Міністерство освіти і науки України
Кам’янець-Подільський державний
університет

THEORETICAL GRAMMAR 4 U: MORPHOLOGY

Кам’янець-Подільський – 2006

Theoretical Grammar 4 U: Morphology: Навчальний посібник.
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Друкується згідно рішення вченої ради університету
(протокол № від грудня 2006 р.)

Матеріал посібника поєднує та систематизує різноманітність наукових пошуків вітчизняних і зарубіжних лінгвістів, акцентує увагу студентів на наукове розуміння новітніх досягнень у розвитку сучасних граматичних теорій.

Концептуальний виклад основ теоретичної граматики англійської мови сприятиме розвиткові наукового мислення студентів, формуванню чіткого уявлення про системний характер мови.

Навчальний посібник доцільно використовувати викладачам, аспірантам, магістрантам та студентам старших курсів факультетів іноземних мов вищих навчальних закладів освіти.

Посібник є скороченим варіантом (опорними тезами) курсу лекцій з "Теоретичної граматики англійської мови".

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PREFACE

This research project has gone through a process of our research-based work and the expertise of theoretical grammar syllabus questions while giving lectures to the undergraduate audience. The book uses a cognative structure that builds on students' prior knowledge of practical grammar, meant to reinforce their practical grammar skills, advancing higher levels of retention and, at the same time to introduce, cultivate and upgrade students' interpretation of theoretical grammar problems.

Thus, the chief objectives of this book are: 1) to provide students with the excerpys of our lectures, based on current trends of grammar theories and corpus-based research of modern grammarians; 2) to touch upon some difficult issues of the manifold language; 3) to correlate the Curriculum to students' practical needs and amended grammar values. The impetes wich prompted planning and carrying through this project was twofold; to update and promote the results of our long-term work; and to provide an intellectual input to some theoretical grammar items, strengthening the students' knowledge base.

Why did I take up such complex tasks that require research-based activities and upgrading many prioritized issues: I owe a special debt to my students of Group 42 (English-German department) who are fully equipped with a strong grammar knowledge base and inspired for further research work.

I also express my gratitude to Howard Tuffrey, a graduate of the university of Hull, as prime mover of this project who was an "advisory committee" to me. And last, but far from least, I think my husband, Volodymyr Umanets, for not allowing me to keep late hours while writing many redrafts of this book, and promoting my further research.

INTRODUCTION. GRAMMAR IN THE SYSTEMATIC CONCEPTION OF LANGUAGE

1. Definition of Grammar. Syntax and Morphology.
2. Purpose of the Theoretical Course of English Grammar. On Some Grammatical Statements.
3. Theoretical and Practical Grammar. Types of Theoretical Grammar.
4. The allo-emic principle.
5. Grammatical Homonymy, Synonymy, Polysemy.
6. Language and Speech.

1. Definition of Grammar. Syntax and Morphology.

Grammar is a branch of linguistics which studies the grammatical system of the language. Grammar is the result of a long time abstract work of human mind. Grammar abstracts itself from the particular and concrete and builds its rules and laws, taking into consideration only the common features of groups and words. That is why Grammar is always compared with Geometry. Abstract character is the first characteristic feature of Grammar. Another characteristic feature of Grammar is stability, which manifests itself in the fact, that laws and categories of Grammar exist through ages without considerable changes, because Grammar is a product of many epochs.

The main object of Grammar as a science is the grammatical structure of language, i.e. the system of the laws of word changing and sentence building. The rules of Grammar govern the ways in which words are joined together to express feelings, emotions, etc. The Grammar of each language constitutes a system of its own, each element of which stands in certain relations to other elements.

Grammar is divided into morphology and syntax. ***Morphology*** is the science of forms and structures (Greek: "**morphe**" which means "**form**" and "**logos**" – **knowledge**). ***Syntax*** deals with the arrangement of those forms and structures (Greek: "**syn**", which means "**with**" and **"tasso**"- to put in order).

Morphology also originates from the word "morpheus"' (the god of dreams). They thought the god of dreams gave shape to their chaotical visions in sleep.

Therefore morphology deals with forms of words. It includes parts of speech & their morphological categories. Morphological categories are represented in word forms. It studies the system of forms of word change. E.g.: the case & the number of the noun; person, number, mood of the verbs etc.

Syntax envisages the sentence and the parts of the sentence; it makes the study of ways of connection words and word combinations in the sentences.

Morphology and Syntax are two independent parts of Grammar, and they have their own objects of study; they're closely connected, for the morphological characteristics of the word are realized through its syntactical relations with other words.

On the other hand, the syntactical relations of the word may effect the morphological characteristics of parts of speech in the course of development of the grammatical structure of the language. E.g.: substantivisation of adjectives.

It is not easy to draw a clear-cut line between morphology and syntax for one thing, and for another thing we have many instances of their overlapping. E.g. "misunderstanding" is a word, while "stand here"is a phrase. The first falls under the heading of Morphology, the second falls under Syntax. "Have been taken" consists of three words and should be treated as a phrase (syntax). But it is also a form of the verb "to take" and therefore represents morphology." Has been often taken" –must be considered to belong to both morphology and syntax because of the word "often", which is not a constituent of the form of the verb "to take".

The grammar of any language has a system of forms and syntactical combinations whose structure allows us to express our thoughts or attitude to reality. The domain of Morphology is the ***Paradigmatics*** of the word, whereas the ***Syntagmatics*** is recognized to be the domain of Syntax.

2. Purpose of the Theoretical Course of English Grammar. On Some Grammatical Statements.

The main purpose of the theoretical course of English grammar is to give a profound theoretical analysis of English grammatical structure in the light of general principles of linguistics. In the course of the history of linguistics different views on different language problems have been put forward and in a great number of cases there isn't a single agreed on the opinion acceptable to all scholars. In view of this students are supposed to study and compare the most important points, and determine the most convincing ones.

As the teaching of a language to foreigners requires a strict system of rules to be observed, many grammars tend to have numerous samples of exaggerations. For example, treatment of verbs of perception and emotions as verbs which cannot be used in any of the continuous forms. But under some circumstances they can be used in the continuous forms without changing their meaning, though much rarer than others (as in the sentence "He was being polite to you"). The second example is a blunt formulation of the rule 'In a conditional if-clause the present tense is used instead of the future". The rule formulated in such a way is much too strict, and requires some modification. The group "will(shall)+Infinitive" may, in fact, be found in conditional if-clauses (e.g.: "Twenty thousand francs for you, Madame, if you'll stop breathing on my neck and go away" (R.West)). Indeed, it is difficult to find examples of

such a use, where a certain trace of the lexical meaning of the verb ‘will’ is preserved. Therefore the rule is formulated with a high degree of probability.

3. Theoretical and Normative Grammar. Types of Theoretical Grammar.

Both theoretical and normative grammar describe the grammatical system of the language. All the rules according to which people construct their speech are based on Normative Grammar.

Normative Grammar is the collection of rules of the given language, which provide the students with a manual of practical mastering the Grammar. Thus, Normative Grammar is of a prescriptive character.

Theoretical Grammar is the branch of linguistics which studies the forms of the words and their relations in sentences in a more abstract way, giving the profound description of existing grammatical laws and tendencies. Every theoretical description presents the studied parts of language in an isolated form, so as to look inside into their structure and expose the mechanisms of their functioning, i.e. the mechanism of the formation of utterances out of words in the process of speaking.

The aim of Theoretical Grammar is to present a scientific description of a certain system of a certain language. Thus, Theoretical Grammar is of a descriptive character.

Therefore a practical description is aimed at providing the student with a set of rules (laws) of practical mastering of a language. The aim of theoretical grammar is to present a theoretical description of the system of the language, i.e. to analyze grammatical categories and study the mechanisms of grammatical formation of utterances.

As far as types of theoretical grammar are concerned there appeared ***Functional*** and ***Structural grammar***, the first based on the external and the second – on the internal linguistic analysis. ***Categorial*** grammar is a logico-linguistic study of the nature of grammatical categories. ***Communicative*** grammar studies communicative grammatical theories differing in the domains and frameworks: ***Communicative*** syntax, ***Pragmatic*** syntax, ***Generative*** grammar, ***Modal*** syntax. The sphere of lingually coded message is the sphere of text. It is the domain of ***Textlinguistics,*** of the ***Text*** grammar in particular**.** ***Typological*** grammar is based on the principles of contrasting and comparing.

4. The Allo-emic Principle.

At the basis of allo-emic elements lies the division into language and speech. The term “morphemes” stands for the whole grammatically relevant class of forms. They belong to language. It is an abstract entity which expresses particular grammatical meaning. Em-terms denote generalized invariants of language, characterized by a certain functional status. Allo-morphs denote the concrete manifestation of invariants of the generalized units, dependent on the regular colligation with other elements of the language.

Invariants are abstract. The allo-morphs (or variant morphemes) like [s], [z], [iz] are phonologically predictable, but we have many examples of allo-morphs, which can't be explained by usage of speech criteria. Thus, the English plural form of the word "ox" - "oxen" is grammatically parallel to "dogs". "En" is an irregular form of the plural number. There are other irregular forms: "children", "geese". Professor Robins considered them to be allo-morphs of the plural number morpheme. According to the tradition, which goes back to Panini Grammar, such specific forms are considered by linguists as having any form (zero form) of plural number.

There is another group of words which have a specific morphemic structure: "man - men", "tooth - teeth". The plural forming morpheme is represented not by any recurrent formative like [s], but as a result of a process of root vowel interchange with infix morphemes. Such word forms are rare survivals of the specific morphemic structure of Old English. To simplify the complicated system of analysis, professor Ilysh B.A. and others refer all the speech exhibits of the plural number morphemes to the allo-morphs of the plural number morphemes.

The analysis and classification of different phonological forms in which morphemes appear, both in individual languages and in languages in general is called Morphonology (Cf. “morphophonemics”). When discussing the different forms of the English plural number morphemes we applied the morphophonological analysis.

There are two criteria in classifying morphemes:

1) Positional

2) Functinal (semantic).

According to the positional criterion morphemes are divided into: root morphemes and affixal morphemes (affixes (prefixes, infixes, suffixes)). In other words, root morphemes are called free morphemes, while affixal are bound morphemes. Root morphemes are unlimited in number. Affixes are bound morphemes, they are limited in number, and may be exhaustedly enlisted. Some words have more than one morpheme, they are compound words. E.g.: " bird-cherry", "scare-crow". In English the majority of roots are free. But nevertheless there are bound root morphemes. They are the following: receive, conceive retain, contain, transfer, refer.

Affix is a term denoting recurrent formative morphemes, other than roots.

From the point of view of formal presentation we distinguish overt and covert morphemes. Overt morphemes are represented explicitly: "retell", "asked"; covert morphemes coincide with a zero morpheme. Every morpheme is the smallest meaningful unit, thus "ed" conveys the morpheme of the Past tense. We should differentiate between form-building morphemes (they are grammatical) and word-building morphemes (they are lexical).

E.g.: move ment , out line - word-building morphemes; ask ed, ask s, get ting - form-building morphemes.

Form-building morpheme is called word changing.

5. Grammatical Homonymy, Synonymy, Polycemy.

Grammatical elements of language present a unity of content and expression, i. e. a unity of form and meaning. The correspondence between the planes of content and expression is very complex, and is typical of any language. This complex phenomenon is vividly shown in grammatical polysemy, homonymy, and synonymy.

In case of polysemy two or more units of the plane of content correspond to one unit of the plane of expression. For example, the verbal form of the Present Indefinite (one unit in the plane of expression) renders the following grammatical meanings:

1.customary action; 2. universal truths; 3. qualitative characteristics of a person, etc.

When we deal with grammatical homonymy one unit in the plane of expression homonymically renders some grammatical meanings. E.g. The morpheme s (es) is found:

1. In the plural of nouns ; 2. In the possessive case of nouns; 3. In the 3d person singular in verbs of the Present Simple; 4. In some absolute form of possessive pronouns (ours, yours).

The morpheme (ed) is found in: 1. Past Simple of regular verbs; 2. Participle II of regular verbs; 3. Subjunctive II present.

The morpheme (en) is found in: 1. Participle II of irregular verbs; 2. In the plural form of such nouns as oxen, children, brethren; 3. In the absolute form of possessive pronouns (mine, thine).

The morpheme (ing) is found in Participle I, Gerund.

The meaning they render are quite different.

In cases of synonymy two or more units of the plane of expression correspond to one unit of the plane of content. For instance, the forms of the Future Indefinite , Future Continuous and Present Continuous can synonymically render the meaning of a future action.

6. **Language and Speech.**

The Swiss scholar Ferdinand de Saussure was the first who spoke of the necessity of distinguishing language and speech. Language in the narrow sense of the word is a system of means of expression. Speech should be understood as the manifestation of the system of language in the process of intercourse.

There is no other way for linguists to get to language than through speech.

Language characterizes a certain human community. It is used in the community; it is understood by all the members of the community; so it is called a social code. And by its nature language is social. Speech, on the contrary, is individual, but it's based upon language which exists in the minds of all speaking community.

We cannot see language, neither hear it. We can get to it only through speech. As we are concerned with Grammar only, we do not have to deal with phonological and lexical parts of language. We shall only concentrate on the system of Grammar and its manifestation. Language and Speech are closely connected and intermingled. They may come a unity. Language is realized through Speech. The life of language consists in oral and written intercourse within 2 or more people. This linguistic intercourse is manifested through connected communications chiefly in the form of sentences, though not always so complete and well-arranged. The object in teaching Grammar is not only rules, which must be obeyed if one wants to speak and write the language correctly. It also aims at finding out what is actually said and written by the speakers of the language.

According to Ferdinant de Saussure: ,, Language is a treasure, formed by way of speaking practice and preserved in the minds of the people who belong to a certain speaking community".

Units of language form a hierarchy of levels, which are characterised by isomorphic and allomorphic features. We find the following language levels:

1. Phonemic level which is formed by phonemes. The phoneme has no meaning, its function is differential and it is not a sign;
2. Morphemic level is represented by morphemes; Morphemes are built up by phonemes, so that the shortest morphemes include only one phoneme (ros-y; a-fire)
3. Lexemic level is the level of words. The word, differing from the morpheme, is a nominative unit of language: it names things and their relations. Since words are built up by morphemes, the shortest words consist of one explicit morpheme only (man, but);
4. Phrasemic level is formed by phrases or word groups. To this level belong combinations of two or more notional words. They represent a kind of polynomination, be it an action, a concrete thing or a whole situation.
5. Above the phrasemic level lies the level of sentences or "proposemic" level. A specific character of a proposeme (a sentence) is that naming a situation or event, it expresses the relation of the denoted event to reality. That is it expresses predication. Thus, a sentence is a predicative unit, showing whether this event is real or unreal, desirable or obligatory, stated as a truth or asked about.
6. The level of sentence – groups, "suprasentential constructions" which is called "supra – proposemic". The supra-sentential construction is a combination of separate sentences forming a textual unity. The syntactic process by which sentences are connected into textual unities is analysed under the heading of "cumulation", which can be both syndetic and asyndetic.

PART I. BASIC ASSUMPTION OF GRAMMAR: CATEGORIAL MORPHOLOGY

1. SYNTEGMATIC AND PARADIGMATIC RELATIONS

Originally, the differentiation between paradigmatics and syntagmatics was based on recognition of two linguistic planes:

the plane of language;

the plane of speech.

Language planes are structured paradigmatically and speech planes are structured syntagmatically. Therefore they say, the language is a system of paradigmatic relations, that are usually vertical and imply the choice when they are realized in actual speech (e.g. boy, boy's, boys, boys'). Speech is a system of syntagmatic relations. They are always horizontal, linear. They form a syntagmeme, which may comprise : phonemes, morphemes, words, phrases, clauses.

Paradigmatic relations may be of the following kinds:

1) They may be based on the similarity of semantic features (synonymous and antonymous groups). E.g. beautiful, charming, fascinating, inspiring, captivating, great.

2) They may be based on the similarity of the formal, form-building or word-forming characteristics of linguistic elements. Such relations exist between the members of the following paradigms:

a) formal paradigm (e.g. books, beds, pianos); b) form-building paradigm (go, goes, will go); c) word-forming paradigm (look - looker-looking).

3) They may function at the syntactic level, where we observe sentence paradigms, which are called transforms. These are functional paradigms. They are united by a common meaning (e.g. The work had been done, we went home. The work done, we went home. After the work had been done, we went home.).

According to the logical approach, there are three types of syntagmatic relations: independence (coordination), dependence (subordination) and interdependence (predication).

Syntagmatic relations may be also subdivided into combinational and non-combinational. Combinational syntagmatic relations are of lexico-semantic or grammatical character (e.g. to speak fluently, to tell him). Non-combinational relations are typical of the syntax of the text. They appear between sentences and supra phrasal unities. They are textual and cohesive, and they appear between elements which are usually in distant positions (e.g. anaphoric and cataphoric relations).

The anaphoric relations show that an element refers to its antecedent in the left-hand side (retrospective relations). The cataphoric relations indicate that antecedent is located in the right text contest (prospective relations).

2. CATEGORIAL STRUCTURE OF THE WORD.

1. Grammatical Meaning.
2. Grammatical Form.
3. Grammatical Category.

1. Grammatical Meaning.

Grammar abstracts itself from particular meanings of words and deals with the most generalized meanings.

In logic the most general notions reflecting the most general properties of some phenomena are called categorial notions (or categories) . The most general meanings in Linguistics are regularly expressed through the system of the paradigmatically organized word forms and are interpreted as categorial meanings.

According to the general methodological law, every content must have a certain material form of expression. If we take a generalized meaning of plurality we can find its material implementation in many word forms, such as: streets, cars, houses, girls, students, which make up a grammeme.

We understand by a grammatical meaning a generalized abstract meaning which combines words of one class (e.g. the meaning of substance for nouns; action and state for verbs; quality or property for adjectives; subjective relation to an expressed thought for modal words).

Being abstracted from the casual and concrete, the grammatical meaning of a word is common to all other words of the given part of speech (e.g. table, chair, beauty have one and the same grammatical meaning, that of substance).

The grammatical meaning of each given word is determined by its relation to other words of the same language. Thus, the grammatical meaning is not named, for example, in case. It is marked off by a special form, fixed for the given grammatical meaning. The grammatical meaning of number in nouns is marked off by the absence of the inflexions in the singular and by the inflexion –s (es) in the plural.

2. Grammatical Form.

The expression of grammatical categories by external and internal linguistic means represents a grammatical form. Every grammatical meaning is marked off by a grammatical form. The grammatical meaning of the Indicative Mood, the Present Simple tense, for example, is marked off by the zero inflexion in the first person singular (I take) and by the inflexions -s,-es in the third person singular (He takes).

The form of a word may be represented by:

1. external inflexions (e.g. suffixes);
2. internal flexions (e.g. take-took);
3. suppletive forms (e.g. go-went; little – less);
4. the shift of stresses(conduct –conduct);
5. analytical forms(e.g. have been taken; was taken);

If a form is fixed for a given meaning, we deal with a grammatical category.

Analytical forms appeared later than flexions. They consist of two lexemic parts , presented by a combination of an auxiliary word with a basic word. In synthetic forms of words the lexical and grammatical meanings are found in one word (take-taken).

Analytical forms of words should be distinguished from phrases. They are characterised by the following features:

1. Semantic indivisibility. Every component taken separately hasn't any information of the general meaning of the form. But general grammatical meaning consists of combination of all the components;
2. Between the components of an analytical form must not appear any syntactical relations;
3. Syntactical relations within the text are possible only for the form on the whole; the components of the form taken separately can't have any syntactical relations;
4. Analytical forms have idiomatic character.

It is common to state that Modern English is an analytical language and Ukrainian is synthetical. This statement must be modified while saying that English is "mainly analytical" and Ukrainian is "mainly synthetical". The main features of Modern English as an analytical language are the following:

1. comparatively few grammatical inflexions;
2. a narrow use of sound alterations to denote grammatical forms;
3. a wide use of prepositions to denote relations between objects and to connect words in the sentence;
4. prominent use of word order to denote grammatical relations: a more or less fixed word order.

3. Grammatical Category.

The unity of the grammatical meaning with a grammatical form may testify to the existence of the grammatical category, but to establish the grammatical category, we must find a system of paradigmatically correlated grammatical forms.

E.g.: boys can be correlated with boy's.

Since within the noun we may come across the following paradigm, expressing the generalized notion of number.

E.g.: street - streets; ox - oxen ; foot - feet.

If we analyze the opposed forms "street – streets", we may observe, that they are grammatically opposed, for the first expresses singularity, the other - plurality. The two opposed meanings are united by a more abstract meaning of noun. This highly abstract meaning of noun represented by the paradigmatic correlation of two grammatical forms makes up a grammatical category.

Likewise, we may establish the existence of the category of tense of the verb, but it will be represented by the grammatical opposition of three grammatical forms and grammatical meanings.

E.g. : ask – asked – will ask
present past future

The opposition of grammatical forms always represents the opposition of grammatical meanings.

The correlated elements of the grammatical opposition must possess common features and differential ones, i.e. one form must be unmarked, other form (forms) must be marked by a certain morpheme.

A grammatical category is a unity of a generalized grammatical meaning, with a set of paradigmatically correlated grammatical forms.

Any grammatical category must be represented by, at least, two grammatical forms. There're no languages in which you could find only one case form or one form of number. The minimal set of paradigmatically correlated forms is two forms.

Category of case in English is represented by the opposition of two forms (Common - Possessive), Russian - six forms (падежи).

No grammatical category can be represented by all the word forms of the word. If some grammatical meaning is inherent in all the word forms of the given word, we shall deal here not with a grammatical category but with lexico-grammatical category. Such is the Category of Gender in Ukrainian. We can't change the noun for the category of Gender, i.e. masculine, feminine, neuter.

The set meanings of Gender are inherent in certain nouns.

There are no word forms without grammatical categories. In modern linguistics, it is generally accepted, that a grammatical category is represented by an opposeme of, at least, 2 forms. It follows from the theory worked out by the linguist Nicolas Treubetskoy (binary opposition in Linguistics). He applied the opinion to phonology, but later on he thought that this method works very well in other fields of Linguistics.

Different parts of speech have different number of grammatical categories.

E.g.: the English verb is the most developed system from the point of view of categories. Some think the verb has 6 grammatical categories, others 8 grammatical categories: tense, person, number, mood, voice, aspect, taxes.

The English noun has 2 categories (number, case).

The Adjective has degree of comparison.

3. PARTS OF SPEECH THEORY

1. Problem of the parts of speech. Definition of the parts of speech.
2. Classification of words into the parts of speech. Principles of the classification.
3. Number and nomenclature of the parts of speech.
4. Notional and structural parts of speech. Their characteristic features.
5. Structural approach to the classification of words.

1. **Problem of the parts of speech. Definition of the parts of speech**.

Every language contains classes of words. When describing them, we should analize whether one word separates or unites them into classes possessing more or less common features.

Linguists make use of both approaches. Grammar mostly deals with clases of words, traditionaly called parts of speech. The term " part of speech " is conventional. The well-known linguist Shcherba Z.V., Professor Smirnitsky prefer to use the term "lexico-grammatical categories"; Professor Blokh operates with the term "grammatical classes of words"; Charles Fries calls them "positional classes"; Professor Ilyish, the linguists Himovich and Rogovskaya speak of "lexico-grammatical classes of word". Nowadays there's no general agreement among the grammarians as to the number of the parts of speech, especially contraversial is the problem of delimiting parts of speech on the basis of some common principles.

Thus, we have not got an agreed upon opinion on the term of the parts of speech, and the questions of the number and nomenclature of the parts of speech have not been decided upon both by foreign and our scholars. As to the nomenclature of the parts of speech there are some difficulties which are hard to overcome. The matter is that some parts of speech have features which are similar to other parts of speech. And in many cases it is difficult to refer them to a single part of speech. For example, '***Since morning I haven't seen him*** ."Here '***since***' is a preposition. In the sentence "***I haven't seen him since***" "***since***" is an adverb. In the sentence ***" Since he didn't come we shall have to wait for him"*** "***since***" is a conjunction.

The article, for example, is analysed by some scholars together with pronouns; other scholars analyse the article together with adjectives. The words of the category of state are analysed by some scientists as a separate part of speech, while other scholars analyse them together with adjectives and so on.

Parts of speech are lexico-grammatical categories of words differing in their grammatical meaning, types of form-building, types and forms of word-building, and in the functions they perform in the sentence.

2. **Classification of words into parts of speech. Principles of the classification.**

Words of a language may be classified in two main ways:

a) traditional classification; b) structural classification.

Traditional classification. According to their meaning, morphological characteristics and syntactical properties words are divided into parts of speech. ***By meaning*** we do not have in mind the individual meaning of each separate word, its lexical meaning, but the meaning common to all the words of the given class , constituting its essence. We have in mind the grammatical meaning.

By morphological characteristics we mean the form of the word. Thus, the noun is characterised by the category of number and the category of case. The verb is characterised by the categories of tense, mood, voice, aspect, number and person.

By syntactical features we mean the syntactical functions of words in the sentence and the means of combinability with other words.

3. Number and nomenclature of the parts of speech.

The first to introduce words into classes was Aristotle, who lived in between 384 - 322 B.C. Being a founder of logic, Aristotle equated the relation of ideas in human mind with the relation of words in speech and established grammatical categories in terms of logic. He introduced in Grammar the notion of "subject" and "predicate". His criterion for descriminating between parts of speech was the ability of words to express the parts of logical proposition, i.e. the subject, the predicate, and the copula.

Accordingly, Aristotle established 3 parts of speech : the name, the verb and the conjunction. By the " name " he meant the word which can perform the function of the subject. The " verb " represented the predicate. And by the conjunction he denoted all the functional words, such as prepositions, articles, conjunctions, particles. Aristotle's teaching was later continued by other scholars.

Still the confusion of Grammar with the categories of logic remained.

In the history of the parts of speech there have been different criteria, according to which the parts of speech have been singled out.

Fortunatov considered the parts of speech to be the formal grammatical classes. His classification was purely morphological. He divided all the words into changeble and unchangeble. To the first group he referred noun, verb, adjective. Others were unchangeble.

Shakhmatove's classification followed the syntactical principle. It proved to be one-sided.

Academician V.Vinogradov distinguished 7 notional and 4 structural parts of speech in Russian. He didn't include into notional parts of speech modal words and interjections.

In English Professors Ilyish and Vinokurova number 12 parts of speech. Most scholars adhere to 13 parts theory in English (Ivanova, Kaushanskaya, Ganshina and Vasilevskaya, and others). Pr. Ilyish and Irteneva do not include the article into the parts of speech. Ganshina and Vasilevskaya analyse words of the category of state together with the adjective.

We think it is advisable to adhere to the 13 parts of speech system and include both the words of the category of state and articles into separate parts of speech.

4. **Notional and structural parts of speech. Their characteristic features**.

Out of 13 parts of speech in English 9 represent notional parts of speech (noun, adjective, pronoun, numeral, verb, adverb, words of the category of state, modal words, interjections) and 4 structural parts of speech (prepositions, conjunctions, particles (proper and linking), articles. Notional parts of speech reflect the reality by means of naming things, actions, qualities, properties or express the attitude of the speaker towards the stated thought.

Features of the notional and structural parts of speech*:*

1. A notional word may be used in isolation, without any other word (e.g. Morning!).
2. A notional word has usually a stress and is singled out in speech (e.g. There is a book on the table).
3. A notional word may be derived and give derivatives (e.g. Nation –national-nationality).
4. A notional word fulfils independent syntactical functions in a sentence (those of subject, object, different adverbial modifiers, etc.).
5. Notional words have the nominative functions. That is they give names to things, objects, ideas.
6. A notional word may refer to different words in the sentence (e.g. He questioned her for some minutes and at last broke off). Here the word "questioned" refers to "he" , "her" and "minutes".
7. A notional word may have dependent words (prepositions, articles, particles).
8. A notional word may have different paradigms (different forms).
9. Notional words practically are limitless in number, but limited in the frequency of use.
10. In notional words the lexical meaning in the great majority of cases can be separated from the grammatical meaning.

5. Structural approach to the classification of words.

English words may be divided into definite groups or classes in accordance with the position they occupy in the sentence and their combinability with other words in the structure of a sentence. A representative of this structural approach Charles Fries was a representative of the American Descriptive school. He applied only one principle in delimiting parts of speech - the principle of function. His classes of words can be hardly called parts of speech. He calls them "positional classes" that are established by the methods of distribution & substitution. His principle is synthetical. According to this principle, the speaker gets sygnals of common classes of word from the position the word occupies in the sentence, the meaning of the word being unnecessary.

E.g.: Woggles ugged diggles.

The sygnals of structural meaning(thingness or action) are called by Fries "Formal classes". He doesn't deny the term "parts of speech". Further, he establishes the words, that are characterized by a similar set of positions, which enables him to refer certain words to this or that common class. For this purpose, he takes the minimal utterance(or frames).

Class 1 Cl. 3

Frame A: The concert was good.

Cl.2

Frame B: The cleark remembered the text.

Cl.4

Frame C: The team went there.

So, he established 4 classes of notional words & 15 classes of functional ones. Ch. Fries divides all notional words into 4 classes:

Class 1 -N, Class 2 – V, Class 3 –A, Class 4 - D (different adverbial modifiers). The rest of the words are called function-class words and are divided into 15 classes.

A word is referred to a certain class in accordance with the position it occupies in special text-frames (patterns). It is a structural approach.

He considered his classification highly objective, because it is structural. Later оп 64 classes of functional words were added. He himself calls the classes – “positional classes of words”. Parts of speech are subdivided further, they are objective to subcatigorization.

PART II. MORPHOLOGY

1. NOUN. CATEGORY OF NUMBER

1. Definition of noun. Three main criteria of noun characteristic.
2. Nouns and their reference.
3. Category of number: general peculiarities. The singular and the plural forms of the noun.
4. Division of nouns according to their relation to number:

a) nouns used in the singular and in the plural (countable nouns); b) nouns used only in the singular (Singularia Tantum); c) nouns used in the singular in their main uncountable meaning and in the plural in their secondary countable meaning;d) nouns used only in the plural (Pluralia Tantum) ; e) collective nouns and nouns of multitude.

1. Definition of noun. Three main criteria of noun characteristic.

The noun is a part of speech which includes words denoting substance or certain facts or phenomena, regarded as substance.

Substance is used here in a very wide sense and means not only things that undergo physical perception but also objects and notions that are to be percepted only mentally. Thus, the meaning of substance analyses the noun semantically. According to the formal criterion the English noun has the following peculiarities: singular and plural forms, typical case 's inflexion, typical noun-building suffixes (-er,-ist,-ess, -ee , -ness,-ion), specific combinability with other words (adjectives, articles, prepositions, etc.). As for the functional criterion the noun is characterised by certain syntactical functions, that is subject, object, attribute, different adverbial modifiers, predicative.

2. Nouns and their reference.

The noun is a central nominative lexemic unit of language. It follows that the noun is the main nominative part of speech, denoting:

1. animate things; 2. inanimate things; 3. events; 4. phenomena; 5. quality; 6. attitude (hatred); 7. action (reading, movement); 8. state (neatness, sleep); 9. abstract notions; 10. a whole class of objects (The teacher is respected everywhere).

3. Category of number: general peculiarities. The singular and the plural forms of the noun.

Number is a grammatical category of the noun that shows whether one thing is meant or more than one. According to the first characteristic feature of a grammatical category (its universal character) the category of number is universal for the whole class of words (the noun). As for the second feature the number category in English is expressed by the binary opposition of two forms (the singular and the plural). The number category is used to express the general grammatical meaning of "oneness" or more than "oneness" (the third characteristic feature of a grammatical category).

The category of number in Modern English is realised through the opposition of the singular form of the noun and the plural form of the noun. Nouns in the singular denote:

1. a single thing (man, letter) – class nouns;
2. a unity (family, crew, party) – collective nouns;
3. something as a whole (water, ice) – names of material;
4. totality (humanity, mankind) – names used only in the singular;
5. indivisibility (cattle, poultry) – names used only in the plural.

The plural form of the noun is a marked form of this opposition, denoting:

1. several things; 2. discreteness of some objects and facts. There are the following ways of expressing the plural of the English noun:

1. The productive formal mark –the suffix –s(es) as opposed to the zero-suffix of the singular;
2. The vowel interchange (man-men, goose-geese). It is a non productive way of expressing the number opposition.
3. The archaic suffix –en (ox-oxen);
4. The suffix –en together with phonemic interchange (brother-brethren, cow-kine, child-children);
5. An interchange of consonants (wife-wives);
6. Homonymous forms (deer-deer);
7. Plural borrowed suffixes from Latin and Greek (the Latin are inflexions : a-ae; us-i;um-a. The Greek: is-es; on-);

There is a tendency in English to form the plural by means of –s ,-es endings notwithstanding the origin of the word (e.g. formula- formulae- formulas; dogma- dogmae- dogmas).

4. Division of nouns according to their relation to number.

Nouns used in the singular and in the plural are countable nouns. Most nouns are countable nouns, which are the names of discrete things and phenomena of reality. They may be counted and mean one of a certain number or more than one.

Nouns used only in the singular (Singularia Tantum). To this group belong proper names, names of material or mass nouns, certain abstract nouns and some collective nouns.

Special attention in the English language should be made to some nouns which end in –s but are used only in the singular. They are: news, gallows, summons.

Nouns used in the singular in their main uncountable meaning and in the plural in their secondary countable meaning. In this case the grammatical inflexion is lexicalised, i.e. instead of expressing a grammatical category it is used to distinguish different words. Uncountable nouns used in the plural acquire the following meaning:

1. The plural is used to denote different kinds (e.g. wines, cheeses); 2. The plural is used to narrow the meaning an abstract noun (e.g. the pleasures of winter sports, a strange imagination) or some change of meaning (I remember many kindnesses she exercised in the past. Sorrows of our life.).3.The plural is used for stylistic reason suggesting a great quantity or extent (e.g. the sands of the Sahara, the blue skies of Italy, the waters of the Atlantic); 4. The noun changes its meaning in the plural (e.g. physic – medicine, physics – natural science; air – atmosphere , airs (to put on airs – задаватися); 5. Some abstract nouns are used in one meaning as countables, and in another as uncountables (work – робота, a work – твір, experience - досвід, an experience - випадок із життя, silence – тиша, a silence – пауза, nature – природа, a nature - натура)

Nouns used only in the plural (Pluralia Tantum). This group of nouns may be divided into the following subgroups: 1. nouns denoting equal halves, discrete nouns; 2. Mass collective nouns(perfumes, preserves, sweepings); 3. Abstract collective nouns (negotiations, elections); 4. Nouns derived from adjectives (greens, goods, valuables, riches). Besides, nouns denoting equal halves are subdivided into: a) nouns denoting two equal halves (scissors, tongs, trousers, scales, eye-glasses, spectacles, etc); b) collective nouns meaning a lot of the same things (vegetables, slums, outskirts, charms); c) collective nouns denoting many persons (police).

Collective nouns and nouns of multitude.

Certain nouns, denoting groups of human beings and sometimes animals (family, government, party, the aristocracy, crew, audience, staff, jury, army, class, crowd, flock, etc.) can be used in two different ways. They may denote a group as a whole and in that case they are treated as singulars and usually turned collective nouns proper (собственно-собирательные имена существительные) (e.g. My family is small. The audience was large (enormous)).

They may denote a group as consisting of a certain number of individual human beings or animals. In this case they are usually turned as nouns of multitude (существительные множественности) (e.g. My family keep a close eye on me. The audience were enjoying every minute of the play.).

2. NOUN: CATEGORY OF CASE

1. Definition of case. General characteristics. The meanings of the genitive case.
2. Different theories on the category of case.
3. Professor Vorontsova and Pr. Ilish on cases in English.
4. The problem of "of +N".

1. Definition of case. General characteristics. The meanings of the genitive case.

Case is the noun (or pronoun) category built up by means of inflexions, which indicates the relations of the noun (or pronoun) to the other words in the sentence.

According to the first characteristic feature of a grammatical category, the grammatical category of case is universal for the whole class of words (the noun).

This category is expressed in English by the opposition of the form in 's, usually called the "possessive" case, or more traditionally, the "genitive" case, to the unfeatured form of the noun, usually called the common case. It is the second characteristic feature of a grammatical category. The apostrophised –s serves to distinguish in writing the singular noun in the genitive case from the plural noun in the common case. E.g. the girl's name, Jane's answer. The genitive of the most English plurals remains phonetically unexpressed, with the exception of irregular plurals. As to the third characteristic feature of a grammatical category the grammatical category of case correlates with the logical category of possession. Thus, the meaning of the Possessive- case form is defined as "possession" or "possessivity". As to the meanings rendered by the Common-case form, they appeared to be numerous. Traditional grammarians underestimated the fact that the marked case-form of English nouns is likely to be the Genitive but not the Possessive case because the meanings which are nowadays rendered by the 's inflexion are far beyond "possessivity". They are the following:

1) possession (Children's toys were lying on the floor);
2) description (At this super market you can buy ladies' gloves, men's shoes, children's toys);
3) time and measure (She'll come in an hour's time. He lives at a mile's distance);
4) authorship (Charles Dickens's novels);
5) destination (Emily's presents are on the table);
6) the objective genitive (Brown's trial, the boy's punishment, Smith's reception);
7) the subjective genitive (the girl's reading; Tom's anger; the father's order);
8) the partitive genitive . In most cases it is expressed by means of the "of" phrase(a glass of tea, a handful of sugar). Still there may be instances when the 's is used to express the partitive meaning (George's face, the car's roof).

In Ukrainian any noun may be used in the genitive case, while in English the use of nouns in the genitive case is limited to nouns denoting living beings. However there are cases when the genitive is used with nouns denoting lifeless things, namely: time and distance, names of seasons months, days, towns, cities, countries, rivers, waters, oceans, world, wine, etc.(e.g. The wind's rustle was so gentle). It should be noted, however, that this limitation does not appear to be very strict. The use of the 's with nouns denoting lifeless things becomes possible because the genitive case may have the descriptive meaning, and also the meaning of personification (e.g. to one's heart's content; at one's wit's end; at one's finger's end; to a hair's breadth; out of harm's way; for old acquaintance's sake; for appearance's sake; personification: music's voice, England's history).

2. Different theories on the category of case.

There are different points of view as to the number of cases in Modern English. John Nasfield and some other scholars number five cases: the nominative, vocative, accusative, genitive and dative. G.Curme and M.Deutschbein speak of four cases: the nominative, genitive, dative, accusative. The three case system is represented by A. West, C.Craig, R. Pence, A.Bein, Adams, H.Whitehall. The three case system consists of the nominative, possessive and objective cases.

The scholars who adhere to the five, four, and three case systems force upon Modern English, those categories which do not really exist in it. It is groundless to treat the order of words as a means of expressing the category of case since the order of words in a sentence characterises the words not as parts of speech (morphology), but as parts of the sentence (syntax). Whereas case is a morphological category.

There is also a theory that cases are expressed by prepositions (e.g. of the boy- genitive, to the boy – dative, etc.). The majority of our scholars are of the opinion that since prepositions usually retain their lexical meanings, word groups they participate in can hardly be treated as analytical forms of nouns.

It should be recognised that once we admit prepositions or word order or any other non-morphological means of expressing cases, the number of cases is bound to grow indefinitely. Besides, prepositions as well as word order represent syntax, and cases represent morphology. If we take into consideration word order and admit prepositions as a means representing cases then we shall mix up morphology and syntax, which should be avoided.

The two case system is represented by H.Sweet, Otto Espersen and others. At present the noun is not inflected in the nominative, dative, and accusative. And, as there is no change of form, all these cases are considered to be one

case, the common case. Only the genitive case has presented a distinct form, that is why we speak now of only two cases in Modern English: the common and the genitive (possessive) cases.

3. Professor Vorontsova and Ilyish on cases in English.

It must be noted that even the ’s inflexion is not always an indication of case for one word. And this is a peculiarity of English (e.g. The Oxford Professor of poetry’s lecture). The ’s refers to the whole group. However, it was the lecture of the Professor, and not the poetry’s lecture. This construction and such constructions as: “This is Mary and Ann’s room”, “It is somebody else’s book”, “The blond I had been dancing with’s name was…” may bring us to the conclusion that ’s inflexion can be used apart from the word to which it refers, and it becomes something like a preposition, referring to a whole word group. This gave Pr.Vorontsova the possibility to consider the’s as a post positive element, some kind of a preposition, instead of case-inflexion. G.N.Vorontsova’s arguments are the following:

1. The ’s inflexion is optional (not obligatory), e.g. her brother’s book – the book of her brother.
2. The ’s inflexion is used with a limited number of nouns, out of which it occurs very seldom.
3. The ’s is used both in the singular and in the plural (e.g. a child’s toy – children’s toys, while in Ukrainian we have книга хлопчика – книги хлопчиків).
4. ’s occurs in very few plurals, only in those of irregular formations.
5. The ’s inflexion does not make an inseparable part of the structure of the word It may even be placed at some distance from the head-noun or of an attributive group.

Pr. Ilyish states that apparently the original case- system in the English nouns, which has undergone a systematic reduction since the earliest times in the history of the language, is at present extinct. And the only case-ending to survive in the modern language has developed into an element of a different character, possibly a particle, denoting possession (Cf.: G.Vorontsova: preposition, postpositive element; B.Ilyish: a particle denoting possession).

4. The problem “of + Noun”.

Some scholars including V.M.Girmunsky are of the opinion that “of + Noun “ represents an analytical case form. However, the majority of scholars do not accept this theory, pointing out that:

1. The first constituent of an analytical form has no lexical meaning (e.g. has taken). It has only a grammatical meaning; while prepositions very often have a lexical meaning of their own).
2. The first constituent of an analytical form is variable (has-have taken). Prepositions in such formations cannot be variable, because the variety of prepositions will lead to a change in the meaning.
3. The lexical meaning of an analytical form is found only in the second component; the lexical meaning of “of + Noun” is often the sum of “of + N”.
4. Grammatical forms are limited in number, while the set of prepositions is practically unlimited.

3. VERB AS A PART OF SPEECH

1. Definition of the verb.
2. Semantic, morphological and syntactical criteria of the verb characteristic.
3. Morphological and lexico-morphological classification of the English verb.

1. Definition of the verb.

Verb is a part of speech which includes words expressing actions or states conceived as processes.

Verb has the following grammatical categories: 1. Tense 2. Mood 3. Voice 4. Aspect 5. Number 6. Person. The categories of tense, mood, voice and aspect are immanent, while the categories of number and person are considered by most scholars subsidiary.

2. Semantic, morphological and syntactical criteria of the verb characteristic. Semantic criterion of the verb characteristic .

The general categorial meaning of the verb is process presented dynamically, i.e. developing in time. This general processual meaning (verbality) is embedded in the semantics of all the verbs.

The processual categorial meaning of the notional verb determines its use with a noun expressing both the doer of the action and the recipient of the action.

(e.g. He fished in summer. He fished through his pockets). The meaning of this kind also determines the verb combination with an adverb as the modifier of the action (e.g. He nodded promptly).

Morphological criterion of the verb characteristic.

From the structural point of view the verb is characterized by the following forms of word-building:

1. suffixes, expanding the stem of the verb (-en (of German origin) ***spoken;*** --ify,ize (of Roman origin) ***classify***; -ate :**demonstrate**).
2. Verbal prefixes: (be-: ***belittle***; mis-:***misbehave***; under-: ***undertake***; re-; over-; sub-; un-).
3. Zero-suffixation (convertion) ***(spy – to spy; house – to house***).
4. Verbal postposition elements *(break out; look into)*.

Syntactical criterion of the verb characteristic.

The verb is characterized by a certain combinability. It may have : a) unilateral combinability (e.g. I see); b) bilateral connections (e.g. I see the point); c) multilateral combinability (e.g. I see the point well).

In the sentence the finite verb invariably performs the function of the predicate. The non-finite verb (the infinitive, gerund and participle) performs different functions according to its intermediary nature (subject, object, adverbial modifier, attribute) and may be used only as a part of the predicate.

3. Morphological, lexico-grammatical classification of the English verb.

According to the morphological structure English verbs fall into:

1.simple, consisting of a bare stem (look, read, find); 2. Derivative , including derivational affixes (discharge, outlook); 3. Compound, comprising two stems (to whitewash – from white and wash); 4. Composite verbs , built up with the help of postposition elemments (break up, break out, break off). 5. Phrase verbs (to keep silent, to take a snap, to have supper).

Another morphological classification of the English verb is based on the type of building up the forms of Past Simple and PII. Thus, the verbs are subdivided into: 1. Standard or regular verbs. They are the most divert and numerous group, formed with the help of the dental suffix which has three phonetic speech variants. 2. Irregular verbs having a great many subgroups. A number of irregular verbs became standard ones. To irregular verbs belong verbs built up by a) means of vowel alteration (read – read; lead -lead); b) with the help of the dental suffix and vowel alteration (keep –kept; weep –wept); c). by means of the dental suffix (bend –bent); d)through suppletive forms (am-is-are; go-went-gone e) verbs which remain unchanged (to put, to let, to cut).

Lexico-morphological classification.

According to their lexical meaning all verbs may be divided into three groups: 1. Terminative (предельные); 2. Non-terminative (or durative); 3. Verbs of double lexical character.

Terminative verbs denote an action implying a certain limit beyond which it cannot go on. They express actions in their progress, but this progress may be developed until reaching its inner limit. Here belong such simple and composite verbs as: to come, to bring, to build, to give, to take, to receive, to fall, to kill, to die, to become, to stand up, to sit down, to reach, to approach, to change, to make, to construct, to destroy, to get, to notice, to close, to open, to meet, to put, to rise.

Verbs of ***point-actions*** such as to throw, to jump, to knock, to drop, to burst, to clap also belong to terminative verbs.

Non-terminative or durative verbs. They denote a certain action which does not imply any limit. To this group belong such verbs as: to sleep, to like, to lie, to love, to hate, to respect, to live , to exist, to be, to have, to possess, to work, to speak, to hope, to sit, to stay, to study, to teach, to travel, to last. These verbs in reality do not express actions which go on eternally, but there is no inner limitation in the meaning of these verbs.

Verbs of double lexical character.

They in certain contexts have a terminative meaning and in others – a non-terminative meaning. They include such verbs as: to see, to hear, to write, to read, to translate, to look, to kneel, to remember. Verbs of double lexical character can express lexically both a single act and a process.

The aspect character of the English verb does not coincide with the aspect character of the Ukrainian verb. Non-terminative verbs in Ukrainian always refer to imperfective aspect. But terminative verbs may have both the form of perfective and imperfective aspects.

4. VERB: CATEGORY OF TENSE

Language as a form of cognition and communication reflects the objective ***space*** and ***time*** relations. Space and time cannot but find their reflection in language because any action takes place in space and time. **English grammatical terminology has a special word "*tense*" to indicate time .** In our country and abroad many scientists define the category of tense as the relation of action to the moment of speech. In linguistic investigation the interpretation of the moment of speech is connected with different theories referring the category of tense either to psychological or logical.

The objective logical category of tense is reflected in the English language by the following means:

1. lexical time markers (now, then, today, tomorrow);
2. lexico-morphological means (prefixes) (e.g. pre-historic, posthumous);
3. morphological means (word-forms) (e.g. look-looked – have looked, etc).

In the English language there exist particular ***grammatical means*** of expressing the grammatical category of tense:

1. external inflexions(suffixes)(played, playing, plays);
2. internal flexions (phonemic interchange)(speak- spoke; feed – fed);
3. suppletive forms (go – went; be – was);
4. analytical forms (have been done; was taken);
5. lexical-syntactical (word combinations and phrases) (e.g. some time later, just now, a few days ago).

The category of tense is not disputed in linguistics, however the number of tenses and their grouping are under discussion. Thus, Otto Jespersen expresses doubt as to the existence of the Future tense in English. According to his opinion "shall" and "will" preserve their original meanings of "obligation" and "volition" and therefore English in his opinion has no way of expressing pure futurity . Some of our linguists share O.Jespersen's opinion(e.g. L. Barhudarov). It should be noted that their grounds are not convincing . This is especially clear in some examples where the meaning of "volition" is excluded by the context. E.g. I am so sorry, I'm afraid I will have to go back to the hotel.

Pr. Ilyish does not consider the perfect tenses to be tenses at all. He suggests three groups of notions: tenses (the present, past and future), aspect (the common and continuous) and correlation(non-perfect and perfect).

Professor Irteneva proposed the so called two centre system which consists of the past and present point time. Each centre system includes the pre-point time and past-point time.

Thus, Pr. Irteneva does not dispute the number of tenses, but she rearranges them differently.

A profound theory of English tenses has been put forward by Pr. A. Korsakov. He establishes a system of absolute and anterior tenses , and of static and dynamic tenses. By dynamic tenses he means what we call tenses of the continuous aspect , and by anterior tenses what scientists call tenses of the perfect correlation.

5. VERB: CATEGORY OF VOICE

1. Category of voice. General characteristic. The number of voices in Modern English.
2. Choice of the passive voice.
3. The passive voice and the compound nominal predicate.

1. Category of voice. General characteristic. The number of voices in Modern English.

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

The voice of the English verb is expressed by the opposition of the passive form of the verb to the active form of the verb. From the point of view of form the passive voice is a marked member of the opposition: its characteristic is the pattern "be + second participle". The active voice is an unmarked member of the opposition: its characteristic is the absence of that pattern.

Usually English grammarians speak of two voices in Modern English: the passive voice and the active voice. Some scientists, however, speak of there being three more voices in addition to the active and passive voices:

1. The middle voice, which they find in such samples as: The door opened. The coat does not fit. The work won't pay.
2. The reflexive voice which is found in: He hit himself. She dressed herself beautifully.
3. The reciprocal voice, which they find in such sentences as: They loved each other. They accused each other.

In fact, in each of these sentences various relations of action to the subject and object are expressed. However, if we take into consideration the fact that the voice is only the form of the verb (to be + PII), expressing the relation of an action to the subject (суб'єкт), then we shall not find any voice in the above mentioned examples. The relation of the action to the subject is expressed here with a help of lexical means, but not morphological, that is by means of the forms of verbs.

2. Choice of the passive voice.

We recur to the passive voice in the following instances:

1. When the active subject (agent) is unknown, unimportant or obvious from the context (e.g. The city is well-supplied with water. Visitors are requested to leave their coats in the cloak-room);
2. When one takes a greater interest in the object than in the agent of the action (Young Bossinney has been run over in the fog and killed);
3. When the agent is not mentioned for some special reasons: tact, politeness (Enough has been said here of a subject which will be treated more carefully in the following chapter);
4. When we are more interested in the action itself (in news reports, headlines, instructions, ads, etc.);
5. To emphasise the agent (It was made by Helen).

3. The passive voice and the compound nominal predicate.

The combination of the verb "to be" with participle II does not always form the passive voice. It may also be a compound nominal predicate. E.g. It is very hot in the room because all the windows were closed (a compound nominal predicate). The door was closed at 7 o'clock by the porter (the passive voice). The difficulty in discriminating between the passive voice and a compound nominal predicate concerns terminative verbs and verbs of double lexical character. Participle II of these verbs has a double meaning. It expresses either a state resulting from an accomplished action (compound nominal predicate) or the action itself (passive voice).

We clearly have the passive voice in the following instances:

1.When there is an adverbial modifier of place, frequency or time (Good books are quickly sold. The documents were signed a few minutes ago);
2. When the doer, the agent , of the action is indicated (They were thus introduced by Holly);
3. When the verb is in the continuous form (The next moment he was being introduced to a woman in her late thirties).
4. When the verb is in the Future or Future-in-the-Past tenses (The entrance door will be closed at 7);
5. The use of the perfect form shows that it is the Passive Voice (The door has already been painted);
6. When the verb "to be" is associated with PII of non-terminative verbs (Is he generally liked?).

6. ADJECTIVE: DEGREES OF COMPARISON.

1. Definition. General characteristics.
2. Syntactical functions in the sentence.
3. Qualitative and relative adjectives.
4. Degrees of comparison. The absolute superlative.

1. Definition. General characteristics.

The adjective is a part of speech which includes words expressing properties of objects and, hence, qualifying nouns. An adjective adds to the meaning of a word but limits its usage. The semantic basis of an adjective is its meaning of quality. This meaning of quality becomes its grammatical meaning.

The adjective, unlike the noun, does not possess a full nominative value. For example, the words long, hospitable, fragrant exist only in collocations and show what is long, who is hospitable, what is fragrant.

The semantically bound character of the adjective is emphasised in English by the use of the substitute "one" instead of the missing head-noun (e.g. I don't want a yellow balloon, let me have the green one over there). But on the other hand, the adjective may be placed in a nominatively self-dependent position in case of their substantivization E.g. : Outside it was a beautiful day, and the sun tinged the snow with red.

The adjective is characterised by its specific combinability with the following parts of speech:

1) nouns, usually in pre-position, and sometimes in post-position;
2) link – verbs, both functional and notional;
3) modifying adverbs.

The adjective in English do not change for number or case. The only grammatical category it has is the degrees of comparison. The adjective is also characterised by its functions in the sentence.

2. Syntactical functions in the sentence.

The main syntactical functions of the adjective are as follows:

1. those of an attribute . E.g. Every cloud has its silver lining.
2. a predicative (a part of a compound nominal predicate). E.g. It's harmless.
3. a part of a compound verbal predicate. E.g. He stood silent. She lay motionless. In a little tree black cherries hung thick.
4. an objective predicative. E.g. I consider her very clever. She wears her dress short. He held his coat tight against his body.
5. a subjective predicative. E.g. The door was closed tight. The vegetables were served raw.

It is characteristic of the adjective to be enclosed between the article and the noun. But it may also stand before the article, when the adjective used with the word "so": So terrible a fight!

The adjective may stand in a post-position to a noun, when it is detached (обособленный): The maid came in with a gown, silk and fluffy(пушистый).

3. Qualitative and relative adjectives.

Properties of an object may be expressed either directly or indirectly (relatively), through its relations to another object. If this quality is expressed directly, the adjectives are called qualitative (good , beautiful, red, large). If the quality is expressed indirectly , the adjectives are called relative (e.g. the iron box). Relative adjectives express the quality by means of a certain substance, circumstances, actions. In "the iron box" the word "iron" shows that the box is made of iron. In "Chinese silk" "Chinese" characterises the place from where the silk is. In "a fidgety boy" the boy is characterised by the actions performed by him.

Relative adjectives have no degrees of comparison. The borderline between qualitative and relative adjectives is not always distinct and they may pass from one group to another. E. g. : an iron box (relative) – an iron will (qualitative):figurative use. Sometimes there is also a difference in form (a stony face(q.) – a stone wall (r.); golden hair (q.)-a gold ring (r.); silvery foam (q.) – a silver spoon (r.).

Qualitative adjectives differ from the relative adjectives in the following:

1) Most qualitative adjectives have degrees of comparison.
2) Adverbs may be derived from most of them (e.g. calm-calmly).
3) Many qualitative adjectives have antonyms(e.g. rich-poor).
4) Some qualitative adjectives are derivatives (a stony face, golden hair).

It must be borne in mind that the division of adjectives into qualitative and relative is not a grammatical one.

4. Degrees of comparison. The absolute superlative.

We define the degrees of comparison as forms of expressing comparison of one object with another in respect to a certain property. Relative adjectives have no degrees of comparison with the exception of cases when they are

used with a certain shift of the meaning: She is more French than English. It means that she has acquired more French customs and mastered the French language better than English. An adjective may be used in the simple positive form when the quality is abstract and is not compared to any other quality. Besides, it characterises the object directly. The comparative degree expresses the quality indirectly, in comparison. The superlative degree expresses the quality directly in the highest degree. The comparative and superlative degrees are marked members of the opposition. The form of the superlative degree may be used without comparing a thing to any other, simply to indicate a high degree of quality. In these instances it is called the Absolute superlative(It is a most interesting book – elative meaning (absolute) – It is the most interesting book I have ever read (no elative meaning).

The absolute superlative is used in emotional speech and may be expressed in English in different ways:

1) Without any article (when there is no noun) (e.g. It is most interesting-analytically).

2) With the definite article (e.g. I shall do it with the greatest pleasure – synthetically).

3) With the indefinite article(meaning very, extremely) .E.g. This is a most handsome guy.

4) It may even be expressed synthetically for relative adjectives with a shift in their meaning , in extremely emotional speech. E.g. Aye! Lass, but a good heart and a good ladder will get over the stonest wall (B.Show).

7. WORDS OF THE CATEGORY OF STATE (STATIVES).

1. Problems connected with statives. Three groups of statives.
2. Meanings and syntactical functions of statives.

1. Problems connected with statives. Three groups of statives.

The first scholars to speak of the words of the category of state(the statives) as a separate part of speech in Russian were Shcherba and Vinogradov, in English – Pr. Ilyish. English scholars refer these words to predicative adjectives or adverbs, and do not consider them to represent a separate part of speech. Many of our scholars analyse them together with adjectives (e.g. Ganshina and Vasilevskaya).

Those who are in favour of the statives as a separate part of speech produce the following arguments:

1) Their grammatical meaning is that of state.
2) They have a special form – the prefix –a (e.g. afloat, afraid, asleep).
3) They have generally no degrees of comparison.
4) They fulfil the function of the predicative (e.g. He is still asleep).
5) They are generally not used as attributes in pre- and post-positions.

The arguments of those who are against the statives being a separate part of speech are as follows:

1. Other parts of speech may have the grammatical meaning of state when used in the function of the predicative (e.g. She is ill-bred).

2. The prefix –a may be found not only in statives , but also in verbs (abandon, arise); in adverbs (afar - издалека; abreast – около, в ряд, возле); in prepositions (across); in adjectives (adroit); in nouns (amendment).

3. Sometimes the statives may have degrees of comparison (e.g. She was more afraid of his mother than of him).

4. The function of the predicative may be fulfilled not only by the statives, but by other parts of speech (the noun, the pronoun, the Gerund, the Participle, the numeral, etc.).

5. Sometimes they may be used as attributes in pre- and post-positions. E.g. He is an alive little man. All passengers alive were taken to hospital).

Historically the statives are of different origin. The first group includes such words as “afloat”, “afire”, “asleep”. They have developed from the prepositional group “onflote”, “onslaepe”. In the course of time the preposition “on” changed into the abstract prefix –a, and “onflote” became “afloat”, and “onslaepe” became “asleep”.

The second group of statives is represented by such words as “afraid”, “ashamed”, “aghast”, “awake”, “astray”, “abashed”, “alight”, “alone”, “aware”, etc . Most of these words were formally Participles II . As the verbs themselves have disappeared , there are no corresponding verbs to these statives, but there may be corresponding adjectives, used before the word they modify (e.g. afraid – frightened, alone – lonely, ashamed – shameful).

The third group of statives includes such words as ill – больной, плохой; glad; well – здоровый; sorry – огорченный,etc. They have not got the prefix –a, but they are regularly used in the function of a predicative and have the grammatical meaning of state, and therefore are considered by many scholars the statives. Some scholars regard them as synonyms to the statives (Iofik, Ivanova, Zhigadlo). If they are used as attributes, their meaning changes. E.g. The man is ill. But a sick man. Ill manners (дурные привычки).Ill repute (плохая репутация). It is an ill wind that blows nobody good (Нет худа без добра).

2. Meanings and syntactical functions of the statives.

The statives express:

1. psychological conditions of a person (e.g. afraid, aghast (ashamed, aware, agape);
2. physical conditions of a person (alive, awake, asleep);
3. the state of movement or activity (afoot; astir; ahead; afloat; adrift);
4. physical conditions of an object (afire; aflame; alight; aglow);
5. the position of an object in space (asquint; aslant; aslope);

The statives are used in the functions of:

1. Predicative (in most cases). E.g. She is asleep.
2. Objective predicative (She kept him aloof)
3. Detached and undetached attributes (e.g. Angry and aghast , she turned away – detached. A railway bridge was passed, and the pine-wood aglow with a sun-set – undetached).

AUTHENTIC TEXTS CLIPPINGS

Parts of Speech

H.Sweet, A New English Grammar,
Part I, p.35-38.

As regards their function in the sentence, words fall under certain classes called parts of speech, all the members of each of these classes having[1] certain formal characteristics in common which distinguish them from the members of the other classes. Each of these classes has a name of its own — noun, adjective, verb, etc.

Thus, if we compare nouns, such as *snow, tree, man,* with adjectives, such as *big, white, green,* and verbs, such as *melt, grow, speak,* we shall find that all nouns whose meaning admits of it agree in having plural inflections — generally formed by adding s *(trees);* that adjectives have no plural inflections, but have degrees of comparison *(big, bigger, biggest)* — which nouns and verbs have not; that verbs have inflections of their own distinct from those of the other parts of speech (/ *grow, he grows, grown);* that each part of speech has special form-words associated with it *(a tree, the tree; to grow, is growing, has grown);* and that each part of speech has a more or less definite position in the sentence with regard to other parts of speech *(white snow, the snow melts, the green tree, the tree is green).*

If we examine the functions of these three classes, we see at once that all verbs are predicative words — that they state something about a subject-word, which is generally a noun *(the snow melts);* that adjectives are often used as assumptive words *(white snow),* and so on.

If we examine the meanings of the words belonging to the different parts of speech, we shall find that such nouns as *tree, snow, man,* are all substance-words, while the adjectives and verbs given above are all attribute-words, the adjectives expressing permanent attributes, the verbs changing attributes or phenomena. We can see that there Is a natural connection between the functions and meanings of these parts of speech.

But this connection, though natural, is not necessary. In language it is often necessary to state, as well as imply, permanent attributes *(the tree is green),* and it is sometimes convenient to make statements about attributes as well as substances. Thus, instead of using the word *white* as a means of implying something about *snow or* any other substance, we may wish to state or imply something about the attribute itself, as when we say *whiteness is an attribute of snow,* or talk of *the dazzling whiteness of the snow.* It is easy to see that there is no difference of meaning between *whiteness is an attribute of snow* and *snow is white:* the difference between *white* and the noun *whiteness* is purely formal and functional — grammatical, not logical.

The parts of speech in inflectional languages are divided into two main groups, declinable, that is, capable of inflection, and indeclinable, that is, incapable of inflection.

The declinable parts of speech fall under the three main divisions, nouns, adjectives, and verbs, which have been already described. Pronouns are a special class of nouns and adjectives, and are accordingly distinguished as noun-pronouns, such as /, *they,* and adjective-pronouns, such as *my* and *that* in *my book, that man.* Numerals are another special class of nouns and adjectives: *three* in *three of us* is a noun-numeral, in *three men* an adjective-numeral. Verbals are a class of words intermediate between verbs on the one hand and nouns and adjectives on the other: they do not express predication, but keep all the other meanings and grammatical functions of the verbs from which they are formed. Noun-verbals comprise infinitives, such as go in / *will go, I wish to go,* andgerunds, such as *going* in / *think of going.* Adjective-verbals comprise various participles, such as *melting* and *melted* in *melting snow, the snow is melted.*

Indeclinable words or particles comprise adverbs, prepositions, conjunctions, and interjections. The main function of adverbs, such as *quickly* and *very,* is to serve as adjunct-words [1] to verbs and to other particles, as in *the snow melted quickly, very quickly.* Prepositions, such as *of,* are joined to nouns to make them into adjunct-words, as in *man of honour,* where *of honour* is equivalent to the adjective *honourable.* Conjunctions, such as *if,* are used mainly to show the connection between sentences, as in *if you do so, you will repent it.* Interjections, such as *ah! alas!,* are sentence-words expressing various emotions.

For convenience we include nouns in the limited sense of the word, noun-pronouns, noun-numerals and gerunds under the common designation noun-word. So also we include adjectives, adjective-pronouns, adjective-numerals and participles under the common designation adjective-word.

The term 'verb' is sometimes used to include the verbals, sometimes to exclude them. When necessary, the predicative forms of the verb as opposed to the verbals are included under the term finite verb: thus in / *think of going, think* is a finite verb as opposed to the verbal (gerund) *going,* although both are included under the term 'verb' in its wider sense.

The following is, then, our classification of the parts of speech in English:

$$\text{declinable}\begin{cases}\text{noun - words: noun, noun - pronoun, noun - numeral, infinitive, gerund.}\\ \text{adjective - words: adjective, adjective - pronoun, adjective - numeral, participles.}\\ \text{verb: finite verb, verbals (infinitive, gerund, participles).}\end{cases}$$

Indeclinable (particles): adverb, preposition, conjunction, interjection.

The distinction between the two classes which for convenience we distinguish as declinable and indeclinable parts of speech is not entirely dependent on the presence or absence of inflection, but really goes deeper, corresponding, to some extent, to the distinction between head-word and adjunct-word. The great majority of the particles are used only as adjunct-words, many of them being only form-words, while the noun-words, adjective-words and verbs generally stand to the particles in the relation of head-words.

Parts of Speech

O.Jespersen, The Philosophy of Grammar, p.58, 59-60, 91.

It is customary to begin the teaching of grammar by dividing words into certain classes, generally called "parts of speech" — substantives, adjectives, verbs, etc. — and by giving definitions of these classes. The division in the main goes back to the Greek and Latin grammarians with a few additions and modifications. Most of the definitions given even in recent books are little better than sham definitions in which it is extremely easy to pick holes; nor has it been possible to come to a general arrangement as to what the distinction is to be based on — whether on form (and form-changes) or on meaning or on function in the sentence, or on all of these combined.

Let us now cast a glance at some of the definitions found in J. Hall and E. A. Sonnenschein's *Grammar* (London, 1902). "Nouns name. Pronouns identify without naming." I cannot see that *who* in *Who killed Cock Robin?* identifies: it rather asks some one else to identify. And *none* in *Then none was for a party* — whose identity is establ ished by that pronoun? "Adjectives are used with Nouns, to describe, identify or enumerate." But cannot adjectives be used without nouns? *(The absent* are always at fault He was *angry).*

Some grammarians, feeling the failure of such definitions as those just given have been led to despair of solving the difficulty by the method of examining the meaning of words belonging to the various classes: and therefore maintain that the only criterion should be the form of words This is the line taken, for instance, by J. Zeitlin ("On the Parts of Speech. The Noun", in *The English Journal,* March 1914).

If form in the strictest sense were taken as the sole test, we should arrive at the absurd result that *must* in English, being indeclinable, belonged to the same class as *the, then, for, as, enough,* etc. Our only justification for classing *must* as a verb is that we recognize its use in combinations like / *must (go), must we (go)?* as parallel to that of / *shall (go), shall we (go)?* — in other words, that we take into consideration its meaning and function in the sentence.

In my opinion everything should be kept in view, form, function, and meaning.

The net result of our inquiry is that the following word-classes, and only these, are grammatically distinct enough for us to recognize them as separate "parts of speech", viz.:

(1) Substantives (including proper names).

(2) Adjectives.

In some respects (1) and (2) may be classed together as "Nouns".

(3) Pronouns (including numerals and pronominal adverbs).

(4) Verbs (with doubts as to the inclusion of "Verbids").

(5) Particles (comprising what are generally called adverbs, prepositions, conjunctions — coordinating and subordinating — and interjections). This fifth class may be negatively characterized as made up of all those that cannot find any place in any of the first four classes.

Parts of Speech

Ch. Fries, The Structure of English, p.67, 69, 70-86.

Unfortunately we cannot use as the starting point of our examination the traditional definitions of the parts of speech. What is a "noun", for example? The usual definition is that "a noun is the name of a person, place, or thing". But *blue* is the "name" of a color, as is *yellow* or *red,* and yet, in the expressions *a blue tie, a yellow rose, a red dress* we do not call *blue* and *yellow* and *red* "nouns". We do call *red* a noun in the sentence *this red is the shade I want. Run* is the "name" of an action, as is *jump* or *arrive. Up* is the "name" of a direction, as is *down* or *across.* In spite of the fact that these words are all "names" and thus fit the definition given for a noun they are not called nouns in such expressions as "We *ran* home", "They were looking *up* into the sky", "The acid made the fiber *red".* The definition as it stands — that "A noun is a name" — does not furnish all the criteria necessary to exclude from this group many words which our grammars in actual practice classify in other parts of speech.

Obviously even in the usual procedure of classifying words into "parts of speech" — noun, adjective, pronoun — the criteria indicated in the definitions, that "names" are nouns, that "modifiers of nouns" are adjectives, and that "substitutes for nouns" are pronouns, do not include all that is actually used, and these definitions, therefore, cannot provide the basis for our approach here. We cannot use "lexical" meaning as the basis for the definition of some classes, "function in the sentence" for others, and "formal characteristics" for still others.

Our problem is to discover just what the criteria are that the users of the language actually employ to identify the necessary various form-class units when they give and receive the signals of structural meaning.

One need not know the lexical meaning of any of the following:

1. Woggles ugged diggles
2. Uggs woggled diggs
3. Woggs diggled uggles

If we assume that these utterances are using the structural signals of English, then at once we know a great deal about these sequences.

We would know that *waggles* and *uggs* and *woggs* are "thing" words, in sentences 1, 2, 3, because they are treated as English treats "thing" words — by the "positions" they occupy in the utterances and the forms they have, in contrast with other positions and forms. We would know that *ugged* and *woggled* and *diggled* are "action" words in these same sentences because they are treated as English treats "action" words — by the "positions" they occupy and the forms they have, in contrast with the positions and forms of the other "words".

A part of speech in English is a functioning pattern. It cannot be defined by means of a simple statement. There is no single characteristic that all the examples of one part of speech must have in the utterances of English. All the instances of one part of speech are the "same" only in the sense that in the structural patterns of English each has the same functional significance.

Each part of speech is marked off from other parts of speech by a set of formal contrasts which we learn unconsciously as we learn our language.

We concluded above that the signals of structural meaning in English consisted primarily of patterns of arrangement of classes of words which we have called form-classes, or parts of speech. We have assumed here that all words that could occupy the same "set of positions" in the patterns of English single free utterances must belong to the same part of speech. We assumed then that if we took first our minimum free utterances as test frames we could find all the words from our material that would fit into each significant position without a change of the structural meaning.

The minimum free utterance test frames that formed the basis of our examination were the following:

Frame A

The concert was good (always)

Frame B

The clerk remembered the tax (suddenly)

Frame C

The team went there

We started with the minimum free utterance *the concert was good* as our first test frame and set out to find in our materials all the words that could be substituted for the word *concert* with no change of structural meaning. The words of this list we called Class I words. When we repeated this process for each of the significant positions in all the structural frames we found in our materials, we had a large number of examples of each of the parts of speech we must recognize for present-day English.

Words of Class 1

Frame A

The *concert* was good *food coffee taste,* etc.

The process of substitution in one position in our first frame provided a large list of items that for English structure are the same kind of functioning unit — our first class.

All the words of this particular list could appear in the positions indicated in the following minimum frames:

Frame B The *clerk* remembered the *tax*
husband *food*
woman *coffee*

Frame C

The *team* went there
husband
woman

Words of Class 2

Again we proceed with the process of substitution. To be consistent we use the same test frames we have already tried for Class 1 words, but seek substitutions in another "position". The words that fit this position we have called Class 2 words.

Frame A

CLASS 1	CLASS 2	
(The)----------	*is / was*	good
----------	s *are I were*	good
----------	*seems I seemed*	
----------	*seem*	
----------	*feels / felt*	

---------- *feel*, etc.

Words of Class 3

Here we are concerned with all words that are structurally like *good*

CLASS 3	CLASS 1	CLASS 2	CLASS 3
(The) *good*	——	*is/was*	*good*
	—— s	*are/were*	
large			*large*
foreign, etc			*foreign*, etc.

Words of Class 4

For the next large class of words we shall take those that can be substituted in the position following the three already explored.

Frame A

CLASS 3	CLASS **1**	CLASS **2**	CLASS **3**	CLASS **4**
(The)—	—	*is/was* s	——	*there*
	—S	*are/were*		*here*
				always, etc.

These four parts of speech contain approximately 67 per cent of the total instances of the vocabulary items. In other words our utterances consist primarily of arrangements of these four parts of speech.

Parts of Speech

W.N.Francis, The Structure of American English, p.234-242, 589 ff.

There must be different kinds of words, according to the positions they can fill and the functions they can perform in various structures. Grammarians long ago recognized this fact and gave the name parts of speech to these various types of words. We shall retain this term, though the methods we shall use to identify the various parts of speech, the number of them we shall find, and the distribution of words among them will all be different from what is found in older grammars.

In the first place, function words are excluded from this classification of the parts of speech. As we shall see, they often help to mark the parts of speech to which other words belong, but they do not themselves belong to the parts of speech. So different is their operation in the structure of speech that they must be given entirely separate treatment.

Second, we shall have to note that it is often not possible to classify an English word when we see or hear it in isolation. What this actually means is that a given form may be common to two or more words which are members of different parts of speech. Consider the following substitution patterns, based on simple structures:

curious people	people come
street	go
window	stand
stand	watch
watch	

We cannot substitute *come* or *go* for *people* in the first column, nor can we substitute *people, street*, or *window* for *come* in the second column, Yet *stand* and *watch* seem to fit equally well into both columns. We must conclude that there are actually two words *stand* and two words *watch*, one of each belonging to the same part of speech as *people* and one to the same part of speech as *come*. They are, in fact, homophones. Before we can tell which one we are dealing with, we must see it in a structure with other words, where the environment will indicate clearly what part of speech it belongs to.

Third, we must remember that in the kind of grammatical analysis we are here using, we must make our classification on the basis of form, not meaning. What this implies is that we must rely on the five signals of structural meaning — word order, prosody, function words, inflections, and derivational contrasts — when we classify words as various parts of speech. Where all of these fail, where there are not enough of them present to indicate clearly what parts of speech the words of an utterance belong to, the utterance is structurally ambiguous. It may not be absolutely ambiguous, because the lexical meanings of the words involved may make one possible structural meaning lexically improbable or ridiculous. Usually, however, we use more of these indicators than are necessary, rather than too few.

Setting aside function words, then, and observing the remaining words as they are combined into utterances with clear and unambiguous structural meaning, we find that we must identify four different parts of speech. We use the traditional names noun, verb, adjective, and adverb for them, provided we remember that we shall not use traditional definitions or criteria of identification. We can illustrate all four in a relatively simple sentence.

The curious people are watching the street idly.

Here *people* and *street* are nouns, *watching* is a verb, *curious* is an adjective, and *idly* is an adverb.

Nouns

Nouns are identified by five criteria, some more important than others. In the following, the most important will be taken up first.

1. The most common and most clear-cut noun-marking signal is a group of function words called **noun-determiners**.

2. Nouns have two inflections, the plural *-es* and the possessive (sometimes called the genitive) -'s.

3. Many nouns may be identified as such by various noun-marking derivational suffixes, added either to stems or to other words, usually belonging to other parts of speech.

4. Nouns fill certain characteristic positions in relation to other identified parts of speech in phrases and utterances. The most obvious of these is the position just before a verb.

5. Certain superfixes occasionally distinguish nouns from otherwise identical words that belong to other parts of speech. Thus in pairs like [imprint : imprint] we identify the word with the stress pattern as a noun and the other as a verb.

N o u n. One of the **parts of speech**; a lexical word which may follow a noun-determiner such as *the* and is inflectable with the plural and possessive inflections -es and -'s.

A d j e c t i v e. A class of lexical words (**part of speech**) capable of occupying both of the following structural positions: (1) between noun-determiner and noun; (2) sentence-final following a qualifier which follows **a** linking verb.

A d v e r b. A class of lexical words **(part of speech**) capable of occupying the following structural position: utterance- or sentence-final following a single or double object construction.

V e r b. One of the **parts of speech**; a lexical word which has the four inflections -s, *-ed$_1$ -ed$_2$,* and *-ing$_1$,* and which combines with auxiliaries to form verb-phrases.

Two Sets of Parts of Speech

J.Sledd, A Short Introduction to
English Grammar, p.68-69, 82, 110-111.

The first parts of speech which we will define are classes of words, and in defining them we will use the distinction between derivational and inflectional .suffixes. We will then establish a second set of classes, to which not only items containing single bases but items containing two bases or more may also typically belong. Of the many different classes of forms which actually exist in English, we will thus recognize two clearly different kinds.

INFLECTIONAL CLASSES. Our first method of definition will be to ask what suffixes, and especially what inflectional suffixes, a word is used with. The word *man,* for example, appears in the series *man, men, man's, men's;* the word *boy* appears in the parallel series *boy, boy's, boys, boys';* and we can establish one large and important class of words (one part of speech) by grouping together all members of such series.

POSITIONAL CLASSES. Our second method of difini-tion will be to consider, not the inflectional suffixes with which words are used, but the positions which are occupied by words and larger forms, with respect to other words and laiger forms, in complete utterances. Using this method, we can put in a single class all forms, whether they contain one base or several, which fill the blank in the sentence,

²I hĕ⁺ ⌓ wĭll⁺bē⁺³gŏod¹ ↘

The words *man* and *bot/,* which we group together because of their endings, will again be grouped together because they both fill this blank; but we should note that a word like *poor,* which can also fill the blank in our sentence, has endings quite different from those of *man* and *boy* We say *poor, poorer, poorest,* but we cannot say *boy, boyer, boyest.* If we call *man* and *boy* nouns and *poor* an adjective because of their respective inflections, we have made a distinction which the structure of our language justifies; but we must be equally prepared to put all three words into a single class when we find them occurring in the same position in sentences. We will not get confused if we simply remember that our two methods of classification will produce two different sets of classes.

PARTS OF SPEECH DISTINGUISHED BY SUFFIXES

By the first method, considering particularly the inflectional suffixes with which words are used, we can establish four parts of speech, and we can give these four classes the familiar names of noun, pronoun, verb, and adjective. If we do not forget what we are doing and do not obscure valuable distinctions by carelessness, we can also note some important relations between the occurrence of inflectional suffixes and the occurrence of the derivational suffixes. That is, words formed with particular derivational suffixes, like the *-dom* in *kingdom,* will often be limited to particular inflectional suffixes — in this case, the genitive or possessive ending *(kingdom's)* and the plural ending *(kingdoms).* This is another way of saying that since words in *-dom* are inflected like *man* and *boy,* they belong to the same class as *man* and *boy.* Ultimately, however, our classification is based on inflection, not derivation, and we will establish only one class, the adverb, by the use of the derivational ending.

PARTS OF SPEECH DISTINGUISHED BY POSITION

Now, as the second main step in our process of definition, we will set up positional classes. These classes will be *quite different* from the five which we have already established, and we will have to give our second set of classes different names. In particular, the second set will include not only words but *larger forms than words,* as we will see later. We will call these larger forms *phrases* if they do not constitute a subject-predicate combination, and *clauses* if they do.

We do not throw away our first set of classes and forget about them when we establish the second set. The second set will be built, in part, with the help of the first, in a fairly simple way. We want now to find large classes of forms which occupy the same positions in sentences, for our sentences have to be described as arrangements of clauses, phrases, and words *belonging to definite classes, n*ot as sequences of isolated forms each of which is a law to itself. *Classes* of words and of larger forms, not individual items, are the building blocks, as

Cash talks.
Money talks.
The money talks.
The big money talks.

After each substitution, the sentence still makes sense and still has the same basic grammatical structure; for the words and phrases *cash, money, the money* and *the big money* all occur regularly in the same or similar positions.

Using testing frames, we distinguished four main positional classes — nominals, verbals, adjectivals, and adverbials — and eight smaller positional classes — determiners, prepositions, conjunctions, relatives, interrogatives, intensive-reflexives, auxiliaries, and adverbials of degree. All twelve positional classes must be kept carefully distinct from the five classes which we established by their endings. Though an adjective, for example, will usually be an adjectival, as in the sentence,

The *poor* boy became President,

it may sometimes belong to a different positional class, like the nominal in the following sentence:

The *poor* can afford no vacations.

To force this distinction, we have used the ending *-al* in the names of our largest *positional* classes.

Parts of Speech

P.Roberts, The Relation of Linguistics to
the Teaching of English, p.398-399.

To point out the weakness of traditional definitions is to invite the question — with what do you propose to replace them? The answer to this is — nothing. We must, I think, give up hope of finding definitions for such concepts as *noun, adjective, subject, sentence* which are both short and operable, which can actually be used to sort out the members of the categories.

Linguists have not, I fear, always been clear on this point. We have sometimes talked as if we had, or were on the point of getting, short and usable tests for determining whether items belong to one category or another. Thus we say "a noun is a word that can fill the blank in *The _____ was interesting",* or "a noun is a word that forms a plural". But as definitions such statements fail in both directions. It is true that any item, any noise, that occurs in the blank in "The _____ was interesting" will be construed as a noun. But there may be nouns that do not occur there (some things may not be interesting) and there are many other positions in which nouns occur.

Definitions based on morphology — inflectional endings and the like — seem to me to lead to error. If *noun* is defined as "any word that forms a plural", then *chaos* cannot count as a noun. This would appear to go contrary to our intuition as speakers of English. Adjectives have sometimes been defined as words that add the endings (-er) and *(-est),* as *small, smaller, smallest.* This also fails in both directions. It has been pointed out that if we were to apply it literally we would have to take *tear* as an adjective: *tear, terror, terraced.* Even worse, it requires us to put *beautiful, courageous, hopeful,* in a different class from *pretty, old, sad,* which, again, is contrary to our intuition.

What is true, it seems to me, is that in a real language it is only rarely that word classes or other structures are signalled by some simple and unique signal.

NOUNS. CASE

As was mentioned in the Introduction, the problem of the number of cases in English has given rise to different theories which were based on different ways of approaching the description of English grammatical structure.

Typical of prescriptive, classical scientific, and even structural grammar is the definition of case as an indication of a relation in which the noun stands to some other word, or the change of form by which this relation is indicated, i. e. both a logical and a morphological conception of case. Sweet's attitude towards the problem of case

reflects these views and his indecision as to the number of cases in English — five or two (the latter view, more in keeping with the English morphological system, is a revival of the case-systems of some 17th and 18th-century grammarians). The term "common case" seems to have been introduced by Sweet, for his predecessors, the authors of school grammars, in their three-case paradigm distinguish "the nominative" and "the objective" cases of nouns.

This three-case system based on the analogy of the case-forms of pronouns remains extremely popular in the grammars of the 20th century, including some structural grammars, though in Nesfield's grammar, as revised in the 1920's, the five-case system superseded the three-case system.

The excerpt from Curme's grammar represents the views of those authors of scientific grammars who support the four-case system.

Note the tendency of some scientific grammarians to consider the "possessive" case-form as being of an adjectival nature.

The representatives of generative semantics have suggested a syntactic-semantic notion of cases. The cases of Ch. Fillmore name semantically relevant syntactic relations which are found in the so-called deep structure of a sentence. Verbs are used with nouns, standing in different relations to them. The sets of case-forms used with each verb are called case-frames.

Nouns. Form. Inflections

H.Sweet, A New English
Grammar, Part I, p.50-52.

In English there is no special nominative inflection of nouns, so that all we can say is that in the English sentence *the earth is round, earth* stands in the nominative relation, or is nominatival.

The **vocative** is the 'exclamation-case', or, in other words, it is a noun used as a sentence-word; we might therefore call it the 'sentence-case'. *Sirl* is an example of a noun in the vocative relation.

The **accusative** or 'direct object case' serves to complete the meaning of a transitive verb. Thus in *the man beat the boy, the man saw the buy, boy* is in the accusative relation, being regarded as the direct object of the actions expressed by *beat* and *saw.*

If another noun-word is required to complete the meaning of a transitive verb, it is generally in the dative or 'indirect object' relation as in *that man gave my brother an orange,* where *brother* would be put in the dative case in such a language as Latin or German.

As we see from this example, the dative generally denotes the person affected by or interested in the action expressed by the verb, the dative is therefore the 'interest-case'.

The genitive case, as in *John's book, a day's work,* shows that the noun in the genitive case *(John's)* is an adjunct to another word — generally a noun; it may therefore be regarded as the 'adjective case', *a day's* being equivalent to *of a day,* and *of honour* being equivalent to the adjective *honourable.*

English has only one inflected case, the genitive *(man's, men's),* the uninflected base constituting the common case *(man, men),* which is equivalent to the nominative, vocative, accusative and dative of such a language as Latin.

But in that special class of nouns called personal pronouns we find a totally different system of case-inflection, namely, a nominative *(he),* and an objective case *(him),* which later corresponds to the accusative (/ *saw him),* and the dative *(give it him!)* of more highly inflected languages. But the nominative case of the pronouns in English, though originally a strict nominative, has lost many of its grammatical functions. In spoken English, such a nominative as *he* or / is hardly used, except as a conjoint form, — as a kind of prefix to the finite verb *(he sees, he saw, I have seen),* the objective case being always substituted for the nominative when used absolutely in vulgar speech, as in *it is me,* and often also in educated speech.

Case

G.O.Curme, A Grammar of the English
Language, vol.2, p.127-136.

Of the many case endings once used English has in nouns, preserved only one, namely the -s of the genitive. Apart from the genitive relation, these grammatical relations are now indicated by the position of the noun with regard to the verb or preposition, or by means of inflectional prepositions, which have taken the place of the old inflectional endings, or often by the context alone; that is, the context without the aid of word-order or inflectional preposition suggests the grammatical relation. In the genitive relation we still frequently employ the genitive ending -s, but employ also frequently the inflectional preposition *of.*

There are now four cases, nominative, accusative, dative, genitive. The cases other than the nominative are called the oblique cases.

NOMINATIVE

1**. Functions**. The nominative performs three functions. It plays the role of subject, predicate, and direct address.

a. Subject. The subject relation is shown by a clear nominative form only in the case of a few pronouns: I, h*e, she, we, they, who.* Nouns and most pronouns can no longer show by their form that they are performing the part of subject, but they become clear subject nominatives through their position: *'The wind* blows.' *'The winds* blow.' *'He* is industrious.' *'They* are industrious.'

b. Predicate. The predicate nominative is found not only after a linking verb, i. e. a copula, but also after the passive forms of certain transitive verbs: 'He was made *a general.'*

ACCUSATIVE

2. **Functions.** The accusative has three functions. It plays the role of object, adverb, or objective predicate (i. e. noun that predicates something of an object).

a. Accusative Object. 'The dog bit my *brother* and *me.'* 'He is sitting by *me* on the sofa.' 'This book is worth (adjective) *reading.'*

b. Adverbial Accusative. 'He stayed *an hour.'* 'This pole is *a foot* longer.'

c. Predicate Accusative, 'They supposed us to be *them.'* 'A boy whom I believed to be *him* just passed.'

DATIVE

3. **Function and Forms.** The dative object indicates that an action or feeling is directed toward a person or thing to his or its advantage or disadvantage. This function is indicated in two ways — by a simple noun or pronoun, or by a preposition + the noun or pronoun.

a. Simple Dative. 'This woman is making *her little son* a new coat.'

b. Prepositional Dative. 'The mother is making a new coat *for her boy John.'*

GENITIVE

Form. There are four forms of the genitive.

(1) S-Genitive: 'the girl's hat', etc.

(2) Of-Genitive. This form, is composed of the inflectional preposition *of* and a noun. This prepositional phrase indicates exactly the same grammatical relation as the simple s-genitive: *'the man's* son' or 'the son *of the man'.*

(3) Double Genitive: 'a friend of *my father's'.*

(4) His-Genitive. In older English instead of an s-genitive a genitive formed with *his, her, their* was often used: *'John his* book', *'Mary her* book', *'the boys their* books'. This genitive gradually disappeared from the literary language. It survives in popular speech.

Case

O.Jespersen, Essentials of English Grammar, p.132, 138, 140-141.

CASFS IN PRONOUNS

In some pronouns, but in no other word-class, we find a distinction between the two "cases", nominative and objective:

Nominative	I	we	he	she	they	who
Objective	me	us	him	her	them	whom

CASES IN SUBSTANTIVES

In substantives we have two cases, a common case, corresponding to both nominative and objective in pronouns, and a genitive.

The regular way of forming the genitive is by adding the s-ending with its threefold pronunciation,

THE GROUP-GENITIVE

The *s* is appended to a group of words if it forms a sense unit:

All the other people's opinions. *The King of Denmark's* court. *We had an hour and a half's* talk.

The function of a genitive is that of closely connecting a word or a unit of words with the following word: therefore the s is always wedged in between the two and is felt as belonging nearly as much to the word following it as to the preceding one. It is even more important that the s should come immediately before the governing word than that it should come immediately after the word which it turns into a genitive case. Hence *the King of Denmark's castle.*

Case

H.Whitehall, Structural Essentials of English, p.111.

Case is the relation between nouns, pronouns, and modifiers and other nouns, pronouns, or verbs, in the same grammatical construction. Etymologically, the word means "a falling away" and owes its grammatical application to the erroneous Latin conception that all other cases fell away or declined from the nominative. Fifty-four cases have been postulated for certain little-known Asian languages, and North Georgian seems to possess at least twenty-three. In English, nouns possess no distinctive case endings — the work is done by word order and prepositions. We attribute to nouns the primary distinction between the nominative and the objective cases on analogy with the pronouns which can substitute for them. The so-called possessive case is best thought of as a

method of transforming a noun into a modifier, yet *this book of his, this purse of Nan's* could conceivably be thought of as genuine possessives. Probably the least inaccurate method of naming the pronominal cases in English would be to call them the direct and the oblique.

Case

Ch. G. Fillmore, The Case
for Case, p.2, 3, 21-25.

In the past, research on 'case' has amounted to an examination of the variety of semantic relationships which can hold between nouns and other portions of sentences; it has been considered equivalent to the study of semantic functions of inflectional affixes on nouns or the formal dependency relations which hold between specific nominal affixes and lexical-grammatical properties of neighboring elements; or it has been reduced to a statement of the morphophonemic reflexes of a set of underlying 'syntactic relations' which themselves are conceived independently of the notion of 'case'. I shall argue that valid insights on case relationships are missed in all these studies, and that what is needed is a conception of base structure in which case relationships are primitive terms of the theory and in which such concepts as 'subject' and 'direct object' aremissing. The latter are regarded as proper only to the surface structure of some (but possibly not all) languages.

The assumption I wish to make explicit is *the importance of covert categories.* Many recent and not-so-recent studies have convinced us of the relevance of grammatical properties lacking obvious 'morphemic' realization but having a reality that can be observed on the basis of selectional constraints and transformational possibilities. We are constantly finding that grammatical features found in one language show up in some form or other in other languages as well, if we have the subtlety it takes to discover covert categories.

We may agree, then, for our present purposes,, with Hjelmslev, who suggests that the study of cases can be pursued most fruitfully if we abandon the assumption that an essential characteristic of the grammatical category of case is *expression in the form of affixes on substantives.* I shall adopt the usage first proposed, as far as I can tell, by Blake of using the term *case* to identify the underlying syntactic-semantic relationship, and the term *case form* to mean the expression of a case relationship in a particular language — whether through affixation, sup-pletion, use of elitic particles, or constraints on word order.

CASE GRAMMAR

The substantive modification to the theory of transformational grammar which I wish to propose amounts to a reintroduction of the 'conceptual framework' interpretation of case system, but this time with a clear understanding of the difference between deep and surface structure. The sentence in its basic structure consists of a verb and one or more noun phrases, each associated with the verb in a particular case relationship.

In the basic structure of sentences, then, we find what might be called the 'proposition', a tenseless set of relationships involving verbs and nouns (and embedded sentences, if there are any), separated from what might be called the 'modality' constituent. This latter will include such modalities on the sentence-as-a-whole as negation, tense, mood, and aspect.

The first base rule, then, is 28, abbreviated to 28.

Sentence → Modality + Proposition

S→M + P

The expansion of P may be thought of as a list of formulas of the form seen in 29, where at least one case category must be chosen and where no case category appears more than once.

$P \rightarrow V + C_1 + \ldots + C^1_n$

The case notions comprise a set of universal, presumably innate, concepts which identify certain types of judgments human beings are capable of making about the events that are going on around them, judgments about such matters as who did it, who it happened to, and what got changed. The cases that appear to be needed include:

Agentive (A), the case of the typically animate perceived instigator of the action identified by the verb.

Instrumental (I), the case of the inanimate force or object causally involved in the action or state identified by the verb.

Dative (D), the case of the animate being affected by the state or action identified by the verb.

Factitive (F), the case of the object or being resulting from the action or state identified by the verb, or understood as a part of the meaning of the verb.

Locative (L), the case which identifies the location or spatial orientation of the state or action identified by the verb.

Objective (O), the semantically most neutral case, the case of anything representable by a noun whose role in the action or state identified by the verb is identified by the semantic interpretation of the verb itself; conceivably the concept should be limited to things which are affected by the action or state identified by the verb. The term is not to be confused with the notion of direct object, nor with the name of the surface case synonymous with accusative.

Additional cases will surely be needed. Suggestions for adding to this list will appear in various places below.

It is important to notice that none of these cases can be interpreted as matched by the surface-structure relations, subject and object, in any particular language. Thus, *John* is A in 29 as much as in 30; *the key* is I in 31 as well as in 32 or 33; *John* is D in 34 as well as in 35 and 36; and *Chicago* is L in both 37 and 38.

29. John opened the door.
30. The door was opened by John.
31. The key opened the door.
32. John opened the door with the key.
33. John used the key to open the door.
34. John believed that he would win.
35. We persuaded John that he would win.
36. It was apparent to John that he would win.
37. Chicago is windy.
38. It is windy in Chicago.

THE CATEGORIES OF THE FINITE VERB

TENSE AND, ASPECT

The selections presented in this chapter illustrate some typical features of the discussion of this problem in classical scientific grammar As is well known, one of the most interesting and difficult problems is the interaction of the categories of tense and aspect in a single form. The grammarians of the classical school were the first to draw attention to the category of aspect, but then treatment of this subject testifies to the confusion of morphological, lexical and syntactic means of denoting the manner of action of an English verb typical of English scientific grammar, its inability to distinguish between the forms of the verb, the lexical meaning of the verb (the terminative and the non-terminative verbs) and the syntactic combinations of — finite verbs plus infinitive or gerund, expressing different points of action (its beginning, continuation and end). This is characteristic even of Sweet's analysis, though he warns against the confusion of grammatical and lexical means of expressing these relations.

The selection from Jespersen's works illustrates the author's attempt to represent the English tense-forms as a system. But the basis of his approach is logical and therefore some English verb-forms cannot be included in his classification, while some others suggested by his diagram have no corresponding forms in English.

Note the structural approach to the analysis of verbal patterns, the tendency to treat the analytical forms of the verb exactly in the same way as the combinations of a modal verb with an infinitive, to treat them indiscriminately as verb-groups or phrases without differentiating verb-groups functioning as grammatical forms of simple verbs and free combinations of finite and non-finite verbal forms. The views of the transformationalists on morphology are reflected only in their description of the third component part of transformational grammar — the morphophonemic or morphographemic rules.

VOICE

English scientific grammar elaborated the problem of voice more profoundly and with greater objectivity than English prescriptive grammar, which condemned some peculiarly English passive constructions as wrong and illogical. Thus in Sweet's book we find the description of some characteristic features of the passive voice peculiar to the English language, which are not shared by other Indo-European languages. Sweet also suggests some special terms to denote these constructions.

The vast majority of the authors of English scientific grammars seem to recognize only two voices in English: the active and the passive voice. As far as we know, H. Poutsma is the only grammarian who admits the existence of the reflexive voice in English, formed by means of self-pronouns in combination with the verb. If we accept this view, at least as regards such combinations as *he stretched himself, he flung himself into the armchair,* etc., where it is difficult to perceive verb-object relations, we may speak of the rise of an entirely new type of analytic conjugation of the English verb. In this case the reflexive pronouns express not only the category of voice, but also the categories of person and number in a special "analytic" way. In Poutsma's gram-mar we find some other ideas which are of great interest for a student of English. Among them are the rules formulated for those cases where it is impossible to transform the active voice into the passive, and the analysis of the criteria which help to distinguish such grammatical homonyms as the passive voice and the so-called "statal passive", i. e. the nominal predicate with the link verb *to be* and the past participle.

Typical of English scientific grammar is the theory of the development of a new actional passive, formed by such auxiliaries as *to keep, to get,* or *to become,* which in fact is also one of the varieties of the nominal predicate with the link-verbs of becoming.

Structural grammarians treat the forms of the passive voice in the same way as all the other analytical forms of the verb, i. e. as verb-phrases.

The transformationalists discuss the passive voice as rules and also as one of the optional operations of transformational grammar.

MOOD

It is a well-known fact that the problem of the category of mood, i. e. the distinction between the real and the unreal expressed by the corresponding forms of the verb, is one of the most controversial problems of English theoretical grammar. The main theoretical difficulty is due to the coexistence in Modern English of both synthetic and analytical forms of the verb with the same grammatical meaning of irreality and to the fact that there are verbal forms homonymous with the Past Indefinite and Past Perfect of the indicative mood which are employed to express irreality. Another difficulty consists in distinguishing the analytical forms of the subjunctive with the auxiliaries *should, would, may (might),* which are devoid of any lexical meaning, from the homonymous verb groups in which these verbs have preserved their lexical meaning. This does not present however a problem to the modern schools of grammar who treat all modals as auxiliaries combining with verbs in the verb phrase.

The number of moods in English is also one of the still unsettled problems. Many authors of English scientific grammars subdivided the subjunctive mood into several moods, such as the subjunctive proper (expressed by the synthetic forms), the conditional mood (expressed by the combinations of *should* and *would* plus infinitive in the principal clause), the permissive and compulsive moods (expressed by the combinations of the infinitive with other modal verbs). The notion of the conditional mood has become quite popular with some Soviet grammarians who sometimes add two more oblique moods, the suppositional and subjunctive II, the principle of division being based on the tendency to ascribe to each of the forms of the subjunctive a specific grammatical meaning.

Tense

H.Sweet, A New English
Grammar, Part I, p.97-105.

The only tense which is expressed by inflection in English is the preterite (/ *called, I saw),* the absence of the preterite inflection constituting the present tense (I *call, I see).* The other tenses are formed by means of auxiliaries.

Tense is primarily the grammatical expression of distinctions of time.

Every occurrence, considered from the point of view of time, must be either past, as in / *was here yesterday,* present, as in *he is here today, he is here now,* or future, as in *he will be here tomorrow.* We call *was* the preterite tense of the verb *to be* — using 'past' as a general term to include other varieties of past time besides the preterite — is the present, and *will be* the future tense of the same verb.

SIMPLE AND COMPOUND TENSES

The present, preterite, and future are **simple** tenses. But there are also **compound** tenses, the most important of which belong to the perfect-group, comprising the perfect, pluperfect, and future perfect. These compound tenses combine present, past and future respectively with a time auterior to each of these periods: perfect (present perfect) = preterite + present, pluperfect (past perfect) = pre-preterite + preterite, and future perfect = pre-future + future.

PRIMARY AND SECONDARY TENSES

When we speak of an occurrence as past, etc., we must have some point of time from which to measure it. When we measure the time of an occurrence from the time when we are speaking, that is from the present, the tense which expresses the time of the occurrence is called a primary tense. The present, preterite, future, and perfect are primary tenses. A secondary tense, on the other hand, is measured, not from the time when we are speaking, but from some past or future time of which we are speaking, and consequently a sentence containing a secondary tense makes us expect another sentence containing a verb in a primary tense to show the time from which that of the secondary tense is to be measured. The pluperfect and future perfect are both secondary tenses.

COMPLETE AND INCOMPLETE TENSES

It is evident that an occurrence of which we speak in the present must be incomplete at the time, for if it were completed, it would no longer belong to the present. Thus *the clock is striking twelve* implies that it is in the middle of striking and that we know beforehand that there ought to be, and probably will be, twelve strokes. As soon as the last stroke has sounded, we are obliged to use the perfect, and say *the clock has (just) struck twelve.* Here the perfect denotes completion in the present: it is a complete perfect. So also in / *have lived my life* meaning 'the active part of my life is over', / *have lived* is a complete perfect. But in / *have lived here a good many years, I have lived* is an incomplete perfect, for the speaker is necessarily implied to be still living in the place referred to.

When we distinguish between complete and incomplete secondary tenses, we mean, of course, complete or incomplete with reference to the accompanying primary tenses. Thus in / *had written my letter when he came,* the action of writing is represented as being finished at the time denoted by the preterite *came,* so that / *had written* is here a complete (pluperfect) tense. In / *was writing a letter when he came,* on the other hand, the action of writing is represented as going on at the time shown by the preterite *came,* so that / *was writing* is here an incomplete (definite preterite) tense.

TENSE-ASPECTS: DURATION, ETC.

By tense-aspect we understand distinctions of time independent of any reference to past, present, or future. Thus the duration of an occurrence is independent of the relation of the time of the occurrence to the time when we are speaking or of which we are speaking. The distinction of duration between *fell* and *lay* in *he fell down,* and *he lay there nearly an hour,* or between *to laugh* and *to burst out laughing* has, of course, nothing to do with

grammar, because it is not shown by any grammatical forms, but by the meaning of the words themselves. But in some languages such distinctions of meaning are shown by inflection. In English the definite perfect / *have been seeing* generally expresses duration, as in / *have been writing letters ail day* compared with / *have written only one letter today. I have been writing* is, therefore, a long tense. / *have written,* on the other hand, is neutral as regards duration, being sometimes a short, sometimes a long tense. Long tenses may be either continuous or recurrent, denoting repetition, habit, etc. Thus we have a continuous present in *he lives in the country,* a recurrent present in *he goes to Germany twice a year.* The absolute duration of an occurrence is often disregarded in language, an occurrence of considerable length being often put on a level with one that is quite short or even instantaneous. This is generally the case when a succession of occurrences are narrated. Thus in describing a journey, *we passed through..., we stopped a minute..., we stopped three days..., we set out for...* are all regarded simply as points in a series. We may call them point-tenses.

Time and Tense

O.Jespersen, The Philosophy of Grammar, p.257-263, 277-278.

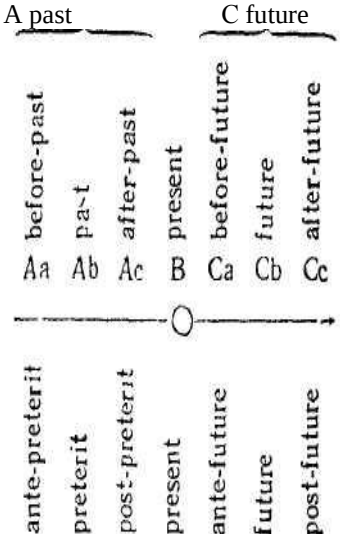
The three main divisions of time have to be arranged in the following way:

A past

B present

C future

The insertion of the intermediate "times" gives us this scheme, in which we place the notional terms above, and the corresponding grammatical terms below, the line which represents the course of time:



This figure, and the letters indicating the various divisions, show the relative value of the seven points, the subordinate "times" being orientated with regard to some point in the past (Ab) and in the future (Cb) exactly as the main times (A and C) are orientated with regard to the present moment (B).

MAIN DIVISIONS OF TIME

(A) **Simple past time**. —For this there is in English one tense, the preterit, e. g. *wrote.*

(B) **Simple present time**. — For this those languages that have tense distinctions in their verbs generally use the present tense.

(C) **Simple future time**. — It is easy to understand that expressions for times to come are less definite and less explicit in our languages than those for the past: we do not know so much about the future as about the past and are therefore obliged to talk about it in a more vague way.

(1) The present tense is used in a future sense. This is particularly easy when the sentence contains a precise indication of time: / *start to-morrow.*

(2) Volition. Both E. *will* and Dan. *vil* to a certain degree retain traces of the original meaning of real volition, and therefore E. *will go* cannot be given as a pure "future tense", though it approaches that function, as seen especially when it is applied to natural phenomena as *it will certainly rain before night.*

(3) Thought, intention. This cannot easily be kept apart from volition.

(4) Obligation. This is the original meaning of OE. *sceal,* now *shall,* Dutch *zal.* In English the meaning of obligation is nearly effaced, but the use of the auxiliary is restricted to the first person in assertions and to the second person in questions, though in some classes of subordinate clauses it is used in all three persons.

(5) Motion. Verbs meaning 'go' and 'come' are frequently used to indicate futurity: I *am going to write.*

(6) Possibility. E. *may* frequently denotes a somewhat vague futurity: *this may end in disaster.*

Next we come to consider the subordinate divisions of time, i. e. points in time anterior or posterior to some other point (past or future) mentioned or implied in the sentence concerned.

(Aa**). Before-past time**. This requires to be mentioned so frequently that many languages have developed special tenses for it: ante-preterit (pluperfect, past perfect), either simple as Lat. *scripseram* or periphrastic, as E. *had written.*

The relations between the two "times", the simple past and the before-past, may be represented graphically thus, the line denoting the time it took to write the letter, and the point c the time of his coming:

/ *had written the letter before he came = he came after I had written the letter:* -------c.

He came before I had written the letter = either I finished writing the letter after he had come, or I wrote the letter after he had come: _____ or c_____

(Ac). **After-past time.** I know of no language which possesses a simple tense (post-preterit) for this notion. A usual expression is by a verb denoting destiny or obligation, in E. most often *was to: Next year she gave birth to a son who was to cause her great anxiety.*

(Ca). **Before-future time.** The corresponding tense (the ante-future) is usually termed futurum exactum or the future perfect. Lat. *scripsero,* in our modern languages periphrastic: / *shall have written (he will have written).*

As above, under Aa, we may here give a graphical representation of the time-relation:

/ *shall have written the letter before he comes — he will come after I have written(shall have written) the letter:*_____c

*He will come before I (shall) have written the letter = either I shall finish writing the letter after he has come, or I shall write the letter after he has come:*_____or c_____

(Cc). **After-future**. This has chiefly a theoretic interest, and I doubt very much whether forms like / *shall be going to write* (which implies nearness in time to the chief future time) or *scripturus ero* are of very frequent occurrence.

THE ENGLISH EXPANDED TENSES

In the survey just given we found two renderings of Lat. *scribebam* in English, *wrote* for the habitual action, and *was writing* for the descriptive imperfect. Corresponding expressions are found in the present, etc., as English possesses a whole set of composite tense-forms: is *writing, was writing, has been writing, will (shall) be writing, will (shall) have been writ'ing, would (should) be writing, would (should) have been writing,* and in the passive *is being written, was being written*. Very much has been written by grammarians about these combinations, which have been called by various names, definite tenses, progressive tenses, continuous tenses. I prefer to call them expanded tenses, because this name is sufficiently descriptive of the formation without prejudging anything with regard to its employment.

The purport of the expanded tenses is not to express duration in itself, but relative duration, compared with the shorter time occupied by some other action. "Methuselah lived to be more than nine hundred years old" — here we have the unexpended *lived* indicating a very long time. "He was raising his hand to strike her, when he stopped short" — an action of very short duration expressed by means of the expanded tense.

Tense

G.O.Curme, A Grammar of the English Language, vol.2, p.231-232.

Tenses are the different forms which a verb assumes to indicate the time of the action or state. There are six tenses, present, past, present perfect, past perfect, future, future perfect: I *return* (present), *returned* (past), *have returned* (present perfect), *had returned* (past perfect), *shall return* (future), *shall have returned* (future perfect).

Aspect

G.O.Curme, A Grammar of the English Language, vol.3, p.373-386.

Aspect indicates the aspect, the type, the character of the action. The following classes occur:

1**. Durative Aspect**. This type represents the action as continuing. We usually employ here the progressive form: 'He *is eating.'* To express different shades of the idea of continuance also other forms are often used, especially *remain, keep, keep on, go on, continue* with a present participle as predicate after an intransitive, and an infinitive or gerund as object after a transitive.

2. **Point-action Aspects**. The point-action aspects call attention, not to an act as a whole, but to only one point, either the beginning or the final point. There are thus two classes:

a. INGRESSIVE ASPECT. This point-action type directs the attention especially to the initial stage of the action or state: 'He *awoke early',* i. e., came into a waking state early. 'The boat *slowed up* as it came in.' 'They went the moment it *cleared.'* This idea is expressed in various ways:

aa. The ingressive aspect is often expressed by *begin, commence,* or *start* in connection with an infinitive or gerund as object.

ab. The ingressive idea is often expressed by the ingressives *get, grow, fall, turn, wax, become, run, go, come, set, stare, take (take up as a habit)* in connection with a predicate adjective, participle, noun, or a prepositional phrase: 'He often *gets sick.*

b. EFFECTIVE ASPECT. This point-action aspect directs the attention to the final point of the activity or state, to a result that has been reached, hence it often indicates attainment or failure: 'The two friends *fell out.'* 'He *knocked* him *out in the fourth round.*

3. **Terminate Aspect**. A large number of simple and compound verbs indicate an action as a whole. Such verbs are called terminates. This aspect is especially associated with the simple form of the verb just as the durative aspect is associated with the progressive form. In terminates the action often begins and terminates within a limited period: 'He *motioned* to me.' 'He didn't even *wince.'* 'He *hit* the mark.' 'He *handed* me a book.' 'He *shot* a duck.' 'The bullet *pierced* his heart.' 'She *sighed.'* 'A snowflake *lit* upon his nose.' 'He *stumbled* and *fell.'* 'The thugs *killed* him, *took* his money, and *threw* him into the river.' 'An idea *flashed* on me.' 'This news *dashed, shattered,* our hopes.' 'She *misunderstood* me.' 'I *overlooked* this item in my calculation.' The terminate aspect is the largest category, and hence is associated with many verbs of quite a different meaning from those just mentioned. Any verbal form that represents the act as a finished whole is a terminate whether the duration of the act be long or short: 'He *went* (here thought of as a finished whole, not as continuing) to church this morning.' 'Last summer I *built* a fine new house.' 'Next summer I expect *to build* a fine new house.

4. **Iterative Aspect**. This type indicates an indefinitely prolonged succession of like acts: 'He *pooh-poohs*at everything.' 'He threw his head back and *haw-hawed.*[1] 'Outside the wind blew gustily and set a loquacious tassel *tap-tapping* against a pane.

The Verb and Its Helpers

H.Whitehall, Structural Essentials
of English, p.78-85.

The total verb system of English is extraordinarily complex. This fact is due to an important grammatical feature of the language: that the verb position in the language can be filled not only by the simple verb but also by a headed word-group (verb group). In such a verb group, a head consisting of a base of a full verb is preceded by one, or two, or a series of empty words. These, whatever their precise nature, are the verbal auxiliaries (verbal helpers) of English, the empty words used in verb word-groups:

1	2	3	4
The reporte	*was giving*	a lady	books.
1	2	3	4
The reporter	*had been giving*	a lady	books.
1	2	3	4
The reporter	h*ad been about to be giving*	a lady	books.

Whatever their functions, these words preceding the verb head consititute special kinds of modifiers, but being empty words, not full words, they modify the head only grammatically. Their main function is to limit the functions of the verb according to the attitudes and feelings of speakers towards the happenings they may be reporting. When a simple verb is used it merely times a happening as past or non-past. When a verb word-group is used, it indicates the particular manner in which a happening is, was, will be, or may be realized.

Verb groups express the aspects of a happening by varying the verb part used as the head. Thus an *ing-part* (present participle) marks a continuing or imperfect happening (imperfect aspect), a past participle, marks a completed or perfect happening (perfect aspect), and a simple base marks a happening as neither of these (indefinite aspect):

1	2	3	4
The reporte	*was giving*	a lady	books.
1	2	3	4
The reporter	*had given*	a lady	books.
1	2	3	4
The reporter	*might give*	a lady	books.

The role of the verbal helpers is to differentiate these general aspects even further by marking their detailed time settings (tenses) and special conditions of possible occurrence (moods). Classification of the verbal helpers depends partly upon their form and partly upon their positions as constituents of the verb word-group.

The first major division consists of those verbal helpers which can assume the first position in the verb group. There are two subdivisions:

a. Modals (mood auxiliaries) are stressless verbs that can occur immediately before a plain base and lack an s-part: *can, could, dare, may, might, must, need, shall, should, will, would.* Their purpose is to signalize non-actual situations, i. e., happenings that have not taken place, and may never take place, according to the various attitudes (moods) held by the person who reports them: possibility, necessity, obligation, intention, condition, capability:

1	2	3	4
The reporter	*may give*	the lady	books.

1	2	3	4
The reporter	*could give*	the lady	books.
1	2	3	4
The reporter	*will give*	the lady	books.
1	*2*	3	4
The reporter	*must give*	the lady	books.

b. Timers are verbs that possess s-parts but cannot occur immediately, before a simple base used as the head. Here certainly belong the parts of *be* and *have*

PAST TENSE; IMPERFECT ASPECT

1	2	3	4
A reporter	*was giving*	the lady	books.

PAST TENSE:PERFECT ASPECT

1	2	3	4
A reporter	*has given*	the lady	books.

PAST TENSE; ITERATIVE IMPERFECT ASPECT

1	2	3	4
The reporter	*kept* giving	the lady	books.

PAST TENSE; INCEPTIVE IMPERFECT ASPECT

1	2	3	4
The reporter	*got* giving	the lady	books.

The second division of verbal helpers comprises empty words which occur internally in the verb word-group:

1	2	3	4
The reporter	may *have*	*been about to* give a lady	books.

The natural point of division between these words and the initial word or words is shown by the possibility of inserting a qualifying adverb between the two:

1	2
The reporter	may *presumably* have been about to give
1	2
The reporter	had been *presumably about* to give

We may call all internal verbal helpers combining helpers, their purpose being to permit the further interlocking of tense, mood, and aspect.

Voice

H.Sweet, A New English Grammar,
Part I, p.112-113, 138.

By voice we mean different grammatical ways of expressing the relation between a transitive verb and its subject and object. The two chief voices are the active *(he saw)* and the passive *(he was seen).*

In a sentence with a fully expressed transitive verb, such as *the dog killed the rat,* although there is only one subject, namely, *dog,* yet from a logical point of view the statement about killing applies to the object-word *rat* as well as to the subject-word *dog;* and it may happen that we wish to state the killing rather with reference to the rat than the dog. It may also happen that all we know is that the rat was killed, without knowing how it was killed. In short, we may wish to make the object-word *rat* into the subject-word of the sentence. This we do by changing the active form *killed* into the corresponding passive form *was killed: the rat was killed.* The original subject is added, if necessary, by means of the preposition *by: the rat was killed by the dog.* In this sentence *rat* is the inverted object and *by the dog* is the inverted subject. The passive voice is, therefore, a grammatical device for (a) bringing the object of a transitive verb into prominence by making it the subject of the sentence and *(b)* getting rid of the necessity of naming the subject of a transitive verb.

But when such a sentence as *the examiner asked me three questions* is made passive, either of the object-words may be the subject of the passive sentence: / *was asked three questions by the examiner, three questionswere asked by the examiner.* We call me and *questions* in such constructions retained objects, distinguishing them, if necessary, as retained indirect and retained direct objects respectively.

Some languages, such as Greek, have a reflexive, or middle voice.

In English group-verbs can be put in the passive voice in imitation of the transitive verbs which they resemble in meaning, as in *it has been thought of, he shall be attended to.*

In such group-verbs the preposition follows the verb so closely that it is often completely detached from the noun-word it originally governed. When a preposition is used in this way we call it a detached preposition.

The Passive Voice

H.Poutsma, A Grammar of Late Modern English, Part II, p.93-100, 143-146, 156-158.

As has already been stated, the logical object of a sentence may be made its grammatical subject. This is mostly done by a change in the form of the predicate, effected, in English, by combining a form of the verb *to* be with the past or passive participle. This combination is called the passive voice of the verb.

The verb *to be* is also joined to the past participle of a transitive verb to express a state which is the result of the action. In this case its grammatical function is that of a copula, while the participle has retained its original character of an adjective. Such a sentence as *The bottle is broken* is, accordingly, ambiguous, and its exact meaning can only appear from the context. But there is no mistaking the meaning of the combination *to be* + past participle, when there is an adjunct denoting particulars of the action. Compare *His bills are paid regularly every month,* with *His bills are paid, so that he owes nothing now.*

FUNCTION OF THE REFLEXIVE VOICE

The English reflexive voice has two markedly different functions, according to the significance of the reflexive pronoun (or its substitute) it contains.

a) This pronoun may have the full significance of an ordinary non-prepositional object, or of the substantival constituent of a prepositional object or adverbial adjunct, occupying a particular position only in so far as it denotes the same person or thing as the subject.

He got into bed, covered himself up warm and fell asleep.

In the case of the pronoun representing a single non-prepositional object the verb may be styled transitive reflexive.

*b)*The pronoun, although fulfilling syntactically the function of a non-prepositional object, is practically devoid of semantic significance, inasmuch as it does not indicate that the activity expressed by the verb is directed to the person or thing denoted by the subject or any other person or thing. The verb is, therefore, semantically intransitive as in *Did you enjoy yourselves at the party?* It may, accordingly, in this case be termed intransitive reflexive.

The use of the reflexive pronoun suggesting some self-originated activity on the part of what is indicated by the subject, it is not to be wondered at that there is a tendency to drop it when, as is frequently the case with lifeless things, such an activity is not thought of or is out of the question. This tendency is particularly strong in English.

Voice

G.O.Curme, A Grammar of the English Language, vol.2, p.203, 217-220.

There are two voices, the active and the passive.

PASSIVE VOICE

Meaning and Use. The passive voice represents the subject as acted upon: 'John *was punished* for disobeying his mother.' 'Our house *is being painted.'* Only transitives can form a passive.

Formation of the Passive. The active verb is often a simple form, but the passive is always a compound

Common Actional Passive Form. The common literary form is made by combining some form of the copula *be* with the past participle: 'The house is *painted* every year.'

New Passive Actional Forms. Within the modern period have sprung up several valuable new passive forms.

a. GET-PASSIVE. There is a strong drift in England and America to employ *be* to denote a state and use effective *get* to denote an act: 'He is *married* (state) now, but I can't tell you when he *got married'* (act).

b. BECOM E-PASSIVE. This form is made by combining some form of *become* with the past participle: 'Beatrice *became* more and more *influenced* by Randal's arguments.' *Get* and *become* as effectives have in general the same meaning, but in passive constructions they are becoming differentiated. The get-passive denotes a simple act, as illustrated in *a,* while the become-passive represents the occurrence as the final outcome of a development.

c. COME-TO-PASSIVE, *GET-TO-P ASSIVE* The passive is made by combining some form of *come* or *get* with apassive infinitive 'He *came* (or *got) to be highly respected* by everybody in the community.' The get-to-passive is not so choice English as the *come*-to-passive, and moreover it becomes impossible in the present perfect tense on account of the ambiguity of the form.

d. PASSIVE OF EXPERIENCE. There is another passive, which, though it did not absolutely arise in present period, first became common in modern times. It is now widely employed in colloquial speech and is found

also in the literary language. It represents the subject of the sentence as experiencing something: 'Last week I *had* (or *got) my right leg hurt* in an accident.'

e. PASSIVE AFTER CAUSATIVES. The construction is the same as in *d,* but *have* and *get* are here stressed: 'I *had* (or *got)* a new suit made.'

Mood

H.Sweet, A New English Grammar,
Part I, p.105-112.

By the moods of a verb we understand grammatical forms expressing different relations between subject and predicate. Thus, if a language has special forms to express commands as distinguished from statements, we include the forms that express command under the term 'imperative mood.' Thus in English *come!* is in the imperative mood, while the statement *he comes* is in the 'indicative' mood.

From the point of view of mood-distinctions statements fall under two main divisions, according as they state something as a fact or only as a thought. Thus *it is true, it is not true, I think so,* are all meant to imply statement of facts as opposed to mere thoughts. Whether such statements are really true — really statements of facts — is no concern of grammar, which deals only with the meaning of the form itself. From a grammatical point of view, moreover, doubtful statements, such as *perhaps it is true,* are just as much statements of fact as the most positive assertions.

The few distinctions that English makes between fact-statements and thought-statements are mainly expressed, not by inflections, but by auxiliaries (periphrastic moods), and by peculiar uses of tense-distinctions. The following are the auxiliary forms;

(a) The combination of *should* and *would* with the infinitive *(should see, would see),* when used in the principal clause of conditional sentences, is called the **conditional** mood. The conditional mood has the same form as the future preterite tense.

(b) The combination of *may* and its preterite *might* with the infinitive *(may see, might see)* is called the **permissive mood**, as in *may you be happy!* where it expresses wish, *let the dog loose that he may run about a little; we let the dog loose that he might run about a little,* where i t expresses purpose.

(c) The combination of the finite forms of the verb *to be* with the supine (is *to see, was to see, were to see)* is called the **compulsive mood.** This combination is so called because it primarily expresses compulsion or obligation, as in *what am I to do?, what is to be done?* In this sense it can hardly be considered a mood. But it is used as a pure mood in conditional sentences, as in *if it were to rain, I do not know what we shall do.*

We use tenses to express thought-statements in the hypothetical clauses of conditional sentences, as in *if I knew his address I would write to him; if it were possible 1 would do it.* In the latter example (as also in *if it were to rain,* § 300) the hypothesis is shown not only by the preterite tense, but also by the subjunctive inflection, which is really superfluous. When a thought-statement is expressed by a tense in this way, we call it a tense-mood. *Were* in *if it were* is a **subjunctive tense-mood.**

As we see, in some conditional sentences all three ways of expressing thought-statements are used — inflectional mood (subjunctive), auxiliary mood (conditional), and tense-mood (preterite). For convenience we will include all these methods of expression under the term **thought-form.** We understand, then, by thought-form any grammatical form meant to show that a statement is of a thought as opposed to a fact.

Mood

G.O.Curme, A Grammar of the English
Language, vol.2, p.223-226.

Moods are the changes in the form of the verb to show the various ways in which the action or state is thought of by the speaker.There are three moods:

1. **Indicative Mood**. This form represents something as a fact, or as in close relation with reality, or in interrogative form inquires after a fact. A fact: 'The sun *rises* every morning.' In a close relation to reality: 'I shall not go if it *rains.'* The indicative *rains* here does not state that it *is* raining, but indicates that the idea of rain is not a mere conception, but something close to a reality, for the speaker feels it as an actual problem in his day's program with which he has to reckon and is reckoning.

2. **Subjunctive Mood**. There are two entirely different kinds of subjunctive form — the old simple subjunctive and the newer forms consisting of a modal auxiliary and a dependent infinitive of the verb to be used.

The function of the subjunctive is to represent something, not as an actual reality, but as formed in the mind of the speaker as a desire, wish, volition, plan, conception, thought; sometimes with more or less hope of realization, or, in the case of a statement, with more or less belief; sometimes with little or no hope or faith. The present subjunctive is associated with the idea of hopefulness, likelihood, while the past and the past perfect subjunctive indicate doubt, unlikelihood, unreality, modesty, politeness: 'I desire that he *go* at once.' 'May he *return* soon.' 'O that he *were* alive and *could see* the fruits of his labor.' 'I *would buy* it if I *had* the money.' 'I fear he *may come* too

late.' 'I am becoming worried; he *might come* too late.' 'I *would have bought* it if I *had had* the money.' 'I *should think* it rather unfair.' 'You *should go* at once.'

The various meanings may be classified under two general heads — the optative subjunctive and the potential subjunctive. The optative subjunctive represents something as desired, demanded, or required (by a person or by circumstances). The potential subjunctive marks something as a mere conception of the mind, but at the same time represents it as something that may probably or possibly be or become a reality or on the other hand as something that is contrary to fact.

a. Optative Subjunctive. Examples: *'Part* we in friend-ship from your land!' 'I *will* do all I can' (promise). 'You *shall have* some cake' (promise).

b. Potential Subjunctive. Examples: 'It *may rain* today.' 'It *might rain* today.' *'Could* he *have meant* it?' 'That *would have been* rather difficult.'

Moods

O.Jespersen, The Philoso[hy
of Grammar, p.313, 315.

Many grammarians enumerate the following moods in English, etc.: indicative, subjunctive, imperative, infinitive, and participle. It is, however, evident, that infinitives and participles cannot be coordinated with the others, and we shall therefore in this chapter deal with the first three moods only. These are sometimes called fact-mood, thought-mood, and will-mood respectively. But they do not "express different relations between subject and predicate", as Sweet says. It is much more correct to say that they express certain attitudes of the mind of the speaker towards the contents of the sentence. Further it is very important to remember that we speak of "mood" only if this attitude of mind is shown in the form of the verb: mood thus is a syntactic, not a notional category.

If we pass on to the Indicative and the Subjunctive, the first remark that obtrudes itself is that the treatment of this subject has been needlessly complicated by those writers who speak of combinations with auxiliary verbs, e. g. *may he come \ he may come \ if he should come,* as if they were subjunctives of the verb *come,* or subjunctive equivalents. Scholars would hardly have used these expressions if they had only the English language to deal with, for it is merely the fact that such combinations in some cases serve to translate simple Subjunctives in German or Latin that suggest the use of such terms, exactly as people will call *to the boy* a dative case.

Imaginative Use of Tenses

O.Jespersen, A Modern English
Grammar, Part IV, vol.3, p.112-113.

Verbal forms which are primarily used to indicate past time are often used without that temporal import to denote unreality, impossibility, improbability or non-fulfilment. In such cases we speak of imaginative tenses or tenses of imagination.

PRETERIT

This is found in sentences like:

I wish I had money enough to pay you.
If I had money enough, I should pay you.
You speak as if I had money enough.

In all such cases we deny the reality or possibility of certain suppositions; the implication is "I have not money enough". In the second and third examples we speak of a "rejected condition" or better "rejecting condition" or "condition contrary to fact", and in the main sentence of the second example we state what would be likely under the imagined condition that I had money enough, or what may be considered the logical or natural consequence of its truth or realization.

Originally this use was found in the **preterit subjunctive** only, and the unreality was denoted by the mood rather than by the tense. But in course of time the distinction between the forms of the subjunctive and those of the indicative came to be blotted out, and now in 99 pct. of cases it is impossible from the form to tell which of the two moods is used, thus with all strong verbs: *came, drank, held,* etc., and with all weak verbs: *ended, sent,* etc. The only form in which the distinction survives is *was* (ind.) and *were* (subj.), and even here it should be noted that the plural form *were* belongs to both moods. It was, therefore, unavoidable that this last relic of the preterit subjunctive should also give way before the overwhelming pressure of the other forms, — the more so, as no inconvenience was ever felt by the **fact there is no** corresponding difference in the other **verbs — and we** see a growing tendency to use *was* in the **singular instead of** *were* where unreality is to be indicated.

Mood

H.Whitehall, Structural Essentials of English, p.81-82.

Mood (or mode) establishes the speaker's or writer's mood about the actuality of a happening. The indicative mood indicates that what he says must be regarded as fact, i. e., as having occurred or as occurring; the so-called subjunctive mood implies that he is doubtful or uncertain about its occurrence:

John's health is really bad; he ought **to quit** work.

If John's health *be* reallv bad, he ought **to** quit work.

Although the subjunctive is gradually dying **out** of the language, English is rich in devices for expressing one's psychological moods toward happenings **that** are imaginary. We can, for instance, clearly indicate whether a non-actual (i. e. unrealized) happening can be regarded as an intention, probability, possibility, necessity, hope, and so forth.

Tomorrow, I *will* go to Boston.
Tomorrow, I *may* go to Boston.
Tomorrow, I *might* go to Boston.
Tomorrow, I *can* go to Boston.
Tomorrow, I *must* go to Boston.
Tomorrow, I *should* go to Boston.

MINI-TESTS IN GRAMMAR

MINI-TESTS IN GRAMMAR № 1 **NAME_____**
GROUP_____

I. Name the first ancient Indian grammarians and the number of rules (sutra) which one of the famous normative grammars had.

II. Name some Russian and Ukrainian scholars in English Theoretical Grammar .

III. What is the domain of syntax? Tick the proper answer:

1. Syntagmatics 2. Paradigmatics

IV. Tick the correct answer. Many grammars tend to have numerous samples of exaggerations, because:

1. strict system of rules must be observed 2. scholars differ in their opinions 3. Pre-intermediate students make a lot of mistakes

MINI-TESTS IN GRAMMAR № 2 **NAME_____**
GROUP_____

I. Tick the correct answer. Functional grammars are based on the following linguistic analysis:

1/ internal 2/ external

II. Name the principles which Typological grammars are based on.

III. Give the examples of lexical and grammatical morphs.

IY. What are the sources of origin of the sign:

MINI-TESTS IN GRAMMAR № 3 **NAME_____**
GROUP_____

I. Draw a morpheme tree of IC for the word ‘ unwittingly’. Symbols: W =word; St =stem; -St = stem without prefix; St- = stem without suffix; R= root; Pr = prefix; L= lexical suffix; Gr = grammatical suffix

II. What kind of morph is [ ] in “ hammer” and “thunder”? Tick the correct answer. 1.a part of a morph 2. a free morph

III. Where is grammatical polysemy? Tick the correct answer. 1. Two or more units of a plane of content correspond to one unit of a plane of expression 2. Two or more units of the plane of expression correspond to one unit of the plane of content.

IV. Give the examples of words with negative prefix morpheme.

MINI-TESTS IN GRAMMAR № 4 **NAME_____**
GROUP_____

I. Define the type of correspondence between the planes of content and expression in the following sentences or word groups: I decided to go - My decision of going - I did decide I should go.

II. Translate and define the type of correspondence : Це – студент, який проживає у сусідній квартирі. Це – кішка, яка живе сама по собі. Ось фотографія, яка демонструє виставку.

III. Why do we call sentence a predicative unit?

IV. Give the correlates in speech to the following language units: lexeme, word group, proposeme.

MINI-TESTS IN GRAMMAR № 5 **NAME_____**
GROUP_____

I. Draw the IC scheme of the sentence: “Little John is anxious”.

(S – sentence, NP – noun phrase, subj – subject, VP – verb phrase, pred – predicate, A – adjective, N – noun, VI – linking verb, Ast – stative or stative adjective).

II. Translate into English: “болтать”, “сплетничать”, “перемывать косточки” and define the type of paradigmatic relations.

III. Give examples of functional (syntactic) paradigm.

IV. Tick the correct answer. In “inspiring day” we find syntagmatic relations of: 1. Independence 2. Dependence 3. Interdependence

MINI-TESTS IN GRAMMAR № 6 **NAME_____**
GROUP_____

I. Find another suppletive form to fill in the paradigms. E.g. Little-less
I - , go - , one - , can - , evil - , information - .
II. Tick the correct answer. Analytical forms are characterised by:
1. stylistic indivisibility 2. syntactical indivisibility 3. semantic indivisibility
III. What are the main features of English as analytical language?

MINI-TESTS IN GRAMMAR № 7 **NAME_____**
GROUP_____

I. Who worked out the theory of binary oppositions (oppositions of two grammatical forms)?
Tick the correct answer: 1. Nicolas Trubetskoy 2. Academician V.Vinogradov 3. Charles Fries
II. How many numbers had the Old Ukrainian noun "око"? (Give the examples).
III. Prove that grammatical categories are not homogeneous.
IV. Name the principles of the parts of speech classification.

MINI-TESTS IN GRAMMAR № 8 **NAME_____**
GROUP_____

I. Give examples of: 1. modal words 2. words of the category of state
II. Name notional parts of speech.
III. In the following samples you'll find some notional words stressed and unstressed.
Translate these expressions (or interpret them), paying attention to the stress
(e.g. A `French `teacher = a teacher French by nationality;
a French `teacher – a teacher of the French language).
1. a `mad `doctor, a `mad doctor; 2. A `dust `mop, a `dust mop;
3. a `blackbird's nest, a black `bird's nest, a black bird's `nest
IV. Form the plural: tomato, studio, kilo, concerto.

MINI-TESTS IN GRAMMAR № 9 **NAME_____**
GROUP_____

I. What logical category does the number category of noun correspond to?
II. Give the English variants for: 1. Кейт і Макс прийшли в належний (зазначений) час, а більшість студентів запізнились.
2. Один із моїх друзів добре володіє японською.
3. Більш, ніж одна особа не погоджується з цим.
III. Form the Plural: thesis, stratum, stimulus, formula.
IV. Translate into Ukrainian: experience – an experience; failure – a failure; silence – a silence; work – a work.

MINI-TESTS IN GRAMMAR № 10 **NAME ----------**
GROUP----------

I. Define the types of the predicates:
a) He was alarmed by the accident. b) The wall has already been whitewashed. c) He was being introduced.
II. Point out Pr. Ilyish's point of view on the category of tenses:
a) absolute and anterior tenses b) past-point, present-point, future point c) present, past, future tenses with correlation.
III. State if the adjective is qualitative or relative :
a) silvery foam b) rich people c) stony face d) gold ring
IY. Point out the syntactical functions of the adjective:
a) She wears her shirt tight b) It's a bitter-sweet union

TEST YOURSELF

Варіант 1

1. Проаналізувати зв”язок морфології та синтаксису у вивченні граматичної системи мови.
2. Охарактеризувати статусні характеристики речення.
3. Визначити мовленнєві кореляти таких мовних одиниць: phoneme, morpheme, lexeme, phraseme, texteme.

Варіант 2

1. Порівняти граматичні структури української та англійської мов.
2. Дати аналіз понять “ морфема”, “морф”, “алломорф” у світлі алло-емічної теорії .
3. Визначити тип синтаксичного зв”язку та роль елементів просодії у словосполученнях: a `dust `mop – a`dust mop, a `mad `doctor – a `mad doctor, a `French `teacher – a `French teacher, a `blackbird’s nest – a black `bird’s nest – a black bird’s `nest

Варіант 3

1. Визначити поняття “граматична полісемія” та навести приклади.
2. Довести аналітичність англійської мови.
3. Знайти іншу суплетивну форму, заповнивши такі парадигми: I - , go - , one - , can - , information - .

Варіант 4

1. Визначити поняття “граматична синонімія” та навести приклади.
2. Проаналізувати проблеми актуального поділу речення.
3. Вказати мовні кореляти таких мовленнєвих одиниць: allophone, phrase, text, word.

Варіант 5

1. Дати визначення поняття “граматична омонімія” та навести приклади.
2. Обгрунтувати ізоморфічні особливості рівнів мови.
3. Прокоментувати форми підрядного зв”язку у таких словосполученнях: handsome boys, the dress of silk, this recently retired officer, красива дівчина.

Варіант 6

1. Дати аналіз синтагматичним відношенням у мові.
2. Охарактеризувати екстралінгвістичний та власне лінгвістичний підходи щодо визначення статусних характеристик речення.
3. Визначити, до якої частини мова належить слово “since” у таких реченнях:
   a) Since morning I haven’ t seen him; b) I haven’t seen him since; c) Since he didn’t come we’ll have to wait for him.

Варіант 7

1. Дати аналіз парадигматичним відношенням у мові.
2. Виділити випадки вживання необчислюваних іменників у множині.
3. Визначити тип синтаксичного зв”язку та перекласти такі словосполучення: a sparrow of a woman, a giant of a man, a hell of a child, a jewel of a nature.

Варіант 8

1. Прокоментувати принципи граматичної класифікації слів.
2. Визначити головні критерії виділення іменника як частики мови.
3. Згрупувати наступні слова в групи, беручи до уваги їх граматичні форми: ladies, worse, rose, sends, are reading, biggest, least, were, worked, built, John’s , women, me, is done, has come, cut, broke, looks, geese, puts, wanted, knives, shot, shorter, him, fewer, flats, flattest, have been, cost, costs, shook.

Варіант 9

1. Порівняти два поняття: лексичне та граматичне значення слова.
2. Прокоментувати опозицію « простий дієслівний присудок у пасивному стані» та « складений іменнифй присудок».
3. Утворити множину таких іменників, пояснюючи різницю значень граматичних дублетів: brother, cloth, genius, index, penny.

Варіант 10

1. Визначити засоби репрезентації граматичної форми.
2. Довести доцільність статусу генетиву як маркованої форми англійського іменника .
3. Знайти у поданих реченнях випадки вживання предикативних словосполучень чи частин складнопідрядних речень: a) Someone else was awake, with his hands around his knees b) Someone else was awake, while his hands were tightly clasped around his knees c) They watched him boarding the train just as it had begun to move from the platform d) For him to find a corner seat in one of the compartments caused some difficulty, but at lat he found it.

Варіант 11

1. Проаналізувати характерні особливості граматичних категорій.
2. Визначити принципи класифікації словосполучень.
3. Навести приклади іменників, вжитих у генетиві, які означають назви неістот.

Варіант 12

1. Охарактеризувати критерії статусу дієслова як частини мови.
2. Дати аналіз граматичної категорії часу.
3. Визначити значення , передані генетивом, у таких випадках:
   a) a doll's face, Brown's trial, Tom's anger, Lady's Wear, Ann's doll, Charles Dicken's novels, a handful of sugar, a mile's distance.

Варіант 13

1. Довести недоцільність теорій полівідмінкової системи сучасної англійської мови.
2. Визначити характерні риси синтаксичних одиниць.
3. Прокоментувати використання часових форм у наступному текстовому фрагменті:

On the following evening I took the Blue Train to the Riviera and two or three days later went over to Antibes to see Elliot and give him news of Paris. He looked far from well. The cure at Montecatini had not done him the good he expected, and his subsequent wanderings had exausted him.

Варіант 14

1. Проаналізувати різні системи класифікацій англійського дієслова.
2. Охарактеризувати типи словосполучень згідно характеру синтаксичних зв"язків.
3. Дати англійські еквіваленти українським дієсловам та прокоментувати засоби, якими відтворено завершеність дії в обох мовах: читати – прочитати, терпіти – витерпіти, шукати – відшукати, сидіти – сісти, об"єднувати – об"єднати.

Варіант 15

1. Охарактеризувати синтаксичні функції прикметника у сучасній англійській мові.
2. Дати аналіз синтаксичним відношенням і синтаксичним зв"язкам.
3. Утворити множину таких іменників, аргументуючи спосіб утворення : soprano, kilo, Filipino, concerto, video.

Варіант 16

1. Прокоментувати морфологічні засоби репрезентації граматичної форми слова.
2. Проаналізувати підрядний тип синтагматичних відношень.
3. Навести приклади іменників протилежного роду: host, sir, gander, dog, leopard, usher.

Варіант 17

1.Дати критичний аналіз теоріям щодо визначення кількості форм категорії стану у сучасній англійській мові.

2.Охарактеризувати сурядний тип синтагматичних відношень.

3.В ідшукати частини мови, відповідно таким визначенням:

a) … a word which refers to a person, a thing or an abstract idea such as a feeling or a quality b) a word which is used to replace a noun that has already been mentioned or that will be mentioned later c) a word which adds information about a verb or an adjective d) a word with no meaning on its own which is used in front of a noun or a noun phrase.

Варіант 18

1. Описати критерії розрізнення аналітичної форми і словосполучення.
2. Дати аналіз типам синтаксичних зв"язків у словосполученні.
3. Визначити, які граматичні терміни позначають такі скорочення: adj, adv, C, conj, phrv, infml.

Варіант 19

1.Визначити та навести приклади елементи синтетичного, кореневого, аглютинативного та полісинтетичного типів мов, які присутні у англійській мові.

2.Дати аналіз характерних особливостей синтаксичних одиниць.

3. Дати англійські варіанти перекладу: а) Кейт і Макс прийшли вчасно, але більшість студентів спізнились.б) Один із моїх друзів добре володіє японською. в)Більш ніж одна особа погоджується з цим.

Варіант 20

1. Охарактеризувати рівні та одиниці мови.

2.Довести, що синтаксичні одиниці є ієрархічно структуровані.

3. Утворити множину таких іменників: thesis, stratum, stimulus, formula.

Варіант 21

1.Прокоментувати тезу про складність визначення чіткої межі між морфологією і синтаксисом.

2.Дати аналіз типам теоретичних граматик.

3. Перекласти на українську мову: experience – an experience, failure – a failure, silence – a silence, work – a work.

Варіант 22

1. Обгрунтувати існування залежного граматичного значення.

2.Охарактеризувати структурний підхід до класифікації частин мови.

3.Відшукати частини мови відповідно таким визначенням:

a) … a word which give more information about a noun or a pronoun b) … a word which adds information about a verb, or abot an adjective or an adverb c) a word or group of words often placed before a noun or pronoun to indicate place direction, source, method, etc.

Варіант 23

1.Виділити принципи класифікації частин мови.

2. Дати аналіз теоріям “словосполучення” у вітчизняній лінгвістиці.

3. Визначити відповідності терміну та його аргументації: 1Base Form 2. Auxiliary Verb 3.Modal 4. – ing Noun

a) An auxiliary verb which is used with a main verb to show a particular attitude such as possibility, obligation or prediction b) A noun formed from a verb and ending in – ing. C) A verb which is used with a main verb to form tenses, negatives, questions d) The form of the verb which has no letters added to it.

Варіант 24

1.Охарактеризувати теорії щодо кількості частин мови у сучасній англійській мові.

2.Дати аналіз теоріям “словосполучення” у зарубіжній лінгвістиці.

3.Навести приклади модальних слів і слів категорії стану у сучасній англійській мові.

Варіант 25

1.Визначити самостійні та службові частини мови у сучасній англійській мові.

2.Прокоментувати теорію “словосполучення” , розроблену Л.Блумфільдом.

3. Навести приклади лексичних та граматичних морфів.

Варіант 26

1. Виділити критерії розрізнення самостійних та службових частин мови.
2. Визначити принципи класифікації словосполучень.
3. Вставити пропущені слова:а) These days few men became monks and few women became … b) Mars is the god of war, Diana is the … of hunting. c) A widow can often manage much better on her own than a … d) My brother and sister have never married. He’s still a … and she’s still a …

Варіант 27

1. Дати аналіз дихотомії “ мова – мовлення” та рівнів мови.

2.Охарактеризувати принципи класифікації членів речення.

3. Визначити тип підрядних відношень: David’s room, saw a boy, that Easter week-end’s nation-wide anti-war demonstration, the “take or leave it” tradition.

Варіант 28

1. Визначити одиниці мови та дати їх мовленнєві кореляти.

2.Дати аналіз тема - рематичній організації речення.

3. Конкретизувати тип синтаксичних відношень та перекласти: a love of a child, a devil of a fellow, a jewel of a nature, a doll of a girl.

Варіант 29

1. Охарактеризувати основні риси сучасної англійської як аналітичної мови.

2.Визначити мовні засоби вираження тема – рематичних зв”язків у реченні.

3. Вказати вид присудка: a) He was alarmed by the accident b) The wall has already been whitewashed c) He was being introduced

Варіант 30

1. Довести гетерогенність граматичних категорій.

2.Охарактеризувати кореляції “ граматичний підмет – логічний підмет” та “граматичний присудок – логічний присудок” речення.

3. Визначити синтаксичні функції прикметника: a) She wears her shirt tight b) It’s a bitter-sweet union.

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