

1. Theoretical grammar and its subject

It is generally accepted that man as a human being occupies the upper stage in the evolution process. We proudly define ourselves as "*homo sapiens*" (man with wisdom) to set us apart from the rest of the animal world. The term *Homo sapiens*, however, is pretty confusing. For what do we mean by wisdom? It has not been proved so far that animals do not possess it. Those of you who have pets can easily prove the contrary. Most recently anthropologists have started defining human beings as "man the toolmaker". However, apes can also make primitive tools. What sets man apart from the rest of animal kingdom is his ability to speak: he is "*Homo loquens*" — "man the speaking animal". And again, you can easily object by saying that animals can also speak, naturally, in their own way. We know, for example, that many birds sing partly to establish a territory; that honey bees tell others in their hive where sources of food are located; that the calls of least some primates are in part learned and not wholly "instinctive". Generally speaking, however, their sounds are meaningless in the sense that there is no link between sound and meaning (or if there is, it is of a very primitive kind). At the same time the link for man is grammar. Only with the help of grammar we can combine words to form sentences and texts. Therefore, we can say that man is not merely *Homo loquens*, he is *Homo Grammaticus*, because grammar in the widest sense is what makes us human.

Human language is, of course, uniquely human. Besides, more than anything else, grammar is what makes us human. Linguistics, the discipline that studies the grammatical structure, function and phenomena of language, has uncovered many surprising and fascinating things about the nature of our human language faculty (*faculty* — a natural power of the mind or body, e.g. *the faculty of hearing*).

Human beings have probably been speaking for as long as we have existed, but it was only around 3,000 years ago that people began to be curious about the language and to start examining it. This happened independently in two places — India and Greece. However, even though the Indian tradition was much the more sophisticated of the two, it was the Greeks who founded the European grammar tradition.

The term "grammar" goes back to a Greek word that may be translated as the "art of writing". But later this word acquired a much wider sense and came to embrace the whole study of language. Now it is often used as the synonym of **linguistics**. A question comes immediately to mind: what does this study involve?

2. The scope of linguistics

What is grammar after all? We can see this point more clearly if we look briefly at the idea of communication. Men have for centuries been interested in the language they speak but only in recent years have they attempted to examine it in an objective or "scientific" way. Some scholars, in their resort to look at language without prejudice and preconception (*preconception* — *an opinion formed in advance without actual knowledge*), begin with the statement that language is a communication system and as such can and must be compared with other communication systems. Some systems of this kind are those used by animals. The gibbons, for instance, have at least nine different calls. The bees have a complicated system of dances to indicate the direction and the distance. Other systems are mechanical; traffic lights, for instance, use three different colours. All of these seem to have something in common with language — they all have something to communicate and they all have their own ways of communicating it.

Can we say that these communication systems have grammars? The main difference here is the enormous complexity of language, and it is within this complexity that we must look for grammar. A gibbon call has merely a meaning such as "danger" or "food"; the traffic lights can only signal "stop"

and "go". But the possible sentences of English with all the possible meanings are infinite in number. We do not learn the meaning of each of all these countless sentences separately. This is shown by the fact that many of the sentences we produce are new, in the sense that they are not identical with the sentences that we have produced or heard before, yet we understand their meanings. There is a highly complex system in their construction and this complex system differs from language to language — that is why languages are different. Within this system there is a complex set of relations that link the symbols of the language with the "meanings", the message they have to convey.

In the widest sense grammar IS that complex set of relations. According to a recent definition, grammar is "a device that specifies the infinite set of well-formed sentences and assigns to each of them one or more structural descriptions". That is to say it tells us just what all possible sentences of a language are and provides a description of them. This is no small task, but one that is well worthy of human study.

There are three characteristics of language that are important for the understanding of the nature of grammar: it is **complex, productive and arbitrary** (*uncontrolled and used without considering our wishes*).

That language is highly complex is shown by the fact that up to now it has not proved possible to translate mechanically from one language to another, with really satisfactory results. There are a lot of funny stories of computer translation "masterpieces", for instance "out of sight, out of mind" was once translated as "invisible idiot". Anyway, the fault lies not in the computer but in the failure to provide it with sufficiently accurate instructions, because we are still unable to handle this complex system.

Secondly, language is productive. We can produce myriads of sentences that we have never heard or uttered before. More strikingly, if I produce a sentence with completely new words, e.g. *Lishespibs* and assure you that this is a real English sentence you will be able to produce the whole set of other sentences based upon it, e.g. *Pibs are popped by lishes*, etc. It is clear that we have some kind of sentence producing mechanism. One task of grammatical theory is to explain this remarkable fact.

Thirdly, language is arbitrary. There is no one-to-one relation between sound and meaning. The forms of linguistic units bear no natural resemblance to their meaning. The link between them is a matter of convention, and conventions differ radically across languages. Thus, the English word "dog" happens to denote a particular four-footed domesticated creature, the same creature that is denoted in Ukrainian by the completely different form. Neither form looks like a dog, or sounds like one. This accounts for the fact that languages differ.

There is another explanation to the fact why languages differ. It is based on the Bible. Names given to things and objects have for many centuries been defined as names for pre-existing categories. The following is a quotation from the Authorized Version of the Book of Genesis, in which Adam, who is still the only human being in the Garden of Eden, assigns names to other species with which he shares it:

And out of the ground the Lord God formed every beast of the field and every fowl of the air; and brought them unto Adam to see what he would call them: and whatsoever Adam called every living creature, that was the name thereof.

This is one passage that for many centuries lay in the centre of linguistic thought in Christian Europe. Another was the story later in the same book of the Tower of Babel. The naming by Adam explained the origin of language, as a way of labeling things around us. The second story explained why, as we know it, "the whole earth" is not still "of one language, and of one speech" For, to curb mankind, God has to "confound" it (11:1-9).

When we discuss grammar, however, we do assume that many characteristics of the language are shared. For this reason we talk of "nouns", of "verbs", of "gender" and other such grammatical notions and categories.

Grammar may be practical and theoretical. The aim of **practical** grammar is the description of grammar rules that are necessary to understand and formulate sentences. The aim of **theoretical**

grammar is to offer explanation for these rules. Generally speaking, theoretical grammar deals with the language as a complex functional system.

Lecture.2 BASIC NOTIONS OF MODERN LINGUISTICS

J. General principles of grammatical analysis

Linguistic units (or in other words — signs) can go into three types of relations:

- a) The relation between a unit and an object in the world around us (objective reality). E.g. the word "table" refers to a definite piece of furniture. It may be not only an object but a process, state, quality, etc.
- b) This type of meaning is called **referential** meaning of a unit. It is **semantics** that studies the referential meaning of units.
- c) The relation between a unit and other units (inner relations between units). No unit can be used independently; it serves as an element in the system of other units. This kind of meaning is called **syntactic**. Formal relation of units to one another is studied by **syntactics** (or **syntax**).
- d) The relation between a unit and a person who uses it. As we know too well, when we are saying something, we usually have some purpose in mind. We use the language as an instrument for our purpose. One and the same word or sentence may acquire different meanings in communication. This type of meaning is called **pragmatic**. The study of the relationship between linguistic units and the users of those units is done by **pragmatics**.

Summing it up, we can say that there are three models of linguistic description: semantic, syntactic and pragmatic.

The first part of the 20th century can be characterized by a formal structural approach to the language study. Only inner (syntactic) relations between linguistic units served the basis for linguistic analysis while the reference of words to the objective reality and language users were, in fact, not considered. The term "structural linguist", in use from 1930s, refers especially to linguists who explicitly followed F. de Saussure. This approach called **structuralism**, however, served the basis for modern linguistics. Later, semantic language analysis, which focused on the meanings words and sentences can convey, came into use. However, it was surely not enough for a detailed language study. Language certainly figures centrally in our lives. We discover our identity as individuals and social beings when we acquire it during childhood. It serves as a means of cognition and communication: it enables us to think for ourselves and to cooperate with other people in our community. Therefore, the pragmatic side of the language should not be ignored either. **Functional** approach in language analysis deals with the language "in action". A functionalist approach attaches little attention to determining precisely what is or is not grammatical. Instead, it focuses on the needs of speakers. Naturally, in order to get a broad description of the language, all these approaches must be combined.

2. A short outline of V. de Saussure's theory of language

If any person is to be called the founder of modern linguistics it is the great Swiss scholar, Ferdinand de Saussure, whose lectures were published in 1915. Before F. de Saussure, most linguists took an **atomistic** approach to language structure. That is, they treated a language as primarily a collection of objects, such as speech sounds, words and grammatical endings. F. de Saussure's idea was that a language should be best regarded as a **structured system** of elements, in which the place of each element is defined chiefly by how it **relates** to other elements. Modern linguistic analysis is practically impossible without such notions as "system and structure", "language" and "speech", syntagmatic and paradigmatic relations, synchronic and diachronic approaches in language study.

F.de Saussures main ideas are as follows:

- Language is understood as a system of signals (linguistic signs), interconnected and interdependent. It is this network of interdependent elements that forms the object of linguistics as an independent science.
- Language as a system of signals may be compared to other systems of signals, such as writing, alphabets for the deaf-and-dumb, military signals, symbolic rites, forms of courtesy, etc. Thus, language becomes the object of a more general science — semiotics — that studies different systems of signals used in human societies.
- Language has two aspects: the system of language (*French*: langue) and the manifestation of this system in social intercourse — speech (*French*: parole). The system of language is a body of linguistic units — sounds, affixes, words, grammar rules and rules of lexical series. The system of language enables us to speak and to be understood since it is known to all members of a speech community. Speech is the total of our utterances and texts. It is based on the system of language, and it gives the linguist the possibility of studying the system. Speech is the linear (syntagmatic) aspect of languages, the system of language is its paradigmatic ("associative" as F.de Saussure called it) aspect. He illustrated his theory of the associative (paradigmatic) series of the system of language by the following diagram (example here is taken from the English language):

<i>educate</i>			
form	meaning	verb formation – ate	noun formation - ate
education	instruct	relate	debate
educates	teach	locate	prelate
educated	enlighten	translate	conglomerate
etc.	etc.	etc.	etc.

- The linguistic sign is bilateral, i.e. it has both form and meaning. We understand the meaning of the linguistic sign as reflecting the elements (objects, events, situations) of the outside world.
- The linguistic sign is "absolutely arbitrary" and "relatively motivated". It means that there is nothing obligatory in the relation of a phonological form to the object it denotes (according to the nature of the object). This fact becomes evident when we compare the names of the same objects in different languages, for example:

<i>English</i> :	ox	hand	winter
<i>French</i> :	boeuf	main	hiver
Ukrainian:	бик	рука	зима

The "relative motivation" means that the linguistic sign taken in the system of language reveals connections with other linguistic signs in the system both in form and meaning. These connections are different in different languages and show the difference of "the segmentation of the picture of the world" — difference in the division of one and the same objective reality into parts reflected in the minds of different people. For example:

English:	arrow — shoot	apple — apple-tree
Ukrainian:	стріла – стріляти	яблуко — яблуня

- Language is to be studied as a system in the "synchronic" plane, i.e. at a given moment of its existence, in the plane of simultaneous coexistence of elements. We understand the synchronic plane as a given moment (of more or less longer duration) of the historical development of the language studied.
- The system of language is to be studied on the basis of the oppositions of its concrete units. The linguistic elements (units) can be found by means of segmenting the flow of speech and comparing the isolated elements. For example, in "*the strength of the wind*" and in "*to collect one's strength*" we recognize one and the same unit "*strength*" in accord with its meaning and its form; but in "*on the strength of this decision*" the meaning is not the same and we recognize a different linguistic unit.

3. Notions of "system" and "structure". General characteristics of linguistic units

Language is regarded as a system of elements (or: signs, units) such as sounds, words, etc. These elements have no value without each other, they depend on each other, they exist only in a system, and they are nothing without a system. **System** implies the characterization of a complex object as made up of separate parts (e.g. the system of sounds). Language is a structural system. **Structure** means hierarchical layering of parts in constituting the whole. In the structure of language there are four main structural levels: phonological, morphological, syntactical and supersyntactical. The levels are represented by the corresponding level

units:

The **phonological** level is the lowest level. The phonological level unit: is the phoneme. It is a distinctive unit {*bag — back*}.

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

- a) the **morpheme** — the lowest meaningful unit (*teach — teacher*);
- b) the **word** — the main naming ('nominative) unit of language.

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

- a) the **word-group** — the dependent syntactic unit;
- b) the **sentence** — the main communicative unit.

The **supersyntactical** level has the **text** as its level unit.

All structural levels are subject matters of different levels of linguistic analysis. At different levels of analysis we focus attention on different features of language. Generally speaking, the larger the units we deal with, the closer we get to the actuality of people's experience of language.

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

We have arrived at the conclusion that the notions of system and structure are not synonyms — any system has its own structure (compare: the system of Ukrainian education vs. the structure of Ukrainian education; army organization).

Linguistic units represent bilateral elements possessing both a directly observable material structure and directly unobservable content or meaning: a linguistic unit has a particular form and a particular meaning. It follows that any linguistic unit is a double entity, or in other words, it has two aspects. It unites a concept (meaning) and a sound image (form). The two elements are intimately united and each recalls the other. Accordingly, we distinguish **the content side** and **the expression side**:

[CONTENT SIDE]

LINGUISTIC UNIT [EXPRESSION SIDE]

4. Language and speech

Language is a collective body of knowledge, it is a set of basic elements, but these elements can form a great variety of combinations. In fact the number of these combinations is endless. **Speech** is closely connected with language, as it is the result of using the language, the result of a definite act of speaking. Speech is individual, personal while language is common for all individuals. To illustrate the difference between language and speech let us compare a *set of rules* how to play chess and a definite *game of chess*.

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

5. Systemic relations in language. Paradigmatic and Syntagmatic relations

A linguistic unit can enter into relations of two different kinds. It enters into **paradigmatic** relations with all the units that can also occur in the same environment. PR are relations based on the principles of similarity, they are associative and unite similar units on one paradigmatic axis to form a paradigm or a set in which units relate to each other by association with some distinctive feature, or category, or a kind of relationship common to all members of such a paradigmatic set. They exist between the units that can substitute one another. For instance, in the word-group *A PINT OF MILK* the word *PINT* is in paradigmatic relations with the words *bottle, cup*, etc. The article *A* can enter into PR with the units *the, this, one, same*, etc. According to different principles of association or similarity PR can be of three types: **semantic, formal and functional**.

- a) Semantic PR are based on the similarity of meaning: *a book to read = a book for reading. He used to practice English every day — He would practice English every day.*
- b) Formal PR are based on the similarity of forms. Such relations exist between the members of a **paradigm**: *man — men; play — played — will play — is playing.*
- c) Functional PR are based on the similarity of function. They are established between the elements that can occur in the same position. For instance, noun determiners: *a, the, this, his, Ann's, some, each*, etc.

PR are associated with the sphere of "language".

A linguistic unit enters into **syntagmatic** relations with other units of the same level it occurs with. SR exist at every language level. E.g. in the word-group *A PINT OF MILK* the word *PINT* contrasts SR with *A, OF, MILK*; within the word *PINT* — *P, I, N* and *T* are in syntagmatic relations. SR are linear relations, that is why they are manifested in speech. Thus syntagmatic relations expose linear relationships of dissimilar units following each other in the syntagmatic chain. Such relations are obvious, seen on the surface, one can observe them in speech or a text and generalize them on the basis of common knowledge of the under study.

Syntagmatic relations can be of three different types: **coordinate, subordinate and predicative**.

- a) Coordinate syntagmatic relations exist between the homogeneous linguistic units that are equal in rank, that is, they are the relations of independence: *you and me; They were tired but happy.*
- b) Subordinate syntagmatic relations are the relations of dependence when one linguistic unit depends on the other: *teach + er* — the morphological level; *a smart student* — the word-group level; predicative and subordinate clauses — the sentence level.
- c) Predicative syntagmatic relations are the relations of interdependence, they exist in primary and secondary predication. Primary predication is established between the subject and predicate of the sentence while secondary predication exists between any non-finite form of the verb in combination with a nominal element expressed by either a noun or a pronoun

(e.g. *J saw John running*).

As mentioned above, SR may be observed in utterances, which is impossible when we deal with PR. Therefore, PR are identified with "language" while SR are identified with "speech".

6. Synchronic and diachronic approaches to the study of language

According to R de Saussure, linguistics has two main branches: one "synchronic" ("simultaneous in time") the other "diachronic" ("through time")- A. famous analogy provided by E de Saussure compares the history of a language with the progress of a game of chess. To study it synchronically is to describe the pieces on the board at any moments between moves. To study it diachronically is to say how they have reached these positions.

Thus a linguistic analysis may be performed in two directions: if we focus on the structure of a language at a particular moment in time (not ; necessarily the present), we apply a synchronic approach, while using a diachronic approach we look at the development of a language over time, how a language has changed over some period of time. Most work in historical linguistics is diachronic in nature, but not all of it: a linguist might well be interested in constructing a purely synchronic description of, say, the Old English of King Alfred's day, without considering how a language has developed from an earlier form or what happened to it later.

Lecture 3

GENERAL CHARACTERISTICS OF LANGUAGE

1. Language as a semiotic system

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

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

2. Language as a social phenomenon. Language functions

The essential nature of language is cognitive. It is seen as a psychological phenomenon: what is of primary interest is what the form of the language reveals about the human mind. However, this is not the only perspective and not the only aspect of language that states the fact that language is pre-eminently human. For although language may indeed be a kind of cognitive construct, it is not only that. It also functions as a means of communication and social control. True, it is stored in the mind as abstract knowledge, but to make it possible it must also be experienced in the external world as actual behavior.

Another way of looking at language, therefore, would be to see it in terms of the social function it serves. What is particularly striking about the language from this point of view is the way it is fashioned as systems of signs to meet the cultural and communal needs of human societies. The focus of attention in this case is on the language as s system of signs, which are

socially motivated or informed in what these signs have been developed to express social meanings.

Functions of language may be regarded through various purposes to which language may be put. As it was mentioned above, the main function of language is communication, but things are more complicated than that. Language serves a number of functions, only some of which can reasonably be regarded as communicative. Here are some of the functions of language which we can distinguish:

1. We pass on factual information to other people.
2. We try to persuade other people to do something.
3. We entertain ourselves and other people.
4. We express our membership in a particular group.
5. We express our individuality.
6. We express our moods and emotions.
7. We maintain good (or bad) relations with other people.
8. We construct mental representations of the world.

There is one more function that is worth mentioning here — playful (or "ludic") function of language. According to the linguist David Crystal, ' the ludic function of language is quite important for our appreciation of language as a whole. He explains it by the fact that we play with language when we manipulate it as a source of enjoyment, either for ourselves or for the benefit of others: we take some linguistic unit or feature and make it do things it does not normally do. We are, in effect, bending and breaking the rules of the language. And if someone were to ask why we do it, the answer is simple: for fun.

All of these functions are important, and it is difficult to argue that some of them are more important, or more primary, than others. For example, studies of conversations in pubs and bars have revealed that very little information is typically exchanged on these occasions and that the social functions are much more prominent. Of course, a university lecture or a newspaper story will typically be very different.

It can be conceded that other animals also use signs to communicate with each other and to establish their communities. But the structure of these communities is simple in comparison with human ones and their signs are hardly comparable to the subtleties of semiotic systems that have been developed in language to serve the complex social organization and communicative requirements of human communal life.

With this social view of language there is a concern for explanation. Why is human language as it is? The answer is that it has evolved not with the biological evolution of the species but with the socio-cultural evolution of human communities. Thus, one requirement of language is that it should provide the means for people to act upon their environment, for one individual to cope with another individual reality of events and entities "out there", to organize it and so bring it under control by a process of what is called a conceptual projection. In other words, language has to have an **ideational** function. Another necessity is for language to provide a means for people to interact with each other, for the first person to cope with the second person, to establish a basis for cooperative action and social relations: so language needs to discharge an **interpersonal** function as well.

So language can be seen as distinctive because of its intricate association with the human mind and human society. It is related to both cognition and communication, it is both abstract knowledge and actual behavior.

3. General characteristics of the grammatical structure of language

The grammatical structure of language is a system of means used to turn linguistic units into communicative ones, in other words — the units of language into the units of speech. Such means are inflexions, affixation, word order, function words and phonological means.

Generally speaking, Indo-European languages are classified into two structural types — synthetic and analytic. Synthetic languages are defined as the ones of "internal" grammar of the word — most of

grammatical meanings and grammatical relations of words are expressed with the help of inflexions (Ukrainian, Russian, Latin, etc). Analytical languages are those of "external" grammar because most grammatical meanings and grammatical forms are expressed with the help of words (*will do*). However, we cannot speak of languages as purely synthetic or analytic — the English language (Modern English) possesses analytical forms as prevailing, while in the Ukrainian language synthetic devices are dominant. In the process of time English has become more analytical as compared to Old English. Analytical changes in Modern English (especially American) are still under way.

4. Morphology and syntax as two parts of linguistic description

Given a piece of language, we can, obviously enough, describe it in different ways, at different levels of analysis. A word can be taken as a combination of letters, sounds or morphemes, a constituent of a sentence, or an isolated unit of meaning like a dictionary entry. The analysis of language can be adjusted to focus on different things, and this calls for a degree of detachment. With language, it is not always easy to achieve since our natural inclination is to engage with language and interpret it, rather than treat it as data to be analysed.

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

MORPHOLOGY

LECTURE 4

THE MORPHEME

1. General characteristics of morphemes

The meaning of words can be defined in terms of syllables or the pattern of vowels and consonants they display. The word "parson", for example, has two syllables. So has the word "parting". In syllabic structure they are alike. But we cannot divide the second word in another way as well. There is an independent lexical item "part" in English and "-ing" can be attached to the end of innumerable other words — meeting, pass^Amg, depart^Amg» depressing, to give just a few examples. So we might propose that the word is made up of two elements of meaning, or morphemes, *part* and *-ing* the first of which is independent, or free, and the second dependent, or bound.

We may consider dismantling the word "parson" in the same way. There are, after all, words which start with the same sequence of letters *par*: "parcel", "parking" "particle", and so on. However, "par" does not signal

anything semantically in common, and *-eel*, *-king* and *-tide* do not seem to attach themselves as bound morphemes to any other words in English.

We might try another division of the word and propose the morphological structure *pars*^Ao«thereby involving the analogy with words like "parsimony", "parsley", "parsnip", but we would be no better off, since we cannot assign *pars-*, *-imony*, *-ley* or *-nip* any morphemic status either.

It seems clear, then, that the syllable as a unit of sound has, in of meaning. The word "parson" has two syllables, but consists of only one morpheme while the word "parting" has two syllables and two morphemes.

The morpheme can be described as a minimal unit of grammatical analysis — the units of the lower level out of which words, the units of the next level, are composed. The morpheme is the unit of the morphological level which can be defined as an abstract element of meaning. In other words, it is

a minimal meaningful unit. As all other language units morphemes are twofold signs which have the plane of content and the plane of expression. As meaningful units morphemes may have a definite meaning: lexical (teach^Aer, part^Aing, un^Alike^Aable), grammatical (write^As, cross^Aing, play^Aed), lexical-grammatical (sing^Aer, happi^Aness, love^Aly). Within word forms morphemes serve as lexical, grammatical and word-building markers. In accordance with these functions, morphemes are defined as lexical, grammatical and word-building. A lexical morpheme is the invariant component of all word forms, a grammatical morpheme is the variant component in the morphological paradigm of word forms, and a word-building morpheme is the variant component in the lexicological pattern of word forms.

In the hierarchy of meaningful language units including the word, the word-group, the sentence and the text, the morpheme can be described as the minimal and indivisible unit: it cannot be segmented further without losing its constitutive essence, that is, the meaning of a definite form. For example, the morpheme *-ed* cannot be segmented into smaller meaningful units as the phonemes *e* and *d* possess no meaning.

Unlike a word, the morpheme is not an autonomous unit, it occurs in speech only as a constituent of the word. Therefore, we can define the morpheme as the minimal indivisible meaningful unit which Participates in the formation of the word and regularly occurs in other words.

2. The morpheme as a language unit and its speech variants — morphs and allomorphs

The morpheme is a language unit which is realized in speech as the **mot** ph. Morphs are the smallest meaningful successions of phonemes into which words are broken up. For example, in the words *paint*, *paint^As*, *paint^Aed*, *paint^Aing*, *paint^Aer* the morphs are *paint*, *-s*, *-ed*, *-ing*, *-er*.

If different morphs are the variants of the same morpheme, they are called **allomorphs** of the morpheme, in other words allomorphs manifest in speech the same morpheme.

Allomorphs can be **additive** (*look^Aed*, *small^Aer*) which are outer grammatical suffixes, since, as a rule, they are opposed to the absence of morphemes in grammatical alteration. The root phonemes of grammatical interchange are defined as replacive allomorphs (*men*, *stood*, *feet*).

Allomorphs can be **phonemically conditioned**, for example, */s/*, */z/*, */iz/* are the allomorphs of the plural morpheme (*books*, *boys*, *boxes*). Similarly, */id/*, */d/*, *III* are the allomorphs for the past tense morpheme. These allomorphs are said to be in complementary distribution — complementary distribution takes place when two variants do not occur in the same environment.

Allomorphs can also be morphemically conditioned as *-en* in the words "oxen", "children".

The morpheme may be represented by only one morph, or may have a zero realization called a **zero** morpheme (*sheep*, *out*, *put*).

Amalgamated allomorphs are distinguished on the basis of realizing different meanings simultaneously: *boys'*, *cats'* — plural + genitive case). Phonemically and morphemically conditioned allomorphs are singled out on the basis of distributional analysis. There exist three main

types of distribution:

- Non-contrastive (*learnt*, *learned*) — meanings or functions are the same;
- Contrastive (*'export*, *ex'port*) — meanings or functions are different;
- Complementary (*illiterate*, *irrelevant*, *innumerable*, *impossible*) — different environments of formally different morphs which are united by the same meaning or function.

Thus, the morpheme is a kind of abstraction, it is the notion of the sphere of language (paradigmatics) while morphs are their speech realizations which regularly occur in different utterances and belong to the sphere of speech (syntagmatics). The morpheme as a set of morphs may be represented by their variants — allomorphs.

3. Classification of morphemes

The morpheme may be characterized by its semantics, form and distribution (the correlative contribution of the morphemes to the general meaning of the word).

According to their semantics, morphemes can be classified into lexical (roots), **grammatical** (inflections), **lexical-grammatical** (affixes).

The root expresses the concrete, "material" part of the word meaning. It is of an obligatory character as there are no words without roots. The **root** is the common lexical element of words within a word family: formate, formative, formatively, formation, formational, formalistic, formality.

The notion of "root" should not be confused with the notion of "stem" as the stem is the part of the word which remains unchanged throughout its paradigm, e.g. singer, singer s, singers, singers'.

English permits the addition of meaningful dependent elements both before and after the root: these are called affixes. Affixes which precede the root are **prefixes**; those that follow it are **suffixes**.

Prefixes in English have a purely lexical role, allowing the construction « a large number of new words: *un-*, *de-*, *anti-*, *super-*, etc.: unhelpful, defrost, antisocial, superstructure.

Suffixes in English are of two kinds. Most are purely lexical, their primary function being to change the meaning of the root form: examples of these derivational suffixes include *-ness*, *-ship*, *-able*: happiness, friendship, workable. A few are purely grammatical, their role being to show how the word must be used in a sentence: examples here include plural *-s*, past tense *-ed*, and comparative *-er*. Elements of this second type, which have no lexical meaning, are the **inflectional** suffixes of the language.

According to the form, morphemes can be classified into free, bound and semibound.

A free morpheme is defined as one that in the form of one-morpheme word can function independently, e.g. box, dark. The characteristic feature of the English language is that in the majority of simple words, or one-morpheme words, the form of the stem, root and the word is one and the same (desk, work, pet, etc.).

A bound morpheme functions only as a constituent part of the word. Prefixes and suffixes are bound morphemes for they always make part of a word. Unlike the free morpheme, the bound morpheme has no meaning in itself: it acquires its meaning only in combination with the free morpheme.

Semi-bound morphemes are those that can function in the analytical form both as a part of this form and as a free morpheme. For example, the morpheme "will" occurs as a free morpheme in the context that makes its identity clear as in *He will do it tomorrow — I know he will*, and as a bound morpheme as in *He will come*, being the immediate constituent of the semantic and functional unit. On the basis of formal presentation, **overt** and **covert** morphemes are distinguished. The overt morphemes are those expressed explicitly they build the words; the covert morpheme is identified as a contrastive absence the morpheme expressing a certain function (deer — deer).

On the basis of linear characteristics, continuous (linear) and **discontinuous** morphemes are distinguished. Discontinuous morphemes can be found in grammatical units which consist of an auxiliary word and a grammatical suffix, for example:

be ... ing — for the continuous forms

have... en — for the perfect forms

be ... en — for the passive forms

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LECTURE 5 THE WORD AS THE CENTRAL UNIT OF LANGUAGE

1. The problem of word definition

The Bible says: "In the beginning was the Word". In fact, the word is considered to be the central (though not the only) linguistic unit of language. The word is so much a part of everyday knowledge that it is taken for granted. Grammar books often make no attempt to give a definition of the word though they happily define other grammatical units in terms of it. The sentence, for instance, is a "combination of words" and the parts of speech are "classes of words". But what a word is and how it can be defined is often not considered. The chief reason for this is that in the written language there is no doubt at all about the status of the word because words are clearly identified by spaces between them. In the spoken language, however, the problem cannot be solved this way. If we listen to an unfamiliar language, we find it difficult to divide up the speech into single words. Therefore, it is very difficult to arrive at an adequate definition of such a complex linguistic unit as the word. There are three approaches to this problem. The first is to see the word as a semantic unit, a unit of meaning; the second sees it as a marked phonological unit; the third is associated with the idea that the word is an indivisible unit.

Let us begin by looking at semantic definition of the word. One well-known definition of the word runs as follows: "A word may be defined as a unit of a particular meaning with a particular complex of sounds capable of a particular grammatical employment". It follows that the word is said to be a linguistic unit that has a single meaning. Sometimes, however, it is impossible to produce a meaning division. Examples here are numerous: we cannot divide *heavy smoker* into *heavy* and *smoker* or similarly, *criminal lawyer*; or *the King of England's hat*. Clearly as far as the meaning is concerned the word is not a single unit.

A phonological criterion also sometimes fails as it does not always work, properly. Let us compare the following:

<i>that stuff</i>	<i>that's tough</i>
<i>a nice cake</i>	<i>an ice cake</i>
<i>grey day</i>	<i>Grade A</i>

It is hard to distinguish the real meaning of these units without a proper context.

There are similar difficulties with any definition of the word as an indivisible unit. The great American linguist Leonard Bloomfield defined a word as a "minimum free form". What he meant was the smallest unit of speech that can occur in isolation. However, many words would not occur by themselves in any natural conversation. Such words as *a* or *the* can hardly be found in isolation.

Sometimes the word is simply defined as a linguistic unit larger than a morpheme but smaller than a phrase. In this case words can be defined in at least four different ways, and these ways are not equivalent at all. « An *orthographic word* is something written with white spaces at both ends but no white space in the middle. Orthographic words are of minimal linguistic interest. <> A *phonological word* is something pronounced as a single unit. <> A *lexical item*, or *lexeme*, is a dictionary word, an item which we would expect to find having its own entry in a dictionary. A *grammatical word-form* (GWF) (or *morphosyntactic word*) is any one of the several forms which a lexical item may assume for grammatical purposes.

Let us look at some examples. The item *fee cream* is two orthographic words, but a single phonological word (it is pronounced as a unit), a single lexical item (it has its own entry in a dictionary) and a single GWF (indeed, it hardly has another form unless you think the plural *ice cream* is good English).

The singular *dog* and the plural *dogs* are each a single orthographic word, a single phonological word, and a single GWF, but they both represent the same lexical item (they would get only one

entry in the dictionary). The same is true of *take, takes, took, taken* and *is taking*: five orthographic words, five phonological words, five GWFs (at least), but only one lexical item.

The contraction *hasn't* is a single orthographic word and a single phonological word but it presents two lexical items (*have* and *not*), and two GWFs (*has* and *not*). The phrasal verb *make up* (as in *She made up her face*) is two orthographic words, two phonological words, but only one lexical item (because of its unpredictable meaning, it must be entered separately in the dictionary). And it has several GWFs: *make up, makes up, made up, making up*. The very different sense of *make up* illustrated by *She made up a story* would be regarded by most linguists as a different lexical item from the preceding one (a separate dictionary entry is required), but this lexical item exhibits the same orthographic, phonological and grammatical forms as the first.

Consequently, when we are talking about words, it is essential to specify exactly which sense we have in mind, and it may be preferable to use one of the more specific labels.

Therefore, we have to admit that the word is not a clearly definable linguistic unit. For the sake of linguistic description, we will proceed from the statement that the word is a meaningful unit differentiating word-groups at the upper level and integrating morphemes at the lower level. It is the main **expressive** unit of human language, which ensures the thought-forming function of language. It is also the basic nominative unit of language with the help of which the naming function of language is realized. As any linguistic sign the word is a level unit. In the structure of language it belongs to the upper stage of the morphological level. It is a unit of the sphere of "language" and it exists only through its speech actualization. One of the most characteristic features of the word is its indivisibility. As any other linguistic unit the word is a bilateral entity. It unites a concept and a sound image and thus has two sides — the content and expression sides:

$$\text{WORD} = \frac{\text{concept}}{\text{sound image}}$$

2. *The word as the carrier of grammatical meaning. The notion of the word-form*

When we speak of the word as a grammatical unit, we abstract ourselves from its lexical meaning and concentrate on the kind of grammatical information it carries. The term "word-form" is more convenient in this case than "word" because it shows that it is a carrier of grammatical information, for example, the word-form *speaks* shows the present tense third person singular. It can be identified in such a way exclusively due to the existence of opposed forms, such as *speak, spoke, is speaking*, etc. contrasted to *speaks* in different distinctive features (or grammatical meaning). Here the relational property of grammatical meaning is revealed. The lexical meaning of the word is irrelevant for the detection of the type of the word-form.

A word-form may be analytical by structure, which means that it consists of more than one word (e.g. *has spoken*); an analytical word-form is equivalent to one word on the rank scale as it expresses one unified content of a word, both from the point of view of grammatical and lexical meaning.

Words (as well as morphemes) are directly observable units by nature as they are characterized by a definite material structure of their own. They can be registered and enumerated in any language, however complicated the system of form-building might be in a language. Therefore the system of morphological units is a closed system in that all its items are on the surface and can be embraced in an inventory of forms.

Every word is a unit of grammar as a part of speech. Parts of speech are usually considered a lexico-grammatical category since, on the one hand, they show lexical groupings of words; on the other, these groupings present generalized classes, each with a unified, abstract meaning of its own.

The latter makes word-classes a grammatical notion since wide-range abstraction is characteristic of grammar. Each part of speech, as a generalized word-class possesses a certain valency, i.e. inner potential to combine with other word-classes in linear order in actual speech. In accordance with this potency words make combinations (word-groups) which present the next unit of the next level in the structure of language.

LECTURE 6 GRAMMATICAL MEANING OF THE WORD

I. The notion of "grammatical meaning"

Notional words combine in their semantic structure two meanings—lexical and grammatical. **Lexical** meaning is the individual meaning of the word; for instance, a lexical meaning of the word *table* may in short be defined as *a definite piece of furniture with a flat top supported by one or more upright legs*, an individual lexical meaning of the word *speak* is defined in the dictionary as *expressing thoughts aloud, using the voice*.

Grammatical meaning is not individual, it is the meaning of the whole class or a subclass. For example, the class of nouns has the grammatical meaning of thingness. If we take, for example, the noun *table*, we may say that it possesses its individual lexical meaning (it corresponds to a definite piece of furniture) and, in addition, the grammatical meaning of **thingness** (this is the meaning of the whole class). Besides, the noun *table* has the grammatical meaning of a subclass — countableness. Any verb combines its individual lexical meaning with the grammatical meaning of **verbiality** — the ability to denote actions or states. Thus the verb *speak* combines in its semantic structure its own lexical meaning — *expressing thoughts aloud* — with the grammatical meaning of the whole class of verbs - verbiality. Any adjective combines its individual lexical meaning (e.g., the lexical meaning of the adjective *beautiful* is *giving great pleasure to the mind or senses*) with the grammatical meaning of the whole class of adjectives — qualitiveness — the ability to denote qualities. Adverbs possess the grammatical meaning of adverbiality — the ability to denote quality of qualities.

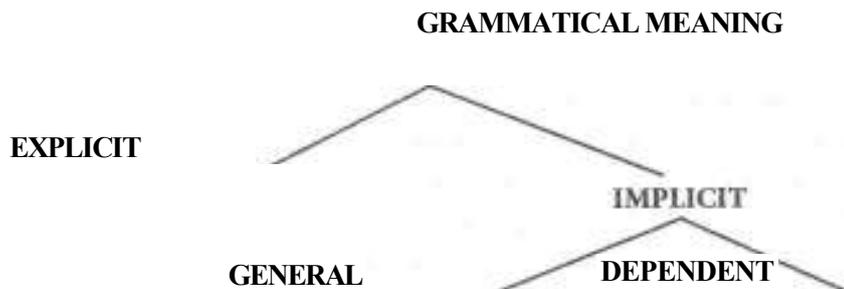
There are some classes of words that are devoid of any lexical meaning and possess the grammatical meaning only. This can be explained by the fact that they have no referents in the objective reality. All function words belong to this group — articles, particles, prepositions, etc. Their grammatical meaning may be defined in accordance with their operational functions which they have in the sentence and in the text (for further details about the meaning function words possess see Chapter 6 "Function Words").

2. Types of grammatical meaning

The grammatical meaning may be explicit and implicit ("implicit" means implied or understood though not directly expressed). The **implicit** grammatical meaning is not expressed formally (e.g. the word *table* does not contain any hints in its form as to it being inanimate). The **explicit** grammatical meaning is always marked morphologically — it has its marker. In the word *cats* the grammatical meaning of plurality is shown in the form of the noun; *cat's* — here the grammatical meaning of possessiveness is shown by the form *'s*; *is asked* — shows the explicit grammatical meaning of passiveness.

The implicit grammatical meaning may be of two types — general and dependent. The **general** grammatical meaning is the meaning of the whole word-class, of a part of speech (e.g. nouns — the general grammatical meaning of thingness). The **dependent** grammatical meaning is the meaning of a subclass within the same part of speech. For instance, any verb possesses the dependent grammatical meaning of transitivity/ intransitivity, terminativeness/non-terminativeness, stativeness/ non-stativeness; nouns have the dependent grammatical meaning of countableness/uncountableness and animateness/inanimateness. The most important thing about

the dependent grammatical meaning is that it influences the realization of grammatical categories restricting them to a subclass. For example, the dependent grammatical meaning of countableness/uncountableness influences the realization of the grammatical category of number as the number category is realized only within the subclass of countable nouns; the grammatical meaning of animateness/inanimateness influences the realization of the grammatical category of case, terminativeness/non-terminativeness — the categories of tense and aspect, transitivity/intransitivity — the category of voice. Types of grammatical meaning are shown in the diagram below:



LECTURE 7

GRAMMATICAL CATEGORIES THE WORD

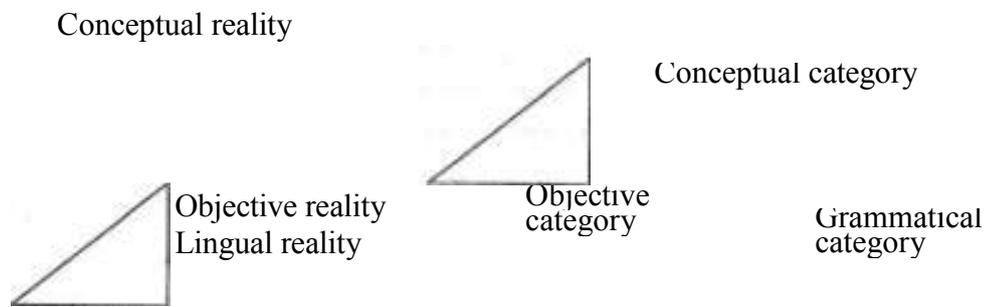
1. *The notion of "grammatical category"*

Within the sphere of morphology there exist parts of speech or word-classes established in accordance with the identity of semantic, formal and distributional characteristics. Parts of speech are opposed to each other as classes of units possessing contrasting grammatical features serving the reason for their classification into different groups.

A linguistic category which has the effect of modifying the forms of some class of words in a language is defined in linguistics as a grammatical category. As the words of every language are divided up into parts of speech, it often happens that words in a given class exhibit two or more forms used in somewhat different grammatical circumstances. In each such case the variation in form is required by the presence in language of one or more grammatical categories applying to that class of words.

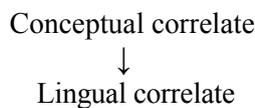
The notion of grammatical categories is confined to associative relations existing between the units of paradigmatic sets, to those general relations which unite all constituents of a morphological paradigm. If, for instance, case is common to all nouns in English or Ukrainian and a set of paradigms (or one paradigm) constitutes this grammatical notion, it can be regarded as a grammatical category because all its exponents, different cases, are united by one common grammatical meaning and function, that of designating meaningful relations between words of certain classes in speech. Mood, for example, is a grammatical category because it covers a certain set of special forms and their meaning, individual in every language. The same criterion can be applied to every grammatical category.

It follows that grammatical categories are made up by the unity of identical grammatical meanings that have the same form and meaning (e.g. singular::plural). Due to dialectal unity of language and thought, grammatical categories correlate, on the one hand, with the conceptual categories and, on the other hand, with the objective reality. It may be shown with the help of a triangle model:



Therefore, we may define grammatical categories as references of the corresponding objective categories. For example, the objective category of **time** finds its representation in the grammatical category of tense, the objective category of **quantity** finds its representation in the grammatical category of **number**.

Those grammatical categories that have references in the objective reality are called **referential** grammatical categories. However, not all of the grammatical categories have references in the objective reality, just a few of them do not correspond to anything in the objective reality. Such categories correlate only with conceptual matters:



These categories are called **significational** categories. To this type belong the categories of **mood** and **degree** (English adjectives and adverbs of manner vary for the grammatical category of degree, as with *big/bigger/biggest*). Speaking about the grammatical category of mood we can say that it has **modality** as its conceptual correlate. It can be explained by the fact that it does not refer to anything in the objective reality — it expresses the speaker's attitude to what he says.

To generalise what has been said above concerning the grammatical categories it is necessary to draw attention to the following:

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

2. *Vie notion of "opposition"*

The notion of "opposition" was originally introduced in phonology. The specific character of phonological opposition consisted in the latter being a distinctive opposition of sound. The concept of distinctiveness presupposed the concept of opposition. One thing can be distinguished only from another thing: it can be distinguished only insofar as it is contrasted with or opposed to something else.

In accordance with this concept an elaborate set of contrast criteria for the identification and classification of phonological oppositions was developed. The most widely known is the binary "privative" opposition in which one member of the contrastive pair is characterized by the presence of a certain feature which is lacking in the other member (hence "privative"), e.g. *table::tables*. The element possessing the feature in question is called the "marked" (strong) member of the opposition, the other is called the "unmarked" (weak) member of the opposition.

The majority of oppositions in the English language are privative binary. Some scholars, however, hold the opinion that oppositions can be gradual (*big — bigger — biggest*) and equipollent (*am — is — are*).

Later the method of oppositions was successfully extended to grammar as it was extremely suitable for describing morphological categories. It turned out that the binary privative opposition served the basis for realizing grammatical categories.

Any grammatical category must be represented by at least two grammatical forms (e.g. the grammatical category of number — singular and plural forms). The relation between two grammatical forms differing in meaning and external signs, as it was mentioned above, is called **opposition** — book::books (unmarked member::marked member). A grammatical category is definable only on the basis of oppositions. The oppositional method presupposes the establishment of the abstract categorial meaning unifying all the members of a paradigmatic set, and separate semantic features, correlated with each other, arising on the basis of a common general grammatical meaning. All grammatical categories find their realization through oppositions, e.g. the grammatical category of number is realized through the opposition of singular::plural.

It follows that we may define the grammatical category as the opposition between two mutually exclusive form-classes (a form-class is a set of words with the same explicit grammatical meaning).

Means of realization of grammatical categories may be synthetic (*near — nearer*) and analytical (*beautiful — more beautiful*).

3. Transposition and neutralization of morphological forms

In the process of communication grammatical categories may undergo the processes of transposition and neutralization.

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

LECTURE 8 THE PARTS OF SPEECH PROBLEM. WORD CLASSES

1. General characteristics of the parts of speech as lexico-grammatical word-classes

The general modern definition of parts of speech places them as lexico-grammatical word-classes, which are characterized by a general abstract grammatical meaning, expressed in certain grammatical markers. Parts of speech present a mixed lexical and grammatical phenomenon because, on the one hand, words are characterized by a certain lexical meaning and, on the other, each generalized word-class possess a unifying general abstract meaning. As this kind of meaning covers the whole class, it may be defined as grammatical due to the wide scope of abstraction embracing a wide range of units.

Usually speech parts are considered in grammars as isolated groups, each with their own grammatical meaning and material shape. However, in language, all elements are interconnected, as it presents a system and not a conglomeration of isolated elements. Parts of speech are also interdependent. First of all, they are distinguished from the other by the number of words constituting each class. The greatest amount of words is contained in the noun and verb classes. This is conditioned by the functional role that these classes play in coherent speech, in the utterance; and in the long run the background for word-class distinctions is the logical structure of thought which finds reflection in the syntactic arrangement of elements of the sentence. The noun and the verb are destined to fill the positions of the main sentence elements — subject and predicate, the centre of predication in any connected discourse, and the main elements of proposition. Other word classes

with a full lexical meaning are dependent upon these two, they are satellites to the head words — nouns and verbs. For example, adjectives are dependent on the noun. In the sentence, the adjective is attached to the noun denoting its properties by means of attributive or predicative relations. The formal and functional properties of other two classes — numerals and pronouns — are distributed between the noun and the adjective. The verb has one satellite among parts of speech — the adverb, which adheres to the verb, denoting the property of action.

Every language contains many thousands of words. If all these words behaved differently for grammatical purposes, the language would be unmanageable; but they don't. Instead, they are grouped into a small number of classes; the words in each class behave much in the same way, while words in different classes behave differently.

English has over a dozen parts of speech; the precise number varies according to the analysis, since some linguists prefer to draw finer distinctions than others. The lexical meaning of a word is an unreliable guide to its part of speech. Membership is, as a rule, determined by grammatical criteria.

A feature of English (as well as of some other languages) is that a word can belong to two or more different classes without changing its form. For example, *brown* is a noun in *a nice shade of brown*, an adjective in *a brown skirt*, and a verb in *Please brown the meat*. Likewise, *straight* is a noun in *Schumacher accelerated down the straight*, an adjective in *a straight line*, and an adverb in *She hit the ball straight*. There are many of these but note that a word can only belong to one part of speech at a time.

As a rule, the words in a single class do not allow absolutely identical behaviour; instead, they are further divided into several subclasses, often overlapping, which show somewhat different behaviour. This is subcategorization.

Some word classes are large and can readily accept new members: these are called open classes. Others are small and accept new members only with difficulty: these are closed classes. In English, noun, verb and adjective are open classes, while pronoun and preposition are closed classes.

The problem of word classification into parts of speech still remains one of the most controversial problems in modern linguistics. The attitude of grammarians with regard to parts of speech and the basis of their classification varied a good deal at different times. Taking into account different principles of classification, we can group all approaches into four basic ones: classical, functional, distributional and complex.

2. The history of development of parts of speech classifications

The first explicit grammatical teaching was propounded by the great Greek philosopher Aristotle. He developed the theory of the sentence; and the theory of word-classes as notional and functional parts of speech. However, being the founder of logic, Aristotle identified the relation of ideas in human thought with the relation of words in speech; and stated grammatical categories in terms of logic. He introduced in grammar the logical notions of subject and predicate. His criterion for discriminating between parts of speech was the ability of words to express the parts of the logical proposition, i.e. the subject, the predicate and the copula. Accordingly, he established three parts of speech: the "name" and the "verb" (forms expressing both the subject and the predicate), and the "conjunction" (forms expressing copulas). Thus, by "names" he understood, in modern terminology, the nominative case of nouns, adjectives, participles; by "verbs" — the infinitive of verbs; by "conjunctions" — different functional words and forms.

The grammatical teaching of Ancient Greece was completed in Alexandria, between the 2nd century B.C. and 2rd century A.D. In the works by the Alexandrian scholars many features of grammar were shaped into the form that the linguists of the 19th century called "traditional" grammar. Aristotle's doctrine of "names" and "cases" was reformed. The groups of the language were grouped into eight parts of speech: inflected (name, verb, participle, article, pronoun) and uninflected (preposition, adverb, conjunction).

The Romans who were the successors to the culture of Ancient Greece, succeeded also to the Greek linguistic theories and grammatical teaching. Moreover, our knowledge of many linguistic achievements of the Greeks is derived only from Roman sources. However, the Romans did not as much as the Greeks about general linguistic problems. They constructed their grammar on the Greek model, with some modifications.

The philosophers of the Middle Ages made some further important observations about Latin Grammar since they saw in the structure of Latin the only natural and logically perfect form of speech in general. They proceeded from the statement that all the languages had essentially the same basic structure as Latin. They defined nouns and adjectives as different parts of speech within the class of names, and also discovered syntactical categories of concord, government and apposition.

The conception that the structure of different languages is based on the same logical, rational categories was developed further through the epoch of the Renaissance (14-16th centuries) and in the 17th century led to the theory of universal grammar based on logical principles, with the same fundamental categories for all languages.

3. Different approaches to the parts of speech classification in English

The classical parts of speech theory of the English language goes back to ancient times and is based on Latin grammar. According to the Latin classification of the parts of speech all words were divided dichotomically into declinable and indeclinable parts of speech. This system was reproduced in the earliest English grammars. The first of these groups, declinable words, included nouns, pronouns, verbs and participles, the second — indeclinable words — adverbs, prepositions, conjunctions and interjections. The inflectional classification is quite successful for Latin or other languages with developed morphology and synthetic paradigms but it cannot be applied to the English language because the principle of declinability/indeclinability is not relevant for analytical languages.

The first classification worthy of attention is that of a prominent English grammarian who worked on the verge of the 20th century, Henry Sweet. He may be said to be the first grammarian who broke away from the canons of classical Latin grammar and strove at representing the facts of English as they were in that language. His approach may be defined as functional. He resorted to the functional features of words and singled out nominative units and particles. To nominative parts of speech belonged noun-words (noun, noun-pronoun, noun-numeral, infinitive, gerund), adjective-words (adjective, adjective-pronoun, adjective-numeral, participles), verb (finite verb, verbals — gerund, infinitive, participles), while adverb, preposition, conjunction and interjection belonged to the group of particles. However, though the criterion for classification was functional, Henry Sweet could not fully abstract himself from the rules of classical grammar, which, based on features of highly inflected languages, such as Greek and Latin, departed from form, that is, from the ability of a word to have inflections. Therefore, he failed to break the tradition and classified words into those having morphological forms and lacking morphological forms, in other words, declinable and indeclinable.

Another classical representative of English grammar of the older generation O. Jespersen had a different starting point for the analysis of word-classes though his approach is also functional. First, he gave the traditional list of parts of speech "for the dictionary", as he put it; for differentiation of the words in speech he produced his theory of "The Three Ranks" based on mutual relations of words in sentence. The illustration of the three ranks were the following combinations: in a group *an extremely hot weather* or *a furiously barking dog*, the words *weather*, *dog* are primary; *hot*, *barking* — secondary; *extremely*, *furiously* — tertiary. However, the theory of the three ranks did not cover the relations of all the main word-classes. It left out the most important word-class — the verb.

4. The parts of speech classification by Charles Fries

A distributional approach to the parts to the parts of speech classification can be illustrated by the classification introduced by Charles Fries. Ch.Fries belongs to the American school of descriptive linguistics for which the starting point and basis for any linguistic analysis is the distribution of elements on the syntagmatic axis, the co-occurrence of linguistic units in linear order. He introduced the notion of structural meaning to be distinguished from the lexical meaning of words which maybe evident from the dictionary. By structural meaning of the sentence *The man gave the boy the money* is understood what we are told about who performed the action (the man), how many men were involved (only one), the time of the action, whether it is stated as a fact or something questioned or requested. According to Ch.Fries, such meanings constitute the structural meaning of the sentence, and no utterance is intelligible without both lexical and structural meanings.

Ch.Fries illustrated the structural meaning which is evident from the forms of the words, connecting function words and word order by giving a verse from *Alice in Wonderland* (the "signals" are underlined):

Twas brilling, and the slithy toves
Did gyre and gimble irvthj: wabe;
 All mimsy were the borogoveg,
And the mome raths outgrabe...

Any speaker of English, says Ch.Fries, will recognize the frames in which these words appear. He introduced the following frames which he defined as the minimum free utterance test frames:

- Frame A *The concert was good* (always);
- Frame B *The clerk remembered the tax* (suddenly);
- Frame C *The team went there.*

All words that could fill the same position as the word *concert* with no change of structural meaning are Class I words: *food, lesson, family*, etc. In Frames B and C, Class I words are identified in the same way by means of substitution: *husband, woman*, etc. (names of persons). Further substitution in the frames gives varieties of Class II words: *is/was, are/ were, seems/seemed, feels*, etc. in Frame A; *wanted, saw, discussed*, etc. in Frame B; *came, ran, started*, etc. in Frame C. Class III words fill the position of *good*. Class IV words can be substituted for *always, suddenly, they're* in the three frames.

So Ch.Fries' four classes comprise the main bulk of the vocabulary, the most numerous word-classes which fill all the essential positions in a sentence, and in his test frames. He does not fully identify his classes with traditional parts of speech — noun, verb, adjective, adverb, because some of these cannot fill the slots in the frames. Still other words have not been included in the four classes. All such items Ch.Fries considers under the general heading of "function words", which are classified into 15 groups* Thus he introduced **4 major classes of words** and **15 form-classes**.

What is really valuable in Charles Fries' classification is his investigation of 15 groups of function words (he called them "form-classes") because he was the first linguist to pay attention to some of their peculiarities.

5. Complex approach to the parts of speech classification

All the classifications mentioned above appear to be one-sided because parts of speech are discriminated on the basis of only one aspect of the word: either its meaning, or its form, or its function. In modern linguistics, parts of speech are discriminated on the basis of three criteria: semantic, formal and functional. This approach may be defined as **complex**. The **semantic** criterion presupposes the grammatical meaning of the whole class of words (general grammatical meaning). The **formal** criterion reveals paradigmatic properties: relevant grammatical categories, the form of the words, their specific inflectional and derivational features. The functional criterion concerns the syntactic function of words in the sentence and their combinability. Thus, when characterizing any part of speech we are to describe: a) its semantics; b) its morphological features, c) its syntactic peculiarities.

The linguistic evidence drawn from our grammatical study makes it possible to divide all the words of the language into:

a) those denoting things, objects, notions, qualities, etc. — words with corresponding references in the objective reality — notional words;

b) those having no references of their own in the objective reality; most of them are used only as grammatical means to form up and frame utterances — function words, or grammatical words.

It is commonly recognized that the notional parts of speech are nouns, pronouns, numerals, verbs, adjectives, adverbs; the functional parts of speech are articles, particles, prepositions, conjunctions, modal words and interjections.

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

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

6. Disputable points in the parts of speech classification

Generally speaking, the problem of words' classification into parts of speech is far from being solved. Some words cannot find their proper place in the system of lexico-grammatical classes. The most striking example here is the class of adverbs. Some language analysts call it *a ragbag a dustbin* (Frank Palmer), a Russian scientist, academician V.V. Vinogradov defined the class of adverbs in the Russian language as *мусорная куча*. It can be explained by the fact that to the class of adverbs belong all those words that cannot find their place anywhere else. At the same time, there are no grounds for grouping them together either. Compare: *perfectly* (*She speaks English perfectly*) and *again* (*He is here again*). Examples are numerous (for example, non-nominative units with a temporal meaning: *already, yet, still*). There are some words that do not belong anywhere like the unit *after all*. Speaking about *after all*, it should be mentioned that this unit is quite often used by native speakers, and practically never by our students. Some more striking examples: *any way, actually, in fact*. The problem is that if these words belong nowhere, there is no place for them in the system of words, then how can non-native speakers of English use them correctly? What makes things worse is the fact that these words are devoid of nominative power, and they have no direct equivalents in the Ukrainian or Russian languages. Meanwhile, native speakers use these words mechanically, without realizing how they work.

In the next chapter the author's way of solving this problem will be offered.

LECTURE 9 FUNCTION WORDS

1. The problem of classification of function words

In the previous chapter we arrived at the conclusion that the parts of speech problem is far from being solved. Here we are going to provide more proofs. Let us take the words that we know well, for instance, *again, already, still* and *yet*. What part of speech do these words belong to? Let us try to analyze *again*. If it belongs to adverbs (its traditional place in the parts of speech system) it should possess the features of this grammatical class. As you know, the adverb is a notional part of speech. If this word is notional, it should refer to something in the objective reality. It refers, however, to nothing. And the second criterion: if it is a notional! word, it should have a syntactic function in the sentence. What syntactic function does it perform in the sentence *He took my dictionary again**. If it is an adverbial modifier of frequency, it could be proved by putting a question to it, and it is

impossible. Examples are numerous (*already, still, yet, etc.*) but at least one thing is clear enough: these words have nothing to do with the class of adverbs.

Traditionally, the following classes of function words are commonly recognized: articles, prepositions, particles, conjunctions, modal words, interjections. While articles, prepositions and interjections can be easily defined within the system of function words, the situation with particles, conjunctions and modal words is not so obvious. For example, what can you say about *on the other hand** What class of function words does it belong to? What about *after all, anyway, in fact** We will try to work out the criteria which make it possible to find points of difference of particles, conjunctions and modal words in order to provide their classification. Let us consider the following sentences:

- (1) *Only John is here.*
- (2) *On the other hand, John is here.*
- (3) *Possibly, John is here.*

What puts all these words together is the fact that they are function words: they possess no references in the objective reality, perform no syntactic function in the sentence. At the same time, they are quite different. In the first sentence *only* correlates with the hidden (or implicit) piece of information: *No one else is here*. Therefore, we can say that the word *only* correlates two pieces of information: explicit and implicit. In the second sentence, *on the other hand* correlates or connects this sentence with another piece of information in the previous text. We know for sure that there was some piece of information which came first (something was *on the one hand*) and that the second piece of information is opposed to it. For example: *I like summer. On the other hand, sometimes it can extremely hot in summer*. And what is important, the first piece of information or the first sentence was expressed somewhere in the text explicitly. In the third sentence, *possibly* refers only to this sentence and doesn't go into any textual connection. And now we will try to formulate the difference between these three words because they belong to different grammatical classes. The most general feature of the function words of the first group defined as particles is to correlate two pieces of information, two sentences within the same text, one of these sentences is usually expressed implicitly. Function words of the second group may be defined as conjunctions and they connect two explicit pieces of information within the same text providing logical connection uniting the text together as a single unit. The third group represents modal words. They do not correlate with any other information in the text, they refer only to the sentences in which they are used. Their most evident function is to provide the speaker's evaluation of the event reflected in the sentence.

2. Particles and their textual functions

The main function of the grammatical class of particles is to correlate two pieces of information in the text. The most important thing here is that one piece of information is expressed in the sentence while another is expressed implicitly. Let us consider the following sentences:

- (1). *Only John phoned Mary today;* (2). *John only phoned Mary today;* (3). *John phoned only Mary today;* (4). *John phoned Mary only today.*

These sentences are different because each time the implicit information is different and it depends on the position of *only* in the sentence:

- (1). *Nobody else phoned Mary today;*
- (2). *John did nothing else to Mary;*
- (3). *John phoned Mary but nobody else;*
- (4). *John phoned Mary today but not any other time.*

It is evident that this small particle can work miracles: it adds some additional information to the text. What will happen if we use *even* instead of *only* in the same sentence: *Even John phoned Mary*

today? The additional implicit information will be different: *Everybody (and John) phoned Mary today.*

The additional meaning becomes the opposite — when we use *only*, we restrict the group of those who phoned Mary, by using *even* we expand the group. Therefore, the textual meanings these two particles render are different

The classification of particles we are going to work out is to be based on their textual meaning. However, before providing the classification let us consider two more examples:

- (1). *He is here already*
- (2). *He is here again*

Both sentences contain the implicit information. However, in the first case the implicit information (*He wasn't here before*) is **contrasted** to the sentence while in the second case the implicit information is added. The same principle — contrast or addition — can be applied to all particles. In accordance with this principle, all particles fall into contrastive and additive. Further subdivision is based on the additional meanings the particles bring to the text. The following classification of particles is made in accordance with their textual properties (see the Table, p. 86).

3. *Conjunctions and conjunctive expressions and their textual functions*

Conjunctions and conjunctive expressions are used to join clauses and sentences in the text thus making the text coherent. In this paragraph, we are going to focus on the textual conjunctions. If you want your text to be logically connected, convincing and authentic, you are unlikely to do it without using text conjunctions. Let us consider the following examples:

- (1). *The house is small for a family of four. Furthermore, it is in a bad location.*
- (2). *The company's profits have fallen slightly. However, this is not a serious problem.*
- (3). *You must pack plenty of food. Likewise, you'll need warm clothes, so pack them too.*
- (4). *These birds are very rare. Therefore, they are protected by law.* (5). *I've got a lot of problems. First, let me deal with the most important difficulty.*

The sentences here are connected by means of conjunctions. However, the relations between the sentences as shown by conjunctions are different — in the first case the second information is **added**; in the second case the second information is **opposed** to the first one; in the third case the second information is shown as **similar** to the previous one; in the fourth case the second sentence is a logical **conclusion**. And finally, in the fifth case some **sequence** of events is shown. In accordance with the textual relations shown by means of conjunctions, it is possible to classify them into different groups. There are five of them:

1. Adding conjunctions: *besides, furthermore, in addition to, moreover, what is more, to top it all off, on top of it all, by the way, incidentally, etc.*
 2. Contrasting conjunctions: *however, nevertheless, still, yet, nonetheless, in contrast, etc.*
 3. Parallel conjunctions: *correspondingly, equally, similarly, likewise, accordingly, analogously, etc.*
 4. Summarizing conjunctions: *in general, generally speaking, in summary, summarizing, on balance, summing up, therefore, consequently, in sum, thus, so, etc.*
 5. Sequencing conjunctions: *first, lastly, finally, on the one/other hand, next, second, to begin with, to start with, to continue, etc.*
- The list is not full, only the most frequently used units are mentioned here.

4. *Modal words and parenthetical expressions*

Modal words and parenthetical expressions make up one more group of function words. The difference between conjunctions and modal words is quite evident — modal words do not serve as connectors between the sentences in the text. The scope of action of modal words is only the

sentence in which they are used. They show the speaker's personal attitude to his own statement. Modal words are indispensable in natural communication. If we drop the modal word in the sentence *Foolishly, I didn't check my e-mail yesterday*, the objective information will remain but the subjective information will disappear. The attitude of the speaker to what he is saying may be of different kinds: evaluation of the statement (*luckily, happily, fortunately, etc.*), degree of probability (*possibly, admittedly, evidently, etc.*) or the speaker may find it necessary to provide his viewpoint, opinion or commentary remarks (*significantly, importantly, foolishly, etc.*). Accordingly, modal words are classified into three groups: evaluative, suppositional and commentary:

1. Evaluative modal words: *fortunately, luckily, happily, unfortunately, foolishly, regrettably, etc.*
2. Suppositional modal words: *admittedly, apparently, possibly, evidently, surely, certainly, perhaps, maybe, probably, presumably, obviously, seemingly, etc.*
3. Commentary modal words: *significantly, frankly, naturally, curiously, surprisingly, importantly, normally, hopefully, etc.*

The list of the modal words provided here is not full and is, in fact, much longer.

Sometimes, it seems difficult to provide a borderline between some *ly*-adverbs used in a detached position and modal words as they both appear to belong to the same part of speech. Compare the following example:

Reluctantly, the girl gave Javy the key. The difference, however, is evident: *adverbs*, even in a detached position, always modify the verb (in this case the verb *gave*) they possess a definitely identified syntactic function (in his case — adverbial modifier of manner) while modal words refer to the whole sentence. Compare: *Admittedly, the girl gave Javy the key* where the modal word *admittedly* modifies the whole sentence expressing the speaker's attitude to what he is saying.

LECTURE 10

THE ARTICLE IN MODERN ENGLISH

I. General characteristics of the article as a part of speech

The article is a function word, which means it has no lexical meaning and is devoid of nominative function. Semantically the article can be viewed as a linguistic unit representing some conceptual content without naming it. If analyzed in its relation to the conceptual reality, the article proves to be an operator, i.e. a marker of some cognitive operation, like identification, classification, and the like.

The articles of English serve the functions of determining or pointing out the particularized or generalized nature or aspect of the meaning of the nouns or words they modify.

The articles *a* and *an* are modified forms of the word *one*; the article *the* is a modified form of an older demonstrative *that*. In a sense, these older meanings still hold true as a guide to the use of the articles in Modern English. Their correct use is that of determiners in making important distinctions in meaning clear and precise.

It is not a secret that articles often turn into stumbling blocks for students of English, especially for those whose first language is synthetic. Different language types represent different mentalities. Therefore, one of the ways to learn to use articles correctly is developing the necessary communicative skills through countless repetition, which can only be achieved in a corresponding

language environment. Another way is trying to develop a system of rules governing the use of articles in the language by understanding the basic principles of their functioning. This is what we are going to do; though of course, both methods complement one another. A language student needs both theory and practice.

There are two articles in English: the definite article "the" and the indefinite one "a". It has become a tradition to also single out the so-called "zero" article, which is found in the contexts where neither the definite nor the indefinite article is used. It is better to speak of the zero article rather than of the absence of the article for the same reason that we ascribe the zero marker to the "unmarked" member of the opposition.

The answer to the question "what do we need articles for?" cannot be too simple. We might have to enumerate quite a few functions articles can be used in. Some of them are common for all the three articles; others are only characteristic of individual function words. This is what we are going to speak of.

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2. Articles as Determiners

The invariant function of all the articles (i.e. the function all of them are used in) is that of **determination**. Any human language has a system of devices used to determine words as parts of speech. In analytical languages the article is the basic noun determiner. In synthetic languages, like Ukrainian and Russian, the same function is performed by inflexions.

E.g. Read the verse from the book by L.Carroll "Alice in Wonderland", comment on determiners and compare with the Russian translation:

<i>Twas brillig, and the slithy toves</i>	<i>Варкадось, хливіквіе шорькі</i>
<i>Did gyre and gimble in the wabe.</i>	<i>Пырялись по наве.</i>
<i>All mimsy were the borogoves,</i>	<i>И хрюкотали зелюки,</i>
<i>And the mome raths outgrabe...</i>	<i>Как мюмзики в мове,</i>

3. Articles as the Theme-and-Rheme Markers

The second function the articles can be used in is that of the **theme-and-rheme** markers. As you know, the theme is the information already known, and the rheme is the semantic focus of the utterance, the new idea that is being introduced. An utterance where there is only the rheme cannot be understood. For example, if someone entered the room and said something like that to you, "*What about a wedding dress for Jane?*" you would not understand anything, for there are three rhematic pieces of information in this utterance:

1. Jane (you don't know who she is).
2. Jane's forthcoming marriage.
3. You have to take care of Jane's wedding dress.

Utterances that contain only the theme sound ridiculous. Can you imagine someone saying something like that, "*Let me share something important with you. This is a table*". You would probably think something is wrong with this person.

Traditionally the grammatical subject coincides with the theme, and the grammatical predicate is the rheme of the utterance. Still there are situations where there are disagreements between grammatical and communicative subjects and predicates.

In languages like Ukrainian or Russian the final position of the word in the sentence is rhematic, and the initial position is thematic. In English the same function is performed by the indefinite and the definite articles correspondingly. It is important to remember this principle when you translate something into English, for example:

*До юннаты увійшов чоловік. A man entered the room.
Чоловік увійшов до кімнати. The man entered the room.*

4. Articles as Generalizers

The object denoted by the word is called the "**referent**". Referents can be concrete, if something is said about a concrete object or phenomenon, and general if what we say is true for the whole class of objects. E.g., / have a dog at home (a concrete dog).

The dog is man's friend (any dog). In the second sentence, the definite article is used as a generalizer. The generalizing function can be performed by the definite, the indefinite and the zero article as well. The zero article is used in the plural or with uncountable nouns, for example: *Dogs are smart. Iron is a metal.* When concrete nouns are used in generic sense, they are usually preceded by the definite article. The indefinite article may be used when two classes of objects are compared, for example: *A dog is stronger than a cat* If asked for an explanation, we would say that the general conclusion about the strength of cats and dogs is first made on the level of individuals, i.e. to determine who is stronger we would probably have to get a dog and a cat to fight. Then we would pick up another dog and another cat, until some general conclusion could be drawn. This is the reason the indefinite article appears in this sentence.

It is also important to remember that different parts of the utterance have to agree with one another semantically. So, the articles are mostly used in their generalizing function in utterances characterized by generic reference, for example:

The noun is a part of speech which denotes substance. The tragedy of life is indifference.

5. Articles as Concretizers

The generalizing function of articles is opposed to that of concretizing. The latter is realized through some specific functions which are different for definite, indefinite and zero articles.

A) FUNCTIONS OF THE INDEFINITE ARTICLE

The indefinite article can be used in four functions: 1. The classifying function

2. The indefinitizing function

3. The introductory function

4. The quantifying function

Each of them is realized under specific contextual conditions.

I. The classifying function of the indefinite article is realized in the so-called classifying utterances. Their invariant sentence pattern is: N1 + Vbe + N2. Those are:

a) structures with the verb "to be", for example:

This is a computer.

b) exclamatory sentences beginning with "what" or "such".

E.g. *What a long story! He is such a nuisance!*

c) sentences including an adverbial modifier of manner or comparison,

for example:

E.g., *You look like a rose! She works as a teacher.*

2. The indefinitizing function is realized when the referent of the noun is not a real thing, but it exists in the speaker's imagination only. Those are sentences containing modal verbs or verbs with modal meaning, forms of the Subjunctive Mood, Future Tense forms, negative and interrogative sentences.

E.g., *I wish I had a home like you do. Have you ever seen a tiger?*

3. The introductory function is realized when, before sharing some information about the object, we need to introduce it to the hearer. Fairy tales can be used as ideal illustrations of the use of the indefinite article in its introductory function.

E.g., *Once upon a time there lived an old man. He had a wife and a daughter. He lived in a small house.*

4. The quantifying function: the indefinite article developed from the numeral "one". The meaning of "oneness" is still preserved when the article is used with nouns denoting measure, like "a minute", "a year" or "a pound".

B) FUNCTIONS OF THE DEFINITE ARTICLE

The definite article may be used in the following functions:

1. The identifying function

When we speak, we may want to point out to something that both the hearer and we perceive with our organs of feeling. There are five different ways of getting the information about something existing in the objective reality. We can see it (Do you like the picture?), hear it (I believe, the music is too loud), feel it (The pillow is so soft!), smell it (What is the name of the perfume?) or taste it (The soup tastes bitter).

2. The definitizing function

The object or thing denoted by the noun is presented as a part of some complex. In modern linguistics, the term "frame" is often used. The frame is a structurally organized system of images. For example, the frame "classroom" includes a window, a blackboard and a door. So if both the speaker and the hearer know what classroom they are speaking of, the constituents of the classroom do not need any special concretization and the indefinite article will be used.

E.g., *want to talk to the dean* (even if you have never met the man).

3. The individualizing function

The object in question may be presented as a unique thing with the hearer's attention focused on its distinguishing features, which are represented with the help of a particularizing attribute. The object is singled out from the class it belongs to. The particularizing attribute can be expressed by:

a) adjectives in the superlative degree: e.g., *This is the easiest way out.*

b) ordinal numerals: e.g., *I have forgotten the first word.*

c) attributive relative restrictive clauses: e.g., *I need the book I bought yesterday.*

C) FUNCTIONS OF THE ZERO ARTICLE

In most cases, the zero article performs the same functions as the indefinite one. The difference is that the combinability of the latter is restricted to the group of countable nouns used in the singular form, whereas the zero article combines with uncountable nouns and countable nouns in the plural.

E.g. *It was a large room with windows.*

The toasts were in champagne.

Still, there are situations where the zero article is used in its specific functions which are different from those of the indefinite article. When used with the zero article, the noun loses its

general grammatical meaning of thingness to a certain degree and acquires the meaning of qualitiveness. For example, the nouns "day" and "night" used with the zero article stand for "light" and "darkness" rather than time units.

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LECTURE 11 THE NOUN

1. General characteristics of the noun as apart of speech

The noun is the central lexical unit of language. It is the main nominative unit of speech. Traditionally grammarians tried to define a noun as "the name for person, place or thing", but this does not work. Clearly, for example, *red* is the name of a color, and so, by this definition, it should be a noun — and yet it is most usually an adjective, as in *red pencil*.

Like any part of speech, nouns can be adequately defined only in terms of their grammatical behavior. The best way of identifying nouns is to use a suitable grammatical frame. Consider two frames *The — was nice* and *The — were nice*. If you can put a single word into one of these blanks to make a correct sentence, then that word must be a noun, because the grammar of English always allows nouns, and only nouns, to appear in these positions.

As any other part of speech, the noun can be characterized by three criteria: **semantic** (the meaning), **morphological** (the form and grammatical categories) and **syntactical** (functions, distribution).

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

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

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

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

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

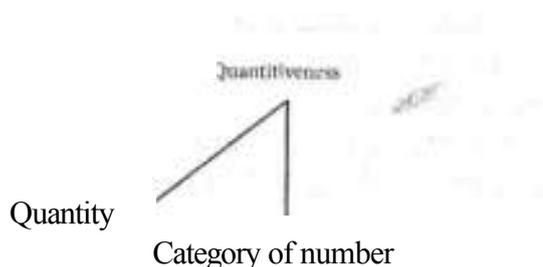
Morphological features of the noun. In accordance with the morphological structure of the stems all nouns can be classified into: simple, derived (stem + affix, affix + stem — *thingness*); compound (stem+ stem — *armchair*) and composite (the Hague). The noun has morphological categories of number and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

Syntactic features of the noun. The noun can be used in the sentence in all syntactic functions but predicate. Speaking about noun combinability, we can say that it can go into right-hand and left-hand connections with practically all parts of speech. That is why practically all parts of speech but the verb can act as noun determiners. However, the most common noun determiners are considered to be articles, pronouns, numerals, adjectives and nouns themselves in the common and genitive case.

2. The Category of Number

Number is a category which relates most directly to the number of entities. For human beings, the number of people or objects under discussion is often of some importance, and our languages typically provide us with a rich vocabulary for making limitless distinctions along this dimension: *none, one, three, twenty-seven, one-half 0.42, about a hundred, some, few, many, no more than four, a handful*, and so on. So far these distinctions have nothing to do with grammar. But it is perfectly possible for a language to build some of these distinctions into its grammar — not all of them, of course — and a language which does so has the grammatical category of number.

The grammatical category of number is the linguistic representation of the objective category of quantity:



The number category is realized through the opposition of two form-classes: the plural form :: the singular form. The category of number in English is restricted in its realization because of the dependent implicit grammatical meaning of countableness/uncountableness. The number category is realized only within subclass of countable nouns.

The grammatical meaning of number may not coincide with the notional quantity: the noun in the singular does not necessarily denote one object while the plural form may be used to denote one object consisting of several parts. The singular form may denote:

- a) oneness (individual separate object — *a cat*);
- b) generalization (the meaning of the whole class — '*the cat is a domestic animal*);
- c) indiscreteness (or uncountableness, e.g. *money, milk*).

The plural form may denote:

- a) the existence of several objects (e.g. *cats*);
- b) the inner discreteness (e.g. *jeans*).

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

1. The nouns in which the opposition of explicit discreteness/indiscreteness is expressed: *catr.cats*;

4. Case Grammar. Charles Fillmore introduced syntactic-semantic classification of cases. They show relations in the so-called deep structure of the sentence. According to him, in the basic structure of sentences there is a tenseless set of relationships involving verbs and nouns. Case notions comprise a set of universal, presumable innate concepts which identify certain types of judgments human beings are capable of making about the events that are going on around them, judgments about such matters as who did it, who it happened to, and what got changed. Therefore, verbs may stand to different relations to nouns. According to Ch. Fillmore 6 cases can be distinguished:

- 1) Agentive Case (A), the case when the animate doer performs an action or state identified by the verb, e.g. *John opened the door*,
- 2) Instrumental case (I), the case when the force or object that performs the action or state identified by the verb is inanimate, e.g. *The key opened the door*;
- 3) Dative Case (D), the case of the animate being affected by the state or action identified by the verb: *John believed that he would win*;
- 4) Factitive Case (F), the case of the object or being resulted from the action or state identified by the verb, or understood as a part of meaning of the verb: *The key was damaged*;
- 5) Locative Case (L), the case which identifies the location or spatial orientation of the state or action identified by the verb: *Chicago is windy*;
- 6) Objective case (O), the semantically most neutral case, the case of anything representable by a noun whose role in the action or state identified by the verb is identified by the semantic representation of the verb itself; conceivably the concept should be limited to things which are affected by the action or state identified by the verb: *The sun rises in the East*.

4. The problem of Gender in English

(Sender plays a relatively minor part in the grammar of English by comparison with its role in many other languages. There is no gender concord, and the reference of the pronouns *he, she, it* is very largely determined by what is sometimes referred to as "natural" gender for English, it depends upon the classification of persons and objects as male, female or inanimate. Thus, the recognition of gender as a grammatical category is logically independent of any particular semantic association. The majority of the English language analysts (for example, B. Ilyish, F. Palmer, E. Morokhovskaya, R. L. Trask) consider that nouns have no category of gender in Modern English. Professor B. Ilyish states that not a single word in Modern English shows any peculiarities in its morphology due to its denoting male or female being. Thus, the words *husband* and *wife* do not show any difference in their forms due to peculiarities of their lexical meaning. The difference between such nouns as *actor* and *actress* is a purely lexical one. According to Frank Palmer, the grammatical category of gender was recognized in the English language because gender is assumed to be characteristic of all languages because of Latin and is therefore assumed to be a category of English, but there is no evidence for grammatical distinctions in terms of a sex relationship, especially in the ending — *ess*: *tiger, tigress; duke, duchess, etc.* It is not enough to have different endings for the pair of words; they must also involve grammatical features of a syntactic nature. In other words, the category of gender should not be confused with the category of sex, because sex is an objective biological category. It correlates with gender only when sex differences of living beings are manifested in the language grammatically (e.g. *tiger — tigress*). R.L. Trask stresses that grammatical gender need have nothing to do with sex. The word comes from the Latin *genus*, meaning "kind". In the so-called gender languages (Ukrainian, Russian, French, German, etc) there is a noticeable correlation between sex and gender assignment, but however, most nouns denote things that have no sex, and yet they must still be assigned to gender. Moreover, sometimes sex plays no part at all in gender assignment.

Still, other scholars (for example, M. Blokh, J. Lyons) admit the existence of the category of gender. Professor M. Blokh states that the existence of the category of gender in Modern English can be proved by the correlation of nouns with personal pronouns of the third person (*he, she, it*), though the majority of scholars stress the fact that these pronouns are used for sex reference. Accordingly, M. Blokh singles out three genders in English: the neuter (non-person) gender, the masculine gender, the feminine gender.

LECTURE 12 THE VERB

I. General characteristics of the verb as a part of speech

The class of verbs is universal: no language has ever been discovered which lacked a distinct class of verbs. The most prototypical verbs denote actions performed by an agent, such as run, sing, throw, hit and give. But many other items are verbs even though they have less typical meanings, such as sleep, believe, understand, elapse, ensure, become, seem, have and be. time. This meaning is inherent not only in the verbs denoting processes, but also in those denoting states, forms of existence, evaluations, etc.

Morphological features of the verb. The verb possesses the following grammatical categories: tense, aspect, voice, mood, person and number, and phase. Some scholars admit the existence of the category of finitude on the grounds that the verb forms are opposed to each other as finite:non-finite but this question is disputable. The common categories for finite and non-finite forms are voice, aspect, and phase. The grammatical categories of the English verb find their expression in synthetical and analytical forms. The formative elements expressing these categories are *grammatical affixes, inner inflexion* and *function words*. Some categories have only synthetical forms (*person, number*), others — only analytical (*voice*). There are also categories expressed by both synthetical and analytical forms (*mood, tense, aspect*).

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

2. Classifications of English verbs

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

A. Morphological classifications:

I. According to their stem-types all verbs fall into: simple (*to go*), sound-replacive (*food — to feed, blood — to bleed*), stress-replacive (*import — to import, transport — to transport, expanded* (formed with the help of suffixes and prefixes): *cultivate, justify, overcome*,

composite (correspond to composite nouns): *to blackmail*), phrasal: *to have a smoke, to give a smile* (they always have an ordinary verb as an equivalent). II. According to the way of forming past tenses and Participle II verbs can be regular and irregular.

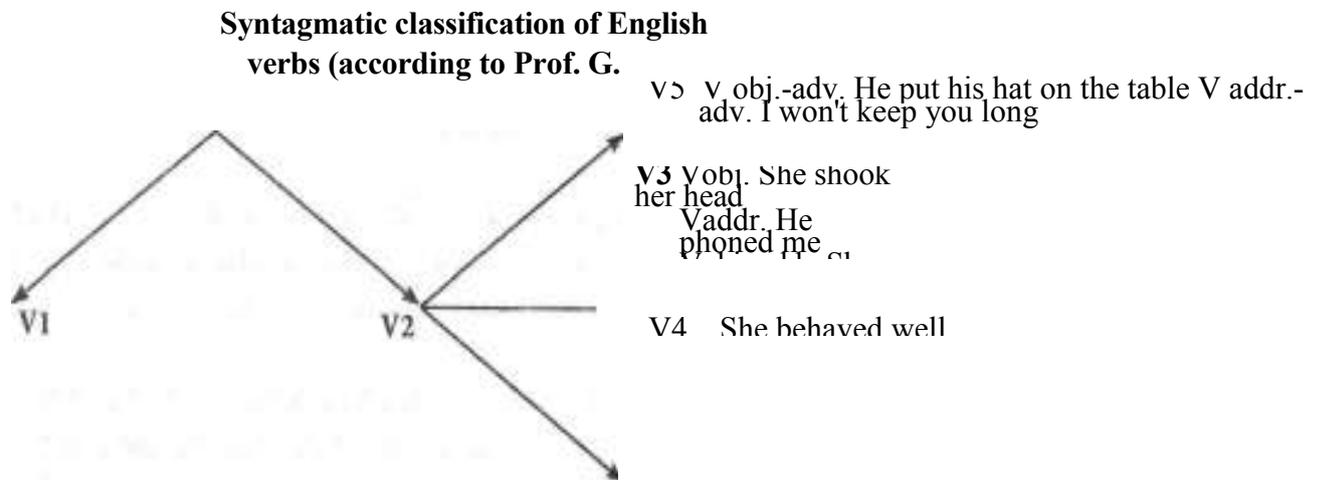
BLexical-morphological classification is based on the implicit grammatical meanings of the verb. Various subclass divisions based on different types of the implicit grammatical meaning can be found within the class of verb.

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

C. Syntactic classifications:

I. According to the nature of predication (primary and secondary) all verbs fall into finite and non-finite.

II. According to syntagmatic properties, or valency — a potential ability of words to combine, verbs can be of obligatory (V2) and optional valency (VI), and thus they may have some directionality (V2) or be devoid of any directionality (VI). In this way verbs fall into the verbs of a directed (*to see, to take, etc.*) and non-directed action (*to arrive, to drizzle, etc.*) The verbs of the directed action, in their turn, fall into three groups: V3 — the verbs of objective directionality, V4 — the verbs of adverbial directionality and V5 — the verbs of mixed directionality:



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

3. General survey of the grammatical categories of the verb

The following grammatical categories find expression in the English verb forms:

Tense, denoting the reflection of objective divisions of time — present, past, and future, plus, in English, time viewed from some point in the past, the so-called future-in-the-past which will be named "future II" as opposed to "future I" (simple future);

Mood, expressing any supposition, non-fact (the subjunctive and conditional moods) as opposed to the expression of fact (the indicative mood) or command (the imperative mood);

Voice, which denotes in the form of the verb that the subject of the action is acted upon (in the majority of cases), is not the agent of the action in the passive voice, as opposed to the active voice;

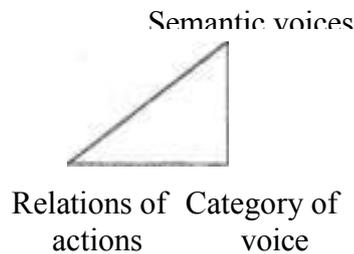
Aspect (duration), which marks the duration of the action in the form of the verb, as opposed to unmarked duration in the other member of aspectual oppositions;

Phase (temporal relativity), marking the anteriority of the action to the temporal axis of orientation (present, past, etc.), as opposed to simultaneity of the action with the temporal axis;

Person-number, which should be considered a joint category, as it has one common exponent -s in the 3rd person singular, present, or finds formal expression in the auxiliaries be and have; it stands outside meaningful oppositions in the verbal system. The paradigmatic system of the verb adapted to the expression of grammatical categories is structured according to some definite principles and presents a systemic organization of correlated elements, both in form and in meaning due to the fact that grammatical categories are always relational.

4. The Category of Voice

Voice is a grammatical category governing the way the subject of a sentence is related to the action of the verb. It is usually the form of the verb that shows whether the agent expressed by the subject is the doer of the action or the recipient of the action (*John broke the vase — The vase was broken*). The objective relations between the action and the subject or object of the action find their expression in language as the grammatical category of voice. The category of voice reflects the objective relations between the actions itself and the subject or object of the action. It may be shown with the help of a triangle model:



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

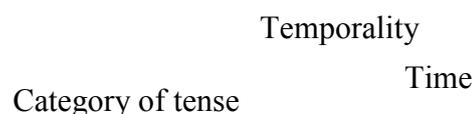
1. Verbs used only transitively, e.g.: *to mark, to raise*;
2. Verbs with the main transitive meaning, e.g.: *to see, to make, to build*;
3. Verbs of intransitive meaning and secondary transitive meaning. A lot of intransitive verbs may develop a secondary transitive meaning, e.g.: *They laughed me into agreement; He danced the girl out of the room*;
4. Verbs of a double nature, neither of the meanings is the leading one, the verbs can be used both transitively and intransitively: *to drive home — to drive a car*;
5. Verbs that are never used in the Passive Voice: *to seem, to become*;
6. Verbs that realize their passive meaning only in special contexts: *to live, to sleep, to sit, to walk, to jump*.

Some scholars admit the existence of Middle, Reflexive and Reciprocal voices. In the so-called "Middle **Voice**" the verbs primarily transitive may develop an intransitive middle meaning: *That adds a lot; The door opened; The book sells easily; The dress washes well*. In the so-called "**Reflexive Voice**" the subject is both the agent and the recipient of the action at the same time: *He dressed; He washed*. It is always possible to use a reflexive pronoun in this case: *He washed himself*. In the so-called "**Reciprocal voice**" (*They met; They kissed*) it is always possible to use a reciprocal pronoun: *They kissed each other*.

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

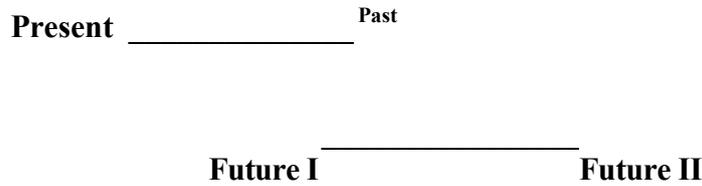
5. The Category of Tense

The category of tense is a verbal category that reflects the objective category of time. It correlates with the conceptual category of temporality.



The essential characteristic feature of the category of tense is that it relates the time of the action, event or state of affairs referred to in the sentence to the time of the utterance (the time of the

utterance being "now" or the present moment). The tense category is realized through a number of oppositions. The binary principle of oppositions remains the basic one in the correlation of the forms that represent the grammatical category of tense. The present moment is the main temporal plane of verbal actions. Therefore, the temporal dichotomy may be illustrated by the following graphic representation (the arrows show the binary opposition):

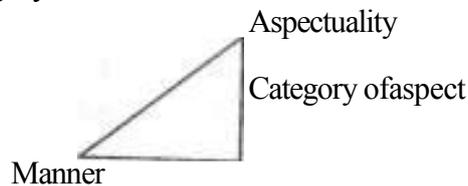


Generally speaking, the major tense-distinction in English is undoubtedly that which is traditionally described as an opposition of past:present. But this is best regarded as a contrast of past::non-past. Quite a lot of scholars do not recognize the existence of future tenses, because what is described as the "future" tense in English is realized by means of auxiliary verbs *will* and *shall*. Although it is undeniable that *will* and *shall* occur in many sentences that refer to the future, they also occur in sentences that do not. And they do not necessarily occur in sentences with a future time reference. That is why future tenses are often treated as partly modal. The symmetry of the English tense system, its structural regularity produces another, controversial to it feature, which may be defined as redundancy. Thus it is a well-known fact that such sets as the Future Perfect Continuous (I and II) and the Future Perfect II are practically never actualized in speech, but they do exist in the system, they may be formed from any verb (with some lexical restrictions which only confirm the rule). Such forms are redundant because they exist in the tense system but become not needed where their usage is concerned.

6. The Category of Aspect

Aspect is a grammatical category representing distinctions in the temporal structure of an event. Quite independently of its location in time, an event may be viewed as having a number of different temporal organizations: it may be seen as having internal structure or as consisting

of an unanalysable whole; it may be seen as extending over a period of time or as occurring in a single moment; it may be seen as a single occurrence or as a series of repeated occurrences; it may be seen as beginning, continuing or ending. The grammatical category of aspect is a linguistic representation of the objective category defined as Manner of action. The triangle below shows how the objective category correlates with the conceptual category and is represented in language as the grammatical category:



This category is realized through the opposition Continuous::Non-Continuous (Progressive::Non-Progressive). The realization of the category of aspect is closely connected with the implicit grammatical meaning of stativeness/non-stativeness and the lexical meaning of verbs.

The purpose of the continuous set is to serve as a frame which makes the process of the action more concrete and isolated. Duration expressed in the continuous sets cannot be limitless. This accounts for the fact that some verbs in English do not normally occur with the progressive aspect, even in those contexts in which the majority of verbs necessarily take the progressive form. Among the so-called "non-progressive" verbs are *think, understand, know, hate, love, see, taste, feel, possess, own*, etc. The most essential characteristic feature that they have in common is that they are "stative" —

they refer to a state of affairs, rather than to an action, event or process. It should be observed, however, that all the "non-progressive" verbs can take the progressive aspect under particular circumstances. As the result of internal transposition, verbs of non-progressive nature can be found in the Continuous form: *Now I'm knowing you*. Generally speaking, the Continuous form has two semantic distinctive features — duration (the action is always in progress) and definiteness (the action is always limited to a definite point or period of time).

7. *Vie Category of Phase*

The category of phase (it is also called "Perfect" or "Temporal Relativity") is a significational category. It finds its realization through the opposition Perfect Phase:: Non-Perfect Phase. It is closely connected with the category of tense and, in fact, does not exist separately.

The scope of relative temporal meanings rendered by the category of phase usually shows the degree of completeness of the action expressed by the perfect form. It is due to the terminative or non-terminative meaning inherent in the verb as a concrete lexical unit. Thus the verbs of terminative lexical character acquire the meaning of a completed action: *Think a moment what you have said!* The Perfect (the Present Perfect) can also indicate the connection of the past action with the present: *Have you seen this movie?* However, if the action is cut off from the present the Past Indefinite will express the same idea: *Did you see this movie?*

Non-terminative verbs develop the meaning of an action anterior to the moment of speech, but spreading into the present moment, or completed on the threshold of the present (the Present Perfect): *I have kept you all the time for nothing!*

Generally speaking the perfect set on all temporal planes has a general categorial meaning of anteriority to the given axis of orientation, and is a purely relative tense.

8. *The Category of Mood*

The grammatical category of mood expresses the degree or kind of reality attached to an utterance. The category of mood is a significational category that correlates with nothing in the objective reality because it expresses the attitude of the speaker to what he is saying. Graphically it may be shown in the following way:

Modality



Mood

Grammatically the category of mood is realized through the set of two oppositions: The Indicative Mood::The Subjunctive Mood and The Indicative Mood::The Imperative Mood. The Indicative Mood in this case is an unmarked member of both oppositions.

There are, however, some lexical means used as markers of the speakers conceptual modality: modal verbs, modal words and some verbs with the meaning of supposition, certainty or doubt.

SYNTAX LECTURE 13

SYNTACTIC THEORIES. BASIC SYNTACTIC NOTIONS

1. *General characteristics of syntax*

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

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

Syntax, on the other hand, deals with the way words are combined. It is concerned with the external functions of words and their relationship to other words within the linearly ordered units — word-groups, sentences and texts. Syntax studies the way in which the units and their meanings are combined. It also deals with peculiarities of syntactic units, their behavior in different contexts.

Syntactic units may be analyzed from different points of view, and accordingly, different syntactic theories exist. They are, in fact, different approaches to the language study or different ways of linguistic analysis.

The first European steps in the examination of syntax were taken by the ancient Greeks, beginning with Aristotle, who first divided sentences into subjects and predicates. Thereafter, progress was slow, and toward the middle of the twentieth century syntax was lagging far behind morphology.

In the 1950s the American linguist Noam Chomsky presented his transformational grammar. According to him, syntax was not only tractable but the very heart of serious linguistic investigation, and he persuaded a generation of linguists that he was correct. As a result, the study of syntax became vastly more prominent than formerly.

This recent concentration of effort upon syntactic problems has uncovered a wealth of fascinating data and led to innumerable theoretical interpretations. The linguist R.L. Trask gives two examples of the many striking phenomena discovered in English.

First, he suggests considering the following four virtually identical-looking sentences:

1. *After Lisa got up, she had a shower.*
2. *After she got up, Lisa had a shower.*
3. *Lisa had a shower after she got up.* •
4. *She had a shower after Lisa got up.*

In the first three of these, *she* can possibly refer to *Lisa*, but, in the fourth, it cannot.

Second, the sentence *It is easy to annoy Janet* can be readily recast as *Janet is easy to annoy*, but the similar-looking *It is inadvisable to annoy Janet* cannot be recast as **Janet is inadvisable to annoy* (^ indicates ungrammatically).

Facts like these, previously unnoticed and largely unsuspected, have provided the grist of decades of syntactic investigation and theorizing, and quite a number of different theories of grammar have been put forward and developed.

2. Syntactic theories

Transformational-Generative Grammar (or Generative Grammar)

was initially worked out by the American linguist Zellig Harris as a method of analyzing sentences and was later elaborated by another American scholar Noam Chomsky as a synthetic method of "generating" (constructing) sentences. In 1957 the young American linguist N. Chomsky published *Syntactic Structures*, a brief and watered down summary of several years of original research. In that book and, in his succeeding publications, N. Chomsky made a number of revolutionary proposals: he introduced the idea of generative grammar, developed a particular kind of generative grammar called transformational grammar, rejected his American predecessors' emphasis on the description of data — in favor of a highly theoretical approach based upon a search for universal principles of language (later called universal grammar) — proposed to turn linguistics firmly into towards mentalism, and laid the foundations for integrating the field into as yet unnamed new discipline of cognitive science (see Ch. 5 — "Cognitive Linguistics").

The main point of the Transformational-Generative Grammar is that the endless variety of sentences in a language can be reduced to a finite number of kernels by means of transformations. These kernels serve the basis for generating sentences by means of syntactic processes. Different language analysts recognize the existence of different number of kernels (from 3 to 39). The following 6 kernels are commonly associated with the English language:

- (1) NV — *John sings.*
- (2) NVAdj. — *John is happy.*
- (3) NVN — *John is a man.*
- (4) NVN — *John hit the man.*
- (5) NVNN — *John gave the man a book.*
- (6) NVPrep.N — *III book is on the table.*

It should be noted that (3) differs from (4) because the former admits no passive transformation.

Transformational method proves useful for analyzing sentences from the point of their deep structure, e.g.;

Flying planes can be dangerous.

This sentence is ambiguous, two senses can be distinguished: a) the action of flying planes can be dangerous, b) the planes that fly can be dangerous. Therefore it can be reduced to the following kernels:

- | | |
|-----------------------------------|-----------------------------------|
| a) <i>Planes can be dangerous</i> | b) <i>Planes can be dangerous</i> |
| <i>X (pe ople) fly planes</i> | <i>Planes fly</i> |

The appearance of N. Chomsky's Transformational Grammar (T-Grammar) and its long lasting popularity all over the world, especially in the US A*, can also be explained by the fact that in the previous centuries languages were studied exclusively for the purpose of reading their literatures. But the speed and frequency of international communication have outstripped the speed of teaching and learning languages. It became clear that a systemic scientific investigation is needed to advance the teaching of languages. Linguistics faced the task of working out an efficient workable theory to be applied to tackle practical problems, such as information data processing, electronic machine translation, patterning, aural comprehension of speech and others which seem to have direct, application to classroom language teaching. N. Chomky's theory of T-grammar has to solve two fundamental problems, such as:

- (1) why a young child has the ability to gain in a short time and with no special tuition, a command of his native language;
- (2) why people speak their native languages however complex they may be.

The T-Grammar provided the following explanations:

- (1) Any language contains a rather small number of kernel sentences and other linguistic units (such as phonemes and morphemes), and all the other linguistic forms, sentences of different structure, are derived or generated from these kernel elements by certain derivation rules which are not very numerous or difficult.
- (2) It is the simplicity and regularity of the structure of any language that makes it possible for a child to grasp it and for human communities to speak it.

The sets of rules showing how a sentence is generated are called "rewrite rule" or "rewriting rules". Below are the representative rewrite rules for the sentence *The man hit the ball*. Each rule is numbered and the sign of the arrow means "rewrite":

- (1) Sentence----- -* NP + VP

- (2) NP -----► T + N (T is a determiner)
 (3) VP -----> V + NP
 (4) T ----- the
 (5) N -----* man, ball, etc.
 (6) Verb -----* hit, took, etc.

Given this set consisting of six rules one can generate an English sentence or a number of sentences changing only the N and the transitive V, in accord with the situation he speaks about.

The generation of the sentence must proceed with the change of only one element at the application of each rule. The procedure of generating is as follows:

Applying rule (1) to Sentence we get: NP + VP Applying rule (2): T + N + VP
 Applying rule (3): T + N + Verb + NP Applying rule (4): The + N + Verb + NP
 Applying rule (5): The + man + Verb + NP Applying rule (6): The + man + hit + NP;
 For the second NP the same rules are applied: Applying rule (2): The + man + hit + T
 + N : The + man + hit + the +N The + man + hit + the + ball
 In this way a sentence may be generated in a very exact form.

Chomsky's ideas excited a whole generation of students; since American universities were expanding rapidly in the early 1960s, these students quickly found jobs and began developing the field, and within a few years Chomskyan linguistics (4) Applying has become the new orthodoxy in the USA. Before long, Chomsky's ideas had crossed the Atlantic and established themselves in Europe. Today they are still popular among the community of linguists all over the world.

Constructional Syntax or Constructional Analysis of syntactic units was initiated by Professor G. Pocheptsov in his book published in Kyiv in 1971. This analysis deals with the constructional significance/ insignificance of a part of the sentence for the whole syntactic unit. The theory is based on the obligatory or optional environment of syntactic elements. For example, the element *him* in the sentence / *saw him there yesterday* is constructionally significant because it is impossible to omit it. At the same time, the elements *there* and *yesterday* are constructionally insignificant — they can be omitted without destroying the whole structure.

Communicative Syntax is primarily concerned with the analysis of utterances from the point of their communicative value and informative structure. It is a way of classifying the elements of an utterance according to their informative content. Most utterances are not produced in isolation: instead, each is produced in some context involving what has been said previously and what is known to, or believed by, the speaker and the listener. As a result, it is often the case that some part of an utterance serves only to tie it to this context, while another part introduces some kind of new information. We therefore speak of the given/new information. The given part of the utterance represents the part which is already familiar to the listener in one way or another, while the new part represents the main contribution of the utterance. The analysis of utterances in terms of their organization of information is carried out under the name of functional sentence perspective, or actual division of the utterance. The term "theme" ("or topic") is used instead of the term "given", while "rheme" ("comment") is used to identify new information. Both elements constitute the informative structure of utterances. Depending on the contextual informative value any sentence element can act as the theme or the rheme, e.g.:

- 1) *Who is at home?* — *John is at home.*
- 2) *Where is John?* — *John is at home.*

4. *A brief outline of modern approaches to analyzing syntactic units*

Textlinguistics studies the text as a syntactic unit, its main features and peculiarities, different ways of its analysis. The appearance of this theory is closely connected with the name of Michael Halliday,

a linguist, who paid attention to the textual function of language. The textual function is the linking of linguistic elements to other linguistic elements, so that the various parts of the text can be integrated into a coherent and cohesive whole and related to the wider context of our speech and writing.

Pragmatic approach to the study of syntactic units can be briefly described as the study of the way language is used in particular contexts to achieve particular goals. It is closely connected with the **Speech Act** Theory which was first introduced by John Austin. 'The notion of a speech act presupposes that an utterance can be said with different intentions or purposes and therefore can influence the speaker and situation in different ways:

I just state the fact;
I want you to do something about it (close the window);
It's cold here I'm threatening you;
I'm seeking for an excuse for not doing something;
I want you to feel guilty of it;
Etc.

Accordingly, we can distinguish different speech acts.

Of special interest here is the problem of indirect speech acts, for example, the question *Are you leaving already?* can be understood as a request not to leave. In our everyday activities we use indirect speech acts rather willingly because it is the best way to influence people, to get what we want and be polite at the same time.

Discourse analysis focuses on the study of language use with reference to the social and psychological factors that influence communication. In other words, it can be explained as the study of texts within their social context. This approach is primarily interested in the social context in which the text is written, why this or that text was constructed, to whom it is addressed. Besides, discourse analysis puts forward the following

questions: Does the author of the text (speaker or writer) have concealed purposes, and, if so, what are they? What hidden assumptions and biases underlie the text? What strategies and tactics are used by communicants to achieve their purposes?

Cognitive linguistics is a relatively new theory of language. This approach to the study of language is based upon human perception and conceptualization of the world. It is based on the assumption that linguistic expressions reflect a particular way of perceiving the world and accordingly, the meaning is not the property of utterances but a product of the interaction between an utterance and a human being's "knowledge base". It studies the ways in which linguistic objects and structures reflect the manner in which human beings perceive, categorize and conceptualize the world. Among the early contributions to the cognitive approach was the American theoretical linguist George Lakoff, who has written extensively on the importance of metaphor. More recently, linguists have been attempting to analyze linguistic structures in terms of conceptual and perceptual categories, location in space, events and states, mental models of real and hypothetical world objects. The American linguist Ronald Langacker has constructed a theory of grammar, called cognitive grammar, on the basis of these ideas.

Psycholinguistics is a branch of language science which focuses on the study of speech behavior of people. It also studies the connection between language and mind. To some extent, its emergence was promoted by the insistence at the time of the linguist N. Chomsky that linguistics should be regarded as a part of cognitive psychology, but there were other factors as well, notably the growing interest in the question of language acquisition, especially by children. Psycholinguistics also deals with some aspects of language processing,, the steps involved in producing and comprehending speech, the links between language and memory, the linguistic examination of reading, and possible links between perception and cognition.

A detailed study of the modern approaches to the study of syntactic units — pragmatic linguistics, textlinguistics, discourse analysis, psycholinguistics and cognitive linguistics — will be performed in the following chapters.

4. *Basic syntactic notions*

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

Syntactic unit is always a combination that has at least two constituents. The basic syntactic units are a word-group, a clause, a sentence, and a text. Their main features are:

- a) they are hierarchical units — the units of a lower level serve the building material for the units of a higher level;
- b) as all language units the syntactic units are of two-fold nature:

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

- c) they are of a communicative and non-communicative nature: word-groups and clauses are of a non-communicative nature while sentences and texts are of a communicative nature.

Syntactic meaning is the way in which separate word meanings are combined to produce meaningful word-groups and sentences. If we consider Noam Chomsky's famous example *Colourless green ideas sleep furiously*, we can say that this sentence is quite correct grammatically. However it makes no sense as it lacks a syntactic meaning.

Syntactic form may be described as the distributional formula of the unit (pattern). For example, the distributional formula of *John hits the ball* is: N1 + V + N2.

Syntactic function is the function of a unit on the basis of which it is included to a larger unit: e.g. in the word-group *a smart student* the word "smart" is in subordinate attributive relations to the head element. In traditional terms it is used to denote the syntactic function of a unit within the sentence (subject, predicate, etc.).

Syntactic position is the position of an element. The order of constituents in syntactic units is of principal importance in analytical languages. The syntactic position of an element may determine its relationship with the other elements of the same unit, e.g. *his broad back*, *a **back** district*, *to go back*, *to **back** smb*.

Syntactic relations are syntagmatic relations observed between syntactic units. They can be of three types — coordination, subordination and predication.

5. *Syntactic relations*

Syntactic units can go into three types of syntactic relations.

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

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

Predication (SR3) — syntagmatic relations of interdependence. Predication may be of two kinds — primary (sentence level) and secondary (phrase level). Primary predication is observed between the subject and the predicate of the sentence while secondary predication is observed between non-finite forms of the verb and nominal elements within the sentence. Secondary predication serves the basis for gerundial, infinitive and participial word groups (predicative complexes), e.g. / *rely on your knowing grammar; I wanted Peter to come along. We saw a cat running away, etc.*

LECTURE 14 THE SENTENCE AND THE UTTERANCE

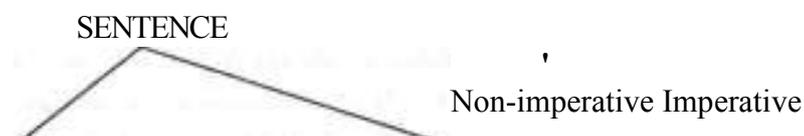
1. Main characteristics of the sentence

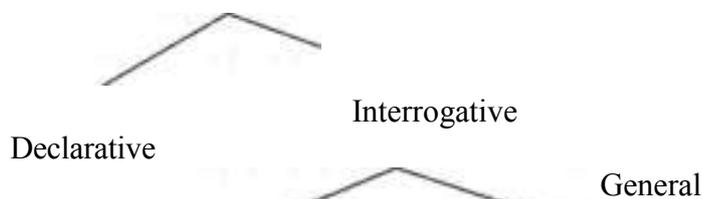
For most linguists, in most circumstances, a sentence is an abstract linguistic object: specifically it is a linguistic object put together entirely in accordance with the rules for constructing sentences in a language, rules which have to be identified in a linguistic description by thorough investigation. More particularly, a sentence does not have to be something which somebody might say or write, and not everything that we might say or write is a sentence. On the other hand, a linguistic unit may be treated as a sentence only on the basis of some formal characteristics. Consider Noam Chomsky's famous example sentence: *Colouress green ideas sleep furiously*. Chomsky's point is that, even though this thing makes no sense at all, it is constructed in accordance with all the rules for making sentences in English, and hence it is a grammatical (well- formed) sentence of English. People sometimes take advantage of this possibility of assigning different structures to grammatically correct string of words to produce a humorous effect, as in the old gag *Time flies like an arrow; fruit flies like a banana* or in the punch line of a cat-food commercial *Cats like Felix like Felix*.

Generally speaking, it is rather difficult to define the sentence as it is connected with many lingual and extra lingual aspects — logical, psychological and philosophical. We will just stick to one of them: according to Professor G. Pocheptsov, the sentence is the central syntactic construction used as the minimal communicative unit that has its primary predication, actualizes a definite structural scheme and possesses definite intonation characteristics. This definition, however, works only in case we do not take into account the difference between the sentence ami the utterance. The distinction between the sentence and the utterance is of fundamental importance because the sentence is an abstract theoretical entity defined within the theory of grammar while the utterance is the actual use of the sentence. In other words, the sentence is a unit of language and the utterance is a unit of speech.

The most essential features of the sentence as a linguistic unit are revealed in its semantic, structural and functional peculiarities.

The sentence structure is based on the subject-predicate relations thus forming a unit of primary predication. In accordance with the structural and functional peculiarities the sentence classification can be presented in the following diagram:





The semantic characteristics of the sentence can be demonstrated by its reference to some fact Special in the objective reality. It is represented in the language through the conceptual reality and can be shown with the help of a triangle model: the objective situation is reflected as conceptual a proposition and is expressed in language as a predicative unit (sentence).

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

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

2. Different approaches to the study of the sentence

a) Traditional analysis.

In accordance with the traditional syntactic analysis principal and secondary parts of the sentence are defined. The words in the sentence are analyzed depending on the syntactic functions they perform into subject, predicate (principal parts), and object, attribute and adverbial modifier (secondary parts), e.g. *John saw a wild cat in the park*, where *John* is the subject, *saw* — the predicate, *cat* — the object, *wild* — the attribute, *in the park* — adverbial modifier of place.

b) 1C analysis. Immediate constituents of the sentence.

To grasp the real structure of the English sentence, one must understand not only words that occur but also the principles of their arrangement. Each language has its own way of structural grouping. English has dichotomous phrase structure, which means that the phrase in English can always be divided into two elements (constituents) until we get down to the single word. All groups of words are arranged in levels. The name given by linguists to these different levels of relationship is immediate constituents, the analysis was called 1C analysis. Thus, one way of analyzing a sentence is to cut it to its immediate constituents, that is, to single out different levels of meaning. Consider the sentence *The little girl took her doll* and the way it is cut into immediate constituents:

The constituent structure of this sentence can be represented graphically as a tree, which shows that the sentence consists of some pieces, and each piece consists of some smaller pieces, and so on, down to the smallest pieces:

Every branch of the tree represents a single constituent of the sentence, and every constituent, or node, is labeled with a node label explaining to which syntactic category it belongs. These standard abbreviation have the following meanings: S == Sentence; NP = Noun Phrase; VP - Verb Phrase; N' - N-bar; V - Verb; AP - Adjective Phrase; A = Adjective; N = Noun. A tree of this sort is called a tree structure or a tree diagram.

It is obvious that dividing a sentence into ICs does not provide much semantic information. Nevertheless, it can sometimes prove useful if we want to account for the ambiguity of certain constructions. A classic example is the phrase *old men and women* which can be interpreted in two different ways. Ambiguity of this kind is referred to as syntactic ambiguity. By providing 1C analysis we can make the two meanings clear:

old men and women

old men and women

a) Oppositional analysis.

The oppositional analysis is based on the principle of privative oppositions. It is equally effective on different language levels: phonological, morphological and syntactical. One of its possible applications in syntax is to describe different sentence types and variants of one and the same sentence.

The oppositional method in syntax is applied to describe different simple sentence types: they possess common features and differential features. Differential features serve the basis for analysis. The rules are as follows:

Different sentence types are those that cannot be substituted for each other without changing the structural meaning of the sentence. Here belong:

- a) two-member sentences as against one-member sentences, e.g. *John worked* as against *John!* or *Work!*;
- b) sentences differing in the arrangement of the main constituents in basic sentences, e.g. *We saw a river there* as against *There is a river there*;
- c) sentences differing in the case-form of the subject-noun, e.g. *Mary was a happy girl* as against *Mary's was a happy life*.

b) Distributional analysis.

Distribution is a set of positions in which a given linguistic unit or form can appear in language. Any given linguistic element which is present in a language, whether a speech sound, a phoneme, a word, or whatever, can occur in certain positions but not in other positions. A statement of its possible positions is its distribution, and this distribution

is usually an important fact about its place in the language. For example, distribution is important for identifying parts of speech. In English, any word which can occur in the slot *This ... is nice* must be a noun because English allows only nouns to occur in this position.

Thus distribution of an element is the total of all environments in which it occurs, that is, the sum of all the positions of an element relative to the occurrence of other elements.

The distributional value of the verb *to get*, for example, can be shown by a set of its distributional formulas:

- get + N *get a present*
- get + A *get warm*
- get + Vto *get to know*
- get + Ving *get knowing*
- » get + p + Ving *get to knowing*
- get + N + Vto *get John to work*
- « get + N + Ving *get the engine working*
- get + N + Ven *get the work done*
- get + Ven *get married*

c) Constructional analysis. Syntactic processes.

According to the constructional approach, not only the subject and the predicate but also all the necessary constituents of primary predication constitute the main parts because they are constructionally significant, in other words, necessary for the structural sentence pattern. It follows that sometimes the secondary parts of the sentence are as necessary and important as the main ones. If we omit the object and the adverbial modifier in the following sentences, they will become grammatically and semantically unmarked: *Bill closed the door*; *She behaved well*.

Constructional analysis was worked out by Professor G. Pocheptsov. It is based on the assumption that every sentence is a syntactical construction, that is, it is built on the basis of a structural kernel pattern. The syntactic units can have **obligatory environment** (e.g. the verb *see* is always followed by the direct object: *He saw a house*) and **optional environment** which may or may not be realized in speech (e.g. in the sentence *He saw a house in the distance* {the adverbial modifier of place is optional}).

The smallest syntactical construction which can be obtained by omitting all optional elements of the sentence is called "kernel" or "elementary" sentence. The structural sentence types are formed on the basis of kernels (basic structures). Three main types of propositional kernels may be distinguished: N V, N is A, N is N. However, if we take into account the valence properties of the

verbs (their obligatory valence) the group will become larger (8 kernels), e.g. N1 V N2 N3: *John gave Ann the book*, N1 V N2: *I see a house*.

The kernel sentences form the basis for syntactic derivation. Syntactic derivation lies in producing more complex sentences by means of syntactic processes.

Syntactic processes may be internal and external. **Internal** syntactic processes involve no changes in the structure of the parts of the sentence. They occur within one and the same part of the sentence (subject, etc.). External syntactic processes are those that cause new relations within a syntactic unit and lead to appearance of a new part of the sentence.

The internal syntactic processes are:

Expansion	Compression
<i>The phone was ringing and ringing</i>	<i>They were laughing and singing</i>
Complication (a synt. unit becomes complicated)	Contamination (two parts of the sentence are joined together, e.g. the so-called "double

predicate"): *The moon rose red* Replacement — the use of the words that have a generalized meaning: *one, do*, etc, e.g. *I don't need this book. I'd like to take another one*.

Representation — a part of the syntactic unit represents the whole syntactic unit: *Would you like to come along? I'd love to*.

Ellipsis — the omission of a structurally element of the construction which, however, can be easily restored by the context: *Where are you going? To the movies*.

The external syntactic processes are:

Extension — *a nice dress — a nice cotton dress*.

Aioinment — it takes place while using specifying words, most often particles: *He did it — Only he did it*.

Enclosure — it takes place while inserting modal words and other discourse markers, e.g. *after all, anyway, naturally*, etc.

3. The utterance. Communicative types of utterances

Utterance may be defined as a particular piece of speech produced by a particular individual on a particular occasion. In linguistics, a sentence is an abstract linguistic object forming one part of the total expressive resources of a given language. When we speak, therefore, we do not strictly produce sentences: instead, we produce utterances. An utterance is a single piece of speech marked off as a unit in some way: for example, by pauses and intonation.

There is only one English sentence of the form *What's for dinner?* But every time you say *What's for dinner?*, you are producing a different utterance. Each of these utterances may differ noticeably from others: it may be faster or slower; louder or softer; one may be cheerful or eager, while another may be bored or suspicious, and the particular social context in which it is uttered will vary. But every one of these utterances corresponds to the same English sentence.

Moreover, an utterance need not correspond to a sentence at all. Consider the following short conversation:

A: *Where's Betsy?*

B: *In the library.*

Here A's utterance corresponds to an English sentence, but B's response does not: there is no English sentence of the form **In the library* (as the asterisk indicates). However, B's response is perfectly normal: it is just that not all of our utterances correspond to sentences. Instead, some of them correspond only to fragments of sentences.

From the viewpoint of their role in the process of communication utterances are divided into four communicative types: **declarative** (statements), **interrogative** (questions), **imperative** (requests or

commands) and **exclamatory** (they express various emotions, such as joy, anger, surprise, sorrow, etc.).

4. Informative structure of the utterance

The main categories of the utterance from the point of view of its informative structure are considered to be the theme and the rheme. They are the main components of the Functional Sentence Perspective (FSP) — actual division of the sentence (most language analysts stick to the term "sentence" but in fact they mean "utterance"). As it was mentioned in Chapter I, sometimes, in modern linguistics, the term "comment" is used instead of "theme" and "topic" — instead of "rheme".

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

1. *The rat was eaten by the cat.*
2. *It was the cat that ate the rat.*
3. *It was the rat that the cat ate.*
4. *What the cat did was ate the rat.*

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

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

1. Position in the sentence. As a rule new information in English generally comes last: *The cat ate the rat.*
2. Intonation. It signals the given and new information. Consider the following short conversation:

A: Did you see? Your cat just ate a MOUSE.

B: No, it was a RAT that a cat ate.

A: I'm SURE it was a mouse.

B: Sorry, you're WRONG, it WAS a rat.

1. The use of the indefinite article. However, sometimes it is impossible (as in 1), e.g. *A gentleman is waiting for you.*
2. The use of "there is", "there are", e.g. *There is a cat in the room.*
3. The use of special devices, like "as for" "but for", etc., e.g. *As for him, I don't know.*
4. Inverted word order, e.g. *Here comes the sun.*
5. The use of emphatic constructions, e.g. *It was the cat that ate the rat.*

Sometimes, however, the most important information is not expressed formally, for example: *The cat ate the rat after all.* The rheme here is "ate". At the same time, there is some very important information in this utterance which is hidden or implicit: the cat was not supposed to do it, or — it was hard for the cat to catch the rat, or — the cat is a vegetarian (this hidden information will depend on the context or situation). In other words, we may say that this sentence contains two informative centers, or two rhemes — explicit and implicit, and the presence of the second informative center is revealed by means of *after all*.

LECTURE 15 THE COMPOSITE SENTENCE

1. General characteristics of the composite sentence

The composite sentence is a polypredicative construction because it contains two or more groups of primary predication. If a simple sentence reflects a single event of the objective reality, a composite sentence unites two or more objective situations. Depending on the way the objective situations are presented in language in forming a language unit, and on the relations between the composite sentence parts or clauses, composite sentences are traditionally classified into compound sentences, complex sentences and compound-complex sentences.

2. *The compound sentence*

A compound sentence consists of two or several coordinated clauses, which are joined to form one syntactic whole, both in meaning and in intonation, for taken separately the clauses always lose some part of their meaning and become altogether different sentences. Nevertheless any clause within a compound sentence remains on the same level of importance as any other clause and has the force of an independent proposition.

Of the clauses coordinated within a compound sentence the first in order is structurally more independent and the clause following it is more dependent; this fact is reflected in its structure: it contains mostly anaphoric pronouns that point to the previous clause or its parts, it may be elliptic, there may be substitute words. Besides, the fact that the conjunction is in the body of the second clause also makes it grammatically connected with the preceding one.

Coordination reflects the logical sequence of thought, that is, the clauses follow each other in the same order as the thoughts do, whereas in subordination the position of the subordinate clause is *often* determined by structural considerations or by whatever word in the main clause the subordinate clause refers to. The order in which the coordinated clauses follow each other cannot be changed without damage to the meaning of the whole sentence.

The logical relations between coordinated clauses are based on their mutual dependence. Coordination comprises the following types of connection: *copulative* connection, *disjunctive* connection, *adversative* connection, *causal* and *consecutive* connection. Of these the first three admit different shades of meaning, while causative and consecutive relations cannot be differentiated in shades as the peculiarity of these connections admits no differentiation. Coordinated clauses may be joined not only in pairs but also into longer complexes with different types of connection between them. Clauses may be joined to each other by means of conjunctions and other connecting elements. Clause may also be joined *asyndetically*, when a formal linking element is absent. The absence of a formal link does not change anything, as other means and logical connection form a sufficient line.

Copulative connection usually shows that the clauses joined into the compound sentence present details of one whole (details of a *picture*, situation, appearance and so on). The most common connector used in sentences with this kind of relation is *and*. Very often syndetic and *asyndetic* connection is employed to form one string of clauses, for example:

The place was quiet, nobody knew me and the reserve books were less in demand. (E. Segal).

Disjunctive or alternative connection expresses a choice between two mutually exclusive alternatives. Very often the compound sentence with disjunctive connection is an interrogative one, or has a coloring of hesitation, doubt as to what alternative should be chosen. The clauses often have structural parallelism. It should be noted that disjunctive connection is impossible in sentences with *asyndetic* coordination. The most common connectors used in sentences with this kind of relation are *or*, *otherwise* and *else*, for example:

... If people wanted helping they must respond little, just a little, otherwise it became very difficult indeed. (K. Mansfield).

Adversative type of coordinative connection presupposes contrasting or opposing the clauses. The adversative connectors are rather numerous, the most common among them are *but*, *though*, *yet* and *on the contrary*. The following example illustrates this type of coordination:

Harry was glad school was over but there was no way escaping Dudley's bang who visited the house every single day. (J. K. Rowling).

Causative connection, or rather explanatory connection, is found between the clauses when the joined one explains the contents of the preceding one. Such clause may be joined by the single

connector *for*. The consecutive relations are characterized by the fact that the joined clause contains some result or consequence based upon the meaning of the first clause, or motivated by the first clause:

I didn't have anything else to do, so I kept sitting on the radiator and counting these little white squares on the floor. (J. D. Salinger).

3. The complex sentence

Usually the classification of complex sentences is based on the type of the subordinate clause, its function and meaning, and also on the conjunctions and connecting words. This method, however, does not take into consideration the structure of the complex sentence as a whole and the structure of the main clause as its basic element. Besides, it neglects the fact that subordination as a way of connecting two clauses may vary in value from a close to a very loose connection, with many gradations in between; then, the relative importance of the main and the subordinate clause may be also different: sometimes the subordinate clause contains the main idea. According to these peculiarities and distinctive features, which are reflected in the structure of the clause and are therefore constructive, complex sentences may be arranged into several types: (1) sentences with pronominal correlation, (2) sentences with complement or appositive connection, (3) sentences with inclusive correlation, (4) sentences where the subordinate clause fulfils the facultative function and (5) sentences consisting of two clauses subordinated to each other. Examples of these structural sentence types are given below.

(1) In the first structural pattern, the conjunction opening the subordinate clause is correlated with some pronominal element (a pronoun or adverb) in the main clause, for example:

Mighty is he who conquers himself. (S. Maugham).

The scheme above shows the structural arrangement of such sentences.

(2) In the second structural pattern the main clause contains a word devoid of meaning (the impersonal pronoun *it*) or with a dulled or general meaning (facts, questions, problem). The subordinate clause refers to this word charging it with meaning:

(3) *It is a pity your leg is hurting you.* (B. Shaw).

(4) The third structural pattern may be described as inclusive, as the subordinate clause performs the function of a missing part in the main clause and is included into the structure of the main clause. The main clause is therefore structurally incomplete without its subordinate clause:

»

What Sister St. Joseph had said so carelessly of Walter moved Kitty strangely. (S. Maugham).

(5) The fourth structural pattern of the complex sentence is characterized by that the subordinate clause is not indispensable but contains some additional information and fulfils a facultative function» for the main clause is structurally incomplete without it:

That's exactly where I disagree with him. (J. D. Salinger).

(6) To the fifth structural pattern belong the sentences consisting of two clauses subordinated to each other, so that it is difficult to say which of the clauses is the main one, because of the structural parallelism of the clauses. Such clauses usually contain correlative elements:

No sooner can a slave society be organized than deterioration sets in. (J. London).

4. Classification of complex sentences according to the type of the subordinate clause

According to the type of the subordinate clause, its function and meaning all subordinate clauses are classified into substantive clauses, attributive clauses and adverbial clause. Substantive clauses, in their turn, include subject clauses, predicative clauses and object clauses. Examples of all types of clauses are given below.

(1) The complex sentence with a subject clause, e.g.: *What I like best is a book that's at least funny once in a while.* (J. D. Salinger).

(2) The complex sentence with a **predicative** clause, e.g.:
That was the way Jimmy, the plumber, and all the old gang valued him.

(J. London)

(3) "The complex sentence with an **object** clause, e.g.:
But I knew there was a woman in Daniels house. (H. Fielding).

(4) The complex sentence with an **attributive** clause, e.g.:
One time, in this movie, Jane did something that just knocked me out.

(J. D. Salinger).

(5) The complex sentence with an **adverbial** clause. Adverbial clauses are usually classified according to their meaning, that is according to the relation they bear to the main clause. They fall into adverbial clauses of place, time, concession, condition, purpose, cause, **manner**, comparison and result. Here is the example of an adverbial clause of time:

I had to have a cigarette in the car for five minutes before I was calm enough to set off. (H. Fielding).

MODERN APPROACHES TO THE ANALYSIS OF LINGUISTIC UNITS

LECTURE 16 TEXTLINGUISTIC

I. Text as a syntactic unit

Text is the unit of the highest (supersyntactic) level. It can be defined as a sequence of sentences connected logically and semantically which convey a complete message. The text is a language unit and it manifests itself in speech as discourse. Textlinguistics as a particular approach to the analysis of texts is concerned with the analysis of formal and structural features of the text. Textual essential integrative properties can be described with the help of the notions of coherence (целостность), cohesion (формальная складность) and deixis (identification by pointing) as these notions play a central role in the treatment of texts. The focus is on formal rather than functional analysis. In fact, text analysis generally involves little reference to the extra-linguistic context which gave rise to the text.

One more notion used in textlinguistics is the notion of textuality. It implies the characteristics of a text which makes clear what sort of text it is intended to be. A newspaper story does not resemble a scholarly monograph, and a poem is quite dissimilar to a television commercial. Each particular type of text has its own typical characteristics; when we look at a text, we expect to see the appropriate characteristics that allow us to recognize quickly what kind of text we are looking at. One of the principal goals of textlinguistics is to identify the distinguishing features of each type of text.

2. The notion of "coherence"

Coherence is a semantic or topical unity of the spoken or written text — that is, the sentences within the text are usually connected by the same general topic. Generally speaking, a coherent text is the text that "sticks together" as a whole unit. Coherence is usually achieved by means of the theme and rheme progression. There exist various types of the theme and rheme progression. However, it is pretty hard to find such texts where only one type of progression is observed. Usually, in the process of the text development different types of the theme and rheme progression are combined thus forming a coherent text.

3. The notion of "cohesion". Text connecting devices

Cohesion is a succession of spoken or written sentences achieved by means of explicit linguistic links. Sometimes the sentences may even not coincide topically. The connection we want to draw between various parts of the text may be achieved by **textual** and **lexical** cohesion. Textual cohesion may be achieved by formal markers which express conjunctive relations and serve as text connectors. Text connectors may be of four different types:

- a) additive — *and, furthermore, similarly, in addition, etc.*
- b) adversative — *but, however, on the other hand, in fact, anyway, after all, nevertheless, etc.*
- c) causal — *so, consequently, for this reason, thus, etc.*
- d) temporal — *then, after that, finally, at last, in the long run, etc.*

The full list of text connectors is very long. Some of them do not possess direct equivalents in the Ukrainian language. At the same time it is impossible to speak and write English naturally without knowing for sure when and how to use text connectors of the English language. The proper use of cohesive devices has long been recognized as a fundamental aspect of good writing, but in recent years linguists have been turning their attention to the analysis of these devices.

Lexical cohesion deals with the ways in which words are related either semantically or in relation to the experiential schemas (schema is a set of knowledge that is idealized from experience; the same notion can be also explained as peoples idealized mental representation — for example, even if we get to a restaurant that we have never been in previously, we will be able to negotiate and understand objects and utterances on the basis of our idealized mental representation), which people accumulate through their lives.

Lexical cohesion occurs when two words in the text are semantically related in the same way — in other words, they are related in terms of their meaning. Two major categories of lexical cohesion are **reiteration** and **collocation**. Reiteration includes repetition, synonym or near synonymise and the use of general words. Let us consider two examples where the words *slope* — *incline* (1) and *pneumonia* — *illness* (2) are reiterated units:

1) *You could try driving the car up the slope. He incline isn't at all that steep.*

2) *Pneumonia arrives with the cold and wet conditions. The illness can strike everyone from infants to the elderly.*

Collocation includes all those items in text that are semantically related. The items may be related in one text and not related in other. For instance, the words *neighbour* and *scoundrel* are not related at all. However, in the following text they are collocated:

My neighbour has just let one of his trees fall into my garden. And the scoundrel refuses to pay for the damage he has caused.

Cohesive ties within the text are also formed by **endophoric** relations. Endophoric relations are of two kinds — those that look back in the text for their interpretation are called **anaphoric** relations; those that look forward in the text are called **cataphoric** relations:

Look at the sun. It is going down quickly. "It" refers back to "the sun". It is going down quickly, the sun. "It" refers forwards to "the sun".

Anaphor is a linguistic item which takes its interpretation from something else referred to in the same text. Anaphoric reference involves "pointing back" to the antecedent, where the antecedent is often the most fully realized lexical item. We can, therefore, define **anaphoric reference** as two or more references to the same person, object or action marked by some form of pronominalization. In the following example the word *novel* acts as an antecedent for the pronominal element *it*:

The novel (antecedent) was written in 1918. However, it is still popular with the readers.

Sometimes the less full from the semantic point of view item occurs first. This phenomenon of "pointing forward" is called **cataphora**. Cataphoric reference can be defined as a proform that occurs first and can only be interpreted with reference to the subsequent text. In the following example *this* is a proform, which is explained in the sentence that follows:

/ simply won't put up with this,. All this laughing and gossiping.

4. Textual deictic markers

As a linguistic term **deixis** means "identification by pointing". In other words, deictic markers are textual elements that "point" the reader or listener to particular points of space, time, human relations and formal connections in the text. In other words, deictic expressions serve to anchor the speaker in relation to their surroundings and other participants.

Much of the textual meaning can be understood by looking at linguistic markers that have a pointing function in a given context. For example, consider the following note pinned on a professor's door:

"Sorry, I missed you. I'm in my other office. Back in an hour". Without knowing who the addressee is, what time the note was written, or the location of the other office, it is really hard to make precise information of the message. Those textual items that cannot be understood without an immediate context are called deictic markers. Deictic markers are used to refer to ourselves, to others, and to objects in our environment. They are also used to locate actions in a time frame relative to the present. Deictic units can show social relationship — the social location of individuals in relation to others. Similarly, deictic items may be used to locate parts of a text in relation to other parts.

Deictic expressions are typically pronouns, certain time and place adverbs (*here, now, etc.*), some verbs of motion (*come/go*), and even tenses. In fact all languages have expressions that link a sentence to a time and space context and that help to determine reference.

We can identify five major types of deictic markers — person, place, time, textual and social.

Person deixis refers to grammatical markers of communicant roles in a speech event. The first person is the speaker's reference to self; the second person is the speaker's reference to addressee(s) and the third person is reference to others who are neither speaker nor addressee.

Place deixis refers to how languages show the relationship between space and the location of the participants in the text: *this, that, here, there, in front of, at our place, etc.*

Temporal deixis refers to the time relative to the time of speaking: *now, then, today, yesterday, tomorrow, etc.*

Textual deixis has to do with keeping track of reference in the unfolding text: *in the following chapter, but, first, I'd like to discuss, etc.* Most of the text connectors discussed above belong to this group.

Social deixis is used to code social relationships between speakers and addressee or audience. Here belong honorifics, titles of addresses and pronouns. There are two kinds of social deixis: relational and absolute. *Absolute* deictic markers are forms attached to a social role: *Your Honor, Mr. President, Your Grace, Madam, etc.* **Relational** deictic markers locate persons in relation to the speaker rather than by their roles in the society: *my cousin, you, her, etc.* In English, social deixis is not heavily coded in the pronoun system. "You" refers to both — singular and plural. As well as the Ukrainian language, English possesses "a powerful we": *We are happy to inform..., In this article we...*

LECTURE 17

PRAGMATICS. SPEECH ACT THEORY

1. Basic notions of pragmatic linguistics

The term "pragmatics" was first introduced by Charles Morris, a philosopher. He contrasts pragmatics with semantics and syntax. He claims that syntax is the study of the grammatical relations of linguistic units to one another and the grammatical structures of phrases and sentences that result from these grammatical relation, semantics is the study of the relation of linguistic units to the objects they denote, and pragmatics is the study of the relation of linguistic units to people who communicate (see Chapter 2 "Basic Notions of Modern Linguistics").

This view of pragmatics is too broad because according to it, pragmatics may have as its domain any human activity involving language, and this includes almost all human activities, from baseball to

the stock market. We will proceed from the statement that linguistic pragmatics is the study of the ability of language users to pair sentences with the context in which they would be appropriate. What do we mean by "appropriate context"? In our everyday life we as a rule perform or play quite a lot of different roles — a student, a friend, a daughter, a son, a client, etc. When playing different roles our language means are not the same — we choose different words and expressions suitable and appropriate for the situation. We use the language as an instrument for our purposes. For instance the utterances,

- (a) *What are you doing here? We're talking*
- (b) *What on earth are you doing here? We're chewing the rag*

have the same **referential** meaning but their **pragmatic** meaning is different, they are used in different contexts. Similarly, each utterance combines a **prepositional** base (objective part) with the **pragmatic component** (subjective part).

To put it in other words, they are different **speech acts**. That is, speech acts are simply things people do through language — for example, apologizing, instructing, menacing, explaining something, etc. The term "speech act" was coined by the philosopher John Austin and developed by another philosopher John Searle.

A speech act can be described as an attempt at doing something purely by speaking. There are many things that we can do, or attempt to do, simply by speaking. We can make a promise, ask a question, order or request somebody to do something, make a threat, name a ship, pronounce somebody husband and wife, and so on. Each of these is a particular speech act.

2. *Speech Act Theory*

Speech acts belong to the domain of pragmatics, and their study, called speech act theory, is a prominent part of this discipline. The study of speech acts was introduced by the British philosopher J. L. Austin in the 1960s, and it has been developed by a number of others, notably the philosopher John Searle.

John Austin is the person who is usually credited with generating interest in what has since come to be known as pragmatics and speech act theory. His ideas of language were set out in a series of lectures which he gave at Oxford University. These lectures were later published under the title "How to do things with words". His first step was to show that some utterances are not statements or questions but actions. He reached this conclusion through an analysis of what he termed "performative verbs". Let us consider the following sentences:

- *I pronounce you man and wife*
- *I declare war on France*
- *I name this ship the Albatros*
- *I bet you 5 dollars it will rain*
- *I apologize*

The peculiar thing about these sentences, according to J. Austin, is that they are not used to say or describe things, but rather actively to do things. After you have declared war on France or pronounced somebody husband and wife the situation has changed. That is why J. Austin termed them as **performatives** and contrasted them to statements (he called them **constatives**). Thus by pronouncing a performative utterance the speaker is performing an action. The performative utterance, however, can really change things only under certain circumstances. J. Austin specified the circumstances required for their success as felicity **conditions**. In order to declare war you must be someone who has the right to do it. Only a priest (or a person with corresponding power) can make a couple a husband and wife. Besides, it must be done before witnesses and the couple getting married must sign the register. Therefore, the utterances will have no effect unless a number of

obvious conditions are met. If the felicity conditions are not satisfied, then the resulting utterance is not really right or wrong: it is merely infelicitous, and it has no effect (or at least not the intended effect).

Performatives may be explicit and implicit. Let us compare the sentences:

Explicit: *I promise I will come tomorrow*; implicit: *I will come tomorrow*;
 Explicit: *I swear I love you*; implicit: *I love you*.

John Austin identified three distinct levels of action beyond the act of utterance itself. He distinguishes (1) the act of saying something, (2) what one does; in saying it, and (3) what one does by saying it. Thus, the action performed by producing an utterance will consist of three related acts (a three-fold distinction):

1) locutionary act — the act of saying something and its basic content, producing a meaningful linguistic expression, uttering a sentence. If you have difficulty with actually forming the sounds and words to create a meaningful utterance (because you are a foreigner or tongue-tied), then you might fail to produce a locutionary act: it often happens when we learn a foreign language.

In other terms it can be explained as a formal meaning of the utterance without reference to its function within a discourse. For example, propositionally the utterance *The window is open* is a statement about an entity — that is, a window.

3) illocutionary act — what you are trying to do by speaking. We form an utterance with some kind of function on mind, with a definite communicative intention or illocutionary force. The notion of illocutionary force, or illocutionary meaning, is basic for pragmatics. For example, the illocutionary force of the utterance *The window is open* (it can only be recovered from the context in which the utterance occurred) may be: a request (*It's awfully cold here — would you mind shutting the window?*); a suggestion (A: *I can't get out of the room — the door is stuck fast*. B: *The window is open — why don't you climb out?*) or something else.

Today the term speech act is often used to denote specifically an illocutionary act (promising, threatening, informing, persuading, defending, blaming, and so on), and the intended effect of a speech act is its illocutionary force.

3) perlocutionary act — the effect of what you say, the effect the utterance has on the hearer. Perlocutionary effect may be verbal or nonverbal. E.g. *I've bought a car — Great!* (verbal); *The window is open* — and you close the window (non-verbal).

3. Classifications of speech acts. Indirect speech acts

John Austin introduced five classes of illocutionary verbs: expositives (e.g. *state, deny, remind, guess*), verdictives (e.g. *call, define, analyze*), commissives (*promise, guarantee, refuse*), exercitives (e.g. *order, request, beg*), behabitives (e.g. *thank, congratulate, criticize*). It was John Searle, who studied under J. Austin at Oxford, who proposed a detailed classification of speech acts. His speech act classification has had a great impact on linguistics. It includes five major classes of speech acts: declarations, representatives (assertives), expressives, directives and commissives (see the table below):

Speech act type	Direction of fit	S — speakei, X — situation
------------------------	-------------------------	---------------------------------------

Declarations <i>E.g. I pronounce you man and wife. You're fired.</i>	words change the world	S causes X
Representatives <i>E.g. It was a warm sunny day. John is a liar.</i>	make words fit the world	S believes S
Expressives <i>E.g. I'm really sorry. Happy birthday! (statements of pleasure, joy, sorrow, etc.)</i>	make words fit the world	S feels X
Directives <i>E.g. Don't touch that (commands, orders,</i>	make the world fit words	S wants X
Commissives <i>E.g. I'll be back (promises, threats, pledges — what we</i>	make the world fit words	S intends X

J. Searle can also be merited for introducing a theory of **indirect** speech acts. Indirect speech acts are cases in which one speech act is performed indirectly, by way of performing another, for example: *Can you pass me the salt?* Though the sentence is interrogative, it is conventionally used to mark a request — we cannot just answer "yes" or "no". According to modern point of view such utterances contain two illocutionary forces, with one of them dominating. For example, the utterance *Dinner is ready* in the appropriate context will be understood as an invitation to have dinner. In fact, any speech act can get the illocutionary force of another one and thus become indirect.

Indirect speech acts are frequently used in our everyday communication as they are effective means of influencing the speaker and thus making him do what we want. Generally speaking, indirectness in natural communication is a widely spread phenomenon, especially with the purpose of providing hidden influence upon the person you are talking to (see Ch. 3 "Discourse Analysis").

Another classification of speech acts was introduced by Professor G. Pocheptsov. It is based on purely linguistic principles. The main criterion for pragmatic classification of utterances is the way of expressing the speakers communicative intention. This classification includes six basic speech acts: constatives (e.g. *The Earth rotates*), promissives (e.g. *I'll write to you*), menaces (e.g. *I'll punish you*), performatives (e.g. *I congratulate you*), directives (e.g. *Please go away*) and quesitives (e.g. *Where is John?*). More details can be found in the book by И. П. Иванова, В. В. Бурлакова, Г. Г. Почепцов «Теоретическая грамматика современного английского языка», С. 267-281.

LECTURE 18

DISCOURSE ANALYSIS

I. *Discourse analysis — the study of language in use*

Text as a unit of the highest level manifests itself as discourse in verbal communication. Therefore actual text in use may be denned as discourse. **Discourse analysis** is the functional analysis of discourse. Discourse analysis may be contrasted with **text analysis** (textlinguistics) which focuses on the formal properties of language.

Discourses are formed by sequence of utterances. It is obvious that many utterances taken separately are ambiguous. They can become clear only within a discourse. Discourse analysis is often defined as the analysis of speech "beyond the utterance". Utterances interpretation, or discourse analysis, involves a variety of processes, grammatical and pragmatic. By pragmatic processes we mean the processes used to bridge up the gap between the semantic representations of sentences and the interpretation of utterances in context. Quite often, the utterance maybe ambiguous, e.g.:

His soup is not hot enough

The hearer must not only recover the semantic representation of the sentence uttered, but decide who the referential expression *he* refers to, whether the ambiguous word *hot* means *very warm* or *spicy*, whether the vague expression *his food* refers to the food he cooked, the food he brought, the food he served, the food he is eating, etc.

Besides, utterances have not only propositional content but illocutionary force, and ambiguities may arise at this level:

You're not leaving

The hearer must not only recover its explicit propositional content, but also decide whether it is a statement, a question or an order. Furthermore, utterances have not only explicit content but also implicit import. Consider the following short conversation:

A: Would you like some coffee? B: Coffee would keep me awake.

The hearer (A) must recover the implication that B does not want any coffee (or, in some circumstances, that he does).

Some discourse analysts consider the larger discourse context in order to understand how it affects the meaning of the sentence. For example, the linguist Charles Fillmore points out that two sentences taken together as a single discourse can have meanings different from each one taken separately. To illustrate, he asks you to imagine two independent signs at a swimming pool: "*Please, use the toilet, not the pool*" says one. The other announces, "*Pool for members only*". If you regard each sign independently, they seem quite reasonable. But taking them together as a single discourse makes you go back and revise your interpretation of the first sentence after you have read the second.

2. The notion of speech event in discourse analysis

Depending on their goal, discourses may have different characteristics and different structural organization. The notion of "speech event" is used in discourse analysis to indicate a significant piece of speaking conducted according to rules. All speech possesses structure of some kind, but there are certain pieces of speaking which are rather special. Each one has a recognizable beginning and end and is constructed according to certain rules known to both speakers and listeners. Examples include a university lecture, a sermon, an after-dinner speech, a debate and a job interview. Such a highly structured piece of speech is a **speech event**.

A speech event usually involves participants who assume clearly defined roles, and it takes place in a well-defined setting. The rules governing the speech event are clearly defined and known to all participants; violating these rules is a serious lapse. Discourse analysis deals with identifying the rules governing particular sorts of speech events.

3. Coherence in discourse

It is impossible to understand the meaning of a message only on the basis of the words and structure of the sentences used to convey that message. We certainly rely on the syntactic structure

and lexical items used in a message to understand it, but it is a mistake to think that we operate only with this literal input to our understanding. Only in case a discourse is organized, it is understood as a message. This is achieved by coherence. Let us consider the following short conversation where the utterances are apparently unconnected in formal terms. Nevertheless, they may be interpreted within a particular genre of spoken interaction, say conversation, as forming a coherent sequence if we analyze it in terms of the speech act performed by each of these utterances and functions assigned to each utterance:

UTTERANCE	<u>SPEECH ACT</u>
A: <i>That's the telephone</i>	(1) A requests B to perform an action
R: <i>I'm in the bath</i>	(2) B states the reason why he cannot comply with the request
	(3) A undertakes to perform the action

In creating a meaningful context and identifying the functions of each utterance, coherence is established. As a result, the missing bits of conversation, which would make it cohesive as well as coherent, could be restored. Such a cohesive conversation might run as follows:

A: *That's the telephone. Can you answer it please?*

B: *No, I'm sorry, I can't answer it because I'm in the bath.*

A: *OK, I'll answer it then.*

It follows that understanding of discourse involves using our background knowledge and our knowledge of the context so as to understand the functions of individual utterances within the discourse.

Another aspect of discourse coherence lies in turn-taking which takes place in the process of communication. Turn-taking presupposes that the identity of the speaker changes from time to time. If a conversation takes place, we expect the floor to pass from one individual to another in an orderly manner: one person is speaking while the others remain silent, and then the speaker falls silent and another person takes the floor. What is interesting about this is that there appear to be clear rules determining when and how the floor is handed over from one person to another; if there were not, a conversation would be merely a noisy jumble of several people trying to speak at once.

It was the American sociologist Harvey Sacks who first drew attention to the importance of turn-taking and the rules governing it. However, these rules turned out to be not easy to discover, and scholars have in recent years devoted a good deal of study trying to investigate them. Moreover, it seems clear that very young children do not understand the concept of turn-taking. The process of turn-taking and the different ways in which keeping a turn, giving up a turn and interrupting serve as means of conversational discourse coherence and development. Of special interest here is the study of the ways men, women and mixed groups conduct conversations.

4. Maxims of conversation

Understanding the meaning of a discourse requires knowing a lot of things. There are times when people say (or write) exactly what they mean, but generally they are not totally explicit. They manage to convey far more than their words mean, or even something quite different from the meaning of their words. It was the British philosopher Paul Grice who attempted to explain how, by means of shared rules or conventions, language users manage to understand one another. He undertook an examination of how people behave in conversation. His fundamental conclusion was that conversational exchanges were governed by an overarching principle, which he named the **Cooperative Principle**. Essentially, this principle holds that people in conversation normally cooperate with one another, and, crucially, they assume that the others are cooperating. That is, when you say something and another person makes a response, you assume that the response is intended as

a maximally cooperative one, and you interpret it accordingly. This term, however, is not used in ideological sense: participants in arguments, deliberate deception, lying, hypothesizing, making errors are still "cooperating" in the pragmatic sense.

Cooperative Principle presupposes that conversation is governed by several basic rules, **Maxims of Conversation**. There are four of them:

1. The Maxim of Quality

Do not say what you believe to be false

Do not say for what you lack adequate evidence

In other words: tell the truth.

2. The Maxim of Quantity

Make your contribution as informative as required

Do not make your contribution more informative than% required

In other words: say as much as necessary, no more and no less.

3. The Maxim of Relevance

Be relevant

4. The Maxim of Manner

Be clear Be orderly

The Cooperative Principle is considered a way of accounting for how people interpret discourse. The main principle expressed in terms of four maxims is the following: the speaker should be truthful, brief, relevant and clear and the hearer, in his turn, should assume that the speaker is following the four maxims. P. Grice's theory is also an attempt to explain how a hearer gets from what he said to what is meant, from the level of **expressed** meaning to the level of **implied** meaning.

5. Implkatures of discourse

What is conveyed by an utterance falls into two types: what is said and what is implied. P. Grice uses the term "implicature" to cover what is implied. Communicative maxims make it possible to generate inferences which are defined as conversational implicatures and conventional implicatures. **Conversational implicatures** are such components of an utterance that are not expressed semantically but are understood by communicants in the process of communication: *Was it you who broke the cup?* This question presupposes: *Someone has broken the cup*. If you did not do that, your normal reaction would be: *What cup?* while the answer *I didn't do that* shows that you know about the fact.

Conversational implicatures are only indirectly associated with the semantic content of utterances. According to P. Grice, these implications are drawn from the principles of cooperative conversation. For example, the utterance *I didn't see you* may have the pragmatic meaning of an apology, which comes from the conversational context; the utterance *I lost my purse* might have the pragmatic meaning of a directive — a request for help in finding it or a request for a loan.

Conversational implicatures are universal, they do not depend on the language used.

The second type of implicatures, conventional implicatures, are derived from a definite lexical meaning or grammatical structure of an utterance, e.g.: *I saw only John* (conventional implicature: *I didn't see anyone else*), *Even Bill is smarter than you* (*Everybody is smarter than John, therefore, John is stupid*). Another example shows how a conventional implicature can be drawn from the lexical meaning of a word — if I say *John managed to get to the theatre* — the implicatures that can be drawn from the verb *manage* let the hearer presuppose that John made an effort to get to the theatre and the effort was "sufficient".

6. Implicatures and indirectness

Both kinds of implicatures are of great interest for discourse analysis. When there is a mismatch between the expressed meaning and the implied meaning we deal with indirectness. Indirectness is a universal phenomenon: it occurs in all natural languages. Let us see how conversational implicatures arise from Maxims of Conversation and thus create indirectness.

A). In the following example Polonius is talking to Hamlet: Polonius: *What do you read, My Lord?* Hamlet: *Words, words, words.*

In this dialogue Hamlet deliberately gives less information than is required by the situation and so flouts the Maxim of Quantity. At the same time he deliberately fails to help Polonius to achieve his goals, thereby flouting the Maxim of Relevance. The Maxim of Quantity is also flouted when we say: *Law is law, woman is woman, students are students.* This makes us look for what these utterances really mean.

B). In the utterance *You're being too smart!* the Maxim of Quality is flouted (the use of the Present Continuous Tense with the stative verb *to be* and the adjective phrase *too smart* make the hearer suspect that the speaker's utterance is ironical) and the hearer is made to look for a covert sense. Similarly, the same maxim is flouted with metaphors. If we say: *He is made of iron*, we are either non-cooperative or we want to convey something different.

C). The Maxim of Relevance can also be responsible for producing a wide range of standard implicatures, consider, for example, the following short conversation:

A: *Can you tell me the time?*

B: *The bell has gone.*

It is only on the basis of assuming the relevance of B's response that we can understand it as an answer to A's question.

D). A number of different kinds of inference arise if we assume that the Maxim of Manner is being observed. The utterance *The lone ranger rode into the sunset and jumped on his horse* violates our expectation that events are recounted in the order in which they happen because the Maxim of Manner is flouted.

Sometimes flouting the Maxim of Manner can lead to ambiguity. Consider the following example, in which change of the sequence of events changes our understanding of the situation:

a) *He got drunk and crashed the car.*

b) *He crashed the car and got drunk.*

Another reason of being indirect lies in our desire to "save face" or to protect ourselves from the risk of being too obtrusive. The need to "save face" is most commonly achieved by the use of indirect speech act strategies. The self-defense benefit of indirectness accounts for the logic by which we ask pre-questions like *Are you busy tonight?* It protects us from rejection by refusal once we have committed ourselves to an invitation. We avoid asking a direct question such as *Would you like to come out with me?* asking instead *Are you busy tonight?*

Generally speaking, there are many ways of saying one thing and meaning another. Irony, sarcasm, and figures of speech are such devices, and they are very effective when they work. Joking is a kind of irony that has both rapport and defensive payoffs. The rapport benefit lies in the pleasure of sharing laughter as well as evidence of rapport in having matching senses of humour. The defensive benefit is in the ability to retreat: *I was only joking.*

Communication is often indirect because there is a payoff in rapport. It is far better to get what we want, to be understood, without saying what we mean. The payoffs of indirectness in rapport and self-defense correspond to the two basic dynamics that motivate communication: the coexisting and conflicting human needs for involvement and independence. Since any show of involvement is a threat to independence, and any show of independence is a threat to involvement, indirectness is the life raft of communication.

Through indirectness in the process of communication, we give others the idea of what have in mind, balance our needs with the needs of others, manipulate others.

7. The Politeness Principle

One more explanation of the fact why people are so often indirect in conveying what they mean was put forward by Geoffrey Leech in his book "Principles of Pragmatics". He introduces the **Politeness Principle** which runs as follows: "*Minimize the expression of impolite beliefs; Maximize the expression of polite beliefs*". According to G. Leech, the Politeness Principle is as valid as the Cooperative Principle because it helps to explain why people do not always observe Maxims of Conversation. Quite often, we are indirect in what we say because we want to minimize the expression of impoliteness, as in the following dialogue;

A: *Would you like to go to the theatre?*

B: *I have an exam tomorrow.*

B is saying "no", but indirectly, in order to be polite., The linguistic concept of politeness was developed by the linguist Robin Lakoff. She devised another set of rules that describe the motivations behind politeness — that is, how we adjust what we say into account its effects on others. Here they are as R. Lakoff presents them:

- 1. Don't impose; keep your distance.**
- 2. Give options; let the other person have a say.**
- 3. Be friendly, maintain camaraderie.**

Generally speaking, we can define politeness as a discourse strategy that enables the speaker and the listener to save face in an interaction. A face-saving strategy is not the only one that is used by communicants in the process of communication. To achieve their goals in the process of speaking, the speaker and the hearer resort to different discourse strategies such as positive/negative politeness strategies, turn-taking strategies, self-presentation strategies, solidarity strategies, manipulation strategies, speakers strategies, addressees strategies, etc. Each strategy presupposes the use of certain language devices and means. For example, a solidarity strategy will include personal information, use of nicknames, sometimes even abusive terms (particularly among males), and shared dialect or slang expressions. Frequently, a solidarity strategy can be marked by inclusive terms such as *we* and *let's*.

LECTURE 19

PSYCHOLINGUISTICS: BASIC NOTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. Definition of psycholinguistics

The modern stage of linguistic research can be characterized by a certain shift of the scope of interests. Discourse analysis, for example, studies language in action. It is impossible to provide a full description of how language works without taking into account the so-called human factor, the peculiarities of the communicative speech situation, such as time, place and social environment. It is evident that when we speak, we are influenced by everything around us as well as by our own mood, feelings and a lot more. All these factors determine the way we speak. It would be very easy to analyze texts and conversations if people spoke like computers, following the principle of formal logic. Luckily it is not so. If we were absolutely logical and correct when addressing other people, our speech would be very dull and lifeless. In Chapter 1 ("The Scope of Theoretical Grammar") we discussed the example of how a computer rendered the idiom "out of sight, out of mind" — "invisible idiot". Why did it happen? Because the computer was following the principle of general logic and

took the words for what they really mean, it did not take into account the human factor and the communicative speech situation.

Psycholinguistics focuses on the relationship between language structures and the person who uses them. It is possible to say that it occupies the borderline between General Psychology and General Linguistics. Psychology studies the nature and function of the human soul. Three important components can be singled out within the notion of human soul: "mind, "will" and "emotions". All of them are studied by psychology. Of course, the subject matter of psycholinguistics is not so wide because it is not concerned with the human soul as it is. Its scope of interest lies in the human ability to use language. Therefore, psycholinguistics can be defined as a branch of language science studying speech behavior of people. It follows that one of the principal tasks of psycholinguistics is the study of connections between language and mind.

In conclusion, trying to define the subject matter of psycholinguistics, we can say that it focuses on the relationship between language system and linguistic competence. It follows that in psycholinguistics, scholars study and analyze the persons ability to use language structures more effectively.

2. The history of development of psycholinguistics

Psycholinguistics began to emerge as a distinct discipline in the 1950s. To some extent, its emergence was promoted by N. Chomsky's opinion that linguistics should be regarded as a part of cognitive psychology, but there were other factors as well, notably the growing interest in the question of language acquisition by children.

N. Chomsky put forward the so-called "innateness hypothesis", by which we are born already knowing what human languages are like. He further elaborated his hypothesis by arguing that children must possess a **language acquisition device**, a specific mental organ (a structure in the brain) which is dedicated to extracting from haphazard and often degenerate speech the generalizations required for the child to construct the necessary rules of phonology and grammar. According to N. Chomsky, this specialized neurological structure can extract generalizations and construct suitable rules, even rules which are not overtly illustrated by the speech the child hears. This theory is purely hypothetical: no one has yet identified any areas or structures in the brain which seem to have the required characteristics.

In recent years N. Chomsky, however, has abandoned his claims for the language acquisition device in favour of an even stronger claim: he now believes that so much information about the human language is already present in our brains at birth that all the child has to do is to "set a few switches" to the correct values for the language being acquired. He called it a "parameter-setting model", and it too is deeply controversial. Anyway, it was N. Chomsky's theory of language acquisition that helped psycholinguistics to be officially recognized as an independent linguistic discipline in the middle of the 20th century in the USA.

There is no doubt that the study of acquisition has so far been the most prominent and successful area of psycholinguistics. But a number of other topics have also been explored, with varying degrees of success. Many of these are aspects of language processing, the steps involved in producing and comprehending speech. Others include the links between language use and memory, the linguistic examination of reading, and more recently possible links with perception and cognition.

Scientists possess now a great data in most all of these areas, but progress in developing theoretical interpretations has been slow. The enthusiastic early attempts at understanding mental processing of language in terms of transformational grammar proved a failure, and psycholinguists now put forward less ambitious tasks: they try to provide accounts of specific' aspects of language behaviour.

Also, the main principles of psycholinguistics originated from the so-called "theory of information". The essential terms that were used in this respect were "sender" "channel" and

"recipient". The notion of "channel" was the basic one because the effectiveness of the channel determines the success of our communication. The channel is always described in the terms of effectiveness and reliability. The effectiveness of the channel depends on the number of the bites of information that can be conveyed for a certain period of time, in other words, for a certain time unit. The reliability of the channel can be defined as the answer to the question: "Is there any difference between what was sent by the speaker and what was received by the hearer?" In the optimal situation, the hearer is supposed to receive exactly what was said by the speaker. Can we do anything to increase the reliability of the channel? We can speak slower, we can repeat the same over and over again. However, it will decrease the effectiveness of the channel. It was proved, for example, that the study material covered by an average lecture could be successfully presented for just twenty minutes. However, it would be extremely difficult, even impossible, for the students to absorb pure logical information without any gaps, pauses or jokes. That is why the conclusion we arrive at is that normal speech is usually half-reliable and half-effective.

Psycholinguistics is closely connected with neurolinguistics, the study of language and brain. The study of the relation between language and brain was initiated in the mid-nineteenth century by the Frenchman Paul Broca and the German Carl Wernicke. What they did was to study and characterize the aphasia (disturbed language) of people who suffered brain damage. They succeeded in identifying two specific areas of the brain, each of which is responsible for specific aspects of language use, in fact, they play a crucial role in the use of language. The names given to these areas were after these scholars. Wernicke's area is located behind and above the ear. It is responsible for comprehension and also for access to ordinary vocabulary in speaking. Broca's area is located close to the temple. It is responsible for providing the necessary grammatical structure, including grammatical words and affixes; in speech it also controls intonation and the fine muscular movements of the speech organs. These findings confirmed the reality of the localization of language in the brain: these areas are nearly always located on the left side of the brain. In the mid-twentieth century, the American neurologist Norman Geschwind elaborated the view of the brain as consisting of a number of specialized components with connections between them, and he also provided the basis of our modern classification of the several language areas in the brain and of the types of aphasia resulting from damage to each. More recently, the introduction of sophisticated brain scanners has allowed specialists to examine the activity in the brains of normal people, who are performing special linguistic tasks like reading, speaking and listening. The new data have both confirmed and extended our understanding of the location and functioning of several language areas.

3. Basic psycholinguistic factors

We can single out some factors that are of primary importance for the speaking individual. They are: the human factor, the situational factor, the experimental factor, the abnormal factor. The human factor is extremely important in defining psycholinguistics as an independent science. In the center of analysis here is not the product of speaking (our speech) but the speaking person with all his/her merits and demerits, strong and weak points, creative abilities and disturbances (*порушення* in Ukrainian). For example, it is interesting to study the differences between women's and men's speech. They are sure to speak differently because their personalities are different. In modern linguistics it is usually studied as gender differences of men and women. It has been proved, for example, that women are likely to use more adjectives compared to men. Besides, women's speech is more emotionally colored. At the same time men's discourse is more connected logically. However, it was observed that women try to stick more to the Cooperative Principle and men sometimes intentionally neglect communicative maxims. They sometimes pretend they do not understand indirect speech acts. For example: to the indirect speech act used by a woman *"I've got nothing to wear"*, the real meaning of which is *"It's about time I had some new clothes"* — a man's answer may be: *"You look great without any clothes"*. The linguist R. Lakoff states that women tend

to use irony and rhetorical questions in place of direct criticism (e.g. *Just why would you know how to cook?* implying *Of course, you wouldn't*), while men's communicative style is characterized by a lack of attention to race saving strategies.

Children's speech is something worth studying too. For instance, it can hardly be denied that teenagers speak somewhat differently from senior adults. Even different generations tend to different manner of speaking. Speech is individual, and the speakers' personality type, as well as their current emotional state, can affect the choice of language structures.

Manner of speaking as a characteristic feature of a speaking individual has recently served the grounds for the appearance of forensic linguistics -a branch of psycholinguistics that applies linguistic techniques as a means of establishing facts in criminal or detective cases. For example, criminals have been tracked down on the basis of their accent signaling where they come from; semantic ambiguities have been highlighted to introduce doubt in criminal convictions; patterns in written texts have been used as part of the psychological profiling of suspects. Forensic linguistics explore the language of the criminal court system, policing, and also methods of authorial attribution.

The situational factor also plays an important role. If we look at any text more or less carefully, we will see that all the parameters of the communicative speech situations are somehow reflected in it. We can basically determine where and when this or that conversation takes place (e.g. *Can you tell me the time? — The bell has gone.*)

The experimental factor is of primary importance as well. Generally speaking, the experiment is recognized as the leading method of psychology. The experiment helps to create an artificial situation allowing the speaker to resort to special linguistic devices which are of special interest to the researcher. Besides, the experimental situation may cause the speaker to exercise certain linguistic abilities so that the scholar may determine whether these abilities are well developed, underdeveloped or impaired (slow, *уповишьнет* in Ukrainian). Tests are extremely popular in psycholinguistic studies.

The abnormal factor should also be taken into consideration when dealing with language. Linguistics has always been a norm centric discipline. It means that linguists have analyzed the "correct" texts only. It has never been clear what is to be done with the "wrong" texts. The texts produced by illiterate people, foreigners or mentally sick individuals were merely defined as "incorrect" and accordingly, considered not worth studying at all. However, these texts do exist, so something must be done with them. The term "wrong" is not a very successful one because it gives nothing to our understanding what such texts are really like and what mental processes bring them into being. It was the Russian linguist Professor L. Scherba, who put forward the term "negative speech material". According to him, negative speech material includes everything that does not meet the existing norms and standards. Here are some examples of what Professor L. Scherba considers negative speech material:

1. Children's speech;
2. Mistakes in adults' speech;
3. Foreigners' speech;
4. Speech in stressful situations;
5. Speech disturbances.

4. Basic features of the subconscious language

So far, we have arrived at the conclusion that the analysis of different language structures and units can hardly be separated from the study of human mind and the way it functions. Human mind comprises two spheres: the conscious sphere and the subconscious one. When studying different aspects of the subconscious sphere, modern psychologists usually use the term "mind set". The mind set can be defined as a special state of mind that precedes any human activity including speaking.

The mind set is the person's readiness to perform an action; it is the modality of human behavior. Therefore, the mind set is the beginning of any human activity, language as well.

In accordance with the two main functions of language, the communicative and the expressive ones, two possible types of mind sets can be distinguished: the communicative mind set and the expressive mind set. Naturally, in the process of speaking both mind sets are activated. However, the communicative mind set dominates over the expressive one because we usually keep under control what we are saying in order to be perfectly understood by the hearer. We manage to keep in mind the speaker's social status, his specific character traits as well as different parameters of the communicative speech situation like time, place, etc. Thus, the communicative mind set operations are responsible for the success of our speech activities.

There are cases, however, when the expressive mind set performs the main function. If a person is taken by the desire to pour out his soul, to get rid of something that is tormenting him, he sometimes does not care whether he will be understood or not. He perceives linguistic signs as a part of himself, he is in the process of creating, and he can be compared to an artist or a composer. The speaker forgets about the hearer or the reader to some extent. The result of such brain activity may be a poem, a hypnotic text, a joke or sometimes a schizophrenic text. Of course, there can be different stages or levels of the speaker's drift from reality. That is why some texts that are the product of the expressive mind are masterpieces and others — samples of the negative speech material.

LECTURE 20

COGNITIVE LINGUISTICS

1. Basic concepts of Cognitive Linguistics

Cognitive linguistics is an approach to the study of language which is based upon human perception and conceptualization of the world. In other words, it studies the ways in which linguistic units and structures reflect the manner in which human beings perceive, categorize and conceptualize the world.

Cognitive linguistics is a considerably new approach to language analysis. It introduces a fundamentally different conception of language structure, linguistic investigation and the mode of language description. The central claim of cognitive linguistics is that grammar forms a continuum with lexicon and can be described in terms of symbolic units. Thus, cognitive linguistics, or cognitive grammar, as it is often called, focuses on meaning and explains it by the fact that language as an integral part of human cognition is symbolic in nature, and accordingly, it makes available to the speaker an open-ended set of linguistic **signs** or **expressions**, each of which associates a semantic representation of some kind with a phonological representation. From the symbolic nature of language follows the centrality of meaning — meaning is what language is all about. As any linguistic structure is treated as a direct reflex of cognition, it follows that a particular linguistic expression is associated with a particular way of conceptualizing a given situation. This leads to a quite different view between language and cognition in general: universal principles governing the design of all languages are rooted in cognition.

The idea that linguistic expressions reflect a particular way of perceiving the world got its first systemic description by the American language analyst Ronald W. Langacker, Professor of Linguistics at the University of California, San Diego, in his book published in 1987 "Foundations of Cognitive Grammar". In this book he proves that grammar is not autonomous with respect to semantics but rather reduces to patterns for the structuring and symbolization of conceptual content. R. W. Langacker offered Cognitive Grammar as an alternative to the generative tradition (especially

popular in America). The linguist rejected many of its underlying assumptions thus opposing his theory of language to N. Chomsky's theory in which grammar is considered to constitute an autonomous formal level of presentation.

Basic concepts of Cognitive Linguistics are usually described with the notions of "construal" "perspective", "foregrounding", "highlighting", "framing" and "metaphor". In interaction with each other, these notions have implications for an understanding of the nature of communication. In particular, they suggest that meaning is not a property of utterances but a product of the interaction between an utterance and a human beings knowledge base.

2. The notion of "construal"

There is a long tradition in linguistics to believe that the role of language is to map elements of the external world onto linguistic form. According to this view, situations can be dissected into a number of component parts, each of which corresponds to some element of language. In contrast, cognitive linguists argue that there is no such direct mapping, a particular situation can be "construed" in different ways, and that different ways of encoding a situation constitute different conceptualizations. Consider, for example, the contrast between the following sentences:

- (1) *John gave the book to Betsy.*
- (2) *John gave Betsy the book.*

The traditional view is that these sentences express the same meaning and the syntactic difference has no correspondence in semantics. However, in some cases only one of these constructions is natural} For example, we can say *John gave the fence a new coat of paint* but it would be odd to say **John gave a new coat of paint to the fence*. Conversely, whereas *He brought the apples to the table is fine*, the sentence **He brought the table the apples* is strange. These differences suggest that the two constructions illustrated in (1) and (2) involve different ways of construing "the same situation" and that in certain cases only one mode of construal is appropriate or natural.

3. The notion of "perspective"

One factor involved in alternative construals has to do with perspective. Let us consider the following examples:

- (1) *Vie path falls steeply into the valley.*
- (2) *The path climbs steeply out of the valley.*

Although these sentences could be used to describe the same scene, it is impossible to say that they have the same meaning. The difference between them lies in perspective. In (3) the viewpoint is that of someone looking down into the valley, whereas in (4) it is that of someone looking up from the valley floor. The actual position of the speaker in this case is irrelevant. One does not have to be looking down to say (3), nor is one necessarily looking up when uttering (4); one might be looking at a painting, viewing the scene sideways-on.

As a second example, consider the contrast between (5) and (6):

- (1) *John bought the car from Betsy.*
- (2) *Betsy sold the car to John.*

Here we have a pair of sentences which refer to "the same event" but they could hardly be said to express the same meaning. Again the contrast has to do with perspective: sentence (5) construes the situation from John's point of view, whereas (6) is an expression of Johns viewpoint. To prove it let us consider;

- (1) *John bought the car from Betsy for a good price.*
- (2) *Betsy sold the car to John for a good price.*

In (7) we infer that the price is relatively low, whereas (8) suggests that it was high. It must mean that (5) and (7) are oriented to the buyers point of view of view, whereas (6) and (8) are oriented to that of the seller.

One important point of perspective concerns the question of what we take as the reference point in a given scene. Consider, for example, the contrast between:

- (1) *The lamp is above the table.*
- (2) *The table is below the lamp.*

In (9) we take the table as the reference point and relate the position of the lamp with respect to it, whereas the reverse is the case in (10).

In many cases pragmatic factors influence the choice of the reference point and position of the object, consider the following examples:

- (1) *The pen is on the table.*
- (2) **The table is under the pen.*

Whereas both of these sentences are possible ways of describing the same situation, the fact that pens are normally placed with respect to tables rather than tables with respect to pens makes (11) the more natural way of coding this particular scene.

4. The notion of "foregrounding"

A second factor involved in contrasting construals has to do with the relative prominence of the various components of the situation, in other words, this term means that certain elements in discourse are more prominent than others. Foregrounding is partly a function of linguistic patterning and partly a matter of perception. For example, suppose when somebody is mowing the lawn, one of the blades strokes strikes a stone, causing it to fly into the air and break a window. This event can be reported either as in (13a) or in (13b):

- (1) (a) *I've broken the window.*
- (b) *A stone has broken the window.*

These codings involve different construals. Example (13a) foregrounds the speaker's role in the event, whereas (13b) foregrounds that of the stone, thereby backgrounding the speaker's involvement in the event. The following examples illustrate a similar point:

- (2) (a) *You won't be able to open this door with that key,*
- (b) *The key won't open this door.*

Either of these examples could be used in a situation where the addressee is about to try to open a door with a particular key, but (14a) gives greater prominence to the involvement of the addressee that does (14b). Here are some further illustrations of the point:

- (3) (a) *I'm standing on the street, (b) I'm standing in the street.*
- (4) (a) *The fish is in the water, (b) The fish is under the water.*

The members of each pair can be used to refer to the same situation, but they **highlight** different aspects of it: in (15a) the street is conceptualized as a roadway (and therefore as a supporting surface), whereas in (15b) it includes the buildings on either side (and therefore is constructed as a container); in (16a) and (16b) the contrast has to do with whether the water is thought of as a volume (container) or as a surface,

Perspective and foregoing connect linguistic coding closely to visual perception. Just as a particular construal of a situation highlights certain elements in a scene and backgrounds others, so the process of visual perception involves focusing on certain elements and relegating others to the periphery of our visual field. In the above mentioned examples (5) and (6) it is possible to say that (5) highlights the Johns role in the event, whereas (6) gives special prominence to Betsy's role. In other words, the entity from whose perspective we view a situation is often also the most salient participant.

5. *The notion of "metaphor"*

The concept of construal is closely linked to another important feature of Cognitive linguistics that differentiates it from other theories of language — namely, a concern with metaphor. Metaphor used to be thought of as a special device characteristic of the literary language. The literary use of metaphors is ancient and well studied, and the fields of rhetoric and literary criticism have developed a formidable battery of Greek terms in naming different kinds of metaphor. But metaphors are, in fact, commonplace in ordinary speech and writing: we speak of the *foot* of a mountain, the *eye* of a needle, we refer to F. de Saussure as the *farther* of linguistics, and we speak of a failing business as a *lame duck*. Any language is full of thousands of metaphors and most of them are so familiar that language users no longer even regard them as metaphorical in nature. Metaphors are a commonplace way of extending the expressive resources of a language.

In cognitive linguistics metaphor is understood as a non-literary use of a linguistic form, designed to draw attention to a perceived resemblance. It is a fundamental property of the everyday use of language and is linked to the notion of construal because different ways of thinking about a particular phenomenon (that is, different construal of that phenomenon) are associated with different metaphors. A **metaphor** can be defined as a device that involves conceptualizing one domain of experience in terms of another. For example, understanding or not understanding an argument may be construed as following someone: *I don't follow you; You've lost me; I'm not with you.* Alternatively, it can be thought in terms of seeing: *I don't see what you are getting at; Your explanation isn't clear; It was a really obscure lecture.*

A cognitive metaphor serves as mental mapping between two domains: a domain of familiar meanings and a domain of the new meaning. Therefore, for any given metaphor we can identify a source domain and a **target** domain. Source domains tend to be relatively concrete areas of experience while target domains are more abstract. For example, in the sentences, *He's a really cold person* and *She gave us a warm welcome* the source domain is the sense of touch and the target domain is the more abstract concept of intimacy.

Metaphors involve not only ways of thinking about phenomena but also ways of thinking about them. In some cases this can have significant social implications. For example, investigations of the language used about nuclear weapons over the second part of the 20th century suggest **that** different modes of discourse were employed at different times **to** make nuclear weapons palatable to the public. Part of this process involves the names that were applied to such weapons. In the early days of intercontinental ballistic missiles, names such as *Jupiter*, *Titan*, *Zeus* and *Atlas* were used. This process is metaphorical in that it invokes all the connotations of the source domain of classical mythology.

In some cases metaphors are large-scale structures that influence our thinking about the whole areas of human experience. Metaphor is in fact a prime manifestation of the cognitive claim that language and thought are inextricably intertwined.

6. The notion of "frame"

In cognitive linguistics frame is defined as a set of knowledge that are used to provide interpretive information about a language unit. The concept of frame as understood by cognitive linguistics can be best illustrated by an example. If one were asked by a non-native speaker of English what the word *wicket* meant, one might consult a dictionary for help. The Concise Oxford Dictionary gives the following definition of the word *wicket*: "one set of three stumps and two bails". But how much would this mean to a non-native speaker of English who knew nothing of the game of cricket?

If one were asked to explain the meaning of the word *wicket*, it would be natural to say not only what a wicket is but also something about its overall role in the game. The explanation could be pretty long as it would involve a lot of details. In other words, a good understanding of the word *wicket* requires a significant amount of knowledge that extends well beyond the dictionary definition. We refer to this background knowledge as the "frame".

The frame is not in itself what is generally thought of as "the meaning" of a word but it is nevertheless crucial to an understanding of it. For example, the word *uncle* makes sense only in the context of an understanding of kin relations in general — in particular how *uncle* relates to terms such *AS father, mother, aunt*, and so on. These words share the same: frame, even though they have different meanings.

Generally speaking, everything that a speaker knows about the world is a potential part of the frame for a particular term, even though some aspects of that knowledge base are more immediately relevant to a particular term than others.

The notion of frame has both a conceptual and a cultural dimension. An understanding of the word *weekend*, for instance, involves knowledge that it refers to the days that we call Saturday and Sunday rather than to the days that we call, for example Monday and Tuesday. In other terms, this term profiles a certain part of the seven-day cycle. This could be regarded as conceptual knowledge. But that knowledge is overlaid with other aspects of knowledge that are also part of the frame: Saturday and Sunday have a special status as non-working days for most people in our culture. In other words, part of the knowledge base for *weekend* involves an understanding of certain specific cultural patterns.

This means that the concept of frame embraces the traditional concept of "connotation". For many people the word *weekend* conjures up pleasant images of relaxation, sport, trips to the beach, and so on, just as the term *mother* conjures up images of warmth, affection, and care.

The concept of frame also has implications for language change. When new frames arise, existing words are often carried over into the new domain, thereby undergoing some change of meaning. Most of the terminology that relates to aircraft and air travel, for instance, is derived from the nautical domain. The process of entering the plane is called "boarding", the main passenger area is called the main "deck", and the kitchen is called the "galley". In some cases the nature of the referent is very different from the corresponding entity in the source domain (for example, the deck), so that there is a significant shift in meaning.

Appearance of new words can sometimes be explained in terms of the frame shift. Some creative moves have both a cognitive and a linguistic dimension. Consider, for example, the word *workaholic*, which has entered the language relatively recently. Clearly, there must have been an occasion on which a particular individual produced this word for the first time. It was motivated by the perception of similarities between addiction to alcohol and "addiction" to work. This was a creative event, since in many respects working hard and drinking heavily are activities that have very little in common. Working hard is generally perceived as socially virtuous, while drinking heavily is

not. Normally, therefore, it is a compliment to describe someone as "a hard worker" but not to call them "a heavy drinker".

The famous German linguist and scholar Wilhelm von Humbolt once said that language makes infinite use of finite means. However, the question arises: are the "means" with which language works in fact finite? According to cognitive linguistics approach, there is a sense in which even as basic an item as a word is not a finite entity and is potentially open and accessible to new meanings. Who could have predicted forty years ago the kind of meanings that words such as *bug*, *save*, *write*, *disk*, *program*, *screen*, *virus*, and thousands of others would acquire as a result of the computer revolution? The process of putting together linguistic units cannot be separated from the process of putting together conceptual units, and the ways in which such conceptual combinations produce is infinitely variable. Therefore, the reason why language is able to cope with infinite variability and open-endedness lies in the fact that it does not make use of finite means. This view is tenable only if we see language and cognition as inextricably interwoven.

1.					
2.					
3.					
4.					