositions of the constituent words;
d) subdivision of part of speech into subseries according to various particular oppositions of the constituent words.

14. What is the second (narrower) approach to word classification?
a) word-class identification based on semantic featuring of the morphemes only;
b) word-class identification based on semantic featuring of the words only;
c) word-class identification based on syntactic featuring of the words only;
d) word-class identification based on syntactic featuring of the morphemes only.

15. Transposition is …
    a) a contrastive use of the counter-member of the opposition, which is explained by its comparatively limited regular functions.
    b) a phonemic interchange.
    c) a contrastive use of the counter-member of the opposition with more general semantics.
    d) a generalized correlation of lingual forms by means of which a certain function is expressed.

2. Define the types of language units.

1. Sheep – ship;
2. Are you watching the movie or not?
3. Palm trees;
4. Conduct [ˈkɒndʌkt] – to conduct [kənˈdʌkt]
5. Do you like tennis?
6. Never have I seen such bravery.
7. He is sitting. Is he sitting?
8. In our modern world, | there are many factors that place the wellbeing of the planet in jeopardy. || While some people have the opinion that environmental problems are just a natural occurrence, | others believe that human beings have a huge impact on the environment. || Regardless of your viewpoint, | take into consideration the following factors that place our environment as well as the planet Earth in danger.
9. Health is important for every person.

3. Define the language levels of the given examples.

1. Lucas goes to school every day of the week. He has many subjects to go to each school day: English, art, science, mathematics, gym, and history. His mother packs a big backpack full of books and lunch for Lucas. His first class is English, and he likes that teacher very much. His English teacher says that he is a good pupil, which Lucas knows means that she thinks he is a good student;
2. To give a day off;
3. To provide somebody with assistance;
4. City – cities;
5. Highway, maybe, annoying;
6. It is hard to surf, but so much fun!;
7. Read – read;

8. Asked /t/ – answered /d/;
9. Smart – smarter;
10. To take a camping trip.

4. Define the type of relations in each example.

1. She paid a call on him while he was in the hospital. – She wants to visit her grandmother in the countryside;
2. Large but cozy room;
3. Clean hands, long hands, gifted hands;
4. Bees and butterflies;
5. We're meeting Paul at 2pm. – We meet every Monday;
6. Sustain-able;
7. The police officer made him tell the truth;
8. Improper waste disposal;
9. I work in a call centre, so since I can't answer my phone, e-mail is the best way to communicate for me. – But then they realised it would be a great way to keep in touch with loved ones, who one day might read the messages;
10. The wolf is a predator. – Wolves hunt in packs.

5. Define the types of syntagmas.

Birds live; bigger tanks; won't fit in the little fishbowls; to see a parrot; to hide sometimes; to mail letters; children don't go; looks especially beautiful; a great time; [they] pitched [their tents] immediately upon arriving to their campsite.

6. Apply the method of distributional analysis and the method of the immediate constituents to the given sentences. Compare the obtained structures.

1. I was a poor young writer.
2. He was a nice man.
3. We became great friends very quickly.
4. Once we were in need of three dollars.
5. I have always believed that a man must be honest.

7. Define the types of morphemes.

A book – books; smile – smiled; write – wrote – written; have given; is riding; big-bigger; foot – feet; hard-working; impossible; a sheep – sheep.

8. Define superordinates and hyponyms. Name the superordinates or hyponyms if they are not presented in the pair of words. Give your own examples.

Furniture and a chair; dogs and cats; predators and herbivores; a novel and a poem; a phoneme and a morpheme; an engine and a piston engine; a word and vocabulary; a spoon and a fork; a skirt and clothes; an infectious viral disease and measles.

9. Define the type of opposition.

Actor – actress; cheap – cheaper- the cheapest; he –she- it; was – were; speak – have spoken; float – will float; lovely – more lovely – the most lovely; boy – girl; mothers' – mothers; leaflet – leaflets.

10. Define the type of oppositional reduction.

1. I never lied about my love to Star Wars.
2. I have drunk too much I can't remember even the names of the people from the party.
3. Next week, we are planting potatoes.
4. The train arrives at 9 tonight.
5. At this command the waters immediately poured forth their offspring.
6. With age, a woman becomes wiser and more tolerant.
7. Immediately she began to speak in a most beautiful tongue.
8. During mating season, the tiger salamander gathers near ponds and lakes.
9. The world population is growing.
10. I have known her for 7 years.

11. In the sentences below, identify the type of opposition (privative, gradual, or equipollent) being used. Then, indicate whether the opposition is binary or more than binary.

1. She sings beautifully, but her brother sings even better.
2. The dogs barked loudly, while the cats remained quiet.
3. The sun rises in the east, and the moon shines brightly at night.
4. The student has read the books; the masterpiece is well-known.
5. These flowers are lovely, but the roses are the most beautiful of all.
6. Her artwork is nice, but his is exceptional.
7. The weather was warm today, but yesterday it was very cold.
8. In summer, the days are long, whereas in winter, the nights are longer.
9. This book is interesting, but that one is quite dull.
10. He is either happy, sad, or indifferent about the situation.

12. For each of the following pairs of words, identify the marked (strong) and unmarked (weak) members of the opposition. Then classify the type of opposition present (privative, gradual, or equipollent).

1. Fast – faster – fastest;
2. Man – men;
3. Doctor – doctor;
4. Good – better – best;
5. Child – children;
6. Happy – happier – happiest;
7. Light – lights;
8. Rich – richer – richest;
9. Strong – stronger – strongest;
10. City – cities.

13. Write three pairs of sentences that demonstrate the use of binary privative oppositions in the context of tense and number. Each pair should illustrate how the presence or absence of a grammatical marker changes the meaning.

Example:
Present: He works every day.
Past: He worked yesterday.

Now, create your sentences using the following prompts:
Prompt A: Singular noun vs. plural noun.
Prompt B: Present tense vs. past tense.
Prompt C: Positive form vs. comparative form.
Prompt D: Affirmative vs. negative statement.
Prompt E: Active voice vs. passive voice.
Prompt F: Indicative mood vs. subjunctive mood.
Prompt G: Definite article vs. indefinite article.
Prompt H: First-person perspective vs. third-person perspective.
Prompt I: Direct speech vs. indirect speech.
Prompt J: Simple past vs. present perfect.

14. Read the sentences provided below and analyze them based on the grammatical meanings and structure described in the material. Answer the questions following each sentence.

Sentence 1. The cat chases the mouse.
Questions:

1. Identify the content words and function words in this sentence.
2. Discuss how the grammatical structure contributes to the overall meaning of the sentence.
3. What would change if you replace "the cat" with "a cat"?

Sentence 2: The dogs barked loudly at the intruder.

Questions:

1. Describe the grammatical meaning conveyed by the past tense verb "barked."
2. How do the content words shape the imagery in the sentence?
3. What grammatical structures (e.g., articles, verb forms) help clarify the relationships between the subjects and actions?

Sentence 3:Alice seems to be forgetting her keys.

Questions:

1. What role does the auxiliary verb "seems" play in this sentence?
2. Discuss how the use of the gerund "forgetting" affects the meaning compared to using the infinitive form.
3. What grammatical nuances can be observed in the sentence structure?

Sentence 4: The children played games in the park.

Questions:

1. Identify the content and function words.
2. How does the grammatical structure influence the meaning?
3. What would change if "the children" were replaced with "some children"?

Sentence 5: She is reading a book quietly.

Questions:

1. What role does the auxiliary verb "is" serve?
2. How do the content words contribute to the imagery?
3. What does the use of the adverb "quietly" add to the action?

Sentence 6: They will travel to Paris next summer.

Questions:

1. Explain the grammatical meaning of "will" in this context.
2. How do the content words enhance the imagery of the travel plan?
3. What grammatical structures clarify the future aspect of the sentence?

Sentence 7: He has been working hard all day.

Questions:

1. What function do the auxiliary verbs "has" and "been" serve?
2. Discuss how the content words shape the understanding of the effort described.
3. What nuances does the perfect continuous tense convey about the action?

Sentence 8: The meeting was finally rescheduled.

Questions:

1. What does the passive voice indicate about the subject?
2. How do the content words affect the interpretation of the sentence?
3. What changes if "the meeting" is replaced with "a meeting"?

Sentence 9: We had been waiting for an hour.

Questions:

1. Describe the meaning conveyed by the past perfect continuous tense.
2. How do the content words emphasize the duration of the action?
3. What grammatical elements clarify the relationship between the subjects and the time aspect?

Sentence 10: My sister has taken the lead in the project.

Questions:

1. Explain the role of the present perfect verb *has taken*.
2. How do the content words contribute to the overall meaning?
3. What difference would it make if you changed *the lead* to *a lead*?

15. Based on the examples and definitions given, complete the tasks regarding lexical semantics and the relationships between words.

Task 1: Hyponyms and Superordinates.

Given the word *fruit*, identify at least three hyponyms (specific types of fruit) and one superordinate term (a broader category) related to the word *fruit*. Write them down and explain the relationship among them.

Task 2: Lexical Meaning vs. Grammatical Meaning.

Analyze the following pairs of words. Identify one in each pair that has a lexical meaning and another that reflects grammatical meaning:

Pair A: run – runner;

Pair B: beautiful – beauty;

Pair C: teacher – to teach.

Explain your reasoning for each pair by discussing how form and meaning are connected.

Task 3: Constructing Sentences.

Using the following grammatical forms, create sentences that illustrate the ideas of grammatical meaning, as described in the material:

Plural form: Use a noun and demonstrate its pluralization.

Genitive case: Show ownership between two nouns.

Definite and indefinite articles: Construct sentences that highlight the difference between *a* and *the*.

Task 4: Semantic Relationships.

Choose a word and identify three synonyms and three antonyms. Explain how these relationships enhance understanding of the original word. For example, if the chosen word is *happy* synonyms could include *joyful*, *cheerful*, and *content*, while antonyms might be *sad*, *unhappy*, and *miserable*.

Task 5: Word Formation.

Create three new words using prefixes and suffixes from the base word *act*. Generate each word and define its meaning. For example, *react* means to act in response to something, while *activation* refers to the process of making something active.

Task 6: Contextual Usage.

Write four sentences using the word *bank*, each with a different meaning: as a financial institution, the side of a river, a verb meaning to rely, and a location for storing something (such as *a data bank*). This task helps illustrate polysemy and the varying meanings words can take based on context.

Task 7: Antonyms Identification.

Choose a word and identify three antonyms. Explain the context in which these antonyms would be used. For example, if you choose *hot* its antonyms could be *cold, cool*, and *frozen*, each pertaining to different temperature contexts.

Task 8: Synonym Contextualization.

Select one word and generate three different sentences using synonyms of that word, illustrating how the different contexts affect meaning. For instance, using *happy*, you might use *joyful* in a celebration context, *content* in reference to satisfaction, and *elated* when discussing a significant achievement.

Task 9: Word Formation Using Derivatives.

Choose a base word such as *teach* and create three derivatives using prefixes and suffixes. Define each derivative to show how the meaning evolves. For example, *teacher* (one who teaches), *teachable* (capable of being taught), and *teaching* (the act of imparting knowledge).

Task 10: Analyzing Collocations.

Identify three common collocations for the word *make* (e.g. *make a decision, make a mistake, make money*). For each collocation, create a sentence that demonstrates its meaning and usage. This task emphasizes the importance of word combinations in enriching language and understanding.

Chapter 2. Morphology

2.1. Lecture Notes

2.1.1. Grammatical Classes of Words

The traditional grammatical classes of words having various formal and semantic features are called **parts of speech** (or lexico-grammatical series of words or lexico-grammatical categories).

There are **three criteria** for division:

- **the semantic criterion** presupposes the evaluation of the generalised meaning, which is characteristic of all the subsets of words constituting a given part of speech – the categorial **meaning** of the part of speech,
- **the formal criterion** provides for the exposition of the specific inflexional and derivational (word-building) features of all the lexemic subsets of a part of speech – **form**,
- **the functional criterion** concerns the syntactic role of words in the sentence typical of a part of speech – **function**.

On the upper level of classification **nouns** are divided into **notional** and **functional** (**changeable** and **unchangeable**).

The **notional** parts of speech are: the noun, the adjective, the numeral, the pronoun, the verb, the adverb.

The features of the noun are:

1) the categorial meaning of substance ("thingness");
2) the changeable forms of number and case; the specific suffixal 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.

The features of the adjective are:

1) the categorial meaning of property (qualitative and relative);
2) the forms of thedegrees of comparison (for qualitative adjectives); the specific suffixal forms of derivation;
3) adjectival functions in the sentence (attribute to a noun, adjectival predicative).

The features of the numeral are:

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 features of the pronoun are:

1) the categorial meaning of indication (deixis);
2) the narrow sets of various status with the corresponding formal properties of categorial changeability and word-building;
3) the substantival and adjectival functions for different sets.

The features of the verb are:

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

The features of the adverb are:

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 **functional parts of speech** are: 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 as well as verbal postpositions as functional modifiers of verbs, etc.

The **modal word** expresses the attitude of the speaker to the reflected situation and its parts: the **functional words of probability** (probably, perhaps, etc.), of **qualitative evaluation** (fortunately, unfortunately, luckily, etc.), and also of **affirmation** and **negation**.

The **interjection** is a signal of emotions.

Subcategorisation of parts of speech is their further subdivision into subseries according to various particular semantico-functional and formal features of the constituent words.

Nouns can be:

- proper and common (*Mary, Robinson, London, the Mississippi, Lake Erie – girl, person, city, river, lake*);
- animate and inanimate (*man, scholar, leopard, butterfly – earth, field, rose, machine*);
- countable and uncountable (*coin/coins, floor/floors, kind/kinds – news, growth, water, furniture*),
- concrete and abstract (*stone, grain, mist, leaf – honesty, love, slavery, darkness*), etc.

Verbs can be:

- fully predicative and partially predicative (*walk, sail, prepare, shine, blow – can, may, shall, be, become*),
- transitive and intransitive (*take, put, speak, listen, see, give – live, float, stay, ache, ripen, rain*),
- actional and statal (*write, play, strike, boil, receive, ride – exist, sleep, rest, thrive, revel, suffer*),
- factive and evaluative (*roll, tire, begin, ensnare, build, tremble – consider, approve, mind, desire, hate, incline*), etc.

Adjectives can be:

- qualitative and relative (*long, red, lovely, noble, comfortable – wooden, rural, daily, subterranean, orthographical*),
- of constant feature and temporary feature (*healthy, sickly, joyful, grievous, wry, blazing – well, ill, glad, sorry, awry, ablaze*),
- factive and evaluative (*tall, heavy, smooth, mental, native – kind, brave, wonderful, wise, stupid*), etc.

The **three-criteria characterisation of parts of speech** has been developed by:

- V. V. Vinogradov for Russian grammar,
- A. I. Smirnitsky and B. A. Ilyish for English grammar.

Difficulty of the three-criteria principle consists in determining the status of lexemes that have morphological characteristics of notional words, but play the role of grammatical mediators: modal verbs (and their equivalents), suppletive fillers, auxiliary verbs, aspective verbs, intensifying adverbs, determiner pronouns.

Division based on the **formal-morphological featuring** is a classified lexeme on the principle of its relation to grammatical change.

Syntactic characterization of words (after exposition of their fundamental **morphological** properties) is more **important** in the **general classificational requirements**, because it shows the distribution of words between sets according to their functional destination; more **universal**, because it is not destined for the inflexional aspect of language and is applicable to languages of various morphological types.

The **principles of syntactic approach** have been developed by:

- A. M. Peshkovsky for Russian grammar,
- L. Bloomfield, Z. Harris, Ch. Fries for English grammar (syntactico-distributional approach).

The **syntactico-distributional classification** of words is based on their combinability by means of substitution testing.

There are 4 main positions of **notional words** (noun (N), verb (V), adjective (A), adverb (D)). Words out of "positions" are functional words.

Scheme of English word-classes by Ch. Fries:

Frame A. The concert was good (always): thing and its quality at a given time.

Frame B. The clerk remembered the tax (suddenly): actor – action – thing acted upon – characteristic of the action.

Frame C. The team went there: actor – action – direction of the action.

Class 1.
(A) concert, coffee, taste, container, difference, etc.
(B) clerk, husband, supervisor, etc.; tax, food, coffee, etc.
(C) team, husband, woman, etc.
Class 2.
(A) was, seemed, became, etc.
(B) remembered, wanted, saw, suggested, etc.
(C) went, came, ran, ... lived, worked, etc.
Class 3.
(A) good, large, necessary, foreign, new, empty, etc.
Class 4.
(A) there, here, always, then, sometimes, etc.
(B) clearly, sufficiently, especially, repeatedly, soon, etc.
(C)there, back, out, etc.; rapidly, eagerly, confidently, etc.

3 main sets of functional words are:

1. **Specifiers of notional words** – determinants of nouns, modal verbs serving as specifiers of notional verbs, functional modifiers and intensifiers of adjectives and adverbs.
2. **Interpositional elements**, **determining the relations of notional words to one another** – prepositions and conjunctions.
3. **Component referring to the sentence as a whole** – question-words (what, how, etc.), inducement-words (lets, please, etc.), attention-getting words, words of affirmation and negation, sentence introducers (it, there).

Formal grammatical feature:

- open character of the notional part of the lexicon,
- closed character of the functional part of the lexicon.

The **unity of notional lexemes** is demonstrated in an inter-class system of derivation presented as a formal four-stage series:

a recognising note – a notable recognition – to note recognisingly – to recognise notably;

silent disapproval – disapproving silence – to disapprove silently – to silence disapprovingly.

Formula – **St (n.v.a.d.)** – can be applied: **St** – morphemic stem of the series; **(n.v.a.d.)** – parts of speech.

Examples of a four-stage lexical paradigm of nomination:
strength – to strengthen – strong – strongly;
peace – to appease – peaceful – peacefully;
nation – to nationalise – national – nationally;
friend – to befriend – friendly – friendly, etc.

The general order of the classes in the series is: objects and their actions → the properties of objects → the properties of their actions.

Derivational perspectives can be presented as follows:
N → *power – to empower – powerful – powerfully;*
V → *to suppose – supposition – supposed – supposedly;*
A → *clear – clarity – to clarify – clearly;*
D → *out – outing – to out – outer.*

The nomination paradigm with the identical form of the stem for all four stages is represented with:
1. Lexemes with a complete paradigm of nomination.
2. Lexemes with an incomplete paradigm of nomination.
3. Nominally isolated lexemes (e.g. some simple adverbs).

The universal character of the nomination paradigm is sustained by suppletive (lexemic and phrasemic) completion:
an end – to end – final – finally;
good – goodness – well – to better;
evidence – evident – evidently – to make evident;
wise – wisely – wisdom – to grow wise.

Functional words render structural meanings referring to phrases and sentences in constructional forms similar to derivational (word-building) and relational (grammatical) morphemes in the composition of separate words:

*The words were obscure, **but** she understood the uneasiness that produced them.*→ The words were *obscure,* **weren't** they? **How then** could she understand the uneasiness that produced them?→ **Or** perhaps the words were **not too** obscure, after all? **Or**, conversely, she **didn't** understand the uneasiness that produced them?→ **But** the words were obscure. **How** obscure they were! **Still** she **did** understand the uneasiness that produced them. Etc.

The functional words are identified by their semantico-syntactic features, not by their morphemic composition.

Pronouns are traditionally recognised on the basis of **indicatory** (**deictic**) and **substitutional semantic** functions.

The generalising substitutional function of pronouns makes them into syntactic representatives of all the notional classes of words:

***I**, **Little Foot**, go away making noises and tramplings. Are **you** happy, **Lil**?*

Pronominal adverbs and **verb-substitutes** due to their substitutional functions are identified as notional words of broad meaning as well as those forming an intermediary layer between the pronouns and notional words proper:

*I wish at her age she'd learn to sit quiet and not **do things**. Flora's suggestion is **making** sense. I will **therefore** briefly set down the circumstances which led to my being connected with the **affair**.*

Thus, the lexical paradigm of nomination receives a complete substitutive representation: ***one, it, they...*** – ***do, make, act...*** – ***such, similar, same...*** – ***thus, so, there...***

Symbolical representation of the correlation of the nominal and pronominal paradigmatic schemes: **N** – **V** – **A** – **D** – **Npro** – **Vpro** – **Apro** – **Dpro**.

The lexicon on the upper level of classification is devided into three unequal parts:

1. The lexicon forming an open set – notional words with a complete nominative function;
2. The lexicon forming a closed set – substitutes of names (pro-names) – pronouns, broad-meaning notional words;
3. The lexicon also forming a closed set – specifiers of names – function-categorial words.

Questions for Revision:

1. What are the criteria that help to discriminate parts of speech in the modern linguistics?
2. What are the characteristic meanings and functions of notional and functional parts of speech?
3. What is “subcategorization” of parts of speech?
4. What is the second approach to word classification?
5. Name the linguists who developed the semantico-lexemic and syntactico-distributional approaches to classification of words.
6. What are the three main sets of functional words?
7. What parts of the lexicon are open and which ones are closed?
8. What is the “lexical paradigm of nomination”? Name the symbolic formula of a formal four-stage derivation.
9. What do the functional words render from phrases and sentences to separate words?
10. What are the three parts that the upper level of the lexicon is divided into?

2.1.2. Noun: General

The noun as a part of speech has the categorial meaning of "substance" or "thingness".

The noun has the power to isolate different properties of substances and present them as corresponding self-dependent substances:

– *Her words were unexpectedly **bitter**. – We were struck by the unexpected **bitterness** of her words.*
– *At that time he was **down** in his career, but we knew well that very soon he would be **up** again. – His career had its **ups** and **downs**.*
– *The cable arrived when John was **preoccupied** with the arrangements for the party. – The arrival of the cable interrupted his **preoccupation** with the arrangements for the party.*

The unlimited substantivisation force makes the noun the central nominative lexemic unit of language. The categorial functional properties of the noun are determined by its semantic properties.

The most characteristic substantive functions of the noun are:
– the subject in the sentence,
– the object in the sentence.

Other syntactic functions of the noun are:
– attributive,
– adverbial,
– predicative.

Examples of transformations shifting:
– *Mary is a **flower-girl**. → The **flower-girl** (you are speaking of) is Mary.*
– *He lives in **Glasgow**. → **Glasgow** is his place of residence.*
– *This happened **three years** ago. → **Three years** have elapsed since it happened.*

Special types of **combinability** of the **noun** are:
– the prepositional combinability with another noun, a verb, an adjective, an adverb: *an entrance to the house; to turn round the corner; red in the face; far from its destination,*
– the casal (possessive) combinability and prepositional combinability with another noun: *the speech of the President – the President's speech; the cover of the book – the book's cover,*
– combinability with one another by sheer contact: *a cannon ball; a log cabin; a sports event; film festivals*.

The controversy about the lexico-grammatical status of the constructions – "The cannon ball problem".

Soviet linguists define the combination as a **specific word-group** with intermediary features.

The isolability test performed for the contact noun combinations:
– *a cannon ball → a ball for cannon,*
– *the court regulation → the regulation of the court,*
– *progress report → report about progress,*
– *the funds distribution → the distribution of the funds.*

The **compound nouns** cannot undergo the isolability test; they can get sheer explanations of their etymological motivation:

– *fireplace → place where fire is made,*
– *starlight → light coming from stars,*
– *story-teller → teller (writer, composer) of stories,*
– *theatre-goer → a person who goes to (frequents) theatres.*

Contact noun attributes are very characteristic of professional language:

*A number of **Space Shuttle trajectory optimisation problems** were simulated in the development of the algorithm, including three ascent problems and a re-entry problem (From a scientific paper on spacecraft). The accuracy of **offshore tanker unloading operations** is becoming more important as the cost of petroleum products increases (From a scientific paper on control systems).*

The noun has a set of formal features:

– word-building distinctions (suffixes, compound stem models, conversion patterns),
– the grammatical categories of gender, number, case, article determination.

The nouns are divided into several subclasses:

1) proper and common nouns – "type of nomination";
2) animate and inanimate – "form of existence";
3) human and non-human – "personal quality";
4) countable and uncountable – "quantitative structure";
5) *concrete and abstract.

Set of subclasses **cannot** be structured hierarchically.

For example: *There were three **Marys** in our company.*

*The **cattle** have been driven out into the pastures.*

The cattle have been driven out into the pastures (Table 4).

Table 4

Examples of Subclasses

Subclasses of nouns	***Mary***	***cattle***
proper /common nouns:	proper	common
animate/inanimate:	animate	animate
human/non-human:	human	non-human
countable/uncountable:	countable	uncountable

Selectional syntagmatic combinability can be of dofferent foundations:

– inanimate selectional base – *The sandstone was crumbling. (Not: *The horse was crumbling.),*
– animate selectional base – *The poor creature was laming. (Not: *The tree was laming.),*
– human selectional base – *John's love of music (not: *the cat's love of music).*

Questions for Revision:

1. What feature establishes the noun as the central nominative lexemic unit of language? Give examples.
2. What are characteristic functional properties of the noun?
3. What types of combinability is the noun characterized by?
4. What formal features is the noun characterized by?
5. What are the oppositional pairs that make up the nounal subclasses?

2.1.3. Noun: Gender

A. I. Smirnitsky in his book "Morphology of English" offers the idea of the non-existence of gender in English.

M. A. Ganshina and N. M. Vasilevskaya in their book "English Grammar" express the idea of the would-be non-existent gender.

The category of gender is expressed in English by the obligatory correlation of **nouns** with the **personal pronouns** of the third person – specific gender classifiers of nouns.

The category of gender is oppositional and hierarchical (Fig. 3):

– person (human) nouns vs. non-person (non-human) nouns – general – upper opposition,
– masculine nouns vs. feminine nouns – partial – lower opposition.

Three genders are differentiated:

– the neuter (i.e. non-person) gender,
– the masculine (i.e. masculine person) gender,
– the feminine (i.e. feminine person) gender.

In **the upper opposition:**

– the **strong** member – the human subclass of nouns – "person", or "personality",
– the **weak** member – both inanimate and animate non-person nouns – *tree, mountain, love, etc.; cat, swallow, ant, etc.; society, crowd, association, etc.; bull and cow, cock and hen, horse and mare, etc.*

An example of oppositional reduction (neutralization):

*Suddenly **something** moved in the darkness ahead of us. Could **it** be a man, in this desolate place, at this time of night? The **object** of her maternal affection was nowhere to be found. **It** had disappeared, leaving the mother and nurse desperate.*

In **the lower opposition:**

– the **strong** member – the feminine subclass of person nouns – "female gender" – *woman, girl, mother, bride*, etc.
– the **weak** member – the masculine subclass of person nouns – *man, boy, father, bridegroom*, etc.

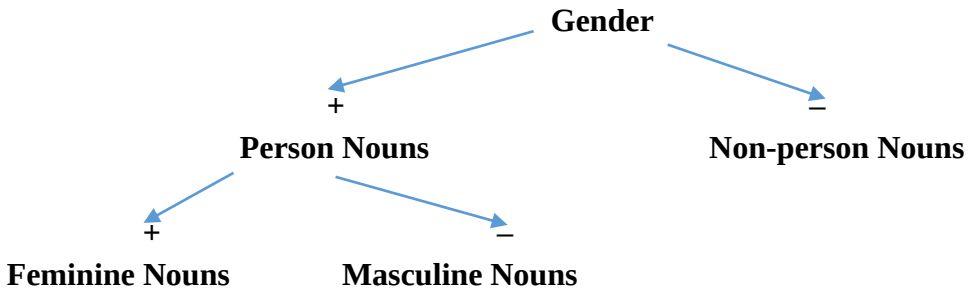


Figure 3. The Oppositional Structure of the Category of Gender

The "common gender" of nouns can be both feminine and masculine person genders: *person, parent, friend, cousin, doctor, president*, etc.

For example: ***The President*** *of our Medical Society isn't going to be happy about the suggested way of cure. In general* ***she*** *insists on quite another kind of treatment in cases like that.*

The capability of expressing both genders makes the gender distinctions in the nouns of the common gender into **a variable category**.

If there is no special need to indicate the gender then masculine is used.

In the **plural**, all the gender distinctions are **neutralised**.

English nouns can show the gender of their referents **lexically**, by means of:

– being combined with certain notional words used as gender indicators,
– by suffixal derivation.

For example: *boy-friend, girl-friend; man-producer, woman-producer; washer-man, washer-woman; landlord, landlady; bull-calf, cow-calf; cock-sparrow, hen-sparrow; he-bear, she-bear; master, mistress; actor, actress; executor, executrix; lion, lioness; sultan, sultana*; etc.

The referents of nouns indicating animate beings (but for human beings) are represented as *it*: *Jenny-ass, pea-hen* – ***it****; Jack-ass, pea-cock* – ***it****.*

A grammatical personifying transposition is explained by cultural-historical traditions:

She – the names of countries, vehicles, weaker animals, etc.;

He – the names of stronger animals, the names of phenomena suggesting crude strength and fierceness, etc.

The examples of **formal** gender that may "**run contrary**" to semantics:

– **Russian**: стакан – он, чашка – она, блюдце – оно,
– **German**: das Glas – es, die Tasse – sie, der Teller – er.

In the **Russian** language:

– animate nouns – masculine, feminine, and a limited number of neuter nouns – are a meaningful gender,
– inanimate nouns are **no** meaningful gender.

The **English** category of gender is only **meaningful**.

Questions for Revision:

1. By what means is the category of gender expressed in English?
2. What oppositional pairs are differentiated in the category of gender? What are their additional names?
3. How can nouns show the gender of their referents lexically?
4. Give examples and explain them to prove that the category of gender in English is variable.
5. What is the difference between the structure and the meaning of the category of gender in English and in Russian?

2.1.4. Noun: Number

The **category of number** is expressed by the opposition of the **plural** form of the noun to the **singular** form of the noun.

The **strong** member – the plural – the productive suffix *-(e)s [-z, -s, -iz] – dog – dogs, clock – clocks, box – boxes.*

The **weak** member – the singular – the absence of the number suffix – the zero-suffix.

Non-productive forms of the plural:

1) Vowel interchange in several relict forms (*man – men, woman – women, tooth – teeth*, etc.);
2) The archaic suffix *-(e)n* supported by phonemic interchange in a couple of other relict forms (*ox – oxen, child – children, cow – kine, brother – brethren*);
3) The correlation of individual singular and plural suffixes in a limited number of borrowed nouns (*formula – formulae, phenomenon – phenomena, alumnus – alumni*, etc.);
4) Homonymous form with the singular (*sheep, deer, fish*, etc.).

The meaning of the singular is "one", the meaning of the plural is "many", "more than one": *book – books, lake – lakes.*

There exist some exceptions:

tear (one drop falling from the eye) and ***tears*** (treacles on the cheeks astokens of grief or joy);

potato (one item of the vegetables) and ***potatoes*** (food);

paper (material) and ***papers*** (notes or documents);

sky (the vault of heaven) and ***skies*** (the same sky taken as a direct or figurative background).

The **broader sememic mark** of the **plural**, or "plurality" in the **grammatical** sense, should be described as the **potentially dismembering reflection** of the structure of the referent, while the **sememic mark** of the **singular** will be understood as the **non-dismembering reflection** of the structure of the referent, i.e. the presentation of the referent in its indivisible entireness.

The plural form – multiplicity of separate objects ("discrete" plural, e.g. *three houses*) and multiplicity of units of measure for an indivisible object ("plural of measure", e.g. *three hours*). **BUT**: the difference is in the quality of the objects themselves.

Other cases of semantic varieties where the plural form expresses:

- a definite set of objects (*eyes of the face, wheels of the vehicle*, etc.),
- various types of the referent (*wines, tees, steels*),
- intensity of the presentation of the idea (*years and years, thousands upon thousands*),
- picturesqueness (*sands, waters, snows*).

The extreme point of this semantic scale is marked by the lexicalisation of the plural form, i.e. by its serving as a means of rendering not specificational, but purely notional difference in meaning: *colours* as a "*flag*", *attentions* as "*wooing*", *pains* as "*effort*", *quarters* as "*abode*", etc.

The **category** of **number** is one of the **regular variable categories** in the grammatical system of the English language.

The differences in meaning arise from the interaction between the underlying oppositional sememic marks of the category and the more concrete lexical differences in the semantics of individual words.

The nounal vocabulary is devided into:

- **countable** nouns,
- **uncountable** nouns.

The constant categorial feature "quantitative structure" is directly connected with the variable feature "number", since **uncountable nouns** are treated grammatically as either **singular** or **plural**.

The **singular uncountable** nouns are modified by the non-discrete quantifiers ***much*** or ***little***, and they take the **finite verb in the singular** – singularia tantum (only singular) .

The **plural uncountable** nouns take the **finite verb in the plural** – pluralia tantum (only plural).

The number opposition is "constantly" (lexically) reduced either to the **weak** member (**singularia** tantum) or to the **strong** member (**pluralia** tantum).

The **singularia tantum** subclass (uncountable noun) is also called "absolute" singular excludes the use of the modifying numeral ***one***, the indefinite article.

The **singular of the countable nouns** or the "correlative" or "common" requires the use of the modifying numeral ***one***, the indefinite article.

The **absolute singular** is characteristic of:

- the names of abstract notions (*peace, love, joy, courage, friendship*, etc.),
- the names of the branches of professional activity (*chemistry, architecture, mathematics, linguistics*, etc.),
- the names of mass-materials (*water, snow, steel, hair*, etc.),
- the names of collective inanimate objects (*foliage, fruit, furniture, machinery*, etc.).

Some of them **can be used** in the form of the **common singular**, but they mean:

– different sorts of materials,
– separate concrete manifestations of the qualities denoted by abstract nouns,
– concrete objects exhibiting the respective qualities.

For example:

Joy *is absolutely necessary for normal human life. – It was* ***a joy*** *to see her among us.*

Helmets for motor-cycling are nowadays made of plastics instead of ***steel****. – Using different modifications of the described method, super-strong* ***steels*** *are produced for various purposes.*

The **lexicalising** effect is observed in the change from **uncountability** to **countability**.

The **oppositional reduction** is here nullified in a peculiarly lexicalising way, and the full oppositional force of the category of number is rehabilitated.

Common number with uncountable singular nouns can be expressed by combining them with words showing discreteness: *bit, piece, item, sort.*

For example:

The last two ***items of news*** *were quite sensational.*

Now I'd like to add one more ***bit of information****.*

You might as well dispense with one or two ***pieces of furniture*** *in the hall.*

This kind of rendering the grammatical meaning of common number with uncountable nouns can be regarded as **special suppletivity** in the categorial system of number.

The absolute singular, by way of functional oppositional reduction, can be used with countable nouns. They express:

– the corresponding abstract ideas,
– the meaning of some mass-material correlated with its countable referent.

For example:

Waltz *is a lovely dance.*

There was dead ***desert*** *all around them.*

The refugees needed ***shelter****.*

Have we got ***chicken*** *for the second course?*

The **generic** use of the **singular**:

Man's *immortality lies in his deeds.*

Wild ***elephant*** *in the Jungle can be very dangerous.*

The **common plural** form is the regular feature of countability, the **absolute plural** forms the uncountable subclass of pluralia tantum nouns.

The **absolute plural** cannot directly combine with numerals, and only occasionally it combines with discrete quantifiers (*many, few*, etc.).

The **absolute plural** is characteristic of the uncountable nouns which denote:

– **objects consisting of two halves** (*trousers, scissors, tongs, spectacles*, etc.),

– the nouns expressing some sort of collective meaning, both concrete and abstract (*supplies, outskirts, clothes, parings; tidings, earnings, contents, politics; police, cattle, poultry,* etc.),
– the nouns denoting some diseases as well as some abnormal states of the body and mind (*measles, rickets, mumps, creeps, hysterics*, etc.).

The **absolute plural** forms can be divided into set **absolute plural** (objects of two halves) and **non-set absolute plural** (the rest).

The set plural is distinguished among the common plural forms: ***eyes*** *of the face,* ***legs*** *of the body,* ***legs*** *of the table,* ***wheels*** *of the vehicle,* ***funnels*** *of the steamboat,* ***windows*** *of the room, etc.*

Due to the necessity of expressing definite numbers in cases of uncountable pluralia tantum nouns and countable nouns denoting objects in fixed sets, suppletive combinations specific to the plural form of the noun appeared: *pair, set, group, bunch*, etc.

For example: *a* ***pair*** *of pincers; three* ***pairs*** *of bathing trunks; a few* ***groups*** *of police; two* ***sets*** *of dice; several* ***cases*** *of measles*; etc.

The **absolute plural**, in **functional oppositional reduction**, can be represented in:
– countable nouns having the form of the singular,
– in uncountable nouns having the form of the plural,
– in countable nouns having the form of the plural.

The 1st type of reduction: the absolute plural with countable nouns in the singular form, i.e. collective nouns, changed into "nouns of multitude" – "multitude plural":

The ***family*** *were gathered round the table.*

The ***government*** *are unanimous in disapproving the move of the opposition.*

The 2nd type of reduction: the absolute plural with uncountable nouns in the plural form, i.e. stylistic marking of nouns – expressive transposition – "descriptive uncountable plural":

the ***sands*** *of the desert;*

the ***snows*** *of the Arctic;*

the ***waters*** *of the ocean;*

the ***fruits*** *of the toil.*

The 3d type of reduction – common countable nouns used in repetition groups – "repetition plural". The nouns in repetition groups may be used in the plural ("featured" form) or in the singular ("unfeatured" form):

There were ***trees*** *and* ***trees*** *all around us.*

I lit ***cigarette*** *after* ***cigarette****.*

Questions for Revision:

1. How is the category of number expressed?
2. What are the sememic marks of plural and singular?

3. What do the specific forms of plural express? Give examples to each case.
4. What are other terms, applied to countable singular and plural?
5. What are other terms, applied to uncountable singular and plural?
6. What words are used to show discreteness of uncountable singular and plural?
7. What groups are the absolute plural forms divided into?
8. By what forms can the absolute plural be represented within functional oppositional reduction?

2.1.5. Noun: 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.

The possessive case / the genitive case are formed by adding *-'s [-z, -s, -iz]*; the common case is the unfeatured form of the noun.

The apostrophised *-s* serves to distinguish in writing the **singular noun** in the **genitive case** from the **plural noun** in the **common case**: *the man's duty, the President's decision, Max's letter; the boy's ball, the clerk's promotion, the Empress's jewels.*

The **genitive** of the **bulk** of **plural nouns** remains phonetically unexpressed: *the carpenters' tools, the mates' skates, the actresses' dresses.*

The common form is indefinite from the semantic point of view, the genitive form in its productive uses is restricted to the functions which have a parallel expression by prepositional constructions.

The **common** form, is capable of rendering the genitive semantics, so the **genitive** case is a **subsidiary** element in the grammatical system of the English noun:

Erhebung der Anklage gegen die Witwe Capet scheint wünschenswert aus Rucksicht auf die Stimmung der Stadt Paris (L. Feuchtwanger).

(The bringing of) the accusation against the Widow Capet appears desirable, taking into consideration the mood of the City of Paris.

Выдвижение обвинения против вдовы Капет кажется желательным, если учесть настроение города Парижа.

The first view on the category of cases in English may be called the "**theory of positional cases**" developed by J. C. Nesfield, M. Deutschbein, M. Bryant and other scholars.

The **unchangeable** forms of the noun are differentiated as different cases by virtue of the **functional positions occupied by the noun in the sentence**. The English noun would distinguish, besides the **inflexional genitive** case, also the **non-inflexional**, i.e. purely positional cases: nominative, vocative, dative, and accusative. The **uninflexional** cases of the noun are taken to be supported by the parallel inflexional cases of the **personal pronouns**:

1. The nominative case (subject to a verb): ***Rain*** *falls.*
2. The vocative case (address): *Are you coming, my* ***friend****?*

3. The dative case (indirect object to a verb): *I gave **John** a penny.*
4. The accusative case (direct object, and also object to a preposition): *The man killed **a rat**. The earth is moistened by **rain**.*

The case form is the variable morphological form of the noun and it serves as means of expressing the functions of the noun in the sentence. The functional meanings rendered by cases can be expressed in language by other grammatical means, in particular, by word-order.

The second view may be called the "**theory of prepositional cases**" by G. Curme (inflexional prepositions).

Combinations of nouns with prepositions in certain object and attributive collocations should be understood as morphological case forms – "dative" case (*to* + Noun, *for* + Noun) and the "genitive" case (*of* + Noun). All the prepositional phrases must be regarded as "analytical cases". So there must be unlimited number of case forms.

The third view may be called the "**limited case theory**" by H. Sweet, O. Jespersen, A. I. Smirnitsky, L. S. Barkhudarov.

The English noun case is recognized as a limited inflexional system of two cases in English, one of them featured and the other one unfeatured.

The **possessive** / **genitive** form is the **strong** member of the categorial opposition and the **common** / "**non-genitive**" form is the **weak** member of the categorial opposition.

The English noun has completely lost the category of case in the course of its historical development. All the nounal cases, including the genitive, are considered as extinct, and the lingual unit that is named the "genitive case", would be in reality a combination of a noun with a postposition (i.e. a relational postpositional word with preposition-like functions), i.e. the "**theory of the possessive postposition**" (**"postpositional theory")** by G. N. Vorontsova.

Main reasons are:

1. The postpositional element *–'s* is loosely connected with the noun: *somebody else's daughter; another stage-struck girl's stage finish; the man who had hauled him out to dinner's head.*
2. There is an indisputable parallelism of functions between the possessive postpositional constructions and the prepositional constructions, resulting in the optional use of the former – transformational reshuffles: *... → the daughter of somebody else; ... → the stage finish of another stage-struck girl; ... → the head of the man who had hauled him out to dinner.*

Two basic arguments for the recognition of the noun form in *-'s* in the capacity of grammatical case:

1. The broader phrasal uses of the postpositional *-'s* like display a clearly expressed stylistic colouring; they are stylistically marked, which fact proves their transpositional nature. Regularity: the more self-dependent the construction covered by the case-sign *-'s*, the stronger the stylistic mark (colouring) of the resulting genitive phrase. According to

B. S. Khaimovich and B. I. Rogovskaya, in 96 % of cases the *-'s* sign is attached to individual nouns. The immediate casal relations are realised by **individual nouns**, the **phrasal**, as well as **some non-nounal uses** of the *-'s* sign being on the whole of a secondary grammatical order.

2. The *-'s* sign from the point of view of its segmental status in language differs from ordinary functional words – it is morpheme-like; it is strictly postpositional; it is semantically a more bound element than a preposition.

A critical synthesis of the two theories resulted in: the limited case theory and the possessive postposition theory.

Common case is the "direct" case; **genitive** case is the oblique case.

Founded on a particle expression. The particle nature of *-'s* is added in post-position both to individual nouns and to nounal word-groups of various status.

Two subtypes are to be recognised: the first (principal) is the **word genitive**; the second (of a minor order) is the **phrase genitive**. Both of them are **not inflexional**, but **particle case-forms** similar to the Russian particle *бы*: *Если **бы** не он. Мне **бы** такая возможность. Как **бы** не так.*

The English genitive case may be regarded as subsidiary to the syntactic system of prepositional phrases but it displays some differential points in its functional meaning, which, though neutralised in isolated use, are revealed in broader syntagmatic collocations with prepositional phrases.

One of the differential points are **animate appurtenance** against **inanimate appurtenance**:

*The **people's** voices drowned in the **roar of** the started **engines**.*

*The **tiger's** leap proved quicker than the **click of** the **rifle**.*

Another differential point is the **subjective** use of the **genitive noun** (subject of action) against the **objective** use of the **prepositional noun** (object of action): *My Lord's choice of the butler; the partisans' rescue of the prisoners; the treaty's denunciation of mutual threats.*

The **genitive** is used in combination with the ***of*-phrase** on a complementary basis expressing the functional semantics which may be called "**appurtenance rank gradation**": a difference in construction signals a difference in **correlated ranks** of **semantic domination**:

– *the country's strain of wartime* (**lower rank**: *the strain of wartime*; **higher rank**: *the country's strain*),
– *the sight of Satispy's face* (**higher rank**: *the sight of the face*; **lower rank**: *Satispy's face*).

Basic semantic types of the genitive are:

1. The **genitive of possessor** – inorganic possession**,** i.e. possessional relation (in the broad sense) of the genitive referent to the object denoted by the head-noun: *Christine's living-room; the Steel Corporation's hired slaves*. Diagnostic test – transformation into a

construction: *Christine's living-room → the living-room belongs to Christine; the Steel Corporation's hired slaves → the Steel Corporation possesses hired slaves*.

2. The **genitive of integer** – organic possession, i.e. a broad possessional relation of a whole to its part: *Jane's busy hands; Patrick's voice; the patient's health; the hotel's lobby*. Diagnostic test: *... → the busy hands as part of Jane's person; ... → the health as part of the patient's state; ... → the lobby as a component part of the hotel*, etc. A subtype (**genitive of received qualification**) expresses a qualification received by the genitive referent through the headword: *Mr. Dodson's vanity; the computer's reliability.*
3. The **genitive of agent**– subjective – an activity or some broader processual relation with the referent of the genitive as its subject: *the great man's arrival; Peter's insistence; the councillor's attitude; Campbell Clark's gaze; the hotel's competitive position*. Diagnostic test: *... → the great man arrives; ... → Peter insists; ... → the hotel occupies a competitive position*, etc. A subtype (**genitive of author**) expresses the author, or, more broadly considered, the producer of the referent of the head-noun: *Beethoven's sonatas; John Galsworthy's "A Man of Property"; the committee's progress report.* Diagnostic test: *... – Beethoven has composed (is the author of) the sonatas; ... → the committee has compiled (is the compiler of) the progress report*.
4. The **genitive of patient** – the recipient of the action or process denoted by the head-noun: *the champion's sensational defeat; Erick's final expulsion; the meeting's chairman; the St Gregory's proprietor; the city's business leaders; the Titanic's tragedy*. Diagnostic test: *... → the champion is defeated (i.e. his opponent defeated him); ... → Erick is expelled; ... → the meeting is chaired by its chairman; ... → the St Gregory is owned by its proprietor*, etc.
5. The **genitive of destination** – the destination, or function of the referent of the head-noun: *women's footwear; children's verses; a fishers' tent.* Diagnostic test: *...→ footwear for women; ... → a tent for fishers*, etc.
6. The **genitive of dispensed qualification** – some characteristic or qualification, not received, but given by the genitive noun to the referent of the head-noun: *a girl's voice; a book-keeper's statistics; Curtis O'Keefe's kind (of hotels)*. Diagnostic test: *... → a voice characteristic of a girl; ... → statistics peculiar to a book-keeper's report; ... → the kind (of hotels) characteristic of those owned by Curtis O'Keefe*. A **subtype** – the comparison is supposed to be of a vivid, descriptive nature – the **genitive of comparison**: *the cock's self-confidence of the man; his perky sparrow's smile*. Diagnostic test: *... → the self-confidence like that of a cock; ... → the smile making the man resemble a perky sparrow*.
7. The **genitive of adverbial** – adverbial factors relating to the referent of the head-noun, mostly the time and place of the event; can be used with adverbialised substantives: *the evening's newspaper; yesterday's encounter; Moscow's talks*. Diagnostic test: *... → the newspaper issued in the evening; ... → the encounter which took place yesterday; ... →the talks that were held in Moscow*.
8. The **genitive of quantity** – the measure or quantity relating to the referent of the head-noun; concerns units of distance measure, time measure, weight measure: *three miles' distance; an hour's delay; two months' time; a hundred tons' load*. Diagnostic test: *... → a*

distance the measure of which is three miles; ... → a time lasting for two months; ... → a load weighing a hundred tons.

The identified types are open both to subtype specifications, and inter-type generalisations, and the very set of primary types may be expanded.

The **inflexional case** of **nouns** in English has ceased to exist. In its place a new, peculiar two case system has developed based on the particle expression of the genitive falling into two segmental types: the **word-genitive** and the **phrase-genitive**.

The **personal** pronouns are commonly interpreted as having a case system of their own, differing in principle from the case system of the noun.

The two cases traditionally recognised here are the **nominative case** (*I, you, he*, etc.) and the **objective case** (*me, you, him*, etc.).

The two series of forms of the possessive pronouns are added – respectively, the **conjoint series** (*my, your, his*, etc.) and the **absolute series** (*mine, yours, his*, etc.).

Conclusion is that:

– at present no case in the English personal pronouns,
– the personal pronominal system of cases has completely disintegrated, and in its place the four individual word-types of pronouns have appeared:, the **nominative** form, the **objective** form, and the **possessive** form in its two versions **conjoint** and **absolute**.

It is traditionally accepted as case-forms of the pronouns are not the regular forms of productive morphological change implied by the very idea of case declension, but individual forms sustained by suppletivity and given to the speaker as a ready-made set.

A **lexical paradigmatic** series of four subsets of **personal pronouns** is: *I – me – my – mine, you – you – your – yours, ... who – whom – whose – whose*.

Petrified, relict forms are: *he – him – his*.

The English **inflexional declension** has completely and irrevocably disintegrated, both in the sphere of nouns and their substitute pronouns; in its place a new, **limited case system** has arisen based on a **particle oppositional feature** and subsidiary to the prepositional expression of the syntactic relations of the noun.

Questions for Revision:

1. Give the definition of the term "case".
2. What case is also called "oblique case"?
3. What is the idea behind theory of positional cases?
4. What is the idea behind theory of prepositional cases?
5. What is the idea behind limited case theory?
6. What theory counters the previous 3 theories? Describe the idea behind it.
7. What subtypes of the genitive case are differentiated within the expression of it?
8. What basic subtypes of the genitive can be pointed out? Name all of them.
9. What forms of possessive pronouns are added to two traditional ones?
10. Name the lexical paradigmatic series of four-subsets of personal pronouns.

2.1.6. Article

Article is a determining unit of specific nature accompanying the noun in communicative collocation.

The function of the **determiners** *(this, any, some)* is to explicitly interpret the referent of the noun in relation to other objects or phenomena of a like kind.

The semantic purpose of the **article** is to specify the nounal referent, as it were, altogether unostentatiously, to define it in the most general way, without any explicitly expressed contrasts:

*Will you give me **this** pen, Willy?* (i.e. the pen that I am pointing out, not one of your choice.) – *Will you give me **the** pen, please?* (i.e. simply the pen from the desk, you understand which.)

***Any** blade will do, I only want it for scratching out the wrong word from the type-script.* (i.e. any blade of the stock, however blunt it may be.) – *Have you got something sharp? I need **a** penknife or **a** blade.* (i.e. simply a blade, if not a knife, without additional implications.)

***Some** woman called in your absence, she didn't give her name.* (i.e. a woman strange to me.) – ***A** woman called while you were out, she left a message.* (i.e. simply a woman, without a further connotation.)

In the absence of a determiner, the use of the article with the noun is quite **obligatory**.

What is the segmental **status** of the article in the system of morphology? Is the article a purely **auxiliary element** or a **separate word**?

Consideration of the properties of the English articles are presented in **four** stages:

1) their semantic evaluation;
2) a situational estimation of their uses;
3) their categorial features in the oppositional theory;
4) a paradigmatic generalisation.

Semantic evaluation: the definite article *the* and the indefinite article *a/an* are three **meaningful characterisations** of the nounal referent:

1) one rendered by the **definite** article;
2) one rendered by the **indefinite** article;
3) 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. A substitution test consists in replacing the article by a **demonstrative** word:

*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.*

A counter-test is "non-equivalent" shift; the result is a grammatically unacceptable construction:

*...→ Look at **an** apple-tree! → *Look at apple-tree!*

*...→ ***A** water is horribly hot. → *Water is horribly hot.*

The **indefinite** article refers the object denoted by the noun to a **certain class** of similar objects; expresses a classifying **generalisation** of the nounal referent, or takes it in a relatively **general sense**.

The diagnostic insertions of specifying-classifying phrases into the construction; or the transformation into the corresponding explicit comparative constructions:

*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.*

A **classifying** contrast exposes the **generalising nature** of the indefinite article:

***A** door opened in the wall. → A door (not a window) opened in the wall.*

*We saw a flower under the bush. → We saw **a** flower (not a strawberry) under the bush*

Nouns without an article are divided into two types.

1. The articles are deliberately omitted (in telegraphic speech, in titles and headlines, in various notices):

   ***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 omitted articles may easily be restored – **back-directed refilling procedures**:

   *...→ **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.*

2. The semantically **unspecified non-use** of the **article** in various combinations of fixed type can be in:
   - 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.).

There are cases of fixed uses of both indefinite and definite articles: *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.

The **meaningful non-uses** of the **article** are not homogeneous; founded on the **countability characteristics** of the noun. For the **two reasons**:

1) the **abstract generalisation** is connected with the suppression of the idea of the number in the noun;

2) the indefinite article 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.

There are three essential points of the classification of meaningful non-use of the article:

1. Before the **countable** noun in the **singular**; the noun is used in an abstract sense; it realizes the meaning of "absolute generalization"; it can be demonstrated by inserting a generalising modifier *(in general, in the abstract, in the broadest sense)*:

***Law** (in general) begins with the beginning of human society.*

***Steam-engine** (in general) introduced for locomotion a couple of centuries ago has now become obsolete.*

2. Before the **uncountable** noun corresponds to the two kinds of generalisation: both relative and absolute – the described tests should be carried out alternately:

*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.*

3. Before the **countable** noun in the **plural**; it realizes both kinds of generalization meanings. The semantic tests are:

***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.*

The absence of the article with **uncountable** nouns, as well as with **countable** nouns in the **plural**, renders the meaning of "**uncharacterised generalization**", as different from the meaning of "**absolute generalization**", achieved by the absence of the article with **countable** nouns in the **singular**.

The **situational estimation** of the article uses.

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. It is **theme**.

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. It is **rheme**.

The noun modified by the **definite** article is the **thematic** subject.

The noun modified by the **indefinite** article or by the **meaningful absence** of the article is the **rhematic** predicative:

***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 many other cases of syntactic use (non-subjective or non-predicative), the articles reflect the same situational functions – reducing the constructions to the logically "canonized" link-type constructions:

*If you would care to verify **the incident** (object), pray do so. → If you would care **the incident** (subject) to be verified, pray have it verified.*

*I am going to make **a rather strange request** (object) to you. → What I am going to make is **a rather strange request** (predicative) to you.*

*You are talking **nonsense** (object), lad. → What you are talking, lad, is **nonsense** (predicative).*

Essential contextual-situational characteristic of the articles is their immediate connection with the two types of attributes to the noun:

1) a **limiting** attribute – the **definite** article is used before the noun;
2) a **descriptive** attribute – **indefinite** article or the **meaningful absence** of the article is before the noun:

*The events **chronicled in this narrative** took place some four years ago.* (A limiting attribute).

*She was a person of **strong will and iron self-control**.* (A descriptive attribute).

*He listened to her story with **grave and kindly** attention.* (A descriptive attribute).

The role of descriptive attributes in the situational aspect of articles is important in the constructions of syntactic "convergencies" (chained attributive-repetitional phrases modifying the same referent from different angles):

*My longing for **a house, a fine** and **beautiful house**, **such a house I could never hope to have**, flowered into life again.*

Articles in the oppositional theory.

There are two levels of the opposition:

1. The opposition of the higher level:
   - the definite article with the noun – **strong** member – due to its identifying and individualising function,
   - the indefinite article and meaningful absence of the article – **weak** member (unmarked).
2. The opposition of the lower level (the weak members of the upper opposition):
   - the meaning of generalisation is represented by a **strong** member (the indefinite article plus the meaningful absence of the article as its analogue with uncountable nouns and nouns in the plural),

– the meaning of the absolute, or "abstract" generalisation is represented by the **weak** member of the opposition (the meaningful absence of the article) (Fig. 4).

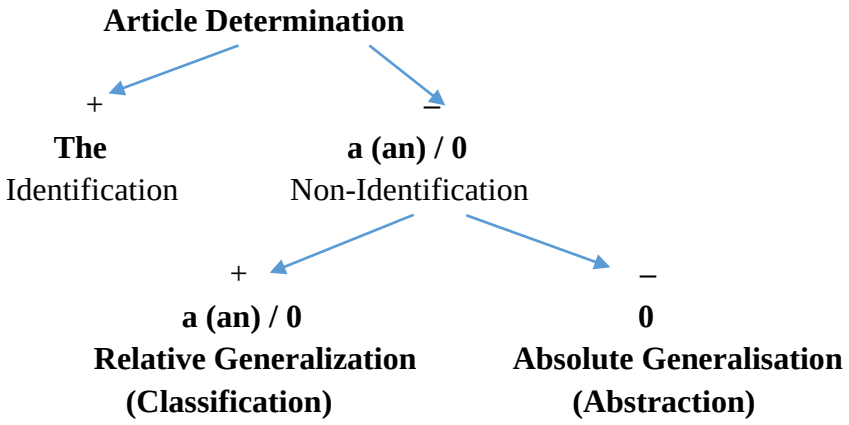


Figure 4. Articles in the Oppositional Theory

Examples of identical nounal positions for the pair "the **definite** article – the **indefinite** article":

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

Examples of 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).*

Examples of 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).*

Examples of correlative nounal positions for the easily neutralised pair "the **zero** article of re**lative generalisation** – the **zero** article of **absolute generalization**":

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).*

The **indefinite** article may occasionally be used with a nounal collocation of normally **individualising** meaning:

Rodney Harrington laughed out loud as he caught ***a last glimpse of Allison Mackenzie and Norman Page*** *in his rearvision mirror.*

After all, you've got ***a best side*** *and* ***a worst side of yourself*** *and it's no good showing the worst side and harping on it.*

The **definite** article may occasionally be used with a nounal collocation of normally **descriptive** meaning:

Ethel still went in the evenings to bathe in ***the silent pool*** *(S. Maugham).*

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

*Ted Latimer from beyond her murmured: "The sun here isn't **a real sun**".*

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:

*The glasses had a habit of slipping down her button nose which did not have enough **bridge** to hold them up.*

*He went up a well-kept drive to a modern house with a square roof and a good deal of **window**.*

Articles vs. Determiners

Within the system of the determiners two separate subsets can be defined:

1. Centered around the definite article with its individualising semantics *(this – these, that – those, my, our, your, his, her, its, their)*;
2. Centered around the indefinite article with its generalising semantics *(another, some, any, no).*

*But unhappily **the wife** wasn't listening. – But unhappily **his wife** wasn't listening.*

***The whispering voices** caught the attention of the guards. – **Those whispering voices** caught their attention.*

*What could **a woman** do in a situation like that? – What could **any woman** do in that sort of situation?*

*At least I saw **interest** in her eyes. – At least I saw **some interest** in her eyes.*

***Not a word** had been pronounced about the terms of the document. – **No word** had been pronounced about those terms.*

The connection between the articles and semi-notional determiners discloses the true function of the grammatical use of articles with proper nouns:

*"This," said Froelich, "is **the James Walker** who wrote 'The Last of the Old Lords'". – This is **the same James Walker**.*

*I came out to Iraq with **a Mrs. Kelsey**. – The woman was **a certain Mrs. Kelsey**.*

*It was like seeing **a Vesuvius** at the height of its eruption. – The sight looked to us like **another Vesuvius**.*

*"I prophesy **a wet August**," said Old Moore Abinger. – Next August will be a wet month, unlike **some other Augusts** in retrospect.*

Transpositional features are revealed similar to those the article acquires when used with a noun characterised by a contrary semantic base.

These cases clearly stamps the **traditional proper name combinations** with embedded articles, both of the **onomastic set** (*Alexander the Great,* etc.) and the **toponymic set** (*The Hague,* etc.) as lexicalised collocations that only come into contact with the **periphery** of **grammar**.

The English **noun** distinguishes the **category of determination** expressed by the article paradigm of three grammatical forms: the **definite**, the **indefinite**, the **zero**.

The paradigm is generalised for the whole system of the common nouns (and the system of proper nouns).

Various cases of asymmetry in the realisation of this paradigm (such as the article determination of certain nouns of the types singularia tantum and pluralia tantum), are balanced by **suppletive collocations**:

ø progress – a kind of progress, some progress – the progress;

ø news – an item of news – the news, etc.

The semi-notional determiners used with nouns in the absence of articles, expose the essential article meanings as in-built in their semantic structure.

The **status** of the combination of the **article** with the noun is **analytical**, the article construction being localised by its segmental properties between the **free syntactic combination of words** (the upper bordering level) and the **combination of a grammatical affix** with a notional stem in the morphological composition of an indivisible word (the lower bordering level).

The **article** is a special type of **grammatical auxiliary**.

Questions for Revision:

1. What is the definition of the article?
2. In what 4 stages can the properties of the article be considered?
3. What does the definite article express? What diagnostic test can be applied?
4. What does the indefinite article express? What diagnostic test can be applied?
5. What are the two cases when nouns are used without an article, from the semantic point of view?
6. What are the three points of meaningful non-use of the article, founded on the countability characteristics?
7. What are the "thematic subject" and the "rhematic" predicative?
8. Explain the dependence of the choice of the article on the two types of attributes.
9. Give the oppositional description of the English articles.
10. What is the status of the article in the English grammar system?

2.1.7. Adjective

The adjective expresses the categorial semantics of property of a substance. It denotes material, colour, dimensions, position, state (permanent and temporary) – *long, hospitable, fragrant*.

An example of an adjective of a bound character:

*I don't want **a yellow balloon**, let me have **the green one** over there*

An example of an adjective in self-dependent position:

*Outside it was a beautiful day, and the sun tinged the snow with **red**.* vs.

*The sun tinged the snow with **the red colour**.*

Adjectives are distinguished by **combinability** with:

- nouns,
- link-verbs (functional and notional),
- modifying adverbs.

Functions of adjectives in the sentence are **an attribute** and a **predicative**:

*You talk to people as if they **were a group**. → You talk to people as if they **formed a group**.*

*Quite obviously, he **was a friend**. → His behaviour **was like that of a friend**.*

*I will be **silent as a grave**. → I will be like **a silent grave**.*

*Walker felt **healthy**. → Walker felt **a healthy man**.*

*It was **sensational**. → That fact was **a sensational fact**.*

They may have a **complementive** combinability with **nouns**: *fond of, jealous of, curious of, suspicious of; angry with, sick with; serious about, certain about, happy about; grateful to, thankful to*, etc.

They render **verbal meanings** and some of them have direct or indirect parallels among verbs: *be fond of – love, like; be envious of – envy; be angry with –resent; be mad for, about – covet; be thankful to – thank.*

Some of these adjectives may render relations of addressee: *grateful to, indebted to, partial to, useful for*.

The **derivational features** of adjectives (suffixes and prefixes) are: ***-ful** (hopeful), **-less** (flawless), **-ish** (bluish), **-ous** (famous), **-ive** (decorative), **-ic** (basic); **un-** (unprecedented), **in-** (inaccurate), **pre-** (premature), **a-**.*

The adjectives are 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 (**incapable** of forming degrees of comparison): *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 revealed by definitional correlations: *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 (**capable** of forming degrees of comparison).

The measure of a quality can be estimated as **high** or **low**, **adequate** or **inadequate**, **sufficient** or **insufficient**, **optimal** or **excessive**: *an awkward situation – 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.

There are 2 contradictions to the offered distinction of the types of adjectives:

1. Substances can possess such qualities as are incompatible with the idea of degrees of comparison – adjectives denoting these qualities, while belonging to the qualitative

subclass, are in the ordinary use incapable of forming degrees of comparison: *extinct, immobile, deaf, final, fixed*, etc.

2. Many adjectives considered under the heading of relative still can form degrees of comparison, thereby, transforming the denoted relative property of a substance into such as can be graded quantitatively: *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; a grammatical topic – a purely grammatical topic – the most grammatical of the suggested topics.*

The **adjective functions** may be grammatically divided into **evaluative** and **specificative**.

One and the same adjective, irrespective of its being basically "relative" or "qualitative", can be used either in the evaluative function or in the specificative function:

– ***good*** – qualitative; **BUT** when employed as a grading term in teaching, it acquires the said **specificative** value;
– ***wooden*** – relative; **BUT** when used in the broader meaning "expressionless" or "awkward" it acquires an evaluative force and can presuppose a greater or lesser degree ("amount") of the denoted properly in the corresponding referent.

For example:

Bundle found herself looking into the expressionless, ***wooden face*** *of Superintendent Battle (A. Christie).*

The superintendent was sitting behind a table and looking ***more wooden*** *than ever (Ibid).*

The morphological category of comparison is potentially represented in the whole class of adjectives and is constitutive for it.

Words built up by the prefix ***a-*** and denoting different states, mostly of temporary duration: *afraid, agog, adrift, ablaze*. They are called "**predicative adjectives**".

L. V. Shcherba and V. V. Vinogradov differentiated the "**category of state**" ("words of the category of state"): *тепло, зябко, одиноко, радостно, жаль, лень*, etc. Traditionally they were considered as belonging to **the class of adverbs**

The English ***a-words*** are the constituents of the "**category of state**" (B. A. Ilyish), so they are the "words of the category of state" / "stative words" / "statives".

B. S. Khaimovich and B. I. Rogovskaya give the **part-of-speech interpretation of statives**:

1) the statives / "ad-links" are of different semantic basis, since adjectives denote "qualities", and statives-adlinks denote "states";
2) statives-adlinks are characterised by the specific prefix ***a-***;
3) they allegedly do not possess the category of the degrees of comparison;
4) the combinability of statives-adlinks is different as they are not used in the pre-positional attributive function.

L. S. Barkhudarov gives another point of view on this type of adjectives:

1. Statives like the adjective as a whole signifies not "quality" in the narrow sense, but "property", which is categorially divided into "substantive quality as such" and "substantive relation". The main meaning types conveyed by statives are:

– the psychic state of a person (*afraid, ashamed, aware*),
– the physical state of a person (*astir, afoot*),
– the physical state of an object (*afire, ablaze, aglow*),
– the state of an object in space (*askew, awry, aslant*).

The same meanings are rendered by pre-positional adjectives: *the **living** predecessor – the predecessor **alive**; **eager** curiosity – curiosity **agog**; the **burning** house – the house **afire**; a **floating** raft – a raft **afloat**; a **half-open** door – a door **adjar**; **slanting** ropes – ropes **aslant**; a **vigilant** man – a man **awake**; **similar** cases – cases **alike**; an **excited** crowd – a crowd **astir**.*

Many other adjectives and participles convey the meanings of various states irrespective of their analogy with statives: words of the order of **psychic state** – *despondent, curious, happy, joyful*; words of the order of human **physical state** – *sound, refreshed, healthy, hungry*; words of the order of **activity state** – *busy, functioning, active, employed,* etc.

2. The combinability characteristics – statives are not used in attributive pre-position, but, like adjectives, they are distinguished by the left-hand categorial combinability both with nouns and link-verbs:

*The household was all **astir**. – The household was all **excited**.*

*It was strange to see the household **astir** at this hour of the day. It was strange to see the household **active** at this hour of the day.*

3. The two basic functions of the stative are the **predicative** and the **attribute**:

*Launches and barges moored to the dock were **ablaze** and **loud** with wild sound.*

4. Statives are subject to the functional division into evaluative and specificative; do not take the synthetical forms of the degrees of comparison, but they are capable of expressing comparison analytically:

*Of us all, Jack was the one **most aware** of the delicate situation in which we found ourselves. I saw that the adjusting lever stood **far more askew** than was allowed by the directions*.

5. Quantitative considerations: the total number of statives does not exceed several dozen. They are represented not only with prefix ***a-***: *ill, well, glad, sorry, worth (while), subject (to), due (to), underway.* Such adjectives are not of the structure "prefix + root", but one indivisible word: *aware, afraid, aloof.*

The statives are a subclass within the general class of adjectives.

Adjectives can be substantivised by conversion, i.e. by zero-derivation:

*He was a regional man, a man who wrote about **sensitives** who live away from the places where things happen (M. Bradbury).*

*The weather report promises a new **high** in heat and humidity (Ibid.).*

They express constitutive categories of the noun, i.e. the number, the case, the gender, the article determination, and they likewise equally perform normal nounal functions.

Some substantivized adjectives are characterized by hybrid lexico-grammatical features:

*The new bill concerning the wage-freeze introduced by the Labour Government cannot satisfy either **the poor, or the rich** (Radio Broadcast).*

*A monster. The word conveyed **the ultimate** in infamy and debasement inconceivable to one not native to the times (J. Vance).*

*The train, indulging all his English nostalgia for **the plushy and the genteel**, seemed to him a deceit (M. Bradbury).*

Incomplete presentation of the part-of speech characteristics of either nouns or adjectives: the words are used in the article form; express the category of number (in a relational way); but their article and number forms are rigid.

"Adjectivids" are rather nounal forms of adjectives than nouns as such.

There are two main grammatical subgroups of them:

- pluralia tantum (the English, the rich, the unemployed, the uninitiated, etc.) – express sets of people (personal multitudes),
- singularia tantum (the invisible, the abstract, the tangible, etc.) – express abstract ideas of various types and connotations.

The category of adjectival comparison expresses the quantitative characteristics of the quality of the nounal referent. The category is constituted by the opposition of the three forms known as **degrees of comparison**:

- the basic form (positive degree),
- the comparative degree form,
- the superlative degree form.

For example: *Johnny was **the strongest boy** in the company.*

*The remark was **as bitter as** could be. The Rockies are not **so high as** the Caucasus.*

*That was **the bitterest** remark I have ever heard from the man. The Caucasus is **higher than** the Rockies.*

The **synthetical** forms of comparison are formed by adding – ***-er*** and ***-(e)st***; the **analytical** forms of comparison are formed with help of ***more*** and ***most***:

- are used with the evaluative adjectives,
- are used to express emphasis: *The audience became **more** and **more noisy**, and soon the speaker's words were drowned in the general hum of voices.*

The analytical degrees of comparison are the feature of "semantic idiomatism".

What is a categorial status of analytical degrees of comparison in English grammar?

The combinations of ***more/most*** are free syntactic constructions because:

1. They are semantically analogous to combinations of ***less/least*** with the adjective which are **syntactic combinations of notional words**.
2. The ***most***-combination, unlike the synthetic superlative, can take the **indefinite article**, expressing not the superlative, but the **elative** meaning.

For example: *The speaker launched **a most significant** personal attack on the Prime Minister.*

The most significant *of the arguments in a dispute is not necessarily t****he most spectacular one****.*

In "*a most significant (personal) attack*" a high degree of the quality is expressed irrespective of any directly introduced or implied comparison with other attacks on the Prime Minister; *most is lexical intensifier.*

In "*the most significant of the arguments*" and "*the most spectacular one*" – the superlative degree of the quality in relation to the immediately introduced comparison with all the rest of the arguments in a dispute.

The use of the **definite** article with the elative ***most***-construction is sometimes possible: *I found myself in the **most awkward** situation, for I couldn't give a satisfactory answer to any question asked by the visitors.*

The **synthetical superlative degree** can be used in the **elative** function; the distinguishing feature of the latter being its exclusion from a comparison: *Unfortunately, our cooperation with Danny proved **the worst** experience for both of us. No doubt Mr. Snider will show you his collection of minerals with **the greatest** pleasure.*

The **expressive nature** of the **elative superlative** consists in two features:

1. The categorial form of the superlative.
2. The absence of a comparison on the other.

The examples of the elative use of the comparative degree:

*Nothing gives me **greater** pleasure than to greet you as our guest of honour.*

*There is nothing **more refreshing** than a good swim.*

The **elative superlative** is distinguished from **common elative constructions** (syntactic combinations of an intensely high estimation): *an **extremely** important amendment; a matter of **exceeding** urgency; quite an **unparalleled** beauty*; etc.

The elative superlative is a degraded superlative, marked by the indefinite article (with the analytical superlative).

The use of the indefinite article with the synthetical superlative in the degraded, elative function is possible: *He made **a last** lame effort to delay the experiment; but Basil was impervious to suggestion.*

Formal differentiation of the direct and elative functions of the synthetical superlative by using the zero article with the superlative: *Suddenly I was seized with a sensation of **deepest** regret.*

In English, the analytical form expresses the superlative elative meaning. In Russian, the synthetical form of the Russian superlative renders the elative function: *слушали с **живейшим** интересом; повторялась **скучнейшая** история; попал в **глупейшее** положение* и т. д.

The ***less/least***-combinations, similar to the morel ***most***-combinations, constitute specific forms of comparison, which may be called forms of "**reverse comparison**".

Non-comparable evaluative adjectives are:

1) adjectives that are themselves grading marks of evaluation;

2) adjectives of indefinitely moderated quality, "moderating qualifiers", such as *whitish, tepid, half-ironical, semi-detached*, etc.
3) adjectives expressing the highest degree of a respective quality, which words can be called "adjectives of extreme quality", or "extreme qualifiers", or simply "extremals".

The inherent superlative semantics of extremals is emphasised by the definite article:

The ultimate *outcome of the talks was encouraging.*

The final *decision has not yet been made public.*

Extreme qualifiers can be modified by intensifying elements:

– *"the final decision"* becomes *"a very final decision"*,
– *"the ultimate rejection"* turns into *"rather an ultimate rejection"*,
– *"the crucial role"* is made into *"quite a crucial role"*, etc.

The extreme qualifiers become degraded extreme qualifiers.

Questions for Revision:

1. What are the functions of the adjective in the sentence?
2. What are the two subclasses of the adjectives? Give their definitions.
3. What are other two additional linguistic distinctions that can be applied to the adjectives?
4. In what adjectives is the morphological category of comparison represented?
5. What are the four reasons of B. S. Khaimovich and B. I. Rogovskaya according to which the ad-links (or statives) can be considered a separate part of speech?
6. What are the five reasons given by L. S. Barkhudarov according to which the statives cannot be separated from adjectives?
7. How does the hierarchal structure of the adjectives look like?
8. What is zero-derivation?
9. What are the two grammatical subgroups that the adjectivids can fall into? (What are adjectivids?)
10. How does the hierarchal structure of opposition of the adjectives look like?

2.1.8. Adverb

There are several definitions of the adverb:

1. The adverb is defined as a word expressing either property of an action, or property of another property, or circumstances in which an action occurs.
2. The adverb is defined as a notional word expressing a non-substantive property, that is, a property of a non-substantive referent.

Properties of the adverb are:

– of "organic" order – denotes characterising processes and other properties,
– of "inorganic" order – denotes various circumstantial characteristics of processes or whole situations built around processes.

It includes a great number of semantically weakened words which are in fact intermediate between notional and functional lexemes.

The adverb is characterized by combinability with:

– verbs,
– adjectives,
– words of adverbial nature.

The functions of adverbs are of adverbial modifiers and situation-"determinants":

*The woman was crying **hysterically**.* (an adverbial modifier of manner, in left-hand contact combination with the verb-predicate).

*Wilson looked at him **appraisingly**.* (an adverbial modifier of manner, in left-hand distant combination with the verb-predicate).

*Without undressing she sat down to the poems, **nervously** anxious to like them...* (an adverbial modifier of property qualification, in right-hand combination with a post-positional stative attribute-adjective).

*You've gotten **awfully** brave, awfully suddenly.* (an adverbial modifier of intensity, in right-hand combination with an adverb-aspective determinant of the situation).

***Then** he stamps his boots **again** and advances into the room.* (two adverbial determinants of the situation: the first – of time, in right-hand combination with the modified predicative construction; the second – of recurrence, in left-hand combination with the modified predicative construction).

Combinability with **nouns** is a very peculiar **adverbial-attributive function** (essentially in post-position):

*The world **today** presents a picture radically different from what it was before the Second World War.*

*Our vigil **overnight** was rewarded by good news: the operation seemed to have succeeded.*

*Franklin D. Roosevelt, the **then** President of the United States, proclaimed the "New Deal" – a new Government economic policy.*

The dynamic situation expressed by the predicative construction receives a static name:

*The world that exists **today**. → The world **today**.*

*We kept vigil **overnight**. → Our vigil **overnight**.*

***Then** he was the President. → The **then** President.*

According to the word-building structure, adverbs can be simple and derived.

Simple adverbs display functional semantics (of pronominal character): *here, there, now, then, so, quite, why, how, where, when.*

Derived adverbs are characterized by:

– affixal derivation: 1) ***-ly** (slowly, tiredly, rightly, firstly)*; 2) ***-ways** (sideways, crossways), **-wise** (clockwise), **-ward(s)** (homewards, seawards, afterwards),*
– adverbial prefix is ***a-** (away, ahead, apart, across).*

Among adverbs there are also:

– (*) 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.
– (*) the word-building sets of adverbs: *from outside, till now, before then*, etc.

Their parts are semantically not blended into an indivisible lexemic unity and present combinations of a preposition with a peculiar adverbial substantive: *The pale moon looked at me* ***from above****.* ***By now*** *Sophie must have received the letter and very soon we shall hear from her. The departure of the delegation is planned* ***for later*** *this week.*

The adverbial substantives may be called "**adverbids**".

Adverbs of full notional value and **adverbs of half-notional value** are peculiar structural types of adverbs which are derivationally connected with the words of **non-adverbial lexemic classes by conversion.**

Adjective-stem conversives: *fast, late, hard, high, close, loud, tight*, etc. – have a parallel form in ***-ly*** differentiated in meaning or connotation:

to work ***hard*** *–****hardly*** *to work at all;*

to fall ***flat*** *into the water – to refuse* ***flatly****;*

to speak ***loud*** *– to criticise* ***loudly****;*

to fly ***high*** *over the lake – to raise a* ***highly*** *theoretical question*; etc.

Words with the non-specific ***-ly*** originally in-built in the adjective are: *daily, weekly, lively, timely*, etc.

"**Fluctuant conversives**" are of the purely positional nature of the conversion.

The fluctuant conversives of weakened pronominal semantics are the adverbs that positionally interchange with prepositions and conjunctive words: *before, after, round, within*, etc.: *never* ***before*** *– never* ***before*** *our meeting; somewhere* ***round*** *–* ***round*** *the corner; not to be found* ***within*** *–* ***within*** *a minute*; etc.

Preposition-adverb-like elements are used 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:

to give – to give ***up****, to give* ***in****, to give* ***out****, to give* ***away****, to give* ***over***, etc.;

to set – to set ***up****, to set* ***in****, to set* ***forth****, to set* ***off****, to set* ***down***, etc.;

to get – to get ***on****, to get* ***off****, to get* ***up****, to get* ***through****, to get* ***about***, etc.

The functions of post-positional elements are:

1) to impart an additional aspective meaning to the verb-base,
2) to introduce a lexical modification to its fundamental semantics:

to bring ***about*** *– to cause to happen; to reverse;*

to bring ***up*** *– to call attention to; to rear and educate;*

to bring ***through*** *– to help overcome a difficulty or danger; to save (a sick person).*

The lexico-grammatical standing of the elements is interpreted differently as:

- a variety of adverbs (H. Palmer, A. Smirnitsky),
- as preposition-like functional words (I. Anichkov, N. Amosova),
- peculiar prefix-like suffixes similar to the German separable prefixes (Y. Zhluktenko),
- a special set of lexical elements functionally intermediate between words and morphemes (B. A. Ilyish, B. S. Khaimovich and B. I. Rogovskaya).

The idea of the functional character of the analysed elements is **a special functional set of particles**, i.e. words of semi-morphemic nature, correlative with prepositions and conjunctions.

The term "**post-positives**" is introduced by N. Amosova.

Adverbs are divided into **qualitative**, **quantitative** and **circumstantial**.

Qualitative are adverbs that express immediate, inherently non-graded qualities of actions and other qualities. The typical adverbs in ***-ly***:

*The little boy was crying **bitterly** over his broken toy.*

*The **plainly** embarrassed Department of Industry confirmed the fact of the controversial deal.*

Quantitative adverbs include words of degree – specific lexical units of semi-functional nature expressing quality measure, or gradational evaluation of qualities.

They may be subdivided into several sets:

1) adverbs of high degree – "intensifiers": *very, quite, entirely, utterly, highly, greatly, perfectly, absolutely, strongly, considerably, pretty, much*;
2) adverbs of excessive degree (direct and reverse) – the broader subclass of intensifiers: *too, awfully, tremendously, dreadfully, terrifically*;
3) adverbs of unexpected degree: *surprisingly, astonishingly, amazingly*;
4) adverbs of moderate degree: *fairly, comparatively, relatively, moderately, rather*;
5) adverbs of low degree: *slightly, a little, a bit*;
6) adverbs of approximate degree: *almost, nearly*;
7) adverbs of optimal degree: *enough, sufficiently, adequately*;
8) adverbs of inadequate degree: *insufficiently, intolerably, unbearably, ridiculously*;
9) adverbs of under-degree: *hardly, scarcely.*

Genuine quantitative adverbs are directly related to numerals and form sets of words of pronominal order – numerical-pronominal adverbs: *twice, thrice, four times*, etc.; *twofold, threefold, many fold.*

Qualitative adverbs subdivided into:

– qualitative adverbs of full notional value,
– degree adverbs – specific functional words.

Circumstantial adverbs are divided into:

– notional,
– functional.

The functional circumstantial adverbs are words of pronominal nature – adverbs of time, place, manner, cause, consequence – used as syntactic connectives and question-forming functionals: *now, here, when, where, so, thus, how, why*, etc.

Circumstantial adverbs of more self-dependent nature ("orientative" adverbs) are divided into two basic sets:

– adverbs of time: *today, tomorrow, already, ever, never, shortly, recently, seldom, early, late*,
– adverbs of place: *homeward, eastward, near, far, outside, ashore*, etc.

The categorial system of comparison (qualitative and orientative) can be exemplified by:

quickly – quicker – quickest – less quickly – least quickly;

frequently – more frequently – most frequently – less frequently – least frequently; ashore – more ashore – most ashore – less ashore – least ashore.

Each qualitative adjective has a parallel adverb in ***-ly***: *silent – silently, slow – slowly, tolerable – tolerably, pious – piously, sufficient – sufficiently, tired – tiredly, explosive – explosively.*

A. I. Smirnitsky states that the qualitative adverbs in ***-ly*** are in fact adjectives of specific combinability due to their evaluative function.

But this idea is not acceptable because:

- the English lexicon does distinguish adjectives and adverbs,
- adjectives are substantive-qualifying words in distinction to adverbs, which are non-substantive qualifying words,
- adverbs in ***-ly*** do preserve this fundamental nonsubstantive-qualification character – there can't be any question of their being "adjectives" in any rationally conceivable way.

Adverbs in ***-ly*** should be looked upon as the standard type of the English adverb as a whole.

Questions for Revision:

1. What is the difference between an adjective and an adverb?
2. What are the functions of the adverb in the sentence?
3. What are the two subclasses of the adverbs according to their word-building structure? Give examples.
4. What are adverbids? Give their definition and examples.
5. What two types of conversives are differentiated among adverbs? Give examples.
6. What are prepositional-adverb-like elements? What are their functions? Give examples.
7. Name 4 different interpretations of the prepositional-adverb-like elements in approaches of different linguists.
8. What are the three subclasses of the adverbs according to their semantics? Give examples.
9. What is the hierarchical structure of the lexemic class of adverbs?
10. What grammatical category do adverbs express? Give examples.
11. Name 3 reasons according to which adverbs and adjectives are different lexemic classes.

2.1.9. Verbs: General

Verbs are classified into finite and non-finite forms. The general meaning of a verb encompasses processes that develop over time, including states and attitudes. For instance, "*Edgar's room led out of the wall without a door*" and "*I do love you, really I do.* " The processual semantic character of a verbal lexeme persists even in non-finite forms, modified by adverbs and often taking direct objects, as illustrated by sentences like "*Mr. Brown received the visitor instantly, which was unusual.*"

Finite verbs can combine with nouns to express both the doer (subject) and, in transitive cases, the recipient (object), in addition to adverbs modifying the action. The finite verb acts as the verb-predicate, conveying features of predication such as time, aspect, voice, and mood. Non-finite verbs show intermediary functions, expressing subjects or objects and serving as modifiers or attributes, as seen in "*His rejecting the proposal surprised us.*"

Verbs can have simple, sound-replacive, stress-replacive, expanded, composite, or phrasal stems. Simple stems include verbs like *go* and *take*. Conversion, where nouns become verbs, is a productive means of forming lexemes, e.g. cloud – to cloud. Other derivation methods include using prefixes (e.g., "*be-*" in "*belittle*") and suffixes (e.g. "*-ate*" in "*cultivate*"). Compound verb stems arise from non-verb roots, either through conversion or reduction.

Verbs express grammatical categories of finitude (distinguishing finite from non-finite forms) and various features such as person, number, tense, aspect, voice, and mood. The infinitive serves as the general term for processes denoted by other verb forms.

Verbs are further divided into subclasses based on nominative value. Notional verbs have full value and are derivationally open, while semi-notional and functional verbs (auxiliary and modal verbs) have partial value and serve as markers of predication. Auxiliary verbs form the categorically variable constructs of a verb, while modal verbs express relational meanings like ability or obligation.

Semi-notional verbs include verbs of relational semantics, and link-verbs introduce predicatives expressed through nouns or adjectives. For example, "*The news has proved to be true.*"

The primary division based on action relates to **actional** verbs (e.g. *do*) and **statal** verbs (e.g. *be*). Processual verbs, unlike others, express ongoing processes, such as thawing or considering.

Aspectually, verbs can be categorized into durative, iterative, and instantaneous types, with inherent aspectual meanings conveyed by specific verbs, or through collocational groups. Limitive verbs present processes as limited, while unlimitive verbs depict unlimited processes.

The syntactic valency of verbs can be obligatory, as with subjects and direct objects, or optional, like adverbial modifiers. The fulfillment of these valencies contributes to a verb's flexibility in carrying complete or incomplete semantic and grammatical meaning.

Verbal transitivity indicates a verb's ability to take a direct object, contributing to overall sentence completion. For example, "*We saw a house in the distance*" illustrates transitive use, while structurally incomplete alternatives fail to convey necessary meaning. As such, verbs can be categorized as **complementive** or **uncomplementive** based on their ability to take complements, with various subclasses depending on the types of objects or complements they allow (Fig. 5).

Examples include:

"*Mr. Torrence was staying in the Astoria Hotel.*"

"*They began to fight*" (semi-notional); and "*They began the fight*" (notional).

This differentiation is essential for understanding the full scope of verb usage, including instances of subclass migration affecting meaning, and it reflects the complex relationships verbs have with their structural and semantic environments.

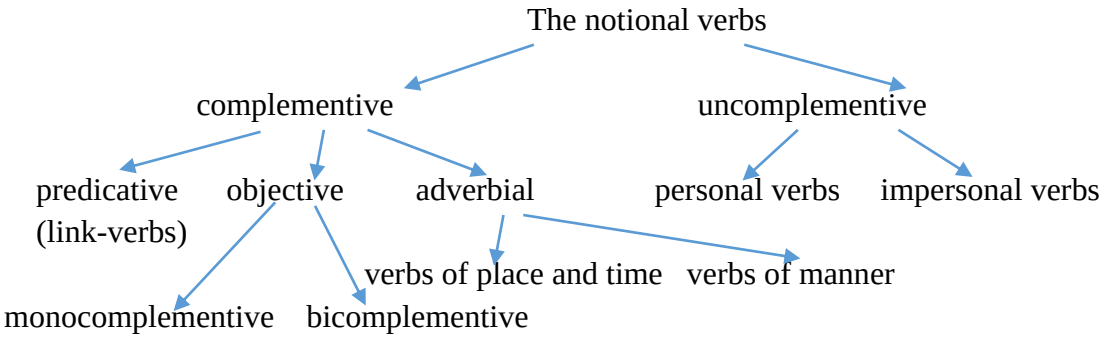


Figure 5. Types of Adjuncts of the Verbs

Questions for Revision:

1. What functions do the finite and non-finite verbs perform?
2. What structural types of verbs are differentiated? Give examples.
3. What grammatical categories are analysed?
4. What types of verbs are identified on the upper level of the whole class?
5. Characterize notional link-verbs and give examples of them.
6. What are the three types of notional verbs? Give examples.
7. Characterize three aspective subclasses of verbs and give examples of them.
8. What is the syntactic valency?
9. What types of syntactic valency are identified? Give examples.
10. What are verbal transitivity and verbal objectivity?

2.1.10. Non-Finite Verbs

Verbids straddle the grammatical line between verbs and non-processual parts of speech, differing fundamentally from finite forms. Finite forms serve the syntactic function of a finite predicate, while non-finite forms serve various other functions, demonstrating a crucial grammatical category known as finitude. Here, finite verbs express time-mood semantics, categorizing them as the strong member, whereas verbids, as weak members, lack immediate means to convey such semantics.

Verbids create "secondary" or "potential" predication, leading to syntactic complexes in various subordinate clauses. For instance, "*Have you ever had anything caught in your head?* " differs in structure from "*Have you ever had anything that was caught in your head?*" or "*He said it half under his breath for the others not to hear it*" as opposed to "*He said it half under his breath, so that the others couldn't hear it.*" The finite verbs engage in full predication, while verbids express semi-predication through forms including the infinitive, gerund, present participle, and past participle.

The infinitive combines verb and noun properties and can serve different syntactic functions. It can be a free part of the sentence, as in "*To meet the head of the administration and not to speak to him about your predicament was unwise*" reflecting its function as subject or predicate. It also appears in semi-predicative constructions, where "*We have never heard Charlie play his violin*" can transform to "*Charlie has never been heard to play his violin.*"

The gerund, similarly blending noun and verb characteristics, cannot take the role of the paradigmatic verb head-form. Its usage extends to various sentence parts, as observed in the example: "*Repeating your accusations over and over again doesn't make them more convincing.* " It can take a possessive modifier, highlighting the quality of participation, as in "*Powell's being rude like that was disgusting.*"

The present participle serves as both adjective and adverb, utilized as a predicative, attribute, or adverbial modifier: "*The questions became more and more irritating.*" In semantically strong contexts, it creates complex structures, e.g. "*The messenger waiting in the hall, we had only a couple of minutes to make a decision.*"

The past participle, while lacking its own paradigm, conveys the meanings of perfect and passive. It appears primarily as an attribute and predicative, illustrated by "*Moyra's softened look gave him a new hope.*" This form can also construct complex sentences, as in "*I want the document prepared for signing by 4 p.m.*"

Ultimately, the semantic distinction between the infinitive and gerund lies in their nature; the gerund is more substantive, while the infinitive is more dynamic. This difference is illustrated in examples contrasting general characteristics with specific occasions, such as "*Seeing and talking to people made him tired*" versus "*It made him tired to see and talk to so many people.*" The unique half-gerund uses also show flexibility in syntactic roles, emphasizing the dynamic characteristics of these verbids.

Questions for Revision:

1. What is the opposition of the finite verbs and the non-finite verbs based on?
2. What are the three types of functions of the infinitive?
3. What forms do the infinitives of the objective and non-objective verbs include?
4. What are the reasons for the gerund not being able to perform the function of the paradigmatic verbal head-form?
5. What forms do the gerunds of the objective and non-objective verbs include?
6. What types of combinability or the present participle are revealed?
7. What do the attributive past participle of limitive and unlimitive verbs express?
8. What are the three stages in which the category of processual representation is realized?
9. What non-finite verb expresses the category of modal representation?
10. What is the half-gerund?

2.1.11. Finite Verbs: Person and Number

The finite forms of the verb express the processual relations of substances and phenomena reflected in a sentence. The categories of person and number are connected situationally and syntactically. They exhibit reflective and substance-relational characteristics.

The category of person can be expressed through singular verb forms in the present and future tenses and the archaic past tense. Modal verbs such as *can, may, must, shall, will, ought, need,* and *dare* lack personal inflections. The unique verbal lexeme *be* features suppletive forms (*am, is, are*). Regular expressions of person show the third person singular marked (e.g. *comes, blows*), whereas the first and second persons are unmarked.

Archaic person-conjugations can be seen in:

1) modal forms like *canst, may(e)st, wilt,* and *shouldst*;
2) the personal *be*-conjugation with three marked forms: *am, art, is*;
3) the involvement of the second and third persons in archaic conjugation.

The future tense notably marks the first person differently from the others and includes the plural. The use of shall and will distinguishes the first person (voluntary vs. non-voluntary future) and the second and third persons (mere vs. modal future). The archaic past tense forms, such as *thou* and *art* create distinct expressions for the second person. The category of number is primarily visible in the unique forms of *be* marking singular explicitly while using unmarked plural forms.

The deictic functions of linguistic units indicate their roles in spatial and temporal contexts. The first person is represented by *I*, the second by *you*, and the third by entities not directly involved in the communication. Reflective distinctions indicate the speaker, the listener, and non-participants.

The first person plural includes the speaker and others, while the second person plural encompasses a listener or listeners plus others in context. The third person plural uses pronominal references, with potential combinations of singular pronouns (*he, she, it*).

In summary, the analysis of personal and numerical forms shows that the expression of person and number is intermixed. The system of finite verbs identifies a significant deficiency as only the third person singular is morphemically distinct.

Examples demonstrating the absence of the subject include: "*No one shot from cars,*" *said Wilson coldly.* "*I mean chase them from cars.*" "*Wouldn't ordinarily,*" *Wilson said.* "*Seemed sporting enough to me though while we were doing it...*"

In a referential misunderstanding, Kate's incomplete question is clarified through Josephine's inquiry:

– "*Fried or boiled what, Kate?*"
– "*Fish.*"
– "*Well, why didn't you say so immediately?*"

Comparing English with another language, consider: *Je vous remercie* – "*I thank you*"; but: *mon mari et moi* – "*my husband and I*" highlighting the positional differences of sentence components.

The semi-analytical expression of reflective grammatical categories involves both a lexeme-reflector and a lexeme-originator. Normal morphemic expressions are termed "native," while junctional expressions mark the third person singular in the ordinary case.

Examples of grammatical agreement with collective nouns and numeral attributes include statements like: "*The government were...*" and "*Three years have elapsed...*" These scenarios illustrate "agreement in sense" appearing in relative clauses like: "*I who am practically unacquainted with...*"

Dialectal examples include: "*Ah! It's pity you never was trained...*" and "*Nothing,*" *I said.* "*They ain't going to do nothing to you.*"

Questions for Revision:

1. Name the two factors by which the categories of person and number are closely connected.
2. In what forms of the verb is the category of person expressed?
3. What are the features of the three subsystems of the personal verb in the archaic person-conjugation?
4. What are the features of expression of the category of person in the future tense?
5. What are the semantic contents of the first, second and third person?
6. What are the semantic contents of the first, second and third person plural?
7. What are junctional and native lexemes?
8. What are the examples of the personal-numerical interpretation of the grammatical agreement of the verb with the categorial form of the subject?
9. What are the conclusions on the analysis of the personal and numerical forms of the finite verbs?
10. What are the features of the category of number in the archaic forms of the unique ***be***?

2.1.12. Finite Verbs: Tense

The category of time is foundational to the verbal aspect of finitude. The verb encapsulates a general notion of time, lexical denotation, and grammatical temporality. The "present moment" serves as a boundary separating past from future. Time expressions fall into "present-oriented" (**absolutive**) and "non-present-oriented" (**non-absolutive**) **categories**.

Absolutive time refers to three spheres: the present (including the moment itself), the past (retrospective), and the future (prospective). In contrast, non-absolutive expressions do not orient events towards the present and can be relative, showing relationships between multiple events (e.g. *after that, at the same time*), or factual, denoting specific historical moments (e.g. *during the First World War*).

The grammatical expression of time is achieved in two stages: firstly, through opposing past and present tenses, where the past form is marked as the absolutive primary time; secondly, by contrasting future forms with non-future forms, establishing prospect. The

evaluation of processes occurs relative to the moment of speech, with formal opposition represented by dentals for regular verbs and phonemic shifts for irregular ones.

The primary time category divides tense forms into present and past planes and introduces two futures: future of the present and future of the past. For example:

Jill returns from her driving class at five o'clock.

At five Jill returned from her driving class.

I know that Jill will return from her driving class at five o'clock.

I knew that at five Jill would return from her driving class.

The past-present system is marked by do-forms in interrogative and negative constructions, limited to past and present but not future. The present time represents the moment of speaking and its subjective assessment. For instance, "*Now while I am speaking*" depicts the speaking process as continuous. The verbal form indicates a past event as physically disconnected from the present, while adverbials present it within a broader temporal context.

In terms of "*shall/will + infinitive*" O. Jespersen suggests that both retain their modal meanings. L. S. Barkhudarov argues these forms can convey both future and past ("future-in-the-past"). The category of prospect illustrates an after-action versus a non-after-action. The opposition between after-action (future) and non-after-action defines the prospective time category.

Modern British English traditionally denotes *shall* for the first person and *will* for others, while American English employs *will* uniformly for all persons. Examples showcasing will include: "*I will call for you and your young man at seven oclock.*" With shall: "*You never know what may happen. I shan't have a minute's peace.*" The first person *will* indicates a voluntary future, whereas *shall* represents a non-voluntary future.

Neutralization occurs when primary time forms shift to express future actions as per plans. Examples include: "*The government meets in emergency session today...*" Reconstruction yields: "*The government will meet in emergency session.*"

Analogous constructions of tense further illustrate the conditional nature of future assertions, often expressed with modal verbs which reflect attitudes rather than actions. For instance: "*There's no saying what may happen next.*" Syntactic conditions in clauses like "*If things turn out as arranged, the triumph will be all ours*" highlight this neutralization.

Examples in Russian displaying tense changes correspond to English equivalents that reflect the temporal shifts in reported speech, such as "*He said that he was learning German.*"

Questions for Revision:

1. What types of time denotations can you name? Give examples.
2. What types of opposition are revealed among tenses?
3. How many tense forms are differentiated by the category of primary time?
4. What are the three points of view concerning the status of *will* and *shall*?
5. What is the category of prospect? What types of it are differentiated?
6. What is the difference between "*I will*" and "*I shall*"?

7. What is the category of futurity option? How is it expressed?
8. What are the differences in use of *will* and *shall* in British and American English?
9. Give examples of neutralization of the category of prospective time. Explain them.
10. Give examples of sequence of tenses observance in English and in Russian. Comment on them.

2.1.13. Finite Verbs: Aspect

The aspective meaning of a verb reflects how a process is realized, regardless of timing. The category of development divides into continuous and non-continuous forms, while the category of retrospective coordination contrasts perfect and non-perfect forms. Within development, we have perfect continuous and perfect indefinite forms, while retrospective coordination includes imperfect continuous and imperfect indefinite forms. The aspective category of development is defined by the opposition of continuous verb forms against non-continuous forms, formed using "*be + -ing*" denoting actions in progress.

The evolution of views on continuous forms has gone through three phases. The traditional analysis by H. Sweet and O. Jespersen sees continuous forms as simultaneous actions:

While I was typing, Mary and Tom were chatting in the adjoining room.

In contrast, the contextual meaning of continuous can illustrate action at a specific time. I. P. Ivanova notes that the continuous combines temporal and aspective meanings. This blend highlights the relationship between time and aspect within English grammar. Finally, the oppositional approach distinguishes continuous non-perfect forms from indefinite non-perfect forms.

The category of retrospective coordination differentiates perfect forms from non-perfect ones, with perfect forms formed using "*have ... en.*" One interpretation views the perfect as a tense indicating that an action precedes another:

Grandfather has taken his morning stroll and now is having a rest on the veranda.

An alternative aspect perspective emphasizes the connection of events through the perfect:

The wind has dropped, and the sun burns more fiercely than ever.

The functional meaning of the perfect form illustrates priority across different tenses and contrasts with non-perfect forms.

Neutralization occurs when the imperfect fills the position of retrospective coordination:

"*I feel exactly like you,*" *she said,* "*only different, because after all I didn't produce him.*"

The perfect is often neutralized with verbids when their meanings do not require its form. The perfect infinitive with modal verbs also conveys probabilities:

He may have warned Christine, or again, he may not have warned her.

The modal verb *will* used with a perfect indicates anticipatory statements regarding known facts:

"*You will no doubt have heard, Admiral Morgan, that Lord Vaughan is going to replace Sir Thomas Lynch as Governor of Jamaica,*" *Charles said.*

Overall, the relationship between perfect and continuous forms reflects their connection through aspectuality within the English language.

Questions for Revision:

1. What are the stages of analysis of the continuous forms?
2. What verbids represent the category of development? Give examples of the sentences.
3. Give examples of neutralization in the category of development.
4. Give examples of transposition in the category of development.
5. What approaches to the interpretation of the perfect forms can you name and what are their main ideas?
6. Give examples of neutralization in the category of retrospect.
7. What verbids represent the category of retrospect? Give examples of the sentences.
8. Give the general description of the category of development: why it is called in such a way; what the categorial meaning is; what constituent parts make up the opposition; what forms of a verb express this category.
9. Give the general description of the category of retrospect: why it is called in such a way; what the categorial meaning is; what constituent parts make up the opposition; what forms of a verb express this category.
10. What temporal and aspective oppositions are differentiated and what are the names of the categories they express?

2.1.14. Finite Verbs: Voice

The verbal category of voice indicates the direction of the process concerning the participants in the syntactic construction, establishing an opposition between the passive (strong member) and the active (weak member) forms. The passive voice is formed using *be* (or *get*, *have*) followed by the past participle of the conjugated verb. Examples illustrate this: *Sam got licked for a good reason, though not by me*; *The young violinist became admired by all.*

In English, the passive can apply to transitive verbs, intransitive objective verbs, and prepositional verbs. More examples include: *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.*

However, statal verbs do not form passive constructions, such as *have*, *belong*, *cost*, *resemble*, and *fail*. Verbs are categorized into passivized and non-passivized sets. The category of voice is well-defined, supported by three grounds:

1. The integral categorial presentation of non-passivized verbs aligns with that of passivized verbs in the active voice (e.g. *takes – goes, is taking – is going*).
2. The active voice, while considered weak, does not denotate strictly active meaning, instead signifying a broad range of non-passive meanings (e.g. *The door opens inside the room; The magazine doesn't sell well*).
3. The boundary between passivized and non-passivized verbs is flexible, with certain verbs moving between categories based on context (e.g. *The bed has not been slept in; The house seems not to have been lived in for a long time*).

The tense-aspect system demonstrates a neutralizing effect on development, particularly in the absence of future continuous passive and perfect continuous passive forms, such as:

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.

The speaker's subjective appraisal of a situation changes with voice; for instance, "*The guards dispersed the crowd in front of the Presidential Palace*" emphasizes the guards' action, while "*The crowd in front of the Presidential Palace was dispersed by the guards*" focuses on the crowd's experience. The voice category closely relates to syntax and can feature objects where the subject is unknown or intentionally omitted (e.g. *Another act of terrorism has been committed in Argentina; Dinner was announced, and our conversation stopped*).

In verbids, the passive infinitive shows process characterizing its object (e.g. *This is an event never to be forgotten → This event will never be forgotten*), while gerundial phrases suppress the indefinite subject (e.g. *After being wrongly delivered, the letter found its addressee at last → After the letter had been wrongly delivered, it found its addressee at last*). Passive participial constructions stress resultative processes (e.g. *The enemy batteries having been put out of action, our troops continued to push on the offensive → When the enemy batteries had been put out of action, our troops continued to push on the offensive*), and past participles indicate passive meaning (e.g. *Seen from the valley, the castle on the cliff presented a fantastic sight → When it was seen from the valley, the castle on the cliff presented a fantastic sight*).

"**Medial**" **voices** function outside traditional passive or active meanings; for example, "*I will shave and wash, and be ready for breakfast in half an hour.*" **Reflexive verbs** indicate that the subject is its own object (e.g. *I will shave myself, wash myself; Mary hasn't dressed herself up yet; Your son is thoroughly preparing himself*).

Reciprocal actions can be expressed with pronouns, showing mutual activities (e.g. *The friends will be meeting one another; Nellie and Christopher divorced each other; Phil is quarrelling with Glen*). Reflexive and reciprocal usages can be termed "**reflexivised**" and "**reciprocalised**."

Lastly, the "middle" voice suggests that actions expressed by transitive verbs are limited to the subject, not through active self-performance but as if they occur independently.

An example is: "*She was delightful to look at*" or "*You have explained so fully everything there is to explain that there is no need for me to ask questions.*" The passive voice expresses action; states are noted with nominal predicates (e.g. *The door was closed by the butler as softly as could be; The door on the left was closed*). Context influences the voice, either suppressing or stimulating it, as shown in variations with action-modifying adverbials and verb forms. For instance: *The fence is painted → The fence is painted light green → The fence will be painted → The fence has just been painted*.

Questions for Revision:

1. What does the verbal category of voice show and what are the members of the opposition in this category?
2. What verbs cannot be used in the passive voice?
3. What are the cases when the category of development is neutralized in the passive voice and why?
4. What are the cases when the object-experience-featuring is achieved? Give examples.
5. Are the categorial functions of the passive sustained in the verbids? If yes, in which? Give examples.
6. What are the reflexivised verbs? Give examples.
7. What are the reciprocalised verbs? Give examples.
8. What verbs are treated as "middle" voice? Give examples.
9. How are the passive voice form of a verbs and a nominal predicate differentiated?
10. What is the other branch of grammar which the category of voice is connected with?

2.1.15. Finite Verbs: Mood

The main contributions of the research pertain to the significance of the functional plane of any category, the subtle paradigmatic correlations that develop into changeable forms, and the sentence-constructional value of the verb and its mood. Scholars such as A. I. Smirnitsky, B. A. Ilyish, G. N. Vorontsova, L. S. Barkhudarov, and I. B. Khlebnikova have explored these areas. The category of mood reflects the connection between the verb's process and reality, distinguishing between factual occurrences and imaginary scenarios.

A functional opposition is noted between oblique mood forms (unreality) as the strong member and direct mood forms (reality) as the weak member. Two main presentations of the mood category exist: a formal and a functional one, with the semantic content determining whether the action is real or unreal. The verb *be* exemplifies this distinction with sentences like "*Be it as you wish*" showcasing the oblique mood form.

Other verbs also express the oblique mood, especially in the third person singular without *-(e)s*, and modal verbs are typical in this mood, as seen in "*Happen what may*", "*It is important that he arrive*" and "*The agreement stipulates that the goods pass customs free.*" These sentences demonstrate various attitudes toward the process or situation, encompassing

suggestion, recommendation, and command. The term "**spective mood**" is proposed for the traditionally termed "**subjunctive**."

The Imperative Mood is formulated through the infinitive stem for the second person: "*Be on your guard!*" and "*Do be careful with the papers!*" This mood shows the properties of attitudes, easily transformed to express requests or demands, such as "*Be off!*" becoming "*I demand that you be off.*" The infinitive stem conveys present tense time but can also represent past contexts, as in "*It was recommended that the elections start on Monday.*"

Three general expressions of attitudes include *may/might + infinitive*, which expresses wishes; *should + infinitive*, which conveys supposition or suggestion; and *let + objective substantive + infinitive*, used for inducement.

Modal spective mood forms include desirative (may-spective), considerative (should-spective), and imperative (let-spective) types. The timing of processes is expressed relatively through aspective categories, where the perfect denotes relative past.

The occasional use of the perfect with the imperative highlights an urgency to complete the action or a time limit transgressed. An example of a complex sentence with subjunctive expressions would be: "*I wish her plans might succeed.*" This construction showcases present simultaneous or past priority through various transformations mimicking logical procedures.

The subjunctive further rests on the tense-retrospect shift, governing both present and past subjunctives. The differences between subjunctive and indicative moods lie in fundamental semantic features, revealing causative relationships within conditional statements.

The subjunctive mood encompasses two sets of forms according to structural divisions: present and past, forming four types: pure-spective, modal spective, stipulative conditional, and consecutive conditional. The pure forms are labeled subjunctive one (spective), subjunctive two (stipulative), and subjunctive three (consective). The modal spective aligns with the functional nature contrasting the three pure forms.

These systems are further complicated by neutralizations of contrasts in reported speech, fluctuating auxiliary uses, and variabilities of finite be forms.

Questions for Revision:

1. What does the category of mood express?
2. How is the spective mood expressed? What is its function?
3. What is the difference between the imperative and the spective moods? Give examples.
4. Name the generalized expressions of attitudes the semantic of which is identical to the one of the spective mood. Give examples.
5. What is the feature of the way the modal spective forms express the timing of the process?
6. What are the forms of the past subjunctive?
7. What is the function of the past subjunctive? What is another term used to denote this form of the verb?
8. Describe the forms of the past unposterior and past posterior. What are the peculiarities of their use in the sentence?
9. Why is the past posterior also called consective?
10. What are the subjunctive one, two and three? Give their other names and examples.

2.2. Seminars

Seminar 1. The Grammatical Classes of Words: Understanding the Structure and Function of Language

Seminar Objective: the primary goal of this seminar is to delve into the intricate system of grammatical classes – commonly known as parts of speech – exploring their formal, semantic, and functional characteristics. Participants will gain a deeper understanding of how these classes interact within the linguistic framework, influencing the way we construct and comprehend sentences. The seminar aims to enhance participants' theoretical knowledge of grammar, improving their language skills and analytical capabilities.

Topics for Presentations:

1. **Introduction to Grammatical Classes of Words: An Overview of Parts of Speech.**

This presentation will provide a foundational understanding of the grammatical classes of words, introducing participants to the concepts of notional and functional parts of speech and their significance in linguistic analysis.

2. **Semantic, Formal, and Functional Criteria: The Three Dimensions of Word Classification.**

Examining the three criteria for word classification – semantic, formal, and functional – this presentation will highlight how each criterion contributes to our understanding of language structure and use.

3. **Nouns in Focus: Characteristics and Functions.**

A detailed exploration of the noun as a part of speech, discussing its categorial meaning, inflectional forms, and syntactic functions within a sentence, along with subcategories such as proper/common and countable/uncountable nouns.

4. **The Role of Adjectives: Property and Description in Language.**

This presentation will analyze adjectives, highlighting their categorial meanings, degrees of comparison, and their roles within the sentence, including how they modify nouns.

5. **Verbs: The Engines of Sentences.**

Focusing on verbs, this presentation will cover their categorial meanings (finite vs. non-finite), forms, and functions within sentences, including an exploration of their subcategories such as transitive/intransitive and actional/statal.

6. **Exploring Pronouns: Indication and Substitution in Language.**

A discussion on the various types of pronouns, their categorial meanings, and their function as substitutes for nouns and other parts of speech, illustrating their importance in maintaining cohesion in discourse.

7. **Adverbs: Modifying Actions and Properties.**

This presentation will delve into adverbs, examining their categorial meaning, degrees of comparison, and their functions as modifiers that enhance the information conveyed by verbs and adjectives.

8. **Functional Parts of Speech: The Glue of Language Structure.**

An exploration of functional parts of speech such as articles, prepositions, and conjunctions, this presentation will highlight their roles in establishing relationships and providing structural meaning within sentences.

9. **Challenges of Classifying Lexical Items: Ambiguities and Gray Areas.**

This discussion will address the complexities involved in applying the three-criteria classification to certain lexemes that defy simple categorization, such as modal verbs and auxiliary verbs.

10. **The Syntactico-Distributional Approach: Understanding Word Combinability.**

An overview of the syntactico-distributional classification of words and its significance in understanding how words function together in sentences, emphasizing the importance of word positions.

11. **Subcategorization in Notional Parts of Speech: Expanding the Lexical Network.**

A closer look at the subcategorization of nouns, verbs, and adjectives, highlighting the diversity within each class and how these distinctions impact sentence construction.

12. **Lexical Paradigms: The Four-Stage Series of Nomination in Language.**

This presentation will analyze the concept of lexical paradigms and the four-stage series of nomination, discussing its implications for understanding the relationships between different parts of speech.

Seminar 2. Understanding Nouns: An In-Depth Exploration of Their Functions, Classifications, and Unique Features in English

Seminar Objective: the goal of this seminar is to provide participants with a comprehensive understanding of the noun as a vital part of speech in the English language. Through a deep dive into the grammatical, semantic, and syntactic properties of nouns, participants will enhance their linguistic knowledge and ability to analyze and utilize nouns effectively in both written and spoken English.

Topics for Presentations:

1. **The Role of Nouns in Language: A Study of Substantivization and Nomination.**

This presentation will explore how nouns serve as the primary lexemic units for representing substance and their capacity to substantivize various linguistic forms.

2. **Functional Properties of Nouns: Subjects, Objects, and Beyond.**

An analysis of the categorical functional properties of nouns, including their roles as subjects and objects in sentences, as well as additional syntactic functions.

3. **Combinability and Syntax: The Unique Interactions of Nouns with Other Parts of Speech.**

This discussion will focus on the various types of noun combinability, including prepositional, possessive, and sheer contact constructions.

4. **Noun Family Dynamics: Exploring Gender and Its Implications in English Grammar.**

A thorough examination of the concept of gender in nouns, the critiques about its existence, and how gender influences pronoun use and noun classification.

5. **The Complexity of Number in Nouns: Singular, Plural, and Beyond.**

This presentation will discuss the grammatical category of number in nouns, including singular and plural forms, exceptions, and the nuances of countable and uncountable nouns.

6. **Understanding Noun Cases: The Morphological and Semantic Dimensions of English Nouns.**

A detailed look into the category of case within nouns, emphasizing the possessive/genitive case and its relationship with other grammatical forms in English.

7. **Lexicalisation in Language: The Transformation of Nouns from Uncountable to Countable and Its Implications.**

An exploration of how certain nouns change their status from uncountable to countable through lexicalisation and the contextual meanings involved.

8. **An Examination of Compound Nouns: Isolability Tests and Linguistic Controversies.**

This presentation will provide insights into the concept of compound nouns versus contact nouns, examining the linguistic arguments surrounding their classification.

9. **Semantic Variations in Nouns: The Intricacies of Singular and Plural Meanings.**

A discussion on how plurality can change meanings and the different semantic types that plural nouns can express, contrasting them with their singular counterparts.

10. **Professional Language and Nouns: The Evolution, Usage, and Combinability in Technical Jargon.**

This presentation will analyze how nouns are used within specialized fields, focusing on the language of science and technology, and the characteristics of contact nouns in professional contexts.

Seminar 3. Exploring the Role of Articles in English Language: A Grammatical Perspective

Seminar Objective: the primary goal of this seminar is to delve into the intricacies of articles in the English language, examining their grammatical, semantic, and situational functions. Participants will engage in a comprehensive analysis of articles, focusing on their classification, usage, and significance within various contexts, promoting a deeper understanding of their role in noun determination and communication.

Topics for Presentations:

1. **The Nature of Articles: A Grammatical Overview.**

This presentation will introduce the fundamental characteristics of articles, providing a foundational understanding of their functions within the English language.

2. **Definite vs. Indefinite Articles: Semantic Distinctions and Implications.**

An analysis of the unique semantic roles played by definite and indefinite articles, illustrating how they influence the interpretation of nouns in communication.

3. **The Role of Context in Article Usage: Situational Analysis.**

Exploring how contextual factors inform article selection, with examples highlighting the thematic and rhematic implications of article use in various sentences.

4. **Articles in Oppositional Theory: A Structural Perspective.**

This topic will focus on the oppositional theory as it relates to articles, examining the classification of articles into strong and weak members and their grammatical significance.

5. **An Exploration of the Zero Article: Meaning and Usage.**

A detailed discussion on the practical and theoretical implications of the zero article, including its role in conveying abstract generalizations and contextual meanings.

6. **The Influence of Abstract Nouns on Article Use: Generalization and Specificity.**

Investigating how abstract nouns interact with articles, emphasizing the nuances of generalization and specificity in noun phrases.

7. **Pedagogical Approaches to Teaching Articles: Best Practices for Educators.**

This presentation will offer strategies for teaching articles effectively, addressing common challenges faced by learners of English.

8. **The Evolution of Articles in English: A Historical Analysis.**

A historical overview of the development and changes in usage of articles in the English language, reflecting broader linguistic shifts over time.

9. **Articles and Determiners: Defining the Relationship.**

An exploration of the distinctions and connections between articles and other determiners, examining their roles in modifying nouns.

10. **Case Studies: Analyzing Article Usage in Literature and Everyday Communication.**

A practical approach utilizing case studies to analyze article usage in various literary works and everyday conversations, drawing insightful conclusions on their effectiveness.

Seminar 4. Exploring the Multifaceted Nature of Adjectives and Adverbs in English Grammar

Seminar Objective: The primary aim of this seminar is to delve into the intricate characteristics and functions of adjectives and adverbs within the English language. Participants will gain a comprehensive understanding of the theoretical frameworks surrounding these parts of speech, their grammatical structures, and their practical applications in both written and spoken English. The seminar will further facilitate discussions on teaching methodologies, common challenges, and advancements in the understanding of adjectives and adverbs.

Topics for Presentations:

1. **The Functionality of Adjectives in English Sentences: An In-Depth Analysis.**

This presentation will explore the various roles adjectives play in sentence construction, focusing on their dual functions as attributes and predicates.

2. **Distinguishing Between Qualitative and Relative Adjectives: Theoretical Perspectives.**

A comparative analysis of qualitative and relative adjectives, highlighting their definitions, uses, and differences, along with examples to illustrate each category.

3. **The Morphological Category of Comparison in Adjectives: Forms and Functions.**

An examination of the degrees of comparison in adjectives, including the synthetical and analytical forms, and their implications for meaning and emphasis.

4. **Adverbial Modifiers: Types, Combinability, and Their Functions in Communication.**

This discussion will cover various categories of adverbs, their combinability characteristics, and how they modify verbs and adjectives in real-life contexts.

5. **The Relationship Between Adjectives and Adverbs: Bridging the Gap.**

A critical look at how adjectives and adverbs interact, including the implications of adjective-derived adverbs and the significance of their evaluative functions.

6. **Teaching Strategies for Adjectives and Adverbs in the ESL Classroom.**

Practical insights into effective pedagogical approaches for teaching adjectives and adverbs to English as a Second Language (ESL) learners, addressing common pitfalls and misconceptions.

7. **The Role of Adverbial Syntax in Contemporary English: A Structural Approach.**

An exploration of the structural aspects of adverb placement in sentences, examining how syntax influences meaning and clarity of expression.

8. **Exploring the Concept of Statives: Adjectives, Adverbial Functionality, and State Representation.**

A presentation that investigates stative adjectives, their unique characteristics, and how they convey states rather than qualities, supported by real-world examples.

9. **Nuanced Forms of Comparison: Evaluating Extremal and Non-comparable Adjectives.**

A thorough discussion on adjectives that defy traditional degrees of comparison, focusing on those that exhibit inherent superlative semantics and their implications in expression.

10. **Semantic Idiomatism: The Role of Analytical Degrees of Comparison in English Adjectives.**

An analysis of how analytical forms of comparison function as semantic units, including their distinctive attributes that differentiate them from synthetical forms.

Seminar 5. Understanding the Complexities of Finite Verbs in English: A Comprehensive Exploration

Seminar Objective: the aim of this seminar is to provide an in-depth understanding of finite verbs in the English language, focusing on their categories, functions, and the intricate relationships between person, number, tense, aspect, voice, and mood. Participants will engage in discussions and presentations that highlight the grammatical structures and their significance in effective communication.

Topics for Presentations:

1. **Finite vs. Non-Finite Verbs: Understanding the Distinction.**

An exploration of finite and non-finite verbs, defining their roles and grammatical implications in English sentences.

2. **The Role of Tense in Finite Verbs: A Temporal Framework.**

An analysis of how tense impacts the meaning of verbs in various contexts, including examples of absolute and relative time expressions.

3. **Aspect in English Verbs: Continuous vs. Non-Continuous Forms.**

A study of the aspectual distinctions in verbs, focusing on the continuous and perfect forms, and their significance in expressing actions.

4. **The Grammatical Categories of Voice: Active and Passive Structures.**

An examination of the voice category in English, discussing how the active and passive constructions influence sentence meaning and structure.

5. **Exploring Mood in Finite Verbs: Subjunctive, Indicative, and Imperative.**

A detailed presentation on the various moods in English and their implications for expressing reality, speculation, and commands.

6. **Person and Number Agreement in Finite Verbs: Implications for Sentence Structure.**

An investigation of how person and number influence verb agreement within sentences, featuring examples from contemporary usage.

7. **The Function of Modality in Finite Verbs: Expressing Possibility and Necessity.**

An overview of modal verbs and their impact on the expression of necessity, possibility, and obligation within the English language.

8. **Verb Valency and Its Role in Syntactic Structure.**

A presentation focusing on the concept of verb valency, discussing obligatory and optional complements and how they shape sentence meaning.

9. **Transformational Grammar: Applying Theory to Finite Verbs.**

An exploration of transformational grammar concepts as they pertain to finite verbs, including examples of transformations that highlight verb function.

10. **Practical Applications: Using Finite Verbs Effectively in Academic Writing.**

A workshop-style presentation aimed at providing participants with strategies for effectively incorporating finite verbs in academic and formal writing.

2.3. Practical Tasks

1. Do the test.

1. By what means is the category of gender expressed in English?
    a) by the obligatory correlation of nouns with the personal pronouns of the masculine subclass;
    b) by the obligatory correlation of nouns with the personal pronouns of the feminine subclass;
    c) by the obligatory correlation of nouns with the personal pronouns of the first person;
    d) by the obligatory correlation of nouns with the personal pronouns of the third person.

2. What groups are the absolute plural forms divided into?
    a) set absolute plural and non-set absolute plural;
    b) regular absolute plural and irregular absolute plural;
    c) collective absolute plural and individual absolute plural;
    d) common absolute plural and multitude absolute plural.

3. By what forms can the absolute plural be represented within functional oppositional reduction?
    a) uncountable nouns in the form of the singular, uncountable nouns in the form of the plural, countable nouns in the form of the plural
    b) countable nouns in the form of the singular, uncountable nouns in the form of the plural, countable nouns in the form of the plural.
    c) countable nouns in the form of the singular, collective uncountable nouns in the form of the plural, countable nouns in the form of the plural.
    d) countable nouns in the form of the singular, multitude uncountable nouns in the form of the plural, countable nouns in the form of the plural.

4. What theory counters the 3 theories about case distinction?
    a) theory of prepositional cases;
    b) limited case theory;
    c) theory of the possessive postposition;
    d) theory of positional cases.

5. What subtypes of the genitive case are differentiated within the expression of it?
    a) flexional genitive and inflexional genitive;
    b) direct genitive and oblique genitive;
    c) particle genitive and prepositional genitive;
    d) word genitive and phrase genitive.

6. What case is also called the "oblique case"?

a) the nominative case;
b) the dative case;
c) the accusative case;
d) the genitive case.

7. What is the status of the article in the English grammar theory?

a) a determiner;
b) an auxiliary element;
c) a separate word;
d) a separate part of speech.

8. What are the two cases when nouns are used without an article, from the semantic point of view?

a) when nouns express abstract generalization and uncharahterised generalization;
b) with thematic and rhematic nouns;
c) deliberately omitted and fixed uses;
d) when nouns are used with descriptive and relative attributes.

9. What is one of the three points of meaningful non-use of the article, founded on the countability characteristics?

a) before the countable noun in the singular used with the relative attribute;
b) before the countable noun in the singular used with the descriptive attribute;
c) before the countable noun in the singular taken in an abstract sense;
d) before the countable noun in the plural taken in an abstract sense.

10. What are the two subclasses of the adjectives?

a) qualitative and stative;
b) evaluative and relative;
c) qualitative and relative;
d) stative and specificative.

11. What are the functions of the adverb in the sentence?

a) adverbial modifiers and situation-“determinants”;
b) adverbial modifiers and attributes;
c) attributes and adverbial modifier of manner;
d) attributes and situation-“determinants”.

12. The spective mood is expressed by (choose 3 correct answers):

a) the infinitive of be;
b) the infinitive of any another verbs in all persons including the 3d person singular;
c) by the past plural form of the verb be in all persons including the 3d person singular;
d) the combination of a modal verb (usually may) with the infinitive of a verb.

13. What is the difference between *I will* and *I shall*?

a) *I will* indicates the future plane of the time; *I shall* indicates both the present and the future plane of the time;
b) *I will* refers to the category of primary time; *I shall* refers to the category of prospective time;
c) *I will* expresses voluntary future; *I shall* expresses non-voluntary future;
d) *I will* expresses intention or desire; *I shall* expresses promise or command on the part of the speaker.

14. What are the aspective categories ?

a) the category of perfect and the category of imperfect;
b) the category of prospect and the category of retrospect;
c) the category of continuous and the category of non-continuous;
d) the category of development and the category of retrospective coordination.

15. "Middle" voice means ...

a) that the expressed actions by the otherwise transitive verbs are confined to the subject, though not in a way of active self-transitive subject performance, but as if going on of their own accord;
b) the functioning of the voice forms in other than the passive or active meanings;
c) the passive forms of the verbs with the reflexive *self*-pronouns*;*
d) reflexive and reciprocal uses of the verbs in combination with the reflexive and reciprocal pronouns.

2. Define the notional and funtional parts of speech.

Wow; not; about; they; nice; month; fifteen; the; although; perhaps.

3. Name the four-stage lexical paradigm for the given words.

Luck; to flash; kindly; up; to remind; skinny; yarn; into; wonder; round.

4. Define the subclass of the nouns.

Shade; damage; a goose; town; Andrew; police; University of Cambridge; a politician; a star; a friend.

5. Define weak and strong members of the opposition in the category of gender of the nouns where it is possible.

Uncle – aunt; man – tree; sparrow – doctor; friend – beauty; hostess – waiter; bear – businessman; weeks – cousins; Russia – president; ship – baby; crowd – situation.

6. ***Define weak and strong members of the opposition in the category of number of the nouns.***

Shoe – shoes; ox – oxen; sky – skies; colour – colours; peace – government; money – trousers; two items of news – elephant; courage – several cases of rickets; family – linguistics; family members – bit of information.

7. Open the brackets and comment on the choice of the case of the nouns.

1. A lettercard penned by (one + the Titanic + most well-known survivors) from onboard the ship, days before it sank, has sold for $399,000 at auction.
2. In the note, written to (the seller + great-uncle) on April 10, 1912, (first-class + passenger + Archibald Gracie) wrote of the ill-fated steamship.
3. It is a fine ship but I shall await my (journeys + end) before I pass judgment on her.
4. The letter was sold to a private collector from the United States on Saturday, according to (auction + house + Henry Aldridge & Son) in Wiltshire, England.
5. (Gracie + book) is seen as one of the most detailed accounts of (events + night) the ship sank.
6. Henry Aldridge & Son put up (dozens + Titanic + items) up for auction this month.
7. They include a (pocket + watch) and a (third + class + ticket) belonging to two passengers who both died in the disaster.
8. (Pocket + watches) previously owned by (Titanic + passengers) have sold for huge amounts at (Henry Aldridge & Son + auctions) before.
9. (Price + item) had broken a (record + set) earlier in the year.
10. He went on to write "The Truth about the Titanic" (account + experiences), when he returned to New York City.

8. Explain the use of the article (definite, indefinite, non-use of the article) in the sentences.

1. A runaway dog named Valerie has been captured after a 529-day adventure, transfixing Australia as she roamed an island teeming with kangaroos, possums, koala bears and penguins.
2. The miniature dachshund had eluded searchers on Kangaroo Island since November 2023, only rarely appearing in fuzzy glimpses caught by night-time cameras that showed her pink collar.
3. "Valerie has been safely rescued and is alive and well," the wildlife group that spent months tracking the wily canine on the southern Australian island said late Friday.
4. "We are absolutely thrilled and deeply relieved that Valerie is finally safe and able to begin her transition back to her loving parents" Kangala Wildlife Rescue posted on social media, along with a brief video clip of the pooch.
5. Valerie made her escape during a camping trip with owners Georgia Gardner and her partner Josh Fishlock, dashing out of a pen and into the bush.
6. Her owners gave up after days of searching on the island, which spans more than 4,400 square kilometres (1,700 square miles) of farms, nature reserves and craggy cliffs.
7. The missing mutt was not seen for more than a year, with many holding out little hope for her survival.
8. Then, video surveillance and locals began spotting her, and volunteers launched a patient hunt for the hound, which seemed to flee from people and cars.
9. "Valerie seems impossible to trap," wildlife rescuers posted on social media last month.
10. Investing more than 1,000 hours, volunteer searchers drove more than 3,100 miles and deployed cameras, traps and lures.

9. Define the types of the adjectives.

Hungry; healthy; mathematical; scientific; western; empty; giant; thundering; oceanic; towering.

10. Define the types of the adverbs.

Probably; therefore; simply; upside-down; ashore; many-fold; coolly; away; round; hardly.

11. Define the valency of the verbs.

1. Yes, I live in this house over there.
2. I like Atlanta.
3. They had been dating for seven years by the time they got engaged.
4. I wanted you to choose me.
5. A man who looks like an older version of you appears in a flash.
6. Wearing bows was her favorite thing to do.
7. I don't get you.
8. I have seen the real you.
9. Why did you come?
10. Why on earth would you wear a tie like that?

12. Define the non-finite verbs in the sentences.

1. Your coming here is very desirable.
2. I saw her crossing the street
3. Mark watched them climb the hill.
4. You may rely on my coming back.
5. The men were seen cutting trees
6. We consider him to be the best student in our school.
7. They were afraid of my finding out the truth.
8. The weather permitting, we shall go to the country
9. The rider was noticed to disappear in the distance.
10. They told us of Peter's coming there

13. Define the person and number of the verbs in the sentences where it is possible.

1. Water boils at 100 degrees Celsius.
2. By next year, I will have been working here for a decade.
3. They were eating dinner at 8 pm.
4. Unworthy though thou art, I'll cope with thee.
5. They are playing football.
6. She will have finished her homework by dinner time.
7. They had been playing football for an hour before it started to rain.
8. I thought thou hadst been resolute.

9. We shall stay in London.
10. I have finished my homework.

14. Define the strong and weak members of the opposition in the categories of verbal tense where it is possible.

1. It was warm. – I am reading an interesting book at the moment.
2. This time last year I was living in Brazil. – I have just head lunch.
3. In summer John usually plays tennis once a week. – We have been waiting for an hour.
4. I had never flown before. – Sarah arrived at the party.
5. We had been playing for about half an hour. – I have never seen her before.
6. What did you do at the weekend? – What were you doing at 10 o'clock last night?
7. It didn't rain last week. – Shall I open the window?
8. I will have an orange juice, please. – Have you seen Ann recently?
9. I shall be tires this evening. – She will have gone to work.
10. It would be great to live by the sea. – I will phone him back.

15. Define the strong and weak members of the opposition in the categories of verbal aspect in ex. 14 where it is possible.

16. Define the strong and weak members of the opposition in the categories of verbal voice where it is possible.

1. The company employs two hundred people. – A lot of money was stolen in the robbery.
2. I'm not often invited to the parties. – Somebody is cleaning the room at the moment.
3. Something must be done before it's too late. – We will give the police information.
4. A new supermarket is going to be built next year. – The library was built in 1930.
5. You will be given plenty of time to decide. – Have you heard the news?
6. I'm being served. – I won't be late.
7. I don't like people telling me what to do. – I don't like being told what to do.
8. He is a mystery man. – Nothing is known about him.
9. Have you been shown the new machine? – Did they have a car?
10. We'll get married and go back to my village. – I have my clothes dry-cleaned once a month.

17. Define the strong and weak members of the opposition in the categories of verbal mood where it is possible.

1. I wish I **were** 10 years older. – We **went** home early in the evening.
2. If it **rains**, I **will stay** at home. – I wish you **would speak** rationally.
3. Though all the world **be** false, still will I be true. – **Be** quiet and **hear** what I tell you.
4. If I **were** ill I **should like** to be nursed by you. – **Don't make** a noise.
5. **Let's go** and **have** some fresh coffee. – I **felt** as if the visit **had diminished** the separation between Ada and me.

6. The house **was** too big. – **May** you **live** long!
7. If only he **were** free! – This book **sells** well.
8. I **am leaving** tonight. – Whenever you **may come**, you **are** welcome.
9. I **have** just **written** to him. – It **is** obligatory that he **should come**.
10. She **shook** hands with him as though they **had known** each other all their lives. – He **waited** until she **had found** the key.

18. Define the part of speech of the words in bold.

1. I was **about** to go to bed.
2. The water came **over** our knees.
3. The **above** rules and regulations apply to all students.
4. I'm going **over** to John.
5. We walked **across** the ice.
6. Shall we drive **over** and see your mother?
7. We drove **through** several towns.
8. You have to be **over** 18 to see this film.
9. There are cheap flights at weekends: see **over**.
10. She's well **above** average in intelligence.

19. Analyze the use of the adjectives in the sentences. Mind their type and possible position.

1. The new secretary doesn't like me.
2. She looks rich.
3. The baby's asleep.
4. You look ill.
5. I'll get the car ready.
6. It's the only solution possible.
7. We are looking for people who are skilled in design.
8. I have as good voice as you.
9. I couldn't afford that big a car.
10. He lived in the next house to the Royal Hotel.

20. Do an extra research on one of the topics:

1. The role of lexical meaning of the article in formation of the definite / indefinite meaning of the noun.
2. Communicative function of the article.
3. Nominative and morphological functions of the article.
4. Word-building function of the article.
5. Syntactic function of the article.
6. Particles.

21. Transform the following sentences from active to passive voice. Be sure to maintain the same meaning and tense.

1. The committee will announce the results of the election tomorrow.
2. The chef prepared a delicious meal for the guests.
3. The researchers conducted an extensive study on climate change.
4. The teacher will grade the papers by next week.
5. The author wrote a best-selling novel last year.
6. The scientist discovered a new species in the rainforest.
7. The manager will review the project proposals this week.
8. The children played the game in the park.
9. The photographer captured stunning images of the sunset.
10. The volunteers painted the community center last Saturday.

22. Read the following sentences and indicate whether they are in active voice, passive voice, or a middle voice construction. Also, identify the mood (subjunctive, indicative, or imperative) of each sentence.

1. The project has been completed ahead of schedule.
2. She admires her brother's dedication to his work.
3. The flowers bloom beautifully in spring.
4. You should try to improve your grades this semester.
5. The song was sung by the choir during the ceremony.
6. The dishes were washed by the children after dinner.
7. He will finish his report by tomorrow.
8. If I were a bird, I would fly across the sea.
9. Please submit your assignments by Friday.
10. A new law was proposed by the government recently.

23. Based on the provided prompts, create sentences using the indicated voice (active, passive, or reflexive) and demonstrate an understanding of voice through transformation:

1. The teacher explained the topic to the students. Voice: Passive
2. The baby will cry when hungry. Voice: Reflexive
3. The dog chased the cat across the yard. Voice: Passive
4. The teams shared the trophy after the match. Voice: Reciprocal
5. The concert was delayed by heavy rain. Voice: Active
6. The chef prepared a delicious meal for the guests. Voice: Passive
7. The children built a sandcastle at the beach. Voice: Passive
8. The writer wrote a captivating novel. Voice: Passive
9. The committee approved the new policy. Voice: Passive
10. The players congratulated each other after the game. Voice: Reciprocal

24. Read each sentence and identify the mood of the verb(s) used (indicative, subjunctive, or imperative).

1. If I were you, I would take that job.
2. Please turn off the lights before you leave.
3. She wishes that he were here to celebrate with us.
4. The committee recommends that the proposal be revised.
5. He knows that she has already left for the day.
6. I suggest that he study harder for the upcoming exam.
7. Make sure to lock the door before you leave.
8. It seems that they are happy with the results.
9. If only she were able to attend the concert.
10. Please send me the report by the end of the week.

25. Transform the following sentences from one mood to another as indicated. Be mindful of maintaining the original meaning of the sentence where possible.

Change to Subjunctive: It is necessary that she attends the meeting.
Change to Imperative: You should complete your assignment on time.
Change to Indicative: I wish I were at the beach now.
Change to Subjunctive: He demands that they finish the project.
Change to Imperative: You must hurry to catch the train.
Change to Subjunctive: It is important that she knows the details.
Change to Imperative: You ought to review your notes before the test.
Change to Indicative: If I were rich, I would travel the world.
Change to Subjunctive: The teacher insists that he studies every day.
Change to Imperative: You need to finish your chores before dinner.

26. Fill in the blanks with the appropriate form of the verb in parentheses, using either the subjunctive mood or the imperative mood as needed.

1. It is crucial that he _____ (be) informed about the changes made to the schedule.
2. _____ (not worry) about the test; you have studied hard!
3. I wish she _____ (join) us for dinner tonight.
4. The teacher insists that everyone _____ (submit) their work by Friday.
5. _____ (remember) to bring your notes when you come to class!
6. It is necessary that you _____ (be) on time for the meeting.
7. Try _____(not / stress) over the little things; focus on what you can control.
8. I wish it _____ (be) possible for us to travel together next month.
9. The coach requires that the players _____ (attend) all practices.
10. _____ (Take) your time when answering the questions; there's no rush!

27. Read the following sentences and identify the gender categories of the nouns in parentheses. Indicate whether they are masculine, feminine, neuter, or common gender. Write your answers in the space provided.

1. The (_____) is playing with her toys in the garden.
   (Hint: use a noun that refers to a child.)
2. The (_____) chased the butterfly across the field.
   (Hint: use a noun that refers to a small creature.)
3. Our (_____) will be discussing important policies at the meeting tomorrow.
   (Hint: use a noun that can refer to either gender in a common role.)
4. The (_____) was standing proud amidst the flowers in the meadow.
   (Hint: use a noun that refers to a male animal, traditionally.)
5. She is my best (_____) and has always supported me.
   (Hint: use a noun that can refer to either gender in a common role.)
6. The (_____) is preparing dinner for the family.
   (Hint: use a noun that can refer to either gender in a household role.)
7. The (_____) flew gracefully in the sky, showcasing its vibrant colors.
   (Hint: use a noun that refers to a type of bird.)
8. The (_____) was elected president of the student council.
   (Hint: use a noun that can refer to either gender in a leadership role.)
9. The (_____) howled in the night, calling for its pack.
   (Hint: use a noun that refers to a male animal.)
10. They will be celebrating their (_____) together next month.
    (Hint: use a noun that can refer to either gender in a familial context.)

28. Transform the following pairs of nouns to reflect their gender counterparts where applicable. Write the transformed noun in the space provided. If no transformation is necessary because the word is gender-neutral or belongs to a non-person category, indicate "no change."

1. Actor → (_____)
2. Hen → (_____)
3. Master → (_____)
4. Friend → (_____)
5. Cow → (_____)
6. Duke → (_____)
7. Niece → (_____)
8. Bride → (_____)
9. Waiter → (_____)
10. Wizard → (_____)

29. Complete the sentences below by filling in the blanks with the correct singular or plural form of the given nouns. Pay attention to the rules and exceptions regarding countable and uncountable nouns as well as the specifics of absolute and regular forms.

1. The (_____) of the children playing in the park brought joy to the parents.
2. After the storm, the (_____) of the streets was a sight to behold.
3. The artist showcased many (_____) in her exhibition, each highlighting a different emotion.
4. As the sun set, the (_____) of the sky turned into a beautiful red hue.
5. We need to purchase several (_____) of fruit for the party.
6. The (_____) of the dog echoed through the neighborhood at night.
7. Many (_____) occur in nature that we still do not fully understand.
8. She found several (_____) scurrying across the floor in the attic.
9. The (_____) collected from the experiment provided valuable insights.
10. The (_____) of the child fell out during the night, and they were excited for the (_____) fairy.

30. Read the following sentences and identify the nouns. For each noun, categorize them as countable or uncountable and note whether they are in singular form or plural form. Additionally, analyze any special plural forms used and explain them briefly.

Example:
Noun: information (singular, uncountable).
Noun: furniture (singular, uncountable).

1. The information provided in the report was crucial for making the decision.
2. The deer grazed peacefully in the meadow as the sun began to rise.
3. There are several news articles highlighting recent events in the city.
4. She brought her scissors to cut the paper for the project.
5. The studies conducted by the researchers yielded significant results.
6. In your response, provide the categories for each noun as follows:
7. The furniture was placed against the wall in the living room.
8. The children played happily in the yard while their parents watched.
9. Water from the fountain flowed gently into the pond.
10. The equipment was set up for the demonstration tomorrow.

Chapter 3. Syntax

3.1. Lecture Notes

3.1.1. Syntagmatic Connections of Words

Performing their semantic functions, words in an utterance form various syntagmatic connections with one another.

One should distinguish between:

1) **syntagmatic groupings of notional words alone** – a clearly pronounced self-dependent nominative destination, denote complex phenomena and their properties in their inter-connections, including dynamic interconnections (semi-predicative combinations): *a sudden trembling; a soul in pain; hurrying along the stream; to lead to a cross-road; strangely familiar; so sure of their aims*;
2) **syntagmatic groupings of notional words with functional words** – non self-dependent; are artificially isolated from the context: *in a low voice; with difficulty; must finish; but a moment; and Jimmy; too cold; so unexpectedly*. They are called "formative". Their contextual dependence ("synsemantism") is quite natural; functionally they may be compared to separate notional words used in various marked grammatical forms (such as, for instance, indirect cases of nouns): Eng. *Mr. Snow's – of Mr. Snow; him – to him*; Russ. *Иванов – к Иванову; лесом – через лес*. Expanding the cited formative phrases with the corresponding notional words one can obtain notional phrases of contextually self-dependent value ("autosemantic" on their level of functioning): Eng. *Mr. Snow's considerations – the considerations of Mr. Snow; gave it him – gave it to him*; Russ. *позвонили Иванову – позвонили к Иванову; шли лесом – шли через лес*;
3) **syntagmatic groupings of functional words alone** – analogous to separate functional words and are used as connectors and specifiers of notional elements of various status: *from out of; up to; so that; such as; must be able; don't let's*.

Groupings of notional words fall into two opposite types by their grammatical and semantic properties:

Type 1 – constituted by words related to one another on an equal rank, so that neither of words serves as a modifier of the other – "equipotent" combination.

Equipotent connection is realised by conjunctions (syndetically) or without them (asyndetically): *prose and poetry; came and went; on the beach or in the water; quick but not careless; – no sun, no moon; playing, chatting, laughing; silent, immovable, gloomy; Mary's, not John's*.

Coordinative combinations are the constituents of the combinations form logically consecutive connections.

Cumulative connections are equipotent connections of a non-consecutive type, by which a sequential element, although equal to the foregoing element by its formal introduction (coordinative conjunction), is unequal to it as to the character of nomination.

"Cumulation" means connections between separate sentences. **Inner cumulation** occurs within the sentence, **outer cumulation** – out of the sentence.

Cumulative connection is signaled by intermediary punctuation stop (a comma or a hyphen): *Eng. agreed, but reluctantly; quick – and careless; satisfied, or nearly so. Russ. сыт, но не очень; согласен, или почти согласен; дал – да неохотно*.

Syndetic connection in a word-combination can alternate with asyndetic connection: *He is a little man with irregular features, soft dark eyes and a soft voice, very shy, with a gift of mimicry and a love of music*.

In enumerative combinations the last element can be introduced by a conjunction – the close of the syntagmatic series: *All about them happy persons were enjoying the good things of life, talking, laughing, and making merry*.

Type 2 – syntactically unequal words in the sense that, one of them plays the role of a modifier of the other – **dominational combination**.

Dominational connection – one of the constituents of the combination is principal (dominating) and the other is subordinate (dominated). The principal element – the "***kernel***", "kernel element", or "headword"; the subordinate element – the "*adjunct*", "adjunct-word", "expansion".

Dominational connection is achieved by:

– different forms of the word (categorial agreement, government),
– connective words (prepositions, i. e. prepositional government),
– word-order.

Dominational connection can be: *consecutive* and *cumulative*:

a careful observer – an observer, seemingly careful;
definitely out of the point – out of the point, definitely;
will be helpful in any case – will be helpful – at least, in some cases.

The two basic types of dominational connection are:

1) **bilateral** (reciprocal, two-way) domination – realised in predicative connection of words;
2) **monolateral** (one-way) domination – realised in completive connection of words.

Two basic subtypes of the syntagmatic connections of the **reciprocal domination**:

1) complete predicative connections;
2) incomplete predicative connections (semi-predicative, potentially-predicative connections).

Complete predicative connections

The predicative connection of words, uniting the subject and the predicate, builds up the basis of the sentence.

The subject and the predicate have the reciprocal connection:

– the subject dominates the predicate determining the person and number of predication (*he went – he goes – – I went – I go*),
– the predicate dominates the subject, determining the event of predication, i. e. ascribing to the predicative person some action, or state, or quality (The transformation of the sentence into the noun-phrase places the predicate in the position of the head word, and the subject, in the position of the adjunct: *The train arrived. → The arrival of the train*.).

Incomplete predicative connections

There exist partially predicative groupings formed by a combination of a non-finite verbal form (verbid) with a substantive element – infinitival, gerundial, and participial constructions.

The predicative person is expressed in the *infinitival* construction by the prepositional *for*-phrase, in the *gerundial* construction by the possessive or objective form of the substantive, in the *participial* construction by the nominative (common) form of the substantive: **The pupil understands his mistake → for the pupil to understand his mistake → the pupil('s) understanding his mistake → the pupil understanding his mistake.**

The "event"-expressing element is devoid of the formal agreement with the "person"-expressing element, but the two directions of domination remain valid by the very predicative nature of the syntactic connection (although presented in an incomplete form).

Monolateral Dominational Connections

Monolateral domination is considered as subordinative because the outer syntactic status of the whole combination is determined by the kernel element (head-word):

She would be reduced to a nervous wreck. → She would be reduced to a wreck. → She would be reduced.

That woman was astonishingly beautiful. → That woman was beautiful.

In the cited examples the head-word can be isolated through the deletion of the adjunct, the remaining construction being structurally complete, though schematic.

In other cases, the head-word cannot be directly isolated, and its representative nature is to be exposed, for instance, by diagnostic questions: *Larry greeted the girl heartily. → Whom did Larry greet? → How did Larry greet the girl?* The questions demonstrate that the verb is the kernel in its lines of connections, i. e. objective and adverbial ones.

Completive predicative connections are: *objective* connections and *qualifying* connections.

Objective connections reflect the relation of the object to the process and are characterised as very close. By their form these connections are subdivided into: ***non-prepositional*** (word-order, the objective form of the adjunct substantive) and ***prepositional***.

From the semantico-syntactic point of view they are classed as:
– ***direct*** – the immediate transition of the action to the object – non-prepositional, the preposition serving as an intermediary of combining words by its functional nature,

– ***indirect*** or ***oblique*** – the indirect relation of the object to the process – both prepositional and non-prepositional.

The objective connections may be divided into: *narrow* and *broader*.

Semantically, narrow prepositional objective connections are then to be classed together with direct objective connections, the two types forming the corresponding subclasses of non-prepositional (direct) and prepositional (indirect) narrow objective connections of words: *He remembered the man. I won't stand any more nonsense. I sympathised with the child. They were working on the problem*.

Examples of broader indirect objective connections, both non-prepositional and prepositional: *Will you show me the picture? Whom did he buy it for? Tom peeped into the hall*.

Subdivision of objective connections on the basis of subcategorising the elements of objective combinations – of all the verbs: objects of immediate action, of perception, of speaking, etc.

Objective connection may combine an adjunct substance word with a kernel word of *non-verbal semantics* (such as a state or a property word), but the meaning of some processual relation is still implied in the deep semantic base of such combinations: *aware of John's presence → am aware; crazy about her → got crazy about her; full of spite → is full of spite*.

Qualifying completive connections are divided into: ***attributive*** and ***adverbial*** – expressed by word-order and prepositions.

Attributive connection unites a substance with its attribute expressed by an adjective or a noun: *an enormous appetite; an emerald ring; a woman of strong character, the case for the prosecution*; etc.

Adverbial connection is subdivided into:

– ***primary*** – established between the verb and its adverbial modifiers of various standings: *to talk glibly, to come nowhere; to receive (a letter) with surprise; to throw (one's arms) round a person's neck,*
– ***secondary*** – established between the non-verbal kernel expressing a quality and its adverbial modifiers of various standings: *marvellously becoming; very much at ease; strikingly alike; no longer oppressive; un pleasantly querulous*.

Different ***completive noun combinations*** are distinguished by a feature that makes them into quite special units on the phrasemic level of language. They are **directly** related to whole sentences, i. e. predicative combinations of words. Compare some more examples given in the reverse order:

The arrival of the train → The train arrived.

The baked potatoes → The potatoes are baked.

The gifted pupil → The pupil has a gift.

Completive combinations of ***adjectives*** and ***adverbs*** (adjective phrases and adverb-phrases) are related to predicative constructions **indirectly**, through the intermediary stage of the corresponding noun-phrase:

utterly neglected – utter neglect – The neglect is utter;

very carefully – great carefulness – The carefulness is great;

speechlessly reproachful – speechless reproach – The reproach is speechless.

Questions for Revision:

1. What types of syntagmatic grouping are differentiated?
2. What are equipotent connections? What subtypes do they fall into?
3. What are dominational connections? What their subtypes can you name?
4. What are complete predicative connections?
5. What are the incomplete predicative connections?
6. What are the monolateral dominational connections?
7. That subtypes of the completive predicative connections can you name?
8. What types of adverbial connections are distinguished?
9. How are the completive noun combinations related to the sentence?
10. How are the completive combinations of adjectives and adverbs related to predicative constructions?

3.1.2. Sentence: General

The sentence is the immediate integral unit of speech built up of words according to a definite syntactic pattern and distinguished by a contextually relevant communicative purpose. The sentence is the main object of syntax as part of the grammatical theory.

The sentence may include only one word of various lexico-grammatical standing: *Night. Congratulations. Away! Why? Certainly*.

A word-sentence as a unit of the text is radically different from a word-lexeme as a unit of lexicon: the word is a component element of the word-stock and is a nominative unit of language; the sentence is a predicative utterance-unit.

The sentence not only names some referents with the help of its word-constituents, but also:

1) presents these referents as making up a certain situation, or a situational event;
2) reflects the connection between the nominal denotation of the event on the one hand, and objective reality on the other, showing the time of the event, its being real or unreal, desirable or undesirable, necessary or unnecessary, etc.: *I am satisfied, the experiment has succeeded. I would have been satisfied if the experiment had succeeded. The experiment seems to have succeeded – why then am I not satisfied?*

One uninflected word making up a sentence is thereby turned into an utterance-unit expressing the said semantic complex through its concrete contextual and consituational connections. Compare the different connections of the word sentence "night" in the following passages:

1. *Night. Night and the boundless sea, under the eternal star-eyes shining with promise. Was it a dream of freedom coining true?* – the utterance "*night*" refers the event to the plane of reminiscences.
2. *Night? Oh no. No night for me until I have worked through the case.* – a question in argument connected with the situation wherein the interlocutors are immediately involved.
3. *Night. It pays all the day's debts. No cause for worry now, I tell you.* – features its "*night*" in the form of a proposition of reason in the flow of admonitions.

Another difference between the sentence and the word – the sentence does not exist in the system of language as a ready-made unit; it is created by the speaker in the course of communication; it is not a unit of language proper; it is a chunk of text built up as a result of speech-making process, out of different units of language, first of all words, which are immediate means for making up contextually bound sentences, i. e. complete units of speech.

The sentence is intonationally delimited. Intonation separates one sentence from another and participates in rendering essential communicative-predicative meanings (such as, interrogation, declaration). It is especially important for sentences with more than one predicative centre, in particular more than one finite verb:

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

A sentence is defined by its specific category of predication, which establishes the relationship between named phenomena and actual life. Predication, the core distinguishing feature of a sentence, primarily involves syntactic modality, with the finite verb serving as its center. It is expressed not only through the forms of the finite verb linked to the subject but also via intonation, word order, and functional words. Predicative semantics encompass various sentence meanings relevant to communication purposes, such as declaration, interrogation, and inducement, as well as modal probability and affirmation/negation. Together, these elements allow the sentence to be identified at its own **proposemic** level within the linguistic hierarchy.

The sentence, as a linguistic unit, serves two primary signemic functions: the nominative function, which identifies substances, and the predicative function, which evaluates reality. The semantics of a sentence is a combination of its nominative and predicative aspects, while word semantics is more singular in nature. Predicative meanings alone do not account for the full semantics of a sentence; they rely on deeper nominative meanings. A key distinction between the nominative function of a sentence and that of a word is that a complete sentence reflects a processual situation or event. This includes a central action (either dynamic or static), an agent, objects involved, and the conditions or circumstances surrounding the process. The traditional identification of syntactic parts of a sentence represents its nominative division:

The pilot was steering the ship out of the harbour.

The old pilot was carefully steering the heavily loaded ship through the narrow straits out of the harbour.

No separate word can express the described situation-nominative semantics of the proposition. Even hyperbolically complicated artificial words cannot have means of organising their root components analogous to the means of arranging the nominative elements of the sentence.

The word-combinations of full nominative value represented by expanded substantive phrases directly correspond to sentences expressing typical proposemic situations:

... → The pilot's steering of the ship out of the harbour.

... → The old pilot's careful steering of the heavily loaded ship through the narrow straits out of the harbour.

Direct transformational relations between a sentence and a substantive phrase of the full nominative type highlight that a sentence, when treated as part of paradigmatics, can be transformed into a substantive phrase or "nominalized" losing its processual and predicative character. This syntactic nominalization retains the sentence's nominative aspect while stripping away its predicative nature. Predication is understood in linguistics as the expression of the relationship between an utterance and reality, reflecting how the speaker relates the content of the sentence to reality. Considering the dual aspects of a sentence as a signemic unit, predication refers the nominative content to reality.

Questions for revision:

1. What is the sentence?
2. What is the minimum number of units that the sentence can consist of?
3. What is the difference between the sentence and the utterance?
4. What are the functions of the sentence?
5. What are the functions of the intonation?
6. What are the functions of predication?
7. What is the center of predication in a sentence of verbal type?
8. What is the difference between a word and a sentence?
9. Can a word express the situation-nominative semantics of the proposition?
10. How should predication be interpreted considering the two-aspective character of the sentences?

3.1.3. Actual Division of the Sentence

The notional parts of a sentence, which reflect the basic elements of the situation described, together form what is known as the nominative meaning. This division, referred to as the "**nominative division**" can be illustrated through syntagmatic models, specifically using traditional syntactic analysis. Another perspective is the "**actual division**" of the sentence, or the "**functional sentence perspective**." This approach uncovers the significance of different sentence parts based on their informative roles within an utterance and reveals how they contribute to the overall context of connected speech.

In the actual division, the main components include **the theme**, representing the starting point of communication and existing as the subject or an object; **the rheme**, which conveys the core informative content and often corresponds to the predicate; and **transitional parts**, serving as intermediaries of varying informative value found between the theme and the rheme. For instance, in "*Max bounded forward*", "*Max*" is the theme, while "*bounded forward*" is the rheme. Similarly, in "*Again Charlie is being too clever!*", "*Again*" serves as the transitional part, "*Charlie*" as the theme, and "*is being too clever*" as the rheme. The reverse actual division occurs when the theme is expressed in the predicate and the rheme in the subject, like in "*Through the open window came the purr of an approaching motor car.*"

This division of the sentence is fully expressed only in specific speech contexts, thus termed the "contextual" division. An example of a direct actual division is "*Mary is fond of poetry.*" In contrast, an inverted actual division would be "*But you are wrong. Mary is fond of poetry, not Tim.*" The informative value of sentences resides in their ability to reveal new relationships among elements, which, while familiar to the listener, are contextually relevant.

The actual division serves to highlight the rheme's significance, using various formal means to differentiate between theme and rheme, including word-order, intonation, and specific constructions. For example, in a direct construction like "*The winner of the competition stood on the platform in the middle of the hall*" the theme is at the beginning, while the rheme appears towards the end; this can be inverted in emphatic speech as in "*Utterly unbelievable it was to all of them.*" Constructions like the there-pattern help identify the subject, as seen in "*There were tall birches surrounding the lake*" while anticipatory it phrases emphasize the rheme, such as in "*It was a moment's deep consideration that Grandma gave them.*"

Antithesis in speech helps express contrasts that reveal the actual division, illustrated in "*The costume is meant not for your cousin, but for you.*" Determiners can also aid in identifying themes and rhemes; for instance, "*A man walked up and down the platform*" employs indefinite determiners where "*The man walked up and down the platform*" employs definite ones. The function of intensifying particles to characterize the rheme is clear in examples like "*Even Mr. Stores had a part in the general debate.*"

Intonation applies universally across contexts to represent the actual division, marking rheme positions. Phrasal stress, stylized in printed text, can highlight both functional and notional elements, as in "*But I am invited!*" The actual division goes hand in hand with syntactic predication, effectively connecting the nominative content of sentences to reality. This division becomes evident during dialogues through the ellipsis of thematic elements, emphasizing the rheme. When someone asks, "*You've got the letters?*" responding with "*In my bag*" highlights the informative part distinctly. The economy of speech resulting from themed reduction assists in clearly identifying the rheme of the utterance.

Questions for Revision:

1. What is the nominative division of the sentence?
2. What is the purpose of the actual division of the sentence?
3. What are the main components of the actual division of the sentence?
4. What are structural elements that serve as the formal means of expressing the distinction between the theme and the rheme?
5. What is the reverse actual division? Give examples.
6. What constructions are used to emphasize the rheme?
7. Does *there*-pattern provide emotive connotation?
8. What linguistic means are used to form certain patterns of actual division?
9. What units can be phrasally stressed in an utterance?
10. What is the result of the thematic reduction of sentences in the context?

3.1.4. Communicative Types of Sentences

The sentence functions as a communicative unit, prompting classification based on the "purpose of communication." Within linguistic tradition, three main types of sentences are recognized: declarative, imperative, and interrogative.

A declarative sentence expresses a statement, either affirmative or negative, generating responses from listeners, such as expressions of agreement or disagreement. For instance, in a dialogue, one might say, "*I think,*" *he said,* "*that Mr. Desert should be asked to give us his reasons for publishing that poem,*" *to which the listener responds,* "*Hear, hear!*". Another example includes a skeptical reaction to a declaration: "*We live very quietly here, indeed we do; my niece here will tell you the same,*" *followed by,* "*Oh, come, I'm not such a fool as that,* " *answered the squire*.

An imperative sentence expresses an inducement for the listener to perform or refrain from a specific action, inviting responses that indicate compliance or refusal. An example is, "*Let's go and sit down up there, Dinny*" to which the response is "*Very well*". Conversely, a command like "*Send him back!*" may evoke refusal, as in "*Nonsense, old chap.*" Silence after a request may also convey compliance, such as when asked to "*Knock on the wood*" and the action is performed without verbal acknowledgment.

The interrogative sentence poses a question seeking information, with an intrinsic expectation of an answer. When Mary asks, "*What do you suggest I should do, then?*" the response, "*If I were you I should play a waiting game*" completes the interaction. However, the actual communicative intent may go unmet, illustrated by the example, "*Why can't you lay off?*" *I said to her. But she didn't even notice me*.

American scholar Ch. Fries classified utterances into situation utterances (eliciting a response) and response utterances. He further categorized single free utterances into groups. The first group includes utterances followed by oral responses, such as greetings or questions; the second comprises those eliciting actions, like requests or commands; and the third involves statements that attract attention to ongoing discourse. The second and third groups align with imperative and declarative types, respectively. The first group includes heterogeneous subgroups, particularly interrogative sentences.

"Non-communicative" utterances consist of expressions not directed at any listener but indicative of emotional states, such as surprise or disgust, e.g. "O*h, oh! Goodness! My God!*" These utterances lack the structure of complete sentences and reflect emotional responses rather than communicative intents.

Exclamatory sentences can be categorized under the three cardinal types, expressed either non-exclamatorily or exclamatorily. For instance, "*What a very small cabin it was!*" contrasts with its non-exclamatory counterpart, "*It was a very small cabin.*" Exclamatory sentences tend to convey higher emotive intensity than declarative and interrogative sentences.

The actual division of declarative sentences presents the rheme as the core of the statement. For example, in the sentence "*The next instant she had recognised him*" the

corresponding question is "*What had she done the next instant?*" This clearly identifies the rheme. Similarly, testing can expose the layered structure of declarative sentences, such as: "*I knew that Mr. Wade had been very excited by something that he had found out.*"

Imperative sentences do not directly express propositions but are based upon them. An example is "*Let's go out at once!*" indicating the premise that they are currently indoors. The rheme of the imperative expression conveys an action with its contextual details. For example, in "*Put that dog down, Fleur; I can't see your face*", the thematic subject might be directly addressed.

Interrogative sentences express inquiries for information that the speaker lacks. The non-pronominal questions' open rheme suggests a choice, with examples such as "*Will you take it away or open it here?*" demonstrating how the answer confirms the nature of the question. Rhetorical questions have a declarative function despite appearing as inquiries, as shown in the example: "*Can a leopard change his spots?*" Here, the rhetorical context generates responses akin to declarative sentences.

In summary, the classification of sentences based on their communicative functions reflects the complex interplay among declarative, imperative, and interrogative types, with intermediate forms emerging from their interactions. This nuanced approach deepens our understanding of language use and communication dynamics.

Questions for Revision:

1. What cardinal sentence-types are recognized in linguistic tradition?
2. What are the three gropes of utterances according to Ch. Ffies?
3. What sentence-type is considered as an accompanying feature?
4. Does the strictly imperative sentence express any statement of fact?
5. What is the peculiarity of the rheme in the interrogative sentence?
6. What types of alternative questions are differentiated?
7. In what cardinal sentence-types may the intermediary communicative sentences be identified?
8. To what cardinal sentence-type do the responses to rhetorical questions correspond?
9. By what means is the expression of inducement in a declarative sentence achieved?
10. To what do the imperative sentences performing the function of interrogative sentences induce the listener?

3.1.5. Simple Sentence: Constituent Structure

The basic predicative meanings of English sentences are conveyed through the finite verb connected to the subject, forming the "predicative line" of the sentence. Sentences can be **monopredicative** (one predicative line) or **polypredicative** (multiple predicative lines). For instance, simple sentences each express a single predicative line, like "*Bob has never left the stadium*" or "*Opinions differ.*" However, sentences that feature multiple predicates connected to one subject are not simple; for example, in "*I took the child in my arms and held him*" there are two distinct predicative lines: my taking and my holding.

A simple sentence comprises a system of functional positions that reflect a situational event, organized hierarchically. Significant elements include the subject, predicate, object, adverbial, attribute, parenthetical enclosure, addressing enclosure, and interjectional enclosure, each performing a modifying role. An example of this organization can be seen in "*The small lady listened to me attentively*" where sentence parts are arranged based on subordination.

The model of immediate constituents (IC-model) divides sentences into subject and predicate groups, showcasing binary hierarchical relationships. This model includes various components like NP-subj (subject noun phrase) and VP-pred (predicate verb phrase). **Syntactic relationships** may be **obligatory**, essential for the syntactic unit's existence, or **optional**, which can be present or absent. For example, attributes like *small* and adverbials like *attentively* are optional.

An elementary sentence is one where all positions are obligatory, while an expanded simple sentence includes optional modifiers that do not alter the predicative line. For instance, "*The tall trees by the island shore were shaking violently in the gusty wind*" is an expanded sentence, with "*The trees were shaking*" as the key-string.

Sentences are categorized into **two-member** (both subject and predicate expressed) and **one-member constructions** (only one expressed). Examples of two-member sentences include "*The books come out of the experiences.*" One-member sentences, like "*Come on!*" suggest a subject implicitly.

One-axis sentences may only express part of the subject or predicate, such as "*Mary*" in response to "*Who will meet us at the airport?*" These structures often require contextual interpretation and include fixed constructions like greetings or affirmations. For example, "*Yes, old boy*" corresponds to "*Yes, I want you to pay for my drink, old boy.*"

In terms of semantic classification, simple sentences can be categorized based on subject categorial meanings, predicate categorial meanings, and subject-object relations, exemplified as in Figures 6, 7 and 8.

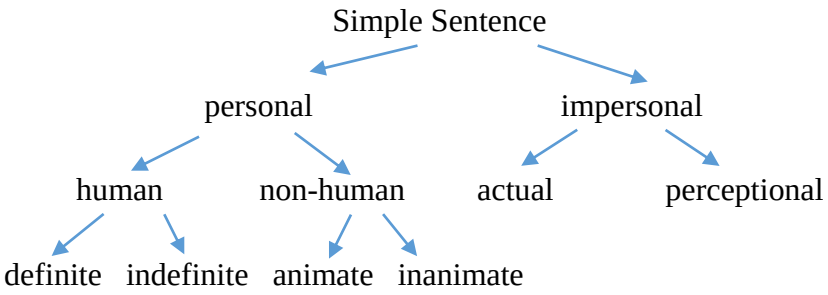


Figure 6. The categories of the subject

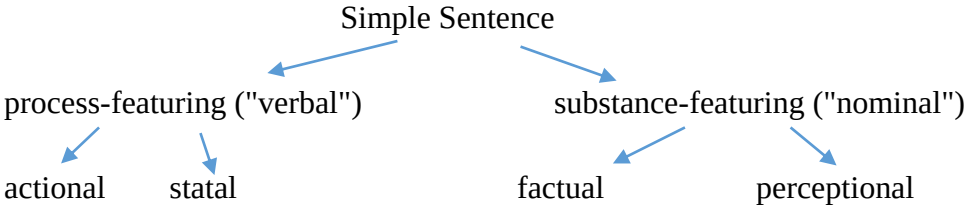


Figure 7. The categories of the predicate

Some examples:
Actional – *The window is opening.*
Statal – *The window is glistening in the sun.*
Factual – *The sea is rough.*
Perceptional – *The place seems quiet.*

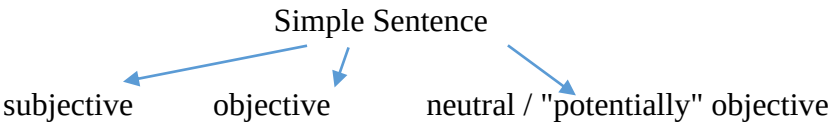


Figure 8. The Subject-Object Relation

Some examples:
Subjective – *John lives in London.*
Objective – *John reads a book.*

Neutral / "potentially" objective – *John reads*. (capable of implying both the transitive action of the syntactic person and the syntactic person's intransitive characteristic).

Questions for Revision:

1. What is the predicative line of the sentence?
2. What are the nominative parts of the sentence?
3. Are the nominative parts of the sentence arranged linearly of hierarchically?
4. What are the types of the syntagmatic connections of the parts of a sentence?
5. What is an elementary sentence? Give examples.
6. What is unexpanded simple sentence? Give examples.
7. What are the differences between two-member and one-member sentences? Give examples.
8. Describe one-axis and two-axis sentences. Give examples.
9. What types of one-axis sentences are distinguished?
10. What is the semantic classification of simple sentences?

3.1.6. Simple Sentence: Paradigmatic Structure

Paradigmatics is fundamentally expressed through systems of oppositions that create corresponding meaningful categories. Syntactic oppositions are realized through correlated sentence patterns, with observable relations described as "transformations", i.e., transitions from one pattern of certain notional parts to another pattern of the same parts. For instance, a question emerges from a statement, and a negation arises from an affirmation:

You are fond of the kid. → Are you fond of the kid?
You are fond of the kid. → You are not fond of the kid.

The ordinary affirmative statement represents a pure expression of fact, free from the speaker's connotative appraisals. A composite sentence is created from two or more simple sentences:

He turned to the waiter. + The waiter stood in the door. → He turned to the waiter who stood in the door.

Modern theories interpret these transformations as regular derivation stages similar to processes in morphology and word-building. The basic element of syntactic derivation is identified as the "*kernel sentence*" considered the foundation for paradigmatic derivation in sentence-pattern series. Syntactic derivation produces more complex constructions from these kernel patterns.

For example, the sentence "*I saw him come*" derives from two kernel sentences: *I saw him. + He came. → I saw him come.*

The derivation of genuine sentences can be analyzed as a process of elementary transformational steps, categorized into six major classes:

"*Morphological arrangement*" which involves morphological changes in the finite verb: *John + start → John starts.*

The use of functional words: *He understood my request. → He seemed to understand my request.*

Substitution: *The pupils ran out of the classroom. → They ran out of the classroom.*

Deletion: *Would you like a cup of tea? → A cup of tea?*

Positional arrangement: *The man is here. → Is the man here?*

Intonational arrangement: *We must go. → We must go?*

These processes can be applied individually or in combination, as seen in the example: *We finish the work. → We are not going to finish it.* Here, several procedures are involved: morphological change, introduction of functional words, substitution, and intonational arrangement.

In the syntactic paradigmatic system, two types of derivational relations exist: "**constructional**" **relations**, forming more complex clausal structures from simpler ones, and "**predicative**" **relations**, which create different predicative units without affecting the base's constructional volume. Constructional transformation involves "**clausalisation**," where clauses are formed using subordinators and coordinators.

The derivational processes sometimes termed "two-base transformations" combine kernel sentences. For instance, from two kernel sentences, "*They arrived*" and "*They relieved me of my fears*" we can create:

When they arrived I was relieved of my fears.

If they arrive, I shall be relieved of my fears.

They arrived, and I was relieved of my fears.

These processes can also involve "**phrasalisation**," transforming sentences into semi-predicative constructions or nominal phrases. Nominal phrases may be completely or partially nominalized. For example:

On their arrival I was relieved of my fears.

They arrived to relieve me of my fears.

The predicative system of syntactic paradigmatics deals with structural modifications that express predicative functions. An elementary sentence structure should be identified based on its notional constituents, encompassing primary sentences and their negated forms. Predicative functions can be classified as lower (expressing tense and aspect) or higher (evaluative functions).

The oppositional sets include:

– question vs. statement,
– inducement vs. statement,
– negation vs. affirmation,
– unreality vs. reality,
– probability vs. fact,
– modal identity vs. fact,
– and others.

Each opposition forms a complex categorial set resulting in a dynamic syntactic paradigm, adapting to communicative needs.

The predicative load of a sentence reflects the sum of strong predicative oppositional values represented within it. A predicatively "non-loaded" sentence is kernel elementary and free from complex functions, whereas a "loaded" sentence expresses at least one strong meaning. For example, "The thing bothers me" is predicatively "non-loaded." By adding elements, like ability or unreality, we increase the predicative load.

The predicative structure can evolve into intricate constructions, as demonstrated in sentences like:

"*The thing could not be bothered (by the thing now)*" which includes several strong oppositional values, illustrating complexity and context dependence.

Questions for Revision:

1. By what means are syntactic oppositions realized?
2. What is syntactic derivation?
3. What is deletion? Give examples.
4. What is permutation? Give examples.
5. What is clausalisation? Give exmples.
6. What is phrasalisation? Give examples.
7. What are syntactic categorial oppositions distinguished according to the principal predicative functions?
8. What is considered to be the "weakest" construction in the predicative opposition of the primary syntactic system?
9. What is the predicative load?
10. What types of sentences are differentiated according to their predicative load? Give examples.

3.1.7. Composite Sentence as a Polypredicative Construction

The **composite sentence** is constructed from two or more predicative lines, with each predicative unit corresponding to a clause. For instance, in the sentence "*When I sat down to dinner I looked for an opportunity to slip in casually the information that I had by accident run across the Driffields; but news travelled fast in Blackstable*" there are four clauses that relate to one another on different semantic grounds: "*I sat down to dinner*", "*I looked for an opportunity to slip in casually the information*", "*I had by accident run across the Driffields*", and "*News travelled fast in Blackstable.*"

Composite sentences, characterized by their use in literary written speech rather than colloquial oral speech, arise from three factors: the needs of expression, possibilities of production, and conditions of perception. Written language tends to be more elaborately crafted and prepared, reflecting a careful construction for future reader engagement compared to the immediate and fleeting nature of spoken language.

Two contrasting tendencies appear in sentence construction: one favors reflecting a unity of reasons or events in complex sentences, regardless of length, while the other prioritizes presenting each event in separate simple sentences. This decision depends on form and meaning considerations based on contextual conditions.

Complex sentences of mixed narrative-reasoning nature, like "*Once Mary waved her hand as she recognised her driver, but he took no notice of her, only whipping his horses the harder…*" exhibit established expressive contexts. This can be rewritten in simpler, multi-sentential forms while retaining essential meanings.

The intermediate variety of speech emerges from the interaction between oral and written forms, resulting in a scripted style characterized by careful preparation. A political example is reflected in President Woodrow Wilson's address: "*But the right is more precious than peace, and we shall fight for the things which we have always carried nearest our hearts...*"

Composite sentences may show coordination (clauses of equal rank) or subordination (clauses of unequal rank). Subordinate clauses often supplement the principal clause's information. For example, in "*I could not help blushing with embarrassment when I looked at him*" the subordinate clause can shift position without changing the meaning.

Coordination is evident as well: "*That sort of game gave me horrors, and I never could play it.*" The means of combining clauses into a polypredicative sentence are categorized as syndetic (conjunctional) and asyndetic (non-conjunctional). Loose connections in composite sentences can be created through cumulation, where the sequential clause appears as an afterthought, as in "*It was just the time that my aunt and uncle would be coming home from their daily walk down the town and I did not like to run the risk of being seen...*"

Finally, semi-composite sentences demonstrate a middle ground between simple and composite structures, combining two predicative lines into one explicit construction. Examples include "*Philip ignored the question and remained silent*" and "*I have never before*

heard her sing." These forms reveal a preference for terseness in colloquial speech as opposed to the over-expansion of composite sentences.

Questions for Revision:

1. How many predicative lines can the composite sentence have?
2. Is the composite sentence the feature of the oral or written speech? Why?
3. What two principal types of composite sentences are differentiated?
4. What is coordination? Give examples.
5. What is subordination? Give examples.
6. What means are used to combine clauses in the composite sentence? Give examples.
7. What types of cumulation are differentiated?
8. What is the semi-composite sentence? Give examples.
9. What are the semi-composite sentences opposed to? Why?
10. What types of composite sentences as polypredicative constructions are distinguished according to the degree of their predicative explicitness?

3.1.8. Complex Sentence

The **complex sentence** is a polypredicative construction based on subordination, derived from two or more base sentences, one of which acts as a matrix (the principal clause) in relation to the subordinate clauses. The minimal complex sentence consists of two clauses: a **principal** and a **subordinate**. The principal clause dominates the subordinate clause positionally, and they are interconnected. The subordinate clause can be joined to the principal clause through a subordinating connector or asyndetically. For example, transforming "*Moyra left the room*" into a subordinate clause might look like: "*I do remember quite well that Moyra left the room*" or "*The party was spoiled because Moyra left the room.*" The absence of a connector in an asyndetic complex sentence does not deny the functional connection of the clauses.

The minimal, two-clause complex sentence serves as the foundational type due to its prevalence and the ability to analyze any complex sentence into combinations of two-clause units. The structural features of the principal clause differ depending on the type of subordinate clause. The principal clause may be incomplete when influenced by subject and predicative subordinate clauses. For instance, in "*And why we descend to their level is a mystery to me*" the principal clause's meaningful segment appears minimal.

Principal clauses can be divided into **merger principal clauses**, which characterize the whole complex sentence, and **non-merger principal clauses**, which represent secondary parts. Although the principal clause positionally dominates the subordinate clause, it doesn't always embody the central informative part of communication. The arrangement of clauses significantly affects the distribution of primary and secondary information; for example, in "*The boy was friendly with me because I allowed him to keep the fishing line*" switching the order reshapes the informative roles.

In terms of introduction, subordinate clauses can be **functional** (acting like sentence parts) or **categorial** (based on inherent nominative properties). The functional classification reflects the essential similarities of semantic purposes between clausal and non-clausal parts of sentences, but distinctions remain. According to the categorial principle, subordinate clauses can be categorized as substantive-nominal, qualification-nominal, or adverbial. Subordinate clauses may also include functional connectors such as *who, what, whose, which,* while non-positional subordinators include conjunctions *like since, until,* and *although*.

From a syntactic perspective, subordinate clauses can serve primary nominal positions (subject, predicative, object), secondary nominal positions (attributive), or adverbial positions. The subject clause often expresses the theme; for example, "*Why he rejected the offer has never been accounted for.*" Predicative clauses act as nominal parts of predicates, as in "*The trouble is that I don't know Fanny personally.*" The object clause represents the object of the principal clause; consider "*I am simply puzzled by what you are telling me.*"

Attributive clauses divide into descriptive (providing characteristics) and restrictive (identifying the antecedent). They exhibit functions depending on context; for instance, "*At last we found a place where we could make a fire*" is descriptive, while "*The place where we could make a fire was not a lucky one*" is restrictive. Appositive clauses, which define antecedents, categorize into nounal, pronominal, and anticipatory types, with anticipatory constructions playing a universal role in semantic identification.

Adverbial clauses can be classified into those of time and place, manner and comparison, different circumstantial semantics, and parenthetical constructions. Time and place clauses describe localization, whereas manner clauses qualify actions; for example, "*He spent the Saturday night as was his wont.*" The clauses of immediate circumstance also include clauses of condition, reason, result, and purpose, showcasing their interconnectedness through transformations.

Complex sentences may exhibit monolithic structures (with obligatory connections) or segregative structures (with optional connections). Monolithic sentences consist of merger, valency, correlation, and arrangement types, characterized by obligatory connections that can shift to optional when reordered. In complex sentences, parallel and consecutive arrangements distinguish between co-subordinate and hierarchical subordination, illustrating varying levels of clausal depth. For instance, "*I've no idea why she said she couldn't call on us at the time I had suggested*" showcases depth in subordination, while "*When he agrees to hear me, and when we have spoken the matter over, I'll tell you the result*" exemplifies parallel structures. The depth of subordination in everyday speech rarely exceeds three levels.

Questions for Revision:

1. What is the complex sentence?
2. What types of principal clauses are distinguished?
3. What is the basis for the categorical principal of the subordinate clauses classification?
4. What are the types of functional connective words or sentence subordinators that introduce subordinate clauses?

5. What are the features of the subject clause of the complex sentence?
6. What are the features of the predicative clause of the complex sentence?
7. What are the features of the object clause of the complex sentence?
8. What are the subordinate clauses of secondary nominal positions?
9. What are monolythic sentence structures?
10. What are segregative sentence structures?

3.1.9. Compound Sentence

The **compound sentence** is a composite sentence formed through coordination, which can be expressed syndetically or asyndetically. The main semantic relationships between clauses linked coordinatively include copulative, adversative, disjunctive, causal, consequential, and resultative. Some scholars argue against the notion of the compound sentence as a distinct form, suggesting that what is termed a "compound sentence" is often a sequence of semantically related independent sentences, merely lacking full stops due to convention.

They cite reasons for this perspective, including the presence of a finalizing tone between coordinated predicative units, independent sentences using the same conjunctions as these "coordinate clauses" and the possibility of full-stop separation while maintaining semantic relations. However, significant semantico-syntactic distinctions exist between compound sentences and corresponding sequences of independent sentences.

Different syntactic distributions of predicative units create varied distributions of expressed ideas, affecting the perceived closeness or looseness of connections between the reflected events. For example, "*Jane adored that actor. Hockins could not stand the sight of him.*" is a textual sequence of independent units, while "*Jane adored that actor, but Hockins could not stand the sight of him.*" appropriately arranges them into compound sentences.

The compound sentence is formed from two or more base sentences connected through coordination. Coordinating connectors include conjunctions and semi-functional adverb-like words. Primary coordinating conjunctions include and, but, or, nor, and others, while adverbial coordinators like then, yet, so, and therefore can typically shift positions within a sentence. The degree of cohesion between coordinate clauses can vary, indicating a transitional status between composite sentences and sequences of independent sentences.

The connection can be classified into unmarked and marked types, with unmarked connections typically realized by *and* and marked connections expressed by pure and adverbial coordinators. For example, "*You will have a great deal to say to her, and she will have a great deal to thank you for.*" illustrates simple copulative relations, while "*The money kept coming in every week, so the offensive gossip about his wife began to be replaced by predictions of sensational success.*" demonstrates broader connective meanings.

The compound sentence can transform into a complex sentence, retaining essential relational semantics. For instance, "*I invited Mike to join us, but he refused.*" can also be

framed as "*Though I invited Mike to join us, he refused.*" The number of clauses in a compound sentence is technically unlimited, influenced by the speaker's informative aims.

Open constructions utilize copulative and enumerative connections, while closed types finalize ideas on an unequal basis. An example of an open structure is: "*They visited house after house. They went over them thoroughly, examining them from the cellars in the basement to the attics under the roof. Sometimes they were too large and sometimes they were too small...* " In contrast, a closed construction example is: "*His fingernails had been cleaned, his teeth brushed, his hair combed, his nostrils cleared and dried, and he had been dressed in formal black by somebody or other.*" These structures facilitate expressive climax through their syntactic arrangements.

Questions for Revision:

1. What is the compound sentence?
2. What are the clauses that the compound sentence is divided into?
3. What are the two basic types of the connection between the clauses of a compound sentence?
4. What types of connections form open coordinations? Give examples.
5. What types of connections form closed coordinations? Give examples.
6. What are the unmarked coordinative connections?
7. What are the marked coordinative connections?
8. Can the coordinative conjunction be used in combination with any other words?
9. What changes if the coordinative conjunction is used in combination with some other words?
10. What are the most typical closures in the multi-clause compound sentence of a closed type?

3.1.10. Semi-Complex Sentence

The **semi-composite sentence** is defined as a sentence with more than one predicative line expressed in fusion. One of these lines is dominant, while the others provide semi-predicative expansions. This sentence type embodies an intermediary syntactic character between composite and simple sentences, resembling an expanded simple sentence since it contains one fully expressed predicative unit. The existence of semi-composite sentences can be attributed to two factors:

1) the economical nature of speech;
2) the relational closeness of the events described compared to those in completely composed sentences.

For example, the sentence "*The sergeant gave a quick salute to me, and then he put his squad in motion*" describes two connected events separately. In contrast, "*Giving a quick salute to me, the sergeant put his squad in motion*" emphasizes one event as dominant while the other becomes a background detail. The sentence "*With a quick salute to me, the sergeant*

put his squad in motion" exhibits the maximum degree of blending, portraying the salute as a mere detail amid the primary action.

Semi-composite sentences can be categorized into **semi-complex** (pleni-complex) and **semi-compound** (pleni-compound) sentences. **Semi-complex** sentences result from subordination, created from at least two base sentences, one being matrix and the other insert. They include three processes of predicative fusion: position-sharing (subject-sharing and object-sharing) and direct linear expansion (attributive, adverbial, and nominal-phrase complication).

In subject-sharing, sentences overlap around a common subject. For example, "*The man stood.*" + "*The man was silent.*" becomes "*The man stood silent.*" The predicate combines both verbal and nominal functions, allowing for various categorial classes such as nouns, adjectives, and participles. This type expresses simultaneity, giving prominence to the complicator.

Object-sharing involves two sentences overlapping around an object in the matrix and the subject in the insert. For example, "*We saw him approach us.*" illustrates this relationship, indicating simultaneity in experience. Semi-complex sentences of this kind can also express cause and result. The adjunct to the shared object can appear as infinitives, participles, or adjectives.

Attributive complication leads to semi-complex sentences with a shared subject in the insert. For instance, "*The waves rolling over the dam sent out fine spray*" creates a more fluid relationship between the two actions. The difference between attributive subordinate clauses and post-positional attributes emerges through the retention of autonomous functional roles in semi-clauses.

Adverbial complications derived from two base sentences may involve constructions indicating causality or condition. An example includes "*The task, when completed, seemed a very easy one.*" These can also be classified into participial and non-participial adverbial clauses depending on their predicative form. Finally, nominal phrase complications form sentences by partially nominalizing an insert, as seen in "*Tom's coming late annoyed his mother.*"

In sum, semi-composite sentences provide intricate syntactic structures that capture layered meanings and interconnected events through various types of expansions and complications, enriching language use and comprehension.

Questions for Revision:

1. What is the semi-composite sentence?
2. What is the semi-complex sentence?
3. What are semi-complex sentences of subject-sharing? Give examples.
4. What are semi-complex sentences of object-sharing? Give examples.
5. What are semi-complex sentences of attributive complication? Give examples.
6. What are semi-complex sentences of nominal phrase complication? Give examples.

7. What is the difference between post-positional attributes and attributive subordinate clauses?
8. What are the types of the adverbial semi-clauses?
9. In what way are the absolutive adverbial semi-clauses joined to the dominant clause?
10. What is a characteristic function of the infinitive phrase?

3.1.11. Semi-Compound Sentence

The semi-compound sentence is constructed through coordination, combining at least two base sentences that share an identical element in either the subject or predicate. The coordination can be **syndetic**, with conjunctions, or **asyndetic**. The closer the coordinated group is to the verb-predicate, the more directly it contributes to the semi-compounding structure.

For instance, coordinated subjects connected asyndetically in an enumerative sequence or as a plain copulative syndetic string do not straightforwardly create shared predicative lines. However, when subjects are connected adversatively or antithetically, they maintain a more distinct relationship with the predicative center, providing substantive reference to their source constructions:

There was nothing else, only her face in front of me. → There was nothing else in front of me. + There was only her face in front of me.

In semi-compounding, particularly with two subjects related to one predicate, the first subject often initiates the sentence while the second concludes it:

The entrance door stood open, and also the door of the living-room. → The entrance door stood open. + The door of the living-room stood also open.

Genuine predicate coordination proves that each part presents its own predicative center related to the same subject, forming a tightly compounded fusion of predicative lines:

The soldier was badly wounded. +The soldier stayed in the ranks. → The soldier was badly wounded, but stayed in the ranks.

Instances exist where inverted constructions lead to a complex fusion of predicates, making the leading clause less continuous:

Before him lay the road to fame. + The road to fame lured him. → Before him lay and lured him the road to fame.

The nominal predicate can also feature a sequential predicative complement without a linking part:

My manner was matter-of-fact, and casual.

Semi-compound sentences can be categorized as **two-base** (minimal) or **multi-base** (more than two). The expansions can be coordinated either syndetically or asyndetically. Syndetic formations can express various connections: copulative, contrast, disjunction, consequence, limitation, and elucidation.

The most common pure conjunction is *and* with additional conjunctions such as *but* and *or* serving different semantic roles. For example, in disjunction:

They either went for long walks over the fields or joined in a quiet game of chess on the veranda.

Syndetic constructions express a sequence of events:

He leaped up in time to see the Colonel rushing out of the door. → He leaped up in time and saw the Colonel rushing out of the door.

Asyndetic connections often enumerate events, as in:

He closed the door behind him with a shaking hand, found the old car in its parking place, drove along with the drifting lights.

Mixed semi-compound sentences may combine syndetic and asyndetic elements:

He spun completely round, then fell forward on his knees, rose again and limped slowly on.

The semi-compound sentences can resemble compound sentences with identical subjects, where the first sentence is typically longer, and different structures are present in the finite verbs. The nuances in these constructions reveal that while compound sentences offer multiple thematic perspectives, semi-compound sentences focus on one theme with potentially several sub-rhemes. For example:

We were met by a guide who spoke excellent English and had a head full of facts.

This syntactic construct enhances the communicative intensity and logical coherence of the sentence.

Questions for Revision:

1. What is the semi-compound sentence?
2. What does the syndetic formation of the semi-compound sentence express?
3. What are the sub-conjunction specifiers? Give examples.
4. What types of the syndetic semi-compound sentences are distinguished?
5. In what cases are the base sentences with identical subjects connected in a compound sentence instead of a semi-compound sentence?
6. What is the number of predicative parts that may be in a semi-compound sentence?
7. When are the sentences primitivised into a one-predicate sentence with coordinated secondary parts?
8. In hat cases are the base sentences with identical subjects connected into a compound sentence?
9. What is another name of constituent rhemes?
10. What makes a compound sentence of complete composition into a communicatively intense, logically accented syntactic unit?

3.1.12. Sentence in the Text

Sentences in continuous speech are interconnected semantically and syntactically, yet their coherence relies on the speaker's intention. For instance, in the dialogue "*Dolly: don't be insincere. Cholly: fetch your concertina and play something for us*" the sentences address different people for different reasons, lacking unity. Similarly, even when directed at the same

listener, coherence can be absent, as shown by the Duchess of Berwic's remarks: "*I like him so much. I am quite delighted he's gone! How sweet you're looking! Where do you get your gowns? And now I must tell you how sorry I am for you, dear Margaret.*"

Successive sentences can reflect transitions of thought, allowing each to form a coherent topic. An utterance in fiction that marks a thought transition is often introduced with an authorial comment, like: "*You know, L.S., you're rather a good sport.*" Then his tone grew threatening again. "*It's a big risk I'm taking. It's the biggest risk I've ever had to take.*"

The concept of a sequence of sentences encapsulates two ideas:

1) a succession of utterances that may or may not create a coherent semantic complex;
2) a topical stretch of dialogue focused on a common informative purpose. This leads to texts being understood as linguistic elements characterized by semantic unity and semantico-syntactic cohesion.

Sentence sequences in speech are classified mainly into two categories: **monologue** sequences and **dialogue** sequences. A **monologue** consists of continuous sentences from a single speaker to one or more listeners, exemplified by: "*We'll have a lovely garden. We'll have roses in it and daffodils...* " This structured sequence is identified by various terms, such as "complex syntactic unity" or "supra-sentential construction."

Conversely, dialogue sequences involve alternating utterances between speakers, resulting in two-directional exchanges, seen in: "*Annette, what have you done?* " – "*I've done what I had to do.*" Moreover, two-direction sequences can appear in monologues through "inner dialogue, " where a speaker reflects internally, as shown in: "*What were they jabbering about now in Parliament? Some two-penny-ha'penny tax!*".

In dialogues, a response can build on the initial utterance, even addressing a third party or collectively engaging the speakers themselves, as seen in Galsworthy's exchanges. Overall, the direction of communication is crucial for understanding sentence sequences, emphasizing the differences between one-direction and two-direction sequences. A one-direction sequence results from syntactic cumulation of sentences, forming a **cumulative** sequence or "**cumuleme**" where sentences are combined without losing individuality. In contrast, a two-direction sequence features sentences interacting with one another, termed as "**occursive**" or "**occurseme**," which is positioned hierarchically above the cumuleme.

The supra-proposemic level consists of two sublevels: the **lower cumulemic level** and the **higher occursemic level**. Monologues and dialogues represent different textual organizations, with the cumuleme and occurseme forming fundamental components, creating subtopical and exchange-sub-topical units.

Cumulemes can connect in two ways: prospectively, using connectors that link a current sentence to a following one, indicating semantic incompleteness: "*I tell you, one of two things must happen. Either out of that darkness some new creation will come to supplant us as we have supplanted the animals, or the heavens will fall in thunder and destroy us*". Conversely, retrospective or anaphoric cumulation involves connectors linking to preceding sentences, emphasizing comprehensive meaning in everyday speech, as demonstrated by Galsworthy's example.

Cumulation can further be divided into conjunctive – using conjunction-like connectors – and correlative cumulations, where elements reference each other. The cumuleme consists of two or more independent sentences that form a topical syntactic unity, identified by a finalizing intonation contour and specific pauses.

Every type of writing includes cumulemes, and the basic semantic types are factual (narrative and descriptive), modal (reasoning, perceptive), and mixed. For instance, a narrative cumuleme example is: "*Three years later, when Jane was an Army driver...*".

In distinction, paragraphs in writing serve multiple functions, unlike cumulemes. They can encapsulate dialogue or present separate points in enumerations, while cumulemes typically represent oral speech. The concept of cumuleme clarifies the boundaries of sentence and sentential sequences, such as "**parcellation**," reflecting topical significance.

Parcellation, or the construction ("parcellatum") of collocations marked by a sentence tone, showcases how separate clauses contribute to a unified meaning. For example: "*There was a sort of community pride attached to it now*".

In summary, cumulative and occurse relations form central structures in speech, where sentences serve as the primary syntactic units. The word is a nomination unit, while the sentence acts as a predication unit. Together, through various combinations, they create reflections of reality in linguistic interactions.

Questions for Revision:

1. What notions does the general idea of a sequence of sentences forming a text include?
2. What types of texts are distinguished according to the communicative direction of their component sentences?
3. What is the definition of the monologue?
4. What is the definition of the dialogues?
5. What is the cumuleme?
6. What is the occurseme?
7. What types of cumulemes are distinguished?
8. What is one of the means of transposing a cumuleme into a sentence in literary speech?
9. What are the border-line phenomena between the sentence and the sentential sequence?
10. What are the two basic units of language?

3.2. Seminars

Seminar 1. The Syntagmatic Connections of Words: Understanding Structured Language

Seminar Objective: this seminar aims to deepen participants' understanding of syntagmatic connections between words in various contexts, focusing on the relationships established through notional and functional words. By exploring the distinctions between

syntagmatic groupings, participants will enhance their grammatical knowledge and apply it effectively in both spoken and written discourse.

Topics for Presentations:

1. **Defining Syntagmatic Connections: An Overview.**

An introduction to the concept of syntagmatic connections in language, exploring how words interact within utterances.

2. **Notional Words vs. Functional Words: Understanding the Distinctions.**

A detailed examination of the roles played by notional and functional words in syntagmatic groupings and their implications for meaning.

3. **Equipotent Connections: Exploring Relationships Among Equal Rank Words.**

Analysis of equipotent combinations in language, comparing syndetic and asyndetic connections through examples.

4. **Cumulative Connections: Internal and External Structures.**

Exploration of cumulative connections in language, discussing their syntactic organization and the use of punctuation.

5. **Dominational Connections: Understanding Kernel and Adjunct Elements.**

A focus on dominational connections within language, defining the relationship between headwords and modifiers.

6. **Complete and Incomplete Predicative Connections: A Comparative Study.**

An exploration of the differences between complete predicative connections and incomplete predicative connections, with examples illustrating each type.

7. **Monolateral vs. Bilateral Dominational Connections: Key Characteristics.**

An in-depth look at monolateral and bilateral dominational connections, and how they influence the syntactic structure of sentences.

8. **Objective Connections: Types and Their Semantic Implications.**

Examination of objective connections, dividing them into direct and indirect categories, and discussing their syntactic and semantic properties.

9. **Qualifying Completive Connections: Attributive and Adverbial Relationships.**

An analysis of qualifying connections through the lens of attributive and adverbial structures, exploring their grammatical frameworks.

10. **The Significance of Syntagmatic Connections in Effective Communication.**

A reflection on how understanding and applying syntagmatic connections can enhance clarity and precision in both written and spoken forms.

Seminar 2. Exploring Sentence Structure and Communicative Functions in Language

Seminar Objective: The goal of this seminar is to delve into the intricacies of sentence structure, focusing on the various types of sentences, their syntactic divisions, and the

communicative purposes they serve. Participants will gain a comprehensive understanding of how sentences function as integral units of speech, the mechanisms of their construction, and the interplay between various grammatical elements.

Topics for Presentations:

1. **Understanding the Definition and Structure of Sentences.**

An exploration of what constitutes a sentence in linguistic terms, discussing its syntactic patterns and communicative purposes.

2. **The Minimum Requirements for Forming Sentences.**

An analysis of how sentences can range from single-word constructs to complex multi-word structures, highlighting examples.

3. **Differentiating between Sentences and Utterances.**

A detailed look at the distinctions between a sentence as a grammatical unit and an utterance as a communicative act, showcasing their unique functions.

4. **Functions of Intonation in Sentence Structures.**

Examination of how intonation contributes to sentence meaning and differentiates between sentence types, including the significance of pitch and rhythm.

5. **Predication and its Role in Sentence Meaning.**

Discussion on the concept of predication, its center in the finite verb, and how it allows sentences to convey relationships between events and reality.

6. **The Nominative vs. Actual Division of Sentences.**

Analysis of the nominative division as it relates to the basic meaning of sentences versus the actual division that focuses on informational roles within a context.

7. **Communicative Types of Sentences and Their Speaker Intentions.**

A study of the three cardinal sentence types—declarative, imperative, and interrogative – and how they elicit specific responses from listeners.

8. **Intermediary Communicative Sentence Patterns.**

Investigation into mixed communicative patterns that blend features of declarative, interrogative, and imperative sentences, highlighting their role in effective communication.

9. **Rhetorical Questions: Functions and Effects.**

Exploration of rhetorical questions as a device to assert statements, their impacts on conversations, and how they differ from genuine inquiries.

10. **The Impact of Exclamatory Sentences on Communication.**

A discussion on exclamatory sentences, their emotional weight in language, and how they differ structurally and functionally from the primary sentence types.

Seminar 3. The Structure and Complexity of Simple Sentences in English

Seminar Objective: the seminar aims to explore the intricate structure, function, and paradigmatic organization of simple sentences in English. Participants will delve into both the syntactic and semantic dimensions of sentences, emphasizing their constituent and

predicative structures. The discussions will provide a comprehensive understanding of how simple sentences operate within the larger framework of the English language, enhancing participants' insights into sentence construction and communication.

Topics for Presentations:

1. **Understanding Predicative Lines: The Foundation of Sentence Meaning.**

This presentation will dissect the concept of the predicative line in simple sentences, discussing its central role in determining the meaning and structure of English sentences.

2. **Constituent Structures: Analyzing Nominative Parts.**

Focusing on the nominative parts of the simple sentence, this talk will explore the various constituents, including subjects, predicates, objects, and modifiers, and their hierarchical relationships.

3. **Monopredicative vs. Polypredicative Sentences: A Comparative Study.**

This discussion will contrast monopredicative and polypredicative sentences, examining how multiple predicates affect the organization and interpretation of simple sentences.

4. **The Role of Syntax: Immediate Constituents and Sentence Parsing.**

This presentation will introduce the immediate constituents (IC) model for parsing sentences, illustrating how sentences are structurally analyzed through binary hierarchical connections.

5. **Elementary Sentences vs. Expanded Simple Sentences.**

An exploration of what constitutes an elementary sentence and how it differs from expanded simple sentences, with examples illustrating each category.

6. **One-member vs. Two-member Sentences: A Structural Analysis.**

This talk will delve into the distinctions between one-member and two-member sentences, analyzing their implications for understanding subject and predicate presence in English.

7. **Semantic Classification of Simple Sentences: Understanding Subject and Predicate Relations.**

A deep dive into how the categorization of subjects and predicates contributes to the overall semantic understanding of simple sentences, focusing on subjective and objective relations.

8. **Paradigmatic Structures: Transformations in Simple Sentences.**

This presentation will investigate the paradigmatic structures of simple sentences, focusing on how transformations, negations, and questions are structured within sentence paradigms.

9. **The Concept of Predicative Load: Analyzing Sentence Complexity.**

An examination of the idea of predicative load in sentences, exploring how various grammatical constructions affect the complexity and meaning of simple sentences.

10. **Application of Syntactic Theory: Real-World Implications of Sentence Structure.**

This concluding discussion will connect the theoretical aspects of simple sentence structure to practical applications in language learning, translation, and linguistic analysis.

Seminar 4. Exploring the Structural Dynamics of Composite Sentences in English

Seminar Objective: the seminar aims to provide participants with a comprehensive understanding of the various types of composite sentences in English. Through in-depth discussions and presentations, attendees will explore the syntactic structures, semantic relationships, and functional uses of composite sentences, alongside their practical applications in both written and spoken discourse. The goal is to enhance participants' analytical skills and deepen their appreciation for English sentence construction.

Topics for Presentations:

1. **The Nature of Composite Sentences: Definitions and Classifications.**

This presentation will introduce the concept of composite sentences, exploring different classifications, including polypredicative constructions and their role in linguistic structure.

2. **Understanding Coordination and Subordination: Key Differences.**

A detailed examination of the principles of coordination and subordination within composite sentences, highlighting the syntactic implications and examples of each type.

3. **Syndetic vs. Asyndetic Connections in Composite Sentences.**

This talk will investigate the mechanisms of combining clauses in composite sentences, focusing on the effects of using conjunctions versus asyndetic structures.

4. **The Role of Context in Shaping Composite Sentence Structures.**

An exploration of how contextual factors influence the choice and structure of composite sentences in both written and spoken English.

5. **Complex Sentences as a Tool for Expressing Logical Relationships.**

This presentation will analyze how complex sentences convey logical connections between ideas, emphasizing their use in argumentative and narrative structures.

6. **The Functionality of Semi-Composite Sentences in Everyday Speech.**

Discussing the prevalence and functions of semi-composite sentences in conversational English, this presentation will highlight the balance between complexity and efficiency in language use.

7. **Composing Effective Literary Texts: The Use of Composite Sentences.**

An examination of literary techniques involving composite sentences, focusing on how authors manipulate syntax for stylistic effect.

8. **Transformations and Variations in Composite Sentence Structures.**

This presentation will look at how clauses within composite sentences can be transformed into different forms for clarity or emphasis, including examples of rephrasing.

9. **Exploring the Syntax of Compound Sentences: A Comparative Analysis.**

A discussion comparing compound sentences to other sentence types, particularly focusing on their structural features and semantic implications.

10. **Pedagogical Approaches to Teaching Composite Sentence Construction.**

This session will explore effective strategies for educators to teach composite sentences, emphasizing practical exercises and the importance of understanding syntax in language learning.

Seminar 5. The Dynamics of Sentence Sequences in Speech and Writing

Seminar Objective: the objective of this seminar is to explore the intricate connections and functionalities of sentence sequences, both in spoken and written language. Participants will examine how coherence, syntactic structures, and communicative intentions influence the interpretation and expression of ideas in diverse contexts. The seminar aims to enhance understanding of pragmatic, structural, and semantic attributes of sentences, fostering critical engagement with language use in literature, dialogue, and everyday communication.

Topics for Presentations:

1. **Understanding Coherence: The Role of Intention in Sentence Sequences.**

This presentation will delve into how a speaker's intention shapes the coherence and connectivity of sentences in both dialogue and monologue, exploring examples from various texts.

2. **Monologue vs. Dialogue: Analyzing Syntactic Unity.**

This discussion will compare monologue and dialogue sequences, highlighting their distinctive features and the implications of one-directional versus two-directional communication.

3. **Inner Dialogue: The Confluence of Monologue and Dialogue.**

This presentation will explore the concept of "inner dialogue" and how it incorporates two-directional communication within a single speaker’s narrative.

4. **Cumulative Sentence Structures: Exploring Cumulemes and Occursemes.**

Focusing on the definitions and functionalities of cumulemes and occursemes, this session will illustrate through examples how different sentence sequences can interact meaningfully in dialogue.

5. **The Art of Connection: Prospective and Retrospective Cumulation in Language.**

This presentation will analyze the different types of cumulation – prospective and retrospective – along with their significance in various communicative scenarios.

6. **Cumulation Techniques: Conjunctive and Correlative Connections.**

This discussion will investigate the ways conjunctive and correlative cumulation operates within sentences, showcasing examples from prose and poetry.

7. **The Importance of Syntax: How Sentence Structure Influences Meaning.**

This presentation will explore how the structural arrangement of sentences affects clarity, coherence, and the overall message in both literary and everyday contexts.

8. **Functional Aspects of Cumulemes: From Oral to Written Texts.**

This session will discuss how cumulemes function across varying forms of speech and writing, highlighting their role in maintaining topical unity in compositions.

9. **Parcellation in Speech and Writing: Distinguishing Features and Effects.**

This presentation will examine the phenomenon of parcellation, its usage, and effects on meaning and emphasis in both spoken and written texts.

10. Transitional Devices in Language: The Significance of Connectors.

Focusing on transitional devices, this discussion will aim to reveal how different types of connectors enhance the flow of ideas and facilitate the creation of cumulatively meaningful discourse.

3.3. Practical Tasks

1. Do the test.

1. What refers to the subtypes of the completive predicative connections?
    a) equpotent and dominational connections;
    b) kernel and adjunct combinations;
    c) objective and qualifying connections;
    d) primary and secondary connections.

2. What types of syntagmatic grouping are differentiated?
    a) syntagmatic groupings of notional words;
    b) syntagmatic groupings of functional words;
    c) syntagmatic groupings of notional words with functional words;
    d) all the variants are correct.

3. What are the functions of the sentence (2 correct answers)?
    a) It presents the referents as making up a certain situation, or a situational event.
    b) It separates one idea from another.
    c) It establishes the relation of the named phenomena to actual life.
    d) It reflects the connection between the nominal denotation of the event on the one hand, and objective reality on the other, showing the time of the event, its being real or unreal, desirable or undesirable, necessary or unnecessary, etc.

4. What is the minimum number of units that the sentence can consist of?
    a) minimum one unit;
    b) minimum two units;
    c) only more than two units;
    d) all the variants are correct.

5. What are the main components of the actual division of the sentence?
    a) the subject and the predicate;
    b) the theme and the rheme;
    c) the noun and the verb;
    d) the object and the action.

6. To what cardinal sentence-type do the responses to rhetorical questions correspond?

a) declarative sentence;
b) interrogative sentence;
c) imperative sentence;
d) exclamatory sentence.

7. An elementary sentence is ..

a) … a sentence which includes the principal parts and supplementive modifiers.
b) … a sentence all the positions of which are obligatory.
c) … a monopredicative sentence formed by obligatory notional and optional parts.
d) … a sentence with both notional members.

8. Clausalisation is …

a) … the transformation of a base sentence into a phrase.
b) … the formation of more complex clausal structures out of simpler ones.
c) … the transformation of a base sentence into a clause.
d) … the formation of predicatively different units not affecting the constructional volume of the base.

9. What means are used to combine clauses in the composite sentence?

a) equipotent and cumulative;
b) syndetic and asyndetic;
c) continuative and parethentical;
d) hypotaxis and parataxis.

10. What are the types of functional connective words or sentence subordinators that introduce subordinate clauses?

a) adverbs and correlative conjunctions;
b) auxiliaries and coordinative conjunctions;
c) pronominal words and pure conjunctions;
d) pronouns and subordinative conjunctions.

11. The clauses that the compound sentence is divided into are …

a) matrix and insert;
b) main and secondary;
c) principal and subordinate;
d) leading and sequential.

12. The monolythic sentence structure is …

a) … a sentence based on obligatory subordinative connections;
b) … a sentence based on segregative complexes;
c) … a sentence consisting of one clause;
d) … a sentence consisting of clauses of one type and function.

13. The semi-complex sentence is …

a) … a sentence with more than one predicative lines which are expressed in fusion.
b) … a semi-composite sentence built up on the principle of coordination.
c) … a sentence built up by means of the two base sentences.
d) … a semi-composite sentence built up on the principle of subordination.

14. What types of the syndetic semi-compound sentences are distinguished?

a) homo-syndetic and heterosyndetic;
b) unisyndetic and multisyndetic;
c) syndetic and asyndetic;
d) unisyndetic and mixed.

15. What types of texts are distinguished according to the communicative direction of their component sentences?

a) prospective and retrospective texts;
b) cumuleme and occurseme;
c) monologue and dialogue;
d) leading and sequential texts.

2. Define the types of syntagmatic connections in the phrases.

Tables and chairs; kind, not mean; left, but not forever; an attentive reader; a reader, apparently attentive; he studies; his obtaining (the skills); I consider reading useful; a part-time job; rather scared.

3. Find the text in English containing 5 sentences. Read it to the groupmates so that they understand the full stops (the beginning and the end of each sentence) and other punctuation marks.

4. Define the theme, the rheme and transitional parts in the sentences.

1. That's the exciting part for me.
2. It's been a bit of a lucky dip in the sense that we might have 20 colours to match and make something desirable.
3. Measuring wellbeing is a notoriously tricky business.
4. Compared with usual care or no exercise, moderate- to high-certainty evidence supported the view that exercise significantly mitigates adverse events associated with cancer and its treatments.
5. Yet little is written on how it feels to witness these existential threats.
6. There's a lot of research on how useful it is to be able to name your emotions, even roughly.
7. What level of worry is constructive?
8. Only one quadrant of the wheel is given to positive emotions.

9. Also honoured were Besjana Guri and Olsi Nika, who campaigned to protect the Vjosa River in Albania from a dam development.
10. It is the knowledge that makes us strong.

5. Define the communicative types of the sentences. Describe their features.

1. Let me tell you about a customer who faced a similar issue.
2. How did you come to this conclusion?
3. I'm really excited about this new project!
4. You're doing a great job; keep up the good work!
5. Do we want to continue down a path of destruction?
6. Are you going to the beach or the mountains for vacation?
7. Pour yourself more tea if you want.
8. Never borrow your brother's car without asking.
9. I wonder if it is possible to send it by regular mail.
10. Tell me something about your family.

6. Define the types of the simple sentences.

1. He is a driver.
2. He is a good driver.
3. The men of property!
4. Silence!
5. Forget all so soon!
6. To have loved her!
7. Seems easy.
8. Somebody is crying.
9. Very nice!
10. It smells like pie.

7. Define predicatively loaded and non-loaded sentences.

1. A big car drew up.
2. Is there a big market for this kind of thing these days?
3. Look at that pumpkin!
4. He knew he wouldn't get to relax until he had found a job.
5. He is my neighbor.
6. It is not a problem.
7. What do you need it for?
8. Imagine we are swimming in the ocean.
9. You can stay at a hostel in Poland.
10. She wasn't sure about reliability of those people.

8. Define composite and semi-composite sentences where it is possible.

1. When put to vote, the resolution was carried unanimously.
2. The men were together in groups, the women were looking after the meat on the spits and holding sleeping babies.
3. Nobody was quite sure, yet they were here waiting.
4. He bowed low and taking her hand kissed it.
5. The idea of becoming famous attracted him.
6. At sun-up the next day he climbed out of the river bed and looked round, but he didn't see anything.
7. He could often be seen walking in the park on Sundays.
8. You can boil youself an egg, or I'll make you a cheese sandwich.
9. It is dangerous to stay here any longer.
10. Mike began to tell something about his getting into a traffic-jam.

9. Define the principal and subordinate clauses of the complex sentences.

1. Because I worked hard, I got the job.
2. Although it was too hot outside, he was wearing a coat.
3. When she arrived at the airport, the plane had already taken off.
4. Most people will buy the car that has the highest gas mileage.
5. While I enjoy cricket, hockey is my favorite sport.
6. Whenever it rains, I like to drive my car across the town.
7. We have been very happy since he left.
8. The chef, who is internationally renowned, will host tonight's dinner.
9. He stayed behind after class so that he could ask the teacher some questions.
10. He wondered why she quitted the job.

10. Define the types of coordinating connectors in the compound sentences.

1. He lost his keys, so he couldn't open the door.
2. She likes to read books, and he prefers to watch movies.
3. I want to travel the world, but I need to save money first.
4. He studied hard for the exam, yet he still failed to pass.
5. They can choose to walk to the park, or they can ride their bikes.
6. Our school only has Apple computers, however, some students are more familiar with PCs.
7. The traffic was heavy, nevertheless, we arrived at the meeting on time.
8. After the interruption, the speaker went on talking as if nothing had happened.
9. He ate a healthy breakfast, therefore, he had plenty of energy.
10. He felt cold, for it was snowing.

11. Define the types of the semi-complex sentences.

1. She turned pale.

2. Being a doctor, he realized the danger.
3. He saw the car standing before the door.
4. He shook his head as if understanding the question.
5. The door remained looked.
6. They spoke were telling the story vividly constantly interrupting each other.
7. You must have your photo taken.
8. Waiting for Jack made him nervous
9. For him to go there is very dangerous.
10. Struck by the news, he sat motionless.

12. Define the types of conjunctive elements of the semi-compound sentences.

1. Jack and Pete passed their exams.
2. Both he and his wife enjoy swimming.
3. I have studied all the topics, yet feel anxious about the results.
4. The high winds not only downed power lines but also overturned mobile homes.
5. She entered the room and closed the door behind her.
6. Should we rehearse our presentation together, or rather work on our individual parts?
7. They neither go to the cinema nor stay at home.
8. I heard a strange noise, so went upstairs to see what it was.
9. They won the contract, then celebrated.
10. One of the unsubs has access to the crimes of the victims and probably works in the justice system.

13. Find examples of the text representing:

– an occursemic sequence;
– a prospective cumulation;
– a retrospective cumulation;
– a conjunctive cumulation;
– a correlative cumulation.

14. Make up ellipsis where possible. Explain why it is possible.

1. What time are you coming? – I'm coming about ten.
2. Who said that? – John said that.
3. She's out this evening? – Yes, she's working this evening.
4. a knife and a fork
5. She was poor but she was honest.
6. Have you seen Lucy?
7. She doesn't know what she's talking about.
8. My car isn't working. I'll have to use Mary's car.
9. We're going to hear the London Philharmonic Orchestra tonight.
10. Which shoes are you going to wear? – These shoes.

15. Define which of the clauses are emphasized. What types of subordinate clauses are used in the sentences?

1. While I was having a shower, I slipped on the floor.
2. I slipped on the floor while I was having a shower.
3. If you need help, just let me know.
4. Just let me know if you need help.
5. Although the bicycle was expensive, she decided to buy it.
6. She decided to buy the bicycle although it was expensive.
7. Because she was too angry to speak, Ann said nothing.
8. Ann said nothing, because she was too angry to speak.

16. Fill in the gaps with an appropriate conjunction (a combination of conjunctions) or relative pronoun where necessary. Explain the cases when they are not necessary.

1. … she was tired, she went to work.
2. She was tired … she went to work.
3. There' the girl … works with my sister.
4. … I liked him, I tried to help him.
5. I liked him, … I tried to help him.
6. The man … she married was an old friend of mine.
7. … you know, I work very hard.
8. You know … I work very hard.
9. The house … I live is very small.
10. We came back because we ran out of money, and because Ann got ill.

17. Change the sentences so that the fronting is used.

1. We have already discussed this question at some length.
2. I am putting all the information which you need in the post today.
3. We can supply any video in our catalogue, if available.
4. I just can't stand people like that.
5. That doesn't do me much good.
6. I just don't know what I'm going to do next.
7. We never found out how she got the dun through customs.
8. They are strange people.
9. We had very good lesson yesterday.
10. These shoes will last forever.

18. Find or write examples of abbreviated styles in: advertisements, instructions, notes, commentaries, titles, notices, headlines.

19. Correct mistakes in the sentences.

1. The children were explained the problem.
2. We were suggested a meeting place.
3. I don't like to be shouted.
4. He was thrown stones at.
5. That she was a spy was thought by nobody.
6. They say his company to be in trouble.
7. Our staff are liked to say what they think.
8. We were questioning by the immigration officer.
9. She has put in prison for life.
10. Tact is lacked.

20. Use correct punctuation marks where necessary.

1. It was snowing again_
2. What is it all for_
3. They have no right to be in our country_
4. I asked her _ what time it was.
5. We decided not to go on holiday _ we had too little money.
6. First of all _ no proper budget has been drawn up.
7. Some people work best in the mornings _ others do better in the evening.
8. Jane decided to try the home-made steak pie _ and Andrew ordered Dover sole with boiled potatoes.
9. Mrs. Grange _ who was talking on the phone _ gave Parker a big smile.
10. We had a great time in Greece _ the kids really loved it.

21. Do an extra research on one of the topics:

1. The subject and its types.
2. The predicate and its types.
3. The object and its types.
4. The adverbial modifier and its types.
5. The apposition.

22. Read the following sentences and identify whether they are semi-compound sentences. If they are, explain the type of coordination (syndetic or asyndetic) and the semantic relation between the clauses. Provide a brief explanation for each identified semi-compound sentence, touching on the coordination type and semantic relation.

1. She ran quickly and reached the station just in time.
2. The sun was shining brightly; it was warm and calm.
3. I finished my homework, then played video games, and met my friends later.
4. He was tired but determined to finish the project.
5. She was excited about the trip, so she packed her bags early.

6. It was raining heavily; I decided to stay indoors.
7. The children played outside until it got dark, and they came in happily.
8. I wanted to go for a hike; the weather, however, discouraged me.
9. He studied hard, yet he didn't pass the exam.
10. We were planning a picnic, but the rain ruined our plans.

23. Transform the following pairs of simple sentences into semi-compound sentences. Remember to use appropriate connective elements (syndetic or asyndetic) and maintain their semantic relationships. Rewrite each pair into a single semi-compound sentence while ensuring clarity and preserving the intended meaning.

1. The child played in the garden. The child ignored the rain.
2. She studied hard for her exams. She wanted to achieve good grades.
3. The dog barked loudly. The dog chased the cat.
4. He loves to paint. He finds it relaxing.
5. The team practiced diligently. They aimed to win the championship.
6. The students completed their assignments. They were ready for the presentation.
7. Maria enjoys reading novels. She often loses track of time.
8. The sun was shining brightly. They decided to go for a walk.
9. He set the alarm clock. He wanted to wake up early.
10. The baby slept soundly. The parents enjoyed some quiet time.

24. In the sentences below, identify and explain the connective meanings expressed by the conjunctions or lack thereof. Discuss how the meaning would change if a different connective were used. Analyze the connective elements used and suggest how changes could affect the overall meaning of the sentences.

1. He was late to the meeting, but he still managed to present his ideas effectively.
2. They visited the museum, walked around the city, and enjoyed a lovely dinner.
3. I'd like to travel to Paris next summer; however, I need to save enough money first.
4. She loves to run in the mornings, so she sets her alarm early.
5. I wanted to go hiking; nevertheless, the weather was too bad.
6. You can have coffee or tea.
7. The project was ambitious; thus, it required careful planning.
8. He loves classical music, for it reminds him of his childhood.
9. Though it was late, she decided to finish her assignment.
10. He studied hard for the exam, yet he felt unprepared.

25. Assess the coherence of given sentences and improve their unity. Read the following sets of sentences. Identify which sentences lack coherence and suggest edits to enhance their unity. Identify the sentences that appear disconnected. Suggest revisions to create a more coherent sequence, demonstrating how the sentences can flow together logically.

1. Sarah loves to read. It's raining outside. She finished her homework.

2. John enjoys playing basketball. He has a dog named Max. The moon is full tonight.
3. Clara baked cookies. The sun set behind the mountains. She invited her friends over.
4. The cat slept on the windowsill. I have an exam tomorrow. Birds chirped outside.
5. Mark climbed a mountain last summer. His sister loves to paint. The view from the top was breathtaking.
6. The children played in the park. She enjoys reading novels. The ice cream truck arrived.
7. David loves to cook. The stars shined brightly in the night sky. He often experiments with new recipes.
8. Emily practices yoga every morning. The flowers in her garden are blooming. She has a meeting at work.
9. The dog barked loudly. I prefer tea over coffee. It was a windy day.
10. Lisa is learning to play the guitar. The concert starts at 7 PM. She loves to watch movies.

26. Recognize and analyze the cumulemes within the text. Read the following passage and identify the cumulemes. Label them as either factual, modal, or mixed. Identify and underline the cumulemes in the passage. Categorize each cumuleme (factual, modal, or mixed) and explain your reasoning for each categorization.

1. David felt an overwhelming sense of relief when he finally submitted his report.
2. The sun rises in the east every morning.
3. Lucy enjoys painting in her free time, creating vibrant landscapes that captivate her friends.
4. If it rains tomorrow, they might cancel the picnic.
5. Many scientists believe that climate change is accelerating.
6. John will go to the concert if he finishes his work early.
7. There are five oceans on Earth.
8. She hopes to travel to Europe next summer.
9. Many people report feeling happier after exercising regularly.
10. Children often learn languages faster than adults do.

27. Differentiate between monologue and dialogue sequences. Below are two sets of dialogues: one is a monologue, and the other a dialogue sequence. Determine which is which, and provide a brief explanation of your reasoning for each classification. Classify each set as either a monologue or a dialogue sequence. Explain your reasons for the classification based on the structure and flow of the sentences within each set, referring to the concepts of one-directional and two-directional sequences as discussed in the text.

Set A:

"I can't believe I finally got the promotion. After all those late nights and extra projects, it feels surreal. I must remember to thank my team because they played a huge part in this achievement."

Set B:
"Emily, have you seen my keys?"
"No, I thought you left them on the kitchen counter."
"Actually, I might have taken them when I went to the garage."
"Let’s check there."

Set C:
"I just finished reading the most amazing book. The plot twist at the end completely blew my mind! I can't wait to discuss it with someone."

Set D:
"Did you pick up the groceries?"
"Yes, I got everything on the list."
"Great! Did you remember the bread?"
"I did! It's in the bag."

Set E:
"The concert last night was incredible. I still can't believe how amazing the band sounded live. I hope they come back here again."

Set F:
"Are you going to the party tonight?"
"Yes, I wouldn’t miss it for the world!"
"Who else is going?"
"I heard that Jake and Sarah will be there."

Set G:
"I think I need a vacation. This stress is really getting to me. I wish I could escape somewhere warm and relaxing."

Set H:
"Do you want to grab lunch?"
"Sure, where do you want to go?"
"How about that new Mexican place?"
"Sounds good to me!"

Set I:
"Sometimes I wonder if I’m choosing the right path in life. It's hard to know what the future holds, but I’m doing my best to stay positive."

Set J:

"Can you help me with this math problem?"

"Of course! What part are you struggling with?"

"I don’t understand how to set up the equation."

"Let me explain it step by step."

28. Read the following sentences and identify if they represent semi-complex sentences of subject-sharing, object-sharing, attributive complication, adverbial complication, or nominal-phrase complication. For each sentence, justify your classification in a brief explanation.

1. The children watched the fireworks explode in the night sky.
2. Having finished her presentation, Maria felt relieved and confident.
3. The painter, inspired by nature, created beautiful landscapes.
4. She heard him singing softly while she was studying.
5. Tom’s winning the race surprised his friends.
6. The children watched the fireworks explode in the night sky.
7. Having finished her presentation, Maria felt relieved and confident.
8. The painter, inspired by nature, created beautiful landscapes.
9. She heard him singing softly while she was studying.
10. Tom’s winning the race surprised his friends.

29. Transform the following pairs of simple sentences into semi-complex sentences by employing the appropriate method discussed in the material (such as subject-sharing, object-sharing, or attributive complication). After transforming each pair, explain the relationship between the two original events in your transformed sentence.

1. The cat sat. The cat was quiet.
2. The manager praised the employee. The employee had worked hard.
3. They completed the project. The project was due tomorrow.
4. The sun set. The sky was painted in hues of orange and pink.
5. The student studied all night. The student was preparing for the exam.
6. The dog barked loudly. The dog was alert.
7. The children played in the park. The sun was shining.
8. The artist painted a mural. The mural depicted a cityscape.
9. She cooked dinner. She was tired after work.
10. He finished reading the book. He was captivated by the story.

30. Transform the following pairs of simple sentences into compound sentences. Use appropriate coordinating conjunctions (and, but, or, nor, for, yet) to connect the clauses

Example:

Original: The sun was shining. The flowers were blooming.

Transformed: The sun was shining, and the flowers were blooming.

1. I wanted to go for a walk. It was raining outside.
2. The movie was exciting. The ending disappointed me.
3. She studied all night. She failed the exam.
4. He can sing very well. He cannot dance.
5. The teacher gave us homework. We had a test the next day.
6. I wanted to finish my project early. I stayed up late last night.
7. The weather forecast said it would snow. We decided to go skiing anyway.
8. She can either attend the meeting or watch the game on TV.
9. He studied hard for the test. He still didn't pass.
10. The children wanted to play outside. Their parents told them to finish homework first.

31. Read the following compound sentences and identify the type of relationship between the clauses. Indicate whether the relationship is copulative, adversative, disjunctive, causal, consequential, or resultative. Write your answers in the space provided.

Example:
Sentence: It was very late, and I was extremely tired.
Type: Copulative

1. She wanted to travel to Paris, but she didn't have enough money.
2. I will go to the concert if I can find someone to join me, or I will stay home.
3. He was very tired, so he went to bed early.
4. The dog barked loudly, yet no one seemed to notice.
5. The weather was terrible; however, they decided to go hiking.
6. I wanted to buy the new phone, yet it was too expensive.
7. She can choose to study abroad, or she can stay and complete her degree locally.
8. He finished his homework early, so he had time to relax.
9. The train was delayed, yet people continued to wait patiently.
10. She was feeling unwell; therefore, she decided to skip the party.

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Издательство
Томского государственного педагогического университета
634061, г. Томск, ул. Киевская, 60
тел. 8(3822)311-484
E-mail: izdatel@tspu.edu.ru