

LECTURES IN THE ENGLISH THEORETICAL GRAMMAR

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INTRODUCTION

- The Meanings of Grammar
- The Grammatical Structure of Language.
- Main Types of Grammar.
- Methods of Linguistic Investigation.

The 1st thing meant by “grammar” is “the set of formal patterns in which the words of a language are arranged in order to convey larger meanings.”

The 2nd sense in which the people use the word “grammar” is linguistic etiquette”. The word “grammar” to the ordinary person in English speaking countries has the meaning of “good or bad English”.

The 3-d meaning of grammar is the branch of linguistic science which is concerned with the description, analysis, and formularization of formal language patterns.

So **the 3 meanings** of the term

“grammar” are:

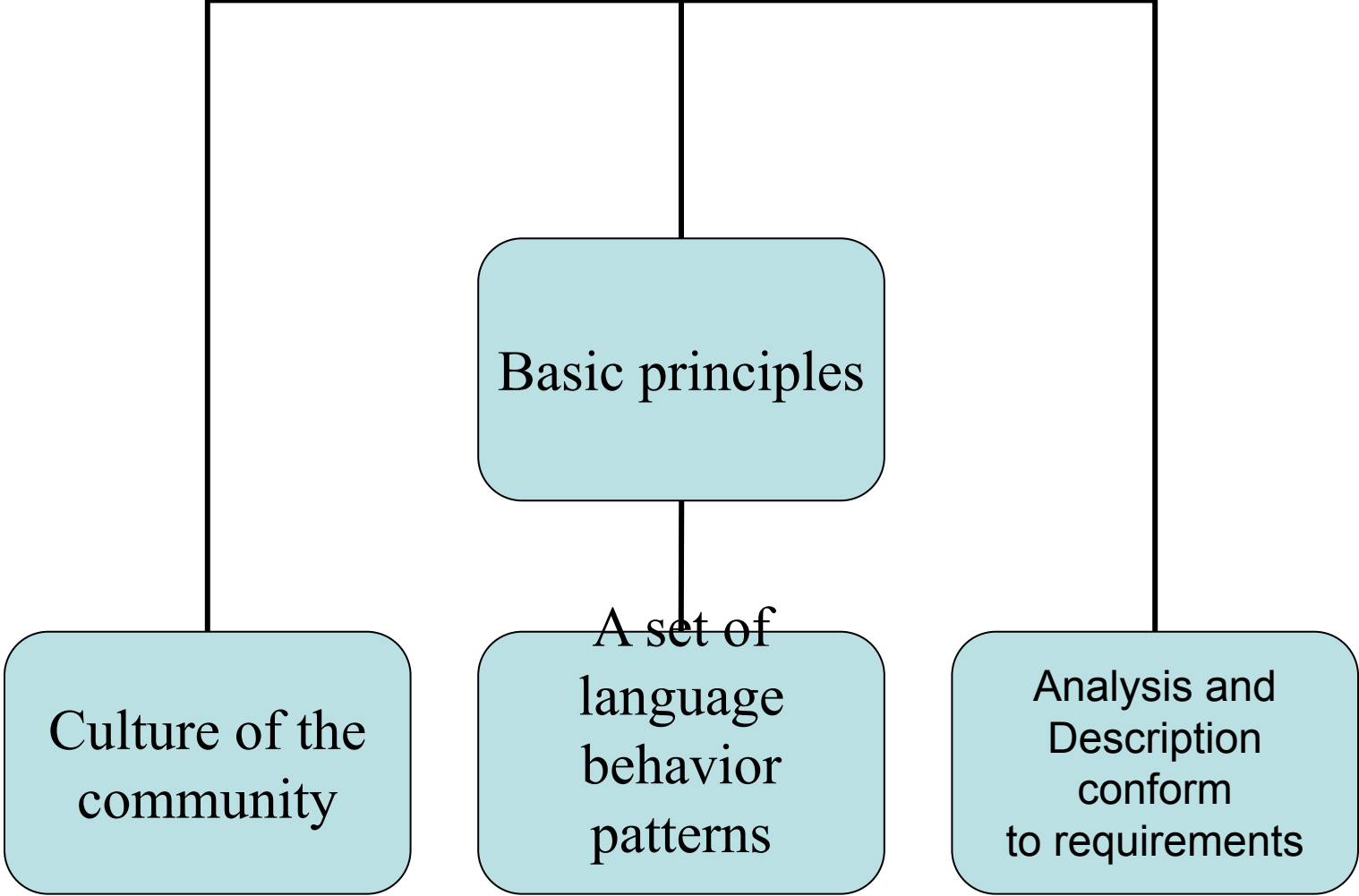
Grammar I – a form of behavior;

Grammar II – a branch of
etiquette;

Grammar III - a field of study, a
science.

Grammar as a branch of linguistic science studies the grammatical *structure* of a language.

The term “*structure*” suggests an inherent *similarity* between all *levels* of linguistic organization. The grammatical structure exists as an objective reality and does not depend on the will of people.



These are :

(1) simplicity,

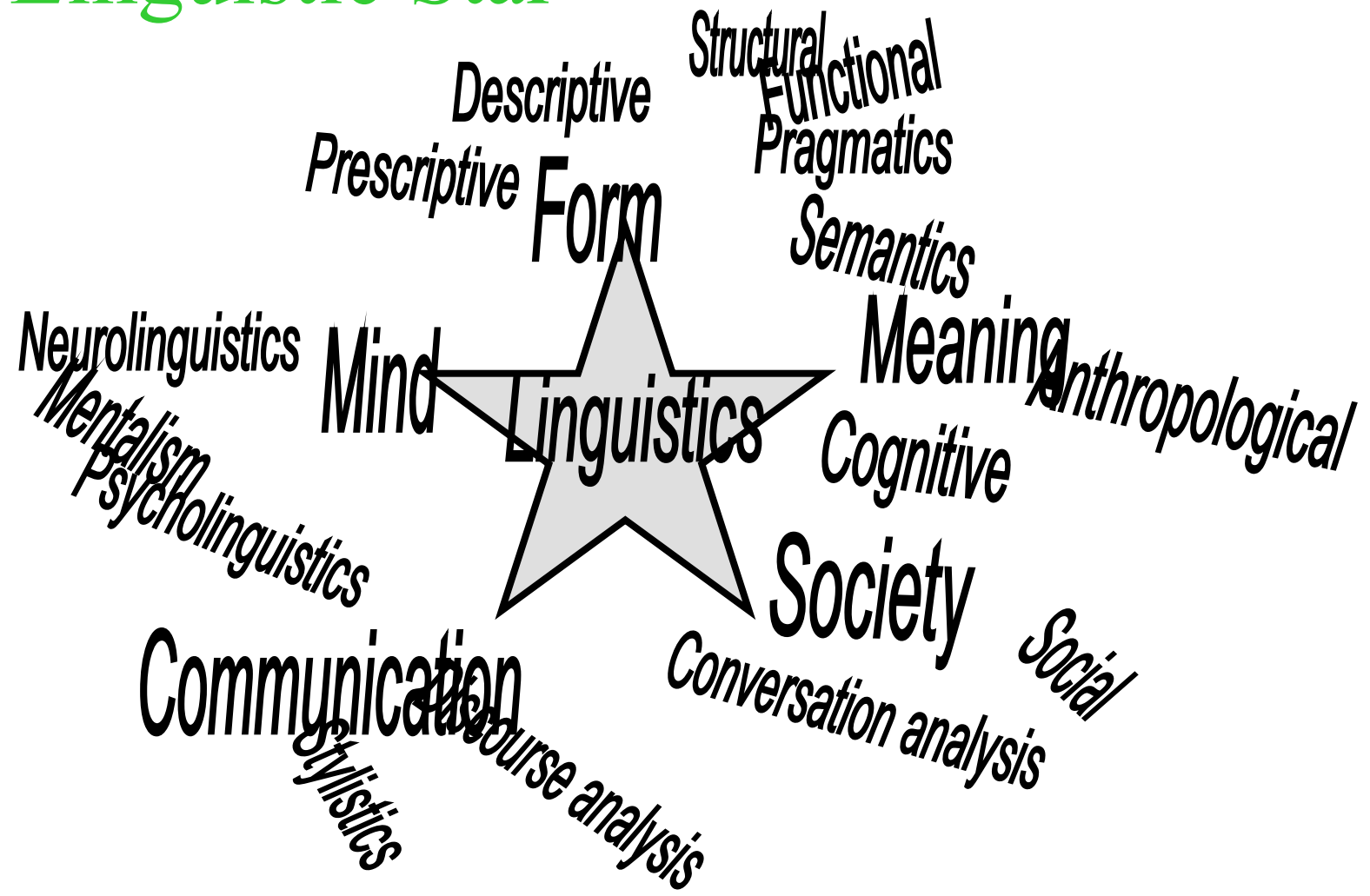
(2) consistency,

(3) completeness, and

(4) usefulness for

predicting the behavior of
phenomena

“Linguistic Star”



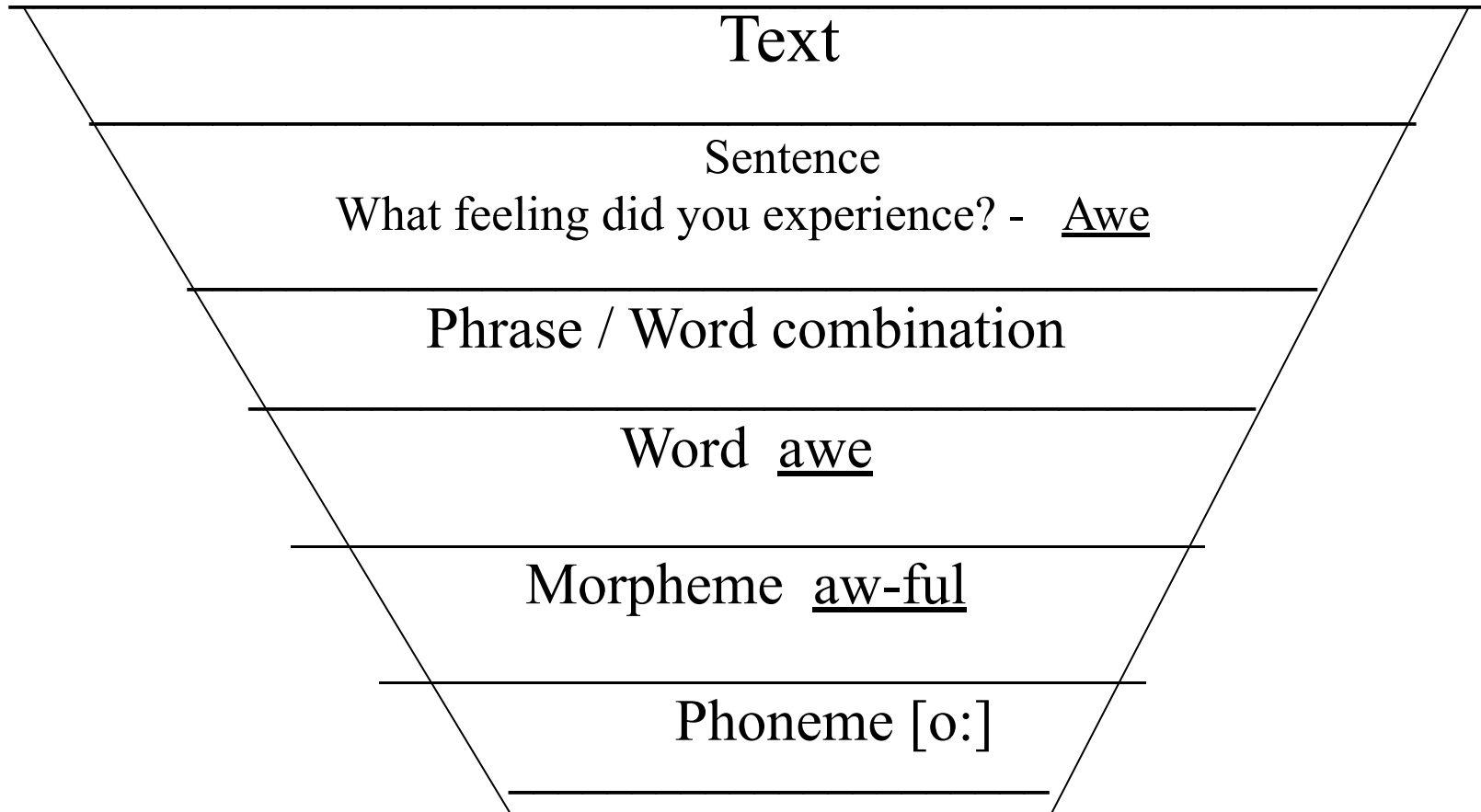
The levels of Language Structure.

LEVELS	UNITS	F.TYPE	P. OF L.	LD
S-PROP.	S-GR.	S → TEXT		TL
PR-IC	S-CE	PRED.	SYNTAX	GR.
PHRAS.	PHRASE	NOMIN.	PH., SYN	GR, LX
LEXEM.	WORD	NOMIN.	MPH., LX	GR, LX
MORPH.	MORPH.	C.OF W.	MORPH.	GR.
PHONE.	PHON.	DIFFER.	PHON.	PHON.

The basic units of language structure are:

- the phoneme,
- the morpheme,
- the word,
- the phrase, and
- the sentence.

The basic units



A grammatical category (GC)

Grammatical categories may be defined as **generalized grammatical meanings**, characteristic of a certain language, that are expressed by **changes in the forms of words and combinations of words in sentences.**

- The notion of GC applies to the plane of content of **morphological paradigmatic units**;
- It refers to **grammatical meaning** as a general notion;
- It does not nominate things but expresses relations, that is why it has to be studied in **terms of oppositions**;
- GCs of a language represent a realization of **universal categories** produced by human thinking in a set of interrelated forms organized in oppositions;
- GCs are not uniform**; they vary in accordance with the part of speech they belong to and the meaning they express;
- The expression of GCs in a language is based upon **close interrelation** between their forms (exponents) and the meaning they convey.

TYPES OF GRAMMAR

- *Prescriptive Grammar*
- *Descriptive grammar*
- *Contrastive grammar*
- *Historical grammar*
- *Comparative grammar*
- *General grammar*
- *Functional grammar*
- *Structural grammar*
- *Transformational generative grammar*

Nonsense

‘Twas brillig, and the slithy toves
Did gyre and gimble in the wabe;
All mymsy were the borogoves,
And the mome raths outgrabe.

(L.Carrall)

Translations

Варкалось. Хливкие шорьки

Пырялись по наве,

И хрюкотали зелюки,

Как мюмзики в мове.

(Н.Демурова)

Сверкалось. Скойкие

сюды

Волчились у развел.

Дрожали в лужасе

грозды,

И крюх засвирепел. (Вл.

Орел)

Methods of Linguistic Investigation: the Reed-Kellog diagrams

The sentence

The Diagram

Horses run.

Horses | run.

He soon arrived.

He | arrived.

The two men left
for the garage.

men | left

The sentence type **subject + verb + object**

Bakers | make bread

- The rancher sold the (horse).

Rancher | sold | horse.

- We saw the (clerk) over the counter.

We | saw | clerk.

A prepositional phrase

He brought the horse to town.

He | brought | horse.

to

town



Subject + Verb + Indirect object + direct object

He gave the dog a bone.

He | gave | bone

dog

He gave a bone to the dog

He | gave | bone

to

dog

Subject + linking verb + N/Adj/Adv

a) The horse **seems** tired.

Horse | seems \ tired.

b) John **is** busy.

John | is \ busy.

c) My father **is** an engineer.

Father | is \ engineer.

d) John **became** an architect.

John | became \ architect.

The next diagram feature is the line
slanted to the right

- They named him president.

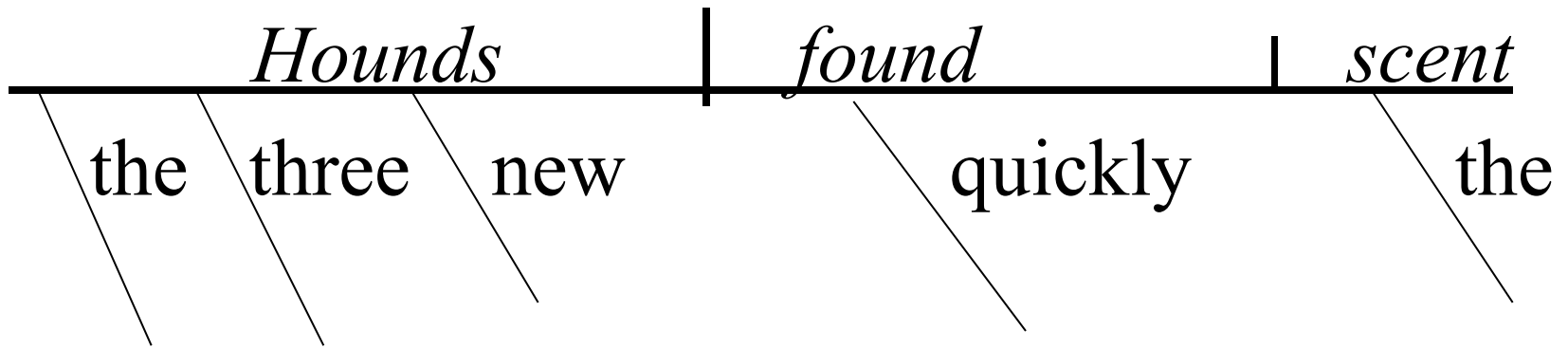
They | named / president | him.

- The teacher considered him
stupid.

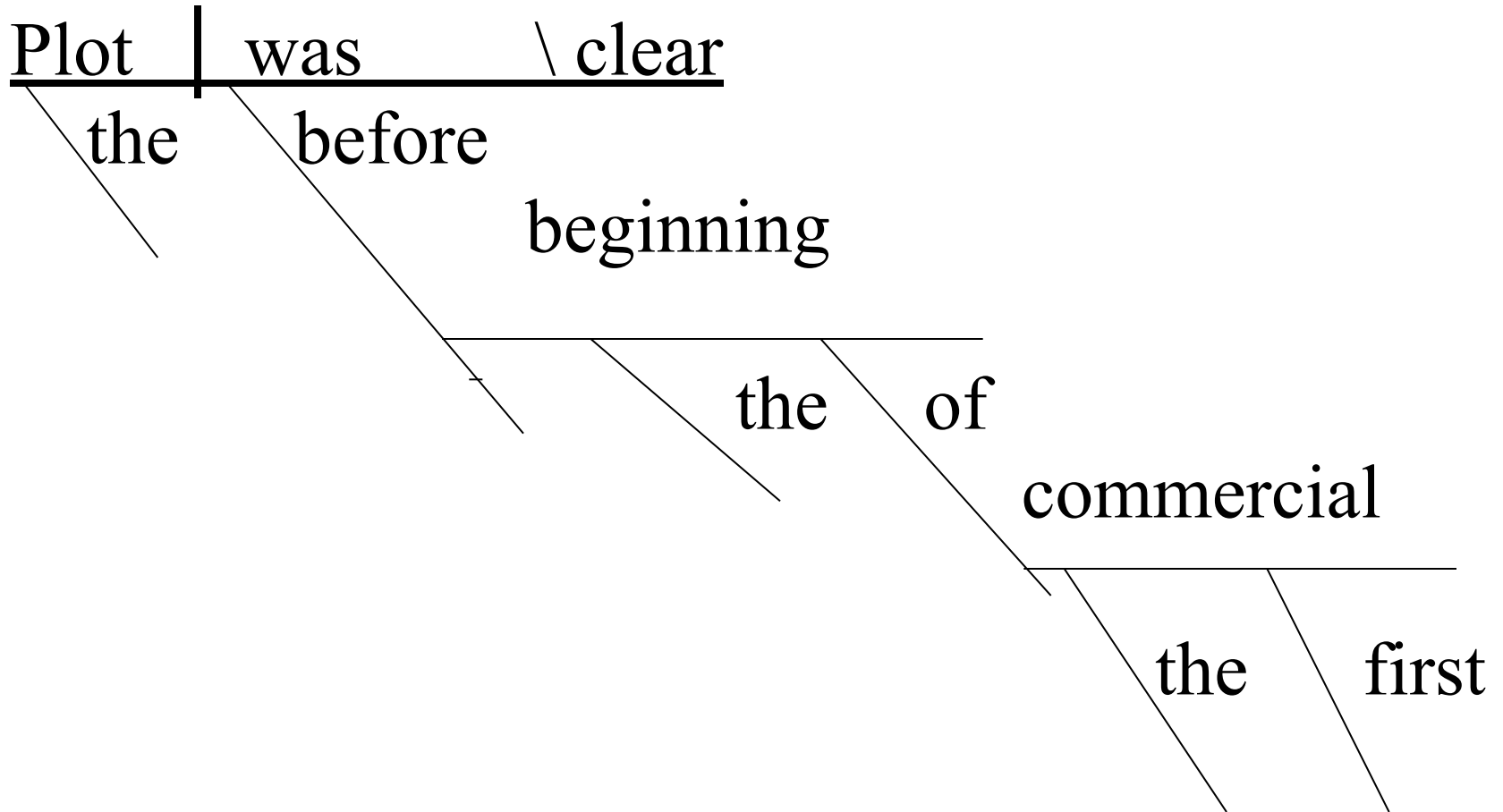
Teacher | considered / stupid | him

Modifiers are slung below the line

The three new hounds quickly found
the scent.

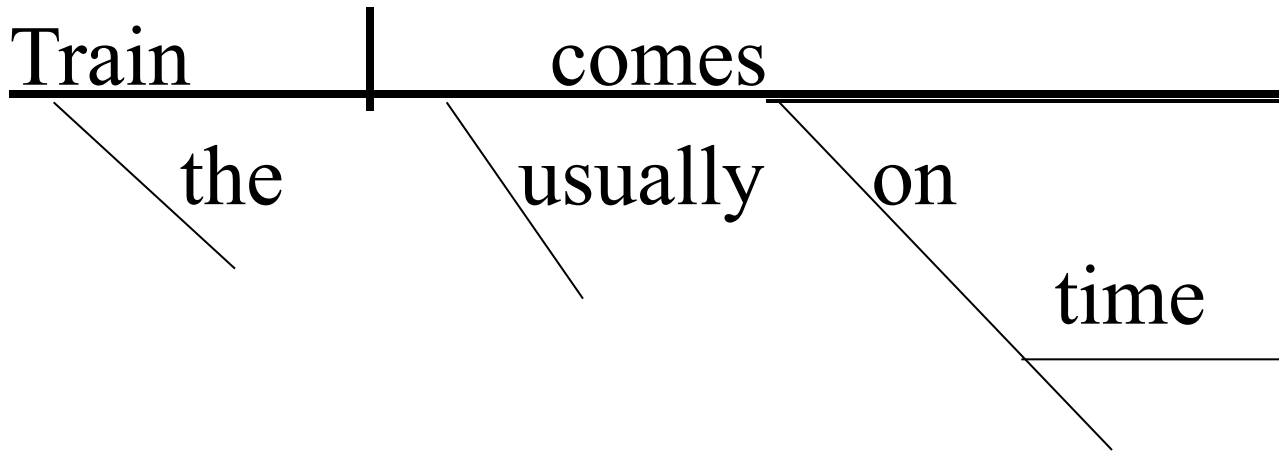


The plot was clear before the beginning of the first commercial



Analysis by Immediate Constituents

Usually the train comes on time.



Usually | the train comes on time.

Modification

Modification

Most of the time | the snow melts
within a day

When she heard that, | she slammed the
door.

Predication

- The man | walked in.
- The old woman in the gray suit
| walked over to the counter

Example

Usually	he	walked
	Predication	
Modification		

A structure of subordination

whenever | he | comes to town

Predication

Subordination

Subordinating conjunctions are: after, although, because, before, until, since, after, when, whenever

Prepositional Phrase

in | the car that John bought

Subordination

to | come out of practice

Subordination

A Noun Phrase 1

The old red car | in the garage

Modification

with the
rusted
cylinders

Modification

Noun Phrase 2

The old red car in the garage | with
the new cement
floor

Modification

Subordination

Modification

Noun Phrase 3

the	old	red		car	in the garage
		Modification			
	Modification				
Modification					
Modification					

Pre-Verbal Modifiers

quickly | ran to the house

modification

Modifiers after the verb

usually

awoke

when he heard her

voice

Modification

Modification

A complement of the verb

John hit the *ball*.

He gave *John* the *ball*

A complement is a word or phrase that completes the meaning of the verb

Complements = modifiers

<u>Gave</u> John	the ball
complementation	
complementation	

Hit

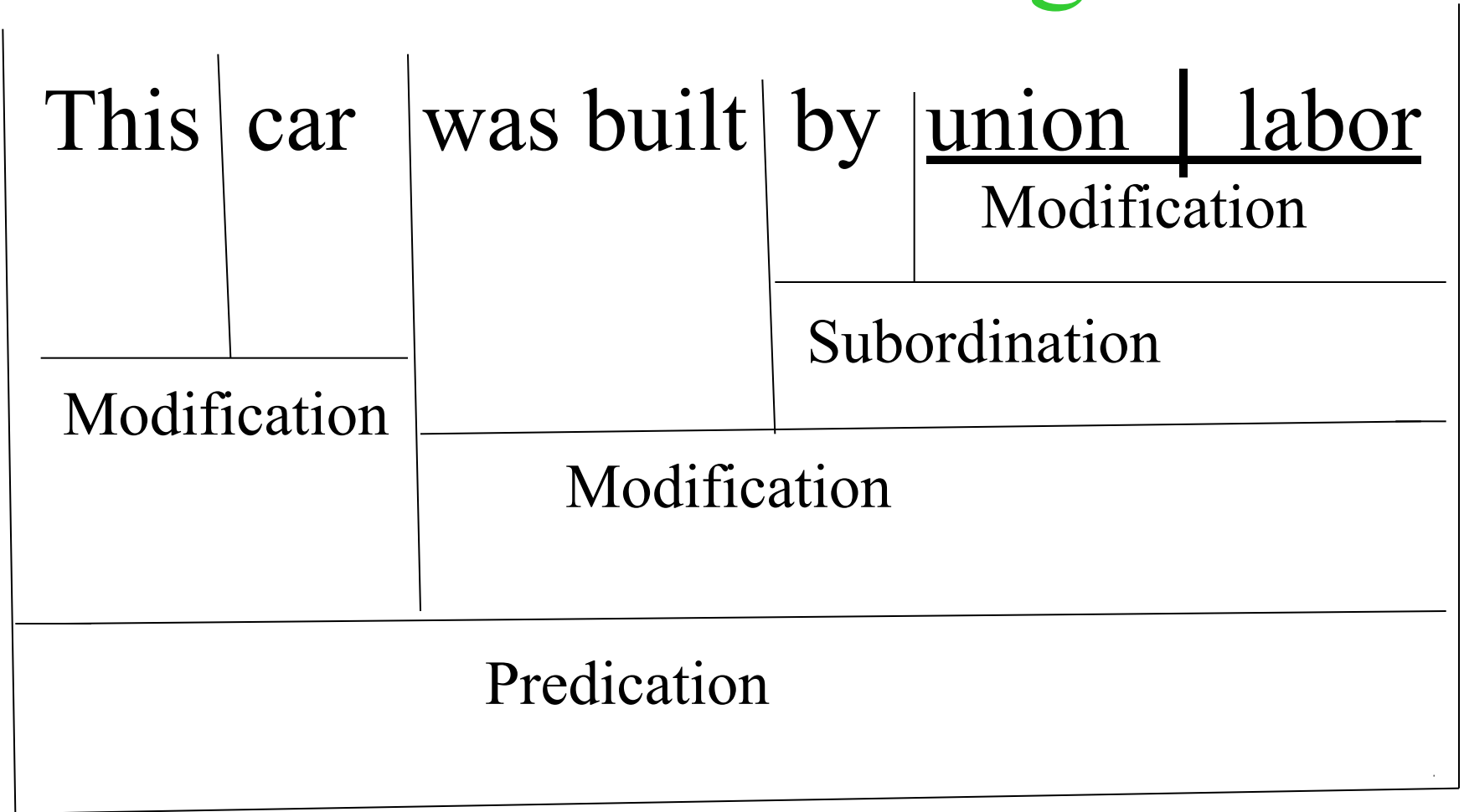
the ball

hard

Complementation

Modification

The Sentence Diagram



The first of the
men left his
jacket in the car

Transformational Generative Grammar (TGG)

Grammar is a set of rules for forming sentences.

(N.Chomsky)

A grammar produces or generates sentences, hence the term generative.

The term ‘**transformation**’ is borrowed from mathematics where it refers to a *process of altering the form of an expression without altering its value.*

The language-generative rules are summarized in symbolic formulas.

Sentence structure

$S \rightarrow NP + VP$

$VP \rightarrow Aux + MV$

$\{ V \}$

$MV \rightarrow \{ be + Pred \}$

Vint.

$V \rightarrow$

Vtr. + NP

Vcomp. + Comp.

The man hit the ball.

1. $S \rightarrow NP + VP$
2. $VP \rightarrow Vt + NP$
3. $NP \rightarrow Art + N$
4. $Vt \rightarrow hit$
5. $Art \rightarrow the$
6. $N \rightarrow man, ball$

Kernel sentences are the basic, elementary sentences of the language, the stuff from which all else is made.

(P.Roberts)

Kernel sentences are simple declarative sentences with the verb in the active voice which form the backbone of the language.

Patterns of kernel sentences

1. N_vV – John came.
2. N_vVPN – John looked at Mary
3. N_vVN – John saw Mary.
4. N is N – John is a teacher
5. N is A – John is angry
6. N is PN – John is in bed
7. N is D – John is out

Transforms

Transforms are all other sentences which are derived from **kernel** sentences by means of **transformations**. Transforms retain their grammatical relations, but have an additional grammatical meaning of their own. For example, the sentence “Is he a student?” in a transform derived from the kernel sentence “He is a student”.

Cases of structural homonymy

“John is easy to please.”

“John is eager to please”

John is eager to please

- John is eager to V

→ John is eager to please

(X)

- John pleases X

John is easy to please.

- It is easy
 - It is easy (for X) to please John.
 - John is easy to please.
- X pleases John

“Flying planes can be dangerous”

- Planes fly. → Flying planes can be dangerous.
- They are dangerous.
- He flies planes. → Flying planes can be dangerous.
- This is dangerous

MORPHOLOGY AND SYNTAX

Morphology is defined as that part of grammar which treats of the parts of speech and their inflexion, that is: the forms of tense, mood, etc. of verbs, the forms of degrees of comparison of adjectives, etc.

Syntax

is usually defined as that part of grammar, which treats of the rules according to which words are connected in the sentence, and also of various types of sentences, their structure and meaning.

Morphemes

- the smallest meaningful elements into which words can be analyzed

Grammatical morphemes are scarce in English due to the prevalence of analytical or zero ending formation.

form-building (*morphological*)

morphemes (e.g.: *-ed* of the Past)

as opposed to

word-building (*lexical*) ones

(e.g.: *-ment* in *government*, *-less* in *jobless*)

I.B.Khlebnikova suggests the theory according to which the morphemes always form part of a **grammeme (word-form)**. A form-building morpheme may be defined as an element of the word which signals the kind of grammatical meaning attached to it by the presence of the morpheme.

The *morpheme* itself has a purely relational grammatical meaning which is revealed only by *contrast* with some other morpheme or grammeme which exposes a contrastive grammatical meaning. A morpheme as a unit of grammar is an exponent of a **grammatical category (or grammatical meaning)**.

The term ‘*grammeme*’ presents an isolated unit, not part of the word. It is a carrier of grammatical information. When we speak of a word as a grammeme, we concentrate on the kind of grammatical information it carries, e.g.: the grammeme *speaks* shows the Present Tense 3d person singular.

PARTS OF SPEECH

- **Greek** grammarians - *3 parts of speech* - names, sayings, and joinings or linkings.
- **Latin** grammarian Varro - *4 parts of speech*: words with cases (nouns), words with tenses (verbs), words with both cases and tenses (participles) and words with neither cases nor tenses (particles).

The earliest English grammars

- Parts of speech:
- *Declinable* - nouns, pronouns, verbs and participles
- *Indeclinable* - adverbs, prepositions, conjunctions and interjections

- **Ben Jonson** - the article as the 9th part of speech.
- **J. Brightland** - 4 parts of speech: names (i.e. nouns), qualities (i.e. adjectives), affirmations (i.e. verbs) and particles

H. Sweet

Three main features

characterizing the parts
of speech, namely
meaning, form and
function,

Two main groups

declinable

- noun-words: noun, noun-pronoun, noun-numeral, infinitive, gerund,
- adjective-words: adjective, adjective-pronoun, adjective-numeral, participles.
- verb: finite verb, verbals (infinitive, gerund, participles)

indeclinable (particles):

- adverb,
- preposition,
- conjunction,
- interjection.

O. Jespersen

5 word-classes:

- (1) Substantives (including proper nouns).
- (2) Adjectives.
- (3) Pronouns (including numerals and pronominal adverbs).
- (4) Verbs (with doubts as to the inclusion of "verbids").
- (5) Particles

“The Three Ranks” Theory

an extremely hot weather

a furiously barking dog

weather, dog - primary

hot, barking - secondary

extremely, furiously - tertiary

J.C. Nesfield's grammar

“Words are classified according to the purpose that they are used for and every such class is called a Part of Speech.”

- (1) A **Noun** is a word used for naming some person or thing.
- (2) A **Pronoun** is a word used instead of a noun or noun-equivalent.
- (3) An **Adjective** is a word used to qualify a noun.
- (4) A **Verb** is a word used for saying something about some person or thing.
- (5) A **Preposition** is a word placed before a noun or noun-equivalent to show in what relation the person or thing denoted by the noun stands to something else.

(6) A **Conjunction** is a word used to join words or phrases together, or one clause to another clause.

(7) An **Adverb** is a word used to qualify any part of speech except a noun or pronouns.

(8) An **Interjection** is a word or "sound" thrown into a sentence to express some feeling of the mind.

Ch. Fries

Parts of speech are "*form-classes*" which are "*functioning patterns*" and they are distinguished by their "structural meaning" He distinguishes 4 form-classes (1, 2, 3, 4) and 15 function words (A....0).

Words of Class I:

Frame A:

The concert was good

food

coffee

Frame B:

The clerk remembered the tax

Husband food

Woman coffee

Frame C:

The team went there.

husband

woman

WORDS OF CLASS II

Class I

Class II

The _____

is / was

good

_____s

are / were

seems / seemed

WORDS OF CLASS 3:

class

class

class

class

3

1

2

3

(The) **good** _____(s) is / was **good**
large **large**

WORDS OF CLASS 4:

class

class

class

class

class

3

1

2

3

4

(The) _____

_____ (s)

is / was

there

here

always

‘Function words’

- **Group A:** *no, your, both, few, Jon’s, one, four, most, that, etc.*
- **Group B:** *get, keep, etc.*
- **Group C:** *not.*
- **Group D :** *very good – quite, awfully, most, rather, etc.*
- **Group E:** *and, but, or, not, nor, rather than*

Group F: the position of *at*.

Group G: *do (does, did)*.

Group H: *there (in there is...)*.

Group I: *when (why, where, how)*.

Group J: *whenever, so, and, but, since, etc.*

Group K: *well, oh, now, why*

Group L: with **yes** and **no**.

Group M: *look, say, listen.*

Group N – *please.*

Group O – *let's (let us).*

The general current definition of parts of speech places them as **lexico-grammatical word-classes** which are characterized by a **general abstract grammatical meaning expressed in certain grammatical markers.**

3 principles

- meaning,
- form,
- function.

Meaning

“the meaning *common to all the words* of the given class and constituting its essence.”

By form

The morphological characteristics of a type of word is meant.

By function

the syntactical
properties of a
type of word are
meant

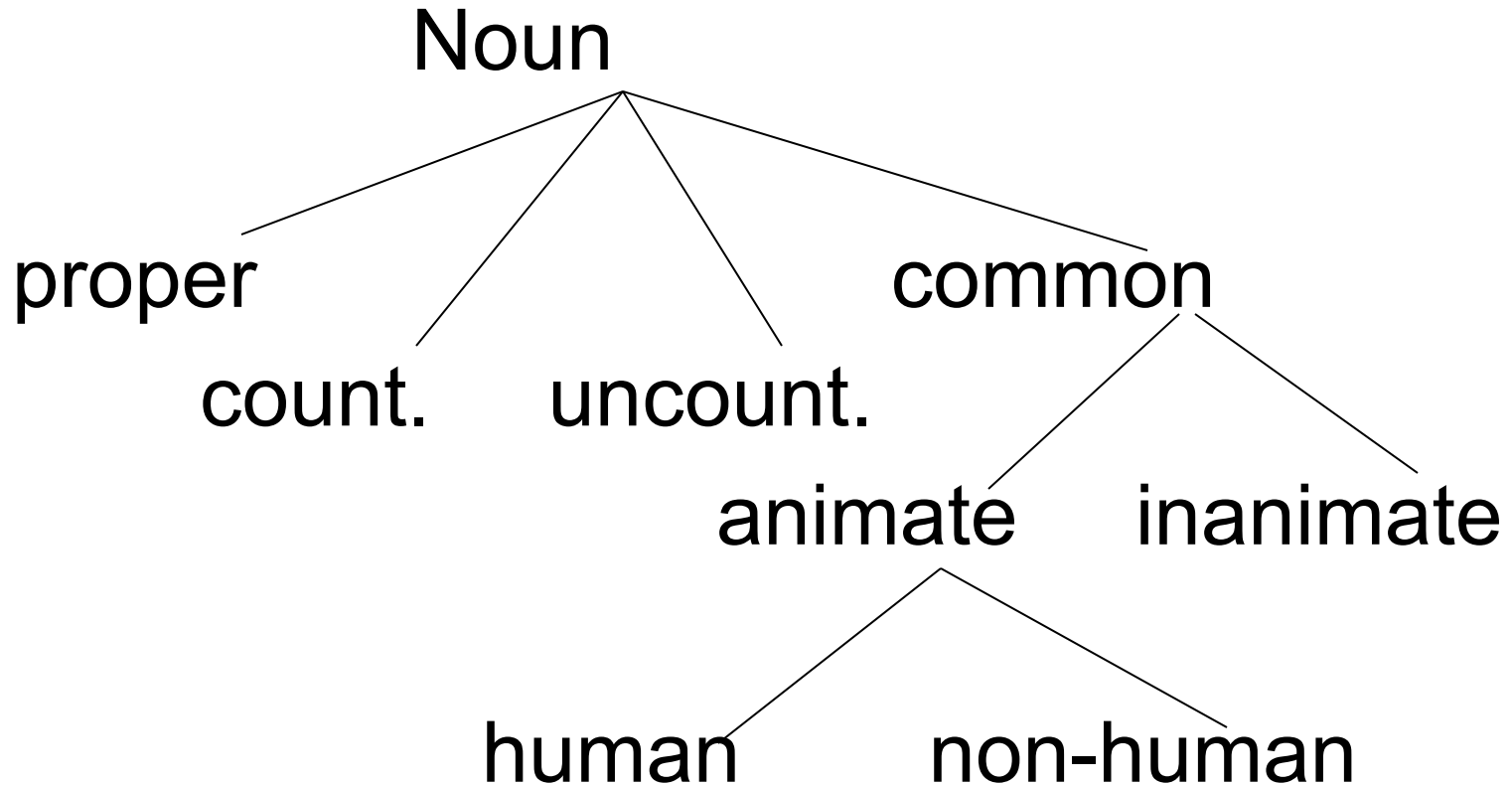
Notional and Functional P.of S.

- Ilyish, B.A.
- Kobrina, N.A., Korneeva E.A.
- Blokh, M.Y.
- Ivanova, I.P., B.B.Burlakova,
and G.G.Pocheptsov

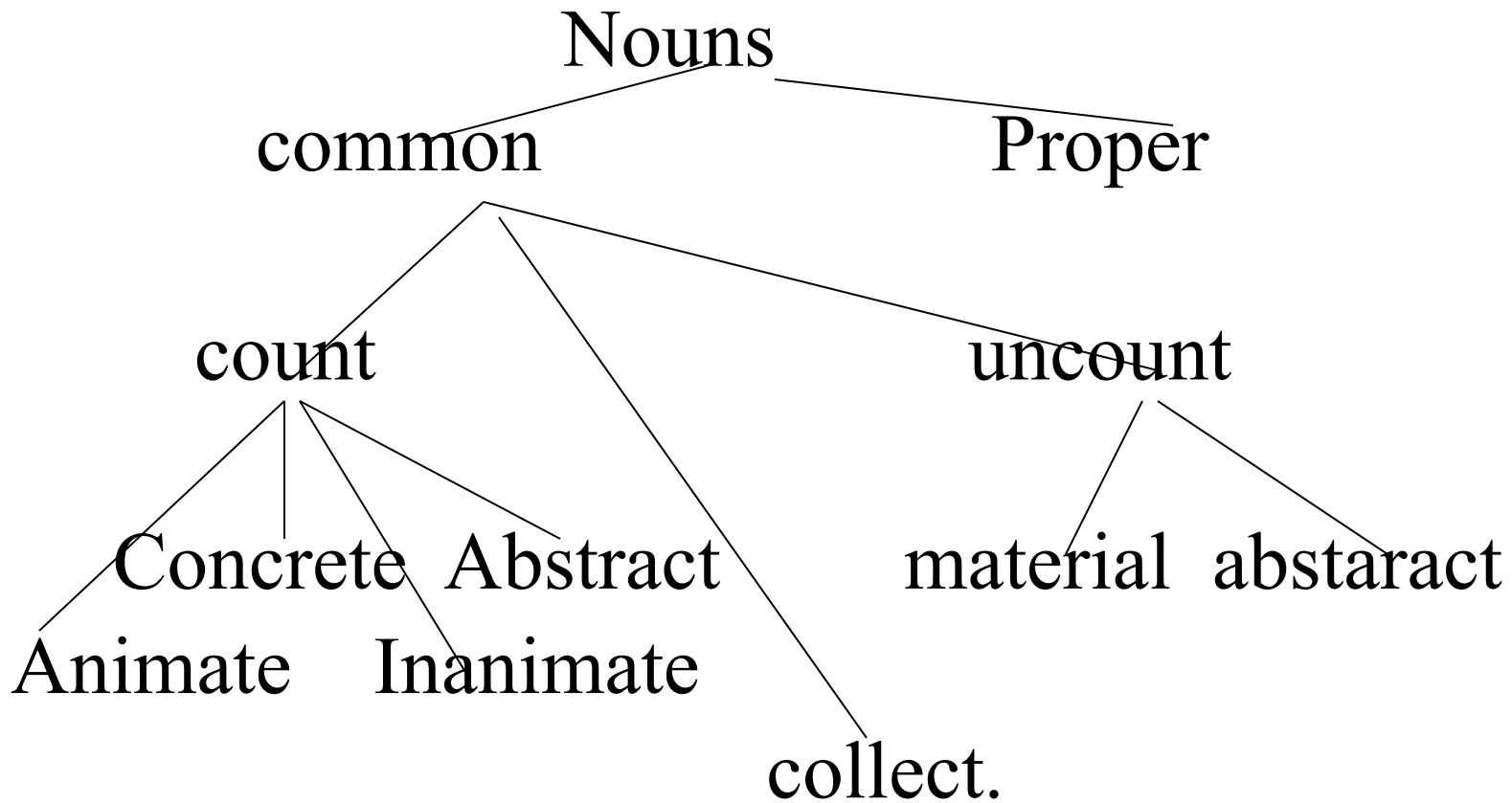
NOUNS

- 1) the categorical **meaning** of substance ("thingness");
- 2) the changeable **forms** of number and case;
- 3) the substantive **functions** in the sentence

M.Y.Blokh: 4 subclasses



Traditional semantic characteristics of all the nouns:



Morphological composition

- Simple: one-root morpheme
- Derived: one-root morph. + der.affixes
- Compound: 2 or more stems

Noun: Number.

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

dog-dog**s**, clock-clock**s**, box-box**es**

Noun: CASE.

Grammatical case is the **relation** in which one noun (or pronoun) stands to some other word in the sentence, or the form of the noun (or pronoun) which shows that relation

(C.E.Eckersley and J.M.Eckerslev').

Old English - 5 cases:

- Nominative,
- Vocative,
- Accusative,
- Genitive and
- Dative

“Theory of the positional cases”.

- The **nominative** case (subject to a verb): Rain falls.
- The **vocative** case (address): Are you coming, my friend?
- The **dative** case (indirect object to a verb): I gave John a penny.
- The **accusative** case (direct object and also object to a preposition): The man rode a fine horse.

“Theory of prepositional cases”

- the "dative case" (to + Noun, for + Noun) and
- the "genitive" case (of + Noun).

These prepositions, according to G. Curme, are "inflexional prepositions", i.e. grammatical elements equivalent to case-forms.

Limited case theory

2 cases in English, one of them featured and the other one unfeatured.

H.Sweet, O.Jespersen, A.I.Smirnitsky, L.S. Barkhudarov and others.

- The **common case** is unmarked, it has no inflexion (zero inflection) and its meaning is very general.
- The **genitive case** is marked by the apostrophe s ('s).

Genitive Case

The main modifications of this meaning are:

1. **The idea of belonging:** John's coat, Mary's car;
2. **Different kinds of relations,** such as:
 - a) *relation of the whole to its parts:* John's leg; the cat's tail;
 - b) *personal or social relations:* John's wife, John's friend;

Besides the genitive case can also denote **subjective relations**:
Chekhov's observation = Chekhov observed;
the doctor's arrivals = the doctor arrived;
authorship: Byron's poem;
distance.

objective relations:

Caesar's murder-

Caesar was murdered;

measure: an hour's

trip; a mile's

Postpositional theory

- 1) The use of -'s is optional (her brother's, of her brother);
- 2) It is used with a limited group of nouns outside which it occurs very seldom.
- 3) ('s) is used both in the singular and in plural (child's, children's) which is not incident to case morphemes; and some other reasons.

Noun: Gender

J.C.Nesfield speaks of 4 genders in English: the **Masculine** (that denotes a male); the **Feminine** gender (one that denotes a female); the **Common** gender (one that denotes either sex); the **Neuter** gender (one that denotes neither sex, that is something without life).

Masculine and Feminine

3 different ways:

- 1) By a change of word: boy - girl; cock-hen; uncle-aunt; lord-lady
- 2) By a change of ending: actor-actress; host-hostess; waiter-waitress.
- Peculiar Changes of Ending:
hero-heroine; wizard-witch;
widower-widow.
- 3) By placing a word before or after:
He-goat; she-goat; land-lord; land-lady

Traditional associations

- a) moon and earth are referred to as **feminine**, sun as **masculine**;
- b) the names of vehicles (car, carriage, coach) – **feminine**;
- c) the names of vessels (ship, boat, steamer, ice-breaker, cruiser, etc.) **-feminine**;
- d) the names of countries, (not a geographical territory) - **feminine**

THE ARTICLE

- 1) Is the article a separate part of speech?
- 2) It is not clear whether the article is a word or a morpheme;
- 3) the number of articles in English;
- 4) the problem of the grammatical meaning of the articles.

The article as a separate part of speech?

- E. Kruisinga
- O. Jespersen, H. Sweet, G. Curme
- H. Poutsma and R. Zandvoort
- A. I. Smirnitsky, I. P. Ivanova, V. V. Burlakova, G. Pocheptsov

Is the article a word or a morpheme?

- 1) A(n) and the are not devoid of lexical meaning as grammatical word-morphemes are.
- 2) Their meanings are not relative. The has the meaning of 'definiteness' not only when opposed to a(n): *snow* - *the snow*; *books* - *the books*.

The number of articles

- **3 articles:** Indefinite, Definite and Zero
- **2 articles:** Definite and Indefinite

The grammatical meaning

3 functions: morphological, syntactical and semantical.

Morphologically it is used to determine a noun.

Its **syntactical** function determining the left boarder of attributive word-combination.

The main **semantic** function of the articles is the expression of the 'theme-rheme' division of the text.

THE VERB.

1. 'A verb is a word for saying something about some person or thing';
2. '...the part of speech by which we are able to say what a person or animal or thing is or does or what is done to that animal, person or thing';
3. '... the part of speech that predicates, assists in predication, asks a question and expresses a command.' (C.E. Eckersley).

Characteristic features

Meaning: the verb as a part of speech denotes process or state;

Form: elaborate system of morphological categories;

Function: the predicate or part of it (link verb).

MORPHOLOGICAL COMPOSITION.

- **simple** - to go
- **derivative** - root morpheme + one or more derivational morphemes (prefixes: **un-**, **re-** and suffixes: **-ify**, **-ize**).
- **compound** - blackmail, undertake
- **phrasal** - to have a smoke, to give up

Regular and Irregular verbs

- *The regular verbs* - suffix -ed added to the stem of the verb to form PIT or Participle II
- *The irregular verbs* are about 250 in number.

Irregular verbs: 8 groups

1. Verbs changing their root vowel:
begin- began – begun
2. Verbs changing their root vowel
in the past form: *fall – fell – fallen*
3. Verbs changing the root vowel to the
same vowel: *bite – bit - bitten*
4. Verbs having the same vowel for the 2-d
and 3-d: *sell – sold - sold*

5. Verbs having the same vowel and some consonant change:

catch – caught – caught;

6. Verbs having the same form for the Inf., the Past Ind., and P II:

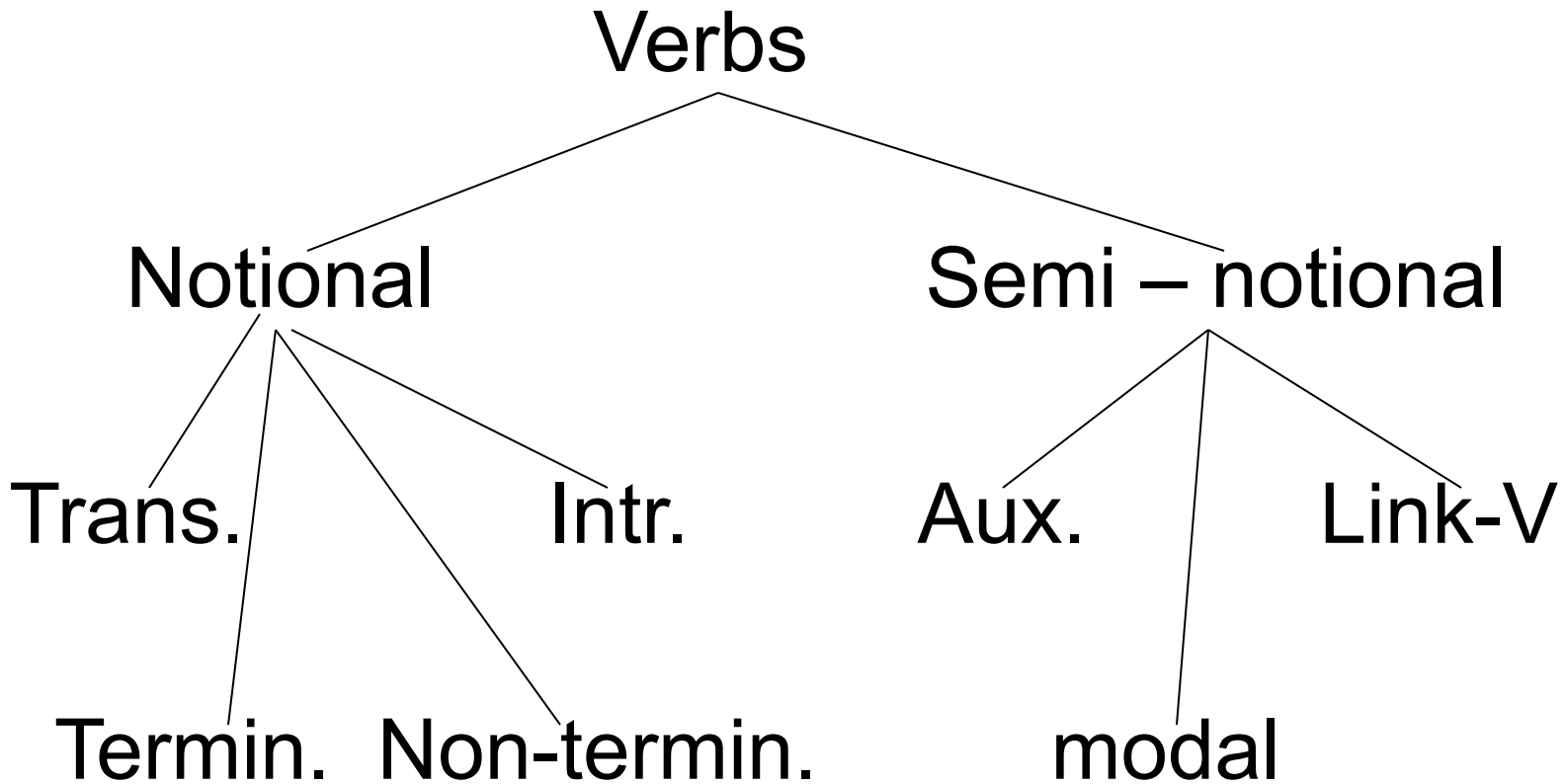
cut – cut – cut

7. Suppletive verbs: *go – went – gone*

8. Verbs of mixed formation:

show – showed – shown

Semantic Classifications



THE CATEGORY OF PERSON

the relation of the action and its doer to the speaker, showing whether the action is performed by the speaker (**the 1-st person**), someone addressed by the speaker (**the 2-nd person**) or someone / something other than the speaker or the person addressed (**the third person**)

THE CATEGORY OF NUMBER

shows whether the
action is performed by
one or more than one
persons or non-persons

THE CATEGORY OF TENSE

a verbal category which reflects the objective category of time and expresses on this background the *relations between the time of the action and the time of the utterance.* (B.Ilyish)

Number of Tenses

- 2 Tenses - R.A. Close, O. Jespersen
- 3 Tenses – Russian linguists
- 4 Tenses – I.B.Khlebnikova
- 6 Tenses - “The New Webster Grammar Guide”

2 TENSES

	<i>PRESENT</i>	<i>PAST</i>
SIMPLE	I play	I played
PROGRESSIVE	I am playing	I was playing
PERFECT	I have played	I had played
PERFECT-PROGRESSIVE	I have been playing	I had been playing

Forms to indicate the future time

- 1. George will leave tomorrow.
- 2. George is going to leave tomorrow.
- 3. George is to leave tomorrow.
- 4. George is leaving tomorrow.
- 5. George leaves tomorrow.

6 Tenses

SIMPLE	PRESENT	PAST	FUTURE
PERFECT	PRESENT	PAST	FUTURE

The **English tense** can be defined as a category expressing the time relations of an action towards the moment of speaking and the moment of utterance in the oppositions of

Present _____ **Future forms**

Past _____ **Future-in-the Past.**

THE CATEGORY OF ASPECT

shows the *way or manner* in which an action is performed, that is whether the action is perfective, imperfective, momentary, iterative, inchoative, durative etc. It is a *system of two-member opposemes* such as works - is working; has worked - has been working etc., showing the character of the action

A Category of Semantics

- 1) the 'terminate' aspect representing an action as a whole;
- 2) the 'ingressive' aspect which points to the beginning of the action;
- 3) the 'effective aspect' showing the conclusion of an action;
- 4) the 'durative' aspect presenting an action as continuous;
- 5) the 'iterative' aspect.

Tense-Aspect Category

Aspect can not be
severed from tense
and is its part.

Aspect – A Separate Category

- the category of aspect is constituted by the *opposition of the continuous aspect and the common aspect*
- the *aspect* of a verb deals with the *development* of the action

THE CATEGORY OF CORRELATON

- a peculiar tense category;
- a peculiar aspect category;
- the "tense-aspect" category;
- a separate category.

A peculiar tense category

H. Sweet, G. Curme, M.

Bryant, J. Aiken,

O. Jespersen, N. F. Irtenyeva,

M. A. Ganshina &

N. M. Vasilevskaya

A peculiar aspect category

M.Deutschbein,

E.A. Sonnenschein,

A.S. West,

G.N. Vorontsova

The "tense-aspect" category

I.P. Ivanova –
temporal + aspective
functions –
indefinite forms

A separate category

B.A. Ilyish,

B.S.Khaimovich &

B.I.Rogovskaya,

J.Trager, H.Smith & W.Francis,

L.S.Barhudarov,

M.Y. Blokh

Tense	Cor. Asp	Non-Perfect	Perfect
Present	Common <i>Continuous</i>	takes <i>Is taking</i>	has taken <i>has been taking</i>
Past	Common <i>Continuous</i>	took <i>was taking</i>	had taken <i>had been taking</i>
Future 1	Common <i>Continuous</i>	will take <i>will be -g</i>	will have taken <i>will have been taking</i>
Future 2	Common <i>Continuous</i>	would take <i>would be taking</i>	would have t-en <i>would have been taking</i>

THE CATEGORY OF MOOD

Mood as a grammatical category of the verb reflects *the relation* of the action denoted by the verb to reality from the speaker's point of view.

Problems

- the coexistence of both synthetic and analytical forms of the verb with the same grammatical meaning of irreality;
- the homonymous verb groups;
- the number of moods

Number of Moods

2 moods – L.S.Barhudarov

3 moods – B.A.Ilyish, V.X.Zhigadlo,
etc.

4 moods – H.Sweet, G.N.Vorontsova

6 moods – A.I.Smirnitsky,
O.S.Akhmanova,etc.

16 moods – M.Deutschbein

THE CATEGORY OF VOICE

the verb denotes the relationship between the action expressed by the verb and the person or non-person denoted by the subject of the sentence.

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.

Subject	Agent	We helped	Active
Subject	Receiver	We were helped	Passive

Be + Participle II

- Passive Voice
- Homonymous group

Number of Voices

- **2 Voices** - the active and the passive voice
- **3 Voices** - the active, the passive, and the reflexive voice
- **5 Voices** - the active, the passive, the reflexive, the reciprocal and the neuter (middle) voice

Joos's concept of voice

- Primary passive
- Secondary passive
- Tertiary passive

THE ADJECTIVE.

denotes a quality or state of a substance.

Typical features:

- 1) the lexico-grammatical meaning of 'attributes (of substances)';
- 2) the morphological category of the degrees of comparison;
- 3) functions of the attribute and a predicative complement

The Category of the Degrees of Comparison

- Positive
- Comparative
- Superlative

OpShACOM

Op	Sh	A	C	O	M	N
opinion	shape	age	color	origin	material	Noun
beautiful	long	new	brown	French	leather	jacket

Syntax.

Syntax is that part of grammar which is concerned with the relationships of words in sentences. N. Chomsky defines syntax as *the study of the principles and processes by which sentences are constructed in particular languages.* The basic units of syntax are **phrases** and **sentences**.

Phrase

- a combination of two or more notional words or a form-word plus a notional word;
- a combination of words which contains at least two notional words
- a notional word and one or more auxiliary words (a preposition, an auxiliary verb).

Otto Jespersen

- a combination of words which together form a sense unit ("puts off");
- elements of different ranks (primaries, secondaries and tertiaries "according to circumstances");
- two main types of combinations — "junction" and "nexus".

*“a **junction** is like
a picture, a **nexus**
is like a drama or
a process”*

Junction

the joining of the two elements
is so close that they may be
considered one composite
name

*junction designates attributive
relations a silly person: a fool*

Nexus

"In a nexus something new is added to the conception contained in the primary".

*nexus designates
predicative relations.*

Two subtypes:

independent - forms a whole sentence
(*the door is red*)

dependent – “does not give a complete piece of information” and is “found in clauses ...and various other combinations” (*I paint the door red*)

Kruisinga

"a syntactic group is a combination of words that forms a distinct part of a sentence"

2 types of syntactic groups

a **close** group - one of the members is syntactically the leading element of the group (*mild weather*)

a **loose** group - each element is comparatively independent of the other member (*men and women*)

Leonard Bloomfield

a **phrase** is "a free form
which consists of two or
more lesser free forms"
(*poor John* or *John ran
away* or *Yes, Sir.*)

Two kinds of phrases:

endocentric - "character-substance construction" - the phrase belongs to the same form-class as one or more of its constituents;

exocentric - "actor-action construction" - the phrase does not share the form-class of any of its constituents.

Endocentric

word combinations in which at least one of the constituents has a function coinciding with the function of the phrase as a whole: *poor John, fresh milk*

Exocentric

phrase appears in a different syntactic position than any of its constituents

"John ran" is neither a nominative expression (like *John*) nor a finite verb expression (like *ran*). *"beside John," "with me," "in the house," "by running away"*

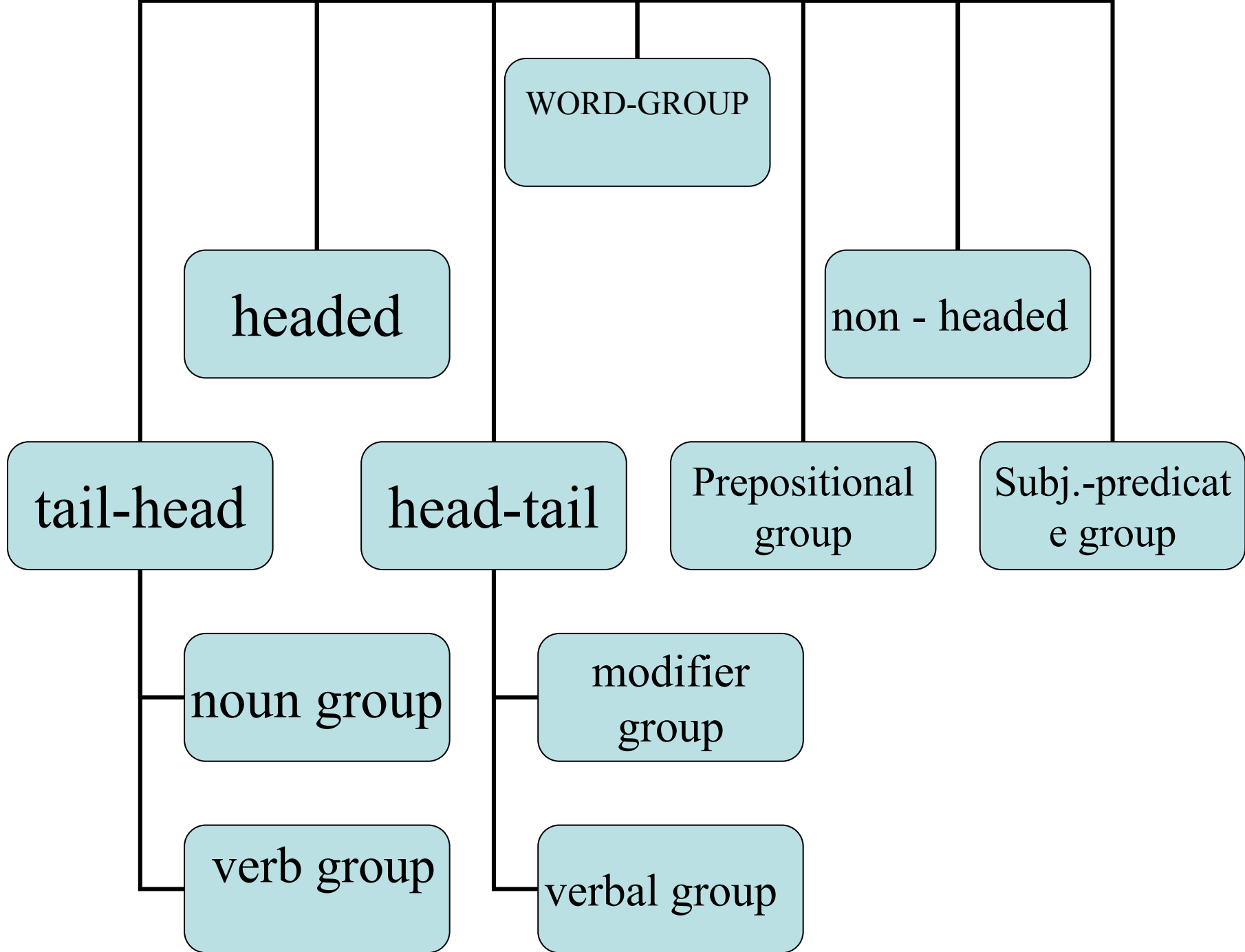
Henry Sweet

rejects **phrase** altogether as a grammatical term.

A **word-group** is defined as a **combination** when words are joined together grammatically and logically without forming a full sentence: (*man of honour, the roundness of the earth, the round earth, going away, his going away*).

Harold Whitehall

classifies phrases ("word-groups" in his terminology) according to their **function** and their **structure**. He distinguishes two main types of word-groups: *headed (endocentric)* and *non-headed (exocentric)*.



The tail-head constructions

two subtypes: (1) those with a **noun head** preceded by one, two or several modifiers:

fresh fruit, nice fruit, the nice fresh fruit, all the very nice fresh fruit,

(2) those with a **verb head** proceeded by one or more specialized modifiers (verbal auxiliaries) with or without any inserted adverbs.

trees can yield good fruit, trees yield good fruit

Non-headed word-group

1 - is always a **prepositional phrase**. For instance, *a book of poems, this book of mine, a basket from Naples, the cloth on the table, she was aware of what he meant* .

2 - a "subject-predicate word-group" is a predicative combination of elements.

I saw or the horses ran

The Sentence

a sentence is a group of words containing a subject and a predicate and expressing a complete thought. (Traditional definition)

The main requirements for a definition

- it must state the relation of the sentence, a unit of language, to thought,
- it must take into account the specific structure of the language in question,
- it must leave room for as many possible varieties of sentence as can be reasonably expected to occur in the given language.

One of the most important features of the sentence that distinguishes it from any combination of words is **predication**, i.e. the relation of an utterance to reality.

- "the doctor's arrival" and "the doctor arrived" - the same lexical units, and their lexical content is the same. Both express something about the same person (the doctor) and the same action (arrival).

An important difference: **the former** does not show whether the action denoted by the verb is something or only desirable, necessary or possible, whether the action refers to the present, past or future; they're shown in the **latter utterance** - the arrival of the doctor is given as a fact that happened in the past. Of two utterances only the second is a sentence as the action, denoted by the predicate verb is related to reality.

Predication is as a rule expressed by the finite

Another most important feature of the sentence which distinguishes it from a phrase is **intonation**. As pointed out by G.G. Egorov. The concepts of 'sentence' and 'intonation' are inseparable. Without 'intonation' a word or a group of words usually apprehended by us as a 'sentence' is only a potential sentence"

Classification of Sentences

- according to the purpose of the utterance, and
- according to structure.

Ch.C. Fries

I. Communicative utterances.

- 1. A. Greetings. B. Calls. C. Questions.
- 2. requests or commands.
- 3. statements.

• II. Noncommunicative utterances.

- Surprise, sudden pain, prolonged pain, disgust, anger, laughter, sorrow, e.g. oh, goodness, damn, my God, etc.

Classification of Sentences according to the Purpose of the Utterance

- *E. Kruisinga*: declarative, interrogative, exclamatory, optative, (May you be successful: God save the Queen!) imperative.
- *G. Curme*: the exclamatory sentence (Oh! Look! Come in!), the declarative sentence, (A day has twenty-four hours), the interrogative sentence (Are you going? You are going?).

Interrogative Sentences

- P.Roberts "An interrogative sentence is customarily defined as a sentence that asks a question. This is to say that a sentence that asks a question is a sentence that asks a question, which is true but not useful"
- There are a number of interrogative sentences that do not express a question at all or are only weakly interrogative: rhetorical interrogative sentences,

D.L.Bolinger

“Q is fundamentally an attitude which might be called 'craving' - it is an utterance that craves a verbal or either semiotic (e.g. a nod) response”

Weakly interrogative sentences

- Rhetorical s-es are used not to elicit information, but as a more striking substitute for a declarative sentence (Was ever such, non-sense written? for Never was such nonsense written.),
- polite formulas with the form of an interrogative sentence (Won't you sit down?),
- conversational formulas (How do you do?),
- interrogative repetitions, which are often employed for emotional and rhetoric purpose, ("Are you ever sorry?-"Sorry?"), ("Why should we be sorry? We're getting everything we ever wanted."),
- sentences with an appended interrogative construction (I guess I've intruded. - Yes, you have, haven't you? Forget I said it, will you? It's nice weather today, isn' it?).

Interrogative sentences **in meaning** are those which ask a question and expect an answer. Interrogative sentences **in form** are distinguished by only formal features of which the following should be considered: intonation, lexical and grammatical features.

Different types of interrogative sentences are characterized by different formal features.: Do you live here? (inversion + the analytic predicate verb), Where do you live? (interrogative word + inversion + the analytic predicate verb), Who lives here? (interrogative word), You live here? (rising intonation). The only **common formal criterion** for distinguishing all types, of interrogative sentences seems to be transformational, vis. the transformation of interrogation (T-Q), which transforms an affirmative sentence into an interrogative one.

The Classification of the IS

distinguishing two semantically different groups of interrogative sentences:

- a) those which require an affirmative or negative answer and
- b) those which ask for more than affirmation or negation.
- The two groups have been given different names: general questions, special questions, disjunctive interrogative sentences, special interrogative sentences, verbal questions, pronominal questions