ТЕОРЕТИЧЕСКАЯ ГРАММАТИКА АНГЛИЙСКОГО ЯЗЫКА

A READING BOOK ON THE THEORY OF ENGLISH GRAMMAR

Могилев 2013

МИНИСТЕРСТВО ОБРАЗОВАНИЯ РЕСПУБЛИКИ БЕЛАРУСЬ

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A READING BOOK ON THE THEORY OF ENGLISH GRAMMAR

Хрестоматия

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Хрестоматия - первая часть учебно-методического комплекса по теоретической грамматике английского языка. В хрестоматии дается развернутое освещение основных теоретических положений английской грамматики с точки зрения выявления обших принципов развития и функционирования языка на материале трудов ведущих отечественных и зарубежных англистов. Пособие охватывает широкий круг вопросов не только программного, но и проблемного характера, поэтому рекомендуется как для аудиторной, так и для самостоятельной работы студентов.

Для студентов факультетов иностранных языков университетов.

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PREFACE

A Reading Book is intended as a textbook for the theoretical course on English grammar forming part of the curriculum at linguistic departments of universities. Its main purpose is to introduce learners to the basic linguistic problems connected with grammatical structures and to the methods applied in dealing with them. It is also aimed at making accessible to the students of English theoretical grammar selections from the most outstanding scholarly works. Among them we mention the founders of English classical scientific grammar Henry Sweet, Charles Fries and Otto Jespersen as well as remarkable scholars non-English by origin B.Ilyish, B.Khaimovich and B.Rogovskaya. Selections from their works represent the divergent views on some of the most important or controversial problems of English morphology and syntax.

The compiler of *A Reading Book* firmly believes that this textbook will enable the learners to acquire a deeper linguistic insight into the structure of the language, to access the impact played by different grammarians in the gradual development of English grammatical theory and cultivate in themselves the ability for independent creative activities of synthesizing language material and shaping their own ideas on this or that issue from a firm scientific standpoint. This is sure to consolidate and extend the learners' existing knowledge of English and provide additional input towards further enhancement of their linguistic competence.

A Reading Book carries original text fragments, the choice of which is determined by the curriculum. There have been included the topics, which belong to the domain of English morphology and syntax: the morphemic structure of the word and means of form-building, principles of classification of the vocabulary and the description of the main notional parts of speech, the structure and functioning of the phrase and sentence. All the chapters are supplied with summing-up questions. and references. There are references and an appendix that contains bibliography on the theory of English grammar.

The students are hopefully expected to fulfil such kinds of work in their seminar hours as analysis of texts from theoretical points of view treated in *A Reading Book,* reports on the same issues and discussion of views held by various authors. And the main hope is still that *A Reading Book* will encourage the students to form their own views on the essential problems of English theoretical grammar, thus promoting their awareness of the English language as a whole.

Chapter 1. INTRODUCTION

B.A. Ilyish, The Structure
of Modern English, p. 6-15.

LANGUAGE AND SPEECH

The distinction between language and speech, which was first introduced by Ferdinand de Saussure in his book on general linguistics, has since become one of the cornerstones of modern linguistics. Though differences of opinion still persist in the exact delineation of the boundaries between the two spheres, its general idea has been accepted by most scholars.

Language, then, is the system, phonological, lexical, and grammatical, which lies at the base of all speaking. It is the source which every speaker and writer has to draw upon if he is to be understood by other speakers of the language.

Speech, on the other hand, is the manifestation of language, or its use by various speakers and writers of the given language. Thus what we have before us, in oral or in written form, as material for analysis, is always a product of speech, namely something either pronounced or written by some individual speaker or writer or, occasionally, a group of speakers or writers. There is no other way for a scholar to get at language than through its manifestations in speech.

As we are here concerned with grammar only, we will not dwell on the problem of a language system in phonology, orthography, and lexicology, but we will concentrate on the system of grammar and of its manifestations in speech, where of course it can never appear isolated from phonology and lexicology.

Thus, in stating that English nouns have a distinction of two numbers, singular and plural, and that there are several ways of expressing the category of plural number in nouns, we are stating facts of language, that is, elements of that system on which a speaker or writer of English has to draw.

Similarly, the statement that in English there are phrases of the pattern "adverb + adjective + noun", is certainly a statement about language, namely, about the syntactical system of English on the phrase level. Thus, in building such concrete phrases as *very fine weather, extremely interesting novel, strikingly inadequate reply,* etc., a speaker draws, as it were, a phrase pattern existing in the language and familiar to the speakers, and he fills the pattern with words, choosing them from the stock of words existing in the language, in accordance with the thought or

feeling, etc., that he wants to express. For instance, the concrete phrase, *strikingly inadequate reply,* is a fact of speech, created by the individual speaker for his own purposes, and founded on a knowledge, (a) of the syntactical pattern in question, and (b) of the words which he arranges according to the pattern.

It may perhaps be said, with some reservations, that the actual sentences pronounced by a speaker, are the result of organizing words drawn from the language's word stock, according to a pattern drawn from its grammatical system.

So it appears that the material which a scholar takes up for investigation is always a fact of speech. Were it not for such facts of speech, whether oral or written, linguistic investigation would not be all possible. It is the scholar's task, then, to analyse the speech facts which are at his disposal, in such a manner as to get through them to the underlying language system, without which they could not have been produced.

SOME GENERAL CONSIDERATIONS ON THE STRUCTURE OF ENGLISH

It is a very common statement that Modern English is an analytical language, as distinct from Modern Russian, which is synthetical. Occasionally this statement is slightly modified, to the effect that English is "mainly analytical" and Russian "mainly synthetical". These statements, on the whole, are true, but they remain somewhat vague until we have made clear two important points, viz. (a) what we mean by "analytical language", and (b) what are the peculiar features distinguishing Modern English from other analytical languages, for instance, Modern French. It would be a gross error to suppose that English and French, being both analytical, are exactly alike in their grammatical structure.

The chief features characterizing an analytical language would seem to be these:

(1) Comparatively few grammatical inflections (viz., case inflections in nouns, adjectives, and pronouns, and personal inflections in verbs).

(2) A sparing use of sound alternations 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.

MORPHOLOGY AND SYNTAX

Though the difference and the boundary between morphology and syntax seem obvious enough as a matter of principle, drawing a clear-cut line between

them in a given language sometimes proves to be a task of some difficulty. Let us consider a few cases of this kind in Modern English.

The usual definition of morphology, which may be accepted as it stands, is this: Morphology is the part of grammar which treats of the forms of words. As for the usual definition of syntax, it may be said to be this: Syntax is the part of grammar which treats of phrases and sentences."

These definitions are based on the assumption that we can clearly distinguish between words and phrases. This, however, is far from being the case. Usually the distinction, indeed, is patent enough. E.g., *indestructibility* is obviously a word, long as it is, whereas *came here,* short as it is, is a phrase and thus falls under the heading of syntax. But now what are we to make of *has been found?* This is evidently a phrase since it consists of three words and thus it would seem to fall under syntax, but it is also a form of the verb *find* and thus it would seem to fall under morphology.

The problem becomes more complicated still if we take into account such formations as *has been often found,* where one word *(often)* comes to stand between two elements of the form of another word *(find).* Such formations will have to be considered both under morphology and under syntax.

There are also other cases of overlapping which will be pointed out in due course. All this bears witness to the fact that in actual research work we do not always find hard-and-fast lines separating phenomena from each other, such lines as would make every single phenomenon or group of phenomena easy to classify. More than once we shall have to deal with more involved groupings which must be treated accordingly. For the present the usual preliminary definition of the borderline between morphology and syntax must suffice.

There is also another way of approach to the problem of distinguishing between morphology and syntax.

Let us take as an example the sentence *Could you take me in to town?* (GALSWORTHY)

The word *take* which is used in this sentence can be considered from two different viewpoints.

On the one hand, we can consider it in its surroundings in the sentence, namely in its connection with the word *you,* which denotes the doer of the action, with the word *me,* which denotes the object of the action, etc. This would be analysing the **syntagmatic** connections of the word *take.*

On the other hand, we can consider *take* as part of a system including also the forms *takes, taking, took, taken;* we can observe that this system is analogous, both in sound alternation and in meanings, to the system *forsake, forsakes, forsaking, forsook, forsaken,* and, in a wider perspective, to the system *write, writes, writing, wrote, written; sing, sings, singing, sang, sung,* etc., and in a wider perspec-

tive still, to the system *live, lives, living, lived; stop, stops, stopping, stopped,* etc. This would be analysing the **paradigmatic** connections of *take,* and this gradually opens up a broad view into the morphological system of the language. It should be emphasized that this view is basically different from any view we might obtain by analysing the syntagmatic connections of the form in the sentence. For instance, the connection between *took* and *wrote* is entirely unsyntagmatic, as a sequence *took wrote* is unthinkable.

It may be said that, in a way, morphology is more abstract than syntax, as it does not study connections between words actually used together in sentences, but connections between forms actually found in different sentences and, as it were, extracted from their natural surroundings.

In another way, however, morphology would appear to be less abstract than syntax, as it studies units of a smaller and, we might say, of a more compact kind, whereas syntax deals with larger units, whose types and varieties are hard to number and exhaust.

The peculiar difficulty inherent in the treatment of analytical verb forms mentioned above, such as *have done, will go,* etc., lies in the fact that they have both a morphological and a syntactical quality. They are morphological facts in so far as they belong to the system of the verb, in question, as the auxiliary verb adds nothing whatever to the lexical meaning expressed in the infinitive or participle making part of the analytical form. But the same forms are facts of syntax in so far as they consist of two or three or sometimes four elements, and occasionally some other word, which does not in any way make part of the analytical form, may come in between them. It is true that in Modern English possibilities of such insertions are not very great, yet they exist and must be taken into account. We will not go into details here and we will only point out that such words as *often, never,* such words as *perhaps, probably,* etc. can and in some cases must come between elements of an analytical verb form: *has always come, will probably say,* etc. Since it is impossible that a word should be placed within another word, we are bound to admit that the formation *has ... come* is something of a syntactical formation. The inevitable conclusion is, then, that *has come* and other formations of this kind are simultaneously analytical verb forms and syntactical unities, and this obviously means that morphology and syntax overlap here. This is perhaps still more emphasized by the possibility of formations in which the auxiliary verb making part of an analytical verb form is co-ordinated with some other verb (usually a modal verb) which does not in any way make part of an analytical form, e.g. *can and will go.* This would apparently be impossible if the formation *will go* had nothing syntactical about it.

According to a modern view, the relation between morphology and syntax is not so simple as had been generally assumed. In this view, we ought to distinguish between two angles of research:

(1) The elements dealt with; from this point we divide grammatical investigation into two fields: morphology and syntax.

(2) The way these elements are studied; from this viewpoint we distinguish between paradigmatic and syntagmatic study. Thus we get four divisions:

1. a) paradigmatic morphology
   b) syntagmatic morphology
2. a) paradigmatic syntax
   b) syntagmatic syntax

According to this view, whenever we talk of parts of speech (substantives, adjectives, etc.), we remain within the sphere of morphology. Thus the statement that an adjective is used to modify a substantive, or that an adverb is used to modify a verb, is a statement of syntagmatic morphology. Syntax should have nothing to do with parts of speech: it should only operate with parts of sentence (subject, predicate, etc.).

Of these four items, the first and the last require no special explanation. Paradigmatic morphology is what we used to call morphology, and syntagmatic syntax is what we used to call syntax. The two other items, however, do require some special comment. Syntagmatic morphology is the study of phrases: "substantive + substantive", "adjective + substantive", "verb + substantive", "verb + adverb", etc.

Paradigmatic syntax, on the other hand, is a part of grammatical theory which did not appear as such in traditional systems. Paradigmatic syntax has to deal with such phenomena as

My friend has come.
My friend has not come.
Has my friend come?
My friend will come.
My friend will not come.
Will my friend come?
My friends have come.
My friends have not come, etc.

All these are considered as variation of one and the same sentence.

It would seem that the term *sentence* is here used in a peculiar sense. As units of communication *My friend has come* and *My friend has not come* are certainly two different sentences, as the information they convey is different. To avoid this ambiguity of the term *sentence,* it would be better to invent another term for "paradigmatic sentence". However, inventing a new term which would be generally acceptable is very difficult. In this book we shall use the term *sentence* in its old communicative sense.

B.S. Khaimovich, B.I. Rogovskaya,
A Course in English Grammar, p. 11-28.

INTRODUCTION TO MORPHOLOGY

§ 6. There exist many definitions of the term *word* and none of them is generally accepted. But in the majority of cases people actually experience no difficulty in separating one word from another in their native tongue.

Linguists point out as most characteristic features of words their **isolatability** (a word may become a sentence: *Boys! Where? Certainly),* **uninterruptibility** (a word is not easily interrupted by a parenthetical expression as a sequence of words may be; comp. *black – that is bluish-black – birds* where *bluish-black* may not be inserted in the middle of the compound *blackbird),* a certain **looseness** in reference to the place in a sequence (cf. the parts of *un-gentle-man-li-ness* versus *away* in *Away he ran. He ran away. Away ran he.),* etc. This is reflected in writing where the graphic form of almost every word is separated by intervals from its neighbours.

Some difficulty is caused by different applications of the term **word.** Linguists often apply it to a whole group like *write, writes, wrote, will write, has written,* etc. All this group is then regarded as one word. But when speaking about every word being separated from its neighbours in speech, we, naturally, mean individual members of such a group, not the group as a whole. The whole group is never used as a unit of speech. Thus we must either distinguish the word as a unit of language and the word as a unit of speech, or we have to choose a unit common to both language and speech and designate it by the term **word.** In this book the latter course is taken. A unit like *write* is a word with regard to both language and speech. The group *write, writes, wrote,* etc. is not a word, but a **lexeme,** a group of words united by some common features, of which we shall speak later on. (See § 19.)

THE STRUCTURE OF WORDS

§ 7. One of the main properties of a word is its double nature. It is material because it can be heard or seen, and it is immaterial or ideal as far as its meaning is concerned. We shall regard the **material** aspects of the word (written and oral) as its **forms,** and its **meanings** as its **content**. When defining the word as "the smallest naming unit" (§ 1), we refer primarily to its content, whereas in pointing out the most characteristic features of words (§ 6) we deal chiefly with the form.

§ 8. The word *books* can be broken up in two parts: *book-* and *-s*. The content of the first part can be rendered by the Russian книг- and the meaning of the second part is 'plurality'. So each of the two parts of the word *books* has both form

and content. Such meaningful parts of a word are called ***morphemes.*** If we break up the word *books* in some other way, e.g. *boo-ks,* the resulting parts will not be morphemes, since they have no meanings.

§ 9. There is an important difference between the morpheme *book-* and the word *book* besides that of a part and the whole. The word *book* contains the meaning of "singular number", which the morpheme does not. The meaning of "singularity" is acquired by the word *book* because there exists the word *books* with the morpheme of "plurality" *-s.* So the absence of *-s* in *book* is interpreted as "singular number". Thus, we may say that the word *book* contains the morpheme *book-* plus a ***zero morpheme*** with the meaning of "singular number".

N o t e. *Zero* refers only to the form of the morpheme. The morpheme *-s* having a positive form may be called a ***positive morpheme.***

§ 10. The morphemes *book-* and -s differ essentially:

a) In their relations to reality and thought. *Book-* is **directly** associated with some object of reality, even if it does not name it as the word *book* does (cf. *book-ish).* The morpheme -s is connected with the world of reality only **indirectly,** through the morpheme it is linked with. In combination with the morpheme *book-* it means "more than one book". Together with the morpheme *pot-* it refers to "more than one pot". But alone it does not remind us of the notion "more than one" in the same way as, for instance, the morpheme *plural-* does.

b) In their relations to the word of which they are part. *Book-* is more **independent** than *-s.* As we have seen, *book-* makes a word with a zero morpheme added, -s cannot make a word with a zero morpheme. It always **depends** on some positive morpheme.

c) In their relations to similar morphemes in other words. The meaning of *-s* is always **relative.** In the word *books* it denotes "plurality", because *books* is opposed to *book* with the zero morpheme of "singularity". In the word *news -s* has no plural meaning because there is no "singular" opposite to *news.* Or, to take another example, the morpheme -s in *wants* shows the meaning of "present tense" in relation to the morpheme *-ed* of *wanted,* but it shows the meaning, of "third person, singular" in relation to the zero morpheme of *want.* Now we cannot say that *book-* has one meaning when contrasted with *table-* and another meaning when contrasted with *chair-.*

The meanings of the morphemes *-s, -ed,* relative, dependent and only indirectly reflecting reality, are grammatical meanings of grammatical morphemes.

Morphemes of the *book-* type and their meanings are called **lexical**.

§ 11. The lexical and grammatical morphemes of a word are linked together so closely that sometimes it seems impossible to separate them. The relation between *foot* and *feet* is similar to the relation between *book* and *books.* But how are we to separate the "plural" morpheme in *feet* from the lexical morpheme? In a general

way, we can say that everything distinguishing the form of *feet* from that of *foot* expresses "plurality". But the answer can be more elaborate. We may regard /f..t/ as a discontinuous form of the lexical morpheme, /-u-/ as the form of the grammatical morpheme of "singularity", and /-i:-/ as that of the morpheme of "plurality". Then /.-u-/ and /-i:-/ are grammatical morphemes inserted into a lexical one, and we deal with **internal inflection**. We may also assume that the 'singular' meaning in *foot* is, as usual, not marked, i.e. we have there a zero morpheme. The word *feet* contains the lexical morpheme *foot-* and the grammatical morpheme of "plurality" whose form is /u > i:/, i.e. the change of the vowel /u/ to the vowel /i:/. Thus "plurality" is expressed by **vowel change**.

§ 12. It is not uncommon in English that the function of a grammatical morpheme is discharged by an apparent word. The lexical meanings of the words *invite, invited* and the combination *shall invite (I invite you. I invited you. I shall invite you.)* are the same. The main difference in content is the "present" meaning in *invite,* the "past" meaning in *invited* and the "future" meaning in *shall invite.* These meanings are grammatical. By comparing the relations of *invite – invited* and *invite – shall invite* we can see that the function of *shall* is similar to that of the grammatical morpheme *-ed.* Thus, *shall* is a kind of contradiction. Formally, it is a word, since it has the looseness (§ 6) of a word *(I shall come. I shall certainly come. Shall I come? I shall.).* As to its content, it is not a word, but a grammatical morpheme:

a) Unlike a word, it has no lexical meaning in *We shall arrive to-morrow.*

b) The meaning of *-(e)d* in *arrived* and that of *shall* in *shall arrive* are homogeneous.

c) The meaning of *shall* is relative like that of grammatical morphemes. *Shall invite* shows the "future" meaning when it is opposed to *invite* with the "present" meaning. But when it is contrasted with *will invite,* it shows the meaning of "first person".

d) The meaning of *shall* is only indirectly connected with reality, through the word it is linked with. It does not denote "futurity" in general, but the futurity of the action denoted by *invite, arrive,* etc.

Since *shall* has the properties of both a word and a grammatical morpheme, we shall call it **a grammatical word-morpheme**.

Let us now compare the two units: *works and will work.* They contain the same lexical morpheme *work-* and different grammatical morphemes *-s* and *will.* The grammatical morpheme *-s* is a **bound** morpheme: it is rigidly connected with the lexical morpheme. The grammatical morpheme *will* is a **free** morpheme or a **word-morpheme**: it is loosely connected with the lexical morpheme. Owing to the difference in the forms of the grammatical morphemes, there is a difference in the forms of the units *works* and *will work. Works* has, the form of one word, *will work* that of a combination of words.

Units like *works,* with bound grammatical morphemes, are called **synthetic** words. They are words both in form and in content.

Units like *will work,* with free grammatical morphemes, or grammatical word-morphemes, are called **analytical** words. They are words in content only. In form they are combinations of words.

Since the difference between synthetic and analytical words is a matter of form, not content, we may speak of **synthetic** and **analytical forms**.

Analytical forms are much more characteristic of English than of Russian. Especially rich in analytical forms is the English verb where they greatly exceed the synthetic forms in number.

Owing to the prevalence of analytical forms, English is usually spoken of as an analytical language, and Russian, Latin, Greek, in which synthetic forms prevail, as synthetic languages.

N o t e. This is but one of the distinctive features of the analytical structure of Modern English. As to the functions of grammatical word-morphemes *in* the structure of the English sentence, see Syntax.

§ 13. Besides lexical and grammatical morphemes there exist some intermediate types.

The first morphemes in the words *de-part, for-give,* and the second morphemes in the words *fly-er, home-less* resemble grammatical morphemes in their dependence on lexical morphemes. But they differ from grammatical morphemes in not being relative. True, one can say that in the pair *merciful – merciless* the morpheme *-less* is correlated with *-ful,* but in *homeless, jobless,* etc. *-less* retains its meaning though it is not contrasted with *-ful.*

Like grammatical morphemes, *de-, for-, -er, -less* are attached only to certain classes of lexical morphemes. The morpheme *-er,* for instance, is usually attached to morphemes *like sing-, read-, speak-* which are associated with the grammatical morphemes *-s, -ing and* the grammatical word-morphemes *shall, will.* But like lexical morphemes they determine the lexical meanings of words. Cf. *part* and *depart, give* and *forgive*. Besides, together with their lexical morphemes, *de-, for-, -er, -less* make units whose co-occurrence with grammatical morphemes is similar to that of simple lexical morphemes. Cf. *home – homes, reader – readers', boy – boy's, reader – reader's; give – gives – giving – shall give, forgive – forgives – forgiving – shall forgive.*

Owing to their double or intermediate nature, we shall call them *lexico-grammatical* morphemes.

§ 14. *De-, for-, -er,. -less* are bound morphemes. English possesses also free lexico-grammatical morphemes, or lexico-grammatical word-morphemes.

Units of the type *stand up, give in, find-out* resemble analytical words in each having the form of a combination of words and the content of a word. But there is

an essential difference between *shall give* and *give in*. *Shall* does not introduce any lexical meaning, while *in* does. *Shall give* differs from *give* grammatically, while *give in* differs form *give* lexically. In this respect *give in* is similar to *forgive. In* resembles *for-* also in being associated with the class of lexical morphemes attaching the same set of grammatical morphemes: *-s, -ing, shall, will,* etc. Cf. *gives in, forgives; giving in, forgiving; will give in, will forgive.*

There is much similarity in origin and function between the second elements of *stand up break out*[1] and the so-called separable prefixes of the corresponding German verbs *aufstehent – stand auf, ausbrechen – brack aus.* All of them are lexico-grammatical morphemes. But in German they are only partly free, whereas in English they are wholly free morphemes, or word-morphemes.

The extensive use of lexico-grammatical word-morphemes is, as L.P. Smith puts it, "one of the most striking idiosyncrasies" of English. It is an inalienable part of its analytical structure.

Units of the *give in* type containing lexico-grammatical word-morphemes will be treated here as composite words.

§ 18. In accordance with their structure the following four types of stems are usually distinguished:

1. **Simple**, containing only the root, as in *day, dogs, write, wanted,* etc.

2. **Derivative,** containing affixes or other stem-building elements, as in *boyhood, rewrite, strength, speech* (cf. speak) *transport,* etc.

3. **Compound,** containing two or more roots, as in *whitewash, pickpocket, appletree, motor-car, brother-in-law,* etc.

N o t e: The stems of *blue-eyed, lion-hearted,* etc. are both compound and derivative and are sometimes called 'compound 'derivatives'.

4. **Composite,** containing free lexico-grammatical word-morphemes or otherwise having the form of a combination of words, as in *give up, two hundred and twenty-five, at last, in spite of, etc.*

THE CLASSIFICATION OF WORDS

§ 19. A morpheme usually, has more than one meaning. This is the case, for instance, with both the lexical and the grammatical morpheme in the word *runs.* The morpheme *run-* has the following meanings: 1) "move with quick steps" *(The boy runs fast);* 2) "flow" *(A tear runs ...);* 3) "become" *(to run dry);* 4) "manage" *(run a business);* 5) "cause to move" *(run a car),* and many others. The meanings of the *-s* morpheme are as follows: 1) "present tense", 2) "indicative mood", 3) "third person", 4) "singular number", 5) "non-continuous aspect", and some others.

All the **lexical** meanings of the word *runs,* inherent in the morpheme *run-,* unite this word with *to run, running, will run, shall run, has run, had run, is running, was running,* etc. into one group called a **lexeme.**

All the **grammatical** meanings of the word *runs,* inherent in the morpheme -s, unite this word with *walks, stands, sleeps, skates, lives and* a great many other words into a group we shall call a **grammeme.**

The words of a lexeme or of a grammeme are united not only by the meanings of the corresponding morpheme, but by its form too. Still the content is of greater importance, the form often differing considerably. The words *runs* and *ran,* for instance, have the same lexical meanings and belong therefore to the same lexeme in spite of the formal difference (but see § 11). Even more significant, is an example like *buy* and *bought.* But most striking are cases like *go* and *went, I* and *me,* etc. Similar examples can illustrate the formal variations of a grammatical morpheme uniting words into a grammeme: *lived, walked, skated, slept, ran, went.*

The number of words in an English lexeme may vary from one *(must; milk; woolen; always)* to several dozens (*writes, wrote, will write, shall write, am writing, are writing, was writing, were writing, have written, has written, had written, is written, was written,* etc.).

N o t e. The lexeme represented by *write* contains 94 words expressed by 64 forms, of these only 10 words have synthetic forms, five in number. Here they are:

1. *write* (infinitive, indicative, subjunctive, imperative)
2. *writes*
3. *wrote* (indicative, subjunctive)
4. *writing* (gerund, participle)
5. *written*

The number of words in a grammeme is usually very great, practically limitless. But occasionally a grammeme may contain one word only. For instance, the grammeme having the meanings of 'indicative mood', 'past tense', 'plural number', 'non-continuous aspect', and 'non-perfect order' contains but one word – *were.*

§ 20. From the previous paragraph it is clear that a word like *runs* containing a lexical and a grammatical morpheme is at the same time a member of a certain lexeme and of a certain grammeme. In a lexeme the lexical morpheme may be regarded as invariable (at least in content) and the grammatical morphemes as variables. In a grammeme, on the contrary, the grammatical morpheme is invariable and the lexical morphemes are variables. This can be seen from the following table.

As we see, each word of a lexeme represents a certain grammeme, and each word of a grammeme represents a certain lexeme. The set of grammemes represented by all the words of a lexeme is its **paradigm**. The set of lexemes represented by all the words of a grammeme is usually so large that it is almost of no practical value and has therefore got no name.

The paradigms of the three lexemes in the table above are identical and characterize the lexemes as belonging to a class called *nouns.* The paradigm of the

lexeme *want, wants, wanted, shall want,* etc. is quite different and stamps it as belonging to another class called *verbs.*

§ 21. There is an essential difference in the way lexical and grammatical meanings exist in the language and occur in speech. Lexical meanings can be found in a bunch only in a dictionary or in the memory of a man, or, scientifically, in the lexical system of a language. In actual speech a lexical morpheme displays only one meaning of the bunch in each case, and that meaning is singled out by the context or the situation of speech (in grammar parlance, **syntagmatically**). As seen already (§ 19), words of the same lexeme convey different meanings in different surroundings. In the sentence *The boy runs fast* the word *runs* has meaning 1. In *A tear runs down her cheek* it has meaning 2. In *runs dry* it conveys meaning 3. In *runs a car* – meaning 57 and so on.

The meanings of a grammatical morpheme always come together in the word. In accordance with their relative nature (§ 10) they can be singled out only relatively in contrast to the meanings of other grammatical morphemes (in grammar parlance, **paradigmatically**). Supposing we want to single out the meaning of 'non-continuous aspect' in the word *runs.* We have then to find another word which has all the meanings of the word *runs* but that of 'non-continuous aspect'. The only word that meets these requirements is the analytical word *is running. Runs* and *is running* belong to the same lexeme, and their lexical meanings are identical. As to the grammatical meanings the two words do not differ in tense ('present'), number ('singular'), person ('third'), mood ('indicative'), etc. They differ only in aspect. The word *runs* has the meaning of 'non-continuous aspect' and *is running* that of 'continuous aspect'. Thus all the difference in the forms of the two contrasted words serves to distinguish only these aspect meanings which are thus singled out from the whole bunch.

§ 22. When opposed, the two words, *runs – is running,* form a peculiar language unit. All their meanings but those of aspect counterbalance one another and do not count. Only the two particular meanings of 'non-continuous' and 'continuous' aspect united by the **general** meaning of 'aspect' are revealed in this **opposition** or **opposeme**, to use an **-eme** word (Cf. phoneme, morpheme, lexeme, grammeme). The general meaning of this opposeme ('aspect') manifests itself in the two particular meanings ('non-continuous aspect' and 'continuous aspect') of the **opposite members** (or **opposites**).

Now we may regard the word *runs* as representing the whole grammeme *runs, walfys, stands, sleeps, skates, lives,* etc. Likewise, the word *is running* represents the grammeme *is running, is walking, is standing, is sleeping, is skating, is living,* etc. When contrasted the two grammemes can also be regarded as an aspect opposeme since they show the particular meanings of 'continuous' and 'non-continuous' aspects united by the general meaning of 'aspect'.

The pairs *ran – was running, shall run – shall be running, to run – to be running,* etc. and the corresponding grammemes are all aspect opposemes with the same general meaning and identical particular meanings. All the aspect opposemes make up a system which is called *the category of aspect.* Each opposeme represents the category as a molecule represents a certain substance, but the extent of the category is shown by the whole system of opposemes.

§ 26. Analytical words are closely connected with synthetic ones.

a) The very existence of analytical words depends on their correlation with synthetic words of the same lexeme This makes all the difference between the analytical word *is written* and the combination *is afraid.* The opposeme *writes – is written* stamps *is written* as a word of the same lexeme to which the synthetic word *writes* belongs. *Is afraid, am afraid, are afraid, was afraid,* etc. have no synthetic opposites. Hence they are not analytical words, but combinations of words.

b) Analytical words comprise synthetic words. Thus, the analytical form *has prepared* consists of two synthetic forms: *has* (cf. *had)* and *prepared* (cf. *prepare).*

Hence it is clear that synthetic words play a very important role in the language.

§ 27. The means employed in English to distinguish the words of a lexeme are similar to those used to distinguish the stems of different lexemes. The chief of them are: **affixation**, **sound interchange** and **suppletivity**.

The words *play* and *plays* are related by affixation: the word *plays* differs from the word *play* in having the affix, more exactly suffix, *-s* added to the stem of the lexeme. The stems *speak-* and *speaker-* are also related by affixation.

The *words foot* and *feet* are related by sound interchange, more exactly by vowel interchange (or internal inflection / see § 11). The stems *full-* and *Jill-* are also related by vowel interchange. The stems *speech-* and *speak-* are related by consonant interchange. Different stems may contain the same root, e. g. *compose, dispose, oppose, propose.* Usually, however, there are different roots in different stems, e.g. *replace, discover, forgive.* But it is unusual for words of the same lexeme to have different roots, e.g. *I – me, go – went.* This unusual phenomenon is called ***suppletivity***.

§ 28. As shown by A. I. Smirnitsky, words derived from different roots may be recognized as suppletive only under the following conditions:

1) When they are identical as to their lexical meaning.

2) When they mutually complement one another, having no parallel opposemes. For example, *better* has no other opposite of the positive degree but *good* and *good* has no opposite of the comparative degree but *better.*

3) When other lexemes of the same class build up a given opposeme without suppletivity, i.e. from one root. Thus, we recognize the words *go – went* as suppletive because they express exactly the same grammatical meanings as the opposemes *come – came, work – worked, finish – finished,* etc.

Of these conditions only the first two seem indispensable. The words *am* and *is,* for example, are suppletive in Modern English in spite of the fact that other verb lexemes do not build up the given opposeme (of person) without suppletivity.

§ 29. The above-mentioned criteria serve to prove the identity of lexical morphemes in spite of their difference in form. The same criteria can be used to prove the identity of any morphemes.

H. Gleason writes: "Two elements can be considered as the same morpheme if (1) they have some common range of meaning, and (2) they are in complementary distribution...".

By means of these criteria it is possible to prove, for instance, the identity of the 'plural' morphemes *-s* (in *cows)* and *-en* (in *oxen):*

They are identical as to their grammatical meaning.

They complement each other or, in other words, their distribution is complementary: they are not used with the same lexical morpheme. The word *ox* has no other 'plural' opposite but *oxen* (not *oxes,* for instance) and the word *cow* has no 'plural' opposite but *cows* (not *cowen).*

§ 30. We have already spoken about lexico-grammatical morphemes and their functions as stem-building elements. Now we are to see their role in building up classes of words.

A lexico-grammatical morpheme like *-er or-ize* resembles a lexical morpheme in being common to all the words of a lexeme. Comp. *teacher, teacher's, teachers, teachers'; realize, realizes, realized, will realize, has realized, is realized,* etc.

But it resembles a grammatical morpheme in being common to many different lexemes. Comp. *teacher, worker, leader, writer, reader, realize, nationalize, individualize, naturalize, industrialize,* etc.

Hence we may draw the following conclusions:

1) The words of a lexeme are united not only by a lexical morpheme functioning as its root, but also by its lexico-grammatical morphemes functioning as its stem-building elements. In short, it is the stem that unites words into a lexeme. To lay stress on the content we may say that *a lexeme is a group of words united by the same lexical and lexico-grammatical meanings.* Though the words *person, personal, personality, personify, personification* have the same lexical morpheme, they belong to different lexemes owing to their lexico-grammatical morphemes.

2) Lexico-grammatical morphemes unite lexemes into groups possessing common lexico-grammatical properties.

§ 31. Let us compare the following columns of words:

teach – teacher	*real – realize*
work – worker	*national – nationalize*
lead – leader	*individual – individualize*
write – writer	*natural – naturalize*
read – reader	*industrial – industrialize*

The words of column 1 and those of column 2 belong to different classes of lexemes. The same is true of the words of the last two columns.

These classes differ not only in their lexico-grammatical meanings (morphemes), but in some grammatical properties as well: different opposemes, paradigms, etc. Such classes of lexemes have been called ***parts of speech*** for over 2000 years. Therefore we dare not change the name. But we must remember that classes of units exist only in the system of a language. In speech we come across combinations of individual representatives of various classes.

Parts of speech are the largest word-classes that may contain endless numbers of word-groups such as lexemes or grammemes.

It is certainly easier to survey a limited number of parts of speech than an ocean of lexemes or grammemes. Therefore it has been a long-standing tradition to study the properties of words within the framework of parts of speech.

SUMMING-UP QUESTIONS

1. What problems does grammar deal with?
2. What is the interrelation of language and speech?
3. What levels are identified in the language system?
4. What functions do the language units perform?
5. What is the correlation of syntagmatic and paradigmatic relations?
6. What grammatical elements constitute a paradigm?
7. What types of morphemes do you know?
8. What is the difference between synthetic and analytical means of form building?
9. What is the grammatical category? How is it revealed?
10. Is there any correlation between the grammatical category and lexical meaning of the word?

Chapter 2. PARTS OF SPEECH

B.S. Khaimovich, B.I. Rogovskaya,
A Course in English Grammar, p. 32-41.

PARTS OF SPEECH

§ 37. Every language contains thousands upon thousands of lexemes. When describing them it is possible either to analyze every lexeme separately or to unite them into classes with more or less common features. Linguists make use of both approaches. A dictionary usually describes individual lexemes, a grammar book mostly deals with classes of lexemes, traditionally called *pats of speech.*

Though grammarians have been studying parts of speech for over two thousand years, the criteria used for classifying lexemes are not yet agreed upon. Hence there is a good deal of substantivity in defining the classes of lexemes and we, consequently, find different classifications. Still parts of speech are not altogether an invention of grammarians: what really lies at the bottom of this division of lexemes is their connection with the world of material reality. The bulk of the class denoting 'substances' is made up of words denoting material objects such as *table, window, milk,* etc.; the kernel of the class of lexemes naming 'process' is constituted by lexemes denoting concrete actions, such as those of *writing, reading, speaking,* etc.

§ 38. The lexemes of a part of speech are first of all united by their content, i.e. by their meaning. Now, this general meaning of a part of speech cannot be grammatical meanings. Cf. *boy's* (singular number, possessive case), *boys* (plural number, common case). Nevertheless, the meaning of a part of speech is closely connected with certain typical grammatical meanings.

The general meaning of a part of speech had the same lexical meaning, they would constitute one lexeme. But the meaning of part of speech is closely connected with the lexical meanings of its constituent lexemes. It is always an abstraction from those meanings.

Thus the general meaning of a part of speech is neither lexical nor grammatical, but it is connected with both, and we call it ***lexico-grammatical***.

§ 39. Lexemes united by the general lexico-grammatical meaning of "substance" are called *nouns.* Those having the general lexico-grammatical meaning of "action" are *verbs*, etc., etc.

The definitions "substance", "action", "quality" are conventional. It is easy to see the notion of "substance" is nouns like *water* or *steel*. But a certain stretch of imagination is necessary to discern the "substance" in nouns like *hatred, silence, (a) swim,* or the "action" in the verbs *belong, resemble, contain* and the like.

§ 40. The general lexico-grammatical meaning is the intrinsic property of a part of speech. Connected with it are some properties that find, so to say, outward expression. Lexico-grammatical morphemes are one of these properties. The stems of noun lexemes often include the morphemes *-er, -ist, -ness, -ship, -merit (worker, Marxist, firmness, friendship, management).* The stems of verb lexemes include the morphemes *-ize, -ıfy, be-, en-, -en (industrialize, electrıfy, becloud, enrich, darken).* Adjective stems often have the suffixes *-ful, -less, -ish,-ous, -ive (careful, fearless, boyish, continuous, evasive).* Thus, the presence of a certain lexico-grammatical morpheme in the stem of a lexeme often stamps it as belonging to a definite part of speech. Many of these morphemes are regularly used to form lexemes of one class from those of another class. For instance, the suffix *-ness* often forms noun stems from adjective stems. Cf. *dark – darkness, sweet – sweetness, thick – thickness, full – fullness,* etc. The absence of the suffix in *dark* as contrasted with *-ness* of *darkness* looks like a zero morpheme characterizing *dark as* an adjective,

§ 41. Other stem-building elements are of comparatively little significance as distinctive feature's of parts of speech. For example, the vowel interchange observed in *full – fill, food – feed, blood – bleed* is not systematic and is also found within a lexeme *(foot – feet*).

Stem structure is of little help too, because there are stems of various kinds within almost every part of speech: *simple (snow, know, tow, down),* derivative *(belief, believe, below, before),* compound *(schoolboy, broadcast, home-made, everything),* composite *(get up, at all, one hundred and twenty, in order to).*

Certainly English nouns have many more compound stems than other parts of speech; and composite stems are most typical of the English verb. But this is a case for statistics. As a classification criterion it is of little use.

§ 42. A part of speech is characterized by its grammatical categories manifested in the opposemes and paradigms of its lexemes. Nouns have the categories of number and case. Verbs possess the categories of tense, voice, mood, etc. Adjectives have the category of the degrees of comparison. That is why the paradigms of lexemes belonging to different parts of speech are different. The paradigm of a verb lexeme is long: *write, writes, wrote, shall write, will write, am writing, is writing, was writing, were writing,* etc. The paradigm of a noun lexeme is much shorter: *sister, sister's, sisters, sisters'.* The paradigm of an adjective lexeme is still shorter: *cold, colder, coldest.* The paradigm of an adverb like *always,* is the shortest as the lexeme consists of one word.

Thus, the paradigm of a lexeme shows to what part of speech the lexeme belongs.

§ 43. It must be borne in mind, however, that not all the lexemes of a part of speech have the same paradigms.

Cf.	1. *student*	*book*	*information*
	2. *students*	*books*	—
	3. *student's*	—	—
	4. *students'*	—	—

The first lexeme has opposemes of two grammatical categories: number and case. The second lexeme has only one opposeme – that of number. It has no case opposemes. In other words, it is outside the category of case. The third lexeme is outside both categories: it has no opposemes at all. We may say that the number opposeme with its opposite grammatical meanings of 'singularity' and 'plurality' is neutralized in nouns like *information, bread, milk,* etc. owing to their lexical meanings which can hardly be associated with the notions of 'oneness' or 'more-than-oneness' (cf. the uncommonness of * *two milks,* * *three informations,* etc.). Sometimes only the form of an opposeme is neutralized in certain surroundings. Cf. *dozen – dozens,* but *one (five) dozen; foot – feet,* but *one (four) foot three (inches).*

We may define neutralization as *the reduction of an opposeme to one of its members* under certain circumstances. This member may be called the ***member of neutralization.*** Usually it is the unmarked member of an opposeme. In number opposemes, for instance, the member of neutralization is mostly the unmarked 'singular'. However, sometimes the marked 'plural' becomes the member of neutralization. as in the case of *trousers, tongs, sweets,* etc. The category of number is by no means an exception as regards the neutralization of its opposemes. We may recognize the neutralization of the case opposemes in nouns like *book, hand, thought,* etc.; of the category of the degrees of comparison in adjectives like *deaf, blind, wooden,* etc.; of the category of aspect in verbs like *to believe, to resemble,* etc.

In all such cases we speak of the neutralization of opposemes actually existing in other lexemes of the same class. Cf. *hand* and *man – man's, blind* and *kind – kinder – kindest, believe* and *read – be reading.*

Note. But there are no grounds to speak of the neutralization of the gender opposeme in the adjective *blind* (cf. *слепой — слепая — слепое)* because no adjective lexemes have gender opposemes in English.

§ 45. Another important feature of a part of speech is its cdmbinability, i. e. the ability to form certain combinations of words. As stated, we distinguish lexical, grammatical and lexico-grammatical combinability.

When speaking of the combinability of parts of speech, lexico-grarnmatical meanings are to be considered first. In this sense *combinability is the power of a lexico-grammatical class of words to form combinations of definite patterns with words of certain classes irrespective of their lexical or grammatical meanings.*

Owing to the lexico-grammatical meanings of nouns ("substance") and prepositions ("relation (of substances)") these two parts of speech often go together in speech. The model *to (from, at) school* characterizes both nouns and prepositions

as distinct from adverbs which do not usually form combinations of the type * *to loudly, * from loudly.* The same is true about articles (a *book, the book* but not *a *below, * the speak),* adjectives *(pleasant silence* but not * *pleasant silently),* etc.

As already mentioned, a characteristic feature of articles is their unilateral right-hand combinability with nouns. Unilateral right-hand connections, but with different classes of words, are also typical of particles *(even John, even yesterday, even beautiful).* Bilateral connections are typical of conjunctions and prepositions. The connections of nouns and verbs in speech are variable, but right-hand connections are more numerous with verbs (*I sent him a letter yesterday),* and left-hand connections are predominant with nouns *(to my dear sister).* The lexico-grammatical combinability of such words as *alas, hurrah* (interjections), or *perhaps, possibly* (modal words) is practically zero or negative in the sense that, as a rule, they do not form combinations with other words.

Thus the combiriability of a word, its connections in speech help to show to what part of speech it belongs.

The impossibility of forming combinations with certain classes of lexemes may serve as valuable negative criteria in the classification of lexemes. Thus the fact that the adjective can form no combinations of the 'preposition + adjective' pattern or a verb cannot attach an arictle help to distinguish them from other parts of speech.

§ 46. Parts of speech are said to be characterized also by their function in the sentence. A noun is mostly used as a subject or an object, a verb usually functions as a predicate, an adjective – as an attribute, etc.

To some extent this is true. There is some connection between parts of speech and parts of the sentence, but it never assumes the nature of obligatory correspondence. The subject of a sentence may be expressed not only by a noun, but also by a pronoun, a numeral, a gerund, an infinitive, etc. On the other hand, a noun can (alone or with some other word) fulfil the function of almost any part of the sentence. Besides, the typical functrons of *student* and *student's* are not the same. Now, prepositions, conjunctions, particles, etc. are usually not recognized as fulfilling the function of any part of the sentence, so with regard to them the meaning of the term 'syntactical function' is quite different.

All this and the desire to avoid, as far as possible, the confusion of the two basic units of grammar, the word and the sentence, must necessarily reduce the role of the sentence criterion in defining parts of speech. This is why we place it last, though some linguists give it the first place.

§ 47. Thus, *a part of speech is a class of lexemes characterized by 1) its lexico-grammatical meaning, 2) its lexico-grammatical morphemes (stem-building elements), 3) its grammatical categories or its paradigms, 4) its combinability, and 5) its functions in a sentence.*

All these features distinguish, for instance, the lexeme represented by the word *teacher* from that represented by the word *teach* and stamp the words of the first lexeme as nouns, those of the other lexeme as verbs.

But very often lexemes or even parts of speech lack some of these features. The noun lexeme *information* lacks feature 3. The adjective lexeme *deaf* lacks both feature 2 and feature 3. So do the adverbs *back, seldom, very,* the prepositions *with, of, at,* etc.

Features 1, 4 and 5 are the most general properties of parts of speech.

§ 48. In accordance with the principles described above it is possible to distinguish the following parts of speech in English:

1. Nouns
2. Adjectives
3. Pronouns
4. Numerals
5. Verbs
6. Adverbs
7. Adlinks (the category of state)
8. Modal words (modals)
9. Prepositions
10. Conjunctions
11. Particles
12. Interjections
13. Articles
14. Response words *(yes, no)*

§ 49. Many linguists point out the difference between such parts of speech as, say, nouns or verbs, on the one hand, and prepositions or conjunctions, on the other.

V.V. Vinogradov thinks that only the noun, the adjective, the pronoun, the numeral, the verb, the adverb and the category of state in the Russian language may be considered parts of speech, as these words "can fulfil the naming function or be indicative equivalents of names". Besides parts of speech V.V. Vinogradov distinguishes 4 particles of speech: 1) particles proper, 2) linking particles, 3) prepositions, 4) conjunctions.

One may infer that particles of speech are denied the naming function, to which we object. There is certainly some difference between the nature of such words as *table* and *after.* One names an object, the other – a relation. But both "can fulfil the naming function". Nouns like *relation, attitude,* verbs like *belong, refer* name relations too, but in a way peculiar to these parts of speech. Prepositions and conjunctions name the relations of the world of reality in their own way.

E. Nida makes no distinction between nouns and prepositions as to their 'naming function' when he writes that "words such as *boy, fish, run, walk, good, bad, against* and *with* are signals for various objects, qualities, processes, states and relationships of natural and cultural phenomena".

H. Sweet distinguishes full words and empty words. Producing the sentence *The earth is round,* he writes: "We call such words as *the* and *is* form-words because they are words in form only".

Our opinion is that both *the* and *is* are words in content as well as in form. The impossibility of substituting *an* for *the* in the sentence above is due to the con-

tent, not the form of *an*. When replacing *is* by another link verb *(seems, looks)* we change the content of the sentence.

Many authors speak of function words. D. Brown, C. Brown, D. Bailey call "auxiliary verbs, prepositions and articles" *function words.* V. Zhigadlo, I. Ivanova, L. lofic name prepositions, conjunctions, particles and articles as *functional* parts of speech distinct from *notional* paints of speech. C.Fries points out 4 classes of words called *parts of speech* and 15 groups of words called *function Words.*

The demarcation line between function words and all other words is not very clear. Now it passes between parts of speech, now it is drawn inside a part of speech. Alongside of prepositions, auxiliary verbs are mentioned. Alongside of functional parts of speech, grammarians speak of the functional use of certain classes of words, for instance, verbs.

The criteria for singling out function words are rather vague. After enumerating some of such criteria C. Fries writes: "the basis for separating the words of these 15 groups from the others and for calling them 'function words' is the fact that in order to respond to certain structural signals one must know these words as items". And again: "There are no formal contrasts by which we can identify the words of these lists. They must be remembered as items".

§ 50. The difference between the function words and the others is not so much a matter of form as of content. The lexical meanings of function words are not so bright, distinct, tangible as those of other words. If most words of a language are notional, function words may be called *semi-notional.*

As suggested by Y.A. Krutikov, this distinction is, to some extent, reflected in the phenomenon of substitution. Notional words usually have substitutes – other words with much more general meanings which are used to replace them in certain environments. E.g. nouns, adjectives, numerals, adverbs can be replaced by pronouns, verbs by the verbal substitute *do (He speaks better than you do).* The lexical meanings of semi-notional words are usually so weak and general that these words can hardly be replaced by substitutes with still more general meanings.

As to form, a semi-notional word may coincide with a notional one. Take, for example, the form *grows* in the two sentences: *He grows roses* and *He grows old.* The first *grows* expresses an action, *What does he do? He grows roses.* In the second case the notion of action is very weak. *He grows old* can make but a facetious answer to *What does he* do? The linking function of *grows* comes to the fore. *Grows* links a word indicating a person *(he)* with a wbrd denoting a property of that person *(old).* In this function it resembles (and is often interchangeable with) a few other verbs with faded lexical meanings and clear linking properties. *(become, turn, get).* The fading of the lexical meaning in *grows* is connected with changes in its combinability. As a linking word it acquires obligatory bilateral connections, whereas *grows* as a notional word has variable combinability. The semi-notional

grows forms connections with adjectives, adlinks, with which the notional *grows* is not combinable. The fading of the lexical meaning affects the isolatability of words (see §6). Semi-notional words rarely or never become sentences.

B.A. Ilyish, The Structure of Modern English, p. 27-28.

PARTS OF SPEECH
(General Survey)

The problem of parts of speech is one that causes great controversies both in general linguistic theory and in the analysis of separate languages. We shall have to examine here briefly a few general questions concerning parts of speech which are of some importance for Modern English.

The term "parts of speech" (as well as the corresponding terms in Russian, German, French, and other languages), though firmly established, is not a very happy one. What is meant by a "part of speech" is a type of word differing from other types in some grammatical point or points. To take the clearest example of all, the verb is a type of word different from all other types in that it alone has the grammatical category of tense. Thus, while it is perfectly reasonable to ask, "What is the past tense of the word *live?"* (the answer of course is *lived*), it would make no sense to ask, "What is the past tense of the word *city?*" or "What is the past tense of the word *big?"* Those words just have not got any past tense, or any tense whatever, for that matter: the notion of tense cannot be applied to them. Tense is one of the distinctive features characterizing the verb as against every other type of word. However, the question is much less simple with reference to some other types of words, and a general definition of the principles on which the classification of parts of speech is based becomes absolutely necessary.

We cannot here go into the controversy over these principles that has lasted a considerable time now, and we will limit ourselves to stating the principles of our classification and pointing out some difficulties inherent in it.

The principles on which the classification is based are three in number, viz. (1) meaning, (2) form, (3) function. Each of these requires some additional explanations.

(1) By **meaning** we do not mean the individual meaning of each separate word (its lexical meaning) but the meaning common to all the words of the given class and constituting its essence. Thus, the meaning of the substantive (noun) is "thingness". This applies equally to all and every noun and constitutes the structural meaning of the noun as a type of word. Similarly, the meaning of the verb as a type of word is that of "process", whatever the individual meaning of a separate verb may happen to be. We shall have to dwell on this later in considering every part of speech in detail.

(2) By **form** we mean the morphological characteristics of a type of word. Thus, the noun is characterized by the category of number (singular and plural), the verb by tense, mood, etc. Several types of words (prepositions, conjunctions, and others) are characterized by invariability.

(3) By **function** we mean the syntactical properties of a type of word. These are subdivided into two, viz. (a) its method of combining with other words, (b) its function in the sentence; (a) has to deal with phrases, (b) with sentence structure. Taking, as we did previously, the verb as a specimen, we can state that, for example, a verb combines with a following noun *(write letters)* and also with a following adverb *(write quickly).* As to (b), i.e. the syntactical function of a verb in a sentence, it is that of a predicate.

Two additional remarks are necessary before we proceed to the analysis of parts of speech in detail.

In the first place, there is the question about the mutual relation of the criteria. We cannot be sure in advance that all three criteria will always point the same way. Then, again, in some cases, one of them may fail (this especially applies to the criterion of form). Under such circumstances, it may prove necessary to choose between them, i.e. to attach to one of them greater value than to another. We may say, provisionally, that we shall treat them in the order in which they have been enumerated, viz. meaning shall come first, form next, and function last.

It will also be seen that the theory of parts of speech, though considered by most scholars to be a part of morphology, cannot do without touching on some syntactical problems, namely on phrases and on syntactical functions of words (point 3 in our list of criteria). We shall regard the theory of parts of speech as essentially a part of morphology, involving, however, some syntactical points.

B.A. Ilyish, The Structure
of Modern English, p. 34-35.

THE PROBLEM OF NOTIONAL AND FORMAL WORDS

In giving a list of parts of speech, we have not so far mentioned the terms "notional" and "formal". It is time now to turn to this question. According to the view held by some grammarians, words should be divided into two categories on the following principle: some words denote things, actions, and other extralinguistic phenomena (these, then, would be notional words), whereas other words denote relations and connections between the notional words, and thus have no direct bearing on anything extralinguistic (these, then, would be the formal words, or form words). Authors holding this view define prepositions as words denoting rela-

tions between words (or between parts of a sentence), and conjunctions as words connecting words or sentences.

However, this view appears to be very shaky. Actually, the so-called formal words also express something extralinguistic. For instance, prepositions express relations between things. Cf., e.g., *The letter is on the table* and *The letter is in the table:* two different relations between the two objects, the letter and the table, are denoted by the prepositions. In a similar way, conjunctions denote connections between extralinguistic things and phenomena. Thus, in the sentence *The match was postponed because it was raining* the conjunction *because* denotes the causal connection between two processes, which of course exists whether we choose to express it by words or not. In the sentence *It was raining but the match took place all the same* the conjunction *but* expresses a contradiction between two phenomena, the rain and the match, which exists in reality whether we mention it or not. It follows that the prepositions *on* and *in,* the conjunctions *because* and *but* express some relations and connections existing independently of language, and thus have as close a connection with the extralinguistic world as any noun or verb. They are, in so far, no less notional than nouns or verbs.

Now, the term "formal word" would seem to imply that the word thus denoted has some function in building up a phrase or a sentence. This function is certainly performed by both prepositions and conjunctions and from this point of view prepositions and conjunctions should indeed be singled out.

But this definition of a formal word cannot be applied to particles. A particle does not do anything in the way of connecting words or building a phrase or a sentence.

There does not therefore seem to be any reason for classing particles with formal words. If this view is endorsed we shall only have two parts of speech which are form words, viz. prepositions and conjunctions.

It should also be observed that some words belonging to a particular part of speech may occasionally, or even permanently, perform a function differing from that which characterizes the part of speech as a whole. Auxiliary verbs are a case in point. In the sentence *I have some money left* the verb *have* performs the function of the predicate which is the usual function of a verb in a sentence. In this case, then, the function of the verb *have* is precisely the one typical of verbs as a class. However, in the sentence *I have found my briefcase* the verb *have* is an auxiliary: it is a means of forming a certain analytical form of the verb *find.* It does not by itself perform the function of a predicate. We need not assume on that account that there are two verbs *have,* one notional and the other auxiliary. It is the same verb *have,* but its functions in the two sentences are different. If we take the verb *shall,* we see that its usual function is that of forming the future tense of another verb, e.g. *I shall know about it tomorrow. Shall* is then said to be an auxiliary verb, and its function differs from that of the verb as a part of speech, but it is a verb all the same.

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

PARTS OF SPEECH

95. 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 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.

96. 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 (*I 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).*

97. 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.

98. 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 easily see that there is a natural connection between the functions and meanings of these parts of speech. [...]

99. 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.

100. 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.

101. 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 *I, 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 *I will go, I wish to go,* and **gerunds,** such as *going* in *I think of going.* Adjective-verbals comprise various **participles,** such as *melting* and *melted* in *melting snow, the snow is melted.*

102. 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 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.

103. 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 *I 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.

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

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.

The distinction between the two classes which for convenience we distinguish as declinable and indeclinable parts of speech is not entirety dependent on the presence or absence of inflection, but really goes deeper, corresponding, to some ex-

tent, 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.

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

PARTS OF SPEECH

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 established 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 *I must (go), must we* (go)? as parallel to that of *I 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.:

Substantives (including proper names).

Adjectives.

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

Pronouns (including numerals and pronominal adverbs).

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

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.

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

PARTS OF SPEECH

[...] 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 1 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/were*	good
	seems/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	-----	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.

SUMMING-UP QUESTIONS

1. What are the general principles of classification of words into parts of speech?
2. What are the strong and weak points of the traditional classification of words?
3. What parts of speech does the English vocabulary consist of?
4. What parts of speech are distinguished by H.Sweet and O. Jespersen?
5. What is the principle of the syntactico-distributional classification of words?
6. Why does Ch.Fries criticize the traditional classification?
7. In what way is each part of speech marked off from other parts of speech according to Ch. Fries?
8. What is the difference between notional and functional parts of speech?
9. What are the notional parts of speech represented by?
10. Which classes of words are usually referred to as functional parts of speech?

Chapter 3. THE NOUN

B.S. Khaimovich, B.I. Rogovskaya,
A Course in English Grammar, p. 51-65.

THE NOUN

§ 64. As follows from our previous discussion of the parts of speech in English, the noun may be defined as a part of speech characterized by the following features:

The lexico-grammatical meaning of "substance".

The categories of number and case.

Typical stem-building morphemes, as in: *Marx-ist, work-er, friend-ship, manage-ment,* etc.

Left-hand connections with articles, prepositions, adjectives, possessive pronouns, other nouns, etc.

The functions of subject, complement and other parts of the sentence.

§ 65. As already mentioned stem-structure is not a reliable criterion for distinguishing parts of speech. Noun lexemes, like those of other parts of speech, have stems of various types. Still, composite stems are less typical of nouns than of other parts of speech, especially verbs. Cf. *look on, look out, look in* and *looker-on, (to be on the) look-out, (to have a) look-in,* or *onlooker, outlook,* etc. We regard as composite the stems of proper nouns like *the Hague, the Urals, the Volga,* where *the* is part of the name. Compound stems, on the contrary, are more typical of nouns than of any other part of speech *(greyhound, postmark, pickpocket, son-in-law, passer-by,* etc.).

§ 66. Many nouns are related by conversion with lexemes belonging to other parts of speech:

adjectives, e.g. *light, native, Russian*
verbs, e.g. *love, show, picture*
adverbs, e.g. *home, south, back.*

§ 67. The noun is the most numerous lexico-grammatical class of lexemes. It is but natural that it should be divided into subclasses. From the grammatical point of view most important is the division of nouns into **countables** and **uncountables** with regard to the category of number and into **declinables** and **indeclinables** with regard to the category of case.

All other classifications are semantical rather than grammatical. For instance, when dividing nouns into **abstract** and **concrete** ones, we usually take into consideration not the properties of words but the properties of the things they denote. The abstract noun *smile* does not differ from the concrete noun *book* in its paradigm *(smile –*

smiles, book – books) or its lexico-grammatical combinability *(He gave me one of hi's best b o o k s (s m i l e s).* See, for instance, the 'plural' suffix used with abstract nouns in *It is the customary fate of new t r u t h s to begin as h e r e s i e s and to end as s u p e r s t i t i o n s.* (Huxley). Certainly, many abstract nouns *(pride, darkness,* etc.) are uncountables, but so are many concrete nouns *(wool, peasantry,* etc.).

The group of **collective** nouns mentioned in many grammars is grammatically not homogeneous. Some collective nouns are countables *(government, family,* etc.), while others are not *(foliage, peasantry,* etc.).

The term ***class nouns*** *is* mostly synonymous with the term ***countables***.

Material nouns are a peculiar group of uncountables.

Proper nouns are another, even more peculiar, group of uncountables (though sometimes they form number oppose-mes. Cf. *Brown – (the) Browns, a week of Sundays).*

§ 68. The combinability of the noun is closely connected with its lexico-grammatical meaning. Denoting substances, nouns are naturally associated with words describing the qualities of substances (adjectives), their number and order (numerals), their actions (verbs), relations (prepositions), etc.

The combinability of nouns is variable. They have left-hand connections with articles *(a day, the ink),* some pronouns *(my friend, that colour),* most adjectives *(good relations, young Jolyon,* but *from time immemorial),* numerals *(two visitors, the third degree,* but also *page ten).* With prepositions nouns have both left-hand and right-hand connections *(to Moscow, at the thought of ...),* but only **left-hand** connections are a characteristic feature of the noun, since most parts of speech may have **right-hand** connections with prepositions *(reminds of.., capable of.., the first of.,, west of..).* With verbs nouns can form both right-hand and left-hand connections *(John met Peter).*

§ 69. Of certain interest is the combinability of nouns with other nouns. Combinations like *my neighbour's dog, the dog of my neighbour, that dog of my neighbour's* show that a noun in the common case may be preceded by another noun in the possessive case and may be followed by a noun with a preposition. There is, however, disagreement among linguists as to the combinability of two (or more) nouns in the common case without a preposition.

Linguists are at issue concerning such language units as *cannon ball, stone wall, speech sound,* etc. The essence of the problem is whether they are compound words (like *motor-car)* or word-combinations, in the latter case whether the adjunct-word is a noun or an adjective.

Producing the opinions of H. Sweet, O. Jespersen and G. Weber, B.A. Ilyish still considers the first part of the problem debatable. At the same time he maintains that the first components of the units discussed are nouns functionally resembling adjectives, though no arguments are offered.

A.I. Smirnitsky and O.S. Akhmanova regard these units as a kind of unstable compounds easily developing into word-combinations. The first components, they say, are not nouns since:

1. They are not used in the plural (cf. a *rose garden* and *a garden of roses).*

2. Nouns are used as attributes only in the possessive case or with a preposition.

Hence they draw the conclusion that these first components are noun-stems convertible into adjectives. We do not find these arguments convincing:

1. The first components of such units do occur in the plural *(armaments drive, munitions board).* The 'plural' is mostly observed when there is no 'singular' opposite *(a trousers pocket)* or misunderstanding is otherwise possible (cf. *plains people* and *plain people; the United Nations Organization* and *the United Nation Organization).* In other cases number opposemes are regularly neutralized in this position and the member of neutralization is usually the 'singular'.

2. The first components of such formations may have left-hand connections with adjectives *(film exchange – new film exchange, wall space – the red wall space),* nouns in the possessive case *(a skin trunk – a cow's skin trunk),* nouns in the common case *(paper writing – business paper writing),* numerals *(32 years practice),* etc., like ordinary nouns and not like noun-stems.

3. Practically every noun may be used as the first component of such combinations, and, vice versa, every first component of such combinations is identified with the corresponding noun as the same word. This is particularly clear with nouns possessing special stem-building suffixes (e.g. *conveyor belt, education authorities,* etc.), with proper nouns *(the Kennedy administration)* or when the first component consists of two nouns connected by a conjunction (e.g. *Mother and child care).*

Hence we come to the following conclusions:

1. The first components in formations like *stone wall, speech sound* are nouns, not noun-stems.

2. Consequently these formations are noun word-combinations with noun adjuncts.

§ 70. A noun may be used in the function of almost any part of the sentence, though its most typical functions are those of the subject and the object.

THE CATEGORY OF NUMBER

§ 71. The category of number of English nouns is the system of opposemes (such as *girl – girls, foot – feet,* etc.) showing whether the noun stands for one object or more than one, in other words, whether its grammatical meaning is 'oneness' or 'more-than-oneness' of objects.

The connection of the category with the world of material reality, though indirect, is quite transparent. Its meanings reflect the existence of individual objects and groups of objects in the material world.

§ 72. All number opposemes are identical in content: they contain two particular meanings of 'singular' and 'plural' united by the general meaning of the category, that of 'number'. But there is a considerable variety of form in number opposemes, though it is not so great as in the Russian language.

An English noun lexeme can contain two number opposemes at most *(boy – boys, boy's – boys')*. Many lexemes have but one opposeme *(table – tables)* and many others have no opposemes at all *(ink, news)*.

In the opposeme *boy – boys* 'singularity' is expressed by a zero morpheme_ and 'plurality' is marked by the positive morpheme [-z] in spelling *–s*. In other words the 'singular' member of the opposeme is not marked, and the 'plural' member is marked.

In the opposeme *boy's – boys'* both members have positive morphemes *-'s, -s',* but these morphemes can be distinguished only in writing. In the spoken language their forms do not differ, so with regard to each other they are unmarked. They can be distinguished only by their combinability (cf. *a boy's head, boys' heads)*.

In a few noun lexemes of foreign origin both members of a number opposeme are marked, e.g. *symposium,– symposia, genus – genera, phenomenon – phenomena, etc.* But in the process of assimilation this peculiarity of foreign nouns gets gradually lost, and instead of *medium – media* a new opposeme develops, *medium – mediums;* instead of *formula – formulae,* the usual form now is *formula – formulas.* In this process, as we see, the foreign grammatical morphemes are neglected as such. The 'plural' morpheme is dropped altogether. The 'singular' morpheme becomes part of the stem. Finally, the regular -s ending is added to form the 'plural' opposite. As a result the 'singular' becomes unmarked, as typical of English, and the 'plural' gets its usual mark, the suffix -s.

§ 73. Since the 'singular' member of a number opposeme is not marked, the form of the opposeme is, as a rule, determined by the form of the 'plural' morpheme, which in its turn, depends upon the stern of the lexeme.

In the overwhelming majority of cases the form of the 'plural' morpheme is [-s], [-z], or [-iz], in spelling *-(e)s,* e.g. *books, boys, matches.*

With the stem *ox-* the form of the 'plural' morpheme is *-en* [-n].

In the opposeme *man – men* the form of the 'plural' morpheme is the vowel change [ae > e]. In *woman – women* it is [u > i], in *foot – feet* it is [u – i:], etc.

In *child – children* the form of the 'plural' morpheme is complicated. It consists of the vowel change [ai > i] and the suffix *-ren.*

In *sheep – sheep* the 'plural' is not marked, thus coinciding in form with the 'singular'. They can be distinguished only by their combinability: *one sheep, five*

sheep, a sheep was ..., sheep were this sheep, these sheep. The 'plural' coincides in form with the 'singular' also in *deer, fish, carp, perch, trout, cod, salmon,* etc.

All the 'plural' forms enumerated here are forms of the same morpheme. This can be proved, as we know, by (1) the identity of the 'plural' meaning, and (2) the complementary distribution of these forms, i.e. the fact that different forms are used with different stems.

§ 74. As already mentioned, with regard to the category of number English nouns fall into two subclasses: countables and uncountables. The former have number opposites, the latter have not. Uncountable nouns are again subdivided into those having no plural opposites and those having no singular opposites.

Nouns like *milk, geometry, self-possession* having no plural opposites are usually called by a Latin name – ***singularia tantum.*** Nouns like *outskirts, clothes, goods* having no singular opposites are known as ***pluralia tantum.***

§ 75. As a matter of fact, those nouns.which have no number opposites are outside the grammatical category of number. But on the analogy of the bulk of English nouns they acquire oblique (or lexico-grammatical) meanings of number. Therefore singularia tantum are often treated as singulars and pluralia tantum as plurals.

This is justified both by their forms and by their, combinability.

Cf. *This (table, book, milk, love) is ...*

These (tables, books, clothes, goods) are ...

When combinability and form contradict each other, combinability is decisive, which accounts for the fact that *police* or *cattle* are regarded as plurals, and *measles, mathematics* as singulars.

§ 76. The lexico-grammatical meaning of a class (or of a subclass) of words is, as we know, an abstraction from the lexical meanings of the words of the class, and depends to a certain extent on those lexical meanings. Therefore singularia tantum usually include nouns of certain lexical meanings. They are mostly material, abstract and collective nouns, such as *sugar, gold, butter, brilliance, constancy, selfishness, humanity, soldiery, peasantry.*

Yet it is not every material, abstract or collective noun that belongs to the group of singularia tantum (e.g. *a plastic, a feeling, a crowd)* and, what is more important, not in all of its meanings does a noun belong to this group.

§ 77. As we have already seen, variants of the same lexeme may belong to different subclasses of a part of, speech.

In most of their meanings the words *joy* and *sorrow* as abstract nouns are singularia tantum.

E.g. He has been a good friend both in joy and in sorrow. (Hornby).

But when concrete manifestations are meant, these nouns are countables. and have plural opposites, e.g. *the joys and sorrows of life.*

Likewise, the words *copper, tin, hair* as material nouns are usually singularia tantum, but when they denote concrete objects, they become countables and get plural opposites: *a copper – coppers, a tin – tins, a hair – hairs.*

Similarly, when the nouns *wine, steel, salt* denote some sort or variety of the substance, they become countables.

E.g. an expensive wine – expensive wines.

All such cases are not a peculiarity of the English language alone. They are found in other languages as well. Cf. *дерево – деревья* and *дерево* as a material noun, *платье – платья* and *платье* as a collective noun.

Joy and a joy, beauty and a beauty, copper and *a copper, hair* and *a hair* and many other pairs of this kind, are not homonyms, as suggested by some grammarians, but variants of lexemes related by internal conversion (§ 63).

If all such cases were regarded as homonyms, the number of homonyms in the English language would be practically limitless. If only some of them were treated as homonyms, that would give rise to uncontrolled subjectivity.

§ 78. The group of pluralia tantum is mostly composed of nouns denoting objects consisting of two or more parts, complex phenomena or ceremonies, e.g. *tongs, pincers, trousers, nuptials, obsequies.* Here also belong some nouns with a distinct collective or material meaning, e.g. *clothes, eaves, sweets.*

Since in these words the *-s* suffix does not function as a grammatical morpheme, it gets lexicalized and develops into an inseparable part of the stem. This, probably, underlies the fact that such nouns as *mathematics, optics, linguistics, mumps, measles* are treated as singularia tantum.

§ 79. Nouns like *police, militia, cattle, poultry* are pluralia tantum, judging by their combinability, though not by form.

People in the meaning of 'народ' is a countable noun. In the meaning of 'люди' it belongs to the pluralia tantum. *Family* in the sense of "a group of people who are related" is a countable noun. In the meaning of "individual members of this group" it belongs to the pluralia tantum. Thus, the lexeme *family* has two variants:

Sg.	Pl.
1) family	*families*
2) –	*family*

E.g. Almost every f a m i l y in the village has sent a man to the army. (Hornby).
Those were the oldest f a m i l i e s in Jorkshire. (Black).
Her f a m i l y were of a delicate constitution. (Bronte).

Similar variants are observed in the lexemes *committee, government, board, crew,* etc.

Colour in the meaning "red, green, blue, etc." is a countable noun. In the meaning "appearance of reality or truth" (e.g. *His torn clothes gave c o l o u r*

to his story that he had been attacked by robbers. A.Hornby.) it has no plural opposite and belongs to the singularia tantum. *Colours* in the sense of "materials used by painters and artists" has no singular opposite and belongs to the pluralia tantum.

Thus, the lexeme has three variants:

Sg.	Pl.
1) colour	*colours*
2) colour	–
3) –	*colours*

When grammarians write that the lexical meanings of some plurals differ from those of their singular opposites, they simply compare different variants of a lexeme.

§ 80. Sometimes variants of a lexeme may belong to the same lexico-grammatical subclass and yet have different forms of number opposemes.

Cf. *brother* (son of same parents) – *brothers brother* (fellow member) – *brethren fish – fish* (e. g. *I caught five fish yesterday.) fish – fishes* ('different species', e. g. *ocean fishes).*

THE CATEGORY OF CASE

§ 81. The category of case of nouns is the system of opposemes (such as *girl – girl's* in English, *дом – дома – дому – дом – домом – (о) доме* in Russian) showing the relations of the noun to other words in speech. Case relations reflect the relations of the substances the nouns name to other substances, actions, states, etc. in the world of reality. In the sentence *I took John's hat by mistake* the case of the noun *John's* shows its relation to the noun *hat,* which is some reflection of the relations between John and his hat in reality.

§ 82. Case is one of those categories which show the close connection (a) between language and speech, (b) between morphology and syntax.

(a) A case opposeme is, like any other opposeme, a unit of the **language** system, but the essential difference between the members of a case opposeme is in their combinability in **speech**. This is particularly clear in a language like Russian with a developed case system. Compare, for instance, the combinability of the nominative case and that of the oblique cases. See also the difference in the combinability of each oblique case: *одобрять поступок, не одобрять поступка, удивляться поступку, восхищаться поступком,* etc.

We can see here that the difference between the cases is not so much a matter of meaning as a matter of combinability. It can be said that *поступок – поступка – поступку,* etc. are united paradigmatically in the Russian language on the basis of their syntagmatic differences in speech. Similarly, the members of the case op-

poseme *John – John's* are united paradigmatically on the basis of their syntagmatic differences.

Naturally, both members of an English noun case opposeme have the features of English nouns, including their combinability. Thus, they may be preceded by an article, an adjective, a numeral, a pronoun, etc.

a student ...,	*a student's ...*
the student ...,	*the student's ...*
a good student ...,	*a good student's ...*
his brother ...,	*his brother's ...*
the two brothers ...,	*the two brothers'...*

Yet, the common case grammemes are used in a variety of combinations where the possessive case grammernes do not, as a rule, occur. In the following examples, for instance, *John's* or *boys',* can hardly be substituted for *John* or *boys: John saw the boys, The boys were seen by John, It was owing to the boys that ..., The boys and he ...*, etc.

(b) Though case is a morphological category it has a distinct syntactical significance. The common case grammemes fulfil a number of syntactical functions not typical of possessive case grammemas, among them the functions of subject and object. The possessive case noun is for the most part employed as an attribute.

§ 83. All case opposemes are identical in content: they contain two particular meanings, of 'common' case and 'possessive' case, united by the general meaning of the category, that of 'case'. There is not much variety in the form of case opposemes either, which distinguishes English from Russian.

An English noun lexeme may contain two case opposemes at most *(man – man's, men – men's).* Some lexemes have but one opposeme *(England – England's, cattle – cattle's).* Many lexemes have no case opposemes at all *(book, news foliage).*

In the opposeme *dog – dog's, men – men's,* the 'common' case is not marked, i.e. *dog* and *men* have zero morphemes of 'common case'. The 'possessive' case is marked by the suffix. *-'s* /-s, -z, -iz/. In the opposeme *dogs – dogs'* the difference between the opposites is marked only in writing. Otherwise the two opposites do not differ in form. So with regard to each other they are not marked.

Thus, *-'s* is the only positive case morpheme of English nouns. It would be no exaggeration to say that the whole category depends on this morpheme.

§ 84. As already mentioned, with regard to the category of case English nouns fall under two lexico-grammatical subclasses: **declinables**, having case opposites, and **indeclinables**, having no case opposites.

The subclass of declinables is comparatively limited, including mostly nouns denoting living beings, also time and distance.

Indeclinables like *book, iron, care* have, as a norm, only the potential (or oblique, or lexico-grammatical) meaning of the common case. But it is sometimes actualized when a case opposite of these words is formed in speech, as in *The b o o k' s philosophy is old-fashioned.* (*The Tribune,* Canada).

As usual, variants of one lexeme may belong to different subclasses. *Youth* meaning 'the state of being" young'-belongs to the indeclinables. Its variant *youth* meaning 'a young man' has a case opposite *The y o u t h' s candid smile disarmed her.* (Black) and belongs to the declinables.

§ 85. Since both cases and prepositions show 'relations of substances' some linguists speak of analytical cases in Modern English. *To the student* is said to be an analytical dative case (equivalent, for instance, to the Russian *студенту), of the student* is understood as an analytical genitive case (equivalent to *студента), by the student* as an analytical instrumental case (cf. *студентом*), etc.

The theory of analytical cases seems to be inconvincing for a number of reasons.

1. In order to treat the combinations *of the student, to the student, by the student* as analytical words (like *shall come* or *has come]* we must regard *of, to, with* as grammatical word-morphemes. But then they are to be devoid of lexical meaning, which they are not. Like most words a preposition is usually polysemantic and each meaning is singled out in speech, in a sentence or a word-combination. Cf. *to speak of the student, the speech of the student, news of the student, it was kind of the student, what became of the student,* etc. In each case *of* shows one of its lexical meanings. Therefore it cannot be regarded as a grammatical word-morpheme, and the combination of *the student* cannot be treated as an analytical word.

2. A grammatical category, as known, is represented in opposemes comprising a definite number of members. Combinations with different prepositions are too numerous to be interpreted as opposemes representing the category of case. The number of cases in English becomes practically unlimited .

3. Analytical words usually form opposemes with synthetic ones *(comes – came – will come).* With prepositional constructions it is different. They are often synonymous with synthetic, words.

E.g. the son of my friend = my friend's son; the wall of the garden = the garden wall.

On the other hand, prepositional constructions can be used side by side with synthetic cases, as in *that doll of Mary's, a friend of John's.* If we accepted the theory of analytical cases, we should see in *of John's* a double-case word, which would be some rarity in English, there being no double-tense words nor double-aspect words and the like.

4. There is much subjectivity in the choice of prepositions supposed to form analytical cases. Grammarians usually point out those prepositions whose mean-

ings approximate to the meanings of some cases in other languages or in Old English. But the analogy with other languages or with an older stage of the same language does not prove the existence of a given category in a modern language.

Therefore we think it unjustified to speak of units like *to the student, of the student,* etc. as of analytical cases. They are combinations of nouns in the common case with prepositions,

§ 86. The morpheme *-'s*, on which the category of case of English nouns depends, differs in some respects from other grammatical morphemes of the English language and from the case morphemes of other languages.

As emphasized by B.A. Ilyish, *-'s* is no longer a case inflexion in the classical sense of the word. Unlike such classical inflexions, *-'s* may be attached:

a) to adverbs (of substantival origin), as in *yesterday's events,*

b) to word-groups, as in *Mary and John's apartment, our professor of literature's unexpected departure,*

c) even to whole clauses, as in the well-worn example *the man I saw yesterday's son.*

B.A. Ilyish comes to the conclusion that the *-'s* morpheme gradually develops into a "form-word", a kind of particle serving to convey the meaning of belonging. possession.

G.N. Vorontsova does not recognize *-'s* as a case morpheme at all. The reasons she puts forward to substantiate her point of view are as follows:

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 the plural *(child's, children's),* which is not incident to case morphemes (cf. *мальчик-**а**, мальчик-**ов***).

4) It occurs in very few plurals, only those with the irregular formation of the plural member *(oxen's* but *cows').*

5) *-'s* does not make an inseparable part of the structure of the word. It may be placed at some distance from the head-noun of an attributive group.

"Been reading that fellow what's his name's attacks in the 'Sunday Times'?" (Bennett).

Proceeding from these facts G.N. Vorontsova treats *-'s* as a 'postposition', a 'purely syntactical form-word resembling a preposition', used as a sign of syntactical dependence.

In keeping with this interpretation of the *-'s* morpheme the author denies the existence of cases in Modern English.

At present, however, this extreme point of view can hardly be accepted. The following arguments tend to show that -'s does function as a case morpheme.

1. The *-'s* morpheme is mostly attached to individual nouns, not noun groups. According to our statistics this is observed in 96 per cent of examples with this

morpheme. Instances like *The man I saw yesterday's son* are very rare and may be interpreted in more ways than one. As already mentioned, the demarcation line between words and combinations of words is very vague in English. A word-combination can easily be made to function as one word.

Cf. *a hats-cleaned-by-electricity-while-you-wait establishment* (O. Henry). *the eighty-year-olds* (D. W.).

In the last example the plural morpheme *-s* is in fact attached to an adjective word-combination, turning it into a noun. It can be maintained that the same morpheme *-'s* likewise substantivizes the group of words to which it is attached, and we get something like *the man-I-saw-yesterday's son.*

2. It's general meaning – "the relation of a noun to another word" – is a typical case meaning.

3. The fact that *-'s* occurs, as a rule, with a more or less limited group of words bears testimony to its not being a "preposition-like form word". The use of the preposition is determined, chiefly, by the meaning of the preposition itself and not by the meaning of the noun it introduces (Cf. *o n the table, i n the table, u n d e r the table, o v e r the table*, etc.)

4. The fact the possessive case is expressed *in oxen – oxen's* by *-'s* and in *cows – cows'* by zero cannot serve as an argument against the existence of cases in English nouns because *-'s* and zero are here forms of the same morpheme:

a) Their meanings are identical.

b) Their distribution is complementary,

5. As a minor argument against the view that *-'s* is "a preposition-like word". it is pointed out that *-'s* differs phonetically from all English prepositions in not having a vowel, a circumstance limiting its independence.

Yet, it cannot be denied that the peculiarities of the *-'s* morpheme are such as to admit no doubt of its being essentially different from the case morphemes of other languages. It is evident that the case system of Modern English is undergoing serious changes.

B.A. Ilyish, The Structure
of Modern English, p. 36-39, 41-47.

THE NOUN

The noun in Modern English has only two grammatical categories, number and case. The existence of case appears to be doubtful and has to be carefully analysed.

The Modern English noun certainly has not got the category of grammatical gender, which is to be found, for example, in Russian, French, German and Latin. Not a single noun in Modern English shows any peculiarities in its morphology due

to its denoting a male or a female being. Thus, the words *husband* and *wife* do not show any difference in their forms due to the peculiarities of their lexical meanings.

NUMBER

Modern English, as most other languages, distinguishes between two numbers, singular and plural.

The essential meaning of singular and plural seems clear enough: the singular number shows that one object is meant, and the plural shows that more than one object is meant. Thus, the opposition is "one – more than one". This holds good for many nouns: *table – tables, pupil – pupils, dog – dogs,* etc. However, language facts are not always so simple as that. The category of number in English nouns gives rise to several problems which claim special attention.

First of all, it is to be noted that there is some difference between, say, *three houses* and *three hours.* Whereas three houses are three separate objects existing side by side, three hours are a continuous period of time measured by a certain agreed unit of duration. The same, of course, would apply to such expressions as *three miles, three acres,* etc.

If we now turn to such plurals as *waters* (e.g. *the waters of the Atlantic),* or *snows* (e.g. *"A Daughter of the Snows",* the title of a story by Jack London), we shall see that we are drifting further away from the original meaning of the plural number. In the first place, no numeral could be used with nouns of this kind. We could not possibly say *three waters,* or *three snows.* We cannot say how many waters we mean when we use this noun in the plural number. What, then, is the real difference in meaning between *water* and *waters, snow* and *snows,* etc.? It is fairly obvious that the plural form in every case serves to denote a vast stretch of water (e.g. an ocean), or of snow, or rather of ground covered by snow (e.g. in the arctic regions of Canada), etc. In the case of *water* and *waters* we can press the point still further and state that *the water of the Atlantic* refers to its physical or chemical properties (e.g. *the water of the Atlantic contains a considerable portion of salt*), whereas *the waters of the Atlantic* refers to a geographical idea: it denotes a seascape and has, as such, a peculiar stylistic value which *the water of the Atlantic* certainly lacks. So we see that between the singular and the plural an additional difference of meaning has developed.

Now, the difference between the two numbers may increase to such a degree that the plural form develops a completely new meaning which the singular has not got at all. Thus, for example, the plural form *colours* has the meaning 'banner' which is restricted to the plural (e.g. *to serve under the colours of liberty*). In a similar manner, the plural *attentions* has acquired the meaning 'wooing' *(pay attentions to a young lady*). A considerable amount of examples in point have been collected by O. Jespersen.

Since, in these cases, a difference in lexical meaning develops between the plural and the singular, it is natural to say that the plural form has been lexicalized. It is not our task here to go into details about the specific peculiarities of meaning which may develop in the plural form of a noun. This is a matter of lexicology rather than of grammar. What is essential from the grammatical viewpoint is the very fact that a difference in meaning which is purely grammatical in its origins is apt under certain conditions to be overshadowed by a lexical difference.

PLURALIA TANTUM AND SINGULARIA TANTUM

We must also consider here two types of nouns differing from all others in the way of number: they have not got the usual two number forms, but only one form. The nouns which have only a plural and no singular are usually termed "pluralia tantum" (which is the Latin for "plural only"), and those which have only a singular and no plural are termed "singularia tantum" (the Latin for "singular only").

Among the pluralia tantum are the nouns *trousers, scissors, tongs, pincers, breeches, environs, outskirts, dregs.* As is obvious from these examples, they include nouns of two types. On the one hand, there are the nouns which denote material objects consisting of two halves *(trousers, scissors, etc.);* on the other, there are those which denote a more or less indefinite plurality (e.g. *environs* 'areas surrounding some place on all sides'; *dregs* 'various small things remaining at the bottom of a vessel after the liquid has been poured out of it', etc.). If we compare the English pluralia tantum with the Russian, we shall find that in some cases they correspond to each other (e.g., *trousers* – брюки, *scissors* – ножницы, *environs* – окрестности, etc.), while in others they do not (квасцы – *alum,* деньги – *money,* etc.). This seems to depend on a different view of the objects in question reflected by the English and the Russian language respectively. The reason why a given object is denoted by a pluralia tantum noun in this or that language is not always quite clear.

Close to this group of pluralia tantum nouns are also some names of sciences, e.g. *mathematics, physics, phonetics,* also *politics,* and some names of diseases, e.g. *measles, mumps, rickets.* The reason for this seems to be that, for example, mathematics embrace a whole series of various scientific disciplines, and measles are accompanied by the appearance of a number of separate inflamed spots on the skin (rash). However, the reasons are less obvious in the case of phonetics, for instance. Now, it is typical of English that some of these pluralia tantum may, as it were, cease to be plural. They may occasionally, or even regularly, be accompanied by the indefinite article, and if they are the subject of a sentence the predicate verb may stand in the singular.

This way of treating pluralia tantum, which would be unthinkable in Russian, is of course connected with the structure of English as a whole.

The possibility of treating a plural form as if it were singular is also seen in the use of the phrase *the United Nations,* which may, when it is the subject of a sentence, have the predicate verb in the singular, e. g. *the United Nations is a world organization.*

Examples of a phrase including a noun in the plural being modified by a pronoun in the singular and thus shown to be apprehended as a singular are by no means rare. Here are a few typical examples. *I myself still wonder at that six weeks of calm madness...* (GARY) The unity of the period of time, measured in the usual units of months, weeks, and days, is thus brought out very clearly. *Bessie, during that twenty-four hours, had spent a night with Alice and a day with Muriel...* (GARY) The unity of the space of time referred to is even more obvious in this example than in the preceding one; twenty-four hours is a commonly received unit of measurement of time (in Russian this would be expressed by a single noun – сутки). The variant *those twenty-four hours* would be inappropriate here, as it would imply that the statement was referring to every single hour of the twenty-four taken separately.

This way of showing the unity of a certain quantity of space or time by modifying the phrase in question by a pronoun in the singular, and also (if the phrase be the subject of the sentence) by using the predicate verb in the singular, appears to be a very common thing in present-day English.

The direct opposite of pluralia tantum are the singularia tantum, i.e. the nouns which have no plural form. Among these we must first note some nouns denoting material substance, such as *milk, butter, quicksilver,* etc., and also names of abstract notions, such as *peace, usefulness, incongruity,* etc. Nouns of this kind express notions which are, strictly speaking, outside the sphere of number: e.g. *milk,* or *fluency.* But in the morphological and syntactical system of the English language a noun cannot stand outside the category of number. If the noun is the subject of a sentence, the predicate verb (if it is in the present tense) will have to be either singular or plural. With the nouns just mentioned the predicate verb is always singular. This is practically the only external sign (alongside of the absence of a plural inflection in the noun itself) which definitely shows the noun to be singular.

Some nouns denoting substance, or material, may have a plural form, if they are used to denote either an object made of the material or a special kind of substance, or an object exhibiting the quality denoted by the noun. Thus, the noun *wine,* as well as the noun *milk,* denotes a certain substance, but it has a plural form *wines* used to denote several special kinds of wine. The noun *iron,* as well as the noun *quicksilver,* denotes a metal, but it may be used in the plural if it denotes several objects made of that metal (утюги). The noun *beauty,* as well as the noun *ugliness,* denotes a certain quality presented as an object, but it may be used in

the plural to denote objects exhibiting that quality, e. g. *the beauties of nature; His daughters were all beauties.* Many more examples of a similar kind might be found. Accordingly, the nouns *wine, iron, and beauty* cannot be called singularia tantum, although in their chief application they no more admit of a plural form than *milk, quicksilver,* or *ugliness.*

CASE

The problem of case in Modern English nouns is one of the most vexed problems in English grammar. This can be seen from the fact that views on the subject differ widely. The most usual view is that English nouns have two cases: a common case (e.g, *father)* and a genitive (or possessive) case (e.g. *father's).* Side by side with this view there are a number of other views, which can be roughly classified into two main groups: (1) the number of cases in English is more than two, (2) there are no cases at all in English nouns.

The first of these can again be subdivided into the views that the number of cases in English nouns is three, or four, or five, or even an indefinite quantity. Among those who hold that there are no cases in English nouns there is again a variety of opinions as to the relations between the forms *father* and *father's,* etc.

Before embarking on a detailed study of the whole problem it is advisable to take a look at the essence of the notion of case. It is more than likely that part, at least, of the discussions and misunderstandings are due to a difference in the interpretation of case as a grammatical category. It seems therefore necessary to give as clear and unambiguous a definition of case as we can. Case is the category of a noun expressing relations between the thing denoted by the noun and other things, or properties, or actions, and manifested by some formal sign in the noun itself. This sign is almost always an inflection, and it may also be a "zero" sign, i.e. the absence of any sign may be significant as distinguishing one particular case from another. It is obvious that the minimum number of cases in a given language system is two, since the existence of two correlated elements at least is needed to establish a category. (In a similar way, to establish the category of tense in verbs, at least two tenses are needed, to establish the category of mood two-moods, etc.). Thus, case is part of the morphological system of a language.

Approaching the problem of case in English nouns from this angle, we will not recognize any cases expressed by non-morphological means. It will be therefore impossible to accept the theories of those who "hold that case may also be expressed by prepositions (i.e. by the phrase "preposition + noun") or by word order. Such views have indeed been propounded by some scholars, mainly Germans. Thus, it is the view of Max Deutschbein that Modern English nouns have four cases, viz. nominative, genitive, dative and accusative, of which the genitive can be expressed by the *-'s*-inflection and by the preposition *of,* the dative by the

preposition *to* and also by word order, and the accusative is distinguished from the dative by word order alone.

It should be recognized that once we admit prepositions, or word order, or indeed any non-morphological means of expressing case, the number of cases is bound to grow indefinitely. Thus, if we admit that *of the pen* is a genitive case, and *to the pen* a dative case, there would seem no reason to deny that *with the pen* is an instrumental case, *in the pen* a locative case, etc., etc. Thus the number of cases in Modern English nouns would become indefinitely large. This indeed is the conclusion Academician I.I. Meshchaninov arrived at. That view would mean abandoning all idea of morphology and confusing forms of a word with phenomena of a completely different kind. Thus, it seems obvious that the number of cases in Modern English nouns cannot be more than two *(father* and *father's).* The latter form, *father's,* might be allowed to retain its traditional name of genitive case, while the former *(father)* may be termed common case. Of course it must be borne in mind that the possibility of forming the genitive is mainly limited to a certain class of English nouns, viz. those which denote living beings *(my father's room, George's sister, the dog's head)* and a few others, notably those denoting units of time *(a week's absence, this year's elections),* and also some substantivized adverbs (*to-day's: newspaper, yesterday's news,* etc.).

It should be noted, however, that this limitation does not appear to be too strict and there even seems to be some tendency at work to use the -*'s*-forms more extensively. Thus, we can come across such phrases as, *a work's popularity, the engine's overhaul life,* which certainly are not stock phrases, like *at his fingers' ends,* or *at the water's edge,* but freely formed phrases, and they would seem to prove that it is not absolutely necessary for a noun to denote a living being in order to be capable of having an -'s-form. The more exact limits of this possibility have yet to be made out.

The essential meaning of this case would seem to require an exact definition. The result of some recent investigations into the nature of the -*'s*- form shows that its meaning is that of possessivity in a wide sense of the term. Alongside of phrases like *my father's room, the young man's friends, our master's arrival,* etc., we also find such examples as *nothing could console Mrs Birch for her daughter's loss,* where the implied meaning of course is "Mrs Birch lost her daughter". The real relation between the notions expressed by the two nouns may thus depend on the lexical meaning of these nouns, whereas the form in -*s* merely denotes the possessive relation.

Up to now we have seen the form in -*s* as a genitive case, and in so far we have stuck to the conception of a two-case system in Modern English nouns.

There are, however, certain phenomena which give rise to doubts about the existence of such a system – doubts, that is, about the form in -*s* being a case form

at all. We will now consider some of these phenomena. In the first place, there are the expressions of the type *Smith and Brown's office.* This certainly means 'the office belonging to both Smith and Brown'. Not only Brown, whose name is immediately connected with the *-s,* but also Smith, whole name stands somewhat apart from it, is included in the possessive relation. Thus we may say that the *-s* refers, not to *Brown* alone, but to the whole group *Smith and Brown.* An example of a somewhat different kind may be seen in the expression *the Chancellor of the Exchequer's speech,* or the *Oxford professor of poetry's lecture.* These expressions certainly mean, respectively, 'the speech of the Chancellor of the Exchequer', and 'the lecture of the Oxford professor of poetry'. Thus, the *-s* belongs to the groups *the Chancellor of the Exchequer* and *the Oxford professor of poetry.* The same of course applies to the groups *the Duke of Edinburgh's speech, the King of England's residence,* and many others.

A further step away from the category of case is taken in the groups *somebody else's child, nobody else's business,* etc. Here the word immediately preceding the *-s* is an adverb which could not by itself stand in the genitive case (there is an obvious difference between *somebody else's child* and, e.g., *to-day's news,* or *yesterday's paper).* The *-s* belongs here to the group *somebody else* as a whole. It cannot, then, be an inflection making an integral part of a word: it is here part of a whole phrase, and, accordingly, a syntactical, not a morphological, element.

Formations of this kind are by no means rare, especially in colloquial style. Thus, in the following sentence the *-s* is joined on to a phrase consisting of a noun and a prepositional phrase serving as attribute to it: *This girl in my class's mother took us* [to the movies] (SALINGER), which of course is equivalent to *the mother of this girl (who is) in my class.* It is only the lexical meaning of the words, and in the first place the impossibility of the phrase *my class's mother,* that makes the syntactical connection clear. Compare also: *...and constantly aimed to suggest a man of the world's outlook and sophistication...* (The Pelican Guide to English Literature)

The *-s* is still farther away from its status as an inflection in such sentences as the following: *The blonde I had been dancing with's name was Bernice something – Crabs or Krebs* (SALINGER); *I never knew the woman who laced too tightly's name was Matheson.* (FORSTER)

This is the type usually illustrated by Sweet's famous example, *the man I saw yesterday's son,* that is, the type "noun + attributive clause + *-'s-*

Let us have a look at J.D.Salinger's sentence. It is obvious that the *-s* belongs to the whole group, *the blonde I had been dancing with* (it is her name he is talking about). It need hardly be emphasized that the preposition *with* cannot, by itself, be in the genitive case. Such constructions may not be frequent but they do occur and they are perfectly intelligible, which means that they fit into the pattern of the language.

All this seems to prove definitely that in the English language of to-day the *-'s* can no longer be described as a case inflection in nouns without, at least, many reservations. This subject has been variously treated and interpreted by a number of scholars, both in this country and elsewhere. The following views have been put forward: (1) when the *-s* belongs to a noun it is still the genitive ending, and when it belongs to a phrase (including the phrase "noun + attributive clause") it tends to become a syntactical element, viz, a postposition; (2) since the *-s* can belong to a phrase (as described above) it is no longer a case inflection even when it belongs to a single noun; (3) the *-s* when belonging to a noun, no longer expresses a case, but a new grammatical category, viz. the category of "possession", for example, the possessive form *father's* exists in contradistinction to the non-possessive form *father.* An essential argument in favour of this view is, that both the form without *-s* and the form with *-s* can perform the same syntactic functions; for instance, they can both be subject of the sentence (cf. *My father was a happy man and My father's was a happy life).* It should be noted that the views listed under (2) and (3) lead to the conclusion that there are no cases in the Modern English noun. Though the question is still under discussion, and a final agreement on it may have to wait some time, we must recognize that there is much to be said in favour of this view. We will, then, conclude the discussion by saying that apparently the original case system in the English nouns, which has undergone a systematic reduction ever 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.

Different views have also been expressed concerning the scope of meaning of the *-s.* Besides phrases implying possession in the strict sense of the term *(my father's books,* etc.), the *-s* is also found in other contexts, such as *my father's friends, my father's arrival, my father's willingness,* etc. The question now arises how wide this scope may be. From this point of view it has been customary to point out that the relation expressed by the collocation "noun + *-'s + noun"* is often a subjective relation, as in *my father's arrival: my father's* expresses the subject of the action, cf. *my father arrives.* This would then correspond to the so-called subjective genitive of inflected languages, such as Russian or Latin. It would, however, not do to say that the noun having the *-s* could never indicate the object of the action: cf. the example *Doughty's famous trial and execution,* where the implied meaning of course is, 'Doughty was tried and executed'. This would correspond to the so-called objective genitive of inflected languages. Now, though this particular use would seem to be far less frequent than the subjective, it is by no means impossible or anomalous. Thus it would not be correct to formulate the meaning of the *-'s* in a way that would exclude the possible objective applications of the *-'s*-formation.

Parallel use of the *-'s*-form and the preposition *of* is seen in the following example: *In the light of this it was Lyman's belief and it is mine – that it is a man's duty and the duty of his friends to see to it that his exit from this world, at least, shall be made with all possible dignity.* (TAYLOR)

It should also be noted in this connection that, if both the subject of an action and its object are mentioned, the former is expressed by a noun with *-'s* preceding the name of the action, and the latter by an of-phrase following it, as in *Coleridge's praise of Shakespeare,* etc. The same of course applies to the phrases in which the object is not a living being, as in *Einstein's theory of relativity, or Shakespeare's treatment of history.*

The *-'s*-form can also sometimes be used in a sense which may be termed qualitative. This is best illustrated by an example. The phrase *an officer's cap* can be interpreted in two different ways. For one thing, it may mean 'a cap belonging to a certain officer', and that, of course, is the usual possessive meaning (фуражка офицера). For another thing, it may mean 'a cap of the type worn by officers', and this is its qualitative meaning (the Russian equivalent for this is офицерская фуражка). Only the context will show which is meant. Here are a few examples of the qualitative meaning; it is only the context that makes this clear: if it were not for the context the usual possessive meaning might be ascribed to the form. *She perceived with all her nerves the wavering of Amanda's confidence, her child's peace of mind, and she understood how fragile it was.* (GARY) The meaning of the phrase *her child's peace of mind* is in itself ambiguous. Taken without the context, it may mean one of two things: (1) 'the peace of mind of her child' (the usual possessive meaning), or (2) 'her peace of mind, which was like a child's' (the qualitative meaning). Outside the context both interpretations would be equally justified. In the sentence as it stands in the text the surrounding words unmistakably point to the second, that is, the qualitative interpretation: the whole sentence deals only with Amanda herself, there is no question of any child of hers, so that the usual possessive meaning is not possible here. A somewhat similar expression is found in the phrase, *a small cupid's mouth,* which might mean, either the mouth of a small cupid, or a small mouth, like that of a cupid. The context also confirms that the intended meaning is the qualitative one.

A special use of the *-'s*-forms has also to be mentioned, which may be illustrated by such examples as, *I went to the baker's; we spent a week at our uncle's,* etc. *Yes, Mary, I was going to write to Macmillan's and suggest a biography...* (GR. GREENE)

The older view was based on the assumption that the *-'s*-form was an attribute to some noun supposed to be "understood", namely *I went to the baker's shop, we spent a week at our uncle's house,* etc. However, this interpretation is doubtful. It cannot be proved that a noun following the *–'s*-form is "understood". It seems more

advisable, therefore, to take the facts for what they are and to suppose that the *-'s* is here developing into a derivative suffix, used to form a noun from another noun. This is also seen in the fact that the famous cathedral in London is very often referred to as *St. Paul's.* A historical novel by the nineteenth-century English writer W. Harrison Ainsworth bears the title *"Old St. Paul's',* and it appears to be quite impossible here to claim that this is an attribute to the noun *cathedral* which is "understood": if we were to restore the word which is supposed to be omitted, we should get *Old St. Paul's Cathedral,* where the adjective *old* would seem to modify *St. Paul,* rather than *Cathedral,* just as in any other phrase of this type: *old John's views, young Peter's pranks,* etc.

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

NOUNS. FORM. INFLECTIONS

129. [...] 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.

130. 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'. *Sir!* is an example of a noun in the vocative relation.

131. 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 boy, boy* is in the accusative relation, being regarded as the direct object of the actions expressed *by, beat* and *saw.* [...]

132. 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 inteiested in the action expressed by the verb, the dative is therefore the 'interest-case'. [...]

133. 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.*

140. 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.

141. 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 **ob-**

jective case *(him),* which latter corresponds to the accusative (*I 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 *I* 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.

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

CASES IN PRONOUNS

14.1. 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

14.6. (1). 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

14.7. (1). 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. [...]

14.7. (2). [...] 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* [...]

SUMMING-UP QUESTIONS

1. What are the “part of speech” properties of the noun?
2. How are nouns subclassified?
3. What subclasses of the noun are characterized by the category of number?
4. What is the general grammatical meaning of the category of number?
5. What differentiates the category of gender in English from that in Russian?
6. What makes the category of case in English disputable?
7. What are the strong and weak points of the “positional” and “prepositional” theories?
8. In what way is ‘s interpreted in modern English?
9. What are determiners?
10. What are the main approaches to the treatment of the article?

Chapter 4. THE ADJECTIVE

B.S. Khaimovich, B.I. Rogovskaya,
A Course in English Grammar, p. 75-81.

THE ADJECTIVE

§ 101. Adjectives are a part of speech characterized by the following typical features:

1. The lexico-grammatical meaning of 'attributes (of substances)'. It should be understood that by 'attributes' we mean different properties of substances, such as their size *(large, small),* colour *(red, blue),* position in space *(upper, inner),* material *(wooden, woolen),* psychic state of persons *(happy, furious),* etc.

2. The morphological category of the degrees of comparison.

3. The characteristic combinability with nouns *(a beautiful girl),* link-verbs *(...is clever),* adverbs, mostly those of degree *(a very clever boy),* the so-called 'prop word' *one (the grey one).*

4. The stem-building affixes *-ful, -less, -ish, -ous, -ive, -ic, un-, pre-, in-,* etc.

5. Its functions of an attribute and a predicative complement.

§ 102. The category of the degrees of comparison of adjectives is the system of opposemes (like *long – longer – longest)* showing quantitative distinctions of qualities. More exactly, it shows whether the adjective denotes the property of some substance absolutely, or relatively as a higher or the highest amount of the property in comparison with that of some (or all) other substances.

Accordingly we speak of the 'positive' *(long, good, beautiful),* 'comparative' *(longer, better, more beautiful) and* 'superlative' *(longest, best, most beautiful)* degrees.

§ 103. The 'positive' degree is not marked. We may speak of a*)* zero, morpheme. The 'comparative' and 'superlative' degrees are built up either synthetically (by affixation or suppletivity) or analytically, which in the main depends on the phonetic structure of the stem, not on its meaning. If the stem is monosyllabic, or disyllabic with a stress on the second syllable or ending in *-er, -y, -le, -ow,* the comparative and superlative degrees are usually built up synthetically by adding the suffixes *-er* and *-est* respectively.

E.g. bright – brighter – brightest.

In all other cases the comparative and superlative degrees are formed analytically with the help of the word-morphemes *more* and *most.*

E.g. cheerful – more cheerful – most cheerful.

§ 104. Suppletive opposemes are few in number but of very frequent occurrence.

E.g. good – better – best
bad – worse – worst

The quantitative pronominal adjectives or adjective pronouns *many, much* and *little* form opposites of comparison in a similar way.

many – *more – most*
much – *more – most*
little – *less – least*

§ 105. Some authors treat *more beautiful* and *(the) most beautiful* not as analytical forms, but as free syntactical combinations of adverbs and adjectives. One of their arguments is that *less* and *least* form combinations with adjectives similar to those with *more* and *most,* e. g. *more beautiful – less beautiful, the most beautiful – the least beautiful.*

The similarity, however, is but superficial. Let us compare *nicer* and *more beautiful.* In order to prove that *more beautiful* is an analytical form of the comparative degree, we have to prove that *more* is a grammatical word-morpheme identical with the morpheme *-er* in spite of the utter difference in form. Hence we are to apply the criteria of § 12.

More and *-er* are identical as to their meaning of "a higher degree".

Their distribution is complementary. Together they cover all the adjectives having the degrees of comparison, yet those adjectives which have comparative opposites with the suffix *-er* have usually no parallel opposites with *more,* and vice versa. *Beautiful* has no other 'comparative' opposite but *more beautiful* (* *beautifuller* is impossible), and the comparative opposite of *nice* is *nicer,* not * *more nice.*

This is not the case with *less:*

1. *Less* and *-er* have different, even opposite meanings. 2. The distribution of *-er* and *less* is not complementary. One and the same lexical morpheme regularly attaches both *less* and *-er: prettier – less pretty, safer – less safe.*

E.g. I feel less safe than I have ever done in my life. (Gilbert).

A comet usually has a bright centre and a less bright tail. (Hornby).

Besides, unlike *more, less* is regularly replaced by *not so: less pretty = not so pretty.*

These facts show that *more* in *more beautiful* is a grammatical word-morpheme identical with the morpheme *-er* of the 'comparative degree' grammeme. Hence *more beautiful* is an analytical form. The word *less* is not a word-morpheme and *less beautiful* is not an analytical form.

The meanings of *less* "to a smaller extent" contains the lexical meaning "to a small extent" common to all the words of the lexeme *little – less – least* and the grammatical meaning of "the comparative degree". So *less* is an ordinary word and *less beautiful* is a combination of words!

§ 106. The same holds true with regard to *(the) most beautiful* and *(the) least beautiful*. But here a new objection is raised. In the expression *a most interesting theory* the indefinite article is used, whereas* *a prettiest child is impossible*. Thus there seems to be some difference between the synthetic superlative and the analytical one.

One must not forget that *more* and *most* are not only word-morphemes of comparison. They can also be notional words. Moreover, they are polysemantic and polyfunctional words. One of the meanings-of *most* is "very, exceedingly". It is in this meaning that the word *most* is used in the expression a *most interesting book*.

The notional word *more* in the meaning "to a greater extent" can also be used to modify adjectives, as in *It's more grey than brown* (Hornby). *More grey* is here a combination of words. It is not the comparative opposite of *grey*.

§ 107. As we know, with regard to the category of the degrees of comparison adjectives fall under two lexico-grammatical subclasses: comparables and non-comparables. The nucleus of the latter is composed of derived adjectives like *wooden, Crimean, mathematical,* etc., denoting some relation to the phenomena the basic stems refer to. Thus, *a wooden house* is 'a house of *wood', Crimean weather* is 'weather typical of the Crimea', etc. These adjectives are called *relative* as distinct from all other adjectives called *qualitative*.

Most qualitative adjectives build up opposemes of comparison, but some do not:

a) Adjectives that in themselves express the highest degree of a quality.

E.g. supreme, extreme, etc.

b) Those having the suffix *-ish* which indicates the degree of a quality.

E.g. reddish, whitish.

c) Those denoting qualities which are not compatible with the idea of comparison.

E.g. deaf, dead, lame, perpendicular.

Naturally, all the adjectives which have no comparative and superlative opposites are outside the category of comparison, but they are united by the oblique or lexico-grammatical meaning of the positive degree.

§ 108. The positive degree does not convey the idea of comparison. Its meaning is absolute. It is, as it were, the initial stage, the norm of some quality. As Jespersen puts it, the positive degree is, as a matter of fact, negative in relation to comparison.

E.g. A nice girl, a witty remark.

The comparative degree and the superlative degree ate both relative in meaning. If we say *Peter is older than Mary,* it, by no means, implies that Peter is old (he may be five years old, whereas Mary is four), it only indicates that Peter has more

of this quality (being old) that Mary. *James is the oldest boy in our class does* not signify that James is advanced in years, it just shows that he has the highest degree of this quality as compared with the rest of the class.

A.I. Smirnitsky, following O. Jespersen, thinks that there is good ground to speak of two forms of comparison only: the positive degree and the relative degree which exists in two varieties – the comparative degree and the superlative degree.

§ 109. In all the Indo-European languages adjectives can be substantivized, i.e. converted into nouns. In English it is easier than in other languages owing to the scarcity of stem-building elements. Cf. *(a) chick (n.) – sick (a.), tender (a.) – gender (n.).*

When adjectives are converted into nouns they no longer indicate attributes of substances, but substances possessing these attributes. *I felt it my duty to help the sick.*

Adjectives wholly converted into nouns acquire not only the lexico-grammatical meaning of nouns, but their typical morphological categories and combinability, as in *a young native's hut* where the word *native* not only expresses 'substantivity' but has the grammatical meanings of number and case, left-hand connections with an article and an adjective.

In *"He is one of those bitter sceptical young moderns, with no real knowledge of the world"* (Galsworthy) *moderns* is a 'plural', 'common case' noun, modified by a demonstrative pronoun, some adjectives, etc.

More frequently substantivization is but partial. Adjectives may acquire the lexico-grarnmatical meaning of the noun and to some extent its combinability, as in the following sentences:

She has as much, faith in what the British Government's going to do for the deserving poor as the rest of us. (Gilbert). *All the self-righteous are going to say he is infernally careless.* (Gilbert). *It means the ugly have a look in.* (Galsworthy). Here *the poor, the self-righteous, the ugly* express 'substantivity' and are associated with the definite article, but unlike the noun *native,* the word *poor* has no case and number opposites. It may be modified by an adverb, as in *the fabulously rich.* Such partially substantivized adjectives as *the rich, the young,* etc. mostly have collective force, while in earlier English substantivized adjectives were freely used to denote individuals. In contemporary English this is rare, though possible.

E.g. Many times he looked over the people's heads to where his son's wife sat alone, and he saw the fair face the unforgiven dead had loved. (Burnett).

Theoretically speaking, any adjective may be converted into a noun, though the conversion is often temporary, unstable, conversion "for the nonce", as in *The mysterious attracted him.*

B.A. Ilyish, The Structure
of Modern English, p. 58-65.

THE ADJECTIVE

There is not much to be said about the English adjective from the morphological point of view. As is well known, it has neither number, nor case, nor gender distinctions. Some adjectives have, however, degrees of comparison, which make part of the morphological system of a language. Thus, the English adjective differs materially not only from such highly inflected languages as Russian, Latin, and German, where the adjectives have a rather, complicated system of forms, but even from Modern French, which has preserved number and gender distinctions to the present day (cf. masculine singular *grand,* masculine plural *grands,* feminine singular *grande,* feminine plural *grandes* large).

By what signs do we, then, recognize an adjective as such in Modern English? In most cases this can be done only by taking into account semantic and syntactical phenomena. But in some cases, that is, for certain adjectives, derivative suffixes are significant, too. Among these are the suffix *-less* (as in *useless),* the suffix *-like* (as in *ghostlike),* and a few others. Occasionally, however, though a suffix often appears in adjectives, it cannot be taken as a certain proof of the word being an adjective, because the suffix may also make part of a word belonging to another part of speech. Thus, the suffix *-ful* would seem to be typically adjectival, as is its antonym *-less.* In fact we find the suffix *-ful* in adjectives often enough, as in *beautıful, useful, purposeful, meaningful,* etc. But alongside of these we also find *spoonful, mouthful, handful,* etc., which are nouns.

On the whole, the number of adjectives which can be recognized as such by their suffix seems to be insignificant as compared with the mass of English adjectives.

The only morphological problem concerning adjectives is, then, that of degrees of comparison.

DEGREES OF COMPARISON

The first question which arises here is, how many degrees of comparison has the English adjective (and, for that matter, the adjective in other languages, such as Russian, Latin, or German)? If we take, for example, the three forms of an English adjective: *large, larger, (the) largest,* shall we say that they are, all three of them, degrees of comparison? In that case we ought to term them positive, comparative, and superlative. Or shall we say that only the latter two are degrees of comparison (comparative and superlative), whereas the first *(large)* does not express any idea of comparison and is therefore not a degree of comparison at all? Both views have

found their advocates in grammatical theory. Now, if we define a degree of comparison as a form expressing comparison of one object or objects with another in respect of a certain property, it would seem that the first of the three forms *(large)* should not be included, as it does not express any comparison. Then we should have only two degrees of comparison *larger, (the) largest,* and 'a form standing apart, coinciding with the stem from which the degrees of comparison are formed, and which may be described as the basic form.

However, in a very few adjectives the basic form differs from the stem in sound. This difference is of some importance, though it is not reflected in the spelling.

This applies to two adjectives in *-ng,* namely *long* and *young* their stems are [lɔŋg] and [jaŋg] and the degrees of comparison formed from these stems are, *longer* [lɔŋge] *longest* [lɔŋgist] and *younger* [jaŋge], *youngest* [jaŋgist]. The basic forms, on the other hand, are *long* [lɔŋ] and *young* [jaŋ], without the final [lɔŋe] which is impossible after [jaŋe] in modern literary English.

A somewhat similar phenomenon is found in adjectives ending in *-r* or *-re,* such as *poor, pure, rare, sure.* Their stems are [puer], [pjuer], [rɛer], [Suer] and the suffixes of the degrees of comparison are added on to these stems, whereas the basic form loses its final [-r], unless it is followed without pause by a word beginning with a vowel, as in the phrases *poor idea, rare image,* and the like.

Now it is well known that not every adjective has degrees of comparison. This may depend on two factors. One of these is not grammatical, but semantic. Since degrees of comparison express a difference of degree in the same property, only those adjectives admit of degrees of comparison which denote properties capable of appearing in different degrees. Thus, it is obvious that, for example, the adjective *middle* has no degrees of comparison. The same might be said about many other adjectives, such as *blind, deaf, dead,* etc. However, this should not be taken too absolutely. Occasionally we may meet with such a sentence as this: *You cannot be deader than dead.* In a novel by E. Hemingway the hero compares the ways one and the same word sounds in different languages: *Take* dead, mort, muerto, and todt. Todt *was the deadest of them all.* But as a rule adjectives having such meanings do not appear in forms of comparison.

A more complex problem in the sphere of degrees of comparison is that of the formations *more difficult, (the) most difficult,* or *more beautiful, (the) most beautiful.* The question is this: is *more difficult* an analytical comparative degree of the adjective *difficult?* In that case the word *more* would be an auxiliary word serving to make up that analytical form, and the phrase would belong to the sphere of morphology. Or is *more difficult* a free phrase, not different in its essential character from the phrase *very difficult* or *somewhat difficult?* In that case the adjective *difficult* would have no degrees of comparison at all (forming degrees of comparison

of this adjective by means of the inflections *-er, -estis* impossible), and the whole phrase would be a syntactical formation. The traditional view held both by practical and theoretical grammars until recently was that phrases of this type were analytical degrees of comparison. Recently, however, the view has been put forward that they do not essentially differ from phrases of the type *very difficult,* which, of course, nobody would think of treating as analytical forms.

Let us examine the arguments that have been or may be put forward in favour of one and the other view.

The view that formations of the type *more difficult* are analytical degrees of comparison may be supported by the following considerations: (1) The actual meaning of formations like *more difficult, (the) most difficult* does not differ from that of the degrees of comparison *larger, (the) largest.* (2) Qualitative adjectives, like *difficult,* express properties which may be present in different degrees, and therefore they are bound to have degrees of comparison.

The argument against such formations being analytical degrees of comparison would run roughly like this. No formation should be interpreted as an analytical form unless there are compelling reasons for it, and if there are considerations contradicting such a view. Now, in this particular case there are such considerations: (1) The words *more* and *most* have the same meaning in these phrases as in other phrases in which they may appear, e.g. *more time, most people,* etc. (2) Alongside of the phrases *more difficult, (the) most difficult* there are also the phrases *less difficult, (the) least difficult,* and there seems to be no sufficient reason for treating the two sets of phrases in different ways, saying that *more difficult* is an analytical form, while *less difficult* is not. Besides, the very fact that *more* and *less, (the) most* and *(the) least* can equally well combine with *difficult,* would seem to show that they are free phrases and none of them is an analytical form. The fact that *more difficult* stands in the-same sense relation to *difficult* as *larger* to *large* is of course certain, but it should have no impact on the interpretation of the phrases *more difficult, (the) most difficult* from a grammatical viewpoint.

Taking now a general view of both lines of argument, we can say that, roughly speaking, considerations of meaning tend towards recognizing such formations as analytical forms, whereas strictly grammatical considerations lead to the contrary view. It must be left to every student to decide what the way out of this dilemma should be. It seems, on the whole, that the tendency towards making linguistics something like an exact science which we are witnessing to-day should make us prefer the second view, based on strictly grammatical criteria.

If that view is adopted the sphere of adjectives having degrees of comparison in Modern English will be very limited: besides the limitations imposed by the meaning of the adjectives (as shown above), there will be the limitation depending on the ability of an adjective to take the suffixes *-er* and *-est.*

A few adjectives do not, as is well known, form any degrees of comparison by means of inflections. Their degrees of comparison are derived from a different root. These are *good, better, best; bad, worse, worst,* and a few more. Should these formations be acknowledged as suppletive forms -of the adjectives *good, bad,* etc., or should they not? There seems no valid reason for denying them that status. The relation *good: better = large: larger* is indeed of the same kind as the relation *go: went = live: lived,* where nobody has expressed any doubt about *went* being a suppletive past tense form of the verb *go.* Thus, it is clear enough that there is every reason to take *better, worse,* etc., as suppletive degrees of comparison to the corresponding adjectives.

SUBSTANTIVIZATION OF ADJECTIVES

It is common knowledge that adjectives can, under certain circumstances, be substantivized, *i. e.* become nouns. This is a phenomenon found in many languages, e.g. in Russian: compare ученый человек and ученый; рабочий стаж and рабочий. In German, compare *ein gelehrter Mann* and *ein Gelehrter;* in French, *un homme savant* and *un savant,* etc. The phenomenon is also frequent enough in English. The questions which arise in this connection are: (a) what criteria should be applied to find out if an adjective is substantivized or not? (b) is a substantivized adjective a noun, or is it not?

As to the first question, we should recollect the characteristic features of nouns in Modern English and then see if a substantivized adjective has acquired them or not. These features are, (1) ability to form a plural, (2) ability to have a form in *-s* if a living being is denoted, (3) ability to be modified by an adjective, (4) performing the function of subject or object in a sentence. If, from this point of view, we approach, for example, the word *native,* we shall find that it possesses all those peculiarities, e. g. *the natives of Australia, a young native,* etc.

The same may be said about the word *relative* (meaning a person standing in some degree of relationship to another): *my relatives, a close relative,* etc. A considerable number of other examples might be given. There is therefore every reason to assert that *native* and *relative* are nouns when so used, and indeed we need not call them substantivized adjectives. Thus the second of the above questions would also be answered.

Things, are, however, not always as clear as that. A familiar example of a different kind is the word *rich.* It certainly is substantivized, as will be seen, for example, in the title of a novel by C.P. Snow, *"The Conscience of the Rich".* It is obvious, however, that this word differs from the words *native* and *relative* in some important points: (1) it does not form a plural, (2) it cannot be used in the singular and with the indefinite article, (3) it has no possessive form. Since it does not possess all the characteristics of nouns but merely some of them, it will be right to say

that it is only partly substantivized. The word *rich* in such contexts as those given above stands somewhere between an adjective and a noun.

The same may be said of *the poor, the English, the Chinese,* also *the wounded, the accused* (which were originally participles), and a number of other words. We might even think of establishing a separate part of speech, intermediate between nouns and adjectives, and state its characteristic features as we have done for parts of speech in general. However, there would appear to be no need to do so. We shall therefore confine ourselves to the statement that these words are partly substantivized and occupy an intermediate position.

Sometimes the result of substantivization is an abstract noun, as in the following examples: *The desire for a more inward light had found expression at last, the unseen had impacted on the seen.* (FORSTER) *Her mind was focused on the invisible.* (Idem) Nouns of this type certainly have no plural form.

ADJECTIVIZATION OF NOUNS

There is also the question of the opposite phenomenon – that of nouns becoming adjectives. For a variety of reasons, this question presents a number of difficulties and has, accordingly, given rise to prolonged and inconclusive discussions. The facts are, briefly stated, these. In Modern English a noun may stand before another noun and modify it. Witness numerous formations of the type *stone watt, speech sound, peace talks, steel works, the Rome treaty,* etc. The question, as usually asked, is, whether the first component of such phrases is a noun or whether it has been adjectivized, i. e. become an adjective. Different views have been put forward here. The view that the first element of such phrases as *stone wall* is a noun has been defended by H. Sweet and others, the view that it is an adjective or at least approaches the adjective state, by 0.Jespersen and others, and finally the view has also been expressed that this element is neither a noun nor an adjective but a separate part of speech, viz. an attributive noun. The very variety of opinions on the subject shows that the problem is one of considerable difficulty.

We shall become aware of that peculiar difficulty if we attempt to apply here the criteria serving to distinguish a noun from an adjective. It must be stated at once, though, that one criterion, namely that of degrees of comparison, is useless here. The first element of those phrases is indeed unable to form degrees of comparison, but that in itself does not prove that the element is not an adjective, since many adjectives, e.g. *wooden, woollen, European,* do not form degrees of comparison either.

The criteria to be applied here are the following: (1) Has the first element of those phrases number distinctions? (2) Is it able in the cases when it denotes a human being to have a possessive form? (3) Does it denote a substance or a property?

Strangely enough all these questions are very hard to answer. As to (1), it must be stated that the first element usually appears only in one number form, which is either singular or plural, e.g. *stone wall,* not *stones wall; house fronts,* not *houses fronts; goods van,* not *good van,* etc. However, that observation leads us nowhere. It is quite possible to argue that the first element is a noun, capable of number distinctions, but always appearing in a definite number form when making part of that phrase. So the application of criterion (1) proves to be inconclusive. As to criterion (2), we also run into difficulties. If, for example, we take the phrase *the Einstein theory* and ask whether the first element can take the possessive form, we shall have to concede that of course it can; thus the phrase *Einstein's theory* is quite possible, and indeed, it occurs in actual texts. However, those who hold that it is not a noun, but either an adjective or an attributive noun (meaning a special part of speech) argue that the word in the phrase *the Einstein theory* is not the same word as in the phrase *Einstein's theory* and that the word in the first of these groups is incapable of taking a possessive form. Thus, it appears to be impossible to come to a definite conclusion on the basis of this criterion. Now we proceed to criterion (3). How are we to decide whether the word *Einstein* in the former group denotes a substance or a property? There seems to be no perfectly convincing argument either way. We might say that it denotes a substance but this substance only serves to characterize the property of the thing denoted by the noun.

Thus, we reach the conclusion that no perfectly objective result can be attained in trying to determine what part of speech the first element in such phrases is. This explains the existing difference of views on the subject and we are compelled to recognize that the question can only be solved in a somewhat subjective way, according as we start from one premise or another. If we start from the premise that we shall not speak of homonyms, or indeed new parts of speech, unless this is made strictly necessary by indisputable facts, we will stick to the view that the first element of such phrases as *stone wall* or *speech sound* is a noun in a special syntactical function. It is this view that appears to be the most plausible.

B.A. Ilyish, The Structure
of Modern English, p. 74-75.

THE STATIVE

… Such words as *asleep, ablaze, afraid, etc.* have been often named adjectives, though they cannot (apart from a few special cases) be attributes in a sentence, and though their meaning does not seem to be that of property. In spite of protracted discussion that has been going on for some time now, views on this point are as far apart as ever. We will expound here the view that words of the *asleep* type constitute a separate part of speech. As for the term "stative", it may be used

to denote these words, on the analogy of such terms as "substantive" and "adjective".

1) Meaning. The meaning of the words of this type is that of a passing state a person or thing happens to be in.

2) Form. Statives are invariable.

3) Function. (a) Statives most usually follow a link verb (*was asleep, fell asleep*). Occasionally they can follow a noun (*man alive*). They can also sometimes be preceded by an adverb (*fast asllep*). (b) In the sentence, a stative is most usually a predicative (*he fell asleep*). They can also be objective predicatives (*I found him asleep*) and attributes, almost always following the noun they modify (*a man asleep in his chair*).

SYNTACTICAL FUNCTIONS

The main function of the statives is that of predicative and in this case they are preceded by a link verb, most usually the verb *be,* but occasionally also *fall, keep, feel.* Examples with the link verb *be* are very numerous and varied. A few will suffice: *The child was fast asleep. The whole house was astir. Something is afoot.* With the link verb *fall* we find the stative *asleep,* as in the sentence *He soon fell asleep.* The link verb *keep* is found with statives, e. g. in *...but in a crafty madness keeps aloof* (SHAKESPEARE) The link verb *feel* is found in the sentence *He felt ashamed of himself..* (LINKLATER)

Statives are also occasionally found in the function of objective predicatives, particularly after the verb *find* or *have* and a noun or pronoun, as in the sentences *He found his sister alone.* (LINK-LATER) *Then Skene spoke, and in a moment had his audience afire.* (Idem)

The basically predicative quality of the statives is equally evident in all of these cases. It is somewhat weakened when a stative has the function of an attribute following its noun: *A man, alive to social interests.* And the predicative quality of the stative is further weakened when it precedes a noun as its attribute (this is very rare indeed). The word *aloof* seems to have gone further than any other stative in this respect. Thus, we find, such phrases as *his aloof attitude, an aloof manner,* etc. On the other hand, the word *asleep* can only be a prepositive attribute when it is preceded by the adverb *fast,* as in the phrase *a fast-asleep child.*

The phrase *"be* + stative" may sometimes be synonymous with the continuous form of the corresponding verb. Cf., e.g., *He is asleep* and *He is sleeping, He was asleep* and *He was sleeping.* We are therefore entitled to ask whether these two ways of expression are always interchangeable, or whether a difference of some kind or other exists between them. This question has not been finally answered so far.

Proceeding now to compare the statives in English with those in Russian, we find that they do not correspond to each other, i. e. a Russian stative is, it seems, never translated by an English stative, and vice versa. A few examples will suffice to illustrate the point. Such typical Russian statives as жаль, лень, тепло, холодно are never translated by statives into English: мне его жаль – *I pity him,* or *I feel some pity for him;* жаль усов – *I feel sorry for my moustache;* ему лень было вставать – *he fell too lazy to get up;* здесь тепло – *it is warm here;* ему холодно – *he is cold,* or *he feels cold,* etc. On the other hand, *he is asleep* corresponds to the Russian он спит; *the ship is afloat* to the Russian судно в плавании; *the house was ablaze* to the Russian дом был в огне, etc. It follows that the phenomena which can be expressed by statives in Russian and in English, are far from being the same.

The existence of statives as a separate part of speech is not universally recognized either for the Russian or for the English language. We will not enter into details of the problems in reference to Russian but we will briefly consider some objections which have been raised against the stative as a part of speech in Modern English. L. Barkhudarov in an article published in 1958 denies the existence of statives in English on the following grounds: (1) the meaning of "state" is merely a special variety of the meaning of "property" typical of adjectives, (2) words of this category can be preceded by the word *more: more ashamed,* etc., (3) they can be modified by adverbs *(painfully alive),* by prepositional phrases *(alive with stars)* and they can be the predicative, a postpositional or detached attribute, and, less frequently, a prepositive attribute: *In the United States the problem of dealing with names of foreign extraction is an alive one.* (MCKNIGHT)

The conclusion L. Barkhudarov arrives at is that words of this type are adjectives, which of course is the traditional view. However, these arguments are not binding. They are based on several assumptions which are by no means self-evident or necessary. Thus, there is nothing to prove that the notion of "state" cannot be the foundation of a separate part of speech. Each of the theories here discussed is based on certain conceptions which pave the way to the respective conclusions. The choice should be made in favour of the one that gives a simpler and more consistent presentation of language facts.

M.Y. Blokh, T.N. Semionova, S.V. Timofeeva
Theoretical English Grammar, p. 217-222.

ADJECTIVE AND ADVERB

1. Adjective as a Part of Speech

The adjective expresses the categorial semantics of property of a substance. It means that each adjective used in the text presupposes relation to some noun

the property of whose referent it denotes, such as its material, colour, dimensions, position, state, and other characteristics both permanent and temporary. It follows from this that, unlike nouns, adjectives do not possess a full nominative value.

Adjectives are distinguished by a specific combinability with nouns, which they modify, if not accompanied by adjuncts, usually in pre-position, and occasionally in post-position; by a combinability with link-verbs, both functional and notional; by a combinability with modifying adverbs.

In the sentence the adjective performs the functions of an attribute and a predicative. Of the two, the more specific function of the adjective is that of an attribute, since the function of a predicative can be performed by the noun as well.

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

The English adjective is distinguished by the hybrid category of comparison. The ability of an adjective to form degrees of comparison is usually taken as a formal sign of its qualitative character, in opposition to a relative adjective which is understood as incapable of forming degrees of comparison by definition. However, in actual speech the described principle of distinction is not at all strictly observed.

On the one hand, adjectives can denote such qualities of substances which are incompatible with the idea of degrees of comparison. Here refer adjectives like *extinct, immobile, deaf, final, fixed,* etc.

On the other hand, many adjectives considered under the heading of relative still can form degrees of comparison, thereby, as it were, transforming the denoted relative property of a substance into such as can be graded quantitatively, e.g.: *of a military design - of a less military design - of a more military design.*

In order to overcome the demonstrated lack of rigour in the differentiation of qualitative and relative adjectives, we may introduce an additional linguistic distinction which is more adaptable to the chances of usage. The suggested distinction is based on the evaluative function of adjectives. According as they actually give some qualitative evaluation to the substance referent or only point out its corresponding native property, all the adjective functions may be grammatically divided into “evaluative” and “specificative”. In particular, one and the same adjective, irrespective of its being basically “relative” or “qualitative”, can be used either in the evaluative function or in the specificative function.

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

2. Category of Adjectival Comparison

The category of adjectival comparison expresses the quantitative characteristic of the quality of a nounal referent. The category is constituted by the opposition of the three forms known under the heading of degrees of comparison; the basic form (positive degree), having no features of comparison; the comparative degree form, having the feature of restricted superiority (which limits the comparison to two elements only); the superlative degree form, having the feature of unrestricted superiority.

Both formally and semantically, the oppositional basis of the category of comparison displays a binary nature. In terms of the three degrees of comparison, at the upper level of presentation the superiority degrees as the marked member of the opposition are contrasted against the positive degree as its unmarked member. The superiority degrees, in their turn, form the opposition of the lower level of presentation. where the comparative degree features the functionally weak member, and the superlative degree, respectively, the strong member. The whole of the double oppositional unity, considered from the semantic angle, constitutes a gradual ternary opposition.

The analytical forms of comparison, as different from the synthetic forms, are used to express emphasis, thus complementing the synthetic forms in the sphere of this important stylistic connotation. Analytical degrees of comparison are devoid of the feature of "semantic idiomatism" characteristic of some other categorial analytical forms, such as, e.g., the forms of the verbal perfect. For this reason the analytical degrees of comparison invite some linguists to call in question their claim to a categorial status in English grammar.

3. Elative Most-Construction

The *most*-combination with the indefinite article deserves special consideration. This combination is a common means of expressing elative evaluations of substance properties.

The definite article with the elative *most*-construction is also possible, if leaving the elative function less distinctly recognizable. Cf: *They gave a most spectacular show – I found myself in the most awkward situation*. The expressive nature of the elative superlative as such provides it with a permanent grammatico-stylistic status in the language. The expressive peculiarity of the form consists in the immediate combination of the two features which outwardly contradict each other: the categorial form of the superlative, on the one hand, and the absence of a comparison, on the other.

4. Less/Least-Construction

After examining the combinations of *less/least* with the basic form of the adjective we must say that they are similar to the *more/most*-combinations, and

constitute specific forms of comparison, which may be called forms of "reverse comparison". The two types of forms cannot be syntagmatically combined in one and the same form of the word, which shows the unity of the category of comparison. Thus, the whole category includes not three, but five different forms, making up the two series - respectively, direct and reverse. Of these, the reverse series of comparison (the reverse superiority degrees, or "inferiority degrees", for that matter) is of far lesser importance than the direct one, which evidently can be explained by semantic reasons.

5. Adverb as a Part of Speech

The adverb is usually defined as a word expressing either property of an action, or property of another property, or circumstances in which an action occurs. This definition, though certainly informative and instructive, fails to directly point out the relation between the adverb and the adjective as the primary qualifying part of speech.

To overcome this drawback, we should define the adverb as a notional word expressing a non-substantive property, that is, a property of a non-substantive referent. This formula immediately shows the actual correlation between the adverb and the adjective, since the adjective is a word expressing a substantive property.

In accord with their categorial semantics adverbs are characterized by a combinability with verbs, adjectives and words of adverbial nature. The functions of adverbs in these combinations consist in expressing different adverbial modifiers. Adverbs can also refer to whole situations; in this function they are considered under the heading of "situation-determinants".

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

The typical adverbial affixes in affixal derivation are, first and foremost, the basic and only productive adverbial suffix *-ly (slowly),* and then a couple of others of limited distribution, such as *-ways (sideways), -wise (clockwise), -ward(s) (homewards).* The characteristic adverbial prefix is *a- (away).* Among the adverbs there are also peculiar composite formations and phrasal formations of prepositional, conjunctional and other types: *sometimes, at least, to and fro,* etc.

Adverbs are commonly divided into qualitative, quantitative and circumstantial. Qualitative adverbs express immediate, inherently non-graded qualities of actions and other qualities. The typical adverbs of this kind are qualitative adverbs in *-ly.* E.g.: *bitterly, plainly.* The adverbs interpreted as "quantitative" include words of degree. These are specific lexical units of semi-functional nature expressing quality measure, or gradational evaluation of qualities, e.g.: of high degree: *very, quite;* of excessive degree: *too, awfully;* of unexpected degree: *surprisingly;* of moderate degree: *relatively;* of low degree: *a little;* of approximate degree: *almost;*

of optimal degree: *adequately;* of inadequate degree: *unbearably;* of under-degree/ *hardly.* Circumstantial adverbs are divided into functional and notional.

The functional circumstantial adverbs are words of pronominal nature. Besides quantitative (numerical) adverbs they include adverbs of time, place, manner, cause, consequence. Many of these words are used as syntactic connectives and question-forming functional. Here belong such words as *now, here, when, where, so, thus, how, why,* etc. As for circumstantial notional adverbs, they include adverbs of time *(today, never, shortly)* and adverbs of place *(homeward(s), near, ashore).* The two varieties express a general idea of temporal and spacial orientation and essentially perform deictic (indicative) functions in the broader sense. On this ground they may be united under the general heading of "orientative" adverbs.

Thus, the whole class of adverbs will be divided, first, into nominal and pronominal, and the nominal adverbs will be subdivided into qualitative and orientative, the former including genuine qualitative adverbs and degree adverbs, the latter falling into temporal and local adverbs, with further possible subdivisions of more detailed specifications.

As is the case with adjectives, this lexemic subcategorization of adverbs should be accompanied by a more functional and flexible division into evaluative and specificative, connected with the categorial expression of comparison. Each adverb subject to evaluational grading by degree words expresses the category of comparison, much in the same way as adjectives do. Thus, not only qualitative, but also orientative adverbs, proving they come under the heading of evaluative, are included into the categorial system of comparison, e.g.: *ashore – more ashore – most ashore – less ashore – least ashore.*

Quirk R., Qreenbaum S., Leech Q., Svartvik J.
A University Grammar of English.

ADJECTIVES

5.1. Characteristics of the Adjective

We cannot tell whether a word is an adjective by looking at it in isolation: the form does not necessarily indicate its syntactic function. Some suffixes are indeed found only with adjectives, e.g.: -ous, but many common adjectives have no identifying shape, e.g.: good, hot, little, young, fat. Nor can we identify a word as an adjective merely considering what inflections or affixes it will allow. [...]

5.2.

Most adjectives can be both attributive and predicative, but some are either attributive only or predicative only.

Two other features usually apply to adjectives:

Most can be premodified by the intensifier "very", e.g.: *The children are very happy.*

Most can take comparative and superlative forms. The comparison may be by means of inflections, e.g.: "The children are happier now", "They are the happiest people I know" or by the addition of the premodifiers "more" and "most" (periphrastic comparison), e.g.: "These students are more intelligent", "They are the most beautiful paintings I have ever seen." [...]

5.4.

Adjectives can sometimes be postpositive, i.e. they can sometimes follow the item they modify. A postposed adjective (together with any complementation it may have) can usually be regarded as a reduced relative clause.

Indefinite pronouns ending in *-body, -one, -thing, -where* can be modified only postpositively: *I want to try on something larger (i.e. "which is large").*

Postposition is obligatory for a few adjectives, which have a different sense when they occur attributively or predicatively. The most common are probably "elect" ("soon to take office") and "proper" ("as strictly defined"), as in: "the president *elect",* "the City of London *proper*". In several compounds (mostly legal or quasi-legal) the adjective is postposed, the most common being: *attorney general, body politic, court martial, heir apparent, notary public (AmE), postmaster general.*

Postposition (in preference to attributive position) is usual for a few a-adjectives and for "absent", "present", "concerned", "involved", which normally do not occur attributively in the relevant sense:

The house ablaze is next door to mine.

The people involved were not found.

Some postposed adjectives, especially those ending in "-able" or "-ible", retain the basic meaning they have in attributive position but convey the implication that what they are denoting has only a temporary application. Thus, *the star visible* refers to stars that are visible at a time specified or implied, while *the visible stars* refers to a category of stars that can (at appropriate times) be seen.

If an adjective is alone or premodified merely by an intensifier, postposition is normally not allowed. [...]

[...] Common a-adjectives are: *ablaze, afloat, afraid, aghast, alert, alike, alive, alone, aloof, ashamed, asleep, averse, awake, aware.*

Note (a) "Alert" and "aloof" are freely used attributively. Some of the other a-adjectives occasionally function attributively, though normally only when they are modified: *the half-asleep children, a somewhat afraid soldier, a really alive student ("lively"), a very ashamed girl.* (b) Some a-adjectives freely take comparison and premodification by "very", e.g.: *afraid, alert, alike, aloof, ashamed, averse.*

Others do so marginally, e.g.: *asleep and awake.* "Alive to" in the sense "aware of can be premodified by "very" and compared. Some of the a-adjectives, like many verbs, can also be premodified by "very much" (particularly *afraid, alike, ashamed, aware),* and "aware" can be premodified by "(very) well" too.

Francis W.N. The Structure
of American English

ADJECTIVES

The primary defining or identifying quality of adjectives is their exclusive ability to fit into both the environments left blank in a structure such as:

the ... man seems very ...

To avoid lexical incompatibility, the noun and noun-determiner in this pattern may be varied without affecting the structure. Likewise, the verb may be replaced by "is", "becomes", "looks", and certain similar verbs from a limited list. Thus, the framework identifies as adjectives all of the various underlined words in the following sentences:

this strong man is very strong
his uncomfortable position is very uncomfortable
the relaxed spectator looks very relaxed
the self-centered girl seems very self-centered
any interesting story sounds very interesting

These two positions may be described as (1) between noun-determiner and noun, and (2) immediately following the function word "very" (or some other *qualifier* from a list to be given shortly), which in turn follows a verb of the *linking* or *copulative* type, which we shall define when we come to consider structures of complementation. In order to qualify as an adjective, a word must be able to fit both these positions.

If we adopt this frame as the defining criterion of adjectives, we must accept the consequences. Two of these may bother the reader accustomed to classifications of the traditional grammar. The first is that some words customary considered adjectives do not fit the pattern; thus *chief* and *main* can fill the first position but not the second, while *alive* and *alone* can fill the second position but not the first. Thus, we can say:

the chief man is very alive (though many would prefer "very much alive"), but we cannot say:

**the alive man is very chief*

A bit of study will lead us to the conclusion that these words do not need to be classed as adjectives. Thus, *chief* and *main* are nouns which behave exactly like the noun *head,* or in more colloquial speech, *boss* or *top.* On the other hand, *alive* and

alone are adverbs, functioning just like *abroad, away, along,* etc. There are a few adjectives, such as *sole* and *unique,* which do not fit the second position because they are lexically incompatible with the qualifier "very". But if we substitute *quite* for *very,* they fit the second position quite satisfactorily.

The other problem concerns the last three of our examples, which have the suffixes [-t, -d] and [-in], already identified as inflectional suffixes of verbs. At first glance, it would seem that there is no formal distinction between these adjectives as the {-ed$_2$} (past-participle) and {-ing,} (present-participle) inflections of verbs. But again closer scrutiny reveals that though true participles may fit the first of our adjective positions, they will not fit the second. They cannot follow the qualifier "very", or, indeed, any other qualifier. Thus we can say "the running horse" but not "the horse is very running". Likewise, we can say "the murdered man" but not "the man is very (rather, quite) murdered". On the other hand, these participles can occupy a position almost never occupied by adjectives alone: the position immediately after a noun. Thus, we can say both "a running horse" and "a horse running"; both "the murdered man" and "the man murdered". But we cannot say "a girl charming" or "the man tired". Clearly, then, there is a sharp distinction on the basis of word order between adjectives and the verb-inflections called participles. Therefore we identify the adjective-forming suffixes [-t, -d, -id] and [-in], as distinct morphemes, which we can call {-ed$_3$} and {-ing$_3$} ({-ing$_2$} is a derivational suffix of nouns) to distinguish them from homonymous inflectional and derivational suffixes. Later on we shall note some other formal distinctions between adjectives and participles.

When we come to examine the other formal criteria which help to mark adjectives, we find that we must immediately recognize two large subclasses, which between them include all but a very few adjectives. These subclasses may be called *base adjectives* and *derived adjectives.*

BASE ADJECTIVES. This class includes those adjectives which, in addition to fitting both positions in the adjective-identifying frame, also exhibit the following formal qualities:

(1) Base adjectives take the inflectional suffixes {-er} and {-est} to form the comparative and superlative degrees. These suffixes are seldom sufficient by themselves to identify adjectives, since the principal allomorph of {-er}, [-□], is phonemically identical with the noun-forming derivational suffix {-er} (spelled variously-er, *-or, -ar, -our),* and the principal allomorph of {-est} may in some dialects, at least, be phonemically identical with the noun-forming derivational suffix {-ist}. Thus, in isolation we cannot tell whether *blinder, sharper,* and *cooler,* for instance, are nouns or adjectives. They may even be ambiguous in short phrases like "the blinder bats", "the sharper cheats", or "the cooler ices". Similarly, [hjum□nist] may be either the adjective "humanest" or the noun "humanist", though it is hard

to imagine a context in which they might be confused. The following might serve as a facetious example:

Of the deist, the theist, and the humanist, the humanist is humanest.

This is hardly a sentence one is likely to encounter very often.

As we might expect, some morphophonemic changes occur when these inflections are added to base adjectives. Most familiar to all speakers of English is the suppletion which occurs in the following paradigmatic sets:

good	*better*	*best*
bad	*worse*	*worst*

(2) Base adjectives are also distinguished formally by the fact that they serve as stems from which nouns and adverbs are formed by the derivational suffixes {-ness} and {-ly}. (Some, but not all, derived adjectives also use both these suffixes.) This gives us a derivational paradigm of great importance in English, as illustrated by the following examples:

adjective	**noun**	**adverb**
strange	strangeness	strangely
black	blackness	blackly
false	falseness	falsely
bad	badness	badly
good	goodness	well

Note that in the last case the force of paradigm leads us to class "well" as a suppletive equivalent of "*goodly".

Some other variations on this paradigm might also be noted here. For instance, some base adjectives use other derivational suffixes besides {-ness} to form nouns. But in virtually all such cases the noun in {-ness} is also used, though sometimes in a specialized meaning or as so-called *nonce-word. {Nonce-word* is a term made up by the editors of the Oxford Dictionary to describe words coined *for the nonce,* that is, to fit an immediate situation. In a way, every newly coined word is at first a nonce-word; it only remains such, however, if it is not taken up and given further use by other speakers. The same form may be a nonce-word many times, if each person to whom it occurs to coin the word is unaware of previous nonce-uses by other people. The result is a situation that can be represented as in the table below. An interesting by-product of this table is the obvious complementary distribution of the noun-forming derivational suffixes {-th} and {-ity}. Historical linguistics supplies a simple explanation of this: the adjectives which form nouns in {-th} are of native (Anglo-Saxon) stock, while those that form nouns in {-ity} are ultimately from Latin, borrowed into English either directly or by way of French.

There are a few base adjectives besides "good" which do not form adverbs in {-ly} *small, little, long, fast, ill, hard* (*hardly* is best considered as a function word). A few more have related adverbs both in {-ly,} and without any suffix at all, hence identical with the adjective (the so-called "flat" adverbs): *slow, quick, soft, clean.*

Base Adjectives	Noun in *-ness*	Adverb in *-ly*	Noun in *-th*	Noun in *-ity*	Other Nouns
dead	deadness	deadly	death		
true	trueness	truly	truth		
young	youngness	youngly	youth		
deep	deepness	deeply	depth		deep
sane	saneness	sanely		sanity	
sober	soberness	soberly		sobriety	
rare	rareness	rarely		rarity	
safe	safeness	safely		safety	safe
human	humanness	humanly	humanity	human	
clear	clearness	clearly		clarity	clearing, clear
hot	hotness	hotly			heat
cold	coldness	coldly			cold
green	greenness	greenly			green

(3) Most base adjectives are of one syllable, and none have more than two syllables except a few that begin with a derivational prefix like {un-}: *uncommon, inhuman.*

(4) A fair number of base adjectives form verbs by adding the derivational suffix {-en,}, the prefix {en-}, or both: *brighten, cheapen, enlarge, embitter, enlighten, enliven.*

DERIVED ADJECTIVES. The other large class of adjectives, the *derived adjectives,* are those which are formed by the addition of adjective-forming suffixes to free or bound stems. There is a relatively large number of these suffixes, and the resulting array of adjectives is much larger than the class of base adjectives. The relative frequency of the two types varies a great deal from one type of discourse to another. Ordinary speech and simple prose tend to have few adjectives of any sort, with a preponderance of base adjectives; formal, technical, or "highbrow" speech and writing use more adjectives, with the derived type predominating. [...]

Some of the more important suffixes which form derived adjectives are the following:

{-y}, added to one- and two-syllable nouns and bound stems, as in *faulty, leafy, healthy, rickety, holy.*

{-al}, added to nouns and bound stems: *fatal, natural, national, traditional, local, physical, racial.*

{-able}, added to verbs and bound stems. This very common suffix is a *live* one which can be added to virtually any verb, thus giving rise to many new coinages and nonce-words. Since it is the descendant of an active derivational suffix in Latin, it also appears as part of many words borrowed from Latin or French. Examples formed from verbs: *remarkable, understandable, adaptable, conceivable;* examples formed from bound stems: *viable, portable, capable, terrible, visible.* Many words of both groups have related nouns formed by adding {-ity} to a special allomorph of {-able}: *adaptability, capability, visibility.*

{-ful} and {-less}, added to nouns: *hopeful, hopeless, useful, useless, plentiful, penniless.*

{-ar}, {-ary}, {-ic}, {-ish$_2$}, and {-ous}, added to nouns and bound stems: *columnar, popular, regular, legendary, literary, climatic, comic, childish, lavish, marvelous, pernicious.*

{-ent} and {-ive}, added to verbs and bound stems: *abhorrent, significant, convenient, active, native, impulsive.*

{-en$_2$}, added to nouns: *woolen, waxen, oaken.* [...]

{-ed$_3$}, added to verbs, nouns and some bound stems. This suffix has three allomorphs, [-t, -d, -id], distributed on the whole like the regular allomorphs of the verb-inflectional suffixes {-ed$_1$} and {-ed$_2$}. There are some exceptions, however, notably a group which has [-id] instead of the expected [-d] after voiced consonants other than [d]: *raged, beloved, rugged, aged, learned.* Other examples of {-ed$_3$} added to nouns are *garlanded, overcoated, booted, flowered.* Sometimes an adjective modifier of the noun stem is included in the structure, producing elaborate compound derivatives like *old-fashioned, long-tailed, ruddy-countenanced,* and so on. Examples of this suffix added to verbs are *tired, bored, complicated, devoted.* As adjectives these are distinguished from homophonous verb-inflections by the fact that they may follow the various qualifiers but may not come after the nouns they modify.

{-ing$_3$}, added to verbs: *interesting, exciting, revealing, tiring, pleasing.* These are distinguished from homophonous verb-inflections (present participles) by their ability to follow qualifiers and by the fact that a noun denoting the receiver of the action named by the stem appears before the derived adjective but after the present participle. A few contrasting examples will make clear this difference between verbs and adjectives in [-in]:

Verbs	**Adjectives**
a man eating fish	a man-eating tiger
a job killing chickens	a soul-killing job
a speech rousing the rabble	a rabble-rousing speech
he was boring his friends	he was very boring to them

{-ly$_2$}> added to nouns and some bound stems. This is distinguished from the adverb-forming suffix {-ly,} by the fact that its stems are nouns and bound stems, while the stems from which adverbs are formed are adjectives. The following examples illustrate the contrast:

Adjectives	**Adverbs**
Noun or Base + {-ly$_2$}	**Adjective + {-ly$_1$}**
friendly	widely
orderly	crazily
homely	formally
mannerly	remarkably
ugly	exceedingly

Apparent exceptions to this rule are the adjectives *goodly, deadly,* and *lively,* and the adverbs *early, chiefly,* and *mainly.*

In addition to being marked by derivational suffixes, derived adjectives contrast with base adjectives in the fact that they virtually never have the inflectional suffixes {-er} and {-est} except for some two-syllable ones *like friendly.* (Derived adjectives are sometimes given the inflected forms for humorous effect, as in the "Curiouser and curiouser" of *Alice in Wonderland.)* Their comparative and superlative degrees are formed instead by the use of qualifiers *more* and *most.* They may however, form nouns in {-ness} and virtually all of them form adverbs in {-ly,}, including even some of those which themselves end in {-ly$_2$}.[...]

ADJECTIVE QUALIFIERS. We have already had occasion to allude more than once to the important group of function words which we have called *qualifiers.* These words, usually classed as adverbs in traditional grammar, appear immediately before an adjective (or in two cases immediately after) and have the function of indicating the degree to which the meaning of the adjective is applicable. The principal qualifiers common to most dialects of English are the following:

very	somewhat	more	indeed
quite	a bit	most	enough
rather	a little	less	
pretty	so	least	
mighty	too		

In addition to these, *real* and *awful* are common qualifiers in all but the most formal spoken English, though they appear less frequently in writing. Various regional and social dialects also use *that, some, right, plenty, wonderful, powerful,* as well as *darn(ed), damn(ed),* and other "swear words", shading off into those usually considered unprintable.

Since virtually all these qualifiers can appear with adverbs as well as with adjectives, they cannot serve as adjective-determiners. Some of them exhibit peculiarities of distribution which can only be touched on here, since we have not

space for a complete list. Thus, we may mention that *more* and *most* commonly appear only with derived adjectives, since base adjectives use the inflected forms for the comparative and superlative. The qualifier *enough* always follows the adjective with which it appears except when the adjective is a base adjective in the comparative degree; compare the following two sentences:

the music was loud enough

the music was enough louder so that it could be heard

On the other hand, the qualifier *indeed may* either precede or follow its adjective:

the music was loud indeed

the music was indeed loud

When an adjective is in the comparative degree, whether the inflected comparative with {-er} or the phrasal comparative formed with "more", the list of qualifiers that may be used with it is different from the list given above, though there is some overlapping [...]:

rather	*much*	*a good deal*
somewhat	*lots*	*a great deal*
no	*a (whole) lot*	*a little*
still	*a (good) bit*	*even*

As in the case of the other qualifiers, dialects supply further forms, such as *a heap, heaps, a touch, a mite, (a) way, some, that,* as well as "swear words" forms and many others. [...]

SUMMING-UP QUESTIONS

1. What are the "part of speech" properties of the adjective?
2. What are the semantic subclasses of adjectives?
3. What does the specific adjectival combinability find its expression in?
4. What is the lexico-grammatical status of "stone-wall" constructions?
5. What is substantivisation? Why can adjectives be converted into nouns?
6. What does the category of adjectival comparison express?
7. What are the grammatical means of its expression?
8. Are the formations "more beautiful", "most beautiful" analytical forms or free word combinations?
9. What are the "part of speech" properties of states?
10. What are the other names for such words as "asleep", "afraid", "alive"?

Chapter 5. THE VERB: FINITE FORMS

B.S. Khaimovich, B.I. Rogovskaya
A Course In English Grammar, p. 117-157.

THE VERB

§ 188. As a part of speech the verb is characterized by the following properties:

1) Its lexico-grammatical meaning of 'action, process'.

2) Certain typical stem-building elements, such as the suffixes *-ize, -en, -ify,* the prefixes *re-, under-, over-, out-; super-, sub-, mis-, un-,* the lexico-grammatical word-morphemes *up, in, off, down, out, etc.*

3) Its grammatical categories; out of the eight categories of the verb system three are found not only in the finites, but in the verbids as well. Two of them – *voice (asks – is asked, to ask – to be asked, asking – being asked)* and *order (asks – has asked, to ask – to have asked, asking – having asked)* – are found in all the verbids, and the third – *aspect (asks – is asking, to ask – to be asking)* – in the infinitive.

4) Its characteristic combinability: a verb can be associated with nouns (noun-equivalents) denoting the doer (agent) and the recipient of the action expressed by the verb; it is regularly modified by adverbs.

E.g. They continued their own occupations: a woman ironing, a girl sewing, the old lady looking at her feet, and the dog watching the cat closely. (Green).

Some peculiarities of the combinability of various classes of verbs will be discussed later on.

5) Its syntactical function of the predicate (incident to the finites only). The verbids have other functions, but they are secondary predicates in secondary predications.

§ 189. As we know, it is the stem that unites words into lexemes. Therefore, though stem-structure is not a reliable criterion for distinguishing parts of speech, it can show whether certain words belong to the same lexeme or not. Now finites and the corresponding verbids have identical stem-structure, which characterizes them as words of the same lexemes, in spite of certain differences in combinability, function, etc. Cf. *gives – giving, gives up – giving up, nationalizes – nationalizing, whitewashes – whitewashing,* etc.

In accordance with their stem-structure verbs, like other parts of speech, fall under the following groups.

a) Simple verbs *(write, know, love).*

b) Derived verbs *(organize, rewrite, purify, underestimate).*

N o t e. Among the stem-building affixes of the verbs prefixes are of greater importance than suffixes. There is but one productive stem-building verbal suffix *(-ize),* while productive prefixes are more numerous *(re-, un-, over-, under-, mis-, de-,* etc.).

Sound-interchange is unproductive *(food – feed, blood – bleed),* so is the change of stress, as in *export* – (to) *export, transport – (to) transport.*

The most productive way of forming verb lexemes is conversion: *(a) book – (to) book, (a) man – (to) man, better – (to) better.*

c) Compound verbs consisting of two stems, as in *(to) broadcast, (to) white-wash, (to) blindfold.*

N o t e. Composition is of low productivity in the class of verbs.

d) Composite verbs – made up of a verb with a lexico-grammatical word-morpheme attached to it, as in *give up, give in, take off, put on.* This way of forming verbs is productive.

§ 190. The lexico-grammatical meaning of the verb is, as usual, an abstraction from the individual lexical meanings of verbs and even from the more general lexical meanings of whole groups of verbs. Thus, the verbs *to stand, to sleep, to suffer,* etc. denote states rather than actions, but these states are presented as processes developing in time, and come therefore within the range of the lexico-grammatical meaning of the verb.

§ 191. The combinability of the verb is closely linked with its lexico-grammatical meaning. Denoting an action, the verb is naturally associated with nouns and noun-equivalents indicating the doer or the subject of the action.

E.g. B i r d s fly. He was asked by the teacher. I heard of T o m 's coming tonight.

The examples above are intended to show the difference between the subject of an action and the subject as a part of the sentence. Only in the first sentence is the subject (doer) of the action of flying denoted by a noun used as the subject of the sentence. In the second sentence the subject of the action of asking is denoted by the noun *teacher* which is a part of the prepositional object. In the third sentence the subject of the action of coming is denoted by a noun *(Tom's)* used as an attribute.

Many verbs can also be associated with a noun (or a noun-equivalent) denoting the object of the action.

E.g. He threw a s t o n e. The l e t t e r sent two days ago has reached him only today.

Here again the object of the action is something different from the object as a part of the sentence. In the first sentence the object of the action of throwing is denoted by the noun *stone* functioning as a direct object. In the second sentence

the noun *letter* denotes the object of the action of sending and the subject of the action of reaching.

§ 192. Before discussing the grammatical categories we shall consider some general classifications of verbs based on their formal, semantical and functional properties, viz. the division of verbs into standard and non-standard, notional and semi-notional, subjective and objective, terminative and non-terminative.

Though not based on grammatical meanings and categories, these classifications and the terms they involve will come in useful when we discuss the categories themselves and the functioning of verb grammemes in speech.

§ 193. *Write, writes, wrote, writing, written* are all the synthetic forms the lexeme contains. For short, we shall call them the forms of the 'infinitive', 'present', 'past', 'participle I' and 'participle II' respectively. The form of the stem coincides with the form of the 'infinitive' /rait-/. The form of the 'past' is related with that of the stem by vowel change /ai > ou/. The form of 'participle II' is related with the form of the stem by vowel change /ai > i/ and affixation /-n/.

The lexeme *ask, asks, asked, asking,* etc. contains only four synthetic forms. The forms of the 'past' and 'participle II' coincide *(asked)* and are correlated with the form of the stem by affixation alone, the suffix being /-t/.

The overwhelming majority of English verbs resemble the verb *ask* and are therefore called ***standard*** or ***regular***. The form of the suffix may be /-t/, /-d/ or /-id/ depending on the final sound of the stem.

Some two hundred verbs deviate from the standard verbs and are called ***non-standard*** *or* ***irregular***. They do not present a uniform group. Some of them resemble the verb *write (speak, drive, eat,* etc.). Others form the 'past' and 'participle II' without affixation *(cut, put, shed,* etc.). Still others use both vowel and consonant change and affixation to form the 'past' *(teach, buy).* Some make use of suppletivity (*go*, *be*).

As we see, the difference between the standard and the non-standard verbs is purely formal. We should therefore call this classification ***formal*** rather than ***morphological*** as the tradition goes.

§ 194. Semantically verbs divide into notional and semi-notional.

Note: Some linguists speak also of a third group, **auxiliary verbs**, completely devoid of lexical meaning, as, for instance, *has* in *has written.* As shown, they are words in form only. As to their meaning and function they are grammatical morphemes, parts of analytical words. Hence the name grammatical ***word-morphemes***.

The majority of English verbs are **notional**, i.e. possessing full lexical meaning. Connected with it is their **isolatability**, i.e. the ability to make a sentence alone *(Cornet Read!).* Their combinability is **variable**.

Semi-notional verbs have very general, "faded" lexical meanings, as in *be, have, become, seem, can, may, must,* etc., where the meaning of 'action' is almost

obliterated. Semi-notional verbs are hardly isolatable. Their combinability is usually bilateral as they serve to connect words in speech. They are comparatively few in number, but of very frequent occurrence, and include two peculiar groups: **link-verbs** and **modal verbs**.

§ 195. Some authors treat link-verbs as altogether bereft of all lexical meaning. If it were so, there would be no difference between *He is old, He seems old, He becomes old,* since *is, seems, becomes* convey the same grammatical meanings.

The combinability of link-verbs is different from that of notional verbs.

a) It is for the most part bilateral since a link-verb usually connects two words. In this respect it somewhat resembles the combinability of prepositions and conjunctions.

E.g. I want him to be honest.

b) Link-verbs form combinations with words and word-groups which are but seldom attached to notional verbs (adlinks, adjectives, certain prepositional groups – *in debt, at a loss,* etc.)

Very often grammarians speak only of finite link-verbs used as parts of predicates forgetting about the corresponding verbids which occur in other functions and prove that link-verbs are not just a syntactical class of verbs. Cf. *John being late, we had to put off the trip. His dream of becoming a pilot ... ,* etc.

In Modern English an ever greater number of notional verbs are used with a linking function, so that they may be called ***notional links.***

E.g. The sun r o s e red (Cf. The sun w a s red). *He l a y asleep.* (Cf. He w a s asleep).

§ 196. Modal verbs are characterized:

1) By their peculiar modal meanings. The meaning of 'action, process' common to all verbs is scarcely felt, being suppressed by the meanings of 'ability, necessity, permission' to perform an action denoted by some other verb.

2) By their peculiar combinability. It is bilateral like that of link-verbs, but unlike link-verbs which can attach words of different classes, modal verbs can be followed by infinitives only.

You m u s t stay here. He o u g h t to have come. I h a v e to be moving.

3) By their syntactical function. Having no verbids, they are used only as predicates.

§ 197. As in the case of other parts of speech variants of the same verb lexeme may belong to different subclasses. The verb *grow* in the meanings 'develop', 'increase in size', etc. belongs to the subclass of notional verbs.

E.g. How quickly you are g r o w i n g! (Hornby).

In the meaning 'become' it belongs to the link verbs.

E.g. He is g r o w i n g old.

When the verb *have* means 'possess', it is a notional verb.

E.g. How much money h a v e you?

When it expresses obligation, need or necessity, it is a modal verb.

E.g. The Englishman h a d to make the best of the situation. (Bennett).

§ 198. Verbs are divided into **subjective** and **objective,** depending upon their combinability with words denoting the subjects and the objects of the actions they name.

Objective verbs are mostly associated with two nouns (or noun equivalents) denoting the subject and the object of the action named by the verb. Subjective verbs are associated only with nouns (noun-equivalents) denoting the subject of the action.

In the sentence *She sat up and kissed him fairly.* (Ib.) the verb *kissed* is an objective verb because it is associated with the pronoun *she* denoting the subject of the action of kissing and with the pronoun *him* denoting the object of the same action. The verb *sat up* is a subjective verb since it is associated only with the pronoun *she* denoting the subject of the action.

In the sentence *You are interfering with him.* (Ib.) the verb *are interfering* is also objective because it is associated with the pronoun *him* denoting the object of the action of interfering. But there is some difference between the two verbs in *kissing him* and *interfering with him.* The first verb is associated with the word denoting the object of the action (for the sake of brevity we shall call it 'object word') directly, the second verb is connected with the object word by means of a preposition.

Objective verbs that are connected with their object words directly are called ***transitive*** verbs. All the other verbs, both subjective and objective, are called ***intransitive.***

The correlation of **subjective – objective** verbs, on the one hand, and **transitive – intransitive,** on the other, can be seen from the drawing.

OBJECTIVE	SUBJECTIVE
TRANSITIVE	INTRANSITIVE

§ 199. The bilateral combinability of objective verbs with subject words and object words is not always realized in speech. In cases like *The sacred white cat has been stolen* (Shaw) the subject-word connections are not realized. This occurs only with passive voice grammemes.

In sentences like *The train was waiting* (Abrahams), *He never reads in the morning* the object-word connections are not realized and such cases are treated as the absolute use of objective verbs.

§ 200. As usual, variants of a verb lexeme may belong to different subclasses.

Cf. *He o p e n e d the door* (objective, transitive).

The door o p e n e d (intransitive, subjective).

A d d some more water (objective, transitive).

The music a d d e d to our enjoyment (objective, intransitive).

The figures would not a d d (intransitive, subjective).

§201. Verbs can be classified in accordance with the aspective nature of their lexical meanings into **terminative** and **non-terminative**.

Terminative verbs denote actions which cannot develop beyond a certain inherent limit. The actions denoted by non-terminative verbs have no inherent limits.

Compare the two sentences:

He was c a r r y i n g a box on his shoulders. (Hornby).

Take this empty box away and b r i n g me a full one. (Ib.).

The verbs *to carry* and *to bring* may denote the same kind of action. But *carry* does not imply any time or space limits when or where the action would naturally stop, while *bring* does. So *carry* is a non-terminative verb and *bring* is a terminative one. *Live, love, stand, sit, work, walk,* etc. are non-terminative verbs. *Come, take, stand up, sit down,* etc. are terminative verbs.

§ 202. As usual, variants of the same lexeme may belong to different subclasses. When meaning '(to) engage in physical or mental activity' the verb *(to) work* is non-terminative.

E.g. I've been w o r k i n g hard all day. (Hornby).

But when *(to) work* means 'to produce as a result', it is terminative.

E.g. The storm w o r k e d great ruin. (Ib.).

THE CATEGORY OF VOICE

§ 203. The category of voice is the system of two-member opposemes *(loves – is loved, loving – being loved, to love – to be loved, has loved – has been loved,* etc.) which show whether the action is represented as issuing from its subject ***(the active voice)*** or as experienced by its object ***(the passive voice).***

This may be shown graphically as follows:

Active voice	the subject of the action	Action →
	John	*loves.*
Passive voice	the object of the action	Action ←
	John	*is loved.*

§ 204. Voce is one of those categories which show the close connection between language and speech. A voice opposeme is a unit of the **language** system, but the essential difference between its members is in their combinability in **speech**. The 'active voice' member has obligatory connections with subject words and optional ones with object words. The 'passive voice' member, on the contrary, forms obligatory combinations with object words and optional ones with subject words.

Cf. *He loves (her).*
She is loved (by him).
I want John to read (the letter).
I want the letter to be read (by John).

The category of voice also shows the links between morphology and syntax. Being a morphological category, voice often manifests syntactical relations. The voice opposites of finites indicate whether the subject of the sentence denotes the doer or the recipient of the action.

Cf. *She asked ...* and *She was asked.*

§ 205. With regard to the category of voice verbs divide into those that have voice opposites and those which have not. The second subclass comprises subjective verbs and some objective verbs denoting actions of weak dynamic force (in which the meaning of 'action' is hardly felt) like *belong, become* ('be suitable'), *befit, befall, cost, fail, lack, last, misgive, own, possess, resemble,* etc.

Still, when comparing the subjective verb *stands* with the two voice opposites *writes – is written,* we see that *stands* resembles the 'active voice' member of the opposeme by its synthetic form *(write-s, stand-s)* and by its regular connection with the subject word. Cf. *He stands and writes* (not *is written).*

Therefore subjective verbs can be treated as united by the oblique (lexico-grammatical, potential) meaning of 'active voice'.

§ 206. The content of all voice opposemes is the same: two particular meanings of 'active' and 'passive' voice united by the general meaning of 'voice'. All the other meanings found in both members of the opposeme are irrelevant within the opposeme.

The forms of voice opposemes seem to differ considerably. In the opposeme *ask – am asked* the 'active' member has a zero grammatical morpheme and the 'passive' member has a complicated positive morpheme /-aem... -t/. In *asks – is asked* both members have positive grammatical morphemes /-s/ and/-iz ... -t/. In *will ask – will be asked* the forms of the grammatical morphemes are still more complicated. But this variety of form can be generalized if we exclude everything that expresses other meanings than those of 'voice'. Then the 'active' member can be regarded as unmarked and the 'passive' member as marked by the combination of one of the words of the lexeme *be* used as a grammatical word-morpheme and the grammatical morpheme of participle II, in formulaic representation *be + -en* (Cf. *to write – to be written, writing – being written).*

§ 207. One of the most difficult problems connected with the category of voice is the problem of participle II, the most essential part of all 'passive voice' grammemes. The fact is that participle II has a 'passive' meaning not only when used with the word-morpheme *be,* but also when used alone. Thus, participle I *writing* seems to have two 'passive' opposites: *being written* and *written.*

Participle II has also a 'perfect' meaning, not only when used with the word-morpheme *have (have written, having written)* but when employed alone, too. Thus, the participle *fading* seems to have two 'perfect' opposites, *having faded* and *faded.*

E.g. The train moved ... – setting East – g o i n g – g o i n g – g o n e! (Galsworthy), where *gone* is used as the 'perfect' opposite of *going.*

Owing to the combination of the two meanings ('passive' and 'perfect') *written* cannot be regarded as the 'passive' opposite of *writing* which has no 'perfect' meaning. As we know, the members of an opposeme distinguish only the particular meanings of the category they represent. Consequenty, the meanings of participle II are not grammatical meanings. They are not lexical either, since they do not belong to the stem of the lexeme. So research is needed to establish the nature of these meanings.

The 'perfect' meaning of participle II is felt in terminative verbs, and the 'passive' meaning in objective verbs.

§ 208. Participle II may have left-hand connections with link-verbs.

E. g. The young woman's face became i l l u m i n e d by a smile. (Galsworthy). *I always took it for granted that when one got married, one was married for good.* (Iles).

The combination of words thus formed is often homonymous with a 'passive voice' verb, as in *His duty is f u l f i l l e d.*

The group is *fulfilled* cannot be treated as the passive voice opposite of *fulfils* since.

It does not convey the idea of action, but that of state, the result of an action.

The sentence corresponds rather to *He has fulfilled his duty* than to *He fulfils his duty,* as the perfective meaning of participle II is particularly prominent.

§ 209. Some linguists are against this interpretation. According to L.S. Barkhudarov and D.A. Shteling, the combination *be* + participle II should in all cases be treated as a 'passive voice' form on the ground that participle II is, first and foremost, a verb, the idea of state not being incident to this structure, but resulting from the lexical meaning of the verb and the context it occurs in.

Likewise, G.N. Vorontsova maintains that the passive form expresses either an action in its development or an action as an accomplished fact. In both cases we deal with the passive voice.

However, this theory cannot explain the absence of an active equivalent to *As my work i s f i n i s h e d, I am free to go.*

As shown by A.I. Smirnitsky, *The table is made of wood* has no corresponding parallel with an active meaning.

It is also not clear why other link-verbs may form combinations with participle II and the most frequent link-verb *be* cannot.

Cf. *to s e e m forgotten, to l o o k forgotten, to b e forgotten.*

Examples like *I was concealed and motionless* (Wells), where participle II is coordinated with an adjective, prove its combinability with the link-verb *be.*

§ 210. The opposite extreme is to regard the combination of various link-verbs with participle II as analytical forms of the passive voice. G.N. Vorontsova objects to Curme's idea of *become* as a 'passive' auxiliary, but her own insistence on *get* as such an auxiliary is not much more justified. The verb *influence* cannot have two (or more) 'passive voice' opposites *(be influenced, get influenced, become influenced).* These "opposites" must differ either lexically or grammatically. In the first case *get* and *become* are not word-morphemes. In the second case there must be several 'passive voices'. In our opinion the first is true. *Become* and *get* always retain some of their lexical meaning. *Get* usually introduces a peculiar sense of an activity or achievement on the part of the object of the action (Cf. *He was appointed to the post* and *He got appointed to the post).*

§ 211. Opinions differ as to the voice system of Modern English. Though most linguists, apparently, recognize only two voices in Modern English – the active voice and the passive voice, some speak also of the reflexive voice (or neuter-reflexive) expressed with the help of the semantically weakened *self*-pronouns, as in *He cut himself while shaving.*

Besides the three voices mentioned above, B.A. Ilyish finds two more voices in Modern English – 'the reciprocal' voice expressed with the help of *each other, one another* and 'the neuter' ('middle') voice as seen in *The door opened, The numbers would not add, The words formed in his head, The college was filling up,* etc.

These theories do not carry much conviction:

In cases like *He washed himself* it is not the verb that is reflexive but the pronoun *himself* used as a direct object.

Washed and *himself* are words belonging to different lexemes. They have different lexical and grammatical meanings.

If we regard *washed himself* as an analytical word, it is necessary to admit that the verb has the categories of gender *(washed himself – washed herself),* person – non-person *(washed himself – washed itself),* that the categories of number and person are expressed twice in the word *washes himself,* etc.

Similar objections can be raised against regarding *washed each other, washed one another* as analytical forms of the reciprocal voice. The difference between 'each other' and 'one another' would become a grammatical category of the verb.

A number of verbs express the 'reflexive' and 'reciprocal' meanings without the corresponding pronouns.

E.g. He always washes in cold water. Kiss and b e friends.

Different meanings of *open, add,* etc. have already been treated.

THE CATEGORY OF ORDER (TIME CORRELATION)

§ 212. The category of order is a system of two-member opposemes, such as *writes – has written, wrote – had written, writing – having written, to be written – to have been written,* etc. showing whether the action is viewed as prior to ('perfect'), or irrespective of ('non-perfect'), ether actions or situations. The interpretation of this category belongs to the most controversial problems of English grammar.

§ 213. Linguists disagree as to the category the 'perfect' belongs to.

Some Soviet authors (B.A. Ilyish, G.N. Vorontsova) think that it forms part of the aspect system (the 'resultative' aspect – according to B.A. Ilyish, the 'transmissive' aspect – 'вид преемственности' – according to G.N. Vorontsova). This point of view is shared by quite a number of grammarians both in our country and abroad.

Other linguists treat the 'perfect' as belonging to the system of tense. I.P. Ivanova regards the 'perfect' as part of the 'tense – aspect' system.

Those who take the 'perfect' for part of the aspect system are up against a very serious difficulty, since proceeding from this point of view it is difficult to explain the nature of the 'perfect continuous', where two aspects ('resultative', 'perfective' or 'transmissive', on the one hand, and 'continuous' or 'imperfective', on the other) seem to have merged into one, which is hardly possible. We cannot imagine a verb as having positive indications of two tenses, two voices, etc. at the same time.

§ 214. Though there is a considerable dissimilarity between the three views mentioned above, they have something in common. They underestimate the peculiarities characteristic of the 'perfect' system in English.

A.I. Smirnitsky was the first to draw attention to the fact that opposemes like *writes – has written, wrote – had written* or *to write – to have written* represent a grammatical category different from that of tense though closely allied to it.

§ 215. If we take a close look at the 'perfect' (whether it be a finite verb or a verbid, a verb in the indicative or in the subjunctive mood), we cannot fail to see that it conveys the meaning of priority, precedence.

Cf. *She h a s c o m e* (priority to the situation in the present, to the act of speech).

She h a d c o m e before Mrs. B. phoned over (priority to the act of Mrs. B.'s phoning over).

She'll h a v e c o m e by that time (priority to the point of time indicated by the adverbial expression).

She is known to h a v e come (priority to the action of knowing). *To have come* expresses priority though it has no tense opposites.

She behaves as if she h a d c o m e unwillingly (priority to the action of behaving). *Had come* expresses priority though it has no tense opposites.

From the string of examples above it is clear that the 'perfect' serves to express priority, whereas the non-perfect member of the opposeme *(write* as opposed to *have written* or *wrote* as opposed to *had written)* leaves the action unspecified as to its being prior or not to another action, situation or point of time.

A.I. Smirnitsky calls the category represented by *writes – has written, writing – having written,* the category of ***time correlation – категория временной отнесенности.*** He gives a fine, detailed analysis of the category, but the terms he uses are very inconvenient. It is impossible to use them alongside of such terms as "present tense", "active voice" when analysing a certain verb. So accepting the arguments of A.I. Smirnitsky, we are bound to look for another term that would serve as a name for the category described.

§ 216. Let us take an extract from J.Galsworthy's novel *To Let:*

"On Friday night about eleven he had packed his bag and was leaning out of his window, half miserable and half lost in a dream of Paddington Station, when he heard a tiny sound, as of a finger-nail tapping on his door. He rushed to it and listened."

All the verbs here indicate actions taking place in the past, so that there is no difference between them as far as tense is concerned. But the actions did not take place at the same time, they followed each other in a certain succession or order. First he packed his bag, then he leaned out of the window (this action is described by means of the 'continuous aspect' form *was leaning* as if developing slowly before the eyes), then he heard the tapping, then he rushed to the door and at last he listened.

We know of this order of actions from the order of the verbs in the text. If it were written *"He listened for a while and rushed to the door",* we should know that the order of actions was reversed. So *listened* and *rushed* are indifferent *to* order.

This is not the case with *had packed.* We know that the action denoted by it preceded the other actions not only because it comes first in the text but because the very form shows that.

In sentences like *He knew what she h a d me ant to say.* or *He thought with a curious pride that he and his family had done little or nothing to help this feverish expansion* only the forms of the verbs show the order of the actions they express.

We name the category represented by such opposemes as *wrote – had written, writing – having written,* etc. ***the category of order.*** Members like *had written* presenting a process as prior to some action or situation are opposites of the 'perfect' order, those like *wrote, writing* which do not specify the action as to its being prior to another situation or action – of the 'non-perfect' order.

Cf. *I g a v e her a book to read.*
She returned the book I h a d g i v e n her.
By 8 o'clock everyone h a d r e t u r n e d.

Both *gave* and *had given* express an action in the past. Only *gave* represents the action as irrespective of other past events, whereas *had given* indicates that the same action preceded some other event in the past, namely, the action denoted by the word *returned.* In the third sentence *had returned* also indicates an action preceding some event in the past, in this case, the situation denoted by the words *8 o'clock.*

The same with actions taking place in the future:

I s h a l l r e a d the book tomorrow.

By noon I s h a l l h a v e r e a d it.

Shall read expreses an action irrespective of other future events, whereas *shall have read* shows that the same action will precede some event in the future, in this case, the situation denoted by the word *noon.*

In the sentence *"He has already come and is waiting for you" has come* expresses an action preceding another action in the present.

§ 217. As elsewhere, all the opposemes of the category of order are exactly alike with regard to the content. They have the same particular meanings of 'perfect' and 'non-perfect' order united by the general meaning of the category, that of 'order'. In this respect *writes – has written* and *wrote –had written* are identical.

Some linguists speak of the heterogeneity of the 'perfect' members of 'order' opposemes. A form like *had written,* they say, usually expresses 'priority', but a form like *has written* expresses 'result'.

In this connection it is necessary to remind the reader of the difference between a word in the language system and the same word in speech. In an opposeme all the meanings 'of a word are neutralized save the particular meaning of the given category which is singled out relatively in contrast to the meaning of the opposite member. In speech the word is not contrasted with its opposite, no grammatical meaning is singled out. On the contrary, a whole bunch of grammatical, lexical and lexico-grammatical meanings are interlaced with the meanings of neighbouring words to make a communication. Naturally, the resulting effect is different with different words or with the same word in different environments. The usage of various verb grammemes in speech is discussed in a special chapter of this book. But a few words with regard to the 'heterogeneity' of the 'perfect' grammemes would probably not be amiss here.

Whatever difference there is in the usage of the so-called 'present perfect' and 'past perfect', it is primarily connected with the difference between the 'present' and the 'past', and not with the different shades of the 'perfect' meaning. When we describe an action prior to some past action, both actions must be mentioned, and the notion of 'priority' is obvious. When an action prior to the present is described, the present need not be mentioned, since it is the act of speech. Therefore the notion of priority is not so obvious. *I have read this book* can be interpreted not as a

description of an action prior to the act of speech, but as one containing the present result of a past action or some implicit conclusion for the present from an action in the past, etc. But then an integral grammatical category is replaced by a host of usages.

THE CATEGORY OF ASPECT

§ 218. The category of aspect is a system of two-member opposemes such as *works – is working, has worked – has been working, to work – to be working* showing the character of the action, i.e. whether the action is taken in its progress, in its development ('continuous') or it is simply stated, its nature being unspecified ('non-continuous').

§ 219. The problem of aspect is controversial in English grammar. There is but little consensus of opinion about this Category in Modern English.

One meets with different lines of approach to English aspect, which can be briefly summarized as follows:

1. Aspect is interpreted as a category of semantics rather than that of grammar.

2. Aspect is not recognized at all as a category of Modern English grammar.

3. Aspect is blended with tense and regarded as an inalienable part of the tense-aspect system.

4. Aspect and tense are recognized as two distinct grammatical categories.

Typical of the first line are the views advanced by M. Deutsclibein, A.G. Kennedy, G. Curme and some other grammarians.

Thus according to Kennedy the Modern English aspect system comprises:

1) The 'terminate' aspect representing an action as a whole, as in *He w e n t to town.*

2) The 'ingressive' aspect which points to the beginning of the action as in *He b e g a n t o work.*

3) The 'effective' aspect showing the conclusion of an action. *She c e a s e d s p e a k i n g.*

4) The 'durative' aspect presenting an action as continuous, as in *Wheat g r o w s in Canada. He i s w a l k i n g along the street.*

5) The 'iterative' aspect, *Each night the old man w o u l d w a l k to town.*

It is self-evident that this classification has nothing to do with grammar, being based exclusively upon semantic principles.

Those who do not recognize the existence of aspect in Modern English treat the 'continuous' forms as tense forms (termed 'progressive', 'expanded', 'long', 'durative', or 'relative' tense forms) expressing actions simultaneous with some other actions or situations.

Our objections to this point of view are as follows:

1. The forms *wrote – was writing* are opposed not as tense forms. Both of them express the same tense – the past.

2. The idea of simultaneity does not go very well with the 'perfect continuous' forms which are a necessary part of the system of 'continuous' forms.

3. Even the 'non-perfect continuous' forms may be used without special indications of simultaneity.

E.g. Once in his early life, surprised reading by a night-light, he had said fatuously, "I w a s just t u r n i n g over the leaves, Mum". (J. Galsworthy). *I'm s a y i n g with his sister – who married my cousin.* (J. Galsworthy).

4. Simultaneous actions are very often expressed by the non-continuous forms of the verb.

E.g. Her voice pursued him as he walked up and down. (J. Galsworthy).

5. Sentences like *Moonlight was f r o s t i n g the dew, and an old sundial t h r e w a long shadow.* (Ib.).

Soames passed into the corner where side by side hung his real Goya and the copy of the fresco "La Vendimia". (J. Galsworthy).

And next to it w a s h a n g i n g the copy of "La Vendimia". (Ib.) show that the continuous and the non-continuous forms may express exactly the same relation of the action to time.

All this bears testimony to the fact that the category expressed by the opposition of the continuous and the non-continuous forms is not that of tense.

Likewise we disagree with those who, though recognizing aspect as a grammatical category, think, nevertheless, that it cannot be severed from tense.

As we know, in actual speech all the grammatical meanings of a word always go together in a bunch. Thus in *tells* we find a) present tense, b) active voice, c) indicative mood, d) singular number, etc.

It does not follow, however, that we are unable to separate the category of mood from the category of tense or the category of voice from that of aspect.

By opposing *tells* to *told* and *will tell* we single out the category of tense; by contrasting *tells* with is *telling* we bring to light the category of aspect. Thus aspect is as closely connected with tense, as it is with voice, order, mood, person, number, etc.

It is perhaps, less closely connected with tense than with order since in the infinitive we find aspect linked with order but not with tense. Cf. *to write – to be writing, to have written – to have been writing.*

At any rate, the infinitive proves that aspect can be and is separated from tense.

Consequently, we follow the views advanced by B.A. Ilyish, A.I. Smirnitsky, V.N. Yartseva, and some other linguists and treat tense and aspect as different grammatical categories.

§ 220. The categories of tense and aspect characterize an action from different points of view. The tense of a verb shows the **time** of the action, while the aspect of a verb deals with the **development** of the action.

The term *aspect* describes to some extent the contents of the category. It really shows what aspect of the action is considered: whether the action is taken in its progress or without that specification. *Was writing* presents the action in its progress, in its continuity (the 'continuous' aspect), *wrote* may present the same action without indications of continuity, on the one hand, or accomplishment, on the other, though both may be gathered from the context, e.g. *wrote to him yesterday. I often wrote to him last year.*

§ 221. With regard to the category of aspect verbs divide into those that have aspect opposites and those that have not. The latter are united, by the oblique or lexico-grammatical, or potential meaning of 'non-continuous aspect'. As usual, the neutralization of 'aspect' opposemes depends on the lexical meanings of the corresponding verbs.

Here is a brief enumeration of some groups of verbs usually having no aspect opposites.

a) Verbs presenting diverse r e l a t i o n s as actions – *belong, contain, consist, date, possess, resemble, result, suffice,* etc.

b) Certain link-verbs (mostly those of 'seeming') such as *appear, look, prove, seem, turn out,* etc.

The 'actions' denoted by the two groups have little or no dynamic force. This is at the bottom of their not being used with the 'continuous' meaning.

c) Verbs of 'physical perceptions' *(see, hear, feel, smell)* denoting constant properties viewed as actions.

d) Verbs of 'mental perceptions' *(believe, dislike, distrust, hate, hope, know, like, trust, understand,* etc.). which are likewise, verbs of weak dynamic force.

e) 'Point-action' verbs denoting instantaneous acts of very short duration, unless such acts are repeated *(burst, jump, drop, pick up,* etc.).

Sometimes, however, the potential meanings are actualized by the use of a 'continuous aspect' opposite showing the progress of the action at a given moment or during a certain period and stressing its temporary, transient nature, as in *She w a s not h a t i n g him any more at that crucial moment.* (Ruck); *You a r e not s e e i n g him to advantage now. (Daily Worker).*

THE FINITES

§ 222. Besides those properties that characterize the verb as a whole, the finites possess certain features not shared by the verbids.

The grammatical categories of mood, tense, person, number and posteriority.

Grammatical combinability *(The boy plays. The boys play.).*

The function of the predicate.

§ 223. As already mentioned, the finites form three systems called 'moods': the 'indicative' mood, the 'subjunctive' mood, and the 'imperative' mood. The correlation of these systems constitutes the category of mood.

The features of the finites enumerated above fully manifest themselves only in the indicative mood system. Therefore it is expedient to begin the analysis of the finites with the category of mood, and, then discuss their properties within the frame of each mood system.

THE CATEGORY OF MOOD

§ 224. Mood is the grammatical category of the verb reflecting the relation of the action denoted by the verb to reality from the speaker's point of view.

In the sentences *He l i s t e n s attentively; L i s t e n attentively; You w o u l d have l i s t e n e d attentively if you had been interested*, we deal with the same action of listening, but in the first sentence the speaker presents the action as taking place in reality, whereas in the second sentence the speaker urges the listener to perform the action, and in the third sentence the speaker presents the action as imaginary.

These different relations of the action to reality are expressed by different mood-forms of the verb: *listens, listen, would have listened.*

§ 225. There is no unity of opinion concerning the category of mood in English. Thus A.I. Smirnitsky, O.S. Akhmanova, M. Ganshina and N. Vasilevskaya find six moods in Modern English ('indicative', 'imperative', 'subjunctive I', 'subjunctive II', 'conditional' and 'suppositional'), B.A. Ilyish, L.P. Vinokurova, V.N. Zhigadlo, I.P. Ivanova, L.L. Iofik find only three moods – 'indicative', 'imperative' and 'subjunctive'. The latter, according to B.A. Ilyish appears in two forms – the conditional and the subjunctive. L.S. Barkhudarov and D.A. Shteling distinguish only the 'indicative' and the 'subjunctive' mood. The latter is subdivided into 'subjunctive I' and 'subjunctive II'. The 'imperative' and the 'conjunctive' are treated as forms outside the category of mood.

G.N. Vorontsova distinguishes four moods in English: 1) 'indicative', 2) 'optative', represented in three varieties ('imperative', 'desiderative', 'subjunctive'), 3) 'speculative', found in two varieties ('dubitative' and 'irrealis') and 4) 'presumptive'.

In general the number of English moods in different theories varies from two to seventeen.

In this book the indicative, imperative and subjunctive moods are considered.

§ 226. The difficulty of distinguishing other moods from the indicative in English is connected with the fact that, barring *be,* they do not contain a single form which is not used in the indicative mood. At the same time the indicative mood contains many forms not used in other moods. The subjunctive mood is richer in forms than the imperative mood.

So the meaning of the three moods are distinguished in the language structure not so much by the opposition of individual forms (as is the case in the opposemes of other categories), as by the opposition of the systems of forms each mood possesses. By way of illustration let us compare the synthetic forms of the lexeme *have* in the three moods.

Indicative	Subjunctive	Imperative
have, has, had	have, had	have

This is why it is difficult to represent the category of mood in opposemes, like other categories.

In speech, the meanings of the three moods are distinguished not so much by the forms of the verbs, as by their distribution.

Cf. *When I need a thing, I g o and b u y it.*

We insist that he g o and b u y it.

G o and b u y it.

§ 227. One of the most important differences between the indicative and the other moods is that the meaning of 'tense' does not go with the meanings of subjunctive mood and imperative mood. 'Tense' reflects the real time of a real action. The imperative and subjunctive moods represent the action not as real, but as desired or imagined, and the notions of real time are discarded.

§ 228. The meaning of 'perfect order' does not go with the meaning of imperative mood because one cannot require of anyone to fulfil an action preceding the request. But it is easy to **imagine** a preceding action. Therefore the system of the subjunctive mood includes opposemes of order.

Aspect and voice opposemes are characteristic of the systems of all moods, but the 'passive' and 'continuous' members of the opposemes are very rarely used in the imperative mood. There are person opposemes (though not systematically used) of only one type in the subjunctive mood system *(should go – would go)* and none in the imperative mood. The number opposeme *was – were* is sometimes realized in the subjunctive mood (colloquial). Opposemes of the category of posteriority *(shall go – should go; will go – would go)* are typical only of the indicative mood.

The system of opposemes of each mood can roughly be represented as follows:

Opposemes	Moods		
	Indicative	Subjunctive	Imperative
write – be writing (aspect)	+	+	(+)
write – be written (voice)	+	+	(+)
wrote – had written (order)	+	+	–
should write – would write (person)	+	+	–
was – were (number)	+	(+)	–
writes – wrote – will write (tense)	+	–	–
shall write – should write (posteriority)	+	–	–

THE INDICATIVE MOOD

§ 229. The indicative mood is the basic mood of the verb. Morphologically it is the most developed system including all the categories of the verb.

Semantically it is a fact mood. It serves to present an action as a fact of reality. It is the "most objective" or the "least subjective" of all the moods. It conveys minimum personal attitude to the fact. This becomes particularly manifest in such sentences as *Water consists of oxygen and hydrogen* where *consists* denotes an actual fact, and the speaker's attitude is neutral.

We shall now proceed to the analysis of the grammatical categories of the indicative mood system.

THE CATEGORY OF TENSE

§ 230. The category of tense is a system of three-member opposemes such as *writes – wrote – will write, is writing – was writing – will be writing* showing the relation of the time of the action denoted by the verb to the moment of speech.

§ 231. The time of an action or event can be expressed lexically with the help of such words and combinations of words as *yesterday, next week, now, a year ago, at half past seven, on the fifth of March, in 1957*, etc. It can also be shown grammatically by means of the category of tense.

The difference between the lexical and the grammatical expression of time is somewhat similar to the difference between the lexical and the grammatical expression of number.

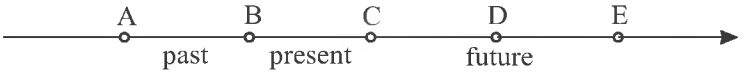
Lexically it is possible to name any definite moment or period of time: a century, a year, a day, a minute. The grammatical meaning of 'tense' is an abstraction from only three particular tenses: the 'present', the 'past' and the 'future'.

Lexically a period of time is named directly (e.g. *on Sunday).* The grammatical indication of time is indirect: it is not **time** that a verb like *asked* names, but an **action** that took place before the moment of speech.

As usual, the grammatical meaning of 'tense' is relative. *Writes* denotes a 'present' action because it is contrasted with *wrote* denoting a 'past' action and with *will write* naming a 'future' action. *Writing* does not indicate the time of the action because it has not tense opposites. *Can* has only a 'past tense' opposite, so it cannot refer to the past, but it may refer to the present and future *(*can do it yesterday* is impossible, but *can do it today, to-morrow* is normal).

N o t e. By analogy with *can, must* has acquired the oblique meaning of 'present-future' tense, but sometimes it refers to the past.

§ 232. It is usual to express the notions of time graphically by means of notions of space. Let us then imagine the limitless stretch of time – a very long railway along which we are moving in a train.



Let us further suppose that the train is now at station C. This is, so to say, the present. Stations A, B and all other stations passed by the train are the past, and stations D, E and all other stations the train is going to reach are in the future.

It would seem that the present is very insignificant, a mere point in comparison with the limitless past and future. But this point is of tremendous importance to the people in the train, because they are always in the present. When the train reaches station D, it ceases to be the future and becomes the present, while station C joins the past.

In reality, and accordingly in speech, the relation between the present, the past and the future is much more complicated. The present is reflected in speech not only as a mere point, the moment of speaking or thinking, but as a more or less long period of time including this moment. Compare, for instance, the meanings of the word *now* in the following sentences:

1. *A minute ago he was crying, and n o w he is laughing.*

2. *A century ago people did not even dream of the radio, and n o w we cannot imagine our life without it.*

The period of time covered by the second *nom* is much longer, without definite limits, but it includes the moment of speaking.

In the sentence *The Earth rotates round the Sun* we also deal with the present. But the present in this case not only includes the present moment, but it covers an immense period of time stretching in both directions from the present moment.

Thus the 'present' is a variable period of time including the present moment or the moment of speech.

The 'past' is the time preceding the present moment, and the 'future' is the time following the present moment. Neither of them includes the present moment.

§ 233. The correlation of time and tense is connected with the problem of the absolute and relative use of tense grammemes.

We say that some tense is absolute if it shows the time of the action in relation to the present moment (the moment of speech).

This is the case in the Russian sentences:

Он работает на заводе.
Он работал на заводе.
Он будет работать на заводе.

The same in English:

He works at a factory.
He worked at a factory.
He will work at a factory.

But very often tense reflects the time of an action not with regard to the moment of speech but to some other moment in the past or in the future, indicated by the tense of another verb.

E.g.

Он сказал, что → *он работает на заводе.*
он работал на заводе.
он будет работать на заводе.

or

Он скажет, что → *он работает на заводе.*
он работал на заводе.
он будет работать на заводе.

Here the tenses of the principal clauses *сказал* and *скажет* are used absolutely, while all the tenses of the subordinate clauses are used relatively. The present tense of *работает* does not refer to the present time but to the time of the action *сказал* in the first case and *скажет* in the second. The future tense of *будет работать* does not indicate the time following the present moment, but the time following the moment of the action *сказал* in the first case and *скажет* in the second. The same holds true with regard to the past tense of *работал.*

In English such relative use of tenses is also possible with regard to some future moment.

He will say that → *he works at a factory.*
he worked at a factory.
he will work at a factory.

But as a rule, this is impossible with regard to a moment in the past, as in

He said that → **he works at a factory.*
**he worked at a factory.*
**he will work at a factory.*

Instead of that an Englishman uses:

He said that → *he worked at a factory.*
he had worked at a factory.
he would work at a factory.

Why is the first version impossible, or at least uncommon? Because the tenses of *works, worked, will work* cannot be used relatively with regard to the past moment indicated by the verb *said* (as it would be in Russian, for instance). In English they are, as a rule, used absolutely, i.e. with regard to the moment of speech.

Therefore a 'present tense' verb may be used here only if the time of the action it expresses **includes the moment of speech**, which occurs, for instance, in clauses expressing general statements *(He said that water b o i l s at 100° C),* in

clauses of comparison *(Last year he spoke much worse than he d o e s now),* and in some other cases.

Similarly, a 'future tense' verb may be used here if the action it expresses refers to some time following the moment of speech.

E.g. Yesterday I heard some remarks about the plan we s h a l l discuss tomorrow.

The past tense of *worked* in the sentence *He said that he worked at a factory* also shows the past time not with regard to the time of the action of saying (as would be the case in the Russian sentence *Он сказал, что работал на заводе),* but with regard to the moment of speech.

Since English has special forms of the verb to express 'precedence' or 'priority' – the perfect forms – the past perfect is used to indicate that an action preceded some other action (or event) in the past. *He said that he h a d worked at a factory.* But both in the principal and in the subordinate clause the tense of the verb is the same – the past tense used absolutely.

Summing up, we may say that a 'past tense' verb is used in an English subordinate clause not because there is a 'past tense' verb in the principal clause, i.e. as a result of the so-called ***sequence of tenses,*** but simply in accordance with its meaning of 'past tense'.

THE CATEGORY OF POSTERIORITY

§ 234. The category of posteriority is the system of two-member opposemes, like *shall come – should come, will be writing – would be writing,* showing whether an action is posterior with regard to the moment of speech or to some moment in the past.

As we know, a 'past tense', verb denotes an action prior to the moment of speech and a 'future tense' verb names a posterior action with regard to the moment of speech. When priority or posteriority is expressed in relation to the moment of speech, we call it absolute. But there may be relative priority or posteriority, with regard to some other moment. A form like *had written,* for instance, expresses an action prior to some moment in the past, i.e. it expresses relative priority. The form *should enter* expresses posteriority with regard to so не past moment, i.e. relative posteriority.

The first member, of the opposeme *shall enter – should enter* has the meaning of 'absolute posteriority', and the second member 'possesses the meaning of 'relative posteriority'. These two meanings are the particular manifestations of the general meaning of the category, that of 'posteriority'.

The grammemes represented by *should come, would come* are traditionally called *the future in the past,* a name which reflects their meaning of 'relative poste-

riority'. But there is no agreement as to the place these grammemes occupy in the system of the English verb.

Some linguists regard them as isolated grammemes, outside the system of morphological categories. Others treat them as some kind of 'dependent future tense' and classify them with those 'finite verb forms' which depend on the nature of the sentence. A.I. Smirnitsky tries to prove that they are not 'tense forms' but 'mood forms', since they are homonymous with the so-called 'conditional mood forms'. Cf. *I thought it w o u l d r a i n. I think it w o u l d r a i n if it were not so windy.*

In our opinion none of these theories are convincing.

1. The grammemes discussed are not isolated. As shown above they belong to the morphological category of posteriority.

2. They are not "tense forms". In the sentences

I know she will come.
I knew she would come.
I had known she would come.

neither *will come – would come,* nor *knew – had known* is a *tense* opposeme, because the difference between the members of the opposemes is not that of tense. The members of the first opposeme share the meaning of 'future' tense, those of the second opposeme – the meaning of 'past tense'. The only meanings the members of the first opposeme distinguish are those of 'absolute' and 'relative' posteriority. The members of the second opposeme distinguish only the meanings of 'perfect' – 'non-perfect' order.

3. The grammernes in question are not 'mood forms'.

As we know all the grammemes of the subjunctive mood (with the exception of *be*) are homonymous with those of the indicative mood. So the fact that *would rain* is used in both moods proves nothing.

The examples produced by A.I. Smirnitsky clearly show the difference between *would rain* in the sentence *I thought it would rain* and in the sentence *I think it would rain, if it were not so windy.* The first *would rain* is opposed to *will rain (I think it will rain)* and denotes a real action following some other action in the past *(I thought...)*. In other words, it possesses the meanings of 'indicative' mood and 'relative' posteriority. The second *would rain* cannot be opposed to *will rain.* It denotes an imaginary action simultaneous with or following the moment of speech *(I think ...)*. Hence, it has the meanings of 'non-perfect' order and 'subjunctive mood'.

THE CATEGORY OF PERSON

§ 235. The category of person in the Indo-European languages serves to present an action as associated by the speaking person with himself (or a group of persons including the speaker), the person or persons addressed, and the person or

thing (persons or things) not participating in the process of speech. (Cf. with the meanings of the personal pronouns.) Thus in Russian it is represented in sets of three-member opposemes such as

читаю – читаешь – читает

читаем – читаете – читают

Likewise in Modern German we have

gehe – gehst – geht

gehen – geht – gehen

§ 236. In Modern English the category of person has certain peculiarities.

1. The second member of the opposemes

speak – speakest – speaks

am – art – is

is not used colloquially. It occurs in Modern English only in poetry, in solemn or pathetic prose with a distinct archaic flavour, e.g.:

Kind nature, thou a r t

to all a bountiful mother. (Carlyle).

The category of person is practically represented by two-member opposemes: *speak – speaks, am – is.*

2. Person opposemes are neutralized when associated with the 'plural' meaning.

A.I. Smirnitsky thinks that owing to the presence of the plural personal pronouns *(we, you, they)* person distinctions are felt in the plural of the verb as well.

E.g. we know – you know – they know.

This idea is open to criticism. If the verb itself (in the plural) does not show any person distinctions we are bound to admit that in Modern English the verb in the plural has no person.

Thus if we overlook the archaic *writest* or *speakest,* we should say that in all verbs (but the defective verbs having no person distinctions at all: *he can, she may*) the person opposeme is found only in the singular, and it consists of two members *(speak – speaks),* the third person with a positive morpheme being opposed to the first person with a zero morpheme.

3. Person distinctions do not go with the meaning of the 'past tense' in the English verb, e.g. *I (he) asked..,* (cf. the Russian *я (ты, он) спросил).*

4. As regards all those groups of grammemes where the word-morphemes *shall* and *should* are opposed to the word-morphemes *will, would,* one has to speak of the first person expressed by forms with *shall (should)* as opposed to the non-first person expressed by the forms with *wilt (would).* The person distinctions in such opposemes *(shall come – will come)* are not connected with number meanings.

THE CATEGORY OF NUMBER

§ 237. The category of number shows whether the action is associated with one doer or with more than one. Accordingly it denotes something fundamentally different from what is indicated by the number of nouns. We see here not the 'oneness' or 'more-than-oneness' of actions, but the connection with the singular or plural doer. As M. Bryant puts it, *"He eats three times a day"* does not indicate a single eating but a single eater.

The category is represented in its purity in the opposeme *was – were* and accordingly in all analytical forms containing *was – were (was writing – were writing, was written – were written).*

In *am – are, is – are* or *am, is – are* it is blended with person. Likewise in *speaks – speak* we actually have the 'third person singular' opposed to the non-'third-person-singular'.

Accordingly the category of number is but scantily represented in Modern English.

§ 238. Some verbs do not distinguish number at all because of their peculiar historical development: *I (we) can..., he (they) must ...*, others are but rarely used in the singular because the meaning of 'oneness' is hardly compatible with their lexical meanings, e.g. *to crowd, to conspire*, etc.

It is natural, therefore, that in Modern English the verb is most closely connected with its subject, which may be left out only when the doer of the action is quite clear from the context.

THE SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD

§ 239. Probably the only thing linguists are unanimous about with regard to the subjunctive mood is that it represents an action as a 'non-fact', as something imaginary, desirable, problematic, contrary to reality. In all other respects opinions differ.

To account for this difference of opinion it is necessary to take into consideration at least two circumstances:

1) The system of the subjunctive mood in Modern English has been and still is in a state of developent. There are many elements in it which are rapidly falling into disuse and there are new elements coming into use.

2) The authors describing the subjunctive mood often make no distinction between language and speech, system and usage. The opposition of the three moods as systems is mixed up with detailed descriptions of the various shades of meaning certain forms express in different environments.

§ 240. The development of the modal verbs and that of the subjunctive mood– the lexical and morphological ways of expressing modality – have much in common.

The original 'present tense' forms "of the modal verbs were ousted by the 'past tense' forms *(may, can).* New 'past tense' forms were created *(could, might, must, ought).* The new 'past tense' forms *must* and *ought* have again superseded their 'present tense' opposites and are now the only forms of these verbs.

The forms *be, have, write, go,* etc., which were originally forms of the 'present tense', 'subjunctive mood' grammemes, have suffered a similar process and are now scarcely used in colloquial English. They have become archaic and are found as survivals in poetry, high prose, official documents and certain set expressions like *Long live ..., suffice it to say...,* etc. The former 'past tense subjunctive' has lost its 'past' meaning, and its forms are mostly used to denote an action not preceding the moment of speech.

The new analytical forms with *should* have replaced the former present subjunctive in popular speech. Compare the archaic *Take heed, lest t ho u fall* (Maxwell) and the usual *Take heed, lest you should fall.*

In American English where many archaic features are better preserved (Cf. *gotten* for *got)* the former present tense forms are more common.

E.g. She demanded furiously that the old man be left aldne. (Dreiser).

§ 241. Some new elements have come and are still coming into the system of the subjunctive mood. In Old English the subjunctive mood system did not contain any 'person' opposemes. They were introduced later together with *should* and *would,* but these distinctions are observed only in a few types of sentences.

With the loss of the *-en* suffix of the plural the subjunctive mood system lost all number opposemes in Middle English. At present such opposemes are being introduced together with the word *was* as opposed to *were.*

E.g. You'd be glad if I was dead. (Bennett).

§ 242. Barring the archaic 'present tense' forms, the subjunctive mood system of Modern English makes use of those forms which express a 'past tense' meaning in the indicative mood system. Since they are not opposed to the 'present tense' and 'future tense' grammemes, they have no 'tense' meaning. What unites them is the meaning of 'irreality' as opposed to the meaning of 'reality' common to all the indicative mood grammemes.

Having no 'tense' opposemes the subjunctive mood system makes extensive use of 'order' opposemes. The 'perfect' forms are used to express an action imagined as prior to some other action or event.

E.g. The Married Woman's Property Act would so have interfered with him if he hadn't mercifully married before it was passed. (Galsworthy).

The 'perfect' forms, naturally, express actions imagined as prior to the event of speaking, i.e. actions imagined in the past.

E.g. If I h a d known that, I s h o u l d h a v e a c t e d differently. It is strange that he s h o u l d have spoken so.

The non-perfect forms do not express priority. The action they denote may be thought of as simultaneous with some event or even following it. The order of the action in such cases is expressed not by the form of the verb but by the whole situation or lexically.

Cf. *I wish he w e r e here now. I wish he w e r e here tomorrow. Even ıf he c a m e tomorrow that will be too late.* (Ruck).

§ 243. The 'passive voice' and 'continuous aspect' meanings are expressed much in the same way as in the indicative mood system.

E.g. In a moment he w o u l d h a v e b e e n d r o w n e d. (Braddon).

She sat not reading, wondering ıf he w e r e c o m i n g in... (Galsworthy).

§ 244. The various shades of meaning subjunctive mood grammemes may acquire in certain environments, and the types of sentences and clauses they are used in, are not part of the morphological system of moods and need not be treated here. Still an exception can be made.

Some linguists think that *would help* in the sentence *If he were here he w o u l d h e l p* us represents a separate mood called 'conditional'.

The arguments are as follows:

1. The form *would help* expresses 'dependent unreality': the realization of the action depends on the condition expressed in the subordinate clause (*if*-clause).

2. It is 'mainly used in the p r i n c i p a l c l a u s e of a complex sentence with a subordinate clause of *u n r e a l c o n d i t i o n*'.

3. *Should* is used for the first person and *would* for the other persons.

Let us analyse these arguments.

1. If the meaning of 'dependent unreality' is to be treated as the meaning of a separate mood, then the meaning of 'dependent reality' in a similar sentence *If he is here, he wilt help us* must likewise be regarded as the meaning of a separate mood which is to be distinguished from the indicative mood. The meaning of *tell* in the sentence *If you see her tell her to come* can also be defined as 'dependent urging' and be regarded as the meaning of a separate mood distinct from the imperative mood.

2. The second argument deals with speech environment and is of little value since the same authors produce examples of the 'conditional mood' in different types of sentences.

W o u l d you m i n d my opening the window?

I s h o u l d l i k e to speak to you, etc.

3. The third argument is justly rejected by G.N. Vorontsova who produces many literary examples to show that *'would*-forms' are used with the first person as often as *'should*-forms'.

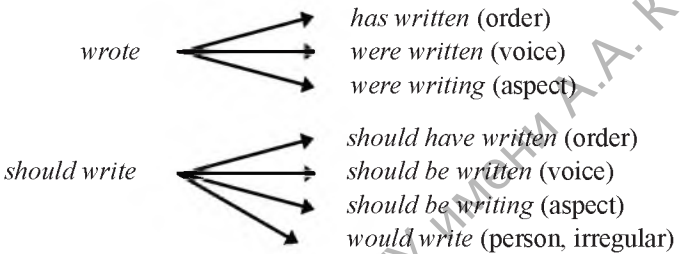
E.g. If I had held another pistol in my hand I w o u l d h a v e s h o t him. I w o u l d l o v e to think that you took an interest in teaching me ... I wish I had a lot of money, I w o u l d n' t l i v e another day in London. (Galsworthy).

Besides, the popular use of forms with *-'d* instead of *should* and *would* shows the oblitaration of 'person' distinctions.

4. The name *conditional* hardly fits, seeing that the forms with *should – would* are as a rule not used in conditional clauses. They are mostly used in principal clauses or simple sentences, which distinguishes their distribution from that of forms without *should – would* used almost exclusively in subordinate clauses.

E.g. After all, if he l o s t it w o u l d n o t b e he who p a i d. (Galsworthy).
Under normal conditions Winifred w o u l d merely h a v e l o c k e d the door. (Ib.).

§ 245. The difference between the two sets of opposemes



is thus a matter of usage. That does not exclude, of course, the possibility of a language category with speech significance (cf. the categories of case, voice). Hence the necessity of further investigation.

§ 246. What unites all the grammemes above and distinguishes them from the homonymous grammemes of the indicative mood as a system is

1) the meaning of "non-fact", the presentation of the action as something imaginary,

2) the system of opposemes, as contrasted with that of the indicative mood.

THE IMPERATIVE MOOD

§ 247. The imperative mood represents an action as a command, urging, request, exhortation addressed to one's interlocutor(s). It is a direct expression of one's will. Therefore it is much more 'subjective' than the indicative mood. Its modal meaning is very strong and distinct.

§ 248. The imperative mood is morphologically the least developed of all moods. In fact, the grammeme *write, know, warn, search, do,* etc. is the only one regularly met in speech. The 'continuous' and 'passive' opposites of this grammeme *(be writing, be searching,* etc; *be known, be warned,* etc.) are very rare.

E.g. B e always s e a r c h i n g for new sensations. (Wilde).
Be w a r n e d in time, mend your manner. (Shaw).

§ 249. Though the system of the 'imperative' mood does not contain 'person' opposemes, it cannot be said that there is no meaning of 'person' in the imperative mood grammemes On the contrary, all of them are united by the meaning of

'second person' because it is always to his interlocutor (the second person) that the speaker addresses his order or request expressed with the help of imperative mood forms. Thus the meaning of "second person" is a lexico-grammatical meaning common to all the imperative mood grammemes. This meaning makes it unnecessary to use the subject *you* with predicate verbs in the imperative mood. But sometimes *you* is used for emphasis, as in *Don't you do it.*

§ 250. Some linguists are of the opinion that Modern English possesses analytical forms of the imperative mood for the first and the third person built up with the help of the semantically weakened unstressed *let,* as in *Let him come, Let us go,* etc.

G.N. Vorontsova gives a detailed analysis of these constructions to prove that they are analytical forms of the imperative:

1) Sentences like *Let's let the newspaper reporters take a crack at her* (Gardner) prove that unlike the second *let* which is a notional verb the first *let* is devoid of lexical meaning.

2) It is quite possible to treat the objective case pronouns in the sentences *Let me be frank, Let him look out, Let them both see,* as the subjects.

3) An order can be addressed not only to the second person but to the third person as well.

Compare: *Someone make an offer – and quick!* (Barr).
Let someone make an offer.

4) The recognition of the *let*-constructions as the analytical forms of the imperative would make the imperative a developed morphological system.

All these considerations are serious enough. Still there are some objections to these constructions being regarded as analytical forms of the imperative.

1. There is some difference in meaning between Go! and *Let him go.* In the second case no direct urging is expressed as it is typical of the imperative mood.

2. Cases like *Do not let us ever allude to those times,* with the word-morpheme *do,* alongside of such sentences as *Let it not be doubted that they were nice, well-behaved girls* (Bennett), without the word-morpheme *do,* show that *let* has not yet established itself as a word-morpheme of the imperative mood.

To be on the safe side, we shall assume that the *let*-constructions are analytical words in the making.

B.Ilyish, The Structure
of Modern English, p. 76-81.

THE VERB: ASPECT

It is but natural that the verb should take up as much, or indeed, more space than all the other parts of speech we have so far considered, put together. It is the only part of speech in present-day English that has a morphological system based

on a series of categories. It is the only part of speech that has analytical forms, and again the only one that has forms (the infinitive, the gerund and the participle) which occupy a peculiar position in its system and do not share some of the characteristic features of the part of speech as a whole.

In analysing the morphological structure of the English verb it is essential to distinguish between the morphological categories of the verb as such, and the syntactic features of the sentence (or clause) in which a form of the verb may happen to be used. This applies especially to the category of voice and, to a certain extent, to the categories of aspect and tense as well.

The order in which we shall consider the categories of the verb may to a certain extent be arbitrary. However, we should bear in mind that certain categories are more closely linked together than others. Thus, it stands to reason that the categories of aspect and tense are linked more closely than either of them is with the category of voice. It is also plain that there is a close connection between the categories of tense and mood. These relations will have to be borne in mind as we start to analyse the categories of the verb.

One last preliminary remark may be necessary here. It is always tempting, but it may prove dangerous, to approach the morphological system of the verb in one language from the point of view of another language, for example, the student's mother tongue, or a widely known language such as Latin. Of course the system of each language should be analysed on its own, and only after this has been done should we proceed to compare it with another. Anyway the assessment of the system of a given language ought not to be influenced by the student's knowledge of another language. Neglect of this principle has often brought about differences in the treatment of the same language, depending on the student's mother tongue.

We will begin the analysis of each verbal category by examining two forms or two sets of forms differing from each other according to that category only.

ASPECT

There are two sets of forms in the Modern English verb which are contrasted with each other on the principle of use or non-use of the pattern "*be* + first participle":

writes — *is writing*
wrote — *was writing*
will write — *will be writing*
has written — *has been writing*

etc.

These two sets of forms clearly belong to the same verb *write* and there is some grammatical difference between them. We will not here consider the question whether the relation between *writes* and *is writing is* exactly the same as that between *wrote* and *was writing,* etc. We will assume that it is the same relation.

What, then, is the basic difference between *writes* and *is writing,* or between *wrote* and *was writing?* If we consult the definitions of the meaning of *is writing* given in various grammar books, we shall find, with some variations of detail, that the basic characteristic of *is writing* is this: it denotes an action proceeding continuously at a definite period of time, within certain time limits. On the other hand, *writes* denotes an action not thus limited but either occurring repeatedly or everlasting, without any notion of lasting duration at a given moment. It should be noted here that many variations of this essential meaning may be due to the lexical meaning of the verb and of other words in the sentence; thus there is some difference in this respect between the sentence *the earth turns round the sun* and the sentence *the sun rises in the East:* the action mentioned in the former sentence goes on without interruption, whereas that mentioned in the latter sentence is repeated every morning and does not take place at all in the evening, etc. But this is irrelevant for the meaning of the grammatical form as such and merely serves to illustrate its possible applications.

The basic difference between the two sets of forms, then, appears to be this: an action going on continuously during a given period of time, and an action not thus limited and not described by the very form of the verb as proceeding in such a manner.

Now, the question must be answered, how should this essential difference in meaning between the two sets of forms be described. The best way to describe it would seem to be this: it is a difference in the way the action is shown to proceed. Now this is the grammatical notion described as the category of aspect with reference to the Slavonic languages (Russian, Polish, Czech, etc.), and also to ancient Greek, in which this category is clearly expressed.

As is well known, not every verb is commonly used in the form *"be* + first participle". Verbs denoting abstract relations, such as *belong,* and those denoting sense perception or emotion, e.g. *see, hear, hope, love,* seldom appear in this form. It should be noted, however, that the impossibility of these verbs appearing in this form is sometimes exaggerated. Such categoric statement give the reader a wrong idea of the facts as they are not verified by actual modern usage. Thus, the verbs *see, hope, like, fear* and others, though denoting perception or feelings (emotions), may be found in this form, e. g. *It was as if she were seeing herself for the first time in a year.* (M. MITCHELL) The form *"be* + first participle" is very appropriate here, as it does not admit of the action being interpreted as momentaneous (corresponding to the perfective aspect in Russian) and makes it absolutely clear that what is meant is a sense perception going on (involuntarily) for some time.

This use of the form is also well illustrated by the following bit of dialogue from a modern short story: *"Miss Courtright – I want to see you," he said, quickly averting his eyes. "Will you let me – Miss Courtright – will you?" "Of course,*

Merle," she said, smiling a little. "You're seeing me right now." (E. CALDWELL) It might probably have been possible to use here the present indefinite: *"You see me right now,"* but the use of the continuous gives additional emphasis to the idea that the action, that is, the perception denoted by the verb *see,* is already taking place. Thus the descriptive possibilities of the continuous form are as effective here with the verb of perception as they are with any other verb.

A rather typical example of the use of the verb *see* in the continuous aspect is the following sentence: *Her breath came more evenly now, and she gave a smile so wide and open, her great eyes taking in the entire room and a part of the mountains towards which she had half turned, that it was as though she were seeing the world for the first time and might clap her hands to see it dance about her.* (BUECHNER)

Here are some more examples of continuous forms of verbs which are generally believed not to favour these forms: *Both were visibly hearing every word of the conversation and ignoring it, at the same time.* (GARY) The shade of meaning provided by the continuous will be best seen by comparing the sentence as it stands with the following variant, in which both forms of the continuous have been replaced by the corresponding indefinite forms: *Both visibly heard every word of the conversation and ignored it, at the I same time.* The descriptive character of the original text has disappeared after the substitution: instead of following, as it were, the gradual unfolding of the hearing process and the gradual accumulation of "ignoring", the speaker now merely states the fact that the two things happened. So the shades of meaning differentiating the two aspect forms are strong enough to overcome what one might conventionally term the "disclination" of verbs of perception towards the continuous aspect.

We also find the verb *look* used in a continuous form where it means 'have the air', not 'cast a look': *Mr March was looking absent and sombre again.* (SNOW) This is appropriate here, as it expresses a temporary state of things coming after an interruption (this is seen from the adverb *again)* and lasting for some time at least. Compare also the verb *hope: You're rather hoping he does know, aren't you?* (SNOW) If we compare this sentence and a possible variant with the present indefinite: *You rather hope he does know, don't you?* we shall see that the original text serves to make the idea of hope more emphatic and so the form of the continuous aspect does here serve a useful purpose. *But I'm hoping she'll come round soon...* (SNOW) Let us again compare the text with a variant: *But I hope she'll come round soon...* The difference in this case is certainly much less marked than in the preceding example: there is no process going on anyway, and it is clear from the context (especially the adverbial modifier *soon)* that the feeling spoken of only refers to a very limited space of lime. So the extra shade of meaning brought by the continuous form appears to be only that of emphasis.

Our next example is of the link verb *be* in the continuous aspect form: *There were a few laughs which showed however that the sale, on the whole, was being a success.* (SNOW) With the non-continuous form substituted: *There were a few laughs which showed however that the sale, on the whole, was a success.* In this instance, once more, the difference would appear to be essential. In the text as it stands, it is certain that the laughs mentioned were heard while the sale was still going on, whereas in the second variant this is left to conjecture: they might as well have been heard after the sale was concluded, when some people were discussing its results. So the continuous form of the link verb has an important function in the sentence. Compare also the following: *You are being presumptuous in a way you wouldn't be with anyone else, and I don't like it.* (TAYLOR) Compare also: *"I think you are being just," Charles said...* (SNOW) Here the continuous is perhaps more necessary still, as it clearly means that the person's behaviour in a certain concrete situation is meant, not his general characteristic, which would be expressed by saying, *"I think you are just."* Compare also: *Perhaps I'm being selfish. ..* (LINKLATER) The link verb *be* is also used in the continuous aspect in the following passage: *What I think is, you're supposed to leave somebody alone if he's at least being interesting and he's getting all excited about something.* (SALINGER) *He is being interesting* obviously means here, 'he is behaving in an interesting way', or 'he is trying to be interesting', and it implies a certain amount of conscious effort, whereas *he is interesting* would merely mean that he has this quality as a permanent characteristic, without reference to any effort of will and without limitation to any period of time. Compare also: *Now you are being rude.* (TAYLOR)

TERMINOLOGY

Each of the two aspects must be given some name which should of course be as adequate as possible to the basic meaning of the aspect. It seems easier to find a name for the type *is writing* than for the type *writes.* The term **continuous aspect** has now been in use for some time already and indeed it seems very appropriate to the phenomenon which it is used to describe. As to the type *writes,* a term is rather more difficult to find, as the uses of this form are much more varied and its intrinsic meaning, accordingly, less definite. This state of things may be best of all described by the term **common aspect,** which is indefinite enough to allow room for the various uses. It also has the merit of being parallel with the term **common case,** which has been discussed above and which seems the best to denote the phenomenon if a case system in English nouns is recognized at all. Thus we will use the terms **continuous aspect** and **common aspect** to denote the two aspects of the Modern English verb.

SPECIAL USES

However, the problem of aspects and their uses is by no means exhausted. First of 'all we must now mention the uses of the continuous aspect which do not easily fit into the definition given above. Forms of this aspect are occasionally used with the adverbs *always, continually,* etc., when the action is meant to be unlimited by time. Here are some typical examples of this use: *He was constantly experimenting with new seed.* (LINKLATER) *Rose is always wanting James to retire.* (GARY) The adverbial modifier *always* shows that Rose's wish is thought of as something constant, not restricted to any particular moment. So the difference between the sentence as it stands and the possible variant *Rose always wants James to retire* does not lie in the character of the action. Obviously the peculiar shade of meaning in the original sentence is emphatic; the action is represented as never ceasing and this gives the sentence a stronger emotional colouring than it would have with the form of the common aspect: the lexical meaning of *always* is reinforced by the emphatic colouring of the continuous aspect. It is quite clear that these are exaggerated statements, where the form of the continuous aspect is used emotionally, to present an action as going on and on without interruption, whereas that, in the nature of things, is not possible. Such a use is consistent with the basic meaning of the form and illustrates its possible stylistic applications. We shall have to refer to it to elucidate some moot questions concerning these forms. It is the descriptive value of the continuous aspect forms which makes such a use possible at all.

B. Ilyish, The Structure
of Modern English, p. 86-89.

THE VERB: TENSE

While the existence of the aspect category in English is a disputed matter, the tense category is universally recognized. Nobody has ever suggested to characterize the distinction, for example, between *wrote, writes,* and *will write* as other than a tense distinction. Thus we shall not have to produce any arguments in favour of the existence of the category in Modern English. Our task will be on the one hand to define the category as such, and on the other, to find the distinctions within the category of tense, that is, to find out how many tenses there are in English and what each of them means and also to analyse the mutual relations between tense and other categories of the English verb.

GENERAL DEFINITION OF TENSE

As to the general definition of tense, there seems no necessity to find a special one for the English language. The basic features of the category appear to be the

same in English as in other languages. The category of tense may, then, be defined as 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.

The main divisions of objective time appear to be clear enough. There are three of them, past, present, and future. However, it by no means follows that tense systems of different languages are bound to be identical. On the contrary, there are wide differences in this respect.

ENGLISH TENSES

In English there are the three tenses (past, present and future) represented by the forms *wrote, writes, will write,* or *lived, lives, will live.*

Strangely enough, some doubts have been expressed about the existence of a future tense in English. 0.Jespersen discussed this question more than once. The reason why Jespersen denied the existence of a future tense in English was that the English future is expressed by the phrase *"shall / will* + infinitive", and the verbs *shall* and *will* which make part of the phrase preserve, according to Jespersen. some of their original meaning *(shall* an element of obligation, and *will* an element of volition). Thus, in Jespersen's view, English has no way of expressing "pure futurity" free from modal shades of meaning, i.e. it has no form standing on the .same grammatical level as the forms of the past and present tenses.

However, this reasoning is not convincing. Though the verbs *shall* and *will* may in some contexts preserve or indeed revive their original meaning of obligation or volition respectively, as a rule they are free from these shades of meaning and express mere futurity. This is especially clear in sentences where the verb *will* is used as an auxiliary of the future tense and where, at the same time, the meaning of volition is excluded by the context. E.g. *I am so sorry, I am afraid I will have to go back to the hotel* – (R. WEST) Since the verb *will* cannot possibly be said to preserve even the slightest shade of the meaning of volition here, it can have only one meaning that of grammatical futurity. Of course numerous other examples might be given to illustrate this point.

It is well known that a present tense form may also be used when the action belongs to the future. This also applies to the present continuous, as in the following example: *"Marco is coming, my lad," he said, "she is coming to-morrow, and what, tell me what, do we make of that?"* (BUECHNER) The adverbial modifier of time, *to-morrow,* makes it clear that the action expressed by the verb *come* in the present continuous tense actually belongs to the future. So it might also have been expressed by the future tense: *Marco will come, my lad, she will come to-morrow.* But the use of the present continuous adds another shade of meaning, which would be lost if it were replaced by the future tense: Marco's arrival to-morrow is part

of a plan already fixed at the present; indeed, for all we know, she may be travelling already. Thus the future arrival is presented as a natural outcome of actions already under way, not as something that will, as it were, only begin to happen in the future.

So the three main divisions of time are represented in the English verbal system by the three tenses. Each of them may appear in the common and in the continuous aspect. Thus we get six tense-aspect forms.

Besides these six, however, there are two more, namely, the future-in-the-past and the future-continuous-in-the-past. It is common knowledge that these forms are used chiefly in subordinate clauses depending on a main clause having its predicate verb in one of the past tenses, e.g., *This did not mean that she was content to live. It meant simply that even death, if it came to her here, would seem stale.* (R. WEST) However, they can be found in independent clauses as well. The following passage from a novel by Huxley yields a good example of this use: *It was after ten o'clock. The dancers had already dispersed and the last lights were being put out. To-morrow the tents would be struck, the dismantled merry-go-round would be packed into waggons and carted away.* These are the thoughts of a young man surveying the scene of a feast which has just ended. The tenses used are three: the tense which we call past perfect to denote the action already finished by that time *(the dancers had dispersed),* the past continuous to denote an action going on at that very moment *(the lights were being put out)* and the future-in-the-past to denote an action foreseen for the future *(the merry-go-round would be packed and carted away).* The whole passage is of course represented speech and in direct speech the tenses would have been, respectively, the present perfect, the present continuous, and the future.

The future-in-the-past and future-continuous-in-the-past do not easily fit into a system of tenses represented by a straight line running out of the past into the future. They are a deviation from this straight line: their starting point is not the present, from which the past and the future are reckoned, but the past itself. With reference to these tenses it may be said that the past is a new centre of the system. The idea of temporal centres propounded by Prof. I. Ivanova as an essential element of the English tense system seems therefore fully justified in analysing the "future-in-the-past" tenses. It should be noted that in many sentences of this kind the relation between the action denoted by the verb form and the time of the utterance remains uncertain: the action may or may not have taken place already. What is certain is that it was future from the point of view of the time when the action denoted by the verb form took place.

A different view of the English tense system has been put forward by Prof. N. Irtenyeva. According to this view, the system is divided into two halves: that of tenses centring in the present, and that of tenses centring in the past. The former

would comprise the present, present perfect, future, present continuous, and present perfect continuous, whereas the latter would comprise the past, past perfect, future-in-the-past, past continuous, and past perfect continuous. The latter half is characterized by specific features: the root vowel (e.g. *sang* as against *sing),* and the suffix *-d* (or *-t),* e.g. *looked, had sang, would sing, had been singing.* This view has much to recommend it. It has the advantage of reducing the usual threefold division of tenses (past, present, and future) to a twofold division (past and present) with each of the two future tenses (future and future-in-the-past) included into the past or the present system, respectively. However, the cancellation of the future as a tense in its own right would seem to require a more detailed justification.

A new theory of English tenses has been put forward by 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 we call tenses of the perfect correlation. It is the author's great merit to have collected numerous examples, including such as do not well fit into formulas generally found in grammars. The evaluation of this system in its relation to other views has yet to be worked out.

B. Ilyish, The Structure
of Modern English, p. 90-94.

THE VERB: THE PERFECT BASIC QUALITIES OF THE PERFECT FORMS

The Modern English perfect forms have been the subject of a lengthy discussion which has not so far brought about a definite result. The difficulties inherent in these forms are plain enough and may best be illustrated by the present perfect. This form contains the present of the verb *have* and is called present perfect, yet it denotes an action which no longer takes place, and it is (almost always) translated into Russian by the past tense, e. g. *has written* – написал, *has arrived* – приехал, etc.

The position of the perfect forms in the system of the English verb is a problem which has been treated in many different ways and has occasioned much controversy. Among the various views on the essence of the perfect forms in Modern English the following three main trends should be mentioned:

1. The category of perfect is a peculiar tense category, i.e. a category which should be classed in the same list as the categories "present" and "past". This view was held, for example, by 0.Jespersen.

2. The category of perfect is a peculiar aspect category, i.e. one which should be given a place in the list comprising "common aspect" and "continuous aspect".

This view was held by a number of scholars, including Prof. G. Vorontsova. Those who hold this view have expressed different opinions about the particular aspect constituting the essence of the perfect forms. It has been variously defined as "retrospective", "resultative", "successive", etc.

3. The category of perfect is neither one of tense, nor one of aspect but a specific category different from both. It should accordingly be designated by a special term and its relations to the categories of aspect and tense should be investigated. This view was expressed by Prof. A. Smirnitsky. He took the perfect to be a means of expressing the category of "time relation" (временная отнесенность).

This wide divergence of views on the very essence of a verbal category may seem astonishing. However, its causes appear to be clear enough from the point of view of present-day linguistics. These causes fall under the following three main heads:

1. Scholars have been trying to define the basic character of this category without paying sufficient attention to the system of categories of which it is bound to make a part. As we shall see presently, considerations of the system as a whole rule out some of the proposed solutions.

2. In seeking the meaning of the category, scholars have not always been careful to distinguish between its basic meaning (the invariable) and its modifications due to influence of context.

3. In seeking the basic meaning of the category, scholars have not always drawn a clear line of distinction between the meaning of the grammatical category as such and the meanings which belong to, or are influenced by, the lexical meaning of the verb (or verbs) used in one of the perfect forms.

If we carefully eliminate these three sources of error and confusion we shall have a much better chance of arriving at a true and objective solution. Let us now consider the views expressed by different scholars in the order in which we mentioned them above.

If we are to find out whether the perfect can be a tense category, i.e. a tense among other tenses, we must consider ifs relations to the tenses already established and not liable to doubts about their basic character, i.e. past, present, and future. There is no real difficulty here. We need only recollect that there are in Modern English the forms present perfect, past perfect, and future perfect. That present, past, and future are tense categories, is firmly established and has never been doubted by anyone. Now, if the perfect were also a tense category, the present perfect would be a union of two different tenses (the present and the perfect), the past perfect would likewise be a union of two different tenses (the past and the perfect) and the future perfect, too, would be a union of two different tenses (the future and the perfect). This is clearly impossible. If a form already belongs to a tense category (say, the present) it cannot simultaneously belong to another tense

category, since two tense categories in one form would, as it were, collide and destroy each other. Hence it follows that the category of perfect cannot be a tense category. We need not consider here various views expressed by those who thought that the perfect was a tense, since their views, whatever the details may be, are shown to be untenable by the above consideration. So the view that the perfect is a special tense category has been disproved.

In order to find out whether the perfect can be an aspect category, we must consider its relations to the aspects already established, viz. the common and the continuous aspects. This problem does not present any particular difficulty, either. We need only recollect that there are in Modern English such pairs as *is writing – has been writing, was writing – had been writing, will be writing – will have been writing,* i.e. present continuous and present perfect continuous, past continuous and past perfect continuous, future continuous and future perfect continuous. All of these forms belong to the continuous aspect, so the difference between them cannot possibly be based on any aspect category. For example, since both *was writing* and *had been writing* belong to the continuous aspect (as distinct from *wrote* and *had written*), they cannot be said to differ from each other on an aspect line; otherwise they would at the same time belong to one aspect and to different aspects, which is obviously impossible. Hence the conclusion is unavoidable that the perfect is not an aspect. The views of those who consider the perfect to be an aspect need not therefore be discussed here in detail. Since the perfect is neither a tense nor an aspect, it is bound to be some special grammatical category, different both from tense and from aspect. This view, though not quite explicitly stated, was first put forward by Prof. A. Smirnitsky in a posthumous article. It is in complete harmony with the principle of distributive analysis, though Prof. Smirnitsky did not, at the time, use the term "distributive analysis".

The essence of the grammatical category expressed by the perfect, and differing both from tense and from aspect, is hard to define and to find a name for. Prof. Smirnitsky proposed to call it "the category of time relation", which is not a very happy term, because it seems to bring us back to the old view that the perfect is a special kind of tense – a view which Prof. Smirnitsky quite rightly combatted. Later it was proposed to replace his term of "time relation" by that of "correlation" (соотнесенность), which has the advantage of eliminating the undesirable term "time". This is decidedly the term to be preferred.

As to the opposition in such pairs as *writes – has written, wrote – had written, will write – will have written, is writing – has been writing, was writing – had been writing, will be writing – will have been writing,* Prof. Smirnitsky proposed to denote it by the correlative terms "non-perfect" and "perfect". While this latter proposal may be fully accepted, the definition of the meaning of the category presents considerable difficulty. Its essence appears to be precedence: an action

expressed by a perfect form precedes some moment in time. We cannot say that it always precedes another action: the present perfect form is most commonly used in sentences which contain no mention of any other action.

On the other hand, the use of a non-perfect form does not necessarily imply that the action did not precede some moment in time. It may, or it may not, have preceded it. To find this out, the reader or hearer has to take into account some other feature, of the context, or, possibly, the situation, that is, an extralinguistic factor. Thus, the opposition between perfect and non-perfect forms is shown to be that between a marked and an unmarked item, the perfect forms being marked both in meaning (denoting precedence) and in morphological characteristics (*have* + second participle), and the non-perfect forms unmarked both in meaning (precedence not implied) and in morphological characteristics (purely negative characteristic: the collocation "*have* + second participle" not used). On the whole, as a general term to denote the basic meaning of the perfect the term "correlation" in the above-mentioned meaning seems quite acceptable and we propose to make use of it until a better term is found, which may take some time to happen.

If this view is taken, the system of verbal categories illustrated by the forms *writes, is writing, has written, has been writing, wrote, was writing, had written, had been writing, will write, will be writing, will have written, will have been writing,* – is based on three groups of notions, viz. **tense:** present vs. past vs. future; **aspect:** common vs. continuous; **correlation:** non-perfect vs. perfect. As is seen from this list, the latter two of the three oppositions are double (or "dichotomic"), i.e. they consist of only two items each, whereas the first (the tense opposition) is triple (or "trichotomic"), i.e. it consists of three items.

We will accept this state of things without entering into a discussion of the question whether every opposition must necessarily be dichotomic, i.e. consist of two members only.

Thus, the opposition between *writes* and *wrote* is one of tense, that between *wrote* and *was writing* one of aspect, and that between *wrote* and *had written* one of correlation. It is obvious that two oppositions may occur together; thus, between *writes* and *was writing* there are simultaneously the oppositions of tense and aspect; between *wrote* and *will have written* there are simultaneously the oppositions of tense and correlation, and between *wrote* and *had been writing* there are simultaneously the oppositions of aspect and correlation. And, finally, all three oppositions may occur together: thus, between *writes* and *had been writing* there are simultaneously the oppositions of tense, aspect, and correlation. If, in a system of forms, there is only one opposition, it can obviously be represented graphically on a line. If there are two oppositions, they can be represented on a plane. Now, if there are three oppositions, the system "obviously cannot be represented on a

plane. To represent it, we should have recourse to a three-dimensional solid, viz. a parallelepiped. Prof. A. Smirnitsky has given a sketch of such a parallelepiped in his book. However, a drawing of a parallelepiped cannot give the desired degree of clarity and we will not reproduce it here.

B. Ilyish, The Structure
of Modern English, p. 99-109.

THE VERB: MOOD

The category of mood in the present English verb has given rise to so many discussions, and has been treated in so many different ways, that it seems hardly possible to arrive at any more or less convincing and universally acceptable conclusion concerning it. Indeed, the only points in the sphere of mood which have not so far been disputed seem to be these: (a) there is a category of mood in Modern English, (b) there are at least two moods in the modern English verb, one of which is the indicative. As to the number of the other moods and as to their meanings and the names they ought to be given, opinions to-day are as far apart as ever. It is to be hoped that the new methods of objective linguistic investigation will do much to improve this state of things. Meanwhile we shall have to try to get at the roots of this divergence of views and to establish at least the starting points of an objective investigation. We shall have to begin with a definition of the category. Various definitions have been given of the category of mood. One of them (by Academician V.Vinogradov) is this: "Mood expresses the relation of the action to reality, as stated by the speaker." This definition seems plausible on the whole, though the words "relation of the action to reality" may not be clear enough. What is meant here is that different moods express different degrees of reality of an action, viz. one mood represents it as actually taking (or having taken) place, while another represents it as merely conditional or desired, etc.

It should be noted at once that there are other ways of indicating the reality or possibility of an action, besides the verbal category of mood, viz. modal verbs (*may, can, must,* etc.), and modal words (*perhaps, probably,* etc.), which do not concern us here. All these phenomena fall under the very wide notion of modality, which is not confined to grammar but includes some parts of lexicology and of phonetics (intonation) as well.

In proceeding now to an analysis of moods in English, let us first state the main division, which has been universally recognized. This is the division of moods into the one which represents an action as real, i.e. as actually taking place (the indicative) as against that or those which represent it as non-real, i.e. as merely imaginary, conditional, etc.

THE INDICATIVE

The use of the indicative mood shows that the speaker represents the action as real.

Two additional remarks are necessary here.

(1) The mention of the speaker (or writer) who represents the action as real is most essential. If we limited ourselves to saying that the indicative mood is used to represent real actions, we should arrive at the absurd conclusion that whatever has been stated by anybody (in speech or in writing) in a sentence with its predicate verb in the indicative mood is therefore necessarily true. We should then ignore the possibility of the speaker either being mistaken or else telling a deliberate lie. The point is that grammar (and indeed linguistics as a whole) does not deal with the ultimate truth or untruth of a statement with its predicate verb in the indicative (or, for that matter, in any other) mood. What is essential from the grammatical point of view is the meaning of the category as used by author of this or that sentence. Besides, what are we to make of statements with their predicate verb in the indicative mood found in works of fiction? In what sense could we say, for instance, that the sentence *David Copperfield married Dora* or the sentence *Soames Forsyte divorced his first wife Irene* represent "real facts", since we are aware that the men and women mentioned in these sentences never existed "in real life"? This is more evident still for such nursery rhyme sentences as, *The cow jumped over the moon.* This peculiarity of the category of mood should be always firmly kept in mind.

(2) Some doubt about the meaning of the indicative mood may arise if we take into account its use in conditional sentences such as the following: *I will speak to him if I meet him.*

It may be argued that the action denoted by the verb in the indicative mood (in the subordinate clauses as well as in the main clauses) is not here represented as a fact but merely as a possibility (I may meet him, and I may not, etc.). However, this does not affect the meaning of the grammatical form as such. The conditional meaning is expressed by the conjunction, and of course it does alter the modal meaning of the sentence, but the meaning of the verb form as such remains what it was. As to the predicate verb of the main clause, which expresses the action bound to follow the fulfilment of the condition laid down in the subordinate clause, it is no more uncertain than an action belonging to the future generally is. This brings us to the question of a peculiar modal character of the future indicative, as distinct from the present or past indicative. In the sentence *If he was there I did not see him* the action of the main clause is stated as certain, in spite of the fact that the subordinate clause is introduced by *if* and, consequently, its action is hypothetical. The meaning of the main clause cannot be affected by this, apparently because the past has a firmer meaning of reality than the future.

On the whole, then, the hypothetical meaning attached to clauses introduced by *if* is no objection to the meaning of the indicative as a verbal category.

THE IMPERATIVE

The imperative mood in English is represented by one form only, viz. *come (!),* without any suffix or ending.

It differs from all other moods in several important points. It has no person, number, tense, or aspect distinctions, and, which is the main thing, it is limited in its use to one type of sentence only, viz. imperative sentences. Most usually a verb in the imperative has no pronoun acting as subject. However, the pronoun may be used in emotional speech, as in the following example: *"But, Tessie–" he pleaded, going towards her. "You leave me alone!" she cried out loudly.* (E. CALDWELL) These are essential peculiarities distinguishing the imperative, and they have given rise to doubts as to whether the imperative can be numbered among the moods at all. This of course depends on what we mean by mood. If we accept the Definition of mood given above there would seem to be no ground to deny that the imperative is a mood. The definition does not say anything about the possibility of using a form belonging to a modal category in one or more types of sentences: that syntactical problem is not a problem of defining mood. If we were to define mood (and, indeed, the other verbal categories) in terms of syntactical use, and to mention the ability of being used in various types of sentences as prerequisite for a category to be acknowledged as mood, things would indeed be different and the imperative would have to go. Such a view is possible but it has not so far been developed by any scholar and until that is convincingly done there appears no ground to exclude the imperative.

A serious difficulty connected with the imperative is the absence of any specific morphological characteristics: with all verbs, including the verb *be,* it coincides with the infinitive, and in all verbs, except *be,* it also coincides with the present indicative apart from the 3rd person singular. Even the absence of a subject pronoun *you,* which would be its syntactical characteristic, is not a reliable feature at all, as sentences like *You sit here!* occur often enough. Meaning alone may not seem sufficient ground for establishing a grammatical category. Thus, no fully convincing solution of the problem has yet been found.

THE OTHER MOODS

Now we come to a very difficult set of problems, namely those connected with the subjunctive, conditional, or whatever other name we may choose to give these moods.

The chief difficulty analysis has to face here is the absence of a straightforward mutual relation between meaning and form. Sometimes the same external

series of signs will have two (or more) different meanings depending on factors lying outside the form itself, and outside the meaning of the verb; sometimes, again, the same modal meaning will be expressed by two different series of external signs.

The first of these two points may be illustrated by the sequence *we should come,* which means one thing in the sentence *I think we should come here again tomorrow* (here *we should come* is equivalent to *we ought to come);* it means another thing in the sentence *If we knew that he wants us we should come to see him* (here *we should come* denotes a conditional action, i. e. an action depending on certain conditions), and it means another thing again in the sentence *How queer that we should come at the very moment when you were talking about us!* (here *we should come* denotes an action, which has actually taken place and which is considered as an object for comment). In a similar way, several meanings may be found in the sequence *he would come* in different contexts.

The second of the two points may be illustrated' by comparing the two sentences, *I suggest that he go* and *I suggest that he should go,* and we will for the present neglect the fact that the first of the-two variants is more typical of American, and the second of British English.

It is quite clear, then, that we shall arrive at different systems of English moods, according as we make our classification depend on the meaning (in that case one *should come* will find its place under one heading, and the other *should come* under another, whereas *(he) go* and *(he) should go* will find their place under the same heading) or on form (in that case *he should come* will fall under one heading, no matter in what context it may be used, while *(he) go* and *(he) should go* will fall under different, headings).

This difficulty appears to be one of the main sources of that wide devergence of views which strikes every reader of English grammars when he reaches the chapter on moods.

It is natural to suppose that a satisfactory solution may be found by combining the two approaches (that based on meaning and that based on form) in some way or other. But here again we are faced with difficulties when we try to determine the exact way in which they should be combined. Shall we start with criteria based on meaning and first establish the main categories on this principle, and then subdivide each of these categories according to formal criteria, and in this way arrive at the final smallest units in the sphere of mood? Or shall we proceed in the opposite way and start with formal divisions, etc.? All these are questions which can only be answered in a more or less arbitrary way, so that a really binding solution cannot be expected on these lines. Whatever system of moods we may happen to arrive at, it will always be possible for somebody else to say that a different solution is also conceivable and perhaps better than the one we have proposed.

Matters are still further complicated by two phenomena where we are faced with a choice between polysemy and homonymy. One of these concerns forms like *lived, knew,* etc. Such forms appear in two types of contexts, of which one may be exemplified by the sentences, *He lived here five years ago,* or *I knew it all along,* and the other by the sentences, *If he lived here he would come at once,* or, *If I knew his address I should write to him.*

In sentences of the first type the form obviously is the past tense of the indicative mood. The second type admits of two interpretations: either the forms *lived, knew,* etc. are the same forms of the past indicative that were used in the first type, but they have acquired another meaning in this particular context, or else the forms *lived, knew,* etc. are forms of some other mood, which only happen to be homonymous with forms of the past indicative but are basically different.

The other question concerns forms like *(I) should go, (he) would go.* These are also used in different contexts, as may be seen from the following sentences: *I said I should go at once, I should go if I knew the place, Whom should I meet but him,* etc.

The question which arises here is this: is the group *(he) would go* in both cases the same form, with its meaning changed according to the syntactic context, so that one context favours the temporal meaning ("future-in-the-past") and the other a modal meaning (a mood of some sort, differing from the indicative; we will not go now into details about what mood this should be), or are they homonyms, that is, two basically different forms which happen to coincide in sound?

The problem of polysemy or homonymy with reference to such forms as *knew, lived,* or *should come, would come,* and the like is a very hard one to solve. It is surely no accident that the solutions proposed for it have been so widely varied.

Having, then, before us this great accumulation of difficulties and of problems to which contradictory solutions have been proposed without any one author being able to prove his point in such a way that everybody would have to admit his having proved it, we must now approach this question: what way of analysing the category of mood in Modern English shall we choose if we are to achieve objectively valid results, so far as this is at all possible?

There is another peculiar complication in the analysis of mood. The question is, what verbs are auxiliaries of mood in Modern English? The verbs *should* and *would* are auxiliaries expressing unreality (whatever system of moods we may adopt after all). But the question is less clear with the verb *may* when used in such sentences as *Come closer that I may hear what you say* (and, of course, the form *might* if the main clause has a predicate verb in a past tense). Is the group *may hear* some mood form of the verb *hear,* or is it a free combination of two verbs, thus belonging entirely to the field of syntax, not morphology? The same question may be asked about the verb *may* in such sentences as *May you be happy!* where it is part of

a group used to express a wish, and is perhaps a mood auxiliary. We ought to seek an objective criterion which would enable us to arrive at a convincing conclusion.

Last of all, a question arises concerning the forms traditionally named the imperative mood, i.e. forms like *come* in the sentence *Come here, please!* or *do not be* in the sentence *Do not be angry with him, please!* The usual view that they are mood forms has recently been attacked on the ground that their use in sentences is rather different from that of other mood forms.

All these considerations, varied as they are, make the problem of mood in Modern English extremely difficult to solve and they seem to show in advance that no universally acceptable solution can be hoped for in a near future. Those proposed so far have been extremely unlike each other. Owing to the difference of approach to moods, grammarians have been vacillating between two extremes – 3 moods (indicative, subjunctive and imperative), put forward by many grammarians, and 16 moods, as proposed by M. Deutschbein. Between these extremes there are intermediate views, such as that of Prof. A. Smirnitsky, who proposed a system of 6 moods (indicative, imperative, subjunctive I, subjunctive II, suppositional, and conditional), and who was followed in this respect by M. Ganshina and N. Vasilevskaya. The problem of English moods was also investigated by Prof. G. Vorontsova and by a number of other scholars.

In view of this extreme variety of opinions and of the fact that each one of them has something to be said in its favour (the only one, perhaps, which appears to be quite arbitrary and indefensible is that of M. Deutschbein) it would be quite futile for us here either to assert that any one of those systems is the right one, or to propose yet another, and try to defend it against all possible objections which might be raised. We will therefore content ourselves with pointing out the main possible approaches and trying to assess their relative force and their weak points.

If we start from the meanings of the mood forms (leaving aside the meaning of reality, denoted by the indicative), we obtain (with some possible variations of detail) the following headings:

Meaning	**Means of Expression**
Inducement (order, request, prayer, and the like)	*come (!)* (no ending, no auxiliary, and usually without subject, 2nd person only)
Possibility (action thought of as conditionally possible, or as purpose of another action, etc.)	(1) *(he) come* (no ending, no auxiliary) (2) *should come* (*should for* all persons) (3) *may come* (?)
Unreal condition	*came, had come* (same as past or past perfect indicative), used in subordinate clauses
Consequence of unreal condition	*should come* (1st person) *would come* (2nd and 3rd person)

We would thus get either four moods (if possibility, unreal condition, and consequence of unreal condition are each taken separately), or three moods (if any two of these are taken together), or two moods (if they are all three taken together under the heading of "non-real action"). The choice between these variants will remain arbitrary and is unlikely ever to be determined by means of any objective data.

If, on the other hand, we start from the means of expressing: moods (both synthetical and analytical) we are likely to get something like this system:

Means of Expression	Meaning
come (!) (no ending, no auxiliary, and usually without subject)	Inducement
(he) come (no ending in any person, no auxiliary)	Possibility
came, had come	Unreal condition
should come (for all persons)	Unlikely condition
should come (1st person)	Matter for assessment
would come (2nd and 3rd person)	Consequence of unreal condition
may come (?)	Wish or purpose

In this way we should obtain a different system, comprising six moods, with the following meanings:

1) Inducement
2) Possibility
3) Unreal condition
4) Unlikely condition
5) Consequence of unreal condition
6) Wish or purpose

Much additional light could probably be thrown on the whole vexed question by strict application of modern exact methods of language analysis. However, this task remains yet to be done.

We will now turn our attention to those problems of polysemy or homonymy which have been stated above.

It would seem that some basic principle should be chosen here before we proceed to consider the facts. Either we shall be ready to accept homonymy easily, rather than admit that a category having a definite meaning can, under certain circumstances, come to be used in a different meaning; or we shall avoid homonymy as far as possible, and only accept it if all other attempts to explain the meaning and use of a category have failed. The choice between these two procedures will probably always remain somewhat arbitrary, and the solution of a problem of this kind is bound to have a subjective element about it.

Let us now assume that we shall avoid homonymy as far as possible and try to keep the unity of a form in its various uses.

The first question to be considered here is that about forms of the type *lived* and *knew*. The question is whether these forms, when used in subordinate clauses of unreal condition, are the same forms that are otherwise known as the past indefinite indicative, or whether they are different forms, homonymous with the past indefinite.

If we take the view stated above, the *lived* and *knew* forms will be described in the following terms:

They are basically forms of the past tense indicative. This is their own meaning and they actually have this meaning unless some specified context shows that the meaning is different. These possible contexts have to be described in precise terms so that no room remains for doubts and ambiguities. They should be represented as grammatical patterns (which may also include some lexical items).

Pattern No. 1 (for the *lived* or *knew* forms having a meaning different from the past indicative):

If + noun / pronoun + *lived* / *knew* +...+ noun / pronoun + *should* / *would* + infinitive +...

Appearing in this context a form of the *lived* or *knew* type denotes an unreal action in the present or future.

Pattern No. 2 (for the same meaning):

noun / pronoun + *wish* + noun / pronoun + *lived* / *knew* + ...

Appearing in this context, too, a form of the *lived* or *knew* type denotes an unreal action in the present.

Pattern No. 3 (for the same meaning):

It is time + noun / pronoun + *lived* / *knew* + ...

We cannot give here a complete list of patterns. However, such a list is necessary if the conditions of a peculiar application of the *lived* or *knew* forms are to be made clear.

We might also take the view that wherever a difference in meaning is found we have to deal with homonyms. In that case we should say that there are two homonymous *lived* forms: *lived* is the past indicative of the verb *live,* and *lived* is

its present subjunctive (or whatever we may call it). The same, of course, would apply to *knew* and to all other forms of this kind. However, this would not introduce any change into the patterns stated above. We should only have to change the heading, and to say that, for example, Pattern. No. 1 shows the conditions under which *lived* or *knew* is the form of the present subjunctive. It becomes evident here that the difference between the two views affect the interpretation of grammatical phenomena, rather than the phenomena themselves.

A similar problem concerns the groups "*should* + infinitive" and "*would* + infinitive". Two views are possible here. If we have decided to avoid homonymy as far as possible, we will say that a group of this type is basically a tense (the future-in-the-past), which under certain specified conditions may express an unreal action – the consequence of an unfulfilled condition.

The patterns in which this is the case would seem to be the following (we will give only two of them):

Pattern No. 1

If + noun / pronoun + *lived* / *knew* +...+ noun / pronoun + *should* / *would* + infinitive + …

Pattern No. 2:

Should + noun / pronoun + infinitive +...+ noun / pronoun + *should* / *would* + infinitive + ...

As a third pattern, it would be necessary to give the sentences in which there is no subordinate clause, e.g. *I should be very glad to see him.* Here, however, the distinction between the temporal and the modal meaning is a matter of extreme subtlety and no doubt many lexical peculiarities would have to be taken into account. Especially in the so-called represented speech the conditions for the one and the other meaning to be realized are very intricate, as will be seen from the following extract: *To the end of her life she would remember again the taste of the fried egg sandwich on her tongue, could bite again into the stored coolness of the apple she picked up from the red heap on a trestle table. ...She would never again see the country round Laurence Vernon's home as she saw it the first time with Roy.* (R. WEST) A variety of factors, both grammatical arid lexical, go to show that the meaning hero is that of the future-in-the-past. Compare: *But Isabelle could do nothing, she and Marc had been brought by the Bourges, who were now murmuring frenetically, that they would feel better at the Sporting Club* (Idem), where it is hard to tell which meaning is preferable.

If we endorse the other view, that is, if we take the temporal and the modal groups *"should (would)* + infinitive" to be homonyms, the patterns themselves

will not change. The change will affect the headings. We shall have to say, in that case, that the patterns serve to distinguish between two basically different forms sounding alike. Again, just as in the case of *lived* and *knew,* this will be a matter of interpreting facts, rather than of the facts as such.

B. Ilyish, The Structure
of Modern English, p. 114-122.

THE VERB: VOICE

The category of voice presents us with its own batch of difficulties. In their main character they have something in common with the difficulties of mood: there is no strict one-way correspondence between meaning and means of expression. Thus, for instance, in the sentence *I opened the door* and in the sentence *the door opened* the meaning is obviously different, whereas the form of the verb is the same in both cases. To give another example: in the sentence *he shaved the customer* and in the sentence *he shaved and went out* the meaning is different (the second sentence means that he shaved himself), but no difference is to be found in the form of the verb.

We are therefore bound to adopt a principle in distinguishing the voices of the English verb: what shall we take as a starting-point, meaning, or form, or both, and if both, in what proportion, or in what mutual relation?

As to the definition of the category of voice, there are two main views. According to one of them this category expresses the relation between the subject and the action. Only these two are mentioned in the definition. According to the other view, the category of voice expresses the relations between the subject and the object of the action. In this case the object is introduced into the definition of voice. We will not at present try to solve this question with reference to the English language. We will keep both variants of the definition in mind and we will come back to them afterwards.

Before we start on our investigation, however, we ought to define more precisely what is meant by the expression "relation between subject and action". Let us take two simple examples: *He invited his friends* and *He was invited by his friends.* The relations between the subject *(he)* and the action *(invite)* in the two sentences are different since in the sentence *He invited his friends* he performs the action, and may be said to be the doer, whereas in the sentence *He was invited by his friends* he does not act and is not the doer but the object of the action. There may also be other kinds of relations, which we shall mention in due course.

The obvious opposition within the category of voice is that between active and passive. This has not been disputed by any scholar, however views may differ concerning other voices. This opposition may be illustrated by a number of paral-

lel forms involving different categories of aspect, tense, correlation, and mood. We will mention only a few pairs of this kind, since the other possible pairs can be easily supplied:

invites	*— is invited*
is inviting	*— is being invited*
invited	*— was invited*
has invited	*— has been invited*
should invite	*— should be invited*

From the point of view of form the passive voice is the marked member of the opposition: its characteristic is the pattern "be + second participle", whereas the active voice is unmarked: its characteristic is the absence of that pattern.

It should be noted that some forms of the active voice find no parallel in the passive, viz. the forms of the future continuous, present perfect continuous, past perfect continuous, and future perfect continuous. Thus the forms *will be inviting, has been inviting, had been inviting,* and *will have been inviting* have nothing to correspond to them in the passive voice.

With this proviso we can state that the active and the passive constitute a complete system of oppositions within the category of voice.

The question now is, whether there are other voices in the English verb, besides active and passive. It is here that we find doubts and much controversy.

At various times, the following three voices have been suggested in addition to the two already mentioned:

1) the reflexive, as in *he dressed himself,*

2) the reciprocal, as in *they greeted each other,* and

3) the middle voice, as in *the door opened* (as distinct from *I opened the door*).

It is evident that the problem of voice is very intimately connected with that of transitive and intransitive verbs, which has also been variously treated by different scholars. It seems now universally agreed that transitivity is not in itself a voice, so we could not speak of a "transitive voice"; the exact relation between voice and transitivity remains, however somewhat doubtful. It is far from clear whether transitivity is a grammatical notion or a characteristic of the lexical meaning of the verb.

In view of such constructions as *he was spoken of, he was taken care of, the bed had not been slept in,* etc., we should perhaps say that the vital point" is the objective character of the verb, rather than its transitivity: the formation of a passive voice is possible if the verb denotes an action relating to some object.

Last not least, we must mention another problem: what part are syntactic considerations to play in analysing the problem of voice?

Having enumerated briefly the chief difficulties in the analysis of voice in Modern English, we shall now proceed to inquire into each оыf these problems,

trying to find objective criteria as far as this is possible, and pointing out those problems in which any solution is bound to be more or less arbitrary and none can be shown to be the correct one by any irrefutable proofs.

THE PROBLEM OF A REFLEXIVE VOICE

Taking, then, first the problem of the reflexive voice, we will formulate it in the following way. Can the group "verb + *self*-pronoun" (i.e. *myself, himself, ourselves,* etc.) be the reflexive voice of a verb, that is, can the *self*-pronouns ever be auxiliary words serving to derive a voice form of the verb? This is putting the problem in purely morphological terms. But it also has a syntactical side to it. From the syntactical viewpoint it can be formulated in another way: does a *self*-pronoun coming after a verb always perform the function of a separate part of the sentence (the direct object), or can it in some cases at least) be within the same part of the sentence as the verb preceding it (in the vast majority of cases this would be the predicate)?

If we approach this question from the point of view of meaning, we shall see that different cases may be found here. For instance, in the sentence *He hurt himself badly* we might argue that *himself* denotes the object of the action and stands in the same relation to the verb as any other noun or pronoun: *he hurt himself badly* would then be parallel to a sentence like *he hurt me badly.* On the other hand, in a sentence like *He found himself in a dark room* things are different: we could not say that *he found himself* is analogous to *he found me.* We could not, indeed, say that he performed an action, that of finding, and the object of that action was himself, Here, therefore, doubt is at least possible as to whether *himself* is a separate of the sentence, namely, a direct object, or whether it is part of the predicate. We might possibly have to class *he hurt himself* and *he found himself (in a dark room)* under different headings and this would influence our general conclusions on the category of voice.

Considerations of this kind cannot, however, bring about a solution that would be binding and could not be countered by a different solution which might also be confirmed by more or less valid reasons. If we are to achieve some objective solution, we have to rely on objective data in this case, as in so many other cases.

Objective investigation requires that we should find various syntactic contexts or patterns in which the group "verb + *self*-pronoun" can appear. For instance, we ought to look for examples of the pattern "verb + *self*-pronoun + *and* + noun or pronoun". If such examples can be found, they will argue in favour of the view that the *self*-pronouns standing after a verb are actually treated as s landing in the same relation to the verb as any other noun or pronoun denoting the object of the action. If, on the other hand, no such example could be found, this would go some way towards proving that a *self*-pronoun is not apprehended as standing in

the same relation to the verb as any other noun or pronoun following it, and this would be an argument in favour of acknowledging a reflexive voice in the Modern English verb. Other considerations of a syntactical character might also influence our judgement on this question.

The problem has been treated by O. Ovchinnikova, who has collected some examples of the pattern "verb + *self*-pronoun + *and* + noun or pronoun", for instance, *I see this man Meek doing everything that is natural to a complete man: carpentering, painting, digging, pulling and hauling, fetching and carrying, helping himself and everybody else ...* (SHAW) and also examples of a noun functioning as apposition to the *self*-pronoun which comes after a verb, e.g. *I am defending myself – an accused communist.* (FOX) These cases, few as they are, show that a *self*-pronoun following a verb can at least be apprehended as a separate member of the sentence. If it were only part of the predicate it obviously could not have an apposition attached to it. So we may take it as proved that in some cases al least the *self*-pronoun following a verb is not an auxiliary word serving to express a voice category of the verb.

But the question remains, what we are to make of cases such as the following: *It was done, and Catherine found herself alone in the Gallery before the clocks had ceased to strike.* (J. AUSTEN) Here the *self*-pronoun cannot either be joined by *and* to a noun (pronoun), or have a noun in apposition attached to it. Without going into many details concerning these cases, we can merely say that two ways are here open to us.

One way is to say that, since in a number of cases the *self*-pronoun is not an auxiliary word used to form a verbal voice, it is never an auxiliary. Then we should have to treat such cases as *he found himself ....* etc. as phraseological units and refer their peculiarities to the sphere of lexicology rather than of grammar.

The other way would be to say that in some cases a *self*-pronoun does become an auxiliary of voice. Then *to find oneself* would be treated as a form of the reflexive voice of the verb *find* and the group (and, of course, other groups of a similar kind) would remain in the sphere of grammar and we should recognize, a reflexive voice in English. There seems at present no binding argument in favour of one or the other solution. We shall have to leave the question open until such a solution can be found.

The treatment of the problem would be incomplete if we did not mention the cases when a verb is used without a *self*-pronoun to denote an action which the doer performs on himself. Examples of this kind are not numerous. We can mention the verb *dress*, which may be used to mean 'dress oneself', and the verb *wash* which may be used to mean 'wash oneself'. This is seen, for example, in sentences like the following: *At daybreak the next morning Hame got up and dressed.* (E. CALDWELL) As we see, these verbs denote habitual everyday actions and this

appears to be essential for the possibility of such a usage. It would not, for instance, be possible to use the verb *hurt* in the sense of 'hurt oneself', or the verb *accuse* in the sense of 'accuse oneself', etc. Since in the sentence *he dressed quickly* there is no *self*-pronoun and no other special sign to indicate that the doer is performing the action on himself, we cannot include such cases under ther category of the reflexive voice even if we were to recognize the existence of such a voice, which, as we have seen, cannot be objectively established.

Cases of this kind will best be considered together with the problem of the middle voice.

THE PROBLEM OF A RECIPROCAL VOICE

Under this heading we will consider formations like *greeted each other,* or *loved each other,* or *praised one another.* The problem is somewhat similar to that of the reflexive voice, and it is this: Does the group *each other* (and the group *one another)* make part of an analytical verb form, that is, is it an auxiliary element used for forming a special voice of the verb, the reciprocal voice, or is it always a separate secondary part of the sentence (though it is hard to tell exactly what part of the sentence it may be)?

We might seek a solution to the question on the same lines as with the reflexive voice, that is, we might try to find out whether the group *each other* (or *one another)* is ever found to be co-ordinated with a noun or pronoun serving as object to the verb. We should have to see whether such a sentence is ever found as this one: *They kissed each other and the child,* etc. However, such a search would be very hard and not promising at all. Very possibly, we would not find a single example of that kind, but this could not be considered as a proof that *each other* (or *one another*) does serve as an auxiliary to form the reciprocal voice of the verb (*kiss* in this example).

We will not go into this question any deeper and we will limit ourselves to the following conclusion. The solution of the question must remain to a certain arbitrary. But, putting together this question and the question of the reflexive voice as discussed above; we may state that the grounds for assuming a special reciprocal voice are weaker than those for assuming a reflexive voice. Therefore if we reject the reflexive voice, we will certainly reject the reciprocal voice as well. If, on the other hand, we accept the reflexive voice, the question about the reciprocal voice will remain open.

As in the case of the reflexive voice, we must also mention the instances, which are rather few, when a verb denotes a reciprocal action without the help of the group *each other* or *one another.* For instance, in the sentence *They kissed and parted, kissed* is of course equivalent to *kissed each other.* Since there is no external sign of reciprocity, we cannot find here a reciprocal voice even if we should

admit its existence in the language. These cases will also best be considered under the heading "middle voice".

THE PROBLEM OF A MIDDLE VOICE

This problem arises chiefly in connection with the possible double use of a number of verbs in Modern English. Compare, for instance, such pairs of sentences as these:

I opened the door	*The door opened*
I burnt the paper	*The paper burnt*
I boiled the water	*The water boiled*
We resumed the conference	*The conference resumed*
We apply the rule to many cases	*The rule applies to many cases*

First let us formulate what is established and does not depend on anybody's point of view or interpretation, and then we will proceed to analyse the questions which admit of different solutions.

The facts, then, are these. In the sentences of the first and in those of the second column we have verb forms sounding alike but differing from each other in two important points:

(1) In the first column, the verb denotes an action which is performed by the doer on an object in such a way that a change is brought about in that object, for instance, the door was closed and then I acted in such a way that the door became open; the paper was intact, but I subjected it to the action of fire, and it was reduced to ashes, etc.

In the second column a process is stated which is going on in the subject itself: the door opened (as if of its own will), the paper disappeared in flames, etc. Compare, e.g., *His camp had filled* (LINKLATER) *The tea's making.* (L. MITCHELL)

This, of course, is a difference in the relation between the subject and the action (and, for the first column, the object).

(2) In the first column, the verb is followed by a noun (or pronoun) denoting the thing which is subjected to the action denoted by the verb. In the second column, the verb is not followed by any noun (or pronoun). In the first column the verb is transitive, in the second column the verb is intransitive.

What we have said so far is nothing but an objective description of the state of things found in these sentences, no matter what theory a scholar may prefer.

Now we must turn our attention to the possible theoretical interpretation of these facts, and here the problem of voice will arise. One possible interpretation is this. In every line we have in the two columns two different verbs which may be represented in some such way as: $open_1$, verb transitive, $open_2$, verb intransitive; $burn_1$, verb transitive, $burn_2$, verb intransitive, etc. If this interpretation were adopted, the whole problem would be shifted into the sphere of lexicology, and

from the grammatical viewpoint we should have to state that *open*$_1$ here stands in the active voice (correlative with *was opened*), and *open*$_2$ has no voice distinction at all (since from the intransitive verb *open*$_2$, no mutually opposed voice forms can be derived).

Another interpretation would run something like this. In both columns we have the same verb *open,* the same verb *burn,* etc. and the difference between the two is a difference of voice: in the first column it is the active voice (showing an action performed by the doer on the object), while in the second column it is the middle voice, denoting a process going on within the subject, without affecting any object. The difference between the voices, though not expressed by any morphological signs, would then be a difference in meaning and in syntactical construction, the active voice characterized by connection with a following noun or pronoun denoting the object of the action, and the middle voice characterized by the impossibility of connection with such a noun or pronoun. This interpretation would mean the admission of a special voice, the middle voice.

Still another interpretation would be the following. The verb in both columns is the same and the voice is the same, too, since there is no morphological difference between the two columns, and differences of meaning and of syntactical construction are not sufficient reason for establishing a difference of voice. If this view is accepted, we should have to define the category of active voice in such a way that it should include both the first-column and the second-column examples.

The choice between these interpretations depends on the principles which a scholar considers to be the most essential and the most likely to yield an adequate picture of language facts. If, for instance, it is considered essential that a difference in grammatical categories should find its outward expression by some morpheme, etc., the second of the three suggested interpretations will have to be rejected. If, on the other hand, it is considered possible for two morphological categories to be distinguished in meaning and syntactical use without any special morphemes to show the distinction, that second interpretation will be found acceptable.

Without prejudice to the first or second interpretation, we will now follow up the third, which seems to present the greatest interest from a theoretical point of view. In doing so, we will assume that we do not accept either a reflexive or a reciprocal or a middle voice, so that only two voices are left, the active and the passive. If, then, we are to bring under the heading of the active voice such cases as *the door opened, the paper burnt, the water boiled,* etc., we shall have to give that voice a definition wide enough to include all uses of that kind as well (this may make it necessary to change the term for the voice, too).

Let us now consider the opposition between the voices: *opened* (in any sense) *I was opened, burnt* (in any sense) *I was burnt* from the point of view of meaning. It should at once be clear that the second member of the opposition (*was opened,*

etc.) has a much more definite meaning than the first: the meaning of the type *was opened* is that the subject is represented as acted upon, whereas the meaning of the first member (*opened,* etc.) is much less definite. We could, then, say that *opened* is the unmarked, and *was opened,* the marked member of the opposition. The meaning of the unmarked member is, as has often been the case, hard to define. What scorns the essential point in its meaning is, that the subject is represented as connected with the origin of the action, and not merely acted upon from the outside. Some such definition would seem to cover both the type *he opened the door,* and the type *the door opened.* Whether the subject produces a change in an object, or whether the action is limited to the sphere of the subject itself – all these and similar points would depend partly on the syntactical context (on whether the verb is followed by a noun / pronoun or not), partly on the lexical meaning of the verb and its relation to the lexical meaning of the noun expressing the subject (compare *the old man opened...* and *the door opened),* partly, probably, on a number of other factors which are yet to be studied. The question whether it is more advisable to keep the term "active voice" or to substitute another term for it would also have to be discussed.

If this view is adopted, all the special cases considered above: *he shaved* (in the reflexive meaning), *they kissed* (in the reciprocal meaning) would fall under the heading of the active voice (if this term is kept) and their peculiarities would have to be referred to the context, the lexical meaning of the verb in question, etc.

The following phenomena would also belong here: *the book sells well, the figures would not add, the rule does not apply in this case* (as different from *we do not apply the rule*), and a number of others, which have been variously treated as "absolute use", use of the active form in a passive meaning, etc.

As to form, it has been already said above that the passive is the marked, and the active the unmarked member of the opposition. Thus, then, the passive is marked both in meaning and in form and the active as unmarked both in meaning and in form.

This solution of the voice problem in Modern English appears to be convincing. However the other interpretations (mentioned above as first and second) ought also to be reasoned out to their logical conclusions.

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

TENSE

The only tense which is expressed by inflection in English is the preterite (*I 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 *I 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

274. 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 anterior 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

279. 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 *I have lived my life* meaning 'the active part of my life is over', *I have lived* is a complete perfect. But in *I 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 in complete secondary tenses, we mean, of course, complete or incomplete with reference to the accompanying primary

tenses. Thus in *I had written ray letter when he came,* the action of writing is represented as being finished at the time denoted by the preterite *came,* so that *I had written* is here a complete (pluperfect) tense. *In I 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 *I 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 *I have been seeing* generally expresses duration, as in *I have been writing letters all day* compared with *I have written only one letter today. I have been writing* is, therefore, a long tense. *I 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**.

There are many other tense-aspects of more special meaning. [...] In English we have an immediate future formed with the auxiliary *go,* as in *I am afraid it is going to rain;* compared with *I am afraid it will rain tomorrow.*

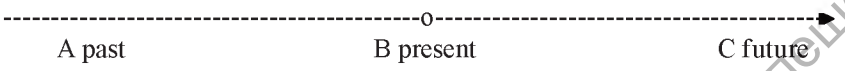
DEFINITE AND INDEFINITE TENSES

288. Tenses differ greatly in definiteness. The shorter a tense is, the more **definite** it generally is both in duration and in its relation to the distinctions of past, present, and future. Long tenses – whether continuous or recurrent – are generally more **indefinite**. The difference between a definite and an indefinite tense is seen by comparing the English definite present in *I am writing a letter* with the indefinite *I write my letters in the evening;* the former means 'I am writing at this present moment', the latter means 'when I write letters, I write them in the evening'.

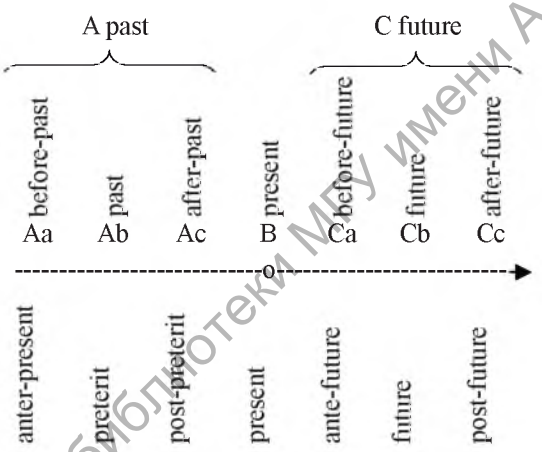
O. Jespersen, The Philosophy
of Grammar, p. 257-263, 277-278.

TIME AND TENSE

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



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 [...]: *I 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 some what 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:

I 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 ____.

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: *I shall have written (he will have written)* [...].

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

I shall have written the letter before he comes = he will come after I have written (shall have written) the letter: ____ c.

He wilt 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:

(Cc). **After-future.** This has chiefly a theoretic interest, and I doubt very much whether forms like *I shall be going to write* (which implies nearness in time to the chief future lime) 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 writing, 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 unexpanded *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. We may represent the relatively long duration by means of a line, in which a point shows the shorter time, either the present moment (which need not always be indicated) or some time in the past, which in most cases has to be specially indicated:

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

VOICE

311. 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).*

312. In English the passive is formed by combining the finite forms of the auxiliary verb *to be* with the preterite participle of the verb. Thus the active forms *I see, I saw, I have seen, I shall see* become in the passive *I am seen, I was seen, I have been seen, I shall be seen.*

313. 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.

315. 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: *I was asked three questions by the examiner; three questions were 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.

316. Some languages, such as Greek, have a **reflexive**, or **middle voice**. [...]

395. 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.*

396. 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**. [...]

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

MOOD

293. 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. [...]

294. 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.

295. There are various ways of stating in the form of a thought as opposed to a fact. The most unmistakable one is by stating in the form of a hypothesis, as when the fact-statements *it is true, it is not true,* are made into the hypothetical clauses *if it is true, if it is not true.* Here both pairs of sentences offer us a subject and a predicate standing to one another in the opposite relations of affirmation and negation, but while the first two sentences express the affirmation and negation as facts, the last two merely suggest them as objects of thought. [...]

299. In English the only inflectional moods are the indicative and subjunctive. But the inflections of the English verb are so scanty that we need not be surprised to find that the distinction between indicative and subjunctive is very slight. The only regular inflection by which the subjunctive is distinguished from the indicative in English is that of the third person singular present, which drops the *s* of the indicative *(he sees)* in the subjunctive *(he see).* In the verb *to be,* however, further distinctions are made: indicative *I am, he is, he was,* subjunctive *I be, he be, he were,* although in the spoken language the only distinction that is still kept up is that between *was* and *were.* Consequently the sense of the distinction in function between subjunctive and indicative has almost died out in English, and we use the subjunctive *were* only in combination with other mood-forms, the other subjunctive inflections surviving only in a few special phrases and constructions, such as *God save the queen!,* where the subjunctive expresses wish, being thus equivalent to the Greek optative.

300. 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 it 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.*

301. 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 I 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.**

301. 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.

O. Jespersen, The Philosophy of Grammar, p. 313, 315.

MOODS

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 had only the English language to deal with, for it is merely the fact that such combinations in some cases serve to trans-rate simple Subjunctives in German or Latin that suggest the use of such terms, exactly as people will call *to the boy* a dative case. [...]

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

IMAGINATIVE USE OF TENSES

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

9.1 (1). 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 [...].

SUMMING-UP QUESTIONS

1. What are the "part of speech" properties of the verb?
2. What is the difference between "time" and "tense"?
3. How is time expressed in English and Russian compared?
4. What are the approaches to the number of tense forms?
5. Why is the existence of the future forms in English a disputable problem?

6. What verbal category do the continuous forms represent? What is its categorial meaning?

7. Does the category of aspect depend on the lexical meaning of the verb?

8. Do verbals possess the category of aspect?

9. What category do the perfect forms express? What is its categorial meaning?

10. Can the perfect forms be treated within the categories of tense and aspect?

11. Do verbals possess the category of order?

12. Which categories of the English verb denote temporal relations?

13. What is the general grammatical meaning of the category of voice?

14. What accounts for the existence of different viewpoints on the number of voices in English?

15. What property does the category o voice have in common with the category of case?

16. What does the category of mood express?

17. What complicates the analysis of English mood forms?

18. What are the peculiarities of the imperative mood?

19. Which forms are used to express problematic and unreal actions?

20. How are they interpreted by different authors?

Chapter 6. THE VERB: NON-FINITE FORMS

B.S. Khaimovich, B.I. Rogovskaya
A Course In English Grammar, p. 183-195.

THE VERBIDS

§ 303. Besides the features common to the English verb as a whole the verbids have certain features of their own distinguishing them from the finite verb.

Their lexico-grammatical meaning is of dual nature. The verbal meaning of 'action, process' is presented as some kind of 'substance' (gerund, infinitive) or 'quality' (participle).

They have peculiar morphemes: *-ing* (gerund and participle I), *-(e)d, -(e)n* (participle II), *to* (infinitive).

There is duality in their combinability. They form connections with adverbs, nouns, pronouns (denoting objects of action) like finite verbs, and with finite verbs, like nouns or adverbs. There are also other combinative models typical of verbids.

Their syntactical functions are quite different from those of the finite verb. They are very rarely used as predicates, but they are used in almost any other function in the sentence.

§ 304. The lexico-grammatical meaning of the verbids, though essentially that of the verb (they denote actions), has something of the lexico-grammatical meanings of other parts of speech. The gerund, for instance, denotes an action partially treated as a substance. Thus, in the sentence *Going there put an end to her anxiety* the gerund *going,* though denoting an action, presents it at the same time as a substance which produced the act of putting an end to something. The same in *T o t e m p t Providence was the practice of Modernity* (Galsworthy), in which *to tempt,* though denoting a process affecting a certain 'object' *(Providence),* is presented as a 'substance' identified with another 'substance' *(the practice of Modernity).*

The participle denotes a 'qualifying action', i.e. an action presented as a property of some substance (like an adjective) or a circumstance of another action (like an adverb).

E.g. He looked at his son with twinkling e y e s (Snaith).

"Let me do it", he s a i d kneeling beside her. (Ib.).

§ 305. The verbids have special morphemes distinguishing them from the finite verb. They are: the suffix *-ing* of the gerund, the suffixes *-ing-, -en, -ed,* etc. of the participle and the word-morpheme *to* of the infinitive. These morphemes are very peculiar. They are not lexical or lexico-grammatical morphemes because

they do not characterize all the words of the verb lexeme. Compare, for instance, the suffixes *-ize,* and *-ing* in *realizes, has realized, to realize, realizing, being realized.* The suffix *-ize* is found in every word of the lexeme, the suffix *-ing* only in some words.

The *-ing* morpheme differs from grammatical morphemes as well. Grammatical morphemes are used to form grammatical opposemes. Cf. *ask**s** – ask**ed** – **will*** ask. The suffix *-ing* of the gerund is not used to form any grammatical opposemes. It serves to oppose all the gerunds to all the non-gerunds. Thus it is a peculiar g r o u p-suffix within the verb lexeme.

The same could be said about the homonymous *-ing* suffix of the participle. But two additional remarks are necessary.

1. The participial *-ing* morpheme does not unite all the system of the participle. The so-called participle II *(written, asked)* has different suffixes.

2. Since participle I is used to form analytical 'continuous aspect' grammemes, the *-ing* suffix of the participle has become a grammatical morpheme of the finite verb as well. The suffixes of participle II are not group-suffixes because participle II is a one-word system. In all other respects they resemble the participial *-ing* suffix. They are used as grammatical morphemes participating in the formation of 'passive voice' and 'perfect order' grammemes.

Of great interest is the *to* word-morpheme of the infinitive. It is a word morpheme because it has only the form of a separate word, but not the content, and it functions as part of a word. It is a group-morpheme (like *-ing),* but unlike the participial *-ing* it is not used as a grammatical morpheme. Cf. *shall come,* not **shall to come.*

Unlike other group-morphemes, the word-morpheme *to* is not used in certain surroundings.

§ 306. The verbids do not possess many of the categories of the finite verb, such as number, person, tense and mood.

§ 307. Here is a table presenting the paradigms of the verbids.

The Paradigm of the Infinitive

Order and aspect	Voice	
	Active	Passive
non-perfect, non-continuous	*to write*	*to be written*
non-perfect, continuous	*to be writing*	*to be being written*
perfect, non-continuous	*to have written*	*to have been written*
perfect, continuous	*to have been writing*	*to have been being written*

The Paradigm of the Gerund

Order	Voice	
	Active	Passive
non-perfect	*writing*	*being written*
perfect	*having written*	*having been written*

The Paradigm of the Participle

Participle I			Participle II
Order	Voice		
	Active	Passive	
non-perfect	*writing*	*being written*	*written*
perfect	*having written*	*having been written*	

§ 308. The combinability of the verbids is of mixed nature. Partly, as we have seen, it resembles that of a finite verb. But some models of combinability are akin to those of other parts of speech.

The gerund may be preceded by a preposition and a possessive pronoun, like a noun.

E.g. One could see that w i t h o u t his even s p e a k i n g. (Abrahams).

The participle is regularly connected with nouns, like an adjective, and with verbs, like an adverb.

§ 309. The functions of the verbids in the sentence are different from those of the finite verb. The latter regularly functions as the predicate of the sentence. The verbids are, as a rule, not used in this function. But they are used in most other functions.

To g o to Fleur was what he would like to do. (Galsworthy). (*To go* is a subject.)

He promised not t o t e l l her about the offer. (Wilson). (*To tell* is used as an objective complement.)

In the sentence *They looked up at the sky t o s e e if it was f l y i n g weather* (Maugham) the infinitive is an adverbial complement of purpose and the gerund is an attribute. In *She is a s p o i l e d child not t o b e t r u s t e d* (Galsworthy) both the participle *spoiled* and the infinitive *to be trusted* are attributes.

§ 310. One of the peculiarities of the verbids is their being used as secondary predicates. In the sentence *I saw them dancing* two actions are named as well as the doers of those actions. But there is a great difference between *I saw* and *them danc-*

ing. I saw is more or less independent. It makes a predication, the backbone of a sentence, or the sentence itself. *Them dancing* can exist only in a sentence where there is a predication. The tense and mood relations of the finite verb are then reflected in the verbid and it becomes a **secondary predicate**, and combinations like *them dancing* become **secondary predications**, often called **complexes** or **nexuses**.

THE INFINITIVE

§ 311. The infinitive is a verbid characterized by the following features:

1. Its dual lexico-grammatical meaning of an action, process partially viewed as a substance.

2. The categories of voice, aspect and order.

3. Its peculiar combinability resembling that of the verb, and partly that of the noun.

Like a finite verb the infinitive is associated:

a) with adverbs, e. g. *to speak fluently;*

b) with nouns and pronouns denoting the doer or the object of the action.

E.g. We expected y o u to bring t h e b o o k.

Like a noun the infinitive may be associated with a finite verb: *T o l a n d seemed impossible. I promised t o c o m e.*

4. The word-morpheme *to.*

5. The syntactical functions of subject, predicative, object, attribute, adverbial modifier, etc.

6. Its participation in analytical forms like *shall bring, will bring, should bring, would bring,* etc.

The infinitive representing an action in its most general form, is often treated as the initial form of the verb, 'the verbal nominative', in the terminology of A.A. Shakhmatov.

§ 312. The infinitival *to* is usually called a particle, but it is never mentioned in the chapters dealing with particles, and with good reason too, for it does not possess the properties of a particle. Particles as a part of speech are characterized by their lexico-grammatical meaning of "emphatic specification". The infinitival *to* does not emphasize or specify anything. All particles have distinct lexical meanings. *To* has no lexical. meaning whatever. Particles are characterized by extensive combinability: they form combinations with words of almost any part of speech. *To* is connected only with the infinitive. All this clearly shows that *to* is not a particle. It is a group-morpheme of the infinitive. Its being a word-morpheme at the same time distinguishes it from other group-morphemes, such as *-ing, -en,* etc.

§ 313. Like other word-morphemes *to* can represent the whole analytical word.

Compare the answers to *Will you go?*

Yes, I shall, where *shall* represents the analytical word *shall go.*

I want to, where *to* represents the analytical word *to go.*

§ 314. Like other word-morphemes, *to* can be separated from the rest of the analytical word by some other word or words, in which case linguists speak of the ***split infinitive.***

Cf. *He w i l l fully appreciate...*

In order t o fully a p p r e c i a t e...

E.g. They asked him t o personally i n t e r v e n e to stop the closure of the Holyrood Knitwear factory. (D.W.).

§ 315. The presence or absence of this word-morpheme depends on the environment of the infinitive in speech, thus the infinitive is used without its word-morpheme *to* after some verbs and verbal expressions, namely: a) after modal verbs (save *ought),* b) verbs of physical perceptions – *to see, to hear, to observe, to perceive, to watch,* c) *to make, to let, to bid,* d) *had better, would rather,* etc.

§ 316. The aspect, order and voice meanings of the infinitive are the same as in the finites. We shall only remark here on some special uses of the perfect infinitive in speech.

After such modal verbs as *should, ought, might,* the past tense of *to be* (used as a modal verb) and the past tense of verbs denoting hope, intention, expectation, wish, etc. the perfect forms of the infinitive carry a peculiar modal meaning to show that the hopes, intentions, etc. have not been realized.

My father might h a v e m a d e millions in the theatres and film studios. (Shaw).

I hoped t o h a v e w r i t t e n you a long letter. (Gaskell).

I ought not to h a v e s t a y e d there so long.

The forms *to have written, to have stayed* in combination with the verbs *hoped, ought* express the modal notion of irreality.

When the perfect infinitive is used with the present tense of modal verbs, as in *He must h a v e a r r i v e d. He may have a r r i v e d,* it expresses the speaker's judgement in the present concerning the probability of some prior action.

He m u s t h a v e b e e n a rum old bird. (Shaw).

Your arrival c a n n o t h a v e b e e n a n n o u n c e d to His Majesty. (Ib.).

THE PARTICIPLE

§ 317. The participle is a verbid characterized by the following properties:

1. Its dual lexico-grammatical meaning of a qualifying action.

2. The categories of voice, order.

3. Special suffixes: *-ing* (participle I), *-(e)d, -t, -(e)n* (participle II). Participle II is sometimes characterized by internal inflexion *(written)* or by a zero suffix *(put).*

4. Its peculiar combinability partly resembling that of the verb (the participle is associated with adverbs, with nouns and pronouns denoting the object of the

action), and partly that of the adjective (it modifies nouns) and of the adverb (it modifies verbs).

5. Its most characteristic syntactical functions of attribute, adverbial complement, etc.

6. The participation in analytical forms like is *asking, is asked, has asked, is being asked,* etc.

§ 318. As to the verbal features of participle I they do not differ in the essential from those of the infinitive and the gerund. The grammeme traditionally called 'past participle' (participle II) stands somewhat apart. It possesses a number of peculiar features which are worth considering in detail.

Subjective verbs such as *to exist, to die, to lie (лежать),* etc. which do not admit, as a rule, of being used in the passive voice, have no participles II used independently (i.e. not as parts of analytical words). There are but a few exceptions to this principle such as *runaway, fallen, couched, collapsed, vanished, gone, come, faded, withered, retired.*

E.g. A fallen idol, vanished civilizations, dream come true, etc. Sweet also mentions such combinations as *a learned man, a drunken man.,* In most of the examples given above 'the idea of action is suppressed, whereas the notion of quality is made prominent, and we may say that these participles *(e. g. learned, drunken, faded, retired,* etc.) either have become adjectives or are in the process of adjectivization.

Participle II has no opposite of order, but in speech it denotes simultaneousness or priority depending on the lexical meaning of the lexeme it belongs to and the context it occurs in. If the verb happens to be a terminative one, the participle mostly expresses priority, unless the context shows the converse. If the verb is a durative one, the participle usually shows simultaneousness. Cf.: *She looked at the broken cup ...* (where *broken* – participle II of a terminative verb – denotes priority), and *This old man loved and respected by all his friends is a teacher* (where *loved* and *respected* denote actions simultaneous with that of the finite verb).

Thus, the difference in meaning between *loving (a child loving his mother)* and *loved (a child loved by his mother)* is only that of voice; whereas in case of terminative verbs – such as *to break* – the semantical difference may also be that of order, as *breaking* mostly denotes simultaneity, *broken* – priority.

Since these distinctions between participle I and participle II depend on the lexical meanings, they can hardly be regarded as members of a grammatical opposeme of voice or order. The participle *loving* has a voice opposite *being loved* and an order opposite *having loved.*

§ 319. As we have already mentioned, the adjectival and the adverbial features of the participle are connected with its combinability.

Participle II is mostly used to modify nouns.

E.g. My f o r g o t t e n friend ... Marlow was dead and b u r i e d.

As to participle I, the combinability of different grammemes is different.

The non-perfect active participle may modify both nouns and verbs.

E.g. His s m i l i n g eyes; s m i l i n g slyly, he stretched out his hand.

The non-perfect passive usually modifies verbs, but occasionally (when the verb is durative) nouns.

E.g. Not b e i n g i n v i t e d there, I chose to stay at' home. It would be advisable to achieve agreement on measures to discontinue the war propaganda b e i n g c o n d u c t e d in certain states. (Daily Worker).

The other grammemes are used only to modify verbs.

E.g. H a v i n g b e e n d e t a i n e d by the flood, he came late.

§ 320. English participles like those of Russian, Ukrainian and other languages, may sometimes develop into adjectives, the idea of quality gradually overshadowing that of action, as in *standing water – стоячая вода, a charming woman – очаровательная женщина, written work – письменная (контрольная) работа.* They may develop into nouns, the idea of substance outweighing that of action – *the wounded – раненый, the accused – обвиняемый, the deceased – покойный,* etc. Both adjectivization and substantivization involve the change of combinability and function, i. e. they are cases of conversion.

THE GERUND

§ 321. The gerund is a verbid characterized by the following features:

1. Its dual lexico-grammatical meaning of an action partially viewed as a substance.

2. The categories of voice and order.

3. The group morpheme *-ing.*

4. The combinability resembling that of the verb (the gerund is associated with adverbs, with nouns or pronouns denoting the object of the action) and that of the noun (the gerund is associated with prepositions, with the conjoint possessive pronouns, nouns in the possessive case).

E.g. The district is justified in blindly ignoring the county. (Bennett).

5. The syntactical functions of subject, complement, attribute, etc.

E.g. His returning so soon surprised his family. (Meredith).

I remember meeting him in London. (Collins).

§ 322. The gerund, like the infinitive, combines verbal and noun features, yet the gerund is more of a noun than the infinitive, which is to some extent explained by the fact that the gerund became part of the verb system much later than the infinitive.

The combinability of the gerund differs considerably from that of the infinitive. Thus, the gerund may be preceded by a preposition, as in *She thought of*

g o i n g there. We insisted o n s t a y i n g here. The wisdom of l i v i n g is greater than the wisdom of the book. (Abrahams).

In contrast to the infinitive, the gerund is often accompanied by a noun in the possessive case or a possessive pronoun. Sometimes the action denoted by the gerund is not associated with any doer, any producer of the action, as in *Living is striving.*

Very often the doer is not clear, as in *I like singing* (it is not clear whether I myself like to sing or I like other people's singing). This is much rarer with the infinitive, which mostly denotes an action whose subject is represented by some word in the sentence. Cf. *I like singing* and *I like to sing* (in the latter sentence the doer of the action denoted by *to sing* is represented by *I*).

The gerund, as H.Sweet says, is less of a verb than the infinitive, in as much as it does not join in the conjugation of the finite verb.

In addition, the infinitive possesses a peculiar modal force not observed in the gerund, as in *the article to be t r a n s l a t e d* (=which must be translated).

§ 323. Some grammarians are of the opinion that the difference between these rival forms – the infinitive and the gerund – is an aspective one, the gerund representing an action in its progress (accordingly it is thought to be imperfective) and the infinitive – representing an action in its entirety (accordingly it is thought to be perfective). Besides, the gerund is believed to denote a general action, the infinitive – a concrete one.

Many linguists (among them Curme) refute this point of view and supply examples showing that the differentiation is not felt in actual usage. Thus, in the sentence *It has a bad air your f o r g e t t i n g me so early,* though a gerund is used, a concrete, individual instance is meant.

It is hard to foretell how the rivalry of these forms will progress. It is quite probable that the gerund and the infinitive will be further differentiated. In Modern English speech the gerund is, probably, the only usual verbid after 1) some verbs such as *to advise, to avoid, to delay, to deny, to enjoy, to escape, to excuse, to fancy, to finish, to give up, to go on, to imagine, to keep on, to leave off, to mind, to put off, to postpone, to quit, to set about, to stop, to suggest;* 2) certain verb-groups such as *can't help (bear, stand, stomach, suffer);* after verbs with fixed prepositions such as *to accuse (of), to agree (to), to approve (of);* 3) adlinks and adjectives – *aware (of), capable (of), fond (of), proud (of),* etc.

On the other hand, some verbs can attach an infinitive, but not a gerund, as *to hope, to promise, to refuse, to start out,* etc.

§ 324. The gerund, which is a peculiarity of the English language, is very extensively used as the centre of complexes (nexuses) synonymous with subordinate clauses. Compare:

I know of his h a v i n g g o n e to Kiev.

I know that he has gone to Kiev.

There are probably few types of subordinate clauses which have no synonymous complexes. Compare:

That he is ill is known.	*His being ill is known.*
I know that he has come.	*I know of his having come.*
After they had come, he hurried to his sister.	*On their coming he hurried to his sister*
Your plan that we should stay here is not good.	*Your plan of our s t a y i n g here is not good.*
Though he is young, he is a skilled worker.	*Despite his b e i n g young, he is a skilled worker,* etc.

It does not follow that the gerund constructions are equivalent to the subordinate clauses, but the given examples are intended to prove the 'versatility' of the gerund constructions.

§ 325. In conclusion we think it necessary to add a few words concerning the so-called 'half-gerund', as in the examples *Excuse my b o y s (t h e m) h a v i n g b o r e d you so.* The gerund used in this complex differs from a 'classical' gerund but in having a noun in the common case as its subject-word. The common case established itself early with nouns that have no possessive case. The usage has spread very rapidly in recent years. At present such complexes are common: a) with nouns that have no case opposemes: *The back-benchers insisted on t h e t r e a t y b e i n g r a t i f i e d. (The Worker);* b) with nouns accompanied by attributes in post-position: Fancy *a w o m a n o f t a s t e b u y i n g a hat like that.* (Christie); c) to avoid ambiguity which might arise in oral speech if the gerund were connected with a noun in the possessive case: *I imagine h i s s o n (son's) m a r r y i n g so young;* d) when the gerund is preceded by more than one noun: *She objected to c h i l d r e n a n d w o m e n s m o k i n g;* e) when it is desirable to stress the person component of this complex:

I hate the idea of y o u w a s t i n g your time. (Maugham).

Though there is no unity of opinion about the nature of such forms, we do not think it expedient to have a special name for them. Examples like those given above merely show that the subject words of the gerund may also be nouns (pronouns) in the common case (or nouns and pronouns having no case opposites) and pronouns in the objective case.

The use of the common or the objective case form to express the agent of the action denoted by the gerund makes it possible to use gerundial complexes with a much greater number of nouns and pronouns.

This usage is suggestive of the further verbalization of the gerund, of some important change in its combinability.

B. Ilyish, The Structure
of Modern English, p. 130-136.

THE VERB: VERBALS

In so far as the verbals (infinitive, gerund, and participle) make up a part of the English verb system, they have some features in common with the finite forms, and in so far as they are singled out amid the forms of the verb, they must have some peculiarities of their own.

Let us first consider the system of verbal categories which are expressed in the English verbals. They have some of them, and they lack some others. We must also observe that it is by no means certain in advance that all the verbals are in the same position as regards the verb categories.

It is clear that none of the verbals has any category of person or mood. The English verbals have no category of number either, though this is not so in some other languages. What we must examine is the categories of aspect, tense, correlation, and voice.

With reference to aspect we shall have to examine each of the verbals separately.

In the infinitive, we find an opposition between two sets of forms:

(to) speak — *(to) be speaking*
(to) have spoken — *(to) have been speaking,*

which is obviously the same as the opposition in the sphere of finite forms between:

speak — am speaking
spoke — was speaking
etc.

The conclusion here is quite obvious: the infinitive has the category of aspect, viz. there is a distinction between the common and the continuous aspect. The continuous infinitive is found, for example, in the following sentence: *He seems to be enjoying himself quite a lot.* (R. WEST)

In our next example the continuous infinitive of the verb *love* is used: *I can recollect yet how I loved him; and can dimly imagine I could still be loving him if – No, no!* (E. BRONTE) The variant with the simple infinitive would be: *I can recollect yet how I loved him; and can dimly imagine I could still love him, if –* The difference in this case seems to be that the continuous infinitive gives more prominence to the idea of the continuity of her love, and this is obviously much stronger than the mere statement that love might still be there now. The stylistic difference is thus unquestionable, but there would seem to be also a grammatical difference. The meaning of the continuous aspect is well brought out here, though the lexical meaning of the verb *love* would seem to go against it.

With the gerund and the participle, on the other hand, things are different. Generally speaking, they exhibit no such distinction. Neither in the one nor in the other do we find continuous forms.

Occasionally, however, a continuous participle is found, as in the following sentence from a novel by Jane Austen: *The younger Miss Thorpes being also dancing, Catherine was left to the mercy of Mrs Thorpe and Mrs Allen, between whom she now remained.* It is not clear here what exactly is added to the meaning of the sentence by using the continuous participle *being dancing* rather than the usual participle *dancing.* Be that as it may, this example shows that a continuous first participle is at least potentially a part of the morphological system of the English verb. But this use appears to be obsolete.

In the following sentence there are even three continuous participles, with one auxiliary common to all of them: *Catherine had no leisure for speech, being at once blushing, tying her gown, and forming wise resolutions with the most violent dispatch.* (J. AUSTEN) The word order (the phrase *at once* coming after the auxiliary *being)* clearly shows that the auxiliary belongs to all three participles *(blushing, tying,* and *forming).* The use of the continuous participles seems to be a means of giving prominence" to the fact that the actions indicated were actually happening at that very moment.

TENSE AND CORRELATION

The problem of the category of tense and that of correlation have to be considered together, for reasons which will become clear immediately.

In the infinitive, we find the following oppositions:

(to) speak — *(to) have spoken*
(to) be speaking — *(to) have been speaking*

and in the gerund and the participle the oppositions

speaking — *having spoken*
being spoken — *having been spoken*

The question now is, what category is at the base of these oppositions?

The considerations which can be put forward in this matter might be compared to those which were applied to similar phenomena in the forms *should speak – should have spoken,* but here everything is much simpler. If we start from the way these forms are derived we shall say that it is the category of correlation which finds its expression here, the first-column forms having no pattern *"have* + second participle" and the second-column forms having this very pattern. If we turn to the meaning of the second-column forms, we shall find that they express precedence, whereas the first-column forms do not express it. Once again we see that in each pair one item is unmarked both in meaning and in form whereas the

other (the perfect) is marked both in meaning (expressing precedence) and in form (consisting of the pattern *"have* + second participle").

If this view is accepted it follows that the category of correlation is much more universal in the Modern English verb than that of tense: correlation appears in all forms of the English verb, both finite and non-finite, except the imperative, while tense is only found in the indicative mood and nowhere else.

Since the verbals are hardly ever the predicate of a sentence, they do not express the category of tense in the way the finite verb forms do. Thus, it seems pointless to argue that there is a present and a past tense in the system of verbals.

We will therefore endorse the view that the opposition between *(to) speak* and *(to) have spoken,* and that between *speaking* and *having spoken* is based on the category of correlation.

VOICE

Like the finite forms of the verb, the verbals have a distinction between active and passive, as will readily be seen from the following oppositions:

(to) read — *(to) be read*
(to) have read — *(to) have been read*
reading — *being read*
having read — *having been read*

As to other possible voices (reflexive, reciprocal, and middle) there is no reason whatever to treat the verbals in a different way from the finite forms. Thus, if we deny the existence of these voices in the finite forms, we must also deny it in the verbals. To sum up, then, what we have found out concerning the categories in the verbals, we can say that all of them have the categories of correlation and voice; the infinitive, in addition, has the category of aspect. None of the verbals has the categories of tense, mood, person, or number.

THE SECOND PARTICIPLE

The second participle, that is, forms like *invited, liked, written, taken,* etc., presents many peculiar difficulties for analysis. In analysing the category of correlation and that of voice in the participle and in stating that the participle has no category of tense, we have so far not mentioned these forms at all.

Now we must give them some special consideration.

First of all we must emphasize that we will analyse the meaning and the use of the second participle when it does not make part of an analytical verb form, whether it be the perfect *(have invited, have taken),* or the passive voice *(was invited, was taken).* When the second participle makes part of an analytical form, it

loses some of its own characteristics, and indeed we may doubt whether it should still bear the name of participle in those cases.

Again, in analysing the meaning and the functions of the second participle, we must exclude the cases where it has been adjectivized, that is, changed into an adjective, and is no longer a participle, for example, in such phrases as *written work,* which is used as the opposite of *oral work,* or *devoted friend,* where *devoted* does not designate an action, or, indeed, the result of an action, but a property.

The use of the second participle outside the analytical formations is comparatively limited. We find it either as a predicative in such cases as *The door is shut,* when it does not denote an action (compare, *The door is shut at nine p.m. every day)* but a state of things, or as an objective predicative, e.g. *He found the door shut,* or as an attribute following a noun, more often with some words accompanying it, as in *This is the new machine invented by our engineers,* and less often an attribute preceding the noun, as in *"The Bartered Bride"* (the title of Smetana's opera). We can note that the use of second participles as prepositive attributes is on the whole limited in English. For example, the title of the opera just mentioned could not be rendered in English with the help of the participle *sold,* as this participle cannot be used in that way.

Analysis of the grammatical categories expressed in the second participle is a matter of great difficulty, and so is the problem of finding its place among the other participles.

Let us first consider the problems of aspect, tense, and correlation with reference to this participle. Let us take our examples with intransitive verbs, so that the problem of voice may be left aside for the moment.

It was pointed out long ago that many intransitive verbs have no second participle that could be used outside the analytical forms of the perfect. For instance, such forms as *been, laughed, run, sat, lain, wept,* etc. can only appear within a perfect form and do not exist as separate participles. A few second participles of intransitive verbs can, however, be used as attributes, e.g. *retired* in expressions like *a retired colonel,* or *a retired teacher.* We may also compare the word *runaway* (spelt as one word, from the phrase *run away),* for example, in the expression *a runaway horse.*

On the whole, then, with intransitive verbs the second participle does not constitute an integral part of the verbal system at all, and it may be left out of consideration when we analyse that system.

Things are different with transitive verbs. Here, though the use of the second participle as an attribute is limited, there can be no doubt that it exists as a separate form of the verb and not merely as a component of the analytical perfect or passive.

It is also clear that as far as the category of voice goes the past participle of transitive verbs belongs to the passive. We need not illustrate this by examples,

since, this is common knowledge. It is only necessary to mention the few special cases in which the second participle has no passive meaning in the usual sense, e. g. *a well-read man* 'one who has read much', not 'one who has been read', or *he was drunk,* and a few more. These are separate phenomena restricted to a few verbs.

As to aspect, tense, and correlation, the problem appears to be this: Which of these categories find expression in the form of the second participle itself, i.e. do not depend either on the lexical meaning of the verb or on the context? This proviso is necessary, because differences in meaning can be found which do depend on lexical peculiarities of the verb and on the context. We can, for instance, compare such phrases as the following: (1) *a young man liked by everybody,* (2) *a young man killed in the war.* It is clear at once that the action denoted by the participle *liked* is going on, whereas that denoted by the participle *killed* is finished. This certainly should not be interpreted as two different meanings of the participle as a grammatical form, since it depends on the lexical meaning of the verb (the verb *like* denotes an emotional attitude, which can last indefinitely, while the verb *kill* denotes an action which reaches its end and does not last after that). We must then say that the meaning of the form as such is not affected by these differences.

The conclusion about the grammatical categories in the second participle (of transitive verbs) is, then, this. The only category which is expressed in it is that of voice (namely, the passive voice); the other categories, namely, aspect, tense, and correlation (and, of course, mood, person, and number) find no expression in it. Owing to these peculiarities, the second participle occupies a unique position in the verbal system, and it is impossible to find for it a place in a table where special columns or lines are allotted to aspect, tense, and correlation.

As far as voice is concerned, the second participle of transitive verbs (e.g. *invited)* joins the other passive participles (e.g. *being invited* and *having been invited)* as against the active participles *inviting* and *having invited.* However, from the formal point of view we run into difficulties here. In all other passive forms, whether finite or non-finite, the category of the passive voice is expressed by the group "*be* + second participle", whereas the second participle itself, of course, goes without the verb *be.* We have to choose between accepting this state of things and excluding the second participle from the passive system (that is, if we insist that every passive form must contain the verb *be*). As this latter alternative appears to be still more undesirable, we shall have to recognize this peculiar position of the second participle among the forms of the passive voice.

THE *ing*-FORMS

So far we have spoken of the ing-forms as of two different sets of homonymous forms: the gerund (with its distinctions of correlation and voice) and the participle (with its distinctions of correlation and voice). As there is no external differ-

ence between the two sets (they are complete homonyms), the question may arise whether there is reason enough to say that there are two different sets of forms, that is, whether it could not be argued that there is only one set of forms (we might then call them *ing*-forms), which in different contexts acquire different shades of meaning and perform different syntactical functions. Such a view (though without detailed argumentation) was indeed put forward by the Dutch scholar E. Kruisinga. In some passages of his book he merely speaks of "the *ing",* though in other parts he uses the terms "gerund" and "participle".

It must be said that this is one of the questions which do not admit of a definite solution. The solution largely depends on what view we take of the unity of a grammatical form and on the extent to which we are prepared to allow for shades of meaning in one form (or one set of forms). If we are prepared to admit any amount of variety in this sphere rather than admit the existence of grammatical homonyms, we shall have to develop a detailed theory of the mutual relations between the various shades of meaning that the form (or set of forms) can have. If, on the other hand, we are prepared to admit homonymy rather than let the unity of the form (or set of forms) disintegrate, as it were, in a variety of "shades", we shall be justified in keeping to the traditional view which distinguishes between gerund and participle as between two different, though homonymous, sets of grammatical forms.

The difference between the gerund and the participle is basically this. The gerund, along with its verbal qualities, has substantival qualities as well; the participle, along with its verbal qualities, has adjectival qualities. This of course brings about a corresponding difference in their syntactical functions: the gerund may be the subject or the object in a sentence, and only rarely an attribute, whereas the participle is an attribute first and foremost.

We should also bear in mind that in certain syntactical contexts the difference tends to be obliterated. For instance, if in the sentence *Do you mind my smoking?* (where *smoking* is a gerund) we substitute *me* for *my,* in the resulting sentence *Do you mind me smoking?* the form *smoking* may, at least, be said to be the participle. Again, in the sentence *Do you mind her smoking?* where *her* may be the possessive pronoun, corresponding to *my,* or the objective case of the personal pronoun, corresponding to *me,* the gerund and the participle are practically indistinguishable. We may say, in terms of modern linguistics, that the opposition between them is neutralized.

If, on the other hand, we prefer to abandon the distinction and to speak of the *ing*-form, we shall have to formulate its meaning and its functions in such a way as to allow for all the cases of the ing-forms to be included. For instance, instead of distinguishing between substantival and adjectival qualities, we shall speak, in a more general way, of nominal qualities, so as to embrace both the substantival and the adjectival ones, and so forth. Such a view seems also quite possible, and

the decision to be taken will, as we have seen above, depend on the general attitude one adopts in matters of this kind.

H. Sweet, A New English Grammar.
Part II, p. 120-122.

GERUND

2328. In the combination possessive + gerund, as in *I do not like his coming here so often,* the oblique case may be substituted for the possessive, so that the gerund becomes a present participle: *I do not like him coming here so often.* The difference – if any – appears to be that in the former construction the logical emphasis is on the possessive, in the latter on the verb. But there seems also to be a tendency to give up the latter construction altogether, as if it were a mere variation of *I do not like him to come here so often.* In the following examples we could hardly alter the possessives: *in honour of its being Christmas day | when metal came into use, men were able to make their knives much longer, without their being afraid of their breaking.* In the last sentence the *their* could be omitted but not changed into *them.*

2329. So also the genitive in *who told you of your wife's being there?* may be made into the common case – *of your wife being there.* In such constructions as *I cannot accept the notion of school-life affecting the poet to this extent* the common case is preferred to the genitive.

2330. Although the ing-form after the objective or common case is formally a participle, we certainly do not feel that *coming* in *I do not like him coming here* modifies *him* in the same way as it does in *I saw him coming: coming* in the former sentence is, in fact, a half-gerund.

2331. As we have seen, we recognize the gerund element in the former sentence by our instinctive tendency to regard *him coming* as a substitute for *his coming.* It is important to note that the absence of a distinction between common case and genitive in the plural often makes it impossible in the spoken language to distinguish between gerund and half-gerund, as in *to prevent the ladies leaving us, I generally ordered, the table to be removed* (Goldsmith), where the purely orthographic alteration of *ladies* into *ladies'* would make *leaving* into a full gerund.

2335. In several of the other half-gerund constructions the participle can be substituted by a change of construction. Thus *I enjoy being here* suggests *I feel enjoyment while being here.*

2336. The constructions which most resist this change are those which also allow the substitution of a possessive or genitive for the preceding objective or common case, for the change of *I do not like him coming here* into *I do not like him when coming here – when he comes here* involves a distinct change of meaning.

O. Jespersen, A Modern English Grammar, Part V, vol. 4, p. 86-90, 129, 142-145, 221-225, 277-278.

THE GERUND

8.1 (1). "Ing" is used here as a comprehensive technical term for those English forms which from a syntactical point of view must be considered as two different things, a gerund and a participle ("first participle", generally called "present participle"). [...]

8.1 (6). The gerund in the following syntactic respects is (or may be) treated exactly like any other nexus-substantive:

(1) it can be the subject, predicative, or object of a sentence, also the regimen ("object") of a preposition.

(2) it can form a plural.

(3) it can form a genitive.

(4) it can be used with a definite and indefinite article.

(5) it can take other adjuncts.

(6) it can have a subject and an object with it in the same way as other nexus-substantives (genitive, preposition).

(7) it can enter into compounds.

[...] Examples: *there's no use my staying here | this was a moment worth living for \ all his outgoings and incomings | I also had a deadly liking for solitude | the tale has not lost fat in the telling.* [...]

But there has been for centuries a growing tendency to treat the gerund syntactically like the finite verbal forms, thus:

(1) by using adverbs freely with it.

(2) by forming a perfect.

(3) by forming a passive, also a perfect passive.

(4) by taking an object without a preposition.

(5) by taking a subject without a preposition.

(6) by being preceded by *there* as "lesser subject".

The development by which the gerund has acquired more and more of the syntactic characteristics of the verb has been very gradual and has been furthered by the formal identity of the gerund and the participle.

COMMON CASE AS SUBJECT OF GERUND

9.6 (1). As the final result of the whole development we find the modern tendency to use another case than the genitive as the subject of a gerund, thus the common case of .substantives and some pronouns, and the oblique case, or even the nominative, of personal pronouns.

9.9 (1). The question how to analyse combinations like *on Miss Sharp appearing has* been variously answered. Most grammars, at any rate school grammars, take *appearing* as the (present) participle, while in *on Miss Sharp's appearing* they would speak of a verbal substantive or gerund; sometimes a distinction is made between verbal substantive and gerund, and the term "half-gerund" is even introduced by some writers. Kruisinga avoids the terms "participle" and "gerund" and speaks everywhere of "the verbal ing".

As already hinted in 8.1(1), the best plan is to recognize the formal identity of the words derived by means of the same ending, and to use the term "ing", as comprehending two syntactically distinct things:

(1) a gerund, parallel to, though syntactically different from, other nexus-substantives, but like them **denoting** a nexus, – symbol G –, and

(2) a (first) participle, which does not denote but **implies** a nexus and is therefore on a par with agent-substantives, – symbol Y.

We have (1) in *we praised her graceful dancing* and *we praised her for dancing gracefully,* cp. (graceful) *dance* – and (2) in a *dancing girl* and *a girl dancing gracefully appeared;* cp. (graceful) *dancer.*

Dancing in (1) means 'the fact that (she) dances' or 'the way in which (she) dances'; in (2) 'who dances'.

Stealing, creating, assisting are analogous with (1) the nexus-substantives *theft, creation, assistance:* G, and (2) with the agent-substantives *thief, creator, assistant:* Y.

This distinction seems logical enough [...]

9.9 (2). If we apply this test, we see that the ing [...] after a common case or a pronoun that is not possessive is not a participle. If it had been, we should have expected the corresponding construction with the second (passive) participle, thus *I insist upon the cloth removed,* but as a matter of fact only *I insist upon the cloth being removed is said.*

If it had been a real participle, we should expect the construction to be equally frequent with all kinds of substantives and with pronouns, and we should also expect some clear distinction between the construction with the common case and that with the genitive; but is a matter of fact we find the construction much more often with substantives denoting things than with names of persons, and much more often with substantives than with pronouns. [...]

9.9 (5). But it must be admitted that there are cases in which the grammatical analysis is more doubtful than in the instances just considered.

Sometimes it is nearly immaterial to the meaning whether an ing after a noun (or pronoun) is taken to be a gerund or a participle. The construction *I see (hear) John coming* may be analysed SVO (12), if *coming* is taken to be a simple adjunct to *John,* or SVO (S_{2P}), if *John coming* is taken as a nexus-object. [...]

THE INFINITIVE

10.1 (2). The partly substantival character of the infinitive is shown by its power to stand as a primary (as subject, object, etc.) as well as by its mixed active-passive character in some cases. But otherwise the infinitive is now purely verbal – much more so than the gerund [...]. This is shown negatively by the fact that it cannot be preceded by an article (definite or indefinite), an adjective, or a genitive, and positively by the fact that it can take an object and an adverb (or other tertiary), and that it possesses a perfect and a passive.

RETROACTIVE INFINITIVE

15.2 (1). We now come to deal with those cases in which an active infinitive was said to have a passive meaning. Now I think it better to look upon the infinitive as active and as governing a preceding item as its object (its "implicit object", as NED says). Note that in grammars of other languages in which similar phenomena occur such infinitives are not said to have a passive import. The formula for *the first thing to settle* thus is 21 (O*) 2 (I*), the two stars showing the relation between *thing* and the infinitive. [....] The reason why English grammars consider the active infinitive here as having passive meaning is that English in contradistinction to other languages in such cases often uses a passive infinitive form. This usage in English is connected with the rise of *is to* with an active and with a passive infinitive, and with the abandonment of earlier English constructions corresponding to *er ließ sie töten, il la fit tuer,* where also the passive form is now used in English: *he let her be killed, caused her to be killed.* All this may be termed an outcome of a rationalizing tendency which may also be observed in other parts of English grammar: here the passive infinitive has seemed to the native speech-instinct more logical than the active. But full consistency has not been achieved.

15.3 (1). Typical examples of retroactive infinitives are frequent after expressions of mere existence: *there is (are), have,* etc. [...]: *there is really not much to fell | I have my self-respect to think of*

SUBJECT + INFINITIVE AS OBJECT OF MAIN VERB

18.1 (1). After dealing with those employments of infinitives in which their subject is not expressly indicated – S^0I – we now come to those cases in which the subject of an infinitive is expressly indicated – SI, or rather, as the subject is different from the main subject (S) of the sentence, S_2I. Here it is natural first to take the most important class, in which this subject -f infinitive is the direct object of the main verb, the construction which is in ordinary grammars termed "accusative with infinitive".

18.1 (2). For the modern period the term "accusative with infinitive" had best be avoided. In the first place there is nothing to show the case if a substantive is

used, and secondly, where, as in many pronouns, we have an oblique case, there is no distinction now between the accusative and the dative [...]

Examples: *Soames noted his dress clothes to be well cut | do not suppose me to complain \ you love people to have lessons.*

SUBJECT + INFINITIVE AS SUBJECT OR PREDICATIVE

19.1 (1). An infinitive with its subject may be the subject or predicative of an active sentence. Without a proposition this is not very frequent in English – less so now than in ME and ENE [. . .]. Examples: *A guest to stop at I ping in the winter time was an unheard of piece of luck* [...]

The analysis in such cases is S (S_2I)V [...], or with *it* sV P S (S_2I) – the whole nexus, and not its subject alone, being the subject of the main verb. [...]

19.1 (2). The ordinary thing, however, in ModE is to have a preposition before the S. This in rare cases is *to* [. . .]: *It is usual to writers to condemn the judgment of the world.*

19.1 (3). In the vast majority of cases the preposition is *for,* and English here presents a peculiar development, which has many points of contact with the enormous extension of the use of *for* before the subject of an infinitive [...]: *It was not considered the part of a gentleman, in my time, for a man to insult his father.*

SPLIT SUBJECT WITH INFINITIVE

The subject of a sentence may consist of two separated elements, one the subject belonging to an infinitive, and the other the infinitive, itself. If these are separated, we use the term "split subject" [...].

19.3 (1). The, most frequent occurrence of split subjects is with the passive of the infinitival constructions [...].

The analysis of *He was seen to nod* is

½ S V^b ½ S (I). [...].

19.3 (6). In the following cases too, we have really a split subject [...]: *She happened to notice it*

½ S V ½ S (IO) [...].

The natural question is not "Who happened?", but "What happened?", and the notional subject is *she... to, notice it.*

SUMMING-UP QUESTIONS

1. Why are verbals treated as forms of the verb?
2. How is their dual nature revealed?

3. What verbal categories characterize finates and non-finates (verbals)?
4. What are the common and distinctive features of the Gerund and Participle?
5. Can they be treated as one ing-form?
6. Has Participle II any verbal categories?
7. What does the meaning of Participle II depend on?
8. What different interpretations of the construction "to be + Participle II" do you know?
9. What predicative constructions with verbals do you know?
10. What syntactic functions can they perform?

Chapter 7. SYNTAX. PHRASE

B. Ilyish, The Structure
of Modern English, p. 171-179.

PHRASES

Within the domain of syntax two levels should be distinguished: that of phrases and that of sentences. In giving characteristics of a part of speech we consistently kept apart the two layers in so far as they concern the syntactical functions of parts of speech – their ability to combine with other words into phrases, on the one hand, and their function in the sentence, on the other.

In starting now to analyse problems of syntax itself, we must first of all try to elucidate as far as possible the sphere belonging to each of the two levels. After that we will proceed to a systematic review of each level.

We will term "phrase" every combination of two or more words which is a grammatical unit but is not an analytical form of some word (as, for instance, the perfect forms of verbs). The constituent elements of a phrase may belong to any part of speech. For instance, they may both be nouns, or one of them may be an adjective and the other a noun, or again one of them may be a verb and the other a noun, or one may be a preposition and the other a noun; or there may be three of them, one being a preposition, the other a noun, and the third a preposition, etc.

We thus adopt the widest possible definition of a phrase and we do not limit this notion by stipulating that a phrase must contain at least two notional words, as is done in a number of linguistic treatises. The inconvenience of restricting the notion of phrase to those groups which contain at least two notional words is that, for example, the group "preposition + noun" remains outside the classification and is therefore neglected in grammatical theory.

The difference between a phrase and a sentence is a fundamental one. A phrase is a means of naming some phenomena or processes, just as a word is. Each component of a phrase can undergo grammatical changes in accordance with grammatical categories represented in it, without destroying the identity of the phrase. For instance, in the phrase *write letters* the first component can change according to the verbal categories of tense, mood, etc., and the second component according to the category of number. Thus, *writes a letter, has written a letter, would have written letters,* etc., are grammatical modifications of one phrase.

With a sentence, things are entirely different. A sentence is a unit with every word having its definite form. A change in the form of one or more words would produce a new sentence.

It must also be borne in mind that a phrase as such has no intonation, just as a word has none. Intonation is one of the most important features of a sentence,

which distinguish it from a phrase. Last not least, it is necessary to dwell on one of the most difficult questions involved in the study of phrases: the grammatical aspect of that study as distinct from the lexicological.

The difference should be basically this: grammar has to study the aspects of phrases which spring from the grammatical peculiarities of the words making up the phrase, and of the syntactical functions of the phrase as a whole, while lexicology has to deal with the lexical meaning of the words and their semantic groupings.

Thus, for instance, from the grammatical point of view the two phrases *read letters* and *invite friends* are identical, since they are built on the same pattern "verb + noun indicating the object of the action". From the lexicological point of view, on the other hand, they are essentially different, as the verbs belong to totally different semantic spheres, and the nouns too; one of them denotes a material object, while the other denotes a human being. Thus, the basic difference between the grammatical and the lexicological approach to phrases appears to be clear. However, it is not always easy to draw this demarcation line while doing concrete research in this sphere.

It is to the phrase level that the syntactical notions of agreement (or concord) and government apply.

In studying phrases from a grammatical viewpoint we will divide them according to their function in the sentence into (1) those which perform the function of one or more parts of the sentence, for example, predicate, or predicate and object, or predicate and adverbial modifier, etc., and (2) those which do not perform any such function but whose function is equivalent to that of a preposition, or conjunction, and which are, in fact, to all intents and purposes equivalents of those parts of speech. The former of these two classes comprises the overwhelming majority of English phrases, but the latter is no less important from a general point of view.

TYPES OF PHRASES

The type "noun + noun" is a most usual type of phrase in Modern English. It must be divided into two subtypes, depending on the form of the first component, which may be in the common or in the genitive case.

The type "noun in the common case + noun" may be used to denote one idea as modified by another, in the widest sense. We find here a most varied choice of semantic spheres, such as *speech sound, silver watch, army unit,* which of course deserve detailed study from the lexicological viewpoint. We may only note that the first component may be a proper name as well, as in the phrases *a Beethoven symphony* or *London Bridge.*

The type "noun in the genitive case + noun" has a more restricted meaning and use, which we need not go into here, as we have discussed the meaning of the form in -'s at some length in Chapter III.

Another very common type is “adjective + noun”, which is used to express all possible kinds of things with their properties.

The type “verb + noun” may correspond to two different types of relation between an action and a thing. In the vast majority of cases the noun denotes an object of the action expressed by the verb, but in a certain number of phrases it denotes a measure, rather than the object, of the action. This may be seen in such phrases as, *walk a mile, sleep an hour, wait a minute,* etc. It is only the meaning of the verb and that of the noun which enable the hearer or reader to understand the relation correctly. The meaning of the verb divides, for instance, the phrase *wait an hour* from the phrase *appoint an hour,* and shows the relations in the two phrases to be basically different.

In a similar way other types of phrases should be set down and analysed. Among them will be the types, “verb + adverb”, “adverb + adjective”, “adverb + adverb”, “noun + preposition + noun”, “adjective + preposition + noun”, “verb + preposition + noun”, etc.

An important question arises concerning the pattern “noun + verb”. In our linguistic theory different opinions have been put forward on this issue. One view is that the phrase type “noun + verb” (which is sometimes called “predicative phrase”) exists and ought to be studied just like any other phrase type such as we have enumerated above. The other view is that no such type as “noun + verb” exists, as the combination “noun + verb” constitutes a sentence rather than a phrase. This objection, however, is not convincing. If we take the combination “noun + verb” as a sentence, which is sometimes possible, we are analysing it on a different level, namely, on sentence level, and what we can discover on sentence level cannot affect analysis on phrase level, or indeed take its place. Besides, there is another point to be noted here. If we take, for instance, the group *a man writes* on the phrase level, this means that each of the components can be changed in accordance with its paradigm in any way so long as the connection with the other component does not prevent this. In the given case, the first component, *man,* can be changed according to number, that is, it can appear in the plural form, and the second component, *writes,* can be changed according to the verbal categories of aspect, tense, correlation, and mood (change of person is impossible due to the first component, change of number is predetermined by the number of the first component and change of voice is made impossible by its meaning). Thus, the groups, *a man writes, men write, a man wrote, men are writing, men have written, a man would have been writing,* etc., are all variants of the same phrase, just as *man* and *men* are forms of the same noun, while *writes, wrote, has written,* etc. are forms of the same verb. It is also important to note that a phrase as such has no intonation of its own, no more than a word as such has one. On the sentence level things are different. *A man writes,* even if we could take it as a sentence at all, which is not cer-

tain, is not the same sentence as *Men have been writing,* but a different sentence.

This example is sufficient to show the difference between a phrase of the pattern "noun + verb" and a sentence. The existence of phrases of this type is therefore certain. The phrase pattern "noun + verb" has very ample possibilities of expressing actions as performed by any kind of subject, whether living, material, or abstract.

Besides phrase patterns consisting of two notional words with or without a preposition between them, there are also phrases consisting of a preposition and another word, mainly a noun. Thus, such groups as *in the street, at the station, at noon, after midnight, in time, by heart,* etc. are prepositional phrases performing some function or other in a sentence. Some of these phrases are phraseological units (e.g. *in time, by heart*), but this is a lexicological observation which is irrelevant from the grammatical viewpoint.

Phrases consisting of two components may be enlarged by addition of a third component, and so forth, for instance the phrase pattern "adjective + noun" (*high houses*) may be enlarged by the addition of an adjective in front, so that the type "adjective + adjective + noun" arises *(new high houses).* This, in its turn, may be further enlarged by more additions. The limit of the possible growth of a phrase is hard to define, and we will not inquire into this subject any further.

SYNTACTICAL RELATIONS BETWEEN THE COMPONENTS OF A PHRASE

These fall under two main heads: (1) agreement or concord, (2) government.

Agreement

By agreement we mean a method of expressing a syntactical relationship, which consists in making the subordinate word take a form similar to that of the word to which it is subordinate. In Modern English this can refer only to the category of number: a subordinate word agrees in number with its head word if it has different number forms at all. This is practically found in two words only, the pronouns *this* and *that,* which agree in number with their head word. Since no other word, to whatever part of speech it may belong, agrees in number with its head word, these two pronouns stand quite apart in the Modern English syntactical system.

As to the problem of agreement of the verb with the noun or pronoun denoting the subject of the action (a *child plays, children play*), this is a controversial problem. Usually it is treated as agreement of the predicate with the subject, that is, as a phenomenon of sentence structure. However, if we assume (as we have done) that agreement and government belong to the phrase level, rather than to the sentence level, and that phrases of the pattern "noun + verb" do exist, we have to treat this problem in this chapter devoted to phrases.

The controversy is this. Does the verb stand, say, in the plural number because the noun denoting the subject of the action is plural, so that the verb is in the full sense of the word subordinate to the noun? Or does the verb, in its own right, express by its category of number the singularity or plurality of the doer (or doers)? There are some phenomena in Modern English which would seem to show that the verb does not always follow the noun in the category of number. Such examples as, *My family are early risers,* on the one hand, and *The United Nations is an international organization,* on the other, prove that the verb can be independent of the noun in this respect: though the noun is in the singular, the verb may be in the plural, if the doer is understood to be plural; though the noun is plural, the verb may be singular if the doer is understood to be singular. Examples of such usage are arguments in favour of the view that there is no agreement in number of the verb with the noun expressing the doer of the action.

The fact that sentences like *My family is small, and My family are early risers* exist side by side proves that there is no agreement of the verb with the noun in either case: the verb shows whether the subject of the action is to be thought of as singular or plural, no matter what the category of number in the noun may be.

Thus, the sphere of agreement in Modern English is extremely small: it is restricted to two pronouns – *this* and *that,* which agree with their head word in number when they are used in front of it as the first components of a phrase of which the noun is the centre.

Government

By government we understand the use of a certain form of the subordinate word required by its head word, but not coinciding with the form of the head word itself – that is the difference between agreement and government.

The role of government in Modern English is almost as insignificant as that of agreement. We do not find in English any verbs, or nouns, or adjectives, requiring the subordinate noun to be in one case rather than in another. Nor do we find prepositions requiring anything of the kind.

The only thing that may be termed government in Modern English is the use of the objective case of personal pronouns and of the pronoun *who* when they are subordinate to a verb or follow a preposition. Thus, for instance, the forms *me, him, her, us, them,* are required if the pronoun follows a verb (e.g. *find* or *invite)* or any preposition whatever. Even this type of government is, however, made somewhat doubtful by the rising tendency, mentioned above, to use the *forms me, him,* etc., outside their original sphere as forms of the objective case. The notion of government has also become doubtful as applied to the form *whom,* which is rather often superseded by the form *who* in such sentences as, *Who(m) did yon see?*

As to nouns, the notion of government may be said to have become quite uncertain in present-day English. Even if we stick to the view that *father* and *fathers*

are forms of the common and the genitive case, respectively, we could not assert that a preposition always requires the form of the common case. For instance, the preposition *at* can be combined with both case forms: compare *I looked at my father* and *I spent the summer at my father's,* or, with the preposition *to. I wrote to the chemist,* and *I went to the chemist's,* etc. It seems to follow that the notion of government does not apply to forms of nouns.

Other Ways

In Russian linguistic theory, there is a third way of expressing syntactical relations between components of a phrase, which is termed примыкание. No exact definition of this notion is given: its characteristic feature is usually described in a negative way, as absence both of agreement and of government. The most usual example of this type of connection is the relation between an adverb and its head word, whether this is an adjective or a verb (or another adverb, for that matter). An adverb is subordinate to its head word, without either agreeing with or being governed by it. This negative characteristic cannot, however, be said to be sufficient as a definition of a concrete syntactical means of expression. It is evident that the subject requires some more exact investigation. For instance, if we take such a simple case as the sentence, *... lashes of rain striped the great windows almost horizontally* (R. WEST) and inquire what it is that shows the adverb *horizontally* to be subordinate to the verb *striped,* we shall have to conclude that this is achieved by a certain combination of factors, some of which are grammatical, while others are not. The grammatical factor is the fact that an adverb can be subordinate to a verb. That, however, is not sufficient in a number of cases. There may be several verbs in the sentence, and the question has to be answered, how does the reader (or hearer) know to which of them the adverb is actually subordinated. Here a lexicological factor intervenes: the adverb must be semantically compatible with its head word. Examples may be found where the connection between an adverb and its head word is preserved even at a considerable distance, owing to the grammatical and semantic compatibility of the adverb. Compare, for instance, the following sentences: *Nobly, nobly Cape Saint Vincent to the North-West died away,* (BROWNING) *Swiftly he thought of the different things she had told him.* (DREISER)

An adverb can only be connected with its head word in this manner, since it has no grammatical categories which would allow it to agree with another word or to be governed by it. With other parts of speech things stand differently in different languages. In inflected languages an adjective will agree with its head word, and even in French and Italian, though they are analytical languages, adjectives agree with their head words both in number and gender. In Modern English no agreement is possible. The same can be said about many other types of phrases.

However, there is another means of expressing syntactical connection which plays a significant part in Modern English. It may be called "enclosure" (Rus-

sian замыкание) and its essence is this. Some element of a phrase is, as it were, enclosed between two parts of another element. The most widely known case of "enclosure" is the putting of a word between an article and the noun to which the article belongs. Any word or phrase thus enclosed is shown to be an attribute to the noun. As is well known, many other words than adjectives and nouns can be found in that position, and many phrases, too, It seems unnecessary to give examples of adjectives and nouns in that position, as they are familiar to everybody. However. examples of other parts of speech, and, also of phrases enclosed will not be out of place here. *The then government* – here the adverb *then,* being enclosed between the article and the noun it belongs to, is in this way shown to be an attribute to the noun. In the phrase *an on-the-spot investigation* the phrase *on-the-spot* is enclosed between the article and the noun to which the article belongs, and this characterizes the syntactic connections of the phrase.

The unity of a phrase is quite, clear if the phrase as a whole is modified by an adverb. It is a rather common phenomenon for an adverb to modify a phrase. usually one consisting of a preposition and a noun (with possible words serving as attributes to the noun). Here, first, is an example where the phrase so modified is a phraseological unit: *... that little thimbleful of brandy ... went sorely against the grain with her.* (TROLLOPE) The adverb *sorely* cannot possibly be said to modify the preposition *against* alone. So it is bound to belong to the phrase *against the grain* as a whole.

An adverb modifying a prepositional phrase is also found in the following example: *The funeral was well under way.* (HUXLEY) The adverb *well* can only modify the phrase *under way,* as a phrase *well under* is unthinkable. This is possible because the phrase *under way,* which is a phraseological unit, has much the same meaning as *going on, developing,* etc.

A phrase may also be modified by a pronoun (it should be noted, though, that in our example the whole phrase, including the pronoun, is a phraseological unit): *Every now and again she would stop and move her mouth as though to speak, but nothing was said.* (A. WILSON) It is clear that a phrase *every now* would not be possible. A similar case is the following: *Every three or four month Mr Bodiham preached a sermon on the subject.* (HUXLEY) It is quite evident that the whole phrase *three or four months* is here modified by the pronoun *every.* This may be to some extent connected with the tendency to take phrases consisting of a numeral and a noun in the plural indicating some measure of time or space as denoting a higher unit.

The phrase "noun + *after* + the same noun" may be a syntactic unit introduced as a whole by a prepositoin, thus: *She spent the Christmas holidays with her parents in the northern part of the State, where her father owned a drug-store, even though in letter after letter Eve Grayson had urged and begged her to come*

to New Orleans for the holidays, promising that she would meet many interesting men while she was there. (E. CALDWELL) That the preposition *in* introduces the whole phrase *letter after letter* is evident from the fact that it would not be possible to use the noun *letter* (alone) after the preposition without either an article or some other determinative, such as, for example, *her.*

In the following example the preposition *with* introduces, not a noun, but a phrase consisting of a noun, a preposition *(upon)* and the same noun repeated. *Brown varnished bookshelves lined the walls, filled with row upon row of those thick, heavy theological works which the second-hand booksellers generally sell by weight.* (HUXLEY) That the preposition *with* introduces the phrase *row upon row* rather than the noun *row* alone, is evident from the fact that it would not be possible to say *... filled with row of those ... works ....* The noun *row* could not be used without the article, to say nothing of the fact that one row of books was not enough to fill the walls of a room.

Sometimes a phrase of the pattern "adverb + preposition + noun" may be introduced by another preposition. Compare this sentence from Prof. D. Jones's Preface to his "English Pronouncing Dictionary": *For help in the preparation of this new edition I am particularly indebted to Mr P. A. D. MacCarthy, who supplied me with upwards of 500 notes and suggestions.* The phrase *upwards of 500 notes and suggestions* means the same as *more than 500 notes and suggestions,* and this may explain its use after the preposition *with.* But the fact remains that a preposition *(with)* is immediately followed by a prepositional phrase *(upwards of).*

H. Sweet, A New English Grammar,
Part I, p. 19, 16, 32-35.

WORD-GROUPS

50. When words are joined together grammatically and logically without forming a full sentence, we call the combination, a **word-group.** Thus *man of honour, the roundness of the earth, the round earth, going away, his going away* are word-groups.

When words come together without there being any special connection between them, they may be said to **constitute a word-collocation.**

COMBINATIONS OF WORDS TO EXPRESS THOUGHTS

Adjunct-Words and Head-Words

40. The most general relation between words in sentences from a logical point of view is that of **adjunct-word and head-word,** or, as we may also express it, of **modifier and modified.** Thus in the sentences *tall men are not always strong, all*

men are not strong, tall, strong, and *all* are adjunct-words modifying the meaning of the head-word *men. So* also *dark, quick, quickly* are adjunct-words *in dark red, he has a quick step, he walks quickly. Stone* is an adjunct-word in *stone wall, wall of stone,* because it modifies (defines) the meaning of *wall.* So also *book (books)* is an adjunct-word *in bookseller, bookselling, sale of books, he sells books, he sold his books,* the corresponding head-words being *seller, selling, sale, sells, sold.*

41. The distinction between adjunct-word and head-word is only a relative one: the same word may be a head-word in one sentence or context, and an adjunct-word in another, and the same word may even be a head-word and an adjunct-word at the same time. Thus in *he is very strong, strong* is an adjunct-word to *he,* and at the same time head-word to the adjunct-word *very,* which, again, may itself be a head-word, as in *he is not very strong.*

RELATIONS BETWEEN WORDS

86. [...] Some languages, such as Chinese, show grammatical relations entirely by means of word-order and form-words. Others, such as Latin, rely mainly on inflections, though they use many form-words as well, with which, indeed, no language can dispense. We call such a language as Chinese an **isolating** language as distinguished from an **inflectional** language such as Latin. English is mainly an isolating language which has preserved a few inflections.

87. We have now to consider how these means of grammatical expression, especially word-order, form-words, and inflections, are used in language to express logical relations.

88. The first main division is that of **modifying** and **connective**. *The* in *the earth* is a modifying form-word; *is, and* in *the earth is round, you and I,* are connective form-words. So also the plural inflection in *trees* is modifying, while the genitive inflection in *a day's work* is connective. A modifying form requires only one word to make sense *(the earth, tree-s),* while a connective form requires two words to make sense *(you and I, a day-s work).* The relations between words in sentences are therefore shown mainly by connectives, while modifiers have almost the function of word-formers.

89. When two words are associated together grammatically their relation may be one either of coordination or of subordination. Coordination is shown either by word-order only, or by the use of form-words, as in *men, women, and children,* where the first two full words are connected only by their position, while the last two are connected by the form-word *and.*

90. Subordination implies the relation of **head-word** and **adjunct-word**. But there are degrees of subordination, When the subordination of an assumptive (attributive) word to its head-word is so slight that the two are almost coordinate, the adjunct-word is said to be in apposition to its head-word. Thus in *king Alfred* the

adjunct-word is a pure assumptive – as much so as *good* in *the good king* – and has the usual position of an assumptive word in English, that is, before its head-word, while in *Alfred the king* or *Alfred, king of England,* it stands in apposition to its head-word in a different position and in a more independent relation.

91. In the above examples the relation between head-word and adjunct-word is only vaguely indicated by position, being mainly inferred from the meaning of the words. But in such a sentence as *I bought these books at Mr. Smith's the bookseller's,* the connection between the adjunct-words *these* and *bookseller's* and their head-words is shown by each adjunct-word taking the inflection of its head-word. This repetition of the inflection of a head-word in its adjunct-word is called **concord**, and the two words are said to **agree** in whatever grammatical form they have in common: the concord between *these* and *books* consists in their agreeing in number – that is, in both having plural inflection; and the concord between *bookseller's* and *Smith's* consists in their both having the same genitive inflection. In such groups as *green trees, the trees became green,* there is no concord, as if we were to say **this books* instead of *these books.* In a highly inflected concord-language such as Latin, *green* in the above examples, would take the plural inflection of *trees* just as much as *this* would. [...]

94. When a word assumes a certain grammatical form through being associated with another word, the modified word is said to be governed by the other one, and the governing word is said to govern the grammatical form in question. Thus in a *day's work, day's* is governed by *work, and work* itself is said to govern the genitive case. So also in *I see him, him* is governed by *see,* and *see* is said to govern the objective case *him.* In *I thought of him,* the form-word of also governs the objective case.

O. Jespersen, The Philosophy
of Grammar, p. 96-97, 107.

THE THREE RANKS

[...] We have now to consider combinations of words, and here we shall find that though a substantive always remains a substantive and an adjective an adjective, there is a certain scheme of subordination in connected speech which is analogous to the distribution of words into "parts of speech", without being entirely dependent on it.

In any composite denomination of a thing or person [...] we always find that there is one word of supreme importance to which the others are joined as subordinated. This chief word is defined (qualified, modified) by another word, which in its turn may be defined (qualified, modified) by a third word, etc. We are thus led to establish different "ranks" of words according to their mutual relations as

defined or defining. In the combination *extremely hot weather* the last word *weather,* which is evidently the chief idea, may be called primary; *hot,* which defines *weather,* secondary, and *extremely,* which defines *hot,* tertiary. Though a tertiary word may be further defined by a (quarternary) word, and this again by a (quinary) word, and so forth, it is needless to distinguish more than three ranks, as there are no formal or other traits that distinguish words of these lower orders from tertiary words. Thus, in the phrase *a certainly not very cleverly worded remark,* no one of the words *certainly, not,* and *very,* though defining the following word, is in any way grammatically different from what it would be as a tertiary word, as it is in *a certainly clever remark, not a clever remark, a very clever remark.*

If now we compare the combination *a furiously barking dog (a dog barking furiously),* in which *dog* is primary, *barking* secondary, and *furiously* tertiary, with *the dog barks furiously,* it is evident that the same subordination obtains in the latter as in the former combination. Yet there is a fundamental difference between them, which calls for separate terms for the two kinds of combination: we shall call the former kind **junction**, and the latter **nexus**. [...] It should be noted that *the dog* is a primary not only when it is the subject, as in *the dog barks,* but also when it is the object of a verb, as in *I see the dog,* or of a preposition, as in *he runs after the dog.*

As regards terminology, the words **primary**, **secondary**, and **tertiary** are applicable to nexus as well as to junction, but it will be useful to have special names **adjunct** for a secondary word in a junction, and **adnex** for a secondary word in a nexus. For tertiary we may use the term **subjunct**, and quarternary words, in the rare cases in which a .special name is needed, may be termed **sub-subjuncts**. [....]

[...] There is a certain correspondence between the tripartition substantive, adjective, adverb, and the three ranks [...] but the correspondence is only partial, not complete. The "part of speech" classification and the "rank" classification represent different angles from which the same word or form may be viewed, first as it is in itself, and then as it is in combination with other words.

O. Jespersen, Essentials
of English Grammar, p. 91, 95-96.

JUNCTION AND NEXUS

9.2(1). In a junction the joining of the two elements is so close that they may be considered one composite name for what might in many cases just as well have been called by a single name. Compare thus:

A silly person : a fool.
The warmest season : summer.
A very tall person : a giant.
An offensive smell : a stench.

If we compare *the red door* and *the barking dog,* on the one hand (junction), and on the other *the door is red* and *the dog barks* or *the dog is barking* (nexus), we find that the former kind is more rigid or stiff, and the latter more pliable; there is, as it were, more life in it. A junction is like a picture, a nexus is like a drama or a process. In a nexus something new is added to the conception contained in the primary: the difference between that and a junction is seen clearly by comparing, e.g.

The blue dress is the oldest. The oldest dress is blue. A dancing woman charms. A charming woman dances.

9.7 (2). In examples like *the door is red* and *the dog barks* the nexus is independent and forms a whole sentence, i.e. gives a complete bit of information. But it is important to notice that a nexus may also be dependent, and in that case does not give a complete piece of information. The simplest instances of this are found in the so-called clauses, which resemble sentences in their construction, but form only part of a .communication, e.g.

I see *that the door is red.*

I know *that the dog barks.*

She is afraid *when the dog barks,* etc.

But the same relation between a primary and a secondary obtains also in various other combinations, in which we are therefore entitled to speak of a dependent nexus. [...] here we shall give only a few examples to show their intrinsic similarity to dependent clauses:

I paint the door red (paint it so that afterwards it is red).

I hear the dog bark (cp. hear that he barks).

I make the dog bark.

Very often a substantive in itself contains the idea of a (dependent) nexus. Examples of such nexus-substantives.:

The dog's *barking* was heard all over the place.

I saw the King's *arrival* (cp. I saw that the King arrived).

On account of her *pride* (cp. because she was proud).

H. Whitehall, Structural Essentials of English, p. 8-11, 17-18.

WORD-GROUPS

2.1. The grammatical description of any language is made scientifically possible by isolating certain recurrent units of expression and examining their distribution in contexts. The largest of these units are sentences, which can be decomposed into smaller constituent units: first **word-groups,** then the affixes and combining forms entering into the formation of words, and finally the significant speech-sounds (**phonemes**) of the language. Normally, we would first isolate the smallest

units (the phonemes) and their written representations and then work up gradually to the sentence units. With written English, however, it is advantageous to reverse this procedure and to start by isolating and classifying the word-groups. Because of the nature of the English language, which, on the one hand, uses word-groups as the main sentence constituents, and, on the other, uses certain word-group types as sentences, the word-group has become our main structural unit of expression – the brick with which we build up edifices of discourse.

2.2. In written English, a word-group is a cluster of two or more words which functions either independently or in a longer sequence of statement as a grammatical unit. Thus, the word-group *I was foolish* can function as an independent grammatical unit in the sentence *I was foolish* (.), but it functions as the complement in the more extended sentence *He said I was foolish.* In spoken English. word-groups are marked off either as independent utterances (spoken sentences) or grammatically significant segments of utterances by various combinations of what have been called **configurational features:** (1) rise or fall in voice **loudness;** (2) rise or fall in voice **tone;** (3) **interruption** of the normal transition between one speech-sound and the next. According to the ways in which they are used and constituted, two main types of English word-groups can be distinguished: **headed** (endocentric) and **non-headed** (exocentric).

2.3. **Headed groups** have this peculiarity: all the grammatical functions open to them as groups can also be exercised by one expression within them. They are, so to speak, expansions of this expression, called the **head** of the group, and it is possible to substitute the head for the group or the group for the head within the same grammatical frame (i.e., in the same context) without causing any formal dislocation of the overall grammatical structure. For instance, in ***Fresh fruit*** *is good*(.), the headed word-group *fresh fruit* serves as subject; in *I like* ***fresh fruit*** (.). it serves as complement. If we substitute the head expression *fruit* for *fresh fruit* in either case, the grammatical frame **subject, verb, complement** will remain formally undisturbed:

Fresh fruit is good.
Fruit is good.

I like *fresh fruit.*
I like *fruit.*

Similarly:
All this nice fresh fruit is good.
Fruit is good.
Singing songs is fun.
Singing is fun.

I like *singing songs.*
I like *singing.*

In these sets of examples, the head expressions *fruit* and *singing* are freely substitutable grammatically for the word-groups of which they are constituents. In both cases the italicized word-groups are **headed groups.**

2.4. **Non-headed groups,** unlike headed groups, can enter into grammatical constructions not open to any single expression within them. No word within the group can substitute for the entire group and make sense, nor. can the entire group substitute within the same surrounding context for any one of its constituent parts. Such groups are quite literally non-headed:

I saw a book *of poems.*

A book *of poems* is what *I saw.*

In these sentences, neither *I* nor *saw* is substitutable for *I saw,* and neither of nor *poems* can replace *of poems.* To attempt such substitutions would have these results:

I — a book — *poems.*

— *Saw* a book *of* —

Alternatively:

I saw saw a book of *of poems.*

I *I saw* a book of *poems* poems.

Thus a non-headed group has grammatical functions quite distinct from those of any of its constituent expressions. [...]

2.13. To understand the structure of English statements, we need to recognize unerringly the four principal types of headed groups (noun groups, verb groups, modifier groups, and verbal groups), the two types of non-headed groups (prepositional groups, subject-predicate groups) and the conjunctional groups.[...]

<table>
<tr><td colspan="6">word-group</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="4">headed</td><td colspan="2" rowspan="2">non-headed</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2">tail-head</td><td colspan="2">head-tail</td></tr>
<tr><td>noun group</td><td>verb group</td><td>modifier group</td><td>verbal group</td><td>prepositional group</td><td>subject-predicate group</td></tr>
</table>

M.Y. Blokh, T.N. Semionova, S.V. Timofeeva
Theoretical English Grammar, p. 245-249.

1. BASIC UNITS OF SYNTAX: PHRASE AND SENTENCE

Syntax treats phrases and sentences. Both syntactic units are studied in paradigmatic and syntagmatic syntax.

The phrase is the object of minor syntax. The phrase is usually understood as a combination of two or more words which is a grammatical unit but is not an analytical form of a word.

The sentence belongs to a different language level – the level lying above the phrasemic level. The sentence is the immediate integral unit of speech built up of words according to a definite syntactic pattern and distinguished by a contextually relevant communicative purpose. Any coherent connection of words having an informative destination is effected within the framework of the sentence. Therefore the sentence is the main object of syntax as part of the grammatical theory.

The nominative meaning of the syntagmatically complete average sentence (an ordinary proposemic nomination) reflects a processual situation or event that includes a certain process (actional or statal) as its dynamic centre, the agent of the process, the objects of the process, and also the various conditions and circumstances of the realization of the process. This content of the proposemic event forms the basis of the traditional syntactic division of the sentence into its nominative parts.

The difference between the phrase and the sentence is fundamental: the phrase is a nominative unit which fulfils the function of poly-nomination denoting a complex referent (phenomenon of reality) analyzable into its component elements together with various relations between them; the sentence is a unit of predication which, naming a certain situational event, shows the relation of the denoted event towards reality. Taking into consideration the two-aspective character of the sentence as a meaningful unit of language, predication should be interpreted not simply as referring the content of the sentence to reality, but as referring the nominative content of the sentence to reality. It is this interpretation of the semantico-functional nature of predication that discloses, in one and the same generalized presentation, both the unity of the two identified aspects of the sentence, and also their different, though mutually complementary, meaningful roles. Hence, the sentence as a lingual unit performs not one, but two essential signemic (meaningful) functions: first, substance-naming, or nominative function; second, reality-evaluating, or predicative function.

Phonetically, the sentence is distinguished by a relevant intonation (intonation contour).

Intonation separates one sentence from another in the continual flow of uttered segments and, together with various segmental means of expression, participates in rendering essential communicative-predicative meanings (such as, e.g., the syntactic meaning of interrogation in distinction to the meaning of declaration).

Within each sentence as an immediate speech element definite standard syntactico-semantic features are revealed which make up a typical model, a generalized pattern repeated in an indefinite number of actual utterances. This complicated predicative pattern does enter the system of language. It builds up its own level in the hierarchy of lingual segmental units in the capacity of a “linguistic sentence” and as such is studied by grammatical theory.

Between the sentence and the substantive word combination of the full nominative type, direct transformational relations are established: the sentence, interpreted as an element of paradigmatics, is transformed into the substantive phrase, or "nominalized", losing its processual-predicative character.

2. TRADITIONAL CLASSIFICATION OF PHRASES

Linguists discuss different classifications of phrases, all of them having their own advantages. These classifications help reveal those aspects of phrases which are determined by the grammatical features of phrase constituents and by the syntactic functions of the phrase as a unit.

The traditional classification of phrases is based on the part of speech status of the phrase constituents. In accordance with this criterion, the following types of phrases can be identified: "noun + noun", "adjective + noun", "verb + noun", "verb + adverb", "adverb + adjective", "adverb + adverb", etc. Phrases are made up not only by notional words but also by functional words, e.g.: "in accordance with", "due to", "apart from", "as soon as" – such phrases perform in a sentence preposition-like and conjunction-like functions.

3. AGREEMENT AND GOVERNMENT AS TWO MAIN TYPES OF SYNTACTIC RELATIONS

Syntactic relations of the phrase constituents are divided into two main types: agreement and government.

Agreement takes place when the subordinate word assumes a form similar to that of the word to which it is subordinate. In English agreement is typical only of the category of number in demonstrative pronouns.

Government takes place when the subordinate word is used in a certain form required by its head word, the form of the subordinate word not coinciding with the form of the head word. The expression of government is the use of the objective case of personal pronouns and of the pronoun "who" when they are used in a verbal phrase or follow a preposition.

4. NOMINATIVE CLASSIFICATION OF PHRASES

Phrases can also be classified according to the nominative value of their constituents. As a result three major types of phrases are identified: notional (consisting of grammatically connected notional words), formative (made up by notional and functional words), and functional (consisting of functional words alone). Notional phrases are subdivided into two groups on the principle of the constituent rank: equipotent phrases (the phrase constituents are of an equal rank) and

dominational phrases (the syntactic ranks of the constituents are not equal as they refer to one another as the modifier and the modified). Further subdivision of equipotent notional word groupings into coordinative and cumulative is carried out on the principle of the character of nomination realized by the phrase constituents: coordinative phrases are based on the logically consecutive connections, cumulative phrases are characterized by the constituent inequality in the character of nomination realized and the presence of a coordinative conjunction. In their turn, dominational notional phrases are subdivided into consecutive and cumulative: the classification principle of the character of nomination realized by the phrase constituents remains valid. Dominational consecutive phrases fall into minor groupings according to the specific features of dominational connection.

5. SPECIAL MEANS OF SYNTACTIC CONNECTION OF PHRASE CONSTITUENTS

Agreement and government are considered to be the main types of expressing syntactic relations by phrase constituents. Yet, there exist some special means of expressing syntactic relations within a phrase, they are adjoinment and enclosure. Adjoinment is usually given a "negative" definition: it is described as absence both of agreement and of government, it is typical of the syntagma "adverb + head word".

If adjoinment is typical of Russian, enclosure is peculiar to Modern English. By enclosure some element is put between the two parts of another constituent of a phrase. One of the most widely used types of enclosure in English is the enclosure of all kinds of attributes between the article (determiner) and its head-noun.

SUMMING-UP QUESTIONS

1. What are the main units of syntax?
2. What criteria can be used for differentiating between phrases and sentences?
3. How can we obtain phrases?
4. What are the principles of phrase classification?
5. What accounts for the fact that phrases in English should be structurally complete?
6. What structural elements are used to substitute for a missing number?
7. What is problematic about prepositional phrases?
8. How are the relations between the components of phrases expressed?
9. What are the means of connection between phrase components?
10. How are phrases classified according to H. Sweet and Ch. Fries?

Chapter 8. THE SENTENCE

B.S. Khaimovich, B.I. Rogovskaya
A Course In English Grammar, p. 220-249.

INTRODUCTION

§ 378. The basic unit of syntax is the **sentence**. There exist many definitions of the sentence, but none of them is generally accepted. But in the majority of cases people actually experience no difficulty in separating one sentence from another in their native tongue. This is reflected in writing, where the graphic form of each sentence is separated by punctuation marks (.!?) from its neighbours.

Though a sentence contains words, it is not merely a group of words (or other units), but something integral a structural unity built in accordance with one of the patterns existing in a given language. All the sounds of a sentence are united by typical intonation. All the meanings are interlaced according to some pattern to make one communication.

§ 379. **A communication is a directed thought.** Much in the same way as the position of a point or the direction of a line in space is fixed with the help of a system of coordinates, there exists a system of coordinates to fix the position or direction of a thought in speech. Naturally, only phenomena present at every act of speech can serve as the axes of coordinates. They are: a) the act of speech, b) the speaker (or writer), c) reality (as viewed by the speaker).

If taken in their concrete significance, these phenomena are variables because they change with every act of speech. But if taken in a general way, they are constants because they are always there whenever there is language communication. As constants they are fixed in the language, as variables they function in speech.

§ 380. The act of speech is the event with which all other events mentioned in the sentence are correlated in time. This correlation is fixed in English and other languages grammatically in the category of tense and lexically in such words as *now, yesterday, to-morrow,* etc.

The speaker is the person with whom other persons and things mentioned in the sentence are correlated. This correlation is fixed grammatically in the category of person of the verb and lexico-grammatically in such words as *I, you, he, she, it, they, student, river,* etc.

Reality is either accepted as the speaker sees it, or an attempt is made to change it, or some irreality is fancied. Cf. *The door is shut. Shut Иге door. If the door were shut...* The attitude towards reality is fixed grammatically in the category of mood and lexically or lexico-grammatically in words like *must, may, probably,* etc.

The three relations – to the act of speech, to the speaker and to reality – can be summarized as the relation to the **situation of speech**. Now the relation of the thought of a sentence to the situation of speech is called ***predicativity***. This is the name of the system of coordinates directing the thought of a sentence and distinguishing a sentence from any group of words. **Predicativity** is as essential a part of the **content** of the sentence as **intonation** is of its form. The sentence can thus be defined as *a communication unit made up of moms (and word-morphemes) in conformity with their conibitiability and structurally united by intonation and predicativity.*

Hence intonation may be regarded as the **structural form** and predicativity as the **structural meaning** of the sentence.

§ 381. Within a sentence, the word or combination of words that contains the meanings of predicativity may be called the ***predication***.

In the sentence *He mused over it for a minute* (Conan Doyle) the predication is *he mused. He* indicates the person, *mused* – the tense and mood components of predicativity.

In the sentence *Tell me something* there is a one-word predication *tell* containing the mood component of predicativity. The person component is only implied. As we know (§ 249), imperative mood grammemes have the lexico-grammatical meaning of 'second person'.

§ 382. The simplest relation to the situation of speech can be found in a sentence like *Rain* which when pronounced with proper intonation merely states the phenomenon observed. Does a sentence like this contain the relations to the act of speech, the speaker and reality? Yes, it does. First of all, the noun *rain,* like any noun, is associated with the third person. As for the meanings of mood and tense, the following is to be taken into consideration.

As we know, the general meanings of tense, mood contain three particular meanings each: present – past – future (tense), indicative – imperative – subjunctive (mood). Two of these meanings are usually more specific than the third. The two specific tenses are the past and the future. The two specific moods are the imperative and the subjunctive. Now, when there are no positive indications of any tense of mood the sentence is understood to contain the least specific of those meanings. In the sentence *Rain* the present tense and the indicative mood are implied. Cf. the Russian *Жара. Поздно. Он студент,* etc.

In the sentence *Tea!* the imperative intonation expresses the difference in the modal component of predicativity.

Thus, *Rain. Tea!* are sentences both as to their forms (intonation) and their meanings (predicativity). They are living patterns in the English language because many sentences of the same type can be formed. The lexical meaning of *Rain* is irrelevant (cf. *Snow, Hail, Fog)* when we regard the sentence as a language model, but it is relevant when the sentence is used in actual speech.

§ 383. Of much greater importance are sentences of the type *I live.* The word *I* contains the person component of predicativity and the word *live* carries the tense and mood components. Thus the sentence *I live* has predicativity plainly expressed by a positive two-member predication.

The sentence *I live* regarded as a model is much more productive than the model *Rain* because the predication can express different relations to the situation of speech: different persons, different tenses, different moods. It is hardly necessary to say that in actual speech an almost limitless variety of sentences are built on this model by combining words of different lexemes.

§ 384. The main parts of the sentence are those whose function it is to make the predication. They are the subject and the predicate of the sentence.

The subject tells us whether the predication involves the speaker *(I, we ...),* his interlocutor *(you ...)* or some other person or thing *(he, John, the forest ...).* The predicate may also tell us something about the person, but it usually does not supply any new information. It merely seconds the subject, corroborating, as it were, in a general way the person named by the subject *(I am ..., you are ..., he, John, the forest is ...).* Neither does the predicate add information as to the number of persons or things involved. Here it again seconds the subject. In this sense we say that the predicate depends on the subject. But in expressing the tense and mood components of predicativity the predicate is independent.

§ 385. Since a person or thing denoted by any noun or noun equivalent (except *I, we* and *you)* is a 'third person' and a sentence may contain several nouns, there must be something in the sentence to show which of the nouns is the subject of the predication. The Indo-European languages use the following devices:

a) the nominative case *(Встретил зайца медведь).*

b) grammatical combinability *(Цветы солнце любят, Цветы солнце любит). Two windows has this house. (Nursery rhyme).*

c) the position of the noun *(Бытие определяет сознание).*

In English the nominative case has been preserved only with six pronouns. Grammatical combinability, as shown in the previous paragraph, is important, but it plays a much smaller role than in Russian. It is not observed, for instance, in cases like *I (he, she, they, John, the students) spoke ...* So the position of the noun or noun-equivalent is of the greatest importance.

E.g. John showed Peter a book of his.

When position and combinability clash, position is usually decisive, as in the sentence *George's is a brilliant idea, George's are brilliant ideas.* The subject is *George's,* though the predicates agree in number with the nouns *idea, ideas.* Similarly in *What are those things, The above are samples of minerals,* etc.

§ 386. It would be wrong to maintain that the only function of the main parts of the sentence is to contain the syntactical meanings of predicativity. The latter

has been defined as the relation of the thought to the situation of speech. So there must be some thought whose relation to the situation of speech is expressed in the sentence in terms of person, tense, mood. Naturally, the main parts of the sentence contain part of that thought, and if the sentence consists of the main parts alone, they contain all the thought. This is the case in a sentence like *Birds fly.* The subject *birds* does not only inform us that it is neither the speaker, nor his interlocutor, but some other person or thing that is involved. It does much more. As a noun it names **that thing**. The predicate *fly* does not only show the relation to the act of speech and reality As a verb it **names an action** characterizing the thing name, by the subject.

Thus we may speak of the (1) predicative (structural) and (2) non-predicative (notional) characteristics of the subject *birds.*

1. It contains the person component of predicativity,

2. It names the thing about which the communication is made. In other words, *birds* is both the structural and the notional subject of the sentence.

The predicate *fly* has similar characteristics:

1. It contain the tense and mood components of predicativity.

2. It names an action characterizing the thing denoted by the subject.

So *fly* is both the structural and the notional predicate of the sentence.

§ 387. In the sentence *It rains* the notional value of the subject is zero since it does not name or indicate any person, thing or idea. This is why it is (not quite adequately) called an 'impersonal' subject. But its predicative (structural) meaning is as good as that of any other subject: it shows that neither the speaker nor his interlocutors are involved.

In the sentence *He is a student* the notional value of *is* is next to zero, which prevents it from being recognized as the predicate of the sentence. Though *is* contains the tense and mood components of predicativity like any other predicate, it is regarded as only part of the predicate.

One cannot fail to notice that different criteria are used with regard to the subject and to the predicate. It is assumed that the former can be devoid of notional value, while the latter cannot.

When arguing against the traditional view that is in the sentence *He is in Moscow* is the predicate, A.I.Smirnitsky writes: "We cannot say that *is* is the predicate because the lexical meaning of this verb is colourless and indefinite".

The reason why modal verbs and other semi-notional verbs are not regarded as predicates is of the same nature.

§ 388. We think it essential to apply the same principles to the subject and predicate alike. The correlation between the structural and the notional in the principal parts of the sentence may be of four types: 1) The structural and the notional are united in one word.

E.g. Birds fly.

2) The structural and the notional are in different units.

E.g. It is necessary to act.

Only the structural is given in the sentence.

E.g. Is it raining? I t i s.

Only the notional is present.

E.g. What is he doing? Writing.

The differentiation of the structural and the notional is not an artificial device. As shown below, it is a characteristic feature of the analytical structure of the English sentence.

§ 389. In the sentence *Birds fly,* as we have seen, the syntactical and the lexical meanings of the subject and the predicate go together. But English has a system of devices to separate them.

To begin with, the overwhelming majority of verb forms in English are analytical. When the predicate is an analytical verb, the structural and the notional parts of the predicate are naturally separated, the former being expressed by a grammatical word-morpheme, as in the sentences *Mother is sleeping, I shall wait,* etc.

When the sentence contains a finite link-verb or a modal verb, the structural and notional predicates are different words as in *He is late, She can swim.*

The structural and the notional (part of the) predicate are often separated in English by adverbs and other words.

E.g. He is often late.

You must never d o it again. We s h a l l certainly come.

In interrogative and negative sentences the structural (part of the) predicate is usually detached from the notional (part of the) predicate and is placed before the subject or the negation.

I s mother sleeping? Mother is not sleeping. Shall I w a i t You must not cry.

When the predicate is expressed by a synthetic form and contains no word-morphemes, as in the sentence *Birds fly,* special word-morphemes *do, does, did* are introduced to separate the structural and the lexical meanings of the predicate verb in interrogative and negative transforms of the sentence.

D o birds fly? Birds d o not fly.

He smiles. Does he s m i l e? He smiled. Did he smile?

The same phenomenon is observed in sentences like *Little does he e x p e c t it, indeed. Only then did we b e g i n.* Also for emphasis in sentences like *We d o like it, But he d i d so w a n t, and the writing said he never would.* (Galsworthy).

Now observe the so-called 'contracted forms', so widely used in colloquial English: *I'm sure, He's writing, We'll come, You're students, They've left,* etc. They are another manifestation of the tendency to bring together the structural meanings by isolating them from the notional (part of the) predicate.

The tendency to detach the structural part of the predicate from its notional one is obvious in disjunctive questions.

He i s working, ***ins't*** *he? They haven't c o m e yet,* ***have*** *they? You know him,* ***don't*** *you? You can swim,* ***can't*** *you?*

The same tendency is evident in sentences like *John graduate**d** last year and so **did** Mary. John hasn't married* yet. *Neither **has** Peter. He was glad the play had ended as it **had**.* (Galsworthy).

But especially manifest is the tendency in short replies of the type *He does, They will,* etc. When in answer to the question *Has John really promised that?* we say *He has,* we repeat the predicative part of the previous sentence, leaving out the notional part.

Thus, we must say that **the tendency to detach the structural from the notional** is a typical feature of the English predicate, which is connected with the extensive use of grammatical word-morphemes and semi-notional verbs. The ties between analytical morphology and syntax are obvious.

§ 390. The subject is in most cases a word uniting the syntactical meaning of 'person' with the lexical meanings. But English has developed special word-morphemes to separate them, as in the dialogue below.

*– **It** is necessary to warn her, isn't **it**?*

*– **It** is.*

The subject *it* has no notional value, but it contains the predicative meaning of 'person'. The correlated but detached lexical meaning is in the infinitive *to warn.* Thus, it has only the form, but not the content of a word. In content it is a grammatical morpheme, and we may, consequently, regard it as a grammatical word-morpheme. But *it* differs from the grammatical word-morphemes already described in not forming part of an analytical word while making part of a sentence. Hence the conclusion that grammatical word-morphemes divide into **morphological** and **syntactical** ones. *It* in the sentences analysed is a syntactical word-morpheme used to detach the predicative meaning of the subject from its lexical meaning.

Another syntactical word-morpheme of this type is *there* in the following dialogue.

– There is no money in it, is there?

– There is.

As a result of a long course of development this *there* has lost its lexical meaning, its connection with the proadverb *there,* and acquires the predicative meaning of the subject when it occupies its position. *There* shows, like most subjects, that neither the speaker not the listener are involved.

In the sentences above *there* is the subject owing to its position, though the predicate agrees in number with the noun *money,* which is the notional correlative of *there.* W.Twaddell writes: "Like the interrogative subjects *who (what) which'?*

the empty subject *there* is itself unmarked for number. A following verb displays the number agreement appropriate to the predicative noun complement or to an earlier noun or pronoun reference. *"Who is coming? Which are staying? What's the best way to Newport"? What are those things'?"* – Similarly, *"There is a tide in the affairs of men. There are more things in heaven and earth. There happen to be several good reasons. There does, not seem to be any objection".*

§ 391. Let us now consider the grammatical word-morphemes *do, does, did* in sentences like *Does she ever smile? We do not know him,* etc.

A.I. Smirnitsky is of the opinion that *does ... smile, do ... know* and *did come* (in *He did come*) are analytical forms of the verb serving to express interrogation, negation, and emphasis respectively. There are good reasons, however, for disagreement, since the do-word-morphemes in the above formations differ essentially from morphological word-morphemes.

Morphological word-morphemes are combinable, e.g. *shall have been asked.* The word-morphemes *do, does, did* form no combinations with any morphological word-morphemes. They appear in the sentence only in case there are no morphological word-morphemes that could be separated from the rest of the analytical word for syntactical purposes.

All the words of the lexemes represented by *have, be, shall* and *will* are used as word-morphemes, e.g. *have written, has written, had written, to have written, having written.* With *do* it is different. Only those words are used which have the syntactically important meanings of predicativity: *do, does, did,* not *doing* or *to do.* One says *Do not come,* but *not to come* (* *to do not come* is impossible), *not coming* (* *doing not come* is impossible).

The use of the do-word-morphemes, (unlike that of morphological word-morphemes) fully depends on the, type of the sentence. Compare, for instance, *do* and *are* in the following questions:

*What books **do** you sell?*	*What books **are** you selling?*
What books sell best?	*What books **are** selling best?*

Thus, the do-word-morphemes are not parts of analytical words that enter the sentence together with the whole word, as is the case with morphological word-morphemes. They are syntactical word-morphemes used in certain types of sentences when the predicate verb contains no morphological word -morphemes.

§ 392. A unit of a higher level, as we know, contains units of the next lower level. A sentence contains words, not morphemes – parts of words. So morphological word-morphemes cannot be regarded as parts of the sentence as long as they remain parts of analytical words. In spite of the fact that in the sentence *He is writing* predicativity is conveyed by *he is,* we cannot treat *is* as the predicate because it is part of the word *is writing.* Only the whole word *is writing* can be regarded as a part of the sentence. Still, the predicate *is writing* consists of two parts: the struc-

tural part *is* and the *notional part writing. Only* when the notional part of the verb is dropped does a morphological word-morpheme become the structural predicate of a sentence, as, for instance, in short answers *He is, She has, We shall,* etc.

It is not so with syntactical word-morphemes. They are nor parts of words, but parts of sentences, more exactly, structural parts of senterices. In *It is cold,* for instance, the syntactical word-morpheme *it* is the structural subject of the sentence. In *Does he smoke?* the syntactical word-morpheme *does* is the structural predicate.

§ 393. Every predication can be either positive or negative.

He is. – He isn't.

It rains. – It does not rain.

Speak! – Don't speak!

The 'positive' meaning is not expressed. It exists owing to the existence of the opposite 'negative' meaning. The latter is usually expressed with the help of *not (n't)* which we might call the ***predicate negation.*** It is a peculiar unit differing from the particle *not* in several respects.

a) The particle *not.* has right-hand connections with various classes of words, word-combinations and clauses.

E.g. You may come any time, but not when I am busy. Not wishing to disturb her, he tip-toed to his room. May I ask you not to cry at me? The predicate negation has only left-hand connections with the following 24 words and word-morphemes which H.Palmer and A.Hornby call ***anomalous flnite*** and J. Firth names ***syntactical operators*** *": am, is, are, was, were, have, has, had, do, does, did, shall, should, will, would, can, could, may, might, must, ought, need, dare, used.* In the sentence, as we know, all these words and word-morphemes are structural (parts of) predicates.

b) Unlike the particle *not,* the predicate negation is regularly contracted in speech to *n't* and is as regularly fused with the preceding structural (part of the) predicate into units differing in form from the sum of the original components *do + not = don't* [dount], *will + not = won't* [wount], *shall + not = shan't* [ʃa:nt], *can + not = can't* [ka:nt].

c) The predicate negation remains with the predication when the latter is reduced to its structural parts alone.

E.g. Is mother sleeping? She i s n ' t. He has bought the hook, h as n ' t h e?

d) The predicate negation may represent the whole predication like a word-morpheme.

E.g. Are we late? I believe not.

Here *not* substitutes for *we are not* or *we aren't late.*

Hence we must regard the predicate negation as a special syntactical unit, as a **syntactical word-morpheme of negation.** It differs from other means of expressing negation.

Cf. *He d i d n ' t return. There i s n ' t any book on the table. He never returned. There is n o book on the table.*

§ 394. In English there are 'predications' which retain only the notional part of the predicate without its structural part. They are known as **secondary predications or complexes** (see § 310), and contain a verbid instead of a finite verb.

As we see, the complexes possess only the person component of predicativity. The other two components can be obtained obliquely from some actual predication. That is why the complexes are always used with some predication and why they are called 'secondary' predications. In the sentence *I felt him tremble* the complex *him tremble* borrows, as it were, the tense and mood components of predicativity from the predication *I felt* and becomes obliquely equivalent to an actual predication *He trembled* into which it can be transformed. Thus a complex may be regarded as a transformation (transform) of some actual predication, the verbid acting as an **oblique or secondary predicate.**

§ 395. The terms 'transform', 'transformational' have become popular among linguists after the publication in 1957 of *Syntactic Structures* by Noam Chomsky. Chomsky's transformational grammar is a theory for grammatical description of linguistic structure. It is a generating grammar in the sense that it is a body of rules to generate an infinite set of grammatically correct sentences from a finite vocabulary. As B. Strong has it, it "combines great precision with a cumbersomeness that unsuits it for ordinary purposes."

In this book we do not deal with transformational grammar as a theory, and we use the term *transform* as it is defined by R. Long. Transforms are "Syntactic patterns that closely parallel other syntactic patterns, from which they are conveniently considered to derive, but that are nevertheless distinct in form and use. Thus the main interrogative Was *Jane there?* is conveniently regarded as a transform of the main declarative *Jane was there.* Clauses with passive-voice predicators are obviously transforms of clauses with common voice predicators. *I gave him the book* can profitably be considered a transform of *I gave the book to him,* and *an economics teacher* or *a teacher of economics."*

Similarly, the sentence ***The bus being very crowded,*** *John had to stand* can be regarded as a transform of the sentence ***As the bus was very crowded,*** *John had to stand* or the participial complex as a transform of the subordinate clause.

Likewise can the infinitival complex of the sentence *It is not possible* ***for him to do it alone*** be treated as a transform of the subordinate clause in *It is not possible* ***that he should do it alone.***

The gerundial complex in *I resent your* ***having taken*** *the book* can be viewed as a transform of the subordinate clause In *I resent* ***that you have taken the book.***

As we see, the complexes retain the lexical meanings of the clauses, but they are deprived of the predicative (structural) meanings of mood and tense, which they borrow, as it were, from the finite verb.

This correlation of structural and non-structural predications is also part of the system of a language regularly detaching the structural part of the predicate from the notional one.

THE STRUCTURE OF A SENTENCE

§ 396. As defined, when studying the structure of a unit, we find out its components, mostly units of the next lower level, their arrangement and their functions as parts of the unit.

Many linguists think that the investigation of the components and their arrangement suffices. Thus Halliday writes: "Each unit is characterized by certain structures. The structure is a syntagmatic framework of interrelated elements, which are paradigmatically established in the systems of classes and stated as values in the structure. ... if a unit 'word' is established there will be dimensions of word-classes the terms in which operate as values in clause structures: given a verb /noun/ adverb system of word classes, it might be that the structures *A N V* and *NAV* were admitted in the clause but *NVA* excluded".

Now 'a syntagmatic framework of interrelated elements' may describe the structure of a combination of units as well as that of a higher unit, a combination of words as well as a' sentence or a clause. The important properties that unite the interrelated elements into a higher unit of which they become parts, the function of each element as part of the whole, are not mentioned.

Similarly, Z. Harris thinks that the sentence *The fear of war grew* can be described as TN_1PN_2V, where *T* stands for *article, N* for *noun, P for preposition* and *V* for *verb.*

Such descriptions are feasible only if we proceed from the notion that the difference between the morpheme, the word and the sentence is not one of quality but rather of quantity and arrangement.

Z. Harris does not propose to describe the morpheme (as he calls it) *is* as *VC,* where *V* stands for *vowel* and *C* for *consonant.* He does not do so because he regards a morpheme not as an arrangement of phonemes, but as a unit of a higher level possessing some quality (namely, meaning) not found in any phoneme or combination of phonemes outside the morpheme.

Since we assume that not only the phoneme and the morpheme, but also the word and the sentence are units of different levels, we cannot agree to the view that a sentence is merely an arrangement of words.

In our opinion, *The fear of war grew* is a sentence not because it is *TNPNV,* but because it has properties not inherent in words. It is a unit of communication and as such it possesses predicativity and intonation. On the other hand, *TNPNV* stands also for *the fear of war growing, the fear of war to grow,* which are not sentences.

As to the arrangement of words in the sentence above, it fully depends upon their combinability. We have *TN* and not *NT* because an article has only right-hand connections with nouns. A prepositional phrase, on the contrary has left-hand connections with nouns; that is why we have *TNPN,* etc.

§ 397. The development of transform grammar (Harris, Chomsky) and tagmemic grammar (Pike) is to a great extent due to the realization of the fact that "an attempt to describe (grammatical structure in terms of morpheme classes alone – even successively inclusive classes of classes – is insufficient".

As defined by Harris, the approach of transformational grammar differs from the above-described practice of characterizing "each linguistic entity ... as composed out of specified ordered entities at a lower level" in presenting "each sentence as derived in accordance with a set of transformational rules, from one or more (generally simpler) sentences, i.e. from other entities of the same level. A language is then described as consisting of specified sets of kernel sentences and a set of transformations".

For English Harris lists seven principal patterns of kernel sentences:

1. *NvV (v* stands for a tense morpheme or an auxiliary verb, i.e. for a (word-) morpheme containing the meanings of predicativity).
2. *NvVPN*
3. *NvVN*
4. *N* is *N*
5. *N* is *A (A* stands for adjective)
6. *N* is *PN*
7. *N* is *D (D* stands for adverb)

As one can easily see, the patterns above do not merely represent arrangements of words, they are such arrangements which contain predicativity – the most essential component of a sentence. Given the proper intonation and replaced by words that conform to the rules of combinability, these patterns will become actual sentences. Viewed thus, the patterns may be regarded as language models of speech sentences.

One should notice, however, that the difference between the patterns above is not, in fact, a reflection of any sentence peculiarities. It rather reflects the difference in the combinability of various subclasses of verbs.

The difference between *'NvV'* and *'NvVN',* for instance, reflects the different combinability of a non-transitive and a transitive verb *(He is sleeping. He is writing letters.* Cf. *to sleep, to write letters).* The difference between those two patterns and *'N* is *A'* reflects the difference in the combinability of notional verbs and link verbs, etc.

A similar list of patterns is recommended to language teachers under the heading *These are the basic patterns for all English sentences:*

1. *Birds fly.*

2. *Birds eat worms.*
3. *Birds are happy.*
4. *Birds are animals.*
5. *Birds give me happiness.*
6. *They made me president.*
7. *They made me happy.*

The heading is certainly rather pretentious. The list does not include sentences with zero predications or with partially implied predicativity while it displays the combinability of various verb classes.

S. Potter reduces the number of kernel sentences to three: "All simple sentences belong to one of three types: A. *The sun warms the earth;* B. *The sun is a star;* and C. *The sun is bright.*" And as a kind of argument he adds: "Word order is changeless in A and B, but not in C. Even in sober prose a man may say *Bright is the sun.*"

§ 398. The foregoing analysis of kernel sentences, from which most English sentences can be obtained, shows that "every sentence can be analysed into a center, plus zero or more constructions ... The center is thus an elementary sentence; adjoined constructions are in general modifiers". In other words, the essential structure constituting a sentence is the predication; all other words are added to it in accordance with their combinability. This is the case in an overwhelming majority of English sentences. Here are some figures based on the investigation of modern American non-fiction.

No	Pattern	Frequency of occurrence (per cent)	
		as sole pattern	in combination
1	Subject + verb *Babies cry.*	25,1	5,3
2	Subject + verb + object *Girls like clothes.*	32,9	5,9
3	Subject + verb + predicative *Dictionaries are books.* *Dictionaries are useful.*	20,8	6,4
4	Structural subject + verb + notional subject *There is evidence.* *It is easy to learn knitting.*	4,3	0,9
5	Minor patterns *Are you sure?* *Whom did you invite?* *Brush your teeth.* *What a day!*	7,9	

§ 399. Some analogy can be drawn between the structure of a word and the structure of a sentence.

The morphemes of a word are formally united by stress. The words of a sentence are formally united by intonation.

The centre of a word is the root. The centre of a sentence is the predication.

Some words have no other morphemes but the root *(ink, too, but).* Some sentences have no other words but those of the predication *(Birds fly. It rains. Begin.).*

Words may have some morphemes besides the root *(unbearable).* Sentences may have some words besides the predication *(Yesterday it rained heavily.).*

Sometimes a word is made of a morpheme that is usually not a root *(ism).* Sometimes sentences are made of words that are usually not predications *(Heavy rain).*

Words may have two or more roots *(blue-eyed, merry-go-round).* Sentences may have two or more predications *(He asked me if I knew where she lived.).*

The roots may be co-ordinated or subordinated *(Anglo-Saxon, blue-belt).* The predications may be co-ordinated and subordinated *(She spoke and he listened. He saw Sam did not believe).*

The roots may be connected directly *(footpath)* or indirectly, with the help of some morpheme *salesman.* The predications may be connected directly *(I think he knows)* or indirectly, with the help of some word *(The day passed* **as** *others had passed.).*

The demarcation line between a word with more than one root and a combination of words is often very vague (cf. *blackboard* and *black board, brother-in-law* and *brother in arms).* The demarcation line between a sentence with more than one predication and a combination of sentences is often very vague.

Cf. *She'd only to cross the pavement. But still she waited.* (Mansfield).

§ 400. As we know, a predication in English is usually a combination of two words (or word-morphemes) united by predicativity, or, in other words, a predicative combination of words. Apart from that the words of a predication do not differ from other words in conforming to the general rules of combinability. The rules of grammatical combinability do not admit of **boys speaks* or **he am.* The combination **the fish barked* is strange as far as lexical combinability is concerned, etc.

All the other words of a sentence are added to those of the predication in accordance with their combinability to make the communication as complete as the speaker wishes. The predication *Boys play* can make a sentence by itself. But the sentence can 'be extended by realizing the combinability of the noun *boys* and the verb *play* into *The three noisy boys play boisterously upstairs.* We can develop the sentence into a still more extended one. But however extended the sentence is, it does not lose its integrity. Every word in it is not just a word, it becomes part of the sentence and must be evaluated in its relation to other parts and to the whole

sentence much in the same way as a morpheme in a word is not just a morpheme, but the root of a word or a prefix, or a suffix, or an inflection.

§ 401. Depending on their relation to the members of the predication the words of a sentence usually fall into two groups – the group of the subject and the group of the predicate.

Sometimes there is a third group, of parenthetical words, which mostly belongs to the sentence as a whole. In the sentence below the subject group is separated from the predicate group by the parenthetical group.

That last thing of yours, dear Flora, was really remarkable.

§ 402. As already mentioned, the distribution and the function of a word-combination in a sentence are usually determined by its head-word: by the noun in noun word-combinations, by the verb in verb word-combinations, etc.

The adjuncts of word-combinations in the sentence are added to their head-words in accordance with their combinability, to develop the sentence, to form its secondary parts which may be classified with regard to their head-words.

All the adjuncts of **noun** word-combinations **in the sentence** can be united under one name, ***attributes.*** All the adjuncts of **verb** (finite or non-finite) word-combinations may be termed ***complements.*** In the sentence below the attributes are spaced out and the complements are in heavy type.

*He **often** took **Irene to the theatre, instinctively** choosing (the modern Society **plays** with the modern Society conjugal problems.* (Galsworthy).

The adjuncts of all other word-combinations in the sentence may be called ***extensions.*** In the sentences below the extensions are spaced out.

You will never be free from dozing and dreams. (Shaw).

She was ever silent, passive, gracefully averse. (Galsworhty).

The distribution of semi-notional words in the sentence is determined by their functions – to **connect** notional words or **to specify** them. Accordingly they will be called ***connectives or specifiers.*** Conjunctions and prepositions are typical connectives. Particles are typical specifiers.

THE CLASSIFICATION OF SENTENCES

A. As to Their Structure

§ 403. Sentences with only one predication are called ***simple*** sentences. Those with more than one predication have usually no general name. We shall call them ***composite*** sentences.

In a composite sentence each predication together with the words attached is called a ***clause.***

Composite sentences with coordinated clauses are ***compound*** sentences.

She's a very faithful creature and I trust her. (Cronin).

Composite sentences containing subordinated clauses are ***complex*** sentences.

If I let this chance slip, I'm a fool. (Cronin).

In a complex sentence we distinguish the **principal** clause *(I'm a fool)* and the **subordinate** clause *(If I let this chance slip)* or clauses.

We may also differentiate **compound-complex** *(He seems a decent chap, and he thinks Ferse at the moment is as sane as himself* Galsworthy), and **complex-compound** •*(When that long holocaust of sincerity was over and the bride had gone, she subsided into a chair.* Galsworthy) sentences.

There may be several degrees of subordination in a complex sentence.

It was almost nine o'clock before he reached the club, where lie found Lord Henry sitting alone. (Wilde).

The clause *where he found Lord Henry sitting alone* is subordinated to the subordinate clause *before he reached the club* and is therefore of the second degree of subordination.

§ 404. The clauses of a composite sentence may be joined with the help of connective words **(syndetically) or** directly, without connectives **(asyndetically).**

E.g. We consent to be in the hands of men in o r d e r t h a t they may be in ours. (Galsworthy). *You're modern, Fleur; I'm mediaeval.* (Ib.).

§ 405. A simple sentence or a clause containing some words besides the predication is called ***extended.*** An **unextended** sentence (clause) contains no other parts but the subject and the predicate.

A sentence (clause) with several subjects to one predicate or several predicates to one subject is called a ***contracted*** **one.**

E.g. Diana c r o s s e d to the window and s t o o d there with her back to Dinny. (Ib.).

§ 406. The dominating type of sentence (clause), with full predication, i.e. containing both the subject and the predicate, is called a ***two-member*** sentence (clause). All other types are usually called ***one-member*** sentences (clauses). Here are some examples of one-member sentences.

Put your money on Old Maid. (Galsworthy).

A cup of tea!

Thanks.

These sentences are representatives of certain types that are established in the language system alongside of the two-member type. They are not speech modifications of some other type of sentence, as the so-called 'elliptical' sentences are.

B. As to Their Categories

§ 407. The sentences *He is a student – Is he a student?* form a syntactical opposeme. Their forms differ only in the type of intonation and the relative position of the members of the predication. The only difference in mean-

ing is that between 'declaration' and 'interrogation'. These two meanings can be regarded as the manifestations of the general meaning of a grammatical (syntactical) category which has no name yet. The category shows whether the sentence is presented as a statement or as a. question. Let us call it ***the category of presentation.*** Like any grammatical category this is a system of opposemes whose members differ in form to express only (and all) the particular manifestations of the general meaning of the category (§ 23).

The meaning of 'declaration' is expressed by a falling tone and by placing the subject before the predicate. The meaning of interrogation is expressed by a rising tone and by placing the structural (part of the) predicate before the subject.

Are you alluding to me? (Shaw).

Shall I announce him? (Ib.).

Is there no higher power than that? (Ib.).

Do you call poverty a crime? (Ib.).

In the last example a special syntactical predicate, the syntactical word-morpheme *do* is introduced and placed before the subject.

§ 408. With regard to the category of 'presentation' English sentences divide into those that have 'presentation' opposites and those which have not. Imperative and exclamatory sentences mostly belong to the latter subclass. In these sentences the opposeme of 'presentation' is neutralized. The member of neutralization (see § 43) usually resembles that of 'statement' *(Go to the blackboard. Let us begin. Look out!)* But often it takes the form of the 'interrogation' member *(Would you mind holding your tongue?* (Hornby). *Pass the salt, will you? Isn't shea beauty!)* or an 'intermediate' form *(How pretty she is!)*

§ 409. Not all interrogative sentences are syntactical opposites of declarative sentences. .,

The meaning of 'interrogation' in 'special questions' (otherwise called *Wh*-questions) is expressed either lexically [r] (when the subject or its attribute in a statement are replaced by the interrogative pronouns *who, what, which* or *whose)* or lexico-syntactically (when some other part of a statement is replaced by some interrogative pronoun). In either case they are not opposites of the corresponding statements because they differ lexically.

§ 410. The alternative question *Are you going out or do you prefer to stay at home?* is a compound sentence containing two coordinated interrogative clauses each of which is the syntactical opposite of a declarative clause. Only the intonation of the second clause is not interrogative.

Note. In cases like *Are you going out or not? Are you going to Moscow or to Leningrad?* the part following the conjunction *or* may be regarded as representing a clause similar to the preceding one in everything but the appended words and the intonation.

Disjunctive questions are peculiar complex sentences the principal clause being a statement and the subordinate clause the syntactical opposite of its predication with regard to two categories, 'presentation' and 'information.'

You don't smoke, do you? She is beautiful, isn't she?

§ 411. The sentences below form opposemes of some syntactical category.

Open the door.	*Don't open the door.*
It is raining.	*It is not raining. (it isn't raining)*
Do you like it?	*Don't you like it?*
You know.	*You don't know.*

In these opposemes meanings of 'affirmation' and 'negation' are the particular meanings of some syntactical category. It is difficult to find a name for such a general category covering statements, questions and orders. Seeing that in modern science the components of a 'yes-no' system are used as units of information, we shall call the category under discussion ***the category of information.***

The meaning of 'affirmative' information is expressed by a zero form, and the meaning of 'negative' information by means of the predicate negation, the syntactical word-morpheme *not (n't)* placed after the syntactical (part of the) predicate.

§ 412. As already noted, the negative word-morpheme *not (n't)* expresses full negation, as distinct from the partial negation of such negative words as *not, no, never, nothing,* etc. In most cases full negation excludes the necessity of partial negation in English, and vice versa. Hence the well-known assertion: "In English two negatives in the same construction are not used as in Russian: *He does not come so early,* or: *He never comes so early.* Compare with the Russian:

Он никогда не приходит так рано."

The difficulty is only in defining what is meant by "the same construction". It is not a sentence, because there can be two (or more) negatives in a composite sentence.

E.g. *I can't understand why he didn't come yesterday.*

It isn't even a simple sentence, for there may be a negative word attached to some verbid in the sentence, besides the negation connected with the predicate verb.

E.g. *Would it not be better not to tell your father?* (London).

The corresponding rule can, probably, be worded thus: *In English two negatives are not used in the same verbal construction.* A verbal construction is a verb with all the 'non-verbs' attached.

§ 413. Not every sentence containing a negation is the syntactical opposite of an affirmative sentence. *There was nobody in the room* is not the opposite of *There was somebody in the room.* Here the difference is in the lexical meaning of *somebody* and *nobody.* Similarly in *There is a book on the table,* and *There is no*

book on the table the difference is lexical *(no* versus *a).* Only a sentence containing the predicate negation, the syntactical word-morpheme *not (n't),* can be the 'negative' member of an 'information' opposeme, because (like any grammatical word-morpheme) *not (n't)* adds no lexical meaning.

§ 414. With regard to the category of information English sentences divide into those that have opposites of the category and those which have not. Since 'negative information' is expressed in English only by means of the predicate negation, all the sentences that have no predicates are outside the category. *Rain. No rain,* are not members of a syntactical opposeme. They only resemble the corresponding members and may be said to possess lexico-grammatical meanings of 'affirmative' and 'negative' information. In exclamatory sentences the category of information is mostly neutralized. The member of neutralization usually resembles that of 'affirmation'. *What a lovely day!* But often it takes the form of the member of 'negation'. *Isn't it marvellous!*

§ 415. Let us compare the following pairs of sentences:

Come	*Do come*
He came	*He did come*
I'll see him	*I shall see him*
It's raining	*It is raining*

The sentences above can be regarded as opposemes of *the category of expressiveness.* The two particular meanings are those of 'emphatic' and 'non-emphatic' expressiveness.

'Non-emphatic' expressiveness has a zero form, whereas 'emphasis' is expressed by a strong accent on a word-morpheme (morphological or syntactical). In sentences like *He did come* a special syntactical word-morpheme is placed before the notional verb to receive the stress.

COMBINATIONS OF SENTENCES

§ 416. The sentence is usually the limit of grammatical analysis. Combinations of sentences have never got adequate attention on the part of linguists. Yet the necessity of extending linguistic analysis beyond the bounds of the sentence has of late been frequently emphasized.

We should naturally consider the analysis of, a word incomplete without its combinability. But for some reason the combinability of sentences is not regarded important. One might think that each sentence is an absolutely independent unit, that its forms and meanings do not depend on its neighbours in speech. .But it is not so. As H. Kufner has it, "In a very real sense very few groups of words which we would unanimously punctuate as sentences can really be called complete or capable of standing alone ... Most of the sentences that we speak ... are dependent on what has been said before".

It goes without saying that in a book of this kind the uninvestigated problem of the combinability of sentences cannot get adequate treatment. We can only point out some lines of approach.

§ 417. As we have already noted, the demarcation line between a sentence and a combination of sentences is very vague. Some part of a simple or composite sentence may become detached from the rest and pronounced after a pause with the intonation of a separate sentence. In writing this is often marked by punctuation. Here are some examples from *A Cup of Tea* by Mansfield.

She'd only to cross the pavement. But still she waited.
Give me four bunches of those. And that jar of roses.
Give me those stumpy little tulips. Those red and white ones.

The connection between such sentences is quite evident. The word-combination *those red and white ones* can make a communication only when combined with some sentence whose predication is understood to refer to the word-combination as well.

But even in case a sentence has its own predication, it may depend on some other sentence, or be coordinated with it, or otherwise connected, so that they form a combination of sentences. In the first of the examples above this connection is expressed by the conjunction *but.* The following sentences are connected by the pronominal subjects.

Rosemary had been married two years. She had a duck of a boy ... They were rich. (Mansfield).

The sentences below are connected by what we might be tempted to call 'pronominal predicates', and by the implicit repetition of the notional predicate (group) of the first sentence.

Come home to tea with me. Why won't you? Do. (Mansfield).

The second sentence might be extended at the expense of the first into *Why won't you come!* or even *Why won't you come home to tea with me?* Similarly, the third sentence is understood by the listener as *Do come,* or *Do come home to tea with me.*

§ 418. We find no predication in the second sentence of the following dialogue.

– How is the little chap feeling?
– Very sorry for himself (Galsworthy).

But this is not a sentence of the *Rain* type, with a zero predication. Here we know the subject, it is the *chap* of the first sentence. And we know the structural predicate *is.* So the person who asked the question perceived the answer as if it had the predication fully expressed: *The little chap is very sorry for himself.*

.. Traditionally sentences like *very sorry for himself,* with some part (or parts) left out are called ***incomplete*** or ***elliptical.*** But as a matter of fact they

are quite complete in their proper places in speech. They would become incomplete only if isolated from the sentences with which they are combined in speech, i.e. when regarded as language units with only paradigmatic relations, without syntagmatic ones.

When a speaker combines a sentence with a previous sentence in speech, he often leaves out some redundant parts that are clear from the foregoing sentence, otherwise speech would be cumbersome. A sentence is thus often reduced to one word only.

– *Where are you going, old man? – Jericho.* (Galsworthy).

– *What have you got there, daddiest"? – Dynamite.* (Shaw).

Theoretically, one and the same sentence may be represented differently in speech, depending on the sentence it is combined with. Suppose, we take the sentence *John returned from Moscow yesterday.* If this sentence is to be the answer to *Who returned from Moscow yesterday"?* it may be reduced to *John.* As an answer to *When did John return from Moscow"?* it may be reduced to *Yesterday.* In answer to *Where did John return yesterday from?* it may take the form of *Moscow.* Thus, *John. Yesterday. Moscow,* may be regarded as positionally conditioned **speech variants** of **a** regular two-member sentence. In this they differ from one-member sentences.

The sentence on which such a speech variant depends may be called the ***head-sentence*** of which it is an **adjunct.**

§ 419. The sentence-words *yes* and *no* are regularly used as adjuncts of some head-sentences.

– *"Have you been talking to Hilary"?" – "Yes"* (Galsworthy).

– *"I've never really got over my first attack." – "No", said Dinny with compunction.* (Ib).

In the same function we find the typically English short predications of the *'I do'* type.

– *"I'll go, Dinny, if Hallorsen will take me." – "He shall".* (Ib.)

Sometimes the two go together.

– *"He wouldn't want me." – "Yes, he would."* (Ib.).

B. Ilyish, The Structure
of Modern English, p. 182-197.

THE SENTENCE

The notion of sentence has not so far received a satisfactory definition, which would enable us by applying it in every particular case to find out whether a certain linguistic unit was a sentence or not.

Thus, for example, the question remains undecided whether such shop notices as *Book Shop* and such book titles as *English* are sentences or not. In favour of the

view that they are sentences the following consideration can be brought forward. The notice *Book Shop* and the title *English Grammar* mean 'This is a book shop', 'This is an English Grammar'; the phrase is interpreted as the predicative of a sentence whose subject and link verb have been omitted, that is, it is apprehended as a unit of communication. According to the other possible view, such notices as *Book Shop* and such titles as *English Grammar* are not units of communication at all, but units of nomination, merely appended to the object they denote. Since there is as yet no definition of a sentence which would enable us to decide this question, it depends on everyone's subjective view which alternative he prefers. We will prefer the view that such notices and book titles are not sentences but rather nomination units.

We also mention here a special case. Some novels have titles formulated as sentences, e.g. *The Stars Look Down,* by A.Cronin, or *They Came to a City,* by J.B. Priestley. These are certainly sentences, but they are used as nomination units, for instance, *Have you read The Stars Look Down?, Do you like They Came to a City?*

With the rise of modern ideas of paradigmatic syntax yet another problem concerning definition of sentence has to be considered.

In paradigmatic syntax, such units as *He has arrived, He has not arrived, Has he arrived, He will arrive, He will not arrive, Will he arrive,* etc., are treated as different forms of the same sentence, just as *arrives, has arrived, will arrive* etc., are different forms of the same verb. We may call this view of the sentence the paradigmatic view.

Now from the point of view of communication, *He has arrived* and *He has not arrived* are different sentences since they convey different information (indeed, the meaning of the one flatly contradicts that of the other).

CLASSIFICATION OF SENTENCES

The problem of classification of sentences is a highly complicated one, and we will first consider the question of the principles of classification, and of the notions on which it can be based.

Let us begin by, comparing a few sentences differing from each other in some respect. Take, for example, the following two sentences: (1) *But why did you leave England?* (GALSWORTHY) and (2) *There are to-day more people writing extremely well, in all departments of life, than ever before; what we have to do is to sharpen our judgement and pick these out from the still larger number who write extremely badly.* (CRUMP)

Everyone will see that the two sentences are basically different. This is true, but very general and not grammatically exact. In order to arrive at a strictly grammatical statement of the difference (or differences) between them we must apply more exact methods of observation and analysis.

Let us, then, proceed to a careful observation of the features which constitute the difference between the two sentences.

The first sentence expresses a question, that is the speaker expects an answer which will supply the information he wants. The second sentence expresses a statement, that is, the author (or speaker) states his opinion on a certain subject. He does not ask about anything, or expect anybody to supply him any information. This difference is expressed in writing by the first sentence having a question mark at the end, while the second sentence has a full stop.

The first sentence is addressed to a certain hearer (or a few hearers present), and is meant to provoke the hearer's reaction (answer). The second sentence is not addressed to any particular person or persons and the author does not know how anybody will react to it.

The two sentences differ greatly in length: the first consists of only 6 words, while the second has 39.

The first sentence has no punctuation marks within it, while the second has two commas and a semicolon.

The first sentence has only one finite verb *(did ... leave),* while the second has three *(are, have, write).*

These would seem to be some essential points of difference. We have not yet found out which of them are really relevant from a grammatical viewpoint. We have not included in the above list those which are quite obviously irrelevant from that viewpoint; for example, the first sentence contains a proper name *(England),* while the second does not contain any; or, the second sentence contains a possessive pronoun *(our)* while the first does not, etc.

Let us now consider each of the five points of difference and see which of them are relevant from a purely grammatical point of view, for a classification of sentences.

Point 1 states a difference in the types of thought expressed in the two sentences. Without going into details of logical analysis, we can merely say that a question (as in the first sentence), and a proposition (as in the second) are different types of thought, in the logical acceptation of that term. The problem now is, whether this difference is or is not of any importance from the grammatical viewpoint. In Modern English sentences expressing questions (we will call them, as is usually done, interrogative sentences) have some characteristic grammatical features. These features are, in the first place, a specific word order in most cases (predicate – subject), as against the order subject – predicate in sentences expressing propositions (declarative sentences). Thus word order may, with some reservations, be considered as a feature distinguishing this particular type of sentence from others. Another grammatical feature characterizing interrogative sentences (again, with some reservations) is the structure of the predicate verb, namely its an-

alytical form *"do* + infinitive" (in our first sentence, *did ... leave ..., not left),* where in a declarative sentence there would be the simple form (without *do).* However, this feature is not restricted to interrogative sentences: as is well known, it also characterizes negative sentences. Anyhow, we can (always with some reservations) assume that word order and the form *"do* + infinitive" are grammatical features characterizing interrogative sentences, and in so far the first item of our list appears to be grammatically relevant. We will, accordingly, accept the types "interrogative sentence" and "declarative sentence" as grammatical types of sentences.

Point 2, treating of a difference between a sentence addressed to a definite hearer (or reader) and a sentence free from such limitation, appears not to be grammatical, important as it may be from other points of view. Accordingly, we will not include this distinction among grammatical features of sentences.

Point 3, showing a difference in the length of the sentences, namely in the number of words making up each of them, does not in itself constitute a grammatical feature, though it may be more remotely connected with grammatical distinctions.

Point 4 bears a close relation to grammatical peculiarities; more especially, a semicolon would be hardly possible in certain types of sentences (so-called simple sentences). But punctuation marks within a sentence are not in themselves grammatical features: they are rather a consequence of grammatical features whose essence is to be looked for elsewhere.

Point 5, on the contrary, is very important from a grammatical viewpoint. Indeed the number of finite verbs in a sentence is one of its main grammatical features. In this particular instance it should be noted that each of the three finite verbs has its own noun or pronoun belonging to it and expressing the doer of the action denoted by the verb: *are* has the noun *people, have* the pronoun *we,* and *write* the pronoun *who.* These are sure signs of the sentence being composite, not simple. Thus we will adopt the distinction between simple and composite sentences as a distinction between two grammatical types.

The items we have established as a result of comparing the two sentences certainly do not exhaust all the possible grammatical features a sentence can be shown to possess. They were only meant to illustrate the method to be applied if a reasonable grammatical classification of sentences is to be achieved. If we were to take another pair or other pairs of sentences and proceed to compare them in a similar way we should arrive at some more grammatical distinctions which have to be taken into account in making up a classification. We will not give any more examples but we will take up the grammatical classification of sentences in a systematic way.

It is evident that there are two principles of classification. Applying one of them, we obtain a classification into declarative, interrogative, and imperative sentences. We can call this principle that of "types of communication".

The other classification is according to structure. Here we state two main types: simple sentences and composite sentences. We will not now go into the question of a further subdivision of composite sentences, or into the question of possible intermediate types between simple and composite ones. These questions will be treated later on. Meanwhile, then, we get the following results:

Types of Sentences According to Types of Communication

1) Declarative

2) Interrogative

3) Imperative

Sentences belonging to the several types differ from each other in some grammatical points, too. Thus, interrogative sentences are characterized by a special word order. In interrogative sentences very few modal words are used, as the meanings of some modal words are incompatible with the meaning of an interrogative sentence. It is clear that modal words expressing full certainty, such as *certainly, surely, naturally,* etc., cannot appear in a sentence expressing a question. On the other hand, the modal word *indeed,* with its peculiar shades of meaning, is quite possible in interrogative sentences, for instance, *Isn't so indeed?* (SHAKESPEARE)

There are also sentences which might be termed semi-interrogative. The third sentence in the following passage belongs to this type:

"Well, I daresay that's more revealing about poor George than you. At any rate, he seems to have survived it." "Oh, you've seen him?" She did not particularly mark her question for an answer, but it was, after all, the pivot-point, and Bone found himself replying – that indeed he had. (BUECHNER) The sentence *Oh, you've seen him?* is half-way between the affirmative declarative sentence, *You have seen him,* and the interrogative sentence, *Have you seen him?* Let us proceed to find out the precise characteristics of the sentence in the text as against the two sentences just given for the sake of comparison. From the syntactical viewpoint, the sentence is declarative, as the mutual position of subject and predicate is, *you have seen,* not *have you seen,* which would be the interrogative order. In what way or ways does it, then, differ from a usual declarative sentence? That is where the question of the intonation comes in. Whether the question mark at the end of the sentence does or does not mean that the intonation is not that typical of a declarative sentence, is hard to tell, though it would rather seem that it does. To be certain about this a phonetic experiment should be undertaken, but in this particular case the author gives a context which itself goes some way toward settling the question. The author's words, *She did not particularly mark her question for an answer,* seem to refer to the intonation with which it was pronounced: the intonation must not have been clearly interrogative, that is not clearly rising, though it must have differed from the regular falling intonation to some extent: if it had not been at all

different, the sentence could not have been termed a "question", and the author does call it a question. Reacting, to this semi-interrogative intonation, Bone (the man to whom the question was addressed) answered in the affirmative. It seems the best way, on the whole, to term such sentences semi-interrogative. Their purpose of course is to utter a somewhat hesitating statement and to expect the other person to confirm it.

Imperative sentences also show marked peculiarities in the use of modal words. It is quite evident, for example, that modal words expressing possibility, such as *perhaps, maybe, possibly,* are incompatible with the notion of order or request. Indeed, modal words are hardly used at all in imperative sentences.

The notion of exclamatory sentences and their relation to the three established types of declarative, interrogative, and imperative sentences presents some difficulty. It would seem that the best way to deal with it is this. On the one hand, every sentence, whether narrative, interrogative, or imperative, may be exclamatory at the same time, that is, it may convey the speaker's feelings and be characterized by emphatic intonation and by an exclamation mark in writing. This may be seen in the following examples: *But he can't do anything to you!* (R. WEST*) What can he possibly do to you!* (Idem) *Scarlett, spare me!* (M. MITCHELL)

On the other hand, a sentence may be purely exclamatory, that is, it may not belong to any of the three types classed above. This would be the case in the following examples: *"Well, fiddle-dee-dee!" said Scarlett.* (M. MITCHELL) *Oh, for God's sake, Henry!* (Idem)

However, it would perhaps be better to use different terms for sentences which are purely exclamatory, and thus constitute a special type, and those which add an emotional element to their basic quality, which is either declarative, or interrogative, or imperative. If this view is endorsed, we should have our classification of sentences according to type of communication thus modified:

1) Declarative (including emotional ones)
2) Interrogative (including emotional ones)
3) Imperative (including emotional ones)
4) Exclamatory

This view would avoid the awkward contradiction of exclamatory sentences constituting a special type and belonging to the first three types at the same time.

1) Simple
2) Composite

The relations between the two classifications should now be considered.

It is plain that a simple sentence can be either declarative, or interrogative, or imperative. But things are somewhat more complicated with reference to composite sentences. If both (or all) clauses making up a composite sentence are declarative, the composite sentence as a whole is ofcourse declarative too. And so it is bound

to be in every case when both (or all) clauses making a composite sentence belong to the same type of communication (that is the case in an overwhelming majority of examples). Sometimes, however, composite sentences are found which consist of clauses belonging to different types of communication. Here it will sometimes he impossible to say to what type of communication the composite sentence as a whole belongs. We will take up this question when we come to the composite sentence.

Some other questions connected with the mutual relation of the two classifications will be considered as we proceed.

THE SIMPLE SENTENCE

We will now study the structure of the simple sentence and the types of simple sentences.

First of all we shall have to deal with the problem of negative sentences. The problem, briefly stated, is this: do negative sentences constitute a special grammatical type, and if so, what are its grammatical features? In other words, if we say, "This is a negative sentence," do we thereby give it a grammatical description?

The difficulty of the problem lies in the peculiarity of negative expressions in Modern English. Let us take two sentences, both negative in meaning: (1) *She did not know when she would be seeing any of them again.* (R. MACAULAY) (2) *Helen's tremendous spell – perhaps no one ever quite escaped from it.* (Idem) They are obviously different in their ways of expressing negation. In (1) we see a special form of the predicate verb *(did... know,* not *knew)* which is due to the negative character of the sentence and is in so far a grammatical sign of its being negative. In (2), on the other hand, there is no grammatical feature to show that the sentence is negative. Indeed, there is no grammatical difference whatever between the sentences *Nobody saw him* and *Everybody saw him.* The difference lies entirely in the meaning of the pronouns functioning as subject, that is to say, it is lexical, not grammatical. The same is of course true of such sentences as *I found nobody* and *I found everybody.* On the other hand, in the sentence *I did not find anybody* there is again a grammatical feature the form of the predicate verb *(did ... find,* not *found).*

The conclusion to be drawn from these observations is obviously this. Since in a number of cases negative sentences are not characterized as such by any grammatical peculiarities, they are not a grammatical type. They are a logical type, which may or may not be reflected in grammatical structure. Accordingly, the division of sentences into affirmative and negative ought not to be included into their grammatical classification.

Before we proceed with our study of sentence structure it will be well to consider the relation between the two notions of sentence and clause. Among different

types of sentences treated in a syntactic investigation it is naturally the simple sentence that comes first. It is with specimens of simple sentences that we study such categories as parts of the sentence, main and secondary; homogeneous members, word order, etc. It is also with specimens of simple sentences that we illustrate such notions as declarative, interrogative, imperative, and exclamatory sentences, as two-member and one-member sentences, and so forth. As long as we limit ourselves to the study of simple sentences, the notion of "clause" need not occur at all.

When, however, we come to composite sentences (that is, sentences consisting of two or more clauses), we have to deal with the notions of main clause, head clause, and subordinate clause. Everything we said about the simple sentence will also hold good for clauses: a clause also has its parts (main and secondary), it can also be a two-member or a one-member clause; a main clause at least must also be either declarative, interrogative, imperative, or exclamatory, etc. We will consider these questions in due course.

So then we will take it for granted that whatever is said about a simple sentence will also apply to an independent clause within a composite sentence. For instance, whatever we say about word order in a simple sentence will also apply to word order in an independent clause within a composite sentence, etc.

TYPES OF SIMPLE SENTENCES. MAIN PARTS OF A SENTENCE

It has been usual for some time now to classify sentences into two-member and one-member sentences.

This distinction is based on a difference in the so-called main parts of a sentence. We shall therefore have to consider the two problems, that of two-member and one-member sentences and that of main parts of the sentence, simultaneously.

In a sentence like *Helen sighed* (R. MACAULAY) there obviously are two main parts: *Helen,* which denotes the doer of the action and is called (grammatical) subject, and *sighed,* which denotes the action performed by the subject and is called (grammatical) predicate. Sentences having this basic structure, viz. a word (or phrase) to denote the doer of the action and another word (or phrase) to denote the action, are termed two-member sentences. However, there are sentences which do not contain two such separate parts; in these sentences there is only one main part: the other main part is not there and it could not even be supplied, at least not without a violent change in the structure of the sentence. Examples of such sentences," which are accordingly termed one-member sentences, are the following: *Fire! Come on!* or the opening sentence of "An American Tragedy": *Dusk – of a summer night.* (DREISER)

There is no separate main part of the sentence, the grammatical subject, and no other separate main part, the grammatical predicate. Instead there is only one

main part *(fire, come* on, and *dusk,* respectively). These, then, are one-member sentences.

It is a disputed point whether the main part of such a sentence should, or should not, be termed subject in some cases, and predicate, in others. This question has been raised with reference to the Russian language. Academician A.Shakhmatov held that the chief part of a one-member sentence was either the subject, or the predicate, as the case might be (for example, if that part was a finite verb, he termed it predicate). Academician V.Vinogradov, on the other hand, started on the assumption that grammatical subject and grammatical predicate were correlative notions and that the terms were meaningless outside their relation to each other. Accordingly, he suggested that for one-member sentences, the term "main part" should be used, without giving it any more specific name. Maybe this is rather a point of terminology than of actual grammatical theory. We will not investigate it any further, but content ourselves with naming the part in question the main part of one-member sentence, as proposed by V.Vinogradov.

One-member sentences should be kept apart from two-member sentences with either the subject or the predicate omitted, i.e. from elliptical sentences, which we will discuss in a following chapter. There are many difficulties in this field. As we have done more than once, we will carefully distinguish what has been proved and what remains a matter of opinion, depending to a great extent on the subjective views or inclinations of one scholar or another. Matters belonging to this latter category are numerous enough in the sphere of sentence study.

H. Sweet, A New English Grammar,
Part I, p. 155, 157-158.

THE SIMPLE SENTENCE IN CLASSICAL SCIENTIFIC GRAMMAR

447. A sentence is a word or group of words capable of expressing a complete thought or meaning. Whether or not a given word or group of words is capable of doing this in any one language depends on the way in which that language constructs its sentences – that is, on their form. Thus in Latin *comes* would be a complete sentence, but not in English, although in itself *comes* is as intelligible as the complete sentence *some one comes* or *some one is coming.* A sentence is, therefore, 'a word or group of words whose form makes us expect it to express a full meaning'. We say 'expect', because it depends on the context whether or not any one sentence expresses a complete meaning. Thus, such a sentence as *he is coming,* though complete in form, shows on the face of it that it is incomplete in meaning, for *he* means 'some one who has been mentioned before', and makes us ask 'who is he?' Nevertheless *he is coming* is a complete sentence because it has the same

form as *John is coming, I am coming,* etc., which are complete in meaning as well as form – as far, at least, as any one sentence can be said to be complete. [...]

452. In some cases, however, a complete meaning is expressed by a single word – a sentence-word – such as *come!* = 'I command you to come', where the subject being self-evident, the predicate-word by itself is enough to constitute a sentence. In *John!* = 'I ask John to come – to attend to me', etc., the subject-word does duty for the predicate as well, which is omitted because of its vagueness. In *yes* = 'I agree with you', 'I will do so', etc., *no, alas!* = 'I am sorry for it', etc., the distinction between subject and predicate is felt only vaguely. We see, then, that these 'one-word-sentences' are of two kinds, consisting *(a)* of a definite subject or predicate standing alone, and *(b)* of a word, which is in itself neither definite subject nor definite predicate – in which the ideas of subject and predicate are not differentiated, but are 'condensed', as it were, in one word. From a grammatical point of view these condensed sentences are hardly sentences at all, but rather something intermediate between word and sentence. [...]

453. A sentence is not only a logical but a phonetic unity. A continuous discourse from a phonetic point of view consists of a succession of sounds divided into **breath-groups** by the pauses required for taking breath. Within these breath-groups these is no separation of the individual words. For the sake of clearness we generally wait to take breath till we come to the end of a statement, question, etc., so that a breath-group is generally equivalent to a **sense-group**, that is, a sentence. In a dialogue, which is the simplest and natural way of using language, the short sentences of which it mostly consists are marked off by a complete cessation of the speaker's voice. The end of a sentence may be marked phonetically in other ways, especially by intonation. Thus in English we mark the close of a statement by a falling tone, while a rising tone shows that the statement is incomplete, or that a question is intended. In writing we mark off the end of a complete statement by various marks of punctuation, especially the full stop (.).

Ch.C. Fries, The Structure of English, p. 18-28, 29-53, 173-188, 202-239.

WHAT IS A SENTENCE?

[...] The more one works with the records of the actual speech of people the more impossible it appears to describe the requirements of English sentences in terms of meaning content. It is true that whenever any relationship is grasped we have the material or content with which a sentence can be made. But this same content can be put into a variety of linguistic forms, some of which can occur alone as separate utterances and some of which always occur as parts of larger expressions. [...] a situation in which a dog is making the noise called *barking* can be grasped

either by the linguistic form *the dog is barking,* which can occur as an utterance separated from any other speech, or the same situation can be grasped in the form *the barking dog,* a form which, except as an answer to such a question as "What frightened the burglar away?" occurs only as a part of some larger expression, such as *the barking dog protected the house.* [...]

In other words, the characteristics which distinguish those expressions which occur alone as separate utterances and those which occur only as parts of larger units are not matters of content or meaning, but matters of form. Each language has its distinct patterns of formal arrangements for utterances which occur alone as separate expressions. [...]

In this book we shall accept as our general definition of :the sentence – our starting point – the words of Bloomfield: "Each sentence is an independent, linguistic form, not included by virtue of any grammatical construction in any larger linguistic form."

The basic problem of the practical investigation undertaken here is not solved simply by accepting Bloomfield's definition of a sentence. As one approaches the body of recorded speech which constitutes the material to be analysed (or any body of recorded speech), just how should he proceed to discover the portions of an utterance that are not "parts of any larger construction"? How can he find out the "grammatical constructions" by virtue of which certain linguistic forms are included in larger linguistic forms? What procedure will enable him to decide which linguistic forms can "stand alone as independent utterances"?

Answers to these questions had to be found early in the investigation.

We started first with the term utterance. Although the word *utterance* appears frequently in linguistic discussions and has occurred a number of times in this chapter, there has been nothing to indicate how much talk an "utterance" includes. The definition that "an act of speech is an utterance" doesn't furnish any quantitative measure of either "an act of speech" or of "an utterance". [...]

For the purposes of this investigation, however, which aimed to discover and describe the significant features of "sentences" as they occur in the records of actual conversation, it was necessary to start with some unit of talk that could be marked off with no uncertainty. These units were to be collected from the materials, and then compared and classified.

The recorded conversations provided the suggestion, for the first step. The easiest unit in conversation to be marked with certainty was the talk of one person until he ceased, and another began. This unit was given the name "utterance". In this book, then, the two-word phrase utterance unit will mean any stretch of speech by one person before which there was silence on his part and after which there was also silence on his part. Utterance units are thus those chunks of talk that are marked off by a shift of speaker. As indicated above, it was necessary to find some

way of deciding what portions of speech could "stand alone", what constituted independent or free expressions – free, in that they were not necessarily bound to other expressions to make a single unit. It seemed obvious that in a conversation in which two speakers participate, the stretch of speech of one speaker at one time can be taken as a portion that does stand by itself, unless, of course, that speaker has been so completely interrupted that he stops because of interruption. The first stop, then, in the procedure to determine the linguistic forms that can stand alone as independent utterances was thus to record the utterance units as marked off by a change of speaker.

These utterance units exhibited great variety both in length and in form. [...]

We could not take for granted that these utterance units contained only a single free utterance, nor that they were minimum free utterances. We could assume, however, that each utterance unit if not interrupted must be one of the following:

A single minimum free utterance.

A single free utterance, but expanded, not minimum.

A sequence of two or more free utterances.

We start then with the assumption that a sentence (the particular unit of language that is the object of this investigation) is a single free utterance, minimum or expanded; i.e., that it is "free" in the sense that it is not included in any larger structure by means of any grammatical device.

Our immediate task will be to identify and to classify the single free utterances, the sentences, that appear in our materials. [...]

P. Roberts, Understanding English, p. 174-201, 208.

SENTENCE PATTERNS
SUBJECT-VERB SENTENCES

102. Pattern One

The first pattern is composed basically simply of a noun tied to a verb. If we use the symbol N for **noun (or noun equivalent)** and V for **verb** and a double arrow to show the tie, we can write the formula for this pattern as N <–––>V:

N	<———>	**V**
Lions		roar.
Charlie		roars.
Charlie		roared.
He		left.
That		hurts.

Actually, the pattern occurs rather infrequently in this minimum form. Usually there is some kind of expansion. For instance, the noun may be preceded by a determiner (D) or some other modifier:

D	**N**	<————>	**V**
The	lion		roared.
My	motor		knocks.

Or the verb may have an auxiliary. In this case, the tie is between the noun and the auxiliary:

D	**N**	<————>	**Aux.**	**V**
	Charlie		was	roaring.
The	lions		were	roaring.
	He		had	left.
The	car		may	explode.

Or the verb may be modified by an adverb or other modifier:

D	**N**	<————>	**Aux.**	**V**	**Adv.**
The	lions		were	roaring	loudly.
	Albert		has	gone	away.
My	brother		may	drop	in.

All of these are variations of pattern one N <–––> V. [...]

103. Pattern Two

Pattern two is basically a noun tied to a verb with in adjective following. This may be written N <——> V Adj. Only a limited number of verbs occur in this pattern. By far the most common is the verb *be:*

N	<————>	**V**	**Adj.**
Albert		was	unhappy.

Again, all the usual kinds of expansion can occur without altering the pattern:

D	**N**	<–––>	**Aux.**	**V**	**Adj.**	**Adv.**
	Albert			was	unhappy.	
The	boy		had	been	unhappy	often. [...]

104. Pattern Three

The third pattern consists of a noun tied to a verb with a second noun following: N <–––> V N. The second noun in this pattern is what is traditionally called an **object** or a **direct object.** The verb in the pattern is sometimes called **a transitive verb.**

N	<————>	**V**	**N**
Lions		eat	meat.

With expansion:

D	**N**	<——————>	**Aux.**	**V**	**D**	**N**	**Adv.**
The	lion		was	eating	the	meat	happily.

105. Pattern Four+

The fourth 'pattern also consists of a noun tied to a verb with another noun following. The difference is that in pattern three the two nouns refer to different people or different things, whereas in pattern four they refer to the same person or the same thing:

Pattern Three: That man chased my brother.

Pattern Four: That man is my brother.

In the first sentence, *man* and *brother* are different people: in the second they are the same person. The signal differentiating the two patterns is of course in the verb. The verb of pattern four is what is called a **linking verb**. We shall write this LV, and thus the formula for the pattern will be N <——> LVN.

D	**N**	<——————>	**LV**	**D**	**N**
That	man		is	my	brother. [...]

106. Pattern Five

The fifth pattern consists of a noun tied to a verb with two other nouns (or noun equivalents) following. In traditional parlance, the first of the following nouns is what is called an **indirect object**, the second a **direct object**:

N	<——————>	**V**	**N**	**N**
My father		gave	my brother	a beating. [...]

107. Pattern Six

The sixth pattern also has the components noun-verb-noun-noun. The difference between five and six is that in five the second and third nouns refer to different people or different things, whereas in six they refer to the same person or the same thing:

Pattern Five: Albert sent my brother a monkey.

Pattern Six: Albert thought my brother a monkey.

In five, *brother* and *monkey* refer to different individuals; in six, they refer to the same individual.

The signal differentiating patterns five and six – like that distinguishing three and four – is the verb. Some verbs, like *give* and *send,* will ordinarily make the two following nouns refer to different people or things; others, like *think* and *elect,* will make the two nouns refer to the same person or thing. Oddly enough, traditional grammar has no special terms for these verbs, though it does have terms for the nouns involved. The nouns in five, as we have seen, are called, respectively, **indirect object** and **direct object.** Those in six are called **object** and **object comple-**

ment. Thus, in *Albert thought my brother a monkey, brother* is an object, and *monkey* is an object complement.

Just to give it a tag, let's call the verb in pattern six an **object-complement verb** and abbreviate it OV. Then we can distinguish the two patterns like this:

Pattern Five: N <–––––> V N N

Pattern Six: N <–––––> OV N N

108. Pattern Seven

There are various other patterns occurring now and then in English, but we shall notice only one more. This is a structure introduced by the word *there*. [...]

There were some men here.

[...] This *there* is not an adverb but simply a means of getting this particular pattern started. [...]

The typical composition of this pattern is *There* V <–––> N Adv. Notice that we still have a subject tied to the verb, but that it follows the verb instead of preceding it. Instead of an adverb, we may have some equivalent, like a prepositional phrase:

There	**V**	**<———>**	**N**	**Adv.**
There	is		a snake	under the house. [...]

There are a few other patterns in which the subject follows the verb. We may note them without numbering them. One is a pattern which is introduced by an adverb of the type *seldom, never, not once:*

Seldom was the man there.

The adverbs *there* and *here* introduce a verb-subject construction sometimes. The verb is usually *go* or *come* or *be*:

There goes Charlie. [...]

Sometimes verb-subject constructions are introduced by adverbs of the type *up, out, down* or by prepositional phrases:

Up jumped the tiger. [...]

SUMMING-UP QUESTIONS

1. What are the differential features of the sentence?
2. What makes the sentence the main object of syntax?
3. What functions does the sentence perform?
4. What accounts for the existence of a great number of definitions of the sentence?
5. What is the basic structure of the sentence?
6. What is predicativity?
7. What criteria are used to classify sentences?
8. What are the main sentence types?
9. What is a sentence paradigm?
10. What syntactic categories do you know?

Chapter 9. MODELS OF SENTENCE ANALYSIS

M.Y. Blokh, T.N. Semionova, S.V. Timofeeva
Theoretical English Grammar, p. 309-311.

1. STRUCTURAL CLASSIFICATION OF SIMPLE SENTENCES

In traditional linguistics sentences, according to their structure, are divided into simple and composite, the latter consisting of two or more clauses. The typical English simple sentence is built up by one "predicative line" realized as the immediate connection between the subject and the predicate of the sentence.

Simple sentences are usually classified into one-member and two-member sentences. This distinction is based on the representation of the main parts of the sentence: sentences having the grammatical subject and the grammatical predicate are termed "two-member" sentences; if sentences have only one of these main parts they are termed "one-member" sentences.

Another structural classification of simple sentences is their classification into complete and elliptical. The language status of the elliptical sentence is a disputable question; many linguists connect the functioning of elliptical sentences with the phenomena of representation and substitution.

2. ANALYSIS OF SENTENCE PARTS

The study of the constituent structure of the sentence presupposes the analysis of its parts. Traditionally, scholars distinguish between the main and secondary parts of the sentence. Besides, they single out those parts which stand outside the sentence structure. The two generally recognized main parts of the sentence are the subject and the predicate. To the secondary sentence parts performing modifying functions linguists usually refer object, adverbial modifier, attribute, apposition, predicative, parenthetical enclosure, and addressing enclosure.

The description of sentence parts is usually based upon semantic and syntactic criteria and is supplemented by the correlation of sentence parts and parts of speech.

3. IC-MODEL OF THE SENTENCE

Building up the "model of immediate constituents" is a particular kind of analysis which consists in dividing the sentence into two groups: the subject group and the predicate group, which, in their turn, are divided into their subgroup constituents according to the successive subordinative order of the constituents. The

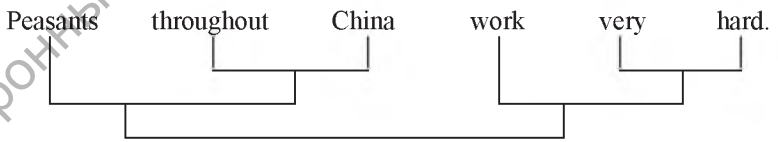
main advantage of the IC-model is that it exposes the binary hierarchical principle of subordinative connection. The widely used version of the IC-model is the "IC-derivation tree". It shows the groupings of sentence constituents by means of branching nodes: the nodes symbolize phrase-categories as unities, while the branches mark their division into constituents.

M.Y. Blokh, T.N. Semionova, S.V. Timofeeva
Theoretical English Grammar, p. 328-332.

IMMEDIATE CONSTITUENTS

4.41 Significance of Immediate Constituents

The distribution of any morpheme must be given in terms of its environment, but some of its environment may be important and the rest relatively unimportant. This is true of both morphology and syntax, and perhaps it is more easily illustrated by the syntax. For example, in the sentence "Peasants throughout China work very hard" we could describe the environment of "very" as bounded by a preposed "work" and a postposed "hard" and of "work" as bounded by a preposed "China" and a postposed "very", but this kind of description of the environment does not seem to be quite pertinent. We "feel" that "very" goes first with "hard" and that "very hard" then goes with the verb. Similarly, "throughout" and "China" appear to "go together", and these in turn "modify" "peasants". We unite the subject "peasants throughout China" with all of the predicate "work very hard". What we have done in this simple sentence is to discover the pertinent environment of each word or group of words. These sets of pertinent environments correlate with what we shall call immediate constituents, i.e. the constituent elements immediately entering into any meaningful combination. In terms of the above sentence we would describe the most inclusive set of immediate constituents as consisting of "Peasants throughout China / work very hard". The successive sets of immediate constituents may be marked as follows: "Peasants // throughout /// China / work // very /// hard". This may be diagramed somewhat differently as:



The situation in morphology is analogous to what we find in syntax, though the immediate constituents are usually not so involved and there are fewer successive sets.

Immediate Constituents

Now the simple but significant fact of grammar on which we base our whole theory of ICs is this: that a sequence belonging to one sequence-class A is often substitutable for a sequence belonging to an entirely different sequence-class B. By calling the class B "entirely different" from the class A we mean to say that A is not included in B, and B is not included in A; they have no member sequences in common, or else only a relatively few - the latter situation being called "class-cleavage". For instance, "Tom and Dick" is substitutable for "they", wherever "they" occurs: "They wanted me to come" is a grammatical sentence, and so is "Tom and Dick wanted me to come". [...] Similarly, "The stars look small because they are far away" and "The stars look small because Tom and Dick are far away" are both grammatical, the second sentence being uncommon (or not used) for semantic reasons only.

We may roughly express the fact under discussion by saying that sometimes two sentences occur in the same environments even though they have different internal structures. When one of the sequences is at least as long as the other (contains at least as many morphemes) and is structurally diverse from it (does not belong to all the same sequence-classes as the other), we call it an EXPANSION of that other sequence, and the other sequence itself we call a MODEL. If A is an expansion of B, B is a model of A. The leading idea of the theory of ICs here developed is to analyze each sequence so far as possible, into parts which are expansions; these parts will be the constituents of the sequence. The problem is to develop this general idea into a definite code or recipe, and to work out the necessary qualifications required by the long-range implications of each analysis of a sequence into constituents.

A preliminary example will give an inkling of how the method works. "The king of England opened Parliament" is a complete sentence, to be analyzed into its constituent parts; we ignore for the time being its features of intonation. It is an expansion of "John", for "John" occurs as a complete sentence. But it is an expansion of "John" only in this special environment, the zero environment - not in such an environment as *( ) worked* (John worked). It helps the IC-analysis to show that the sequence being analyzed is an expansion, but only if it is an expansion of the same shorter sequence in all, or a large proportion, of the environments where the shorter sequence occurs. For the sequence taken as an example, "The king opened", or "The king waited", or "John worked" will serve as shorter sequences. (It is not necessary, in order for A to be an expansion of B, that A should contain all the morphemes of B and in the same order. This is only a special case of expansion, called by Bloomfield "endocentric". Moreover, "the king of England" is an endocentric expansion of "a queen" – insofar as "a" and "the" belong to the same morpheme-classes -just as much as of "the king".)

Our general principle of IC-analysis is not only to view a sequence, when possible, as an expansion of a shorter sequence, but also to break it up into parts of which some or all are themselves expansions. Thus in our example it is valuable to view "The king of England opened Parliament" as an expansion of "John worked" because "the king of England" is an expansion of "John" and "opened Parliament" is an expansion of "worked". On this basis, we regard the ICs of "The king of England opened Parliament" as "the King of England" and "opened Parliament".

"The king of England" is in turn subject to analysis, and "John" is no help here because it is a single morpheme. "The king" will serve: "the king of England" is an expansion of "the king" and, in turn, "king of England" is an expansion of "king". "The king of England" is accordingly analyzed into "the" and "king of England". The reasons for analyzing the latter into "king" and "of England" (rather than "king of and "England") will be given later.

As for the second half of the sentence, "opened Parliament", besides the obvious analysis into "opened" and "Parliament", is another, instantly rejected by common sense but yet requiring to be considered into "open" and "-ed Parliament". The choice between these two analyses is dictated not by the principle of expansions as stated and exemplified above but by two other principles of patterning, equally fundamental for English and very probably for other languages: the principle of choosing ICs that will be as independent of each other in their distribution as possible, and the principle that word divisions should be respected.

Let us call the ICs of a sentence, and the ICs of those ICs, and so on down to the morphemes, the constituents of the sentence; and conversely whatever sequence is constituted by two or more ICs let us call a constitute. Assuming that the ICs of "The king of England opened Parliament" are "the king of England" and "opened Parliament", that those of the former are "the" and "king of England" and those of the latter are "opened" and "Parliament", and that "king of England" is divided into "king" and "of England", "of England" is divided into the morphemes "of and "England" and "opened" is divided into "open" and "-ed" – all of which facts may be thus diagrammed: the // king /// of //// England / open /// ed // Parliament – then there are 12 constituents of the sentence: (1) the king of England, (2) the, (3) king of England, (4) king, (5) of England, (6) of, (7) England, (8) opened Parliament, (9) opened, (10) open, (11) -ed, (12) Parliament, and the 6 constituents (1, 3, 5, 8, 9) that are not morphemes, plus the sentence itself. According to this analysis the sequence "the king of, for instance, or "England opened", is in this sentence neither a constituent nor a constitute. And in terms of this nomenclature the principle relating words to IC-analysis may be stated: every word is a constituent (unless it is a sentence by itself), and also a constitute (unless it is a single morpheme). But if "opened Parliament" were analyzed into "open" and "-ed Parliament", the word "opened" would be neither a constituent nor a constitute.

P. Roberts, Understanding English,
p. 205-210.

IMMEDIATE CONSTITUENTS AND SENTENCE MODIFIERS

121. **Layers in the Sentence.** To grasp the real structure of the English sentence, one must understand not only words that occur but the principles of their arrangement. An English sentence does not consist simply of a string of words in free relation to one another. It consists of groups of words arranged in a series of levels, each word group being made up of subgroups, until we get down to the single word. [...]

The name given by linguists to these different levels of relationship is *immediate constituents.* The immediate constituents of a construction are the two (or, occasionally, more) units of which it is composed. They are constituent because they compose or constitute the structure. They are immediate because they act directly on one another. Since *immediate constituents* is long and hard to pronounce, we usually abbreviate it "IC's" ([ay siyz]) and speak of the *IC's* of a construction rather than of its immediate constituents. [...]

One way of analyzing a sentence is to cut it into its immediate constituents – that is, to separate out the different levels of meaning. In English this can be done in an almost mechanical manner, according to a fairly simple set of directions. The reason is that the word order in English is comparatively rigid. We shall see that English structure is essentially binary. That is, most constructions consist of just two IC's; each of these consists of two IC's; each of these of two, and so on, until we get down to single words. We shall see also that the units that we separate out are just a few constructions endlessly repeated. The four that predominate are noun clusters, verb clusters, P-groups, and S-groups. It is this constant variation of familiar themes that makes language usable. We are not being confronted constantly with new patterns, but rather j with variations of a few old ones.

122. **Immediate Constituents of Whole Sentences.**

If there are no sentence modifiers [...], the IC's of a sentence consist of the subject as one and the verb or verb cluster as the other. [...]

My friends were waiting for me at the station.

The people upstairs complained.

[...] Sometimes the IC division domes in the middle of a syllable:

I'll see what can be done about it.

They're sure to be home now.

Now look at this sentence:

Usually the boys in the family milked the goats in the morning.

If we divided this sentence between subject and verb, we would get a meaningless unit: *Usually the hoys in the family.* Clearly this is wrong, for *usually* does not go with the noun cluster but with everything that follows. Therefore, this sentence must be divided thus:

Usually the boys in the family milked the goats in the morning.

That is to say, the IC's of this sentence are the adverb *usually* as one and the whole following sentence pattern as the other. The meaning of *usually* applies to the whole meaning of what follows, not to just the noun cluster or verb cluster alone.

Usually in this sentence is what we call a *sentence modifier* – a construction which modifies a whole sentence pattern. [...]

In sum, then, the IC divisions of whole sentences may be stated thus: if there is no sentence modifier, the IC's are the subject as one and the verb cluster as the other; if there is a sentence modifier, 'the IC's are the sentence modifier as one and the sentence pattern as I ho other. [...]

123. **IC's of Noun Clusters.** Noun clusters in English are also arranged in a series of layers, and again the arrangement is perfectly regular. Let us begin with this sentence:

[...] The young trapeze artist on the high wire/fell off.

Now we have a noun cluster on the left. It consists of a head-word *artist,* with three modifiers before it and one after it. In dividing a noun cluster into its IC's, we first cut off the modifier *after* the headword. If there is more than one, we cut off the last one first and work back to the headword. Then we cut off the first modifier before the headword and work in to the headword. In our example there is just one modifier after the headword. We cut that off first:

the young trapeze artist/on the high wire

That is to say, the IC's of the cluster are *the young, trapeze artist* as one and the P-group *on the high wire* as the other. The P-group does not modify the headword alone; it modifies the headword plus the other modifiers.

Now we cut off the first modifier before the headword:

the young trapeze artist

The does not modify just *artist;* it modifies *young trapeze-artist.*

young trapeze artist

Young modifies *trapeze artist.* And of course *trapeze* modifies *artist:*

trapeze artist [...]

124. **IC's of Verb Clusters.** The arrangements of IC's in verb clusters is similar to those in noun clusters except that the direction is reversed. In a noun cluster, we cut off the modifiers *after* the headword first, then those before it. In a verb cluster, we cut off those *before* the headword first, then those after it. Take this sentence:

The boys usually answered rudely when they were questioned.

The verb cluster has the headword *answered* with one modifier before it and two after it. We cut off the one before the headword first:

usually/answered rudely when they were questioned

Usually modifies not just the verb but all the rest of (he cluster. *What did they do usually? Answered rudely when they were questioned.*

Now we cut off the last modifier after the headword:

answered rudely/when they were questioned

The S-group modifies *answered rudely,* not just *answered.* But it doesn't modify *usually;* it is part of the construction modified by *usually. Rudely* modifies *answered:*

answered rudely

Auxiliaries before the verb are treated just like any other modifiers:

Uncle Andrew was waiting impatiently at the station.

was waiting impatiently at the station

The auxiliary *was* modifies all the rest of the (luster, giving *waiting impatiently at the station* a particular meaning of time and connection of number. [...]

M.Y. Blokh, T.N. Semionova, S.V. Timofeeva
Theoretical English Grammar, p. 337-339.

1. NOTION OF SYNTACTIC DERIVATION

Paradigmatic syntax studies the sentence from the point of view of its oppositional and derivational status. Paradigmatics finds its expression in a system of oppositions which make the corresponding meaningful (functional) categories. Syntactic oppositions are realized by correlated sentence patterns, the observable relations between which can be described as "transformations", i.e. as transitions from one pattern of certain notional parts to another pattern of the same notional parts. These transitions, being oppositional, at the same time disclose derivational connections of sentence-patterns.

Paradigmatic principles of investigation allowed linguists to find the initial, basic element of syntactic derivation. This element is known under different names: "the basic syntactic pattern", "the structural sentence scheme", "the elementary sentence model", "the base sentence", "the kernel sentence". The kernel sentence is a syntactic unit serving as a "sentence-root" and providing an objective ground for identifying syntactic categorial oppositions. The pattern of the kernel sentence is interpreted as forming the base of a paradigmatic derivation in the corresponding sentence-pattern series.

Syntactic derivation should not be understood as an immediate change of one sentence into another; it should be understood as paradigmatic production of more

complex pattern-constructions out of kernel pattern-constructions as their structural bases.

2. CONSTRUCTIONAL RELATIONS OF THE KERNEL SENTENCE

The derivational procedures applied to the kernel sentence can introduce it into such a type of derivational relations which is called "constructional" type. The constructional derivation affects the formation of more complex clausal constructions out of simpler ones; in other words, it is responsible for the expression of the nominative-notional syntactic semantics of the sentence. As part of the constructional system of syntactic paradigmatics, kernel sentences undergo derivational changes into clauses and phrases. These transformational procedures are termed, correspondingly, "clausalization" and "phras-alization". Phrasalization resulting in a substantive phrase (noun-phrase) is called "nominalization".

3. PREDICATIVE RELATIONS OF THE KERNEL SENTENCE

The predicative derivation realizes the formation of predicatively different units without affecting the constructional volume of the sentence base; in other words, it is responsible for the expression of the predicative syntactic semantics of the sentence.

The predicative syntactic semantics of the sentence is very intricate, but being oppositional by nature, it can be described in terms of "lower" and "higher" predicative functions expressed by primary sentence patterns. The lower functions express the morphological categories of tenses and aspects and have the so-called "factual" semantics. The higher functions are "evaluative" because they immediately express the relationship of the nominative content of the sentence to reality.

The main predicative functions expressed by syntactic categorial oppositions can be described on the oppositional lines, e.g.: "question – statement", "unreality – reality", "phase of action – fact", etc.

P. Roberts, English Syntax.
p. 8, 62-63, 97, 105, 151, 158, 231.

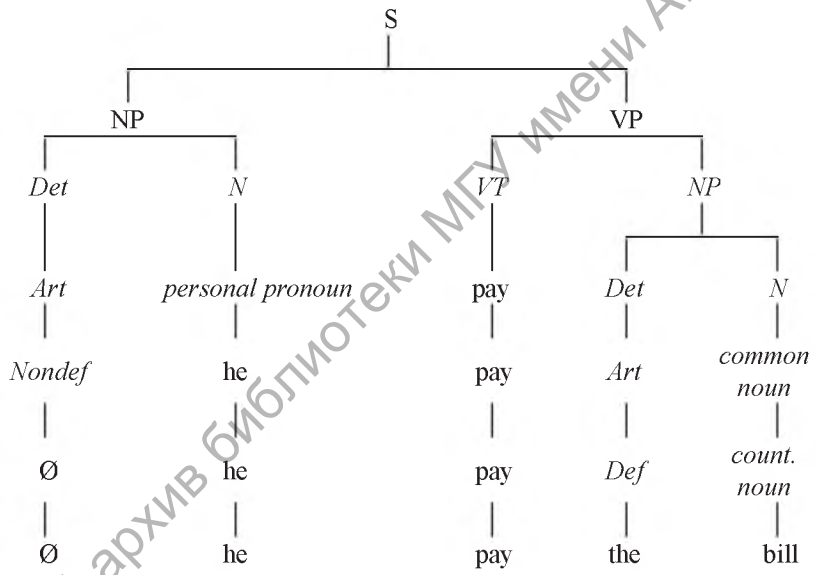
THE SIMPLE SENTENCE IN TRANSFORMATIONAL GRAMMAR

A grammar is the description of the sentences of a hi Manage. There are two kinds of sentences: kernel sentences and transforms.

[...] the main types of English kernel sentences [...] might he illustrated by such sentences as the following:

1. John is heroic (a hero)	NP + be + substantive
2. John is in the room.	NP + be + Adv-p
3. John worked.	NP + VI
4. John paid the bill.	NP + VT + NP
5. John became a hero (heroic).	NP + Vb + substantive
6. John felt sad.	NP + Vs + Adj
7. John had a car.	NP + Vh + NP

Most of the structure of could be shown by a kind of example, we could represent follows:



A diagram of this sort is called a tree of derivation, because it shows, in branches like those of a tree, the larger (or higher-level) structures from which the smaller (or lower-level) structures derive. [...]

TRANSFORMATION

[...] The kernel is the part of English that is basic and fundamental. It is the heart of the grammar, the core of the language. All other structures of English can be thought of as deriving from this kernel. All the more complicated sentences of English are derivations from, or the transformations of, the K-terminal strings.

For example, the question "Can John go?" Is easily seen to be related to the statement "John can go." Given the K-terminal string for any sentence like "John can come." we can make it into a corresponding question by applying the rule for question-making. Such a rule is called a transformation rule. It tells us how to derive something from something else by switching things about, putting things in or leaving them out, and so on. Thus we derive "Can John go?" and "Did John go?" from "John can go" and "John went". But we can't derive "John can go" and "John went" from anything. There are no sentences underlying them. They are basic and fundamental, a part of the kernel.

It is in terms of kernel structures that all grammatical relations are defined. The kernel gives, all relations of the language. The grammatical relations are then carried over into transforms, so that they will hold among words which are arranged in many different ways and which may actually be widely separated.

For example, the sentence "The dog barked" indicates a certain relationship between the noun *dog* and (he verb *bark*. We find exactly the same relationship in such transform as "The barking dog frightened me", "The barking of the dog kept us awake", "I hate dogs that are always barking". The relationship shown between *dog* and *sad* in the kernel sentence "The dog is sad" carries over in the transforms "The sad dog wailed", "The dog's sadness was apparent", "I don't like dogs that are too sad".

We shall see that there are two kinds of transformation rules: *obligatory rules* and *optional rules*. An obligatory rule is one that must be applied to produce a grammatical sentence. An optional rule one that may be applied but doesn't have to be. Some obligatory rules apply only when certain elements occur in the sentence. Sometimes the elements do not occur, so the rule does not apply. One rule, however, applies to all kernel sentences, and we shall begin with that one. It is a rule for putting the elements of the auxiliary in their proper order.

Our first transformation rule is this: Af + v => v + Af. We call this rule T-af, in which T stands for *transformation*. The double arrow will be regularly used for transformation rules, distinguishing them from kernel rules.

T-af is an obligatory transformation rule. This means that it must be applied to every sequence of Af + v before a grammatical sentence can be produced. Every K-terminal string will contain at least one sequence of Af + v.

N. Chomsky,
Studies on Semantics in Generative Grammar.

I will assume that a grammar contains a base consisting of a categorial component (which I will assume to be a context-free grammar) and a lexicon. The lexicon consists of lexical entries, each of which is a system of specified features. The nonterminal vocabulary of the context-free grammar is drawn from a univer-

sal and rather limited vocabulary, some aspects of which will be considered below. The context-free grammar generates phrase-markers, with a dummy symbol as one of the terminal elements. A general principle of lexical insertion permits lexical entries to replace the dummy symbol in ways determined by their feature content. The formal object constructed in this way is a DEEP STRUCTURE. The grammar contains a system of transformations, each of which maps phrase-markers into phrase-markers. Application of a sequence of transformations to a deep structure, in accordance with certain universal conditions and certain particular constraints of the grammar in question, determines ultimately a phrase-marker which we call a SURFACE STRUCTURE. The base and the transformational rules constitute the syntax. The grammar contains phonological rules that assign to each surface structure a phonetic representation in a universal phonetic alphabet. Furthermore, it contains semantic rules that assign to each paired deep and surface structure generated by the syntax a semantic interpretation, presumably, in a universal semantics, concerning which little is known in any detail. I will assume, furthermore, that grammatical relations are defined in a general way in terms of configurations within phrase-markers and that semantic interpretation involves only those grammatical relations specified in deep structures (although it may also involve certain properties of surface structures). I will be concerned here with problems of syntax primarily. It is clear, however, that phonetic and semantic considerations provide empirical conditions of adequacy that must be met by the syntactic rules.

As anyone who has studied grammatical structures in detail is well aware, a grammar is a tightly organized system; a modification of one part generally involves widespread modifications of other facets. I will make various tacit assumptions about the grammar of English, holding certain parts constant and dealing with questions that arise with regard to properties of other parts of the grammar.

In general, it is to be expected that enrichment of one component of the grammar will permit simplification in other parts. Thus certain descriptive problems can be handled by enriching the lexicon and simplifying the categorial component of the base, or conversely; or by simplifying the base at the cost of greater complexity of transformations, or conversely. The proper balance between various components of the grammar is entirely an empirical issue. We have no a priori insight into the "trading relation" between the various parts. There are no general considerations that settle this matter. In particular, it is senseless to look to the evaluation procedure for the correct answer. Rather, the evaluation procedure must itself be selected on empirical grounds so as to provide whatever answer it is that is correct. It would be pure dogmatism to maintain, without empirical evidence, that the categorial component, or the lexicon, or the transformational component must be narrowly constrained by universal conditions, the variety and complexity of language being attributed to the other components.

Crucial evidence is not easy to obtain, but there can be no doubt as to the empirical nature of the issue. Furthermore, it is often possible to obtain evidence that is relevant to the correct choice of an evaluation measure and hence, indirectly, to the correct decision as to the variety and complexity that universal grammar permits in the several components of the grammar.

To illustrate the problem in an artificially isolated case, consider such words as *feel,* which, in surface structure, take predicate phrases as complements. Thus we have such sentences as:

(1) John felt angry (sad, weak, courageous, above such things, inclined to agree to their request, sorry for what he did, etc.).

We might introduce such expressions into English grammar in various ways. We might extend the categorial component of the base, permitting structures of the form **noun phrase-verb-predicate,** and specifying *feel* in the lexicon as an item that can appear in prepredicate position in deep structures. Alternatively, we might exclude such structures from the base, and take the deep structures to be of the form **noun phrase-verb-sentence,** where the underlying structure *John felt [John be sad]*$_S$ is converted to *John felt sad* by a series of transformations. Restricting ourselves to these alternatives for the sake of the illustrative example, we see that one approach extends the base, treating *John felt angry* as a NP-V-Pred expression roughly analogous to *his hair turned gray* or *John felt anger* (NP-V-NP), while the second approach extends the transformational component, treating *John felt angry* as a NP-V-S expression roughly analogous to *John believed that he would win* or *John felt that he was angry.* A priori considerations give us no insight into which of these approaches is correct. There is, in particular, no a priori concept of "evaluation" that informs us whether it is "simpler", in an absolute sense, to complicate the base or the transformational component.

There is, however, relevant empirical evidence, namely, regarding the semantic interpretation of these sentences. To feel angry is not necessarily to feel that one is angry or to feel oneself to be angry; the same is true of most of the other predicate expressions that appear in such sentences as (1). If we are correct in assuming that it is the grammatical relations of the deep structure that determine the semantic interpretation, it follows that the deep structure of (1) must not be of the NP-V-S form, and that, in fact, the correct solution is to extend the base. Some supporting evidence from syntax is that many sentences of the form (1) appear with the progressive aspect *(John is feeling angry,* like *John is feeling anger,* etc.), but the corresponding sentences of the form NP-V-S do not *(*John is feeling that he is angry).* This small amount of syntactic and semantic evidence therefore suggests that the evaluation procedure must be selected in such a way as to prefer an elaboration of the base to an elaboration of the transformational component in such a case as this. Of course this empirical hypothesis is extremely strong; the

evaluation procedure is a part of universal grammar, and when made precise, the proposal of the preceding sentence will have large-scale effects in the grammars of all languages, effects which must be tested against the empirical evidence exactly as in the single case just cited.

This paper will be devoted to another example of the same general sort, one that is much more crucial for the study of English structure and of linguistic theory as a whole.

Among the various types of nominal expressions in English there are two of particular importance, each roughly of propositional form. Thus corresponding to the sentences of (2) we have the gerundive nominals of (3) and the derived nominals of (4):

(2) a. *John is eager to please.*
    b. *John has refused the offer.*
    c. *John criticized the book.*

(3) a. *John's being eager to please.*
    b. *John's refusing the offer.*
    c. *John's criticizing the book.*

(4) a. *John's eagerness to please.*
    b. *John's refusal of the offer.*
    c. *John's criticism of the book.*

Many differences have been noted between these two types of nominalization. The most striking differences have to do with the productivity of the process in question, the generality of the relation between the nominal and the associated proposition, and the internal structure of the nominal phrase.

Gerundive nominals can be formed fairly freely from propositions of subject-predicate form, and the relation of meaning between the nominal and the proposition is quite regular. Furthermore, the nominal does not have the internal structure of a noun phrase; thus we cannot replace *John's* by any determiner (e.g., *that, the)* in (3), nor can we insert adjectives into the gerundive nominal. These are precisely the consequences that follow, without elaboration or qualifications, from the assumption that gerundive nominalization involves a grammatical transformation from an underlying sentence like structure. We might assume that one of the forms of NP introduced by rules of the categorial component of the base is (5), and that general rules of affix placement give the freely generated surface forms of the gerundive nominal:

(5) [sNP *nom* (Aspect) VP]s

The semantic interpretation of a gerundive nominalization is straightforward in terms of the grammatical relations of the underlying proposition in the deep structure.

Derived nominals such as (4) are very different in all of these respects. Productivity is much more restricted, the semantic relations between the associated

proposition and the derived nominal are quite varied and idiosyncratic, and the nominal has the internal structure of a noun phrase. I will comment on these matters directly. They raise the question of whether the derived nominals are, in fact, transformationally related to the associated propositions. The question, then, is analogous to that raised earlier concerning the status of verbs such as *feel*. We might extend the base rules to accommodate the derived nominal directly (I will refer to this as the "lexicalist position"), thus simplifying the transformational component; or, alternatively, we might simplify the base structures, excluding these forms, and derive them by some extension of the transformational apparatus (the "transformationalist position"). As in the illustrative example discussed earlier, there is no a priori insight into universal grammar – specifically, into the nature of an evaluation measure – that bears on this question, which is a purely empirical one. The problem is to find empirical evidence that supports one or the other of the alternatives. It is, furthermore, quite possible to imagine a compromise solution that adopts the lexicalist position for certain items and the transformationalist position for others. Again, this is entirely an empirical issue. We must fix the principles of universal grammar – in particular, the character of the evaluation measure – so that it provides the description that is factually correct, noting as before that any such hypothesis about universal grammar must also be tested against the evidence from other parts of English grammar and other languages.

Thomas O. Transformational Grammar
and the Teacher of English.

NOMINALIZATION

Robert B. Lees has made an extensive investigation of nouns, substantives, and nominalizations (i.e. ways of creating new nomi-nals), and has reported the results of this investigation in a monograph, "The Grammar of English Nominalizations", originally published in 1960. [...] Lees gives hundreds of examples of various kinds of nominalizations. Briefly, each of these is a transformation that alters or rearranges a word or group of words so that they are able to perform the function of a noun phrase in a sentence. [...] We can get an approximate idea of the notion of nominalization by showing how some of the kernel sentences can be transformed into nominals.

The following sentences were cited earlier as kernels:

The aardvark may be happy.

The forest is sleeping.

The Frenchman drank the wine yesterday.

Suppose we now have a sentence in which the subject is indicated only symbolically:

Noun Phrase + completely enchanted the poet.

We can insert a simple noun phrase in the subject position of this sentence:

The girl completely enchanted the poet.

Or we can create substitutes for the noun phrase by transforming the kernel sentences:

The happy aardvark completely enchanted the poet.

The sleeping forest completely enchanted the poet.

The Frenchman drinking the wine completely enchanted the poet.

Yes/No Questions and Proverbs

5.44a *The boy would run.*

5.45a *The boy would have run.*

5.50a *The boy was running. [...]*

[...] Consider Sentence 5.44 – Sentence 5.50, all of which contain auxiliary verbs. Any one of these can be transformed into a yes/ no question by simply moving the auxiliary verb (or the first auxiliary, when there is more than one) to the first position in the sentence. Thus, selecting at random, we have:

5.44b *Will the boy run?*

5.46b *Will the boy be running?* [...]

But if there are no auxiliary verbs, we cannot move the main verb; that is, in Modern English there are no sentences of the form:

**Runs the boy? *Ran the boy?*

Instead we must utilize the present or past form of the special auxiliary verb *to do:*

5.51b *Does the boy run?* [...]

A similar condition prevails when we introduce the negative morpheme *(Ng)* into a sentence. [...]

Passive Voice

There is still more debate among transformational linguists as to the best method of introducing the passive morpheme *(by + Psv)* into the phrase-structure rules. For our purposes we can assume that it is introduced optionally after any regular transitive verb (but not after any middle verb). We might, therefore, derive a string such as follows:

7.31 *the boy + Pres + have + en + buy + by + Psv + the car* The transformation that applies to strings like this operates in three steps: (1) it replaces the symbol *Psv* with the first nominal; (2) it moves the direct object into the position formally occupied by the subject; and (3) it introduces *be + en* after the auxiliaries and before the main verb. Thus, in three steps, we have:

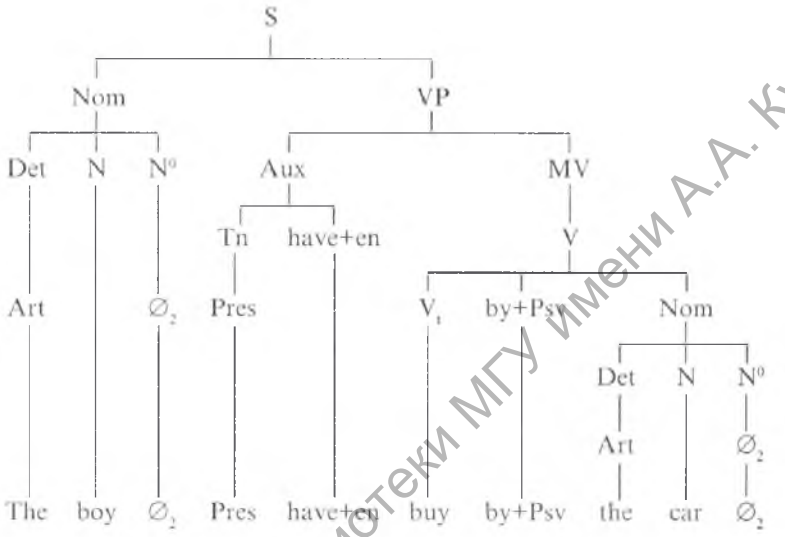
7.31a *+Pres + have + en + buy + by + the boy + the car*

7.31b *the car + Pres + have + en + buy + by + the boy*

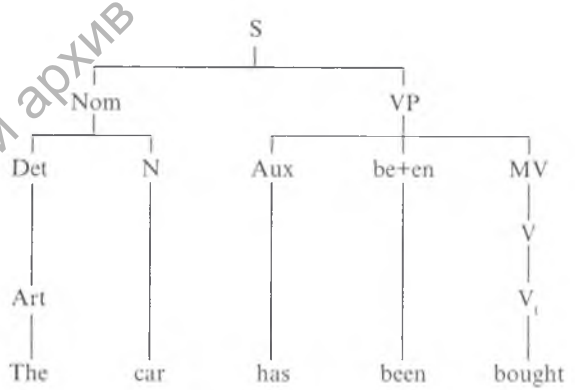
7.31c *the car + Pres + have + en + be + en + buy + by + the boy* After applying the affix transformation and the relevant morpho-graphemic rules, we have:

7.31d *The car has been bought by the boy.*

Optionally, and as a fourth step, we may delete the combination of *by + the original subject*. This would give: 7.31e *The car has been bought.*



Sentence 7.31, deep structure



Sentence 7.31, surface structure

B.A. Ilyish, The Structure
of Modern English, p. 191-197.

FUNCTIONAL SENTENCE PERSPECTIVE

In studying the structure of a sentence, we are faced with a problem which has been receiving ever greater attention in linguistic investigations of recent years. This is the problem of dividing a sentence into two sections, one of them containing that which is the starting point of the statement, and the other the new information for whose sake the sentence has been termed "functional perspective"? We will illustrate it by a simple example. Let us take this sentence from a contemporary novel: *I made the trip out here for curiosity, just to see where you were intending to go.* (M. MITCHELL) Here the words *I made the trip out here* are the starting point, and the rest of the sentence *(for ... go)* contains the new information. It cannot be said that every sentence must necessarily consist of two such sections. Some sentences (especially one-member sentences) cannot be divided up in this way, and doubts are also possible about some other types. However, most sentences do consist of these two sections and the relation between the syntactic structure of the sentence and its division into those two sections presents a linguistic problem deserving our attention.

Before we go on to study the problem it will be well to establish the terms which we will use to denote the sections of a sentence from this viewpoint.

There have been several pairs of terms proposed for this purpose, such as "psychological subject" and "psychological predicate", "lexical subject" and "lexical predicate", "semantic subject" and "semantic predicate", and others. Some of these are distinctly unacceptable, as they either suggest a wrong view of the phenomena in question, or are incompatible with our general principles for analysing language phenomena.

Thus, the terms "psychological subject" and "psychological predicate", proposed by the German scholar H. Paul, obviously will not do, as they introduce a notion of individual psychology, which lies beyond the sphere of linguistic investigation: the question we are discussing is not, what individual interpretation an individual reader or hearer may give to a sentence but what is objectively expressed in it, independently of a hearer's personal views or tastes.

The terms "lexical subject" and "lexical predicate", proposed by Prof. A. Smirnitsky, will not do either, because they appear to take the whole problem out of the sphere of syntactic study and to include it into that of lexicology, which, however, has nothing to do with it. We are not going to analyse the lexical meanings of individual words, which are treated in lexicology, but the function of a word or word group within a sentence expressing a certain thought; their function, that is, in expressing either what is already assumed or what is new in the sentence uttered.

We would rather avoid all terms built on the principle of combining the already existing terms "subject" and "predicate" with some limiting epithets, and use a pair of terms which have not yet been used to express any other kind of notion.

The pair of terms best suited for this purpose would seem to be "theme" and "rheme", which came into use lately, particularly in the works of several Czech linguists, who have specially studied the problem, notably with reference to the English language, both from the modern and from the historic viewpoint. Among the Czech scholars who have widely used these terms we should first of all mention Jan Firbas, who has developed a theory of his own on the historical development of the English language in this sphere.

The terms "theme" and "rheme" are both derived from Greek, and are parallel to each other. The term "theme" comes from the Greek root *the-* 'to set', or 'establish', and means 'that which is set or established'. The term "rheme" is derived from the root *rhe-*'to say', or 'tell', and means 'that which is said or told' (about that which was set or established beforehand). These terms are also convenient because adjectives are easily derived from them: "thematic" and "rhematic", respectively.

What, then, are the grammatical means in Modern English which can be used to characterize a word or word group as thematic, or as rhematic? We should note in passing, however, that it will hardly be possible to completely isolate the grammatical from the lexical means, and we shall have to discuss some phenomena which belong to lexicology rather than grammar, pointing out in each case that we are doing so.

The means of expressing a thematic or a rhematic quality of a word or phrase in a sentence to a great extent depend on the grammatical structure of the given language and must differ considerably, according to that structure.

Thus, in a language with a widely developed morphological system and free word order, word order can be extensively used to show the difference between theme and rheme. For instance, word order plays an important part from this viewpoint in Russian. Without going into particulars, we may merely point out the difference between two such sentences as Старик вошел and Вошел старик. In each case the word (or the part of the sentence) which comes last corresponds to the rheme, and the rest of the sentence to the theme. It is quite clear that no such variation would be possible in a corresponding English sentence. For instance we could not, in the sentence *The old man came* m, change the order of words so as to make the words *the old man* (the subject of the sentence) correspond to the rheme instead of to the theme. Such a word order would be impossible and we cannot make the words *old man* express the rheme without introducing further changes into the structure of the sentence.

In Modern English there are several ways of showing that a word or phrase corresponds either to the rheme or to the theme. We will consider the rheme first.

A method characteristically analytical and finding its parallel in French is the construction *it is ... that* (also *it is ... who* and it is ... *which)* with the word or phrase

representing the rheme enclosed between the words *it is* and the word *that (who, which).* Here are some examples of the construction: *For it is the emotion that matters.* (HUXLEY) *Emotion* is in this way shown to represent the rheme of the sentence. *But it was sister Janet's house that he considered his home.* (LINKLATER) *Sister Janet's house* represents the rheme.

In the following sentence the adverbial modifier of place, *here,* is thus made the rheme, and the sentence is further complicated by the addition of a concessive *though*-clause. *It was here, though the place was shadeless and one breathed hot, dry perfume instead of air – it was here that Mr Scogan elected to sit.* (HUXLEY) Without this special method of pointing out the rheme, it would be hardly possible to show that the emphasis should lie on the word *here.* In the variant *Mr Scogan liked to sit here, though the place was shadeless and one breathed hot, dry perfume instead of air* the emphasis would rather lie on the word *liked:* he liked it, though it was shadeless, etc.

Could it be, he mused, that the reliable witness he had prayed for when kneeling before the crippled saint, the mirror able to retain what it reflected like the one with the dark, gilded eagle spread above it before him now, were at fault in so far as they recorded all the facts when it was, after all, possibly something at another level that more crucially mattered (BUECHNER) The phrase emphasized by means of the *it is ... that* construction is, of course, *something at another level.* The peculiarity of this example is that two parentheses, *after all* and *possibly,* come in within the frame of *it is ... that.*

In the following example a phrase consisting of no less than eleven words is made into the rheme by means of the *it is ... that* construction. *It was his use of the highly colloquial or simply the ungrammatical expression that fascinated her in particular, for in neither case, clearly, did he speak in such a manner out of ignorance of the more elegant expression but, rather, by some design.* (BUECHNER)As the *that* is far away from the *is,* it seems essential that nothing should intervene between them to confuse the construction, and, more especially, no other *that* should appear there.

Another means of pointing out the rheme in a sentence is a particle *(only, even,* etc.) accompanying the word or phrase in question. Indeed a particle of this kind seems an almost infallible sign of the word or phrase being representative of the rheme, as in the sentence: *Only the children, of whom there were not many, appeared aware and truly to belong to their surroundings, for the over-excited games they played, dashing in and out among the legs of their elders, trying to run up the escalator that moved only down, and the like, were after all special games that could be played nowhere but in the station by people who remembered that it was in the station they were.* (BUECHNER) The particle *only,* belonging as it does to the subject of the sentence, *the children,* singles it out and shows it to represent the rheme of the sentence.

It goes without saying that every particle has its own lexical meaning, and, besides pointing out the rheme, also expresses a particular shade of meaning in the

sentence. Thus, the sentences *Only he came* and *Even he came* are certainly not synonymous, though in both cases the subject *he* is shown to represent the rheme by a particle referring to it.

Another means of indicating the rheme of a sentence may sometimes be the indefinite article. Whether this is a grammatical or lexical means is open to discussion. The answer will depend on the general view we take of the articles. Treating the article here in connection with functional sentence perspective is justified, as it does play a certain part in establishing the relations between the grammatical structure of a sentence and its functional perspective.

Owing to its basic meaning of "indefiniteness" the indefinite article will of course tend to signalize the new element in the sentence, that which represents the rheme. By opposition, the definite article will, in general, tend to point out that which is already known, that is, the theme. We will make our point clear by taking an example with the indefinite article, and putting the definite article in its place to see what consequence that change will produce in the, functional sentence perspective.

Let us take this sentence: *Suddenly the door opened and a little birdlike elderly woman in a neat grey skirt and coat seemed almost to hop into the room.* (A.WILSON) The indefinite article before *little birdlike elderly woman* shows that this phrase is the centre of the sentence: we are told that when the door opened the person who appeared was a little birdlike elderly woman. This meaning is further strengthened by the second indefinite article, the one before *neat grey skirt and coat.* Since the woman herself is represented as a new element in the situation, obviously the same must be true of her clothes.

Now let us replace the first indefinite article by the definite. The text then will be *Suddenly the door opened and the little bird-like elderly woman in a neat grey skirt and coat seemed almost to hop into the room.* This would mean that the woman had been familiar in advance, and the news communicated in the sentence would be, that she almost hopped into the room. The indefinite article before *neat grey skirt and coat* would show that the information about her clothes is new, i. e. that she had not always been wearing that particular skirt and coat. This would still be a new bit of information but it would not be the centre of the sentence, because the predicate group *seemed almost to hop into the room* would still be more prominent than the group *in a neat grey skirt and coat.* Finally, if we replace the second indefinite article by the definite, too, we get the text *Suddenly the door opened and the little birdlike elderly woman in the neat grey skirt and coat seemed almost to hop into the room.* This would imply that both the elderly little woman with her birdlike look and her grey skirt and coat had been familiar before: she must have been wearing that skirt and coat always, or at least often enough for the people in the story and the reader to remember it. In this way the whole group *the little birdlike elderly woman in the neat grey skirt and coat* would be completely separated from the rheme-part of the sentence.

This experiment, which might of course be repeated with a number of other sentences, should be sufficient to show the relation between the indefinite article and the rheme, that is, functional sentence perspective.

There are also some means of showing that a word or phrase represents the theme in a sentence. Sometimes, as we have just seen, this "may be achieved by using the definite article. Indeed the contrast between the two articles can be used for that purpose.

But there are "other means of pointing out the theme as well. One of them, which includes both grammatical and lexical elements, is a loose parenthesis introduced by the prepositional phrase *as for* (or *as to),* while in the main body of the sentence there is bound to be a personal pronoun representing the noun which is the centre of the parenthetical *as-for*-phrase. This personal pronoun may perform different syntactical functions in the sentence but more often than not it will be the subject. A typical example of this sort of construction is the following sentence: *As for the others, great numbers of them moved past slowly or rapidly, singly or in groups, carrying bags and parcels, asking for directions, perusing timetables, searching for something familiar like the face of a friend or the name of a particular town cranked up in red and gold...* (BUECHNER) After the theme of the sentence has been stated in the prepositional phrase *as for the others,* the subject of the sentence, *great numbers of them,* specifies the theme (pointing out the quantitative aspect of *the others)* and the rest of the sentence, long as it is, represents the rheme, telling, in some detail, whatever the others were busy doing at the time.

Sometimes a word or phrase may be placed in the same position, without *as for: The manuscript so wonderfully found, so wonderfully accomplishing the morning's prediction, how was it to be accounted for?* (J. AUSTEN) Here the first half of the sentence, from the beginning and up to the word *prediction,* represents the theme of the sentence, while the rest of it represents its rheme. The pronoun *it* of course replaces the long phrase representing the theme.

Here are a few more examples of the word or phrase representing the theme placed at the beginning of the sentence as a loose part of it, no matter what their syntactical function would have been if they had stood at their proper place within the sentence. *That laughter – how well he knew it!* (HUXLEY) There are two possible ways of interpreting the grammatical structure of this sentence. First let us take it as a simple sentence, which seems on the whole preferable. Then the phrase *that laughter* must be said to represent the theme of the sentence: it announces what the sentence is going to be about. In the body of the sentence itself it is replaced by the pronoun *it,* which of course is the object. Another possible view is that the sentence is an asyndetic composite one. In that case the phrase *that laughter* is a one-member exclamatory clause, and the rest of the sentence is another clause.

A somewhat similar case is the following, from the same author; *His weaknesses, his absurdities – no one knew them better than he did.* Just as in the pre-

ceding example, it seems preferable to view the sentence as a simple one, with the words *his weaknesses, his absurdities* representing the theme.

There are two more points to make concerning functional sentence perspective:

(1) The theme need not necessarily be something known in advance. In many sentences it is, in fact, something already familiar, as in some of our examples, especially with the definite article. However, that need not always be the case. There are sentences in which the theme, too, is something mentioned for the first time and yet it is not the centre of the predication. It is something about which a statement is to be made. The theme is here the starting point of the sentence, not its conclusion. This will be found to be the case, for example, in the following sentence: *Jennie leaned forward and touched him on the knee* (A. WILSON) which is the opening sentence of a short story. Nothing in this sentence can be already familiar, as nothing has preceded and the reader does not know either who Jennie is or who "he" is. What are* we, then, to say about the theme and the rheme in this sentence? Apparently, there are two ways of dealing with this question. Either we will say that *Jennie* represents the theme and the rest of the sentence, *leaned forward and touched him on the knee* its rheme. Or else we will say that there is no theme at all here, that the whole of the sentence represents the rheme, or perhaps that the whole division into theme and rheme cannot be applied here. Though both views are plausible the first seems preferable. We will prefer to say that *Jennie* represents the theme, and emphasize that the theme in this case is not something already familiar but the starting point of the sentence.

The same may be said of most sentences opening a text. Let us for instance consider the opening sentence of E.M. Forster's "A Passage to India": *Except for the Malabar Caves – and they are twenty miles off – the city of Chandrapore presents nothing extraordinary.* Leaving aside the prepositional phrase *except for the Malabar Caves* and the parenthetical clause *and they are twenty miles off,* the main body of the sentence may be taken either as containing a theme: *the city of Chandrapore,* and a rheme *presents nothing extraordinary,* or it might be taken as a unit not admitting of a division into theme and rheme. The first view seems preferable, as it was in the preceding example. Similar observations might of course be made when analysing actual everyday speech.

(2) Many questions concerning functional sentence perspective have not been solved yet and further investigation is required. It is by no means certain that every sentence can be divided into two clear-cut parts representing the theme and the rheme respectively. In many cases there are probably intermediate elements, not belonging unequivocally to this or that part, though perhaps tending rather one way or another. J.Firbas in his analysis of English functional sentence perspective has very subtly pointed out these intermediate elements and described their function from this viewpoint.

The problem of functional sentence perspective, which appears to be one of the essential problems of modern linguistic study, requires further careful investi-

gation before a complete theory of all phenomena belonging to this sphere can be worked out. The main principles and starting points have, however, been clarified to a degree sufficient to make such future studies fruitful and promising.

M.Y. Blokh, T.N. Semionova, S.V. Timofeeva
Theoretical English Grammar, p. 267-269.

1. THE MAIN PRINCIPLES OF ACTUAL DIVISION OF THE SENTENCE

The actual division of the sentence exposes its informative perspective showing what immediate semantic contribution the sentence parts make to the total information conveyed by the sentence.

From the point of view of the actual division the sentence can be divided into two sections: thematic (theme) and rhematic (rheme). The theme expresses the starting point of communication; it means that it denotes an object or a phenomenon about which something is reported. The rheme expresses the basic informative part of the communication, emphasizing its contextually relevant centre. Between the theme and the rheme intermediary, transitional parts of the actual division can be placed, also known under the term "transition". Transitional parts of the sentence are characterized by different degrees of their informative value.

2. LANGUAGE MEANS OF EXPRESSING THE THEME AND THE RHEME

Language has special means to express the theme. They are the following: the definite article and definite pronominal determiners, a loose parenthesis introduced by the phrases "as to", "as for", and the direct word-order pattern.

In comparison with the language means used to express the theme, language has a richer arsenal of means to express the rheme because the rheme marks the informative focus of the sentence. To identify the rhematic elements in the utterance one can use a particular word-order pattern together with a specific intonation contour, an emphatic construction with the pronoun "it", a contrastive complex, intensifying particles, the so-called "there-pattern", the indefinite article and indefinite pronominal determiners, ellipsis, and also special graphical means.

3. ACTUAL DIVISION AND COMMUNICATIVE SENTENCE TYPES

The theory of actual division has proved fruitful in the study of the communicative properties of sentences. In particular, it has been demonstrated that

each communicative type is distinguished by features which are revealed first and foremost in the nature of the rheme.

As a declarative sentence immediately expresses a proposition, its actual division pattern has a complete form, its rheme making up the centre of some statement.

As an imperative sentence does not directly express a proposition, its rheme represents the informative nucleus not of an explicit proposition, but of an inducement in which the thematic subject is usually zeroed. If the inducement is emphatically addressed to the listener, or to the speaker himself, or to the third person, thematic subjects have an explicit form.

The differential feature of the actual division pattern of an interrogative sentence is determined by the fact that its rheme is informationally open because this type of sentence expresses an inquiry about information which the speaker does not possess. The function of the rheme in an interrogative sentence consists in marking the rhematic position in a response sentence, thus programming its content. Different types of questions are characterized by different types of rhemes.

The analysis of the actual division of communicative sentence types gives an additional proof of the "non-communicative" nature of the so-called purely exclamatory sentences (e.g. "Oh, I say!"): it shows that interjectional utterances of the type don't make up grammatically predicated sentences with their own informative perspective; in other words, they remain mere signals of emotions.

The actual division theory combined with the general theory of paradigmatic oppositions can reveal the true nature of intermediary predicative constructions distinguished by mixed communicative features. In particular, this kind of analysis helps identify a set of intermediary communicative sentence types, namely, the sentences which occupy an intermediary position between cardinal communicative sentence types.

SUMMING-UP QUESTIONS

1. What are the main aspects of sentence analysis?
2. What models of syntactic analysis do you know?
3. What positional classes of words are singled out by Ch. Fries?
4. What are the main units of IC-model? What are the immediate constituents of the sentence?
5. What types of transformations do you know?
6. What is the criterion of choosing kernel structures?
7. What are the main components of the semantic structure of the sentence?
8. What types of semantic predicates are distinguished by W.Chafe?
9. What are the main components of the communicative structure of the sentence?
10. What are the main means of expressing the theme and the rheme in English?

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ТЕОРЕТИЧЕСКАЯ ГРАММАТИКА АНГЛИЙСКОГО ЯЗЫКА

A READING BOOK ON THE THEORY OF ENGLISH GRAMMAR

Хрестоматия

Учебно-методическое пособие

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