Гладуш Н.Ф. Теоретична граматика сучасної англійської мови в таблицях: Навч.посібник. – Київ: ТОВ «ВТС Принт», 2012. – 188 с. (рекомендовано Міністерством освіти і науки, молоді та спорту України)

I. Theoretical grammar. Functions of Language

- The subject matter.
- Functions of Language.
- System and Structure.
- Language and Speech.

Grammar

The term **"grammar"** goes back to a Greek word and means "the art of writing".

- is a device that specifies the infinite set of well-formed sentences and assigns to each of them one or more structural descriptions;

- is the set of structural rules that govern the composition of sentences, phrases, and words in any given natural language.
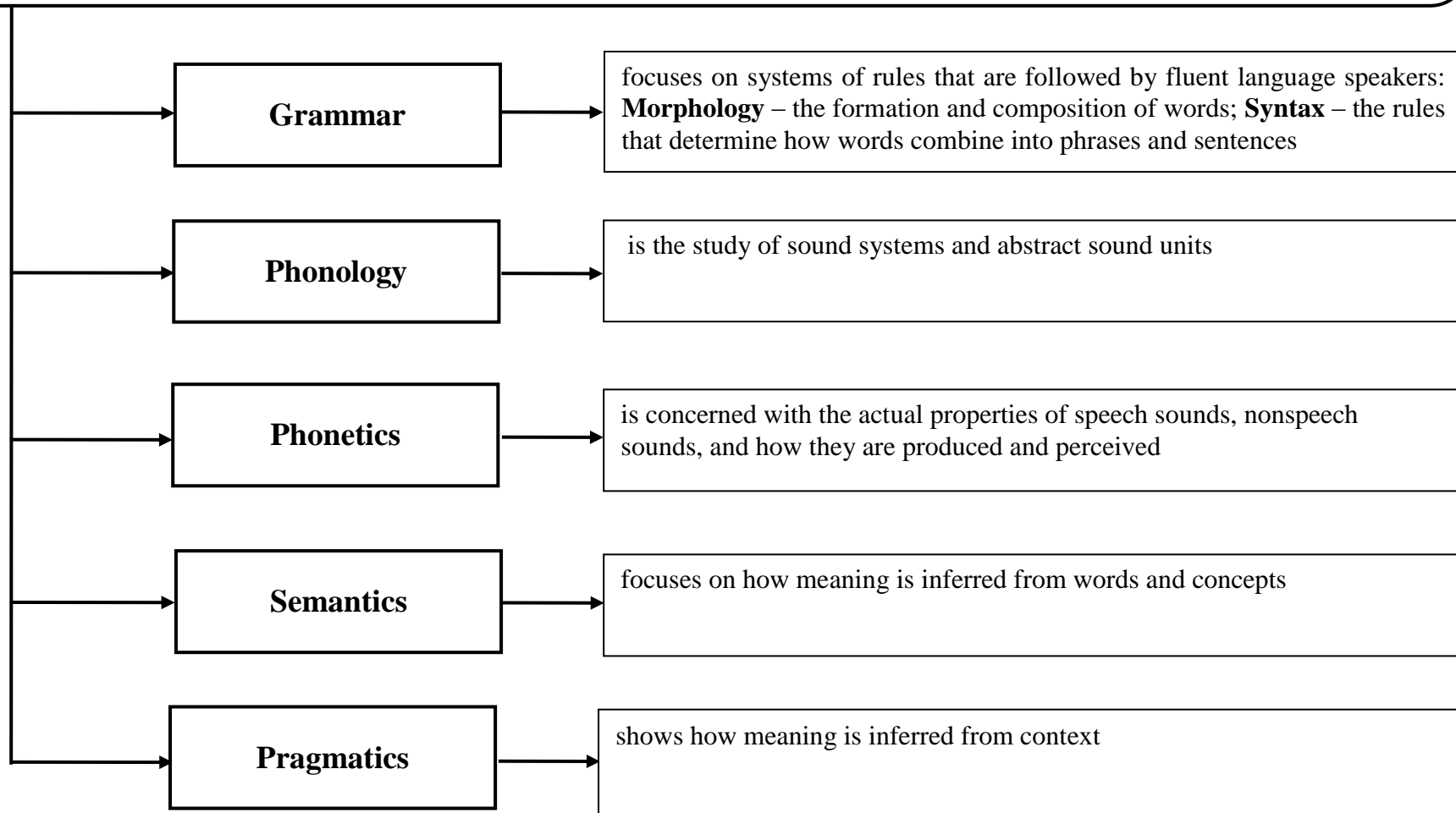
Practical grammar is the description of grammar rules that are necessary to understand and formulate sentences.

Theoretical grammar offers explanation for these rules. It deals with the language as a complex functional system.
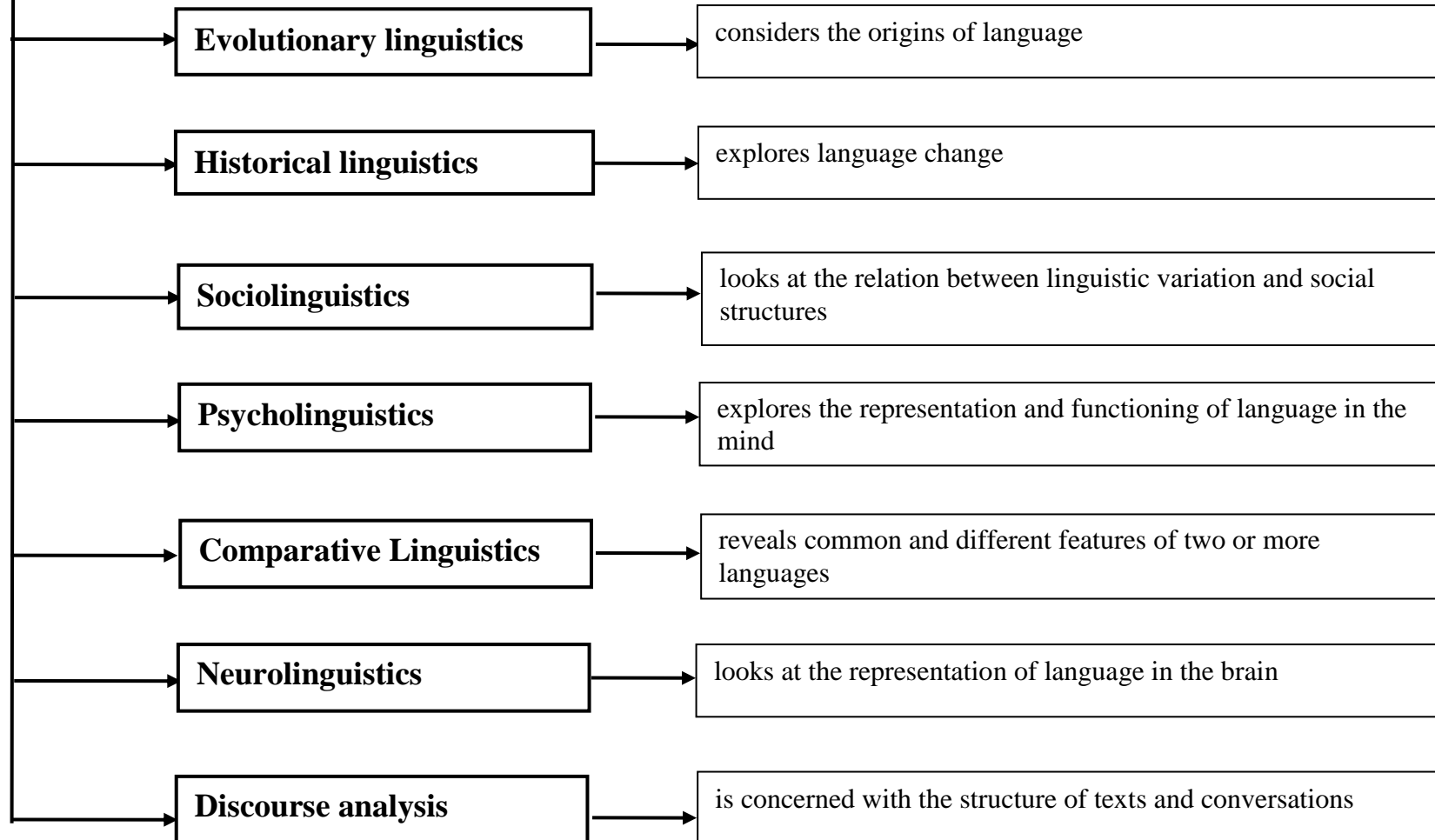
Linguistics

The term "linguistics" is used as a synonym to grammar; it means the scientific study of human language.

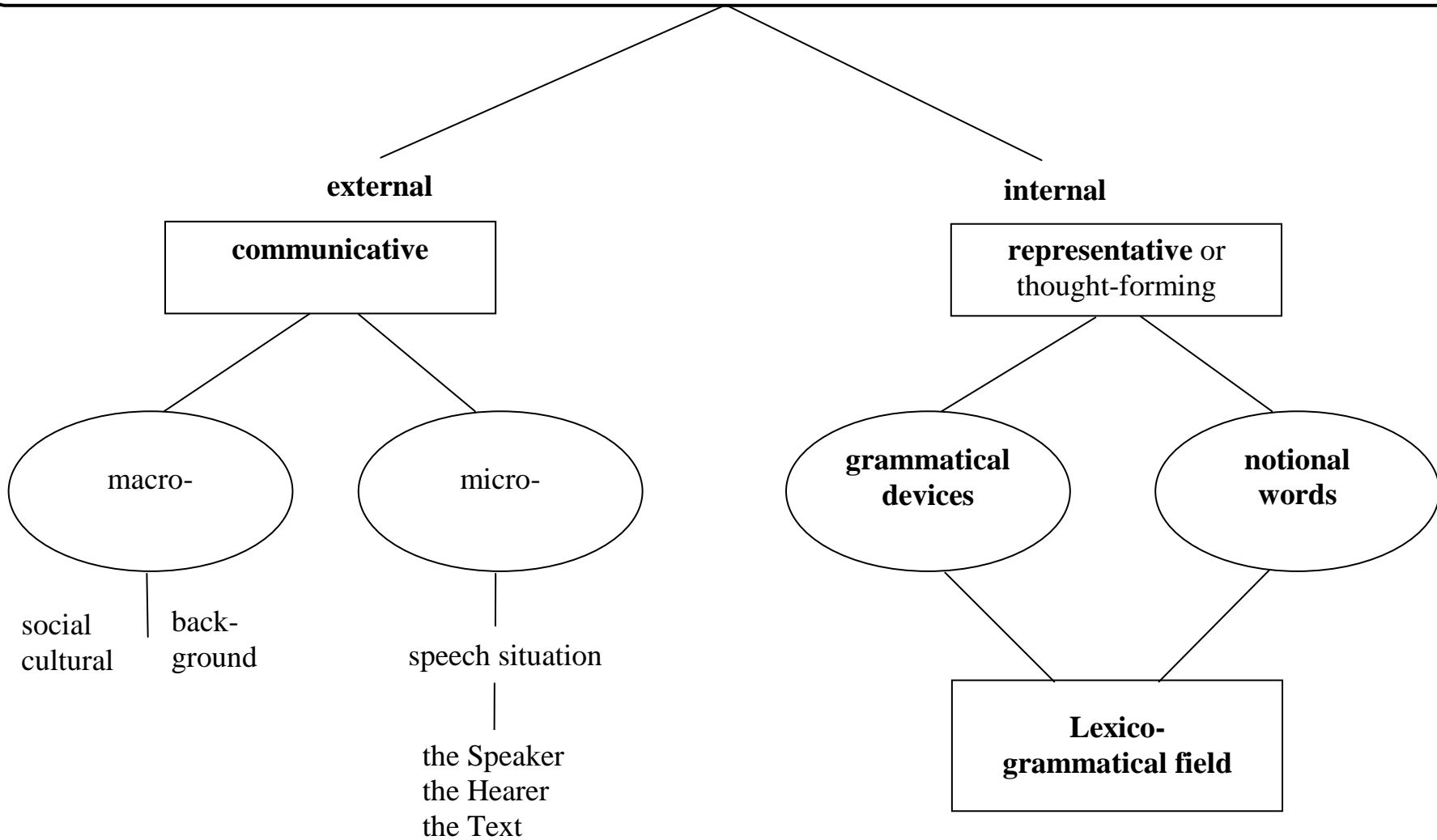Linguistics can be broadly broken into the following categories or subfields:

Grammar → focuses on systems of rules that are followed by fluent language speakers: **Morphology** – the formation and composition of words; **Syntax** – the rules that determine how words combine into phrases and sentences

Phonology → is the study of sound systems and abstract sound units

Phonetics → is concerned with the actual properties of speech sounds, nonspeech sounds, and how they are produced and perceived

Semantics → focuses on how meaning is inferred from words and concepts

Pragmatics → shows how meaning is inferred from context

Many other subdisciplines of linguistics tackle language within a broader context:

| **Evolutionary linguistics** | considers the origins of language |

| **Historical linguistics** | explores language change |

| **Sociolinguistics** | looks at the relation between linguistic variation and social structures |

| **Psycholinguistics** | explores the representation and functioning of language in the mind |

| **Comparative Linguistics** | reveals common and different features of two or more languages |

| **Neurolinguistics** | looks at the representation of language in the brain |

| **Discourse analysis** | is concerned with the structure of texts and conversations |

Functions of Language

Communicative	as a means of communication

Representative	as a means of thinking

Emotive	as a means of expressing feelings/emotions

Phatic	as a means of establishing contact

Metalingual	as a means of language investigation

Functions of Language

external

communicative

macro-

social cultural / back-ground

micro-

speech situation

the Speaker
the Hearer
the Text

internal

representative or thought-forming

grammatical devices

notional words

Lexico-grammatical field

Representative Function

Conceptual entities

notions
facts
categories
situations

E
X
P
L
I
C
A
T
I
O
N

REFLECTION

representation

interpretation

nomination

signification

Objective referents:
things,
phenomena,
relations,
categories,
events,
situations

designation

L   L/M   M   S   L/S

Lexico-grammatical field
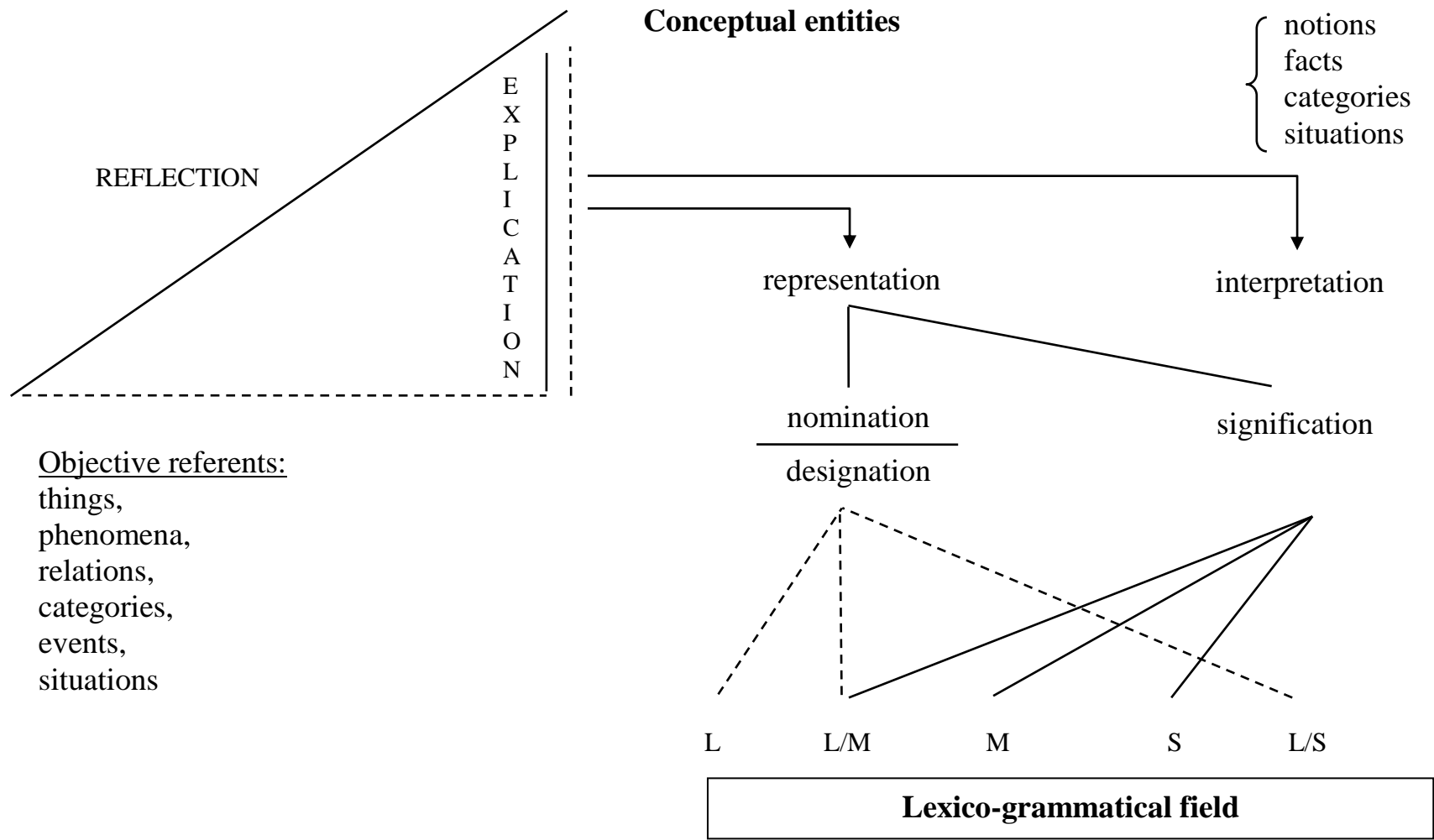
Relationship between Language and Thinking
Different points of view:

1. Language and thought are totally separate entities, with one being dependent on the other: language might be dependent upon thought or thought might be dependent upon language. The traditional view supports the first of these: people have thoughts and then they put these thoughts into words;

2. Language and thought are identical – it is not possible to engage in any rational thinking without using language. The way people use language dictates the lines along which they can think. The Sapir – Whorf hypothesis: language determines the way we think (**linguistic determinism**); the distinctions encoded in one language are not found in other languages (**linguistic relativity**).

3. Language may not determine the way we think, but it influences the way we perceive and remember, and it makes mental tasks easy or difficult. The interdependence of language and thought – linguistic relativity – is the fact that can hardly fail to be acknowledged.
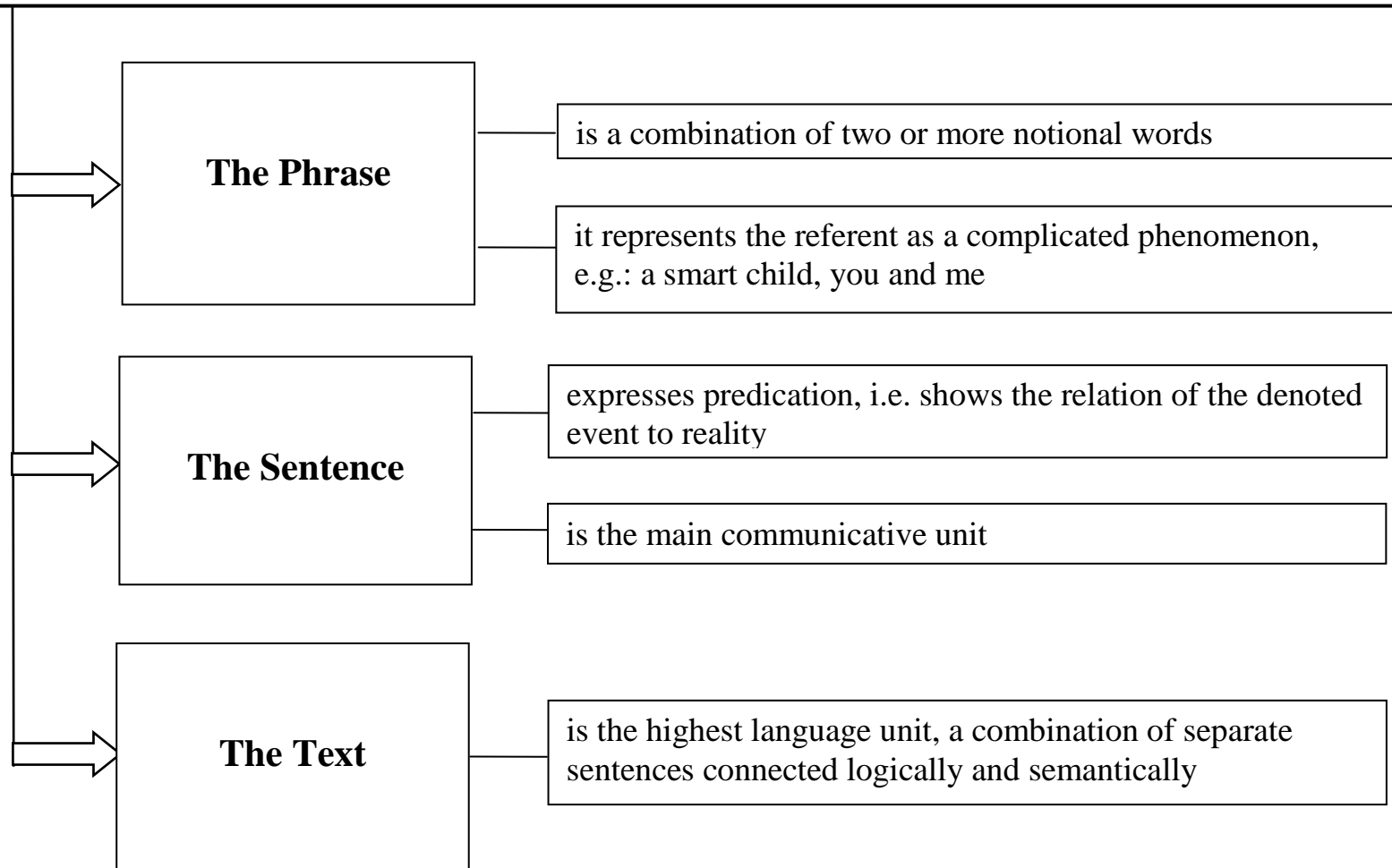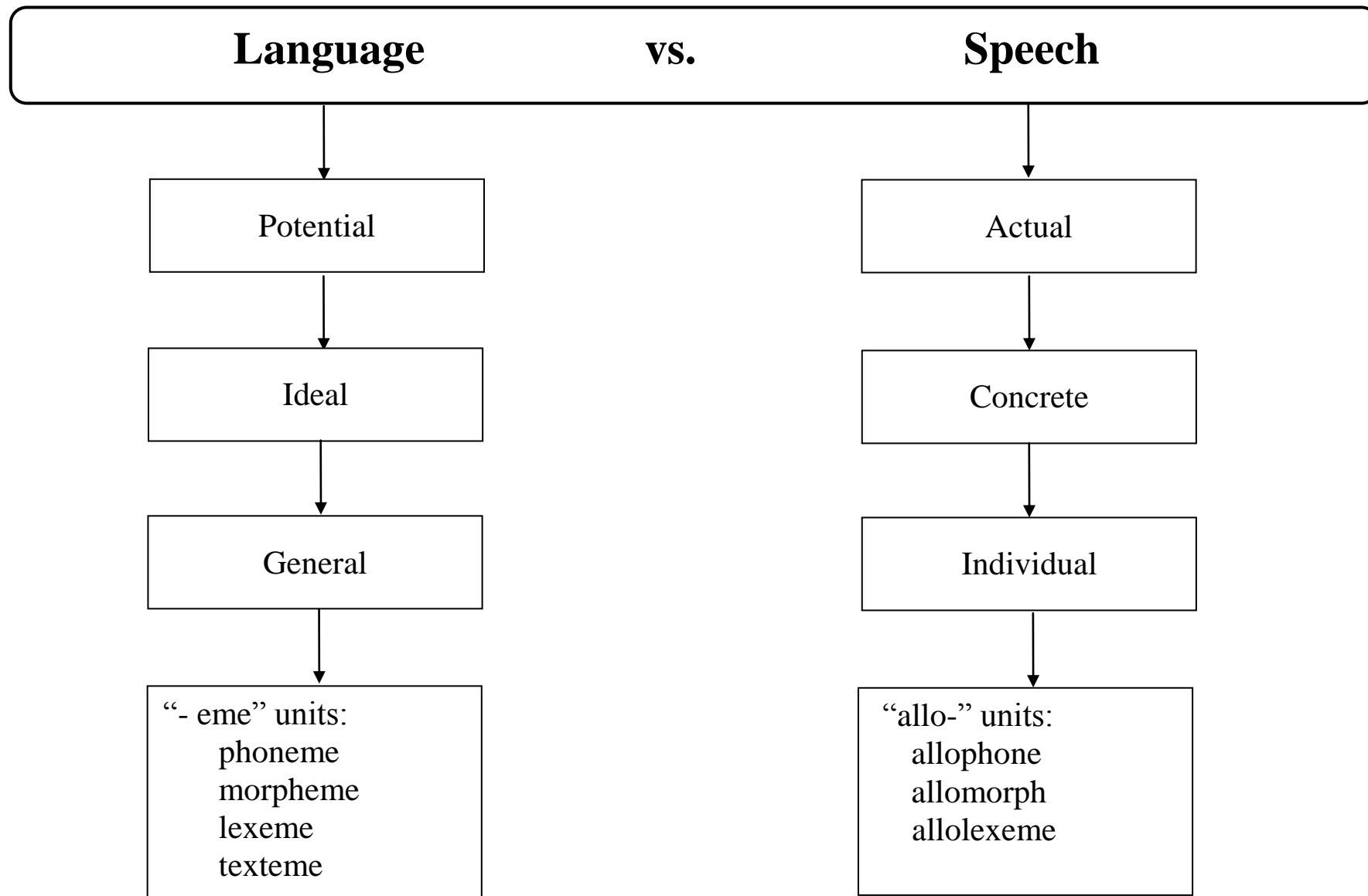
Language as a structure

Levels	Units	Definitions
Phonological	phoneme	the smallest distinctive unit
Morphological	morpheme	the smallest meaningful unit
	word	the smallest naming unit
Syntactical	word combination	
	sentence	the smallest communicative unit
Super syntactical	text	

Linguistic units

The Phoneme
- has no meaning
- differentiates morphemes and words
- is not a sign, e.g. sheep – ship.

The Morpheme
- the elementary meaningful part of a word
- expresses abstract meanings: lexical (read), lexical-grammatical (read-**er**), grammatical (read-**s**)
- is not an autonomous unit

The Word
- is a direct name of things
- it is the main expressive unit of language, which ensures the thought-forming function of language

Linguistic units

The Phrase
- is a combination of two or more notional words
- it represents the referent as a complicated phenomenon, e.g.: a smart child, you and me

The Sentence
- expresses predication, i.e. shows the relation of the denoted event to reality
- is the main communicative unit

The Text
- is the highest language unit, a combination of separate sentences connected logically and semantically

Language	vs.	Speech

Potential		Actual

Ideal		Concrete

General		Individual

"- eme" units:
    phoneme
    morpheme
    lexeme
    texteme
		"allo-" units:
		    allophone
		    allomorph
		    allolexeme

Language as a system

- System is a group of things or parts working together in a regular relation.

- Language is a complex system of linguistic units that exist only in their interrelation and interdependence.

- Language is an organized set of linguistic units regularly interrelated, ultimately interdependent and interlocked.

- Language is a semiotic system.

- Language appears naturally, develops all the time, it is capable of self-regulation when other sign systems are artificial and conventional.

- Language is a universal way of communication, other sign systems have limited spheres of usage.

- Language has a lot of layers, a very complicated hierarchical system.

Semiotics

It studies the system and structure of different signs

The main features of the signs are: material character, its ability to denote something which is beyond it, the absence of the causal links with the defined, informative character, systemic character

Signs create definite systems and their value is determined by its place in the system
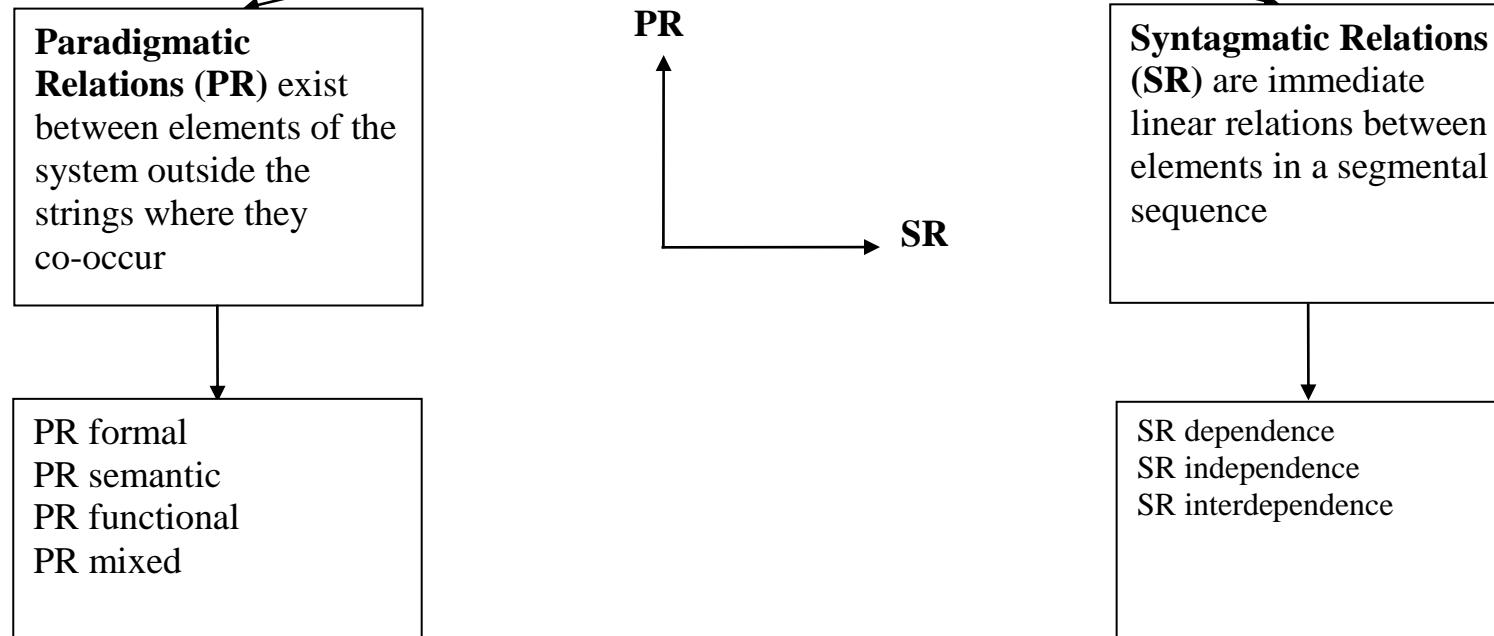
Sign Systems: traffic and military signs, computer languages, language etc.

15

Language   vs.   Other Sign System

Language	Other Sign System
Natural	Artificial
Open	Closed
Used by all	Used by a definite group
A system of denotators	A system of indicators
Signs may have several meanings	Sings have one meaning
Universal	Situationally conditioned

Systemic Relations

Paradigmatic Relations (PR) exist between elements of the system outside the strings where they co-occur

PR

SR

Syntagmatic Relations (SR) are immediate linear relations between elements in a segmental sequence

PR formal
PR semantic
PR functional
PR mixed

SR dependence
SR independence
SR interdependence

Types of Paradigmatic Relations

PR formal are based on the similarity of the form of a linguistic unit:
- speaker
- speakers
- speaker's
- speakers'

The paradigm is a set of all possible forms of one and the same linguistic unit.

Developed, Analytical:
- Go
- Went
- Shall/ will go
- Am/is/are going
- Was/were going
- Shall/ will be going
- Have/has gone
- Had gone, etc.

Reduced, Synthetic:
- Clever
- Cleverer
- The cleverest

Types of paradigms:
- **Categorial**: boy, boy's, boys, boys;
- **Word-building**: worker, reader, writer;
- **Syntactic**:
  They live in New York.
  They do not live in New York.
  Do they live in New York?

Types of Paradigmatic Relations

PR$_2$ semantic: synonyms, antonyms, topical connections:

e.g. <u>Verbs of motion</u>: go, move, come, cross, return, etc.
      <u>Furniture items</u>: bed, chair, table, wardrobe, etc.

PR$_3$ functional:
- A
- The
- This
- That
- All
- Some

book(s)

all these elements have the same functional feature of Noun **determiners**.

PR$_4$ mixed (functional + semantic)
- **The boy** is here.
- **He** is here.
- **All** are here.
- **Three** are here.

N-like elements

Types of Syntagmatic Relations

Relations		Connections	
types	**kinds**	**forms**	**means**
SR1 **coordination** (independence)	symmetric	copulative	syndetic
	asymmetric	disjunctive	asyndetic
	homogeneous elements	adversative	
		causative-consecutive	
SR 2 **subordination** (dependence)	adverbial	agreement	prepositions
	objective	government	word-order
	attributive	adjoinment	
		enclosure	
SR 3 **predication** (interdependence)	primary	subject- predicate agreement	inflexions
	secondary		word-order

II. Basic Grammatical notions

- Grammatical Meaning;
- Grammatical Form;
- Grammatical Opposition;
- Grammatical Categories.

Lexical meaning

concrete, individual, having no special markers of expression, it is expressed by the root of the word.

- **Lexical meaning** is the meaning proper to the given linguistic unit in all its forms and distributions: **listen, listens, listening, listened, listener, listeners, listener's, listeners'**.
- Lexical meaning is the realization of concept or emotion by means of a definite language system.

Two Components of Lexical Meaning

Denotative meaning gives objective information about an object; it is the conceptual content of a word.
Terms have only denotative meaning:
e.g.: **nucleus**, **paradigm**

Connotative meaning is what the word conveys about the speaker's attitude to different situations:
e.g.: **stomach vs belly**.

Types of Connotative Meaning
- **Stylistic**: *house* (neutral), *residence* (formal), *hut* (informal)
- **Evaluative**: *Catholics – papists*
- **Emotional**: *cold* weather – *beastly* weather
- **Intensifying**: *splendid – gorgeous, magnificent*.

Grammatical meaning

Grammatical meaning is a generalized, rather abstract meaning, always expressed by special formal markers or in opposition by the absence of markers.
Grammatical meaning is recurrent in identical sets of individual forms of different words. The common element in the words *kids, tables, types* is the grammatical meaning of plurality.

Types of Grammatical meaning

- **Explicit** – having a formal marker,
  e.g. cat**s**,cat'**s**.
- **Implicit** – implied, having no formal marker,
  e.g. **cat** ("animate").
- **General** – meaning of the whole word-class,
  e.g. **N** – thingness, **V** – verbiality;
- **Dependent** – meaning of a subclass within the same word-class,
  e.g. The Noun has the grammatical meaning of
  animateness/inanimateness (boy/book),
  countableness/uncountableness (pen/milk).

Grammatical Form

Grammatical form is a means of expressing the grammatical meaning; it is a combination of the stem of a word with the word changing morpheme (it may be a zero morpheme):
e.g. speak, speaks, spoke, speaking

Types of Grammatical form

Synthetic forms:
pen - pens,
foot – feet

Analytical forms:
shall/will go
have/has done

Grammatical Opposition

Grammatical opposition is a generalized correlation of grammatical forms by means of which a certain grammatical category is expressed.
The members of the opposition are called opposemes.
Opposemes possess two types of features: common and differential.

Types of Grammatical opposition

Binary and more than binary

Privative:
love :: loved

Equipollent:
am :: are :: is

Gradual:
strong :: stronger :: the strongest

Grammatical Category

Grammatical category is the opposition between mutually exclusive grammatical forms expressing general grammatical meaning: e.g.: **boy** :: **boys**.
It is a dialectical unity of grammatical meaning and grammatical form. It correlates with the objective and conceptual reality.

conceptual reality

Objective reality/ category

Lingual reality/ grammatical category

Types of Grammatical form

Those grammatical categories that have references in the objective reality are called **referential grammatical categories**, e.g.: grammatical category of number.

The grammatical categories that correlate only with the conceptual reality are called **significational**, e.g. grammatical categories of mood and degree.
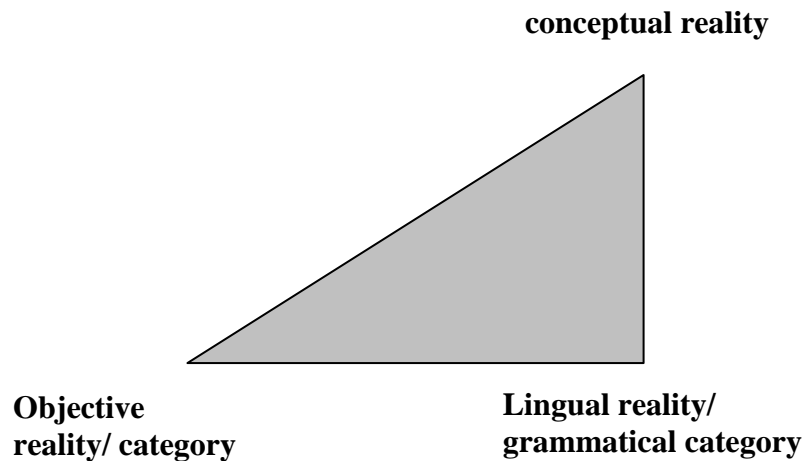
III. Morphology

- The Morpheme;
- Classification of Morphemes;
- The Word.

Levels of Language

Level of language	Branch of language study
The *sound* of spoken language: the way words are pronounced	Phonology, phonetics
The patterns of *written* language; the shape of language on the page	Graphology
The way words are constructed; words and their constituent structures	**Morphology**
The *way* words combine with other words to form phrases and sentences	Syntax; grammar
The words we use; the vocabulary of a language	Lexical analysis; lexicology
The *meaning* of words and sentences	Semantics
The way words and sentences are used in everyday situations; the meaning of language in context	Pragmatics; discourse analysis

Rank Scale of Linguistic Units

Sentence

Clause

Phrase (group)

Word

Morpheme – bottom unit on the scale
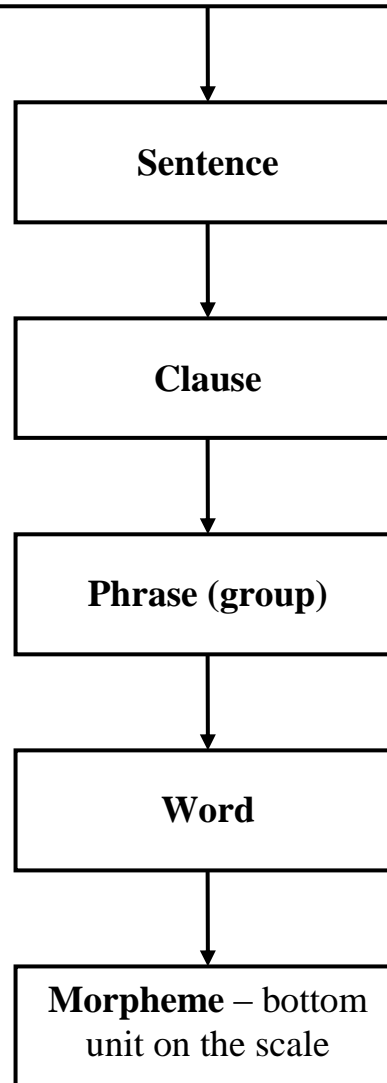
The Morpheme

(Greek - morphe "form" + -eme "conditionally smallest distinctive unit") is the smallest meaningful unit having a sound form and occurring in speech only as a part of a word.

Classification of morphemes

According to meaning

- **lexical** (roots): *sing, pen, boy;*
- **grammatical** (inflections): *pen**s**, writ**er**;*
- **lexico-grammatical** (affixes): ***un**help**ful**, **de**frost.*

According to form

- **free** (can stand an individual words in their out right): *sad, bamboo;*
- **bound** (depend on their meaning on being conjoined to other items): ***dis**function, use**less***
- **semi-bound** (can function as a free morpheme and as a bound morpheme): *a man of forty - mankind*

According to linear characteristics

- **continuous** (linear): *liv**ed**;*
- **discontinuous**: *be + ...ing*
  be/have + ...en

The Word

is the main expressive unit of human language which ensures the thought-forming function of language, the basic nominative unit of language.

						contextual connotative gram. meaning
					actualized categorial gram. meaning	
				potential caterial gram. meaning		
			particular implicit gram. meaning			
		general implicit l/gr meaning				
word =	content =	lexical meaning				
	expression	derivation pattern		Ø		
					marker	
						word form

Words can be

monomorphic (consisting of only one root morpheme: *boss, cell*)

polymorphic (consisting of at least one root morpheme and a number of derivational affixes: *creator, body-shaping*)

Derived words are composed of one root morpheme and at least one derivational morpheme:
fight - fighter

Compound words contain at least two root morphemes:
policeman, madhouse.

IV. Parts of speech

Different approaches to parts of speech problem:

- **Traditional** classification;
- **Functional** classification (H.Sweet, Ch.Hockett);
- **Distributional** classification (Ch.Fries);
- **Complex** approach (semantic, formal, functional).

Tendencies in grouping English words

Pre-structural tendency: according to meaning, function and form (H. Sweet, O. Jespersen, O.Curme, B. Ilyish).

Structural tendency: according to structural meaning and distribution: (Ch. Fries, W. Francis, A. Hill).

Post-structural tendency: according to meaning, function, form; stem-building means and distribution (or combinability) (Khaimovitch and Rogovskaya, L.Barkhudarov and Shteling).

Traditional approach

is based on Latin and Greek languages (synthetic languages)

Lexico-grammatical classes of words:
Declinable (capable of inflection) vs. **indeclinable** (incapable of inflection).

Declinable:
- Noun
- Pronoun
- Adjective
- Verb
- Adverb

Indeclinable:
- Prepositions
- Conjunction
- Interjection
- Particles
- modal words

Parts of speech
Synthetic Languages

Word classes
Analytic Languages

In Synthetic languages inflection ia a marker of a part of speech reference of a word, e.g. глок**ая** куздр**а**.

In English inflection can't be a marker of a part of speech reference of a word, e.g. **book** – **N, V ?**

All the instances of one part of speech are "the same" only in the sense that in the structural patterns of English each has the same **functional significance**. (Ch.Fries)
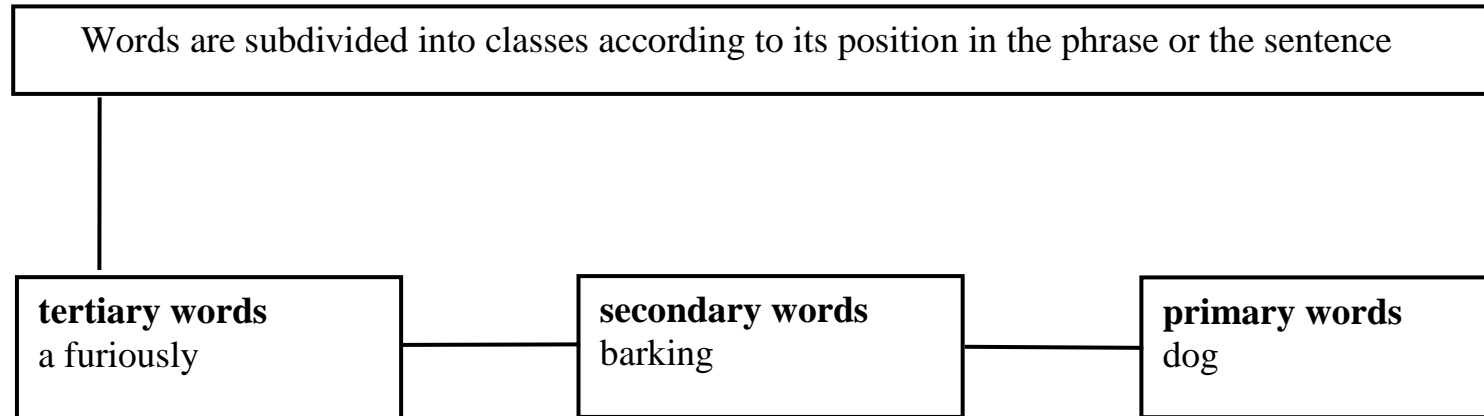
Henry Sweet
1st scientific grammar of English

According to declinablity	• **Declinables:** nouns, verbs, adjectives; • **Indeclinables**: adverbs, conjunctions, interjections.
According to the syntactic function of a unit	• **noun-words:** noun-pronouns, noun-numerals, infinitive/gerund; • **adjective-words:** adj-pronouns, adj-numerals, participle; • **verbs:** verbal and non-verbal forms.
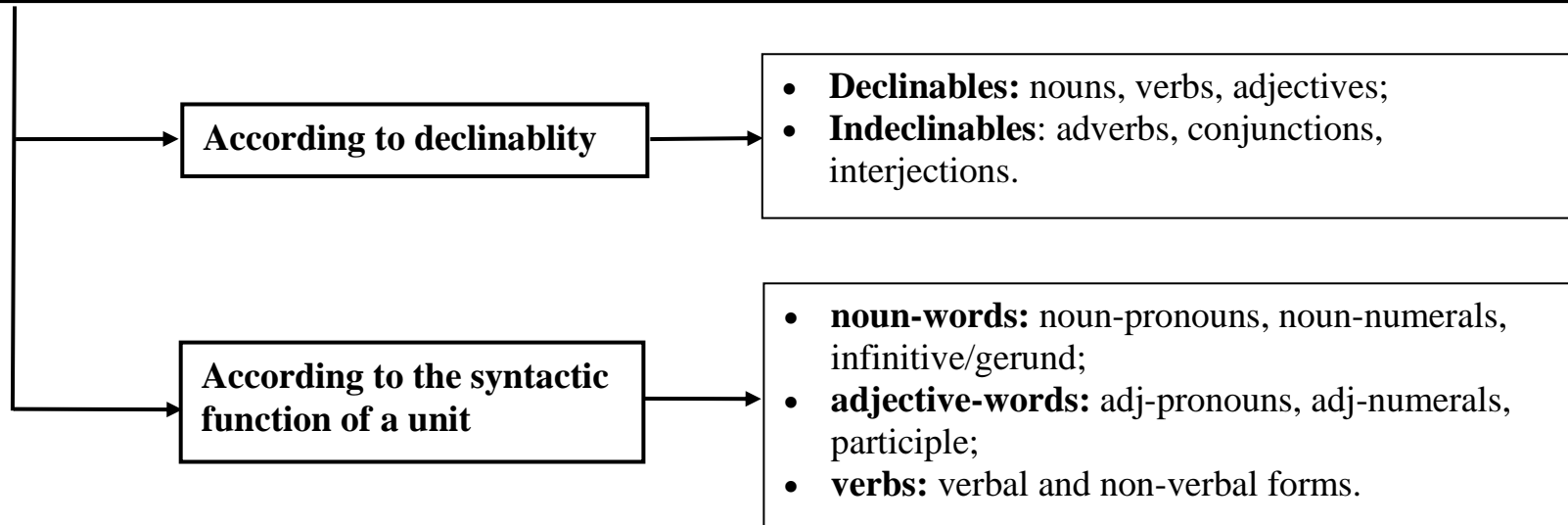
Critical Remarks:

The inconsistency of the classification is proved by the mixture of two different criteria employed in it:

- The first subclassification into declinable/indeclinable is pure *morphological*. It is not relevant for English which is an analytical language.
- The further subdivision of words is based on their *syntactic functioning*.
- Words lexically and morphologically identical belong to different classes according to their syntactic functioning.
- One group of words unites lexemes that are semantically and morphologically different.
  E.g. **Noun-words** are singled out on syntactic functioning. **Verbs** – on its morphology.

Otto Jespersen
The theory of three ranks

Words are subdivided into classes according to its position in the phrase or the sentence

tertiary words
a furiously

secondary words
barking

primary words
dog

Charles Fries
distributional classification

Ch. Fries starts form the assumption that a part of speech is a ***functioning pattern***. All words of one part of speech are the same only in the sense that in the pattern each has the same functional significance.

The	concert	was	good	always.
group A	*class 1*	*class 2*	*class 3*	*class 4*

According to the position of a word in the sentence

Four classes of words:
Class 1 – N,
Class 2 – V,
Class 3 – A,
Class 4 – D.

15 groups of function words: Group A (the, no, your, few, four, much...), Group B, etc.

Group A consists of all the words that can occupy the position of ***the:*** *their, both, few, such, much, John's.*

The group consists of words with different morphological, semantic and syntactic properties. This is the weak point of distributional classification.

Critical Remarks

Weak points of Charles Fries' classification

- It is not a classification of words but the classification of syntactic positions and distributions of words;

- It neglects the morphological properties of words;

- The classes and groups are overlapping. One and the same word can refer to different classes and groups.

Positive points of Charles Fries' classification

For the first time he described function words:

- **Specifiers of notional words**: modal verbs, modifiers and intensifiers of adjectives and adverbs.

- **Interpositional elements**: prepositions, conjunctions.

- **The words that refer to the sentence as a whole:** question words, attention-getting words, affirmation and negation words, etc..

Modern Approach to Parts of Speech Problem

In Modern Linguistics parts of speech are discriminated on the basis of the three criteria (according to Academician Sčherba):

- Semantic – evaluation of generalized meaning;

- Formal – inflexional and derivational features;

- Functional – combinability and syntactic role of words in the sentence.

The features of the Noun

According to meaning

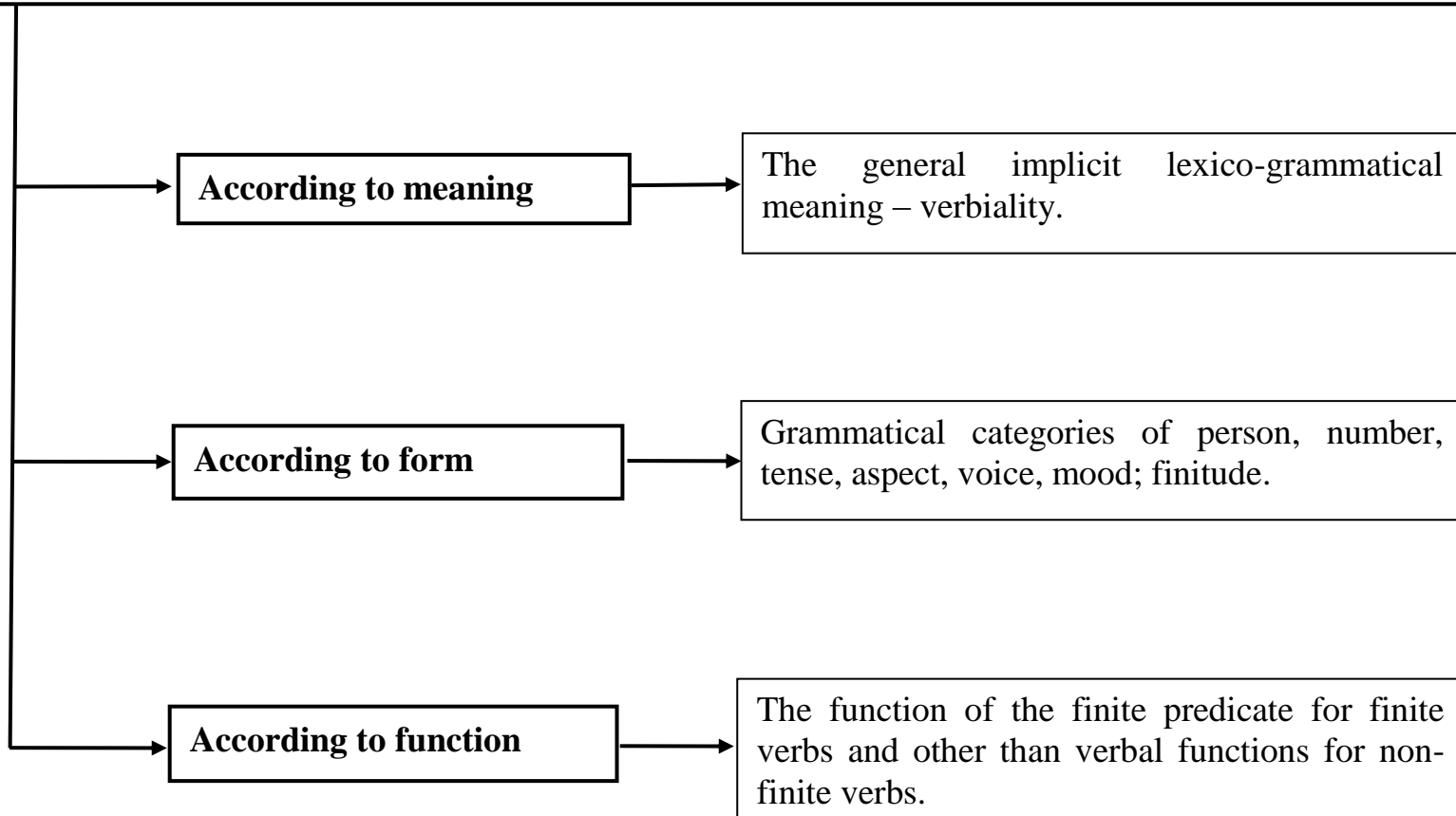- the general implicit lexico-grammatical meaning – substantivity.

According to form

- the grammatical categories of number and case;
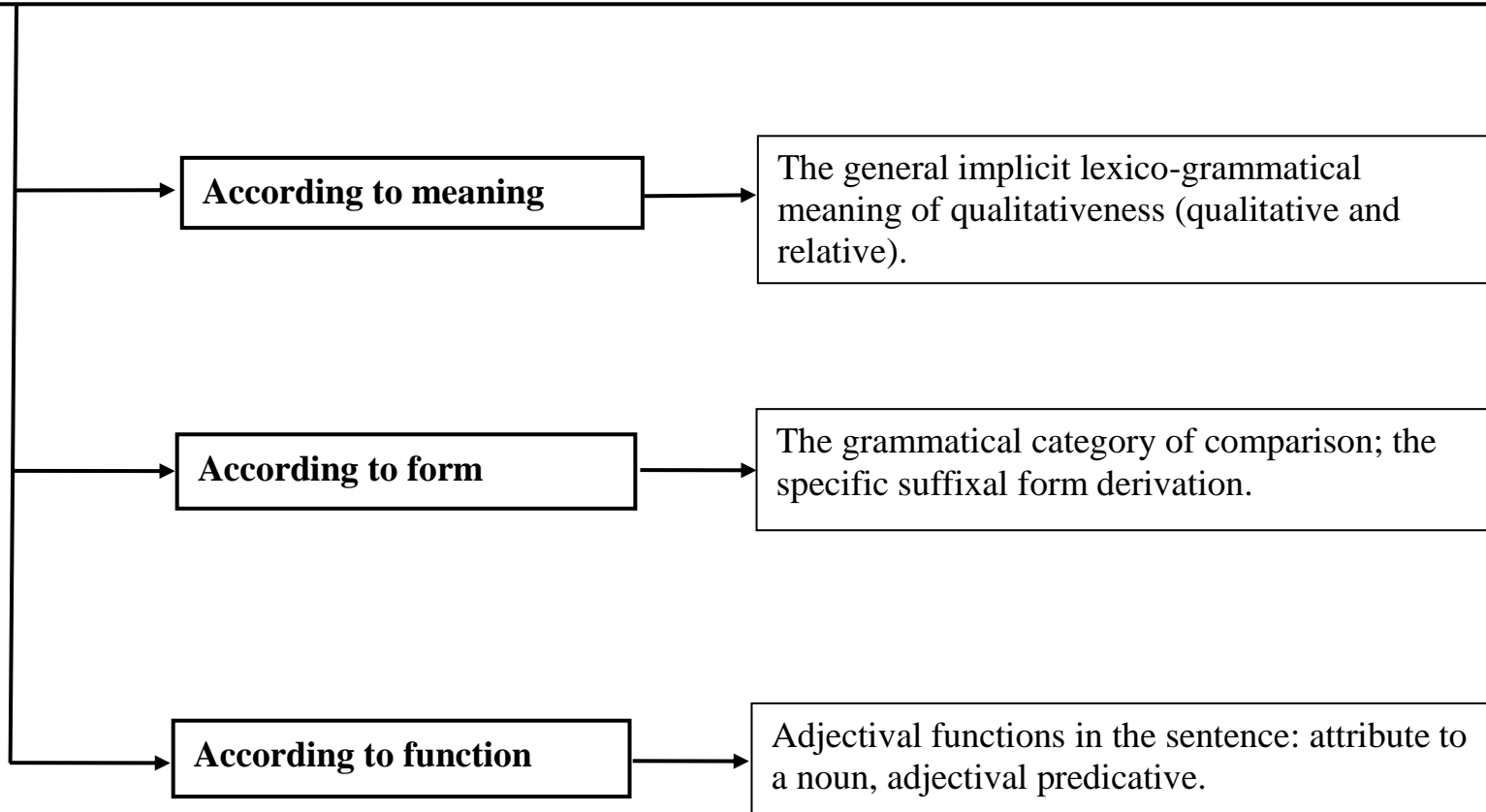- the specific suffixal forms of derivation;
- prepositional connections.

According to function

- modification by the adjective;
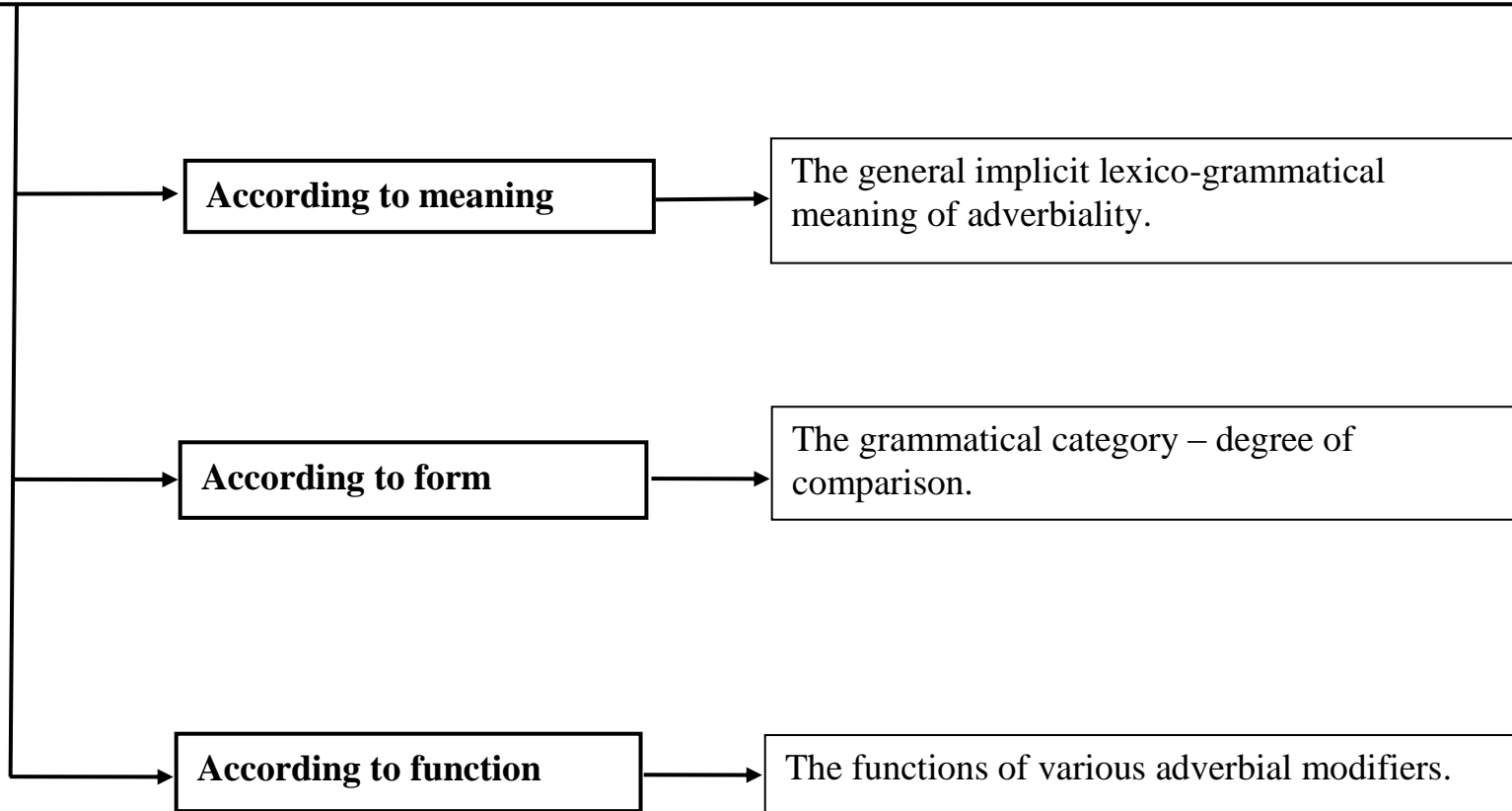- the substantive functions in the sentence: subject, object, predicative.

The features of the Verb

According to meaning → The general implicit lexico-grammatical meaning – verbiality.

According to form → Grammatical categories of person, number, tense, aspect, voice, mood; finitude.

According to function → The function of the finite predicate for finite verbs and other than verbal functions for non-finite verbs.

The features of the Adjective

According to meaning → The general implicit lexico-grammatical meaning of qualitativeness (qualitative and relative).

According to form → The grammatical category of comparison; the specific suffixal form derivation.

According to function → Adjectival functions in the sentence: attribute to a noun, adjectival predicative.

The features of the Adverb

According to meaning → The general implicit lexico-grammatical meaning of adverbiality.

According to form → The grammatical category – degree of comparison.

According to function → The functions of various adverbial modifiers.

Functional parts of speech

Words of incomplete nominative meaning and non-self-dependent, mediatory functions in the sentence.

The Article

The Preposition

The Conjunction

The particle

The modal word

The interjection

V. The Noun

- **Semantic classes of Nouns;**
- **Morphological characteristics of the Noun;**
- **Grammatical category of Number;**
- **Grammatical category of Case;**
- **The problem of Gender;**

The Noun
is the central lexical unit of language

Semantic Features

According to the type of nomination

Proper:
- Names of people: American, Romeo.
- Family names: Smith, Brown.
- Geographical names: Washington, the Thames.
- Names of companies, newspapers, etc.: Hoover, The Times.

Common:
- Concrete: house, hat;
- Abstract: news, happiness;
- Names of materials: air, sugar;
- Collective: cattle, crew;
- Class nouns: bird, furniture.

According to the form of existence
- animate;
- inanimate

According to their quantitative structure
- countable
- uncountable

Morphological features of the Noun

According to its structure: simple, derived (affix+stem); compound (stem+stem); composite.

Grammatical categories of **number and case**.

Category of **gender (its existence is disputable)**.

Syntactic features of the Noun

used in the sentence in all <u>syntactic functions</u> <u>but predicate</u>

<u>combinability</u>: right-hand and left-hand connections with practically all parts of speech

noun <u>determiners</u>: articles, pronouns, numerals, adjectives, nouns themselves in the common and genitive case

The grammatical category of number

All Nouns may be subdivided into three groups

1. The nouns in which the opposition of explicit countability/uncountability is expressed: *book :: books*;
2. The nouns with homogenous number forms. The number opposition is not expressed formally but is revealed only lexically and syntactically in the context: e.g. *Look! A sheep is eating grass. Look! The sheep are eating grass*.
3. The nouns in which this opposition is not explicitly expressed but is revealed by syntactical and lexical correlation in the context. There are two groups here: Singularia tantum; Pluralia tantum.

Singularia tantum

- Whole **groups made up of similar items**: baggage, clothing, food, fruit, etc.;
- **Fluids**: water, tea, milk, etc.:
- **Solids**: ice, butter, cheese, etc.;
- **Gases**: air, smog, smoke, etc.;
- **Abstractions**: advice, time, work, etc.;
- **Fields of study**: chemistry, mathematics, etc.;
- **Names of diseases**: measles, etc..

Pluralia tantum

- names of **objects consisting of several parts**: jeans, pants, scales, etc.;
- nouns expressing **collective meaning**: tidings, earnings, goods, wages, etc.;
- some **abnormal states** of the body: creeps, etc.

The grammatical category of number

- is realized through the opposition:
  the singular form :: the plural form;
- is restricted in its realization by the dependent implicit grammatical meaning of countableness/ uncountableness;
- is realized only within subclass of countable nouns.

The singular form may denote:

- **oneness** (individual separate object): e.g. *a pin;*
- **generalization** (the meaning of the whole class): e.g. *The dog is a domestic animal;*
- **indiscreteness** (or uncountableness): e.g. *rain, water.*

The plural form may denote:

- the existence of **several objects:** *e.g. books*;
- the **inner discreteness:** *e.g. trousers*;
- a **set** of several objects: e.g. *wheels of the vehicle;*
- various **types** of referent: *e.g. wines, steels.*

Classification of nouns

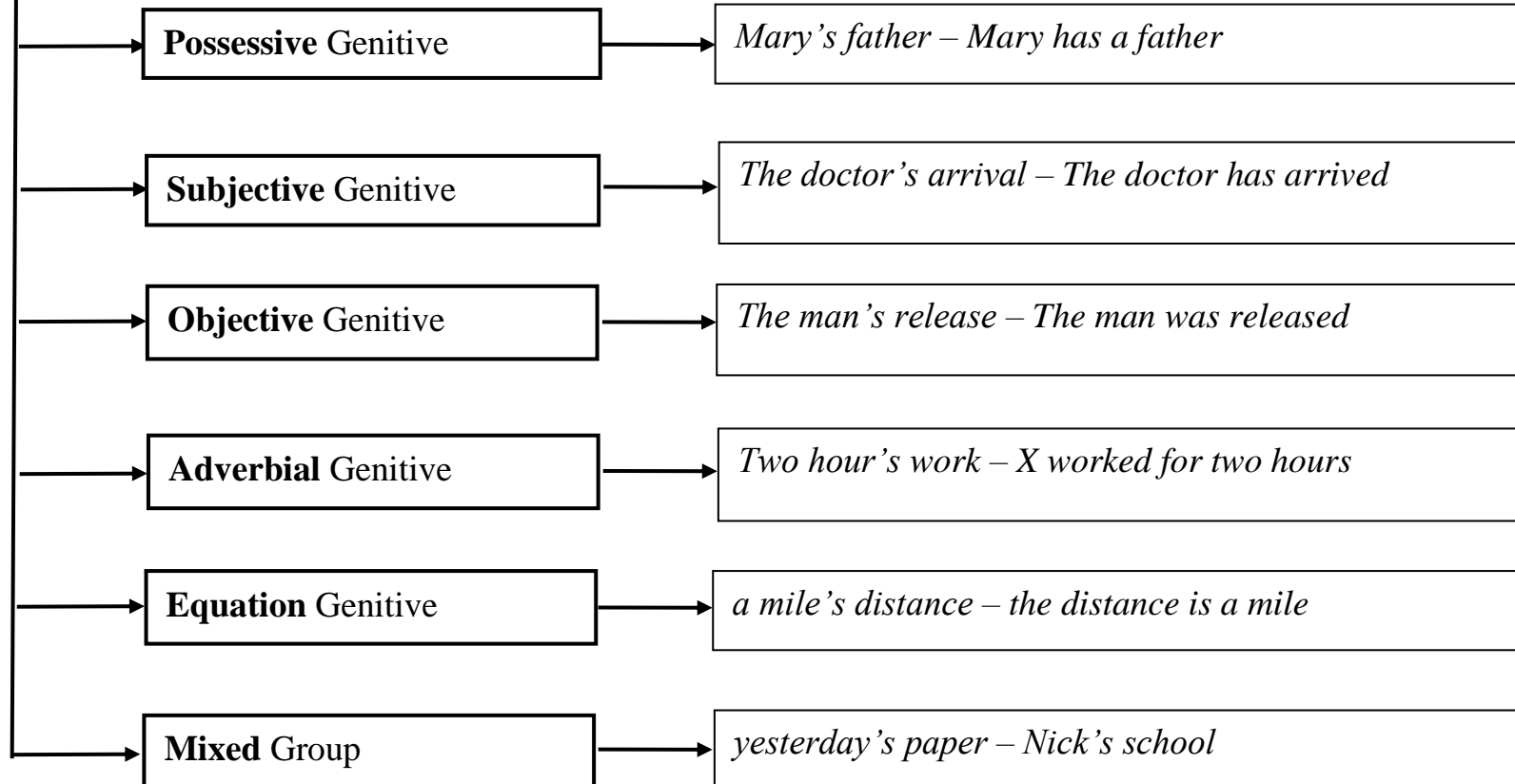| classification of nouns	example	comments
Countable nouns	a *bird – birds*	have plural, need determiner
Uncountable nouns	*happiness, light*	no plural, usually no determiner
Singular nouns	*the Moon, a day*	no plural, need determiner
Plural nouns	*clothes*	no singular
Collective nouns	*the public, the staff*	either singular or plural verb
Proper nouns	*Mary, London*	start with capital letter

The category of case

correlates with the objective category of possession, is realized through the opposition:
The Common Case :: The Genetive or Possessive Case
sister :: sister's

Meanings rendered by the Genitive Case

Possessive Genitive	*Mary's father – Mary has a father*
Subjective Genitive	*The doctor's arrival – The doctor has arrived*
Objective Genitive	*The man's release – The man was released*
Adverbial Genitive	*Two hour's work – X worked for two hours*
Equation Genitive	*a mile's distance – the distance is a mile*
Mixed Group	*yesterday's paper – Nick's school*

Points of view on cases

There are **two cases:** Common and Genitive.

There are **no cases** at all:
   a) the form `s is **optional** because the same relations may be expressed by the **'of-phrase'**: *the doctor's arrival – the arrival of the doctor;*
   b) `s may be appended **to the whole group:** *The man I saw yesterday's son*;
c) It may follow a word which is not a noun, as in *somebody else's book.*

There are **three cases**: the Nominative, the Genitive, the Objective due to the existence of objective pronouns *me, him, whom*;

Ch.Fillmore – Case Grammar

Agentive Case	John opened the door.
Instrumental Case	The key opened the door. John used the key to open the door.
Dative Case	John gave his friend some money.
Factitive Case	The key was damaged.
Locative Case	Chicago is windy.
Objective Case	John stole the book.

The Problem of Gender

- The lexico - grammatical category of gender existed only in OE but in Middle English this category was lost;
- In Modern English we find only lexico-semantic meanings of gender;
- English has certain lexical and syntactic means to express a real biological sex.

The meaning of gender may be expressed by different means:

- **lexically**: man – woman, cock (rooster) – hen, bull - cow, Arthur, Ann, etc.
- by the addition of a word: grandfather – grandmother, manservant – maidservant, male cat – female cat or he-cat – she-cat;
- by the **use of suffixes**: host – hostess, hero – heroine, tiger – tigress.

Two points of view on gender

- B.Ilyish, F.Palmer, and E.Morokhovskaya - nouns have no category of gender in Modern English.
- M.Blokh, John Lyons admit the existence of the category of gender: the neuter (non-person) gender, the masculine gender, the feminine gender.

VI. The Article

- **Word-class determination;**
- **Functions of the articles;**
- **Use of the articles.**

The Article

is a function word, which means it has **no lexical meaning** and is devoid of denotative function.

Semantically the article can be viewed as a **significator**, i.e. a linguistic unit representing some conceptual content without naming it: (like identification, classification, and the like). 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.

| the definite article "**the**" | the indefinite article "**a, an**" | the "**zero**" article combines with uncountable nouns and countable nouns in the plural |

Functions of the indefinite article

The classifying function

- structures with the verb "to be": *This is **a** computer.*
- exclamatory sentences beginning with "what" or such: e.g. *What **a** long story! He is such **a** nuisance!*
- sentences including an adverbial modifier of manner or comparison: e.g. *You look like **a** rose! She works as **a** teacher.*

The indefinitizing function

- when the referent of the noun is not a real thing, but it exists in the speaker's imagination only: e.g. sentences containing modal verbs, forms of the Subjunctive Mood, Future Tense forms, negative and interrogative sentences: e.g. *I wish I had **a** home like you.*

The introductory function

- Before sharing some information about the object, we need to introduce it to the hearer: e.*g. Once upon a time there lived an old man. He had a wife and a daughter. He lived in a small house.*

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".

Functions of the definite article

The identifying function

When we speak, we may point out to smth. that the S and the H perceive with our organs of feeling:
- 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?*
- **taste** it: ***Th**e soup tastes bitter.*

The definitizing function

- The object or thing denoted by the noun is presented as a part of some complex, **"frame"** or situation: e.g. **"at the theatre"**: the hall, the entrance, the stage, the scenery, etc.

The individualizing function

The object is singled out from the class it belongs to. The particularizing attribute can be expressed by:
- adjectives in the superlative degree: e.g. *This is the easiest way out.*
- ordinal numerals: e.g. *I have forgotten the first word.*
- attributive relative restrictive clause: e.g. *I need the book I bought yesterd*ay.

The Article System (Brown)

	Speaker (Writer) ⟶	
	specific referent	nonspecific referent
specific referent	definite: Can I have the car?	indefinite: There's a spy hiding in your cellar. I heard you once wrote an article on X.
nonspecific referent	indefinite: I saw a funny-looking dog today.	indefinite: I don't have a car . I need a new belt.

(Row header label, vertical: Listener (Reader))

Definite article usage

- *unique for all:* the moon, the earth, the sun;

- *unique for a given setting:* the blackboard, the ceiling, the floor;

- *unique for a given social group:* the car, the dog, the baby, the President;

- *unique by pointing, nodding, etc.:* the book, the chair;

- *unique because of characteristic that get attention:* the explosion, the streamer;

- *unique by entailment:* in talking about a house: the window, the garden, the kitchen;

- *unique by definition:* the house with a view, the girl who speaks Basque;

- *unique by prior utterance:* I saw a funny-looking dog today. The dog…

- *unique by a specified order or rank in a set:* the last sentence on the page; the fastest runner in the heat;

- *unique by anticipation:* We found the hubcap of a car that must be very expensive.

Indefinite article usage

- to introduce a noun to the listener that is specific for the speaker but not the listener, e.g.:

  I saw a funny-looking dog today.

- to show that the noun does not have a specific referent for either the speaker or the listener, e.g.:

  I need a new belt.

- to refer to a noun that is nonspecific for the speaker but which is assumed to be specific for the listener, i.e., the speaker guesses, or pretends to guess, e.g.: *FBI man to homeowner: Don't be coy. We know there's <u>a spy</u> hiding in your cellar.*

  Barbara Walters to King Hussein: I understand you've made <u>a proposal</u> to the Israelis concerning the West Bank.

VII. The Verb

- **Grammatical classes of Verbs;**
- **Morphological characteristics of the Verb;**
- **Grammatical category of Tense;**
- **Grammatical category of Voice;**
- **Grammatical category of Aspect;**
- **Grammatical category of Mood.**

The Verb

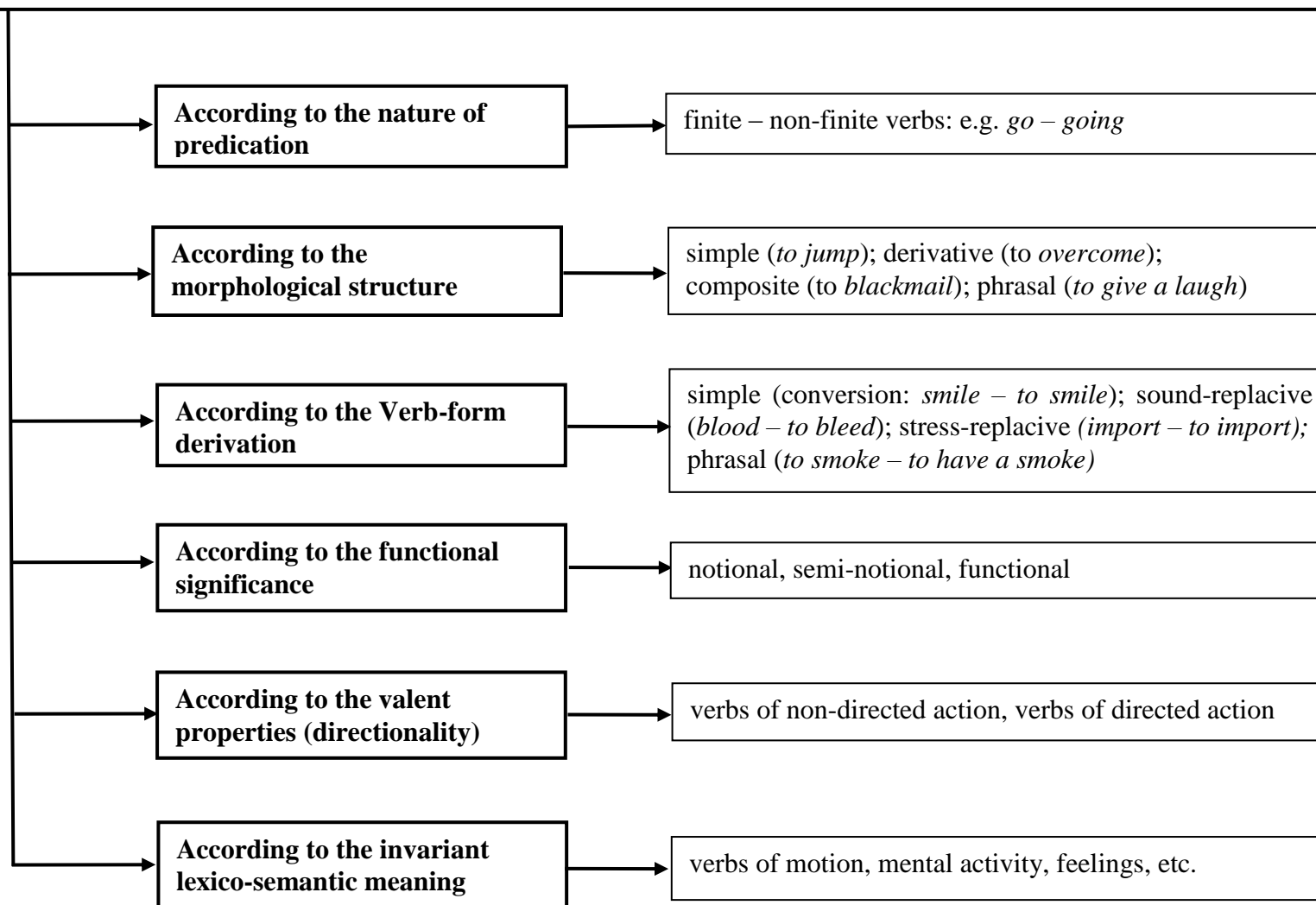**The general implicit lexico-grammatical meaning** → verbiality

Implicit grammatical meanings → terminative/non-terminative: e.g. *to jump/run*; transitive/intransitive: e.g. *to take smth/behave*

Functions → The finite predicate for finite verbs and other than verbal functions for non-finite verbs

The Verb classifications

According to the nature of predication → finite – non-finite verbs: e.g. *go – going*

According to the morphological structure → simple (*to jump*); derivative (to *overcome*); composite (to *blackmail*); phrasal (*to give a laugh*)

According to the Verb-form derivation → simple (conversion: *smile – to smile*); sound-replacive (*blood – to bleed*); stress-replacive *(import – to import); phrasal (*to smoke – to have a smoke)*

According to the functional significance → notional, semi-notional, functional

According to the valent properties (directionality) → verbs of non-directed action, verbs of directed action

According to the invariant lexico-semantic meaning → verbs of motion, mental activity, feelings, etc.

Syntagmatic classification

Verbs of **non-directed** action:

- **Personal**: He sniffed.
- **Impersonal**: It rains.
- **Reflexive**: He dressed.
- **Reciprocal**: They met.
- **Passive**: The book sells well.

Verbs of **directed** action:

- **Objective**: He shook my hand.
- **Addressee**: He called me.
- **Adverbial**: I won't be long.
- **Mixed**: He put his hat on the table.

Points of view on tenses

Two tenses: Non-past – Past, e.g.: *play – played*.

Three tenses: Present – Past – Future, e.g.: *ask – asked – shall ask/will ask*

H.Sweet:
- **Simple and Compound** tenses;
- **Primary and secondary** tenses;
- **Complete and Incomplete** tenses.

O. Jesperson

A	B	C
Before past	present	Before Future
Past		Future
After past		After Future

The grammatical category of voice

different grammatical ways of expressing the relation between a transitive verb and its subject and object:
e.g. John broke the vase – the vase was broken.

The majority of authors seem to recognize only **two voices** in English: **active and passive**.

The realization of the voice category is restricted by the implicit grammatical meaning of **transitivity/intransitivity.**

6 groups of verbs

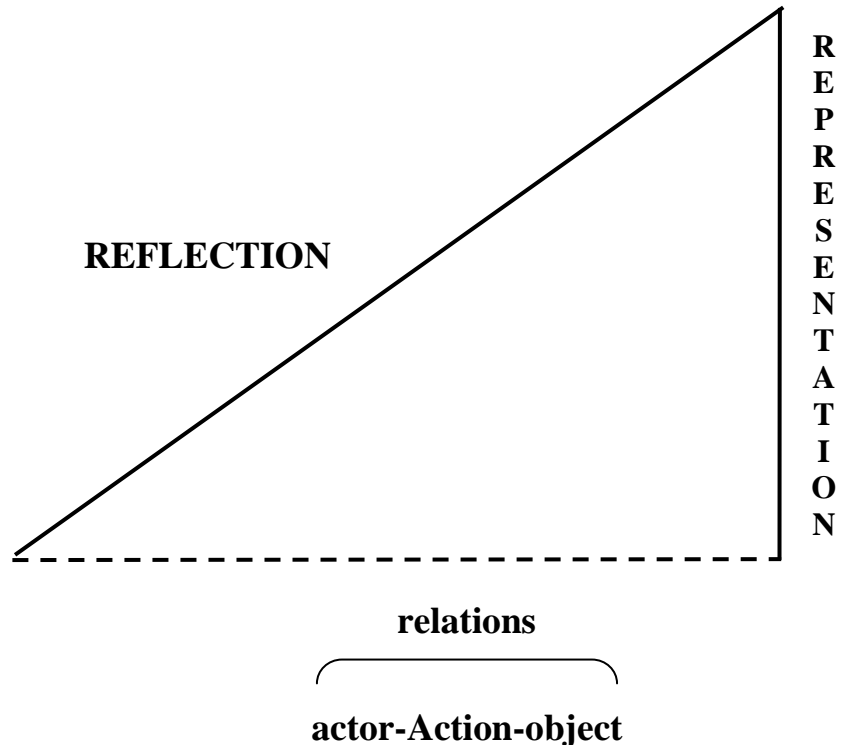| Groups of Verbs	Examples
Verbs used **only transitively**	*to mark, to raise*
Verbs with the main transitive meaning	*to see, to make, to build*
Verbs of **intransitive** meaning and secondary transitive meaning. A lot of intransitive verbs may develop a secondary transitive meaning	*They laughed me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

Points of view on voices

There are **two voices:**
- Active Voice: *He wrote a book.*
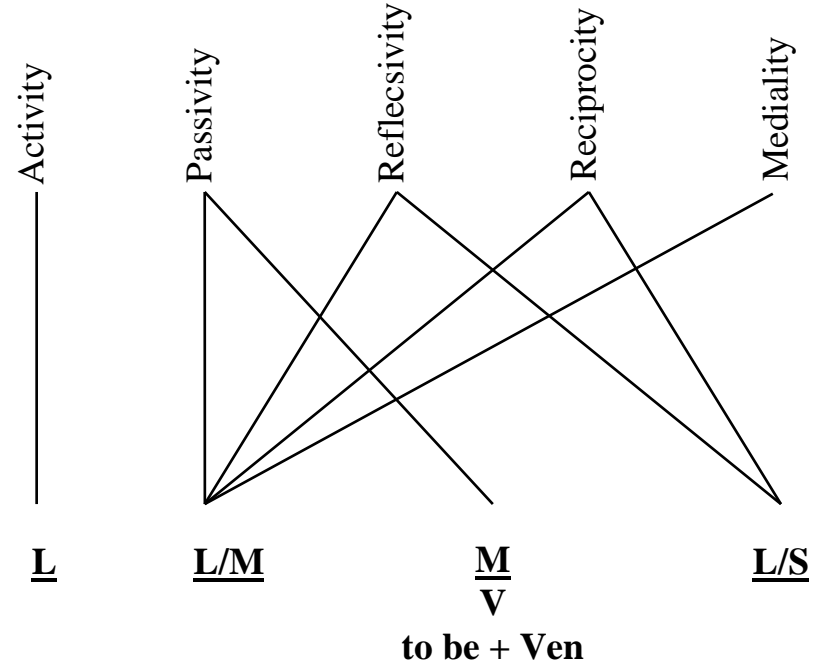- Passive Voice: *The article was written by him.*

There are more than two:
- Middle Voice: *The door opened; The book sells easily;*
- Reflexive Voice: *He dressed; He washe;*
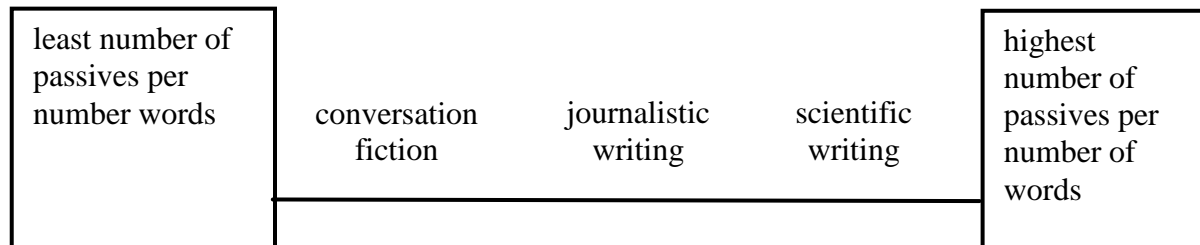- Reciprocal voice: *They met; They kissed.*

Semantic voices (voice notions)

REFLECTION

R
E
P
R
E
S
E
N
T
A
T
I
O
N

relations

actor-Action-object

Activity

Passivity

Reflecsivity

Reciprocity

Mediality

L   **L/M**   **M**
                            V   **L/S**

to be + Ven

Lexico-grammatical field

When to use the passive voice

The English passive is by far most frequent in scientific writing and is least frequent in conversation. Other types can be placed along the frequency continuum:

least number of passives per number words				highest number of passives per number of words
	conversation fiction	journalistic writing	scientific writing	

The passive is often used

1. When the agent is redundant: e.g. *Oranges are grown in California.*
2. When the writer wants to emphasize the receiver or result of the action: e.g. *Six people were killed by the tornado.*
3. When the writer wants to make a statement sound objective without revealing the source of information: e.g. *It is assumed/believed that he will announce his candidacy soon.*
4. When the writer wants to be tactful or evasive by not mentioning the agent or when he or she cannot or will not identify the agent: e.g. *Margaret was given some bad advice about selecting courses.*
5. When the writer wishes to retain the same grammatical subject in successive clauses, even though the function of the noun phrase changes from agent to theme: e.g. *George Foreman beat Joe Frazier, but he was beaten my Muhammad Ali.*
6. When the passive is more appropriate than the active (usually in complex sentences).
7. When the theme is given information and the agent is new information:
   e.g. *What a lovely scarf!*
   Thank you. It was given to me by Pam.

Stative passives

Sentences with Agents		Agentless Sentences
Active *(overt agent)*	*Passive* *(implied or overt agent)*	*(change-of-state verbs)*
John's brother burst the red balloon.	The red balloon was burst (by John's brother).	The red balloon burst.
Mike opened the door.	The door was opened (by Mike).	The door opened.
Sue's behaviour last night changed Bill's opinion of her.	Bill's opinion of Sue was changed (by her behaviour last night)	Bill's opinion of Sue changed.

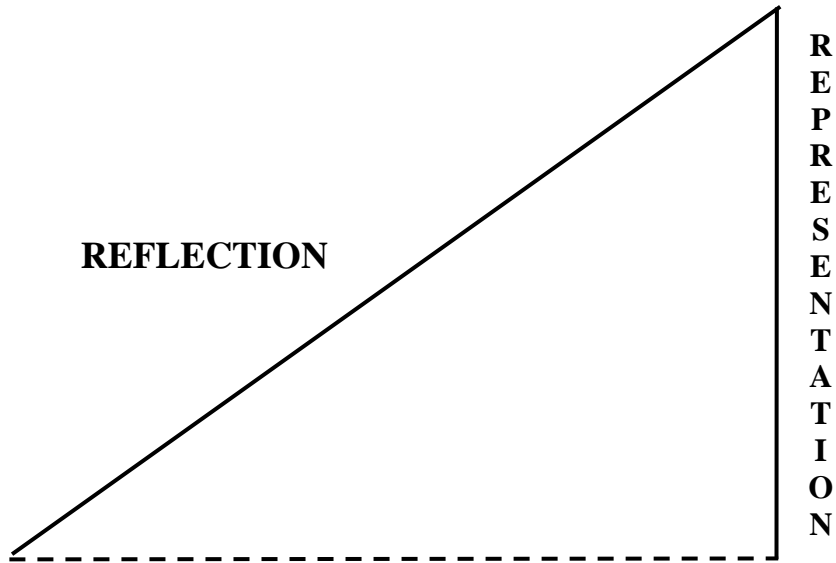# Situations in which agentless "change-of-state" are preferred

1. When the focus is on the change of state and the agent is irrelevant or very secondary.

   The store opens at 9 a.m.

2. When the writer or speaker's objective is to create an aura of mystery or suspense–i.e., things seem to be happening without the intervention of an agent. *We were sitting quietly in front of the fire when suddenly the door opened.*

3. When the subject is something so fragile or unstable (e.g., a balloon, a bubble, a cobweb) that it can break, change dissolve, etc., without any apparent intervention on the part of agent.

   Left hanging on the fence, the red balloon suddenly burst and scared all of us.

4. When it is natural to expect change to occur (i.e., physical, social, or psychological "laws" seem to be involved. *Mrs. Smith's opinion of Ronald Reagan changed.*

5. When there are so many possible causes for a change of state that it would be misleading to imply a single agent. *Prices increased.*
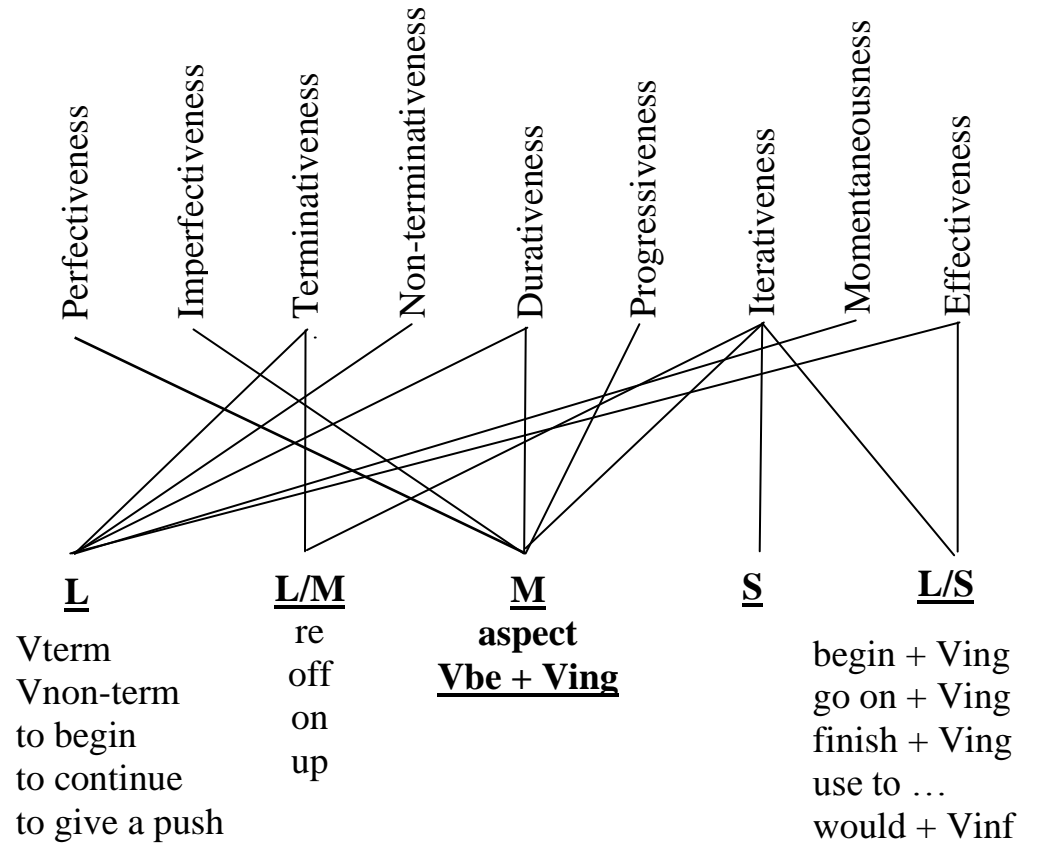
The Category of Aspect

is realised in the opposition: Continuous::Non-Continuous

is restricted by the implicit grammatical meaning of terminativeness/ nonterminativeness

verbs not used in the continuous form: hate, know, love, see, etc.
E.g. *I'm loving it* ⇨ stylistic shift

REFLECTION

R
E
P
R
E
S
E
N
T
A
T
I
O
N

Aspectuality

Perfectiveness

Imperfectiveness

Terminativeness

Non-terminativeness

Durativeness

Progressiveness

Iterativeness

Momentaneousness

Effectiveness

L

Vterm
Vnon-term
to begin
to continue
to give a push

L/M

re
off
on
up

M
aspect
Vbe + Ving

S

L/S

begin + Ving
go on + Ving
finish + Ving
use to …
would + Vinf

Lexico-grammatical field

The Grammatical Category of Perfect

1. The category is also called the category of Phase or Temporal relativity;

2. It finds its realization through the opposition Perfect Phase :: Non-Perfect Phase,

   e.g. writes :: has written;

3. It is a significational grammatical category;

4. It is closely connected with the category of tense and does not exist separately;

5. The realization of the category is restricted by the implicit grammatical meaning of

   terminativeness or non-terminativeness of the verb.

The Grammatical Category of Mood

It is one of the most controversial problems. The main theoretical difficulty is due:

1) to the coexistence in Modern English of both synthetical and analytical forms of the verb with the same grammatical meaning of unreality;

2) to the fact that there are verbal forms homonymous with the Past Indefinite and Past Perfect of the Indicative Mood which are employed to express unreality.

3) There are analytical forms of the subjunctive with the auxiliaries *should, would, may (might)* which are devoid of any lexical meaning.

H. Sweet – 3 moods:
1. **conditional mood** – the combination of *should* and *would* + infinitive, when used in the principle clause of conditional sentences.
2. **permissive mood** – the combination of *may/might* + infinitive.
3. **compulsive mood** – the combination of the finite form of the verb "to be" with the supine: *If it were to rain I do not know what shall we do*.

G.O. Curme – 3 moods:
1. **The Indicative Mood** represents something as a fact.
2. **The Present Subjunctive** is associated with the idea of hopeless, likelihood,
3. **The Past Subjunctive** indicates doubt, unlikelihood, unreality:
   I desire that he go at once.
   I fear he may come too late.
   I would have bought it if I had had money.

Smirnitsky – 6 moods:
1. indicative;
2. imperative;
3. subjunctive I;
4. subjunctive II;
5. conditional;
6. suppositional.

VIII. The Pronoun

- **Word-class determination;**
- **Classes of Pronouns;**
- **Personal Pronouns.**

The Pronoun

- Words that can take the place of nouns and noun phrases: e.g. *it* substitutes for the name of a certain object and *he* substitutes for the name of a person. The replaced noun is called the **antecedent** of the pronoun.
- Pronouns have been included in parts of speech since at least the 2nd century BC where they were included in *Art of Grammar*. Strict objections against this approach have appeared among grammatical theories in the 20th century AD.
- Pronouns constitute a heterogeneous class of items with numerous subclasses. Despite their variety, there are several features that they have in common, which distinguish them from nouns:
  - they do not admit determiners;
  - they often have an Objective Case;
  - they often have person distinction;
  - they often have overt gender contrast;
  - Singular and Plural forms are often not morphologically related.
- Pronouns perform four functions: subject, direct object, indirect object, prepositional complement.
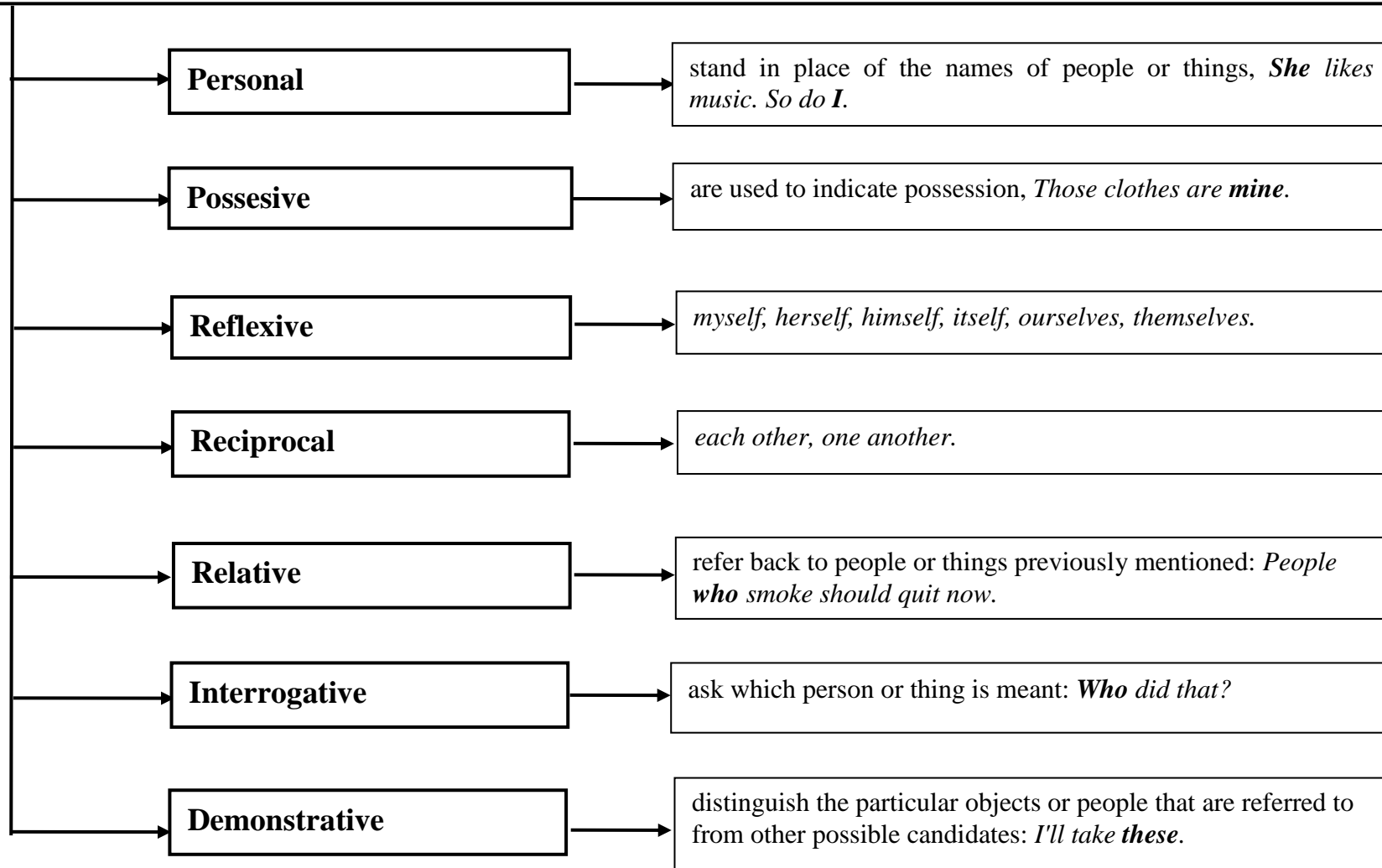
Pronouns were classified as follows

- **indexes** or indicators *(Charles Sanders Peirce, William Edward Collinson)*;

- words with changeable signification *(Adolf Noreen)*;

- moveable **identifiers** *(Otto Jespersen, Roman Jakobson)*;

- word remnants or **substitutes** *(Lev Shcherba, Leonard Bloomfield, Zellig Harris)*;

- «**survivals** of special part of speech» *(Viktor Vinogradov)*;

- updating or **means of transferring** from language to speech *(Charles Bally, Émile Benveniste)*;

- words of subjective-objective lexical meaning *(Alexey Peshkovsky)*;

- word **remnants** or substitutes *(Lev Shcherba, Leonard Bloomfield, Zellig Harris)*.

Specific and indefinite reference pronouns

specific	Personal
	Reflexive
	Reciprocal
	Possessive
	Relative, interrogative, demonstrative
indefinite	Universal, assertive/non-assertive
	Negative
	General
	Enumerative

Specific reference pronouns

Personal → stand in place of the names of people or things, *She likes music. So do **I***.

Possesive → are used to indicate possession, *Those clothes are **mine***.

Reflexive → *myself, herself, himself, itself, ourselves, themselves.*

Reciprocal → *each other, one another.*

Relative → refer back to people or things previously mentioned: *People **who** smoke should quit now.*

Interrogative → ask which person or thing is meant: ***Who** did that?*

Demonstrative → distinguish the particular objects or people that are referred to from other possible candidates: *I'll take **these***.

Indefinite reference pronouns

Universal	each, all, every, and every compounds
Assertive	some, somebody, something
Non-assertive	anyone, anybody, anything
Negative	nobody, no one, neither, no
Quantifies	many, much, few, little, several, enough

Personal pronouns in Modern English

Subjective case	Objective case	Reflexive pronouns:
I, we	Me, us	Myself, Ourselves
you	you	Yourself, yourselves
He, she, they	Him, her, them	Himself, herself, themselves
it	it	itself

Grammatical categories of pronouns

Case

Most pronouns have 2 cases: Common and Genitive;
Six pronouns have an Objective case:
- **Subjective:** *I   we   he   she   they   who*
- **Objective:** *me   us   him   her   them   who (m)*
- **Genitive:** *my   our   his   her   their   whose*

Gender

English pronouns have natural, not grammatical gender:
- **masculine**: *he, him, himself, his,*
- **feminine**: *she, her, herself, hers,*
- **non-personal**: *it, itself, its.*

Person and **Number**
- **first person singular**: *I;*
- **first person plural**: *we.*

IX. The Adjective.
The Numeral. The Adverb

- **Word-class determination;**
- **Types of Adjectives.**

The Adjective

The general implicit lexico-grammatical meaning of **qualitativeness** (qualitative and relative);

The grammatical **category of comparison:** positive – comparative – superlative (big – bigger – the biggest; handsome – more/ the most handsome); the specific suffixal form derivation: some **suffixes** are found only with the adjectives: -ous (tremendous);

Adjectival functions in the sentence: **attribute** to a noun,e.g., the *beautiful* painting; adjectival **predicative**: a) subject compliment: *She is pretty*. b) object compliment: *He made his wife happy*. **Verbless adjective clause***:e.g., Long and untidy, his hair played in the breeze.*

The Adjective

Semantic Features

Relative / qualitative → **qualitative** adjectives denote size, form, colour, age, e.g. *a smart boy*;
relative adjectives denote qualities which characterize an object through its relations to another objects, e.g., *a wooden face*.

Gradable / non-gradable → gradability includes **comparison**, e.g.: *tall – taller – the tallest*; **non-gradable adj**.: *atomic (scientist), British (tradition).*

Inherent/non-inherent → e.g.: *a big mouse – a big fool*

Semantic sets and adjectival order

Semantic sets have been proposed to account for the usual order of adjectives and their co-occurrence.

Intensifying adjectives: *a real hero, a perfect idiot*

Postdeterminers and limiters: *the only possible occasion*

General adjectives susceptible to **subjective** measure: *lovely, naughty*;

General adjectives susceptible to **objective** measure: *large, wealthy*

Adjectives denoting **age**: *old, young*

Adjectives denoting **colour**: *red, pink*;

Denominal adjectives denoting **material, provenance and style**: *woolen, metallic; British, Parisian*

The Numeral

The general implicit lexico-grammatical meaning of **quantitativeness**;
Types of the Numeral:
Cardinals: three, twenty;
Ordinals: the third, the twentieth;
Fractional: one-forth, two-third.

No grammatical **categories**

Numerals can function <u>pronominally</u>: *e.g., Today is the **tenth** of September* or as <u>premodifiers</u>: e.g., *He sent me **seven** beautiful roses*.

The Adverb

The general implicit lexico-grammatical meaning of adverbiality.

Types of adverbs

- **Time, frequency and duration**: soon, often, always;
- **Place**: downstairs, around;
- **Manner**: silently, carefully;
- **Degree**: almost, terribly, well;
- **Focusing**: only, especially;
- **Negative**: hardly, barely;
- **Linking**: consequently, furthermore;
- **Sentence**: alas, chiefly, apparently.

Grammatical category - Degree of comparison.
The forms and uses of **comparative** and **superlative** adverbs are generally similar to those of adjectives: e.g., *quickly - **more** quickly - **the most** quickly*

The functions of various adverbial modifiers.

X. Function Words

- **Prepositions;**
- **Particles;**
- **Conjunctions;**
- **Modal words;**
- **Interjections.**

The Particle

The main function is to correlate two pieces of information in the text.
Only *John came.* – ***Nobody*** *came.*
 "One piece of information is expressed, another is implied."
Even *John came.* – ***Everybody*** *came.*

The classification of particles is based on the textual meaning:

Contrastive	Additive
Already	Again
Actually	Also
Alone	Chiefly

Contrastive particles

Temporal	Concessive	Restrictive-exclusive	Restrictive-particularizing
Already	Actually	Alone	Chiefly
At last	After all	At least	Especially
Any longer	Anyhow	Barely	Mainly
Any more	Any way	But	Mostly
So far	In fact	Just	Primarily
Still	Really	Only merely	Principally
yet		Just	Particularly

Conjunctions

1. Conjunctions are used to join sentences and clauses in the text thus making it coherent.

   e.g., *It was a very difficult situation. **Nevertheless**, he passed it with distinction.*

   *He does not need any money from us. **On the contrary**, we should be going to him for a loan.*

2. **5 groups of conjunctions:**

- **Additive**: besides, in addition to, moreover, by the way, what is more, etc.;

- **Contrastive**: however, still, yet, etc.;

- **Parallel**: likewise, accordingly, similarly;

- **Summarizing**: thus, consequently, in general, therefore, etc.;

- **Sequencing:** first, last, finally, next, etc.

Modal words

Modal words show the speaker's personal attitude to his own statement: **Luckily**, *he came in time.*

Modal words are classified into 3 groups

Evaluative:
happily,
foolishly,
fortunately

Suppositional:
maybe,
surely,
possibly

Commentary:
frankly,
normally,
naturally, etc..

XI. Syntax

- **Basic syntactic notions;**
- **Syntactical theories;**
- **The Word group theory.**

Syntax

deals with the rules governing combinations of words in sentences, texts. **Basic syntactic notions:**
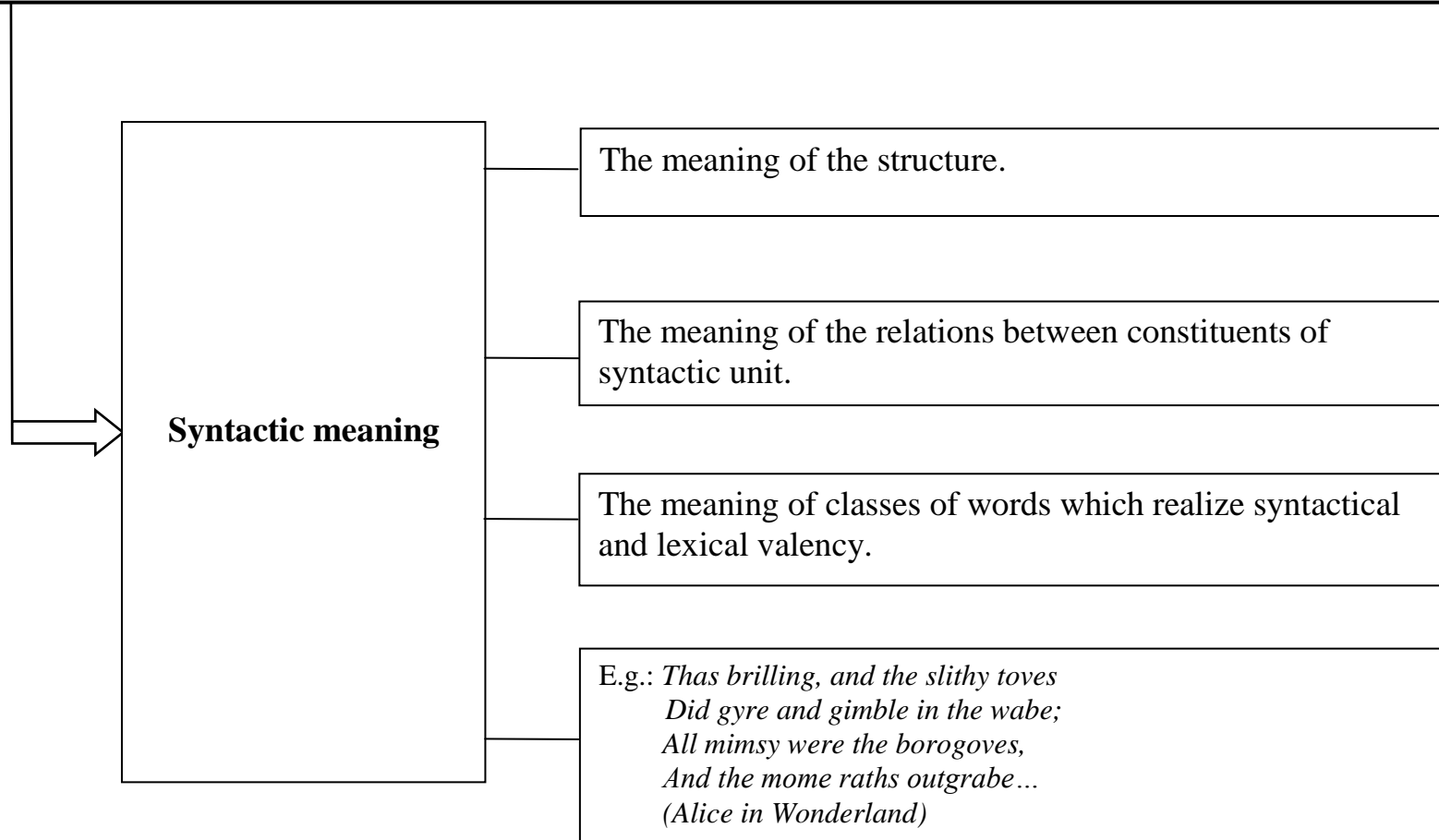
Syntactic unit

is always a combination that has at least two constituents: e.g. *a word-group, a clause, a sentence, and a text.*

hierarchical units – *the units of a lower level serve the building material for the units of a higher level;*

units of two-fold nature: *content side – syntactic meaning; expression side – syntactic form*
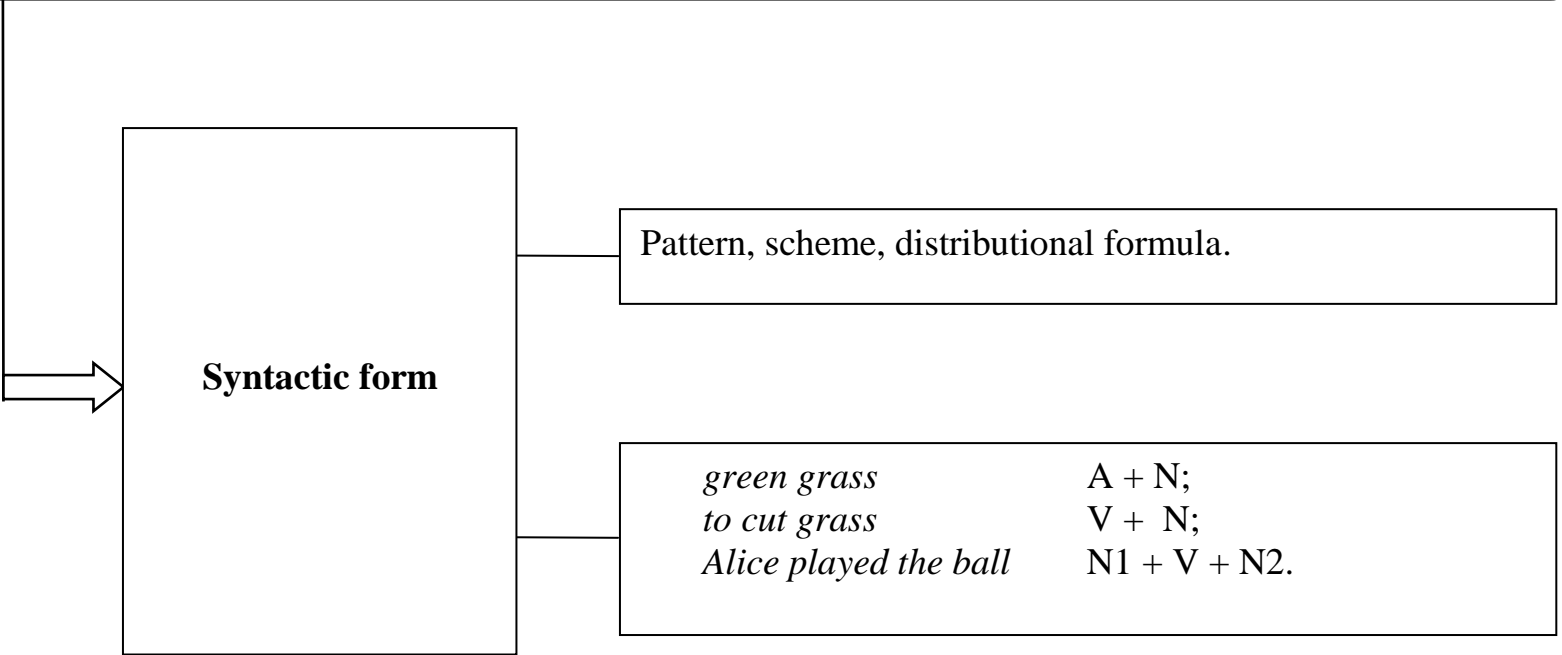
units of communicative and **non-communicative** nature:
word-groups, clauses – non-communicative;
sentences, texts – communicative.

Basic syntactic notions.
Syntactic meaning

Syntactic meaning

The meaning of the structure.

The meaning of the relations between constituents of syntactic unit.

The meaning of classes of words which realize syntactical and lexical valency.

E.g.: *Thas brilling, and the slithy toves*
Did gyre and gimble in the wabe;
All mimsy were the borogoves,
And the mome raths outgrabe…
(Alice in Wonderland)

Basic syntactic notions.
Syntactic form

Syntactic form

Pattern, scheme, distributional formula.

green grass	A + N;
to cut grass	V + N;
Alice played the ball	N1 + V + N2.

Basic syntactic notions.
Syntactic function

Syntactic function

is the function of a unit on the basis of which it is included to a larger unit: 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 syntactic function of a unit within the sentence (subject, predicate, etc.).

Syntactic relations

Syntagmatic relations observed between syntactic units:
– **Coordination (SR1)** – SR of independence;
– **Subordination (SR2)** – SR of dependence;
– **Predication (SR3)** – SR of interdependence
Devices of syntactic connection
• **Inflectional devices** limited: *these books, to see him/them;*
• **Function words**: coordinators (*and, or*, *but, yet*) and subordinators (*that, when, as if, though);*
• **Word Order**: *to read a book.*

Coordination
• **Symmetric coordination:** complete interchange ability of its elements – *pens and pencils.*
• **Asymmetric coordination** occurs when the position of elements is fixed: *ladies and gentlemen.*
  Forms of connection:
• *copulative: you and me;*
• *disjunctive: you or me;*
• *adversative: strict but just;*
• *causative-consecutive:* sentence and text level only.

Subordination
kinds of subordination:
• **Adverbial:** *to go slowly;*
• **Objective:** *to see a house;*
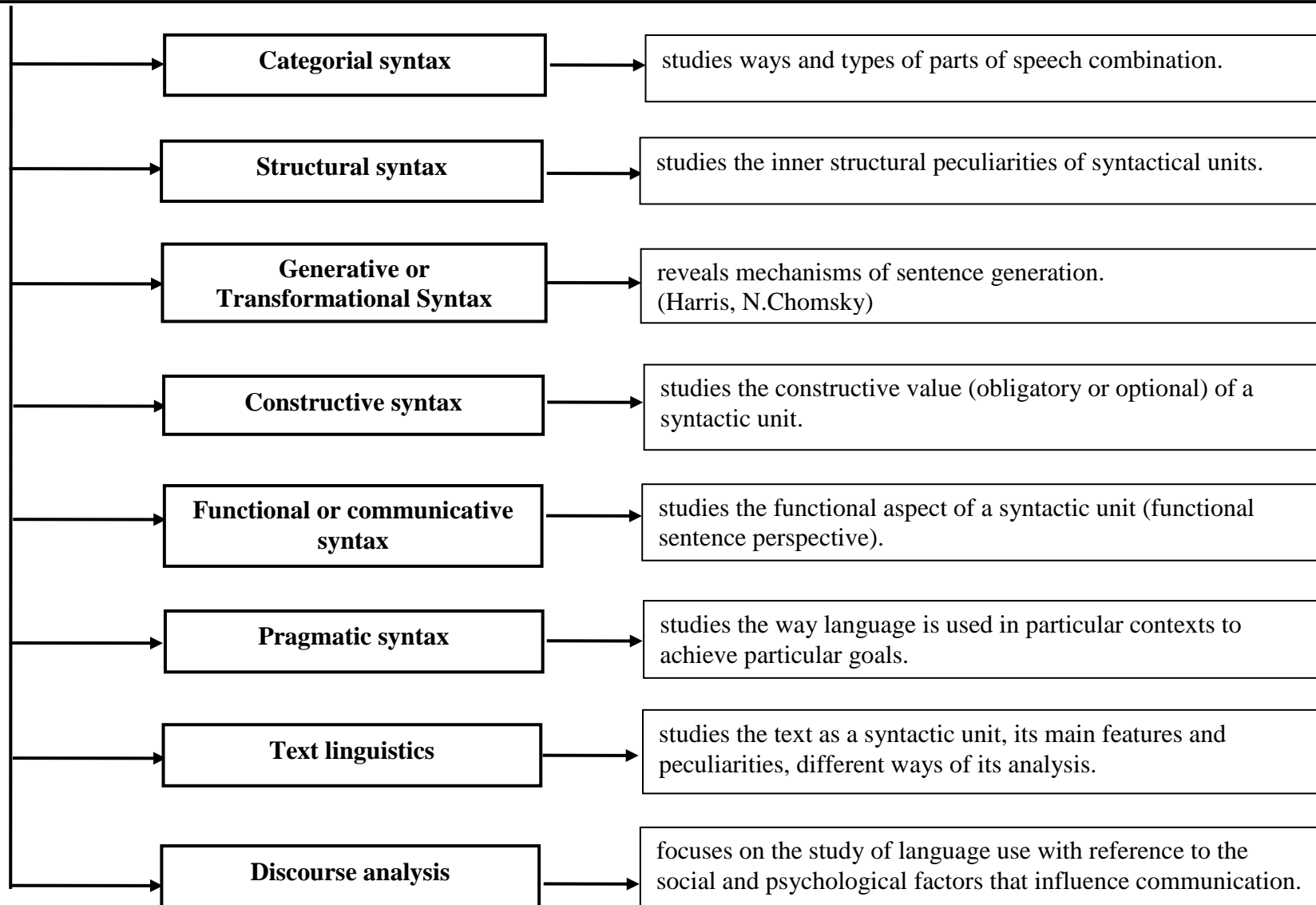• **Attributive:** *a beautiful flower.*
Forms of subordination:
• **Agreement**: *this book – these books;*
• **Government**: *to help us;*
• **Adjournment**: *to run quickly*:
• **Enclosure**: *an interesting book, the then government.*

Predication
• **primary** (sentence level): *He goes to the University.*
• **secondary** (phrase level): *I saw him going to the University. I depend on your doing the work in time.*

Syntactical theories

Categorial syntax	studies ways and types of parts of speech combination.
Structural syntax	studies the inner structural peculiarities of syntactical units.
Generative or Transformational Syntax	reveals mechanisms of sentence generation. (Harris, N.Chomsky)
Constructive syntax	studies the constructive value (obligatory or optional) of a syntactic unit.
Functional or communicative syntax	studies the functional aspect of a syntactic unit (functional sentence perspective).
Pragmatic syntax	studies the way language is used in particular contexts to achieve particular goals.
Text linguistics	studies the text as a syntactic unit, its main features and peculiarities, different ways of its analysis.
Discourse analysis	focuses on the study of language use with reference to the social and psychological factors that influence communication.

Generative or Transformational Syntax

Two main problems:
1. the establishment of the domain of kernels;
2. the establishment of the set of the transformations for deriving all the other sentences.

- The endless variety of sentences in a language can be reduced to a finite number of **kernels** by means of transformations.
- Number of kernels: from 6 to 39.
- **The kernel** is the sentence which consists of obligatory sentence parts predetermined by the valency of the verb.
- **6 kernels in English**:
  NV – *Jane dances*.
  NVA – *Jane is happy*.
  NVN – *Jane is a student*.
  NVN – *Jane read a book*.
  NVN1N2 – *Jane gave the man a book*.
  NV prep. N – *The book is on the table*.

Derived sentences consist not only of obligatory sentence parts but of optional parts as well. The structure of it may be represented as **S + P + Extension** (object, adverbial); **S + P + Compliment + Extension**.

Transforms are the constructions which are derived from kernels.

T- A (affirmation): e.g. *I had fun. – I did have fun.*

T- Not (negation): *I had fun. – I did not have fun.*

T – Q (interrogation): *Do I have fun?*

T- Passive: *I read books. – Books are read.*

Constructional Syntax – G.Pocheptsov

The elementary sentence or kernel
- Is the smallest syntactical construction which is obtained on the basis of the obligatory environment of the verb.
- **39 elementary** or kernel sentences may be distinguished on the basis of the obligatory valency of the verb.
- The elementary sentences form the basis for syntactic derivation. Syntactic derivation lies in producing more complex sentences by means of **syntactic processes**. They may be **internal** and **external**.
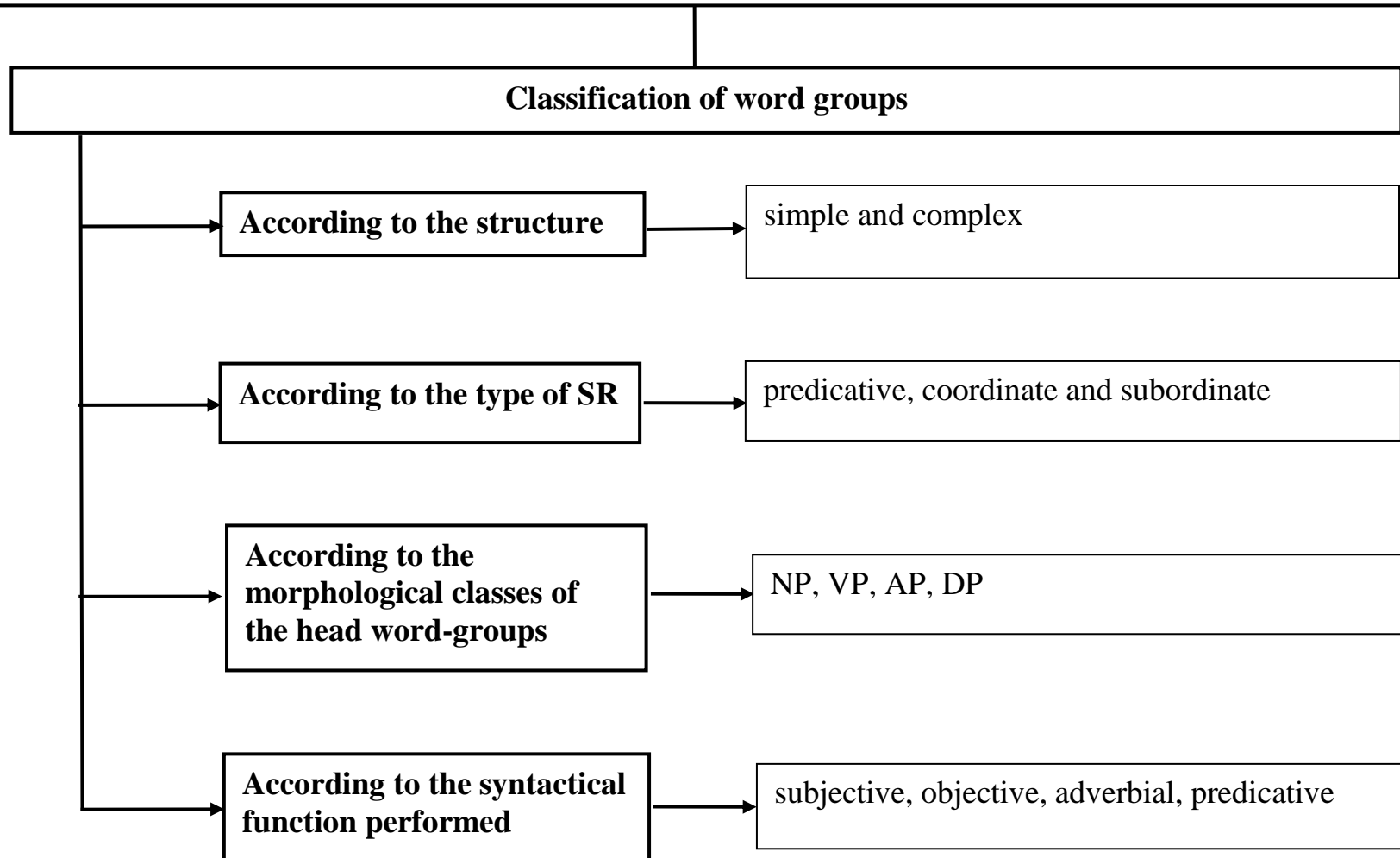
External Syntactic Processes

- **Extension**: *She gave a smile. – She gave a pleasant smile.*
- **Adjoinment**: *He was the same. – He was just the same.*
- **Enclosure**: *It was nice. – It was nice, really.*

Internal Syntactic Processes
- **Expansion**:
addition: *His dreams came true – His dreams and hopes came true.*
specification: *He'll come tomorrow – He'll come tomorrow at 9.*
- **Complication:** *I see it. – I can see it.*
- **Replacement:** *I like tea. – So do I.*
- **Representation:** *Would you like to go there? – I'd love to.*
- **Ellipsis:** *Where are you going? – To the movies.*
- **Contamination:** *He left. He was angry. – He left angry.*

The word group

is a combination of at least two notional words which do not constitute the sentence but are syntactically connected. It is a binary formation of the two linearly ordered constituents which stand in SR, a combination of words linked together on the basis of a definite type of syntactic connection which is characterized by nominative function and is capable of forming a sentence.

Classification of word groups

According to the structure → simple and complex

According to the type of SR → predicative, coordinate and subordinate

According to the morphological classes of the head word-groups → NP, VP, AP, DP

According to the syntactical function performed → subjective, objective, adverbial, predicative

Word group vs sentence

word group
- Has no peculiar intonation;
- Names separate objects of the objective reality;
- Is not a communicative unit.

sentence
- Has intonation;
- Names proposition;
- Is a communicative unit.

Word group vs word

word group
- Naming unit of different denotates;
- Each component can undergo grammatical changes without destroying the identity of the whole unit:
e.g.: *to solve the problem – to solve the problems.*

word
- Naming unit;
- No separation of the parts of the word.
e.g.: *a black bird – чорний птах, a blackbird – дрізд.*

The Noun Phrase

a subordinate word group distinguished on the basis of its head: *Noun-Head + Adjunct (modification)*

Types of modification

Pre-modification → A + N, e.g., *a wise man*

Post-modification → N + A, e.g., *time to arrive*

Pre- and Post-modification → A+N+A, e.g., *an interesting book on grammar*

NP with Pre-Posed Adjuncts

- The nature of Adjuncts: pre-adjectivals and adjectivals;
- The functional significance of Adjuncts (their design, specification, distribution): specifiers, pre-determiners, determiners, quantifiers, qualifiers.

Pre-Adjectivals

- LIMITERS - limit the meaning of the word they refer to: just, only, usually, etc.
- PREDETERMINERS -mark the use of a NP: most of, all of, etc.
- DETERMINERS - mark nouns: the, a, this, his, etc.
- POST-DETERMINERS - follow determiners and precede adjectivals: much, many, little, etc.

Basic Noun Phrases with Pre-Posed Adjuncts

Adj.N	*a handsome man*
N-2 N-1	*a stone wall*
N's N	*the doctor's advice*
Num N	*ten pens*
V en N	*a broken cup*
V ing N	*a smiling girl*

NP with Post-posed Adjuncts

N A	*the tea strong*
N Ven	*the cup taken*
N Ving	*the boy staying*
N D	*the man behind*
N Vinf	*the time to go*
N Num	*room ten*
N prep A	*the only man present*
N prep N	*The center of the city*

The Verb Phrase

is a kind of a subordinate type of phrases distinguished on the basis of its head: *A Verb-head + an Adjunct relations of complementation*

Types of complementation

Nominal → *to study English, to make a mistake*

Adverbial → *to speak in a loud voice, to behave well*

Mixed → *to put a book on the table, to deliver a report well*

Functional, semantic and grammatical classification of VP:

1. The head is a link-verb: adjuncts are post-posed, grammatically fixed, predicative complements:
N	*She is an actress.*
Adj.	*She is so smart.*
Vinf.	*He seemed to be happy.*
Ving	*It is annoying.*
Num	*He is ten.*
Stative	*She is not alone.*

2. The head is a transitive verb. Adjuncts of these phrases are mainly nouns or pronouns, sometimes gerunds or infinitives which perform the function of a direct object. The syntactic position of the adjuncts is determined by the lexical meaning of the verb: *to give John advice; to hand a book to Mary.*

3. Intransitive verbs are the heads of the group. The adjuncts are expressed by different word classes and they function as adverbial complements:
V prep. N	*to leave for Kiev*
V D	*to stay there*
V Ving	*to stand smiling*
V V inf.	*to come to dine*
V conj. Ven	*to look as if startled*
V absolute const.	*to see him crossing the street*

XII. The Sentence

- **Defenition;**
- **Classifications of sentences.**

The Sentence

a syntactical level unit, a predicative unit, a complex language sign (context and expression sides), the minimal communicative unit

"the minimal syntactical construction, used in the acts of speech communication, characterized by predicativity and having a definite structural scheme." (Ivanova, Burlakova, Pocheptsov)

"the independent unit of finite predication, which possesses communicative force and can occur as an independent unit of information." (Morokhovskaya E.)

Predicativity

• Is one of the ways in which language describes things and situations connecting them with reality.

• Predication is the establishment of predicative relations between the Logical Subject and the Logical Predicate.

• The bearer of predication is PROPOSITION, the main predicative form of thought.

Propositional basis

Predicative words: *stormy sea;*

Predicative word groups: *her running;*

Clause: *when she runs;*

Sentence: *She runs quickly.*

Paragraph;

Text.

3 main groups of kernels:

NV kernel represents the **actional proposition**: *I took a pen from the table.*

N is A/N represents the **attributional proposition**: *She is clever.*

N is D represents the **existential proposition**: *He is here.*

Examples of Kernels (by Pocheptsov G.)

N V	*He nodded.*
N V N	*She took my hand.*
N V N1 N2	*He handed her the child.*
N V prep N	*He looked at me.*
N V N1 prep N2	*I told her about it.*
N V N1 N2 prep N3	*I told you the truth about him.*
N V Adv.	*He behaved badly.*
N V be Adv.	*He is there.*
N V be N	*Here is Gerald.*
N	*Silence*
Etc.	*Etc. (39 kernels)*

Different approaches to the study of the sentence

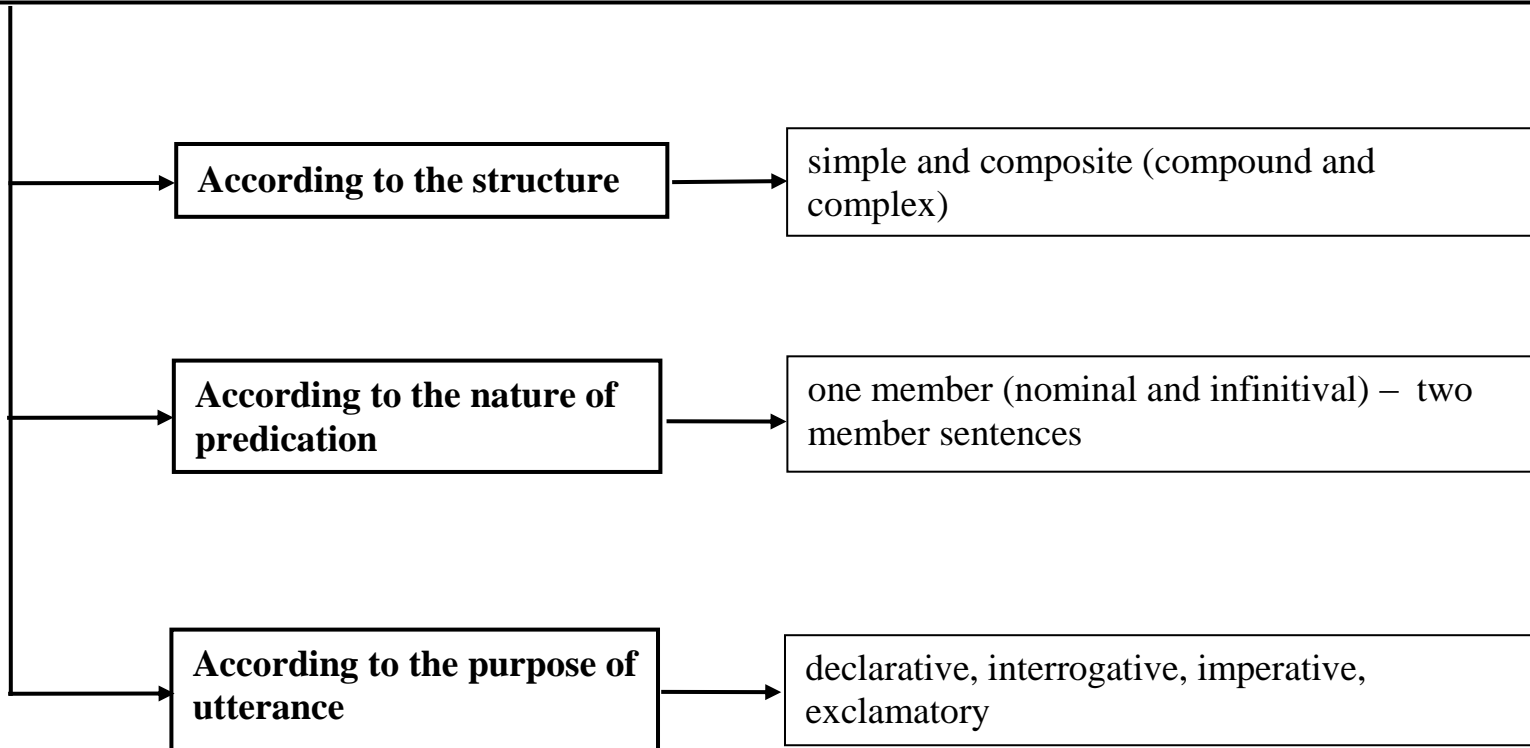**Principal and secondary parts** of the sentence.

Immediate constituents of the sentence – IC analysis:
the sentence should be cut into two parts: NP and VP, then each
part is subdivided again into two parts until we get down to the
single word, e. g. old men and women – old men and women.

Oppositional analysis: two member sentence – one member
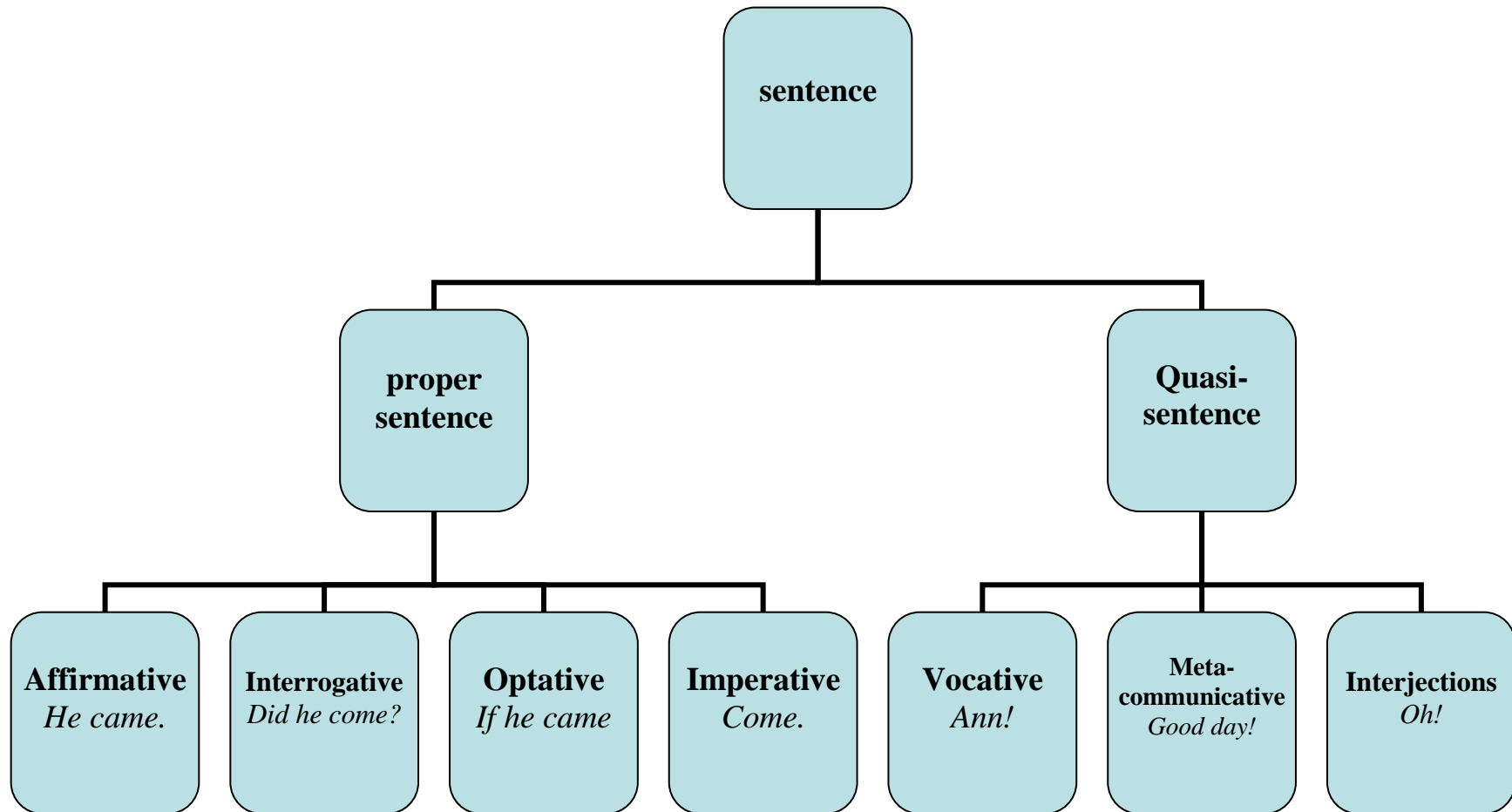sentence: e.g., *John worked. – John! Work!*

Constructional analysis: constructionally significant elements
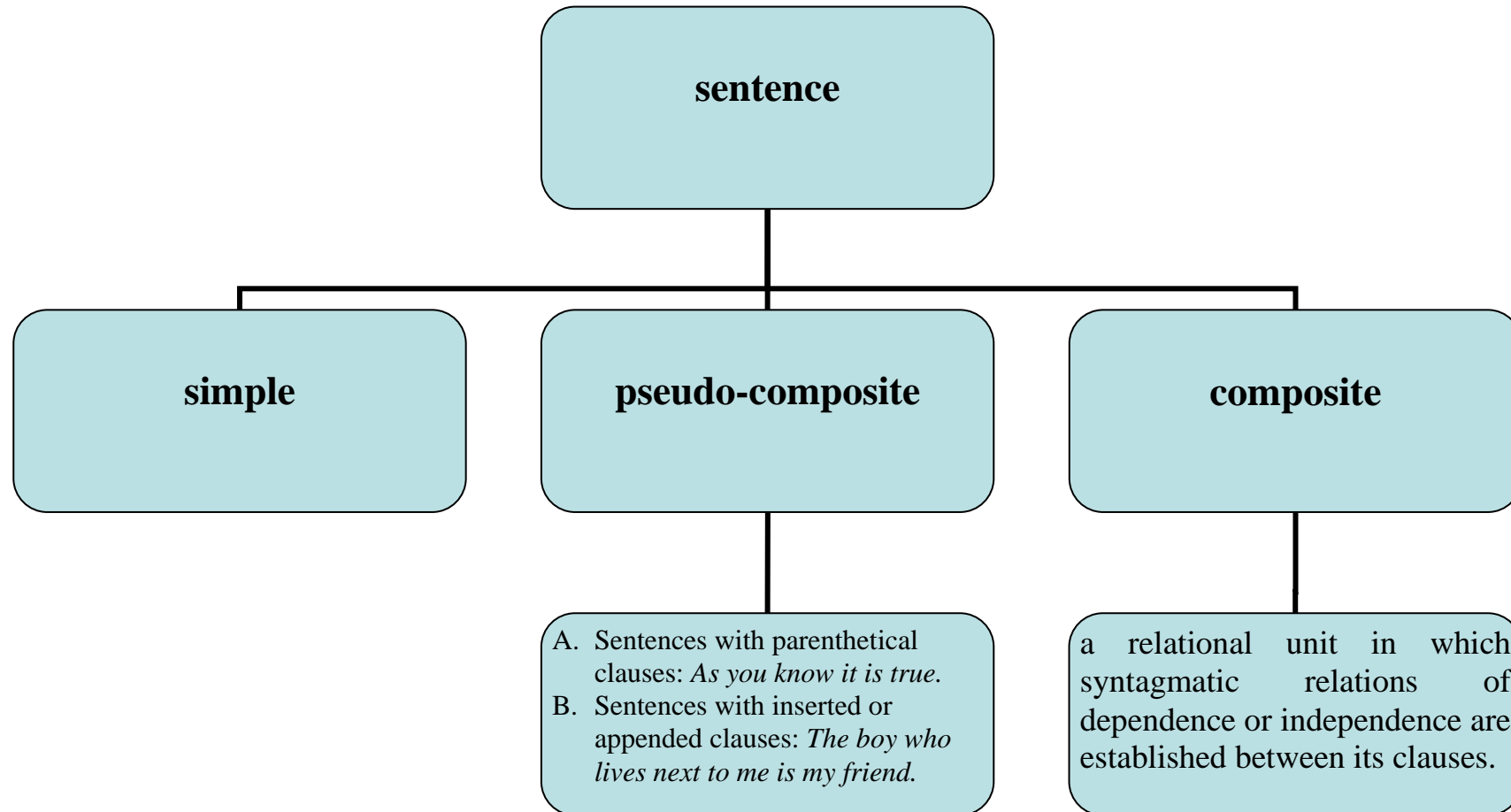(obligatory) and insignificant elements (optional) of the sentence.

Classifications of Sentences

According to the structure → simple and composite (compound and complex)

According to the nature of predication → one member (nominal and infinitival) – two member sentences

According to the purpose of utterance → declarative, interrogative, imperative, exclamatory

Classifications of Sentences by Pocheptsov G.

```
                            sentence

          proper                          Quasi-
          sentence                        sentence

Affirmative  Interrogative  Optative  Imperative    Vocative   Meta-           Interjections
He came.     Did he come?   If he came  Come.        Ann!      communicative    Oh!
                                                               Good day!
```

Affirmative
He came.

Interrogative
Did he come?

Optative
If he came

Imperative
Come.

Vocative
Ann!

Meta-communicative
Good day!

Interjections
Oh!

Structural Sentence Types

```
                        ┌─────────────┐
                        │  sentence   │
                        └──────┬──────┘
        ┌──────────────────────┼──────────────────────┐
┌───────────────┐     ┌─────────────────┐     ┌─────────────────┐
│    simple     │     │ pseudo-composite│     │   composite     │
└───────────────┘     └────────┬────────┘     └────────┬────────┘
```

sentence

simple

pseudo-composite

composite

A. Sentences with parenthetical clauses: *As you know it is true.*
B. Sentences with inserted or appended clauses: *The boy who lives next to me is my friend.*

a relational unit in which syntagmatic relations of dependence or independence are established between its clauses.

The Utterance

a particular piece of speech produced by a particular individual on a particular occasion

The main categories of the utterance are the theme and the rheme.

The theme expresses the starting point of communication, i.e. it denotes an object about which something is reported.

The rheme expresses the basic informative part of communication, its relevant center.
The Rheme making devices are:
a) Position in the sentence;
b) Intonation;
c) The use of the indefinite article;
d) "There is", "there are";
e) Emphatic constructions;
f) the use of special devices, like 'but for' , 'as for', etc.;
g) inverted word order;
h) the use of emphatic constructions: *It was he who did it.*

Functional typology of utterances

Actional utterance: N + V actional + Compliment

Performative utterance: I + V performative + Compliment

Characterizing utterance: N + V be + A/Q – characterizing predicate

Equational utterance: N + V be + N

Existential utterance: N + V exist + D place

XIII. Pragmatics

- **Speech acts;**
- **Classifications of speech acts;**
- **Maxims of Conversation;**
- **Indirect speech acts.**

Pragmatics

- **Charles Morris**: syntax, semantics, pragmatics.
- Pragmatics – the study of the relation of linguistic units to people who communicate.
- Linguistic pragmatics is the study of the ability of language users to pair sentences with the context in which they would be appropriate.

"Pragmatics is a branch of linguistics devoted to the study of meaning as conveyed and manipulated by participants in a communicative situation."

M.Baker

"Pragmatics starts out from an active conception of language as being used. Pragmatics is where the action is. Pragmatics is needed if we want a fuller, deeper and generally more reasonable account of human language behaviour."

Jacob Mey

"Pragmatics is all about the meanings between the lexis and the grammar and the phonology. Meanings are implied and the rules being followed are unspoken, unwritten ones."

George Keith

"One cannot investigate the issue of pragmatic value of an utterance in abstraction from its specific context (verbal or non-verbal). There is no pragmatics outside the context of language users."

Svitlana Shvachko

Pragmatics

"Both pragmatics and discourse analysis study the meaning of words in context, analyzing the parts of meaning that can be explained by knowledge of the physical and social world, and the socio-psychological factors influencing communication, as well as the knowledge of the time and place in which the words are uttered or written."

Joan Cutting

"The advantage of studying language via pragmatics is that one can talk about people's intended meanings, their assumptions, their purposes or goals, and the kind of actions that they are performing when they speak. The big disadvantage is that all these very human concepts are extremely difficult to analyze in a consistent and objective way."

George Yule

"Прагматика (грец. pragma, pragmatos – діло, справа, дія) комунікативна – складова спілкування, пов'язана з виявом у мовленнєвому коді інтерактивних співвідношень комунікантів, а також їх ставлення до конситуації."

Ф.С.Бацевич

"Прагматика вивчає людські виміри комунікації, пов'язаність їх з мовними структурами. Прагматика ще займається виробленням тих чи інших комунікативних стратегій, пошуком аксіоматики нашого спілкування."

Г.Г.Почепцов

Pragmatics focuses

on the conditions that allow speakers and writers to achieve their communicative goal by bringing about certain modifications in the behaviour, knowledge, attitudes or beliefs of hearers and readers;

what language users mean, as distinct from what their language means;

the rules and principles governing the use of language, over and above the rules of language itself; and what makes certain applications of language more appropriate than others in particular situations.

J.Austin "How to Do Things with Words"

Constatives vs Performatives

- Performatives do not state things; they do things. The actions they stand for are verbal, for the words themselves perform them.
  e.g.: *My plane arrives at 8 p.m.*
  I promise I'll be there on time.

A speech act includes three separate acts

- **The locutionary act** is the act of saying something, it is the utterance itself.
- **The illocutionary act** is the specific purpose the speaker has in mind.
- **The perlocutionary act** is the effect the speaker has on the addressee through his speech.

Examples:

- **Locutionary** act: *He <u>said</u> to shoot her.*
- **Illocutionary** act: *He <u>urged</u> (advised, ordered) me to shoot her.*
- **Perlocutionary** act: *He <u>persuaded</u> me to shoot her.*

J.Austin's classification

verdictives	I estimate, grade etc.

exercitives	I order, advice etc.

commissives	I promise, bet etc.

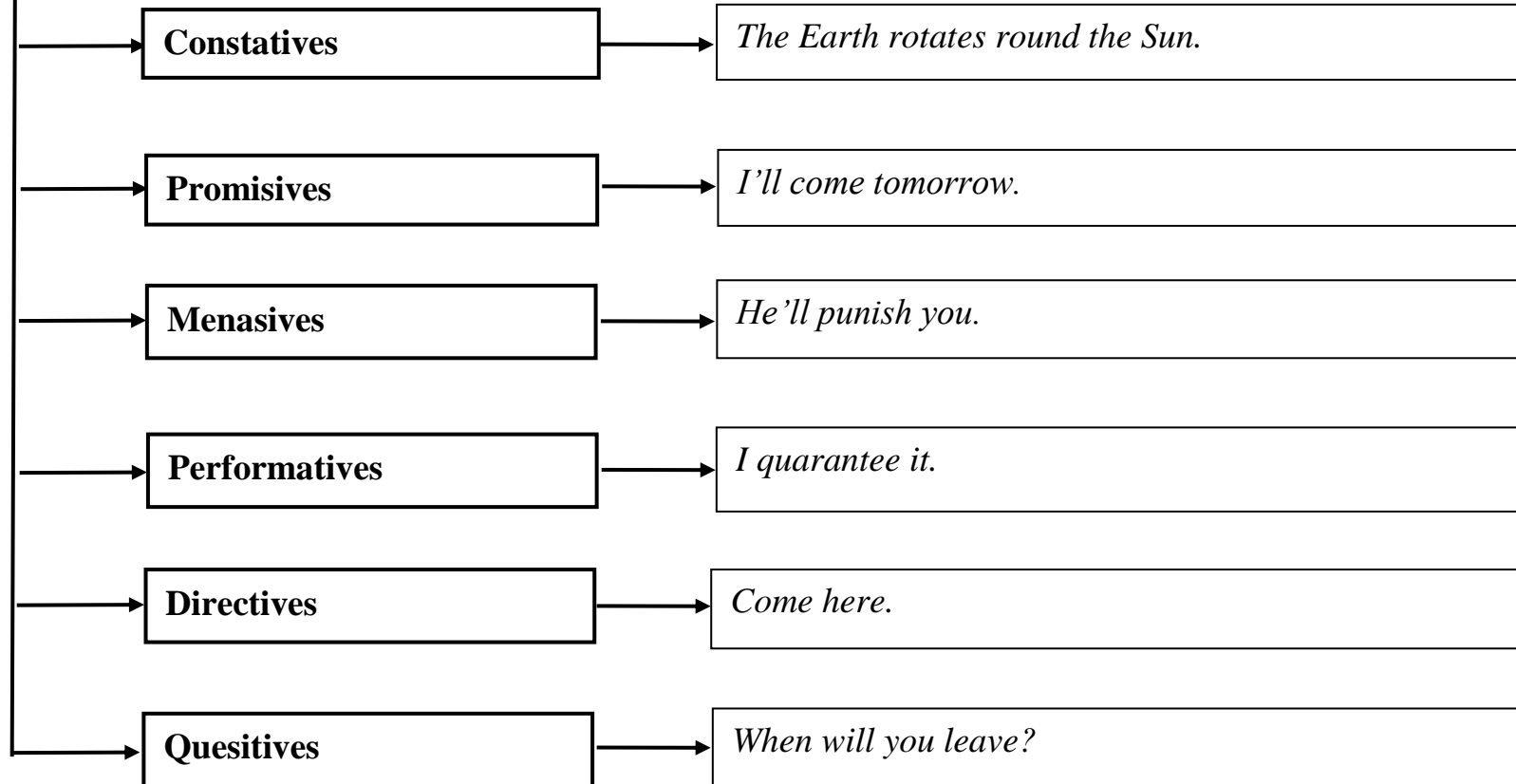|	
behabitives	I congratulate, apologize etc.

expositives	I affirm, argue, etc.

J.Searle's Classification of Speech Acts

- **Representatives**: here the speaker asserts a proposition to be true, using such verbs as: *affirm, believe, conclude, deny, report*. *The weather is fine today.*

- **Directives**: here the speaker tries to make the hearer do something, with such words as: *ask, beg, challenge, command, dare, invite, insist, request*. *Read the text*.

- **Commisives:** here the speaker commits himself (or herself) to a (future) course of action, with verbs such as: *guarantee, pledge, promise, swear, vow, undertake, warrant*. *I shall wait for you*.

- **Expressives**: the speaker expresses an attitude to or about a state of affairs, using such verbs as: *apologize, appreciate, congratulate, deplore, detest, regret, thank, welcome*. *I thank you for doing it.*

- **Declarations:** the speaker alters the external status or condition of an object or situation by making the utterance: *I now pronounce you man and wife, I sentence you to be hanged by the neck until you be dead, I name this ship...*

J. Searle's Classification of Speech Acts

- **Representatives**: here the speaker asserts a proposition to be true, using such verbs as: *affirm, believe, conclude, deny, report*. *The weather is fine today.*

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- **Declarations:** the speaker alters the external status or condition of an object or situation by making the utterance: *I now pronounce you man and wife, I sentence you to be hanged by the neck until you be dead, I name this ship...*

G. Pocheptsov's Classification

Constatives	*The Earth rotates round the Sun.*
Promisives	*I'll come tomorrow.*
Menasives	*He'll punish you.*
Performatives	*I quarantee it.*
Directives	*Come here.*
Quesitives	*When will you leave?*

Classifications of Speech Acts

J.Austin	J.Searle	D.Wunderlich	B.Fraser	J.Leech	G.Pocheptsov
expositive	representative	representative	statement	assertive	constative
exercitive	directive	directive	request	directive	Injunctive requestive
commisive	commisive	commisive	Binding act	commisive	Promisive menasive
behabitive	expressive	satisfactive	Attitude to addressee	expressive	
	declarative	declarative	Act of power		performative
		reaction			
		vocative			
				interrogative	quesitive
verdictive			Act of evaluation		

Pragmatic Types of Texts

Text type	Function of speech	Predominant illocutionary force	Examples
Informative texts: Constatives Quesitives	Cognitive	I want you to get to know X I want you to give me information on X	Novels, Stories, Reports Inquires
Directive texts	Regulatory	I want you to do X	Instructions, Offers, Recommendations
Expressive texts	Expressive	I express my attitude to you because of X	Condolences, Sympathies, Messages of thanks/appreciation
Commissive texts	Changing of the Speaker/addressee status	I commit myself to X (future action)	Vows, Promises, Threats

Direct speech acts	**Indirect speech acts**

direct speech act – a direct relationship between a structure and a function: e.g., *Close the window!*

indirect speech act - an indirect relationship between a structure and a function: e.g. *It's cold outside. – I hereby tell you about the weather* OR *I hereby request of you that you close the door.*

Indirect speech acts

- are associated with greater politeness than direct Speech Acts.
- are a matter of asking or stating if the felicity conditions for a Speech Act are satisfied
  e.g., *Why don't you be quiet?*
  It would be a good idea if you gave me the money now.
  How many times have I told you (must I tell you) not to eat with your fingers?
  I would appreciate it if you could make less noise.

Felicity conditions – expected or appropriate circumstances for the performance of a speech act to be recognized as intended.

- **Preparatory conditions**: e.g. for a promise – the event will not happen by itself, the event will have a beneficial effect for the Hearer/Addressee: e.g., *I will be there in time*.
- **Sincerity condition**: for a promise – the Speaker genuinely intends to carry out the future action.
- **Essential condition:** for a promise – the utterance changes the S's state from non-obligation to obligation.
- **Content condition:** for a promise – concerns future action.

Indirect requests

a	**Content condition**	Future act of Hearer (=H will do X)	*Will you do X?*
b	**Preparatory condition**	H is able to perform act (=H can do X)	*Can you do X?*
c	**Sincerity condition**	S wants H to do X	*I want you to do X*
d	**Essential condition**	H must do X	*You must do X*

The conversational implicature

The conversational implicature is a message that is not found in the plain sense of the sentence. The speaker *implies* it. The hearer is able to *infer* (work out, read between the lines) this message in the utterance, by appealing to the rules governing successful conversational interaction. Grice proposed that implicatures like the second sentence can be calculated from the first, by understanding three things:

- The usual linguistic meaning of what is said.
- Contextual information (shared or general knowledge).
- The assumption that the speaker is obeying what Grice calls the *cooperative principle*.

The Cooperative Principle

Speakers shape their utterances to be understood by hearers.
The principle can be explained by four underlying rules or maxims.

Quality: speakers should be truthful. They should not say what they think is false, or make statements for which they have no evidence.

Quantity: a contribution should be as informative as is required for the conversation to proceed. It should be neither too little, nor too much. (It is not clear how one can decide what quantity of information satisfies the maxim in a given case.)

Relevance: speakers' contributions should relate clearly to the purpose of the exchange.

Manner: speakers' contributions should be perspicuous: clear, orderly and brief, avoiding obscurity and ambiguity.

In analysing utterances and searching for relevance we can use a hierarchy of propositions – those that might be *asserted*, *presupposed*, *entailed* or *inferred* from any utterance.

Assertion: what is asserted is the obvious, plain or surface meaning of the utterance (though many utterances are not assertions of anything).

Presupposition: what is taken for granted in the utterance: e.g., *I saw the Mona Lisa in the Louvre* presupposes that the Mona Lisa is in the Louvre.

Entailments: logical or necessary corollaries of an utterance, thus, the above example entails: e.g., *I saw something in the Louvre. – I saw something somewhere. Something was seen. There is a Louvre. There is a Mona Lisa, and so on.*

Inferences: these are interpretations that other people draw from the utterance, for which we cannot always directly account. From this example, someone might infer, rationally, that the Mona Lisa is, or was recently, on show to the public. They might infer, less rationally, that the speaker has been to France recently - because if the statement were about something from years ago, he or she would have said so.

XIV. The Text

- **Text Linguistics;**
- **Standards of textuality;**
- **Cohesion;**
- **Coherence;**
- **Intentionality, acceptability, situationality;**
- **Text types.**

Text Linguistics

- describes or explains the common and differential features among the text types, what standards texts must fulfill, how they might be produced or received, what people are using them for in a given setting of occurrence, and so forth.
- the study of written interaction, usually understood as a complete unit of speech (or macro text) and a chain of utterances linked together by a common purpose of communication (or micro text). It concerns with the organization of the text. The Text is a unit of Language. **The text** is any written record of a communicative event (**David Nunan**).

Seven standards of textuality:

- cohesion,
- coherence,
- intentionality,
- acceptability,
- informativity,
- situationality,
- intertextuality.

These standards define and create the form of behavior identifiable as textual communicating, and if they are defied, that form of behavior will break down.

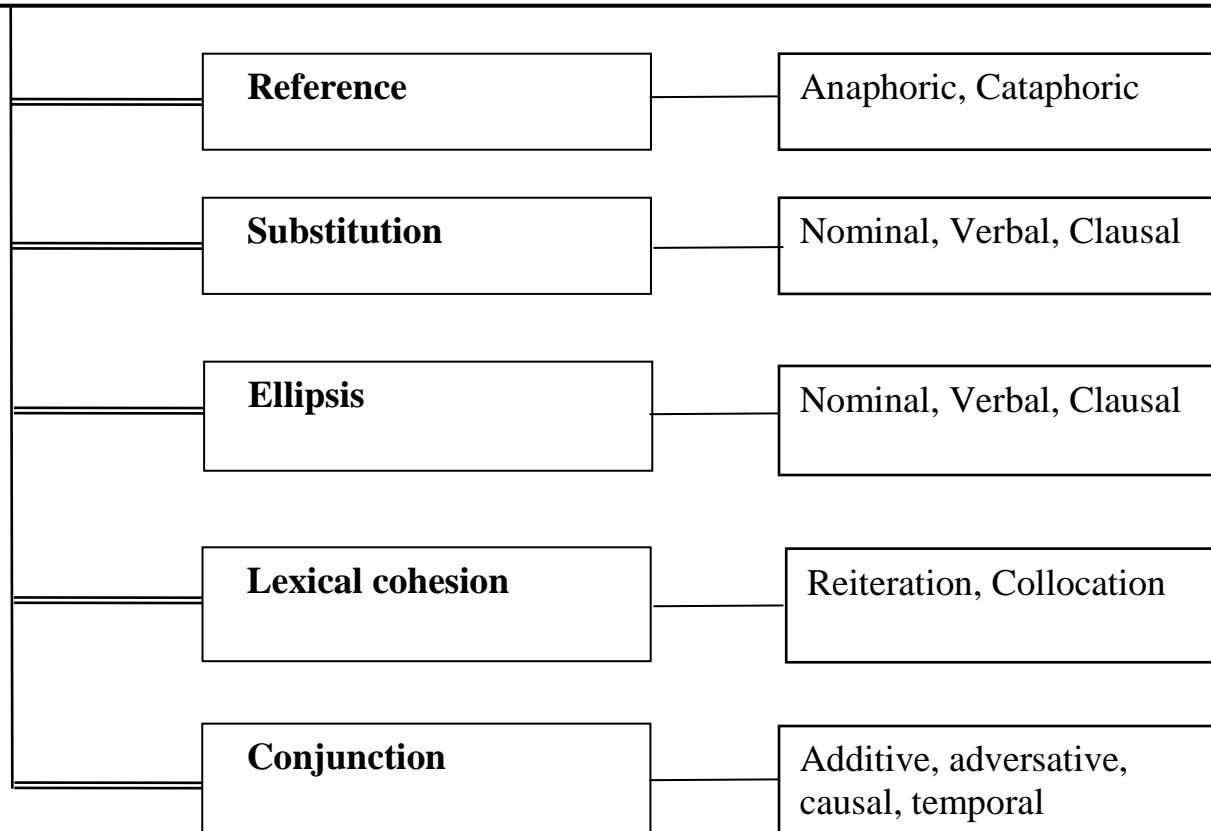**Text - Kernel**

Pragmatic Component   **Propositional basis**

I (the author)   **V**   **You** (the reader) **that** $\underbrace{\text{X}}_{\textbf{topic}}$ $\underbrace{\text{does}}_{\textbf{comment}}$ Y

     promise

     agree

     announce

     inform

Cohesion "sticking together"

concerns the ways in which the components of the surface text, i.e. the actual words we hear or see, are *mutually connected within a sequence*. **The surface components depend** upon each other according to grammatical forms and conventions, cohesion rests upon **grammatical dependencies**.

Reference	Anaphoric, Cataphoric
Substitution	Nominal, Verbal, Clausal
Ellipsis	Nominal, Verbal, Clausal
Lexical cohesion	Reiteration, Collocation
Conjunction	Additive, adversative, causal, temporal

Reference

Anaphoric reference

Points to the reader or listener backwards to a previously mentioned entity, process or state of affairs.

*"**He** is near the end of the Cape Fear shoot, in front of a grocer's stand just outside Fort Lauderdale, Florida ... **He** used to have Armani make his jeans, but he felt guilty wearing them."*

(Premiere Magazine)

The item **he** is uninterpretable.

However, if we have access to the context in which the sentence appears, the question is quite straightforward.

*"**Martin Scorsese** is killing time, waiting for the sun to go behind a cloud so the next shot will match the last one. He is near the end of the Cape..."*

Cataphoric reference

Points the reader or listener forward – it draws us further into the text in order to identify the elements to which the reference items refer. Authors use cataphoric reference for dramatic effect.

*Within five minutes, or ten minutes, no more than that, three of the others had called her on the telephone to ask her if she had heard something had happened out there. "Jane, this is **Alice**. Listen, **I** just got a call from Betty, and she said she heard something's happened out there. Have you heard anything?" That was the way they phrased it, call after call. (Wolfe)*

REFERRING BACK
(ANAPHORIC RELATIONS)
X ← Y

Personal reference	I held <u>her</u> very close. My cheek was against **<u>hers.</u>**
Comparative reference	<u>A dog</u> was running around in the yard. Soon **<u>another one</u>** appeared.
Demonstrative reference	<u>He could have become famous</u> but **this** did not happen.

REFERRING FORWARD
(CATAPHORIC RELATIONS)
X⟶Y

the use of "this-these"	On the blackboard <u>these</u> words were written: <u>Reading</u>. <u>Writing. Arithmetic.</u>
the use of "following, Next, below"	In the <u>next</u> chapter, we will examine this theory in detail.
the use of cleft-clauses	<u>What he did</u> was <u>to interview Mr. President</u>.
the use of sentences beginning with "there"	<u>There</u> were no other jobs available.

Substitution

Nominal	There are some new <u>tennis balls</u> in the bag. These <u>ones</u> have lost their bounce.
Verbal	You <u>drink too much</u>. So <u>do</u> you!
Clausal	Is it <u>going to rain</u>? I think <u>so.</u>

Ellipsis

Nominal	My <u>kids</u> play an awful lot of sport. <u>Both</u> are incredibly energetic.
Verbal	Have you <u>been working</u>? - Yes, I <u>have</u>.
Clausal	He is staying for dinner, isn't he? - Is he? He didn't tell me.

Conjunction

Signals relationship that can only be fully understood through reference to other parts of the text.

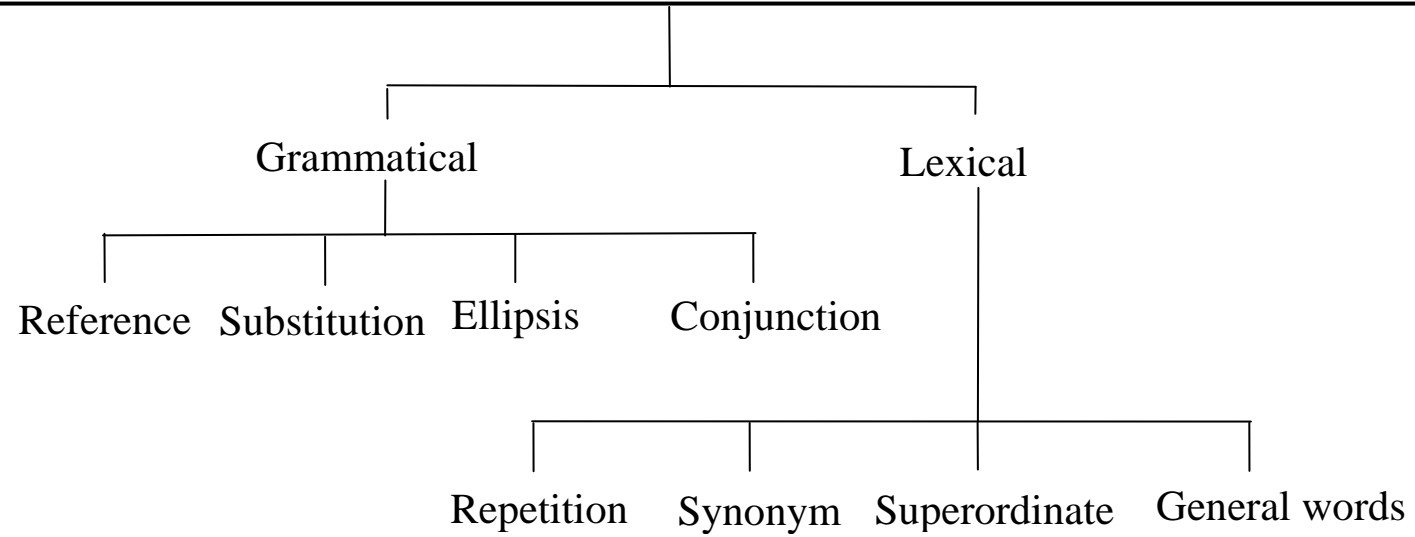|	
ADDITIVE	and, or, further more, in fact, actually, etc.
ADVERSATIVE	but, however, on the one hand, anyway, etc.
CAUSAL	so, consequently, thus, for this reason, etc.
TEMPORAL	then, after that, finally, at last, etc.

e.g. temporal conjunction

Brick tea is a blend that has been compressed into a cake. It is taken mainly by the minority groups in China. First, it is ground to a dust. Then it is usually cooked in milk.

Lexical cohesion

REITERATION repetition, synonym, superordinate, general word	There's <u>water</u> through many homes I would say almost all of them have <u>water</u> in them. It's just completely under <u>water</u>.
COLLOCATION includes all the items in a text that are semantically related	"I'm <u>an incredible man</u>, possessing an iron will and nerves of steel--two traits that have helped me become <u>the genius</u> I am today as well as <u>the lady killer</u> I was in days gone by." (William Morgan Sheppard as Dr. Ira Graves, "The Schizoid Man." Star Trek: The Next Generation, 1989)

Cohesion

Grammatical   Lexical

Reference Substitution Ellipsis Conjunction
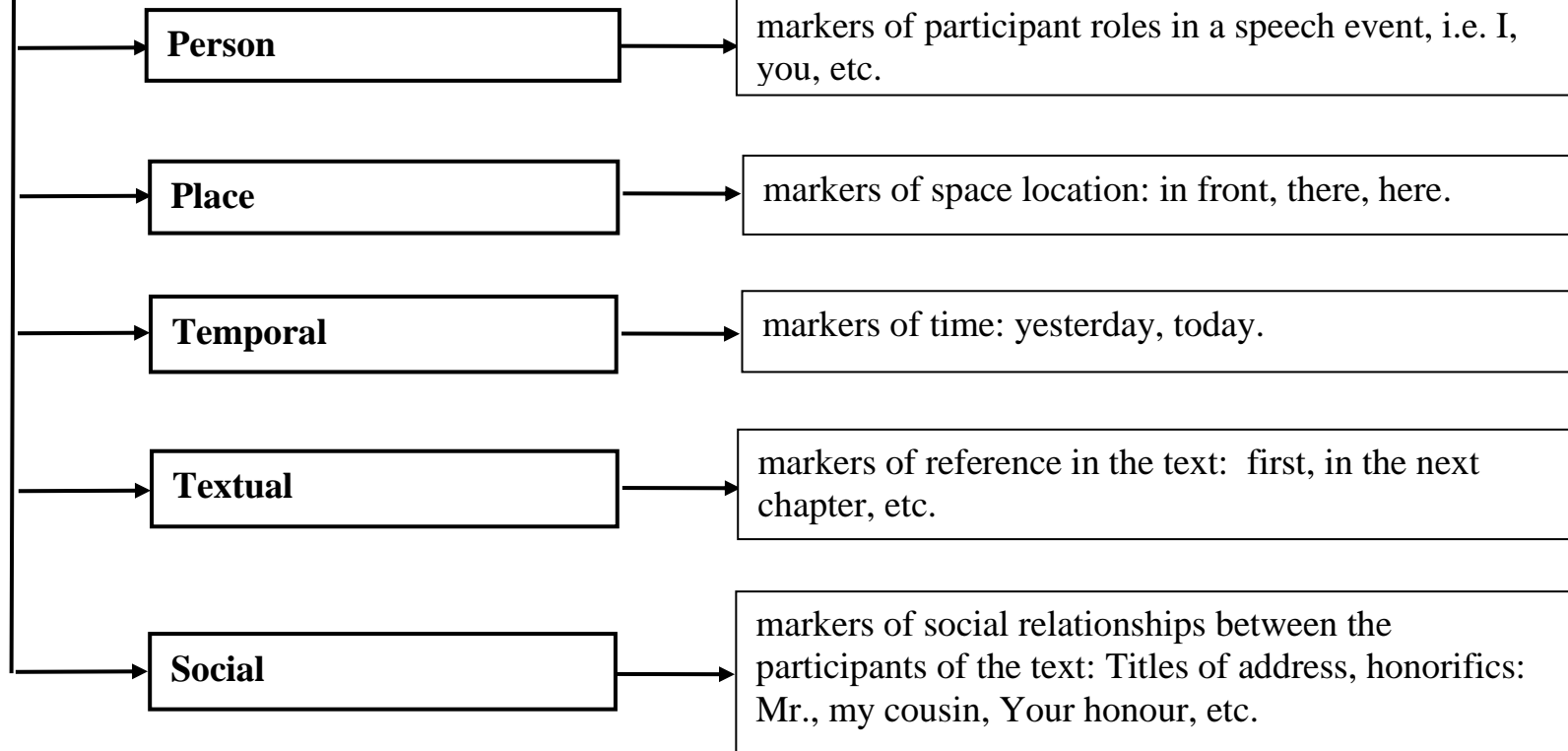
Repetition Synonym Superordinate General words

Coherence
logical, topical connectedness

- concerns the ways in which the components of the textual world, i.e., the configuration of concepts and relations which *underlie* the surface text, are *mutually accessible* and *relevant*.
- a concept is definable as a configuration of knowledge (cognitive content) which can be recovered or activated with more or less unity and consistency in the mind: each link would bear a designation of the concept it connects to.
- can be illustrated by a group of relations subsumed under causality. These relations concern the ways in which one situation or event affects the conditions for some other one. E.g:

  Jack fell down and broke his crown.

- the event of 'falling down' is the cause of the event of 'breaking', since it created the *necessary conditions* for the latter.

Deictic markers

Person → markers of participant roles in a speech event, i.e. I, you, etc.

Place → markers of space location: in front, there, here.

Temporal → markers of time: yesterday, today.

Textual → markers of reference in the text: first, in the next chapter, etc.

Social → markers of social relationships between the participants of the text: Titles of address, honorifics: Mr., my cousin, Your honour, etc.

Functional Sentence Perspective

The ordering of expressions to show the importance or newness of their content yields functional sentence perspective. In spoken texts, intonation can also signal importance or newness of content.

Thematic progression – the choice and ordering of utterance themes, their mutual concatenation and hierarchy, as well as their relationship to hyper themes of the superior text units (such as the paragraph, chapter, etc.), to the whole text, and to the situation.

Types of Theme – Rheme Progression.
- Linear Progression
- Simple Progression
- Continuous Progression

Linear Progression

T1 —— R1

T2   R2

—— T3   R3

e.g.
Once upon a time there lived <u>a king</u>. <u>The king</u> had <u>a beautiful daughter</u>, the princess. But there was a problem. Everything <u>the princess</u> touched would melt. No matter what; metal, wood, plastic anything she touched would melt. Because of this, men were afraid of her. Nobody would dare marry her.

Simple Progression
is characteristic of argumentative texts.

T1 $\longrightarrow$ R1

T1 $\longrightarrow$ R2

T1 $\longrightarrow$ R3

**CINDERELLA-THE REAL STORY**
By Yvonne Augustin

My name is Oscar and I am a mouse.

I am not related to Mickey, Minnie, or Mighty, (even though there is a small resemblance to that super-hero Mighty mouse). I live in the attic in Cinderella's house. You might say Cindy and I were roommates. ...

Continuous theme

is typical of straightforward exposition, such as in the case of news reporting.

T

T1   R1   T2   R2   T3   R3

___   ___   ___
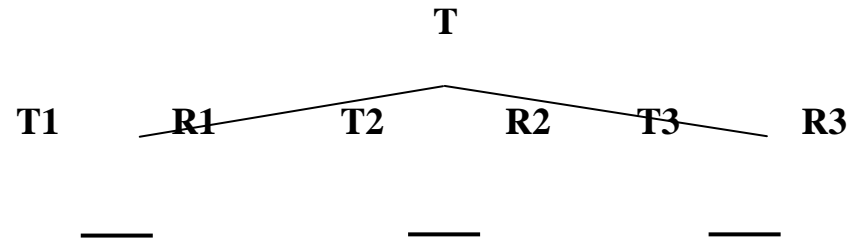
e.g.: Stresses

When I'm stressed, I do two things. One thing I do is shop. The other thing I do is clean. I tore apart my room and dusted and vacuumed and packed up old clothes to give away, etc. As such, I now have the loveliest, cleanest bedroom in my neighborhood, and I have lots of shiny new things to play with.

Standards of textuality

Intentionality: concerns the text **producer**'s attitude that the set of occurrences should constitute a cohesive and coherent text instrumental in fulfilling the producer's intentions, e.g. to distribute knowledge or to attain a goal specified in a plan.

Acceptability: concerns the text **receiver**'s attitude that the set of occurrences should constitute a cohesive and coherent text having some use or relevance for the receiver. This attitude is responsive to such factors as text type, social or cultural setting, and the desirability of goals.

Informativity: concerns the extent to which the occurrences of the presented text are expected vs. unexpected or known vs. unknown. Every text is at least somewhat informative: no matter how predictable form and content may be, there will always be a few variable occurrences that cannot be entirely foreseen. Particularly low informativity is likely to be disturbing, causing boredom or even rejection of the text.

Situationality: concerns the factors which make a text relevant to a situation of occurrence.
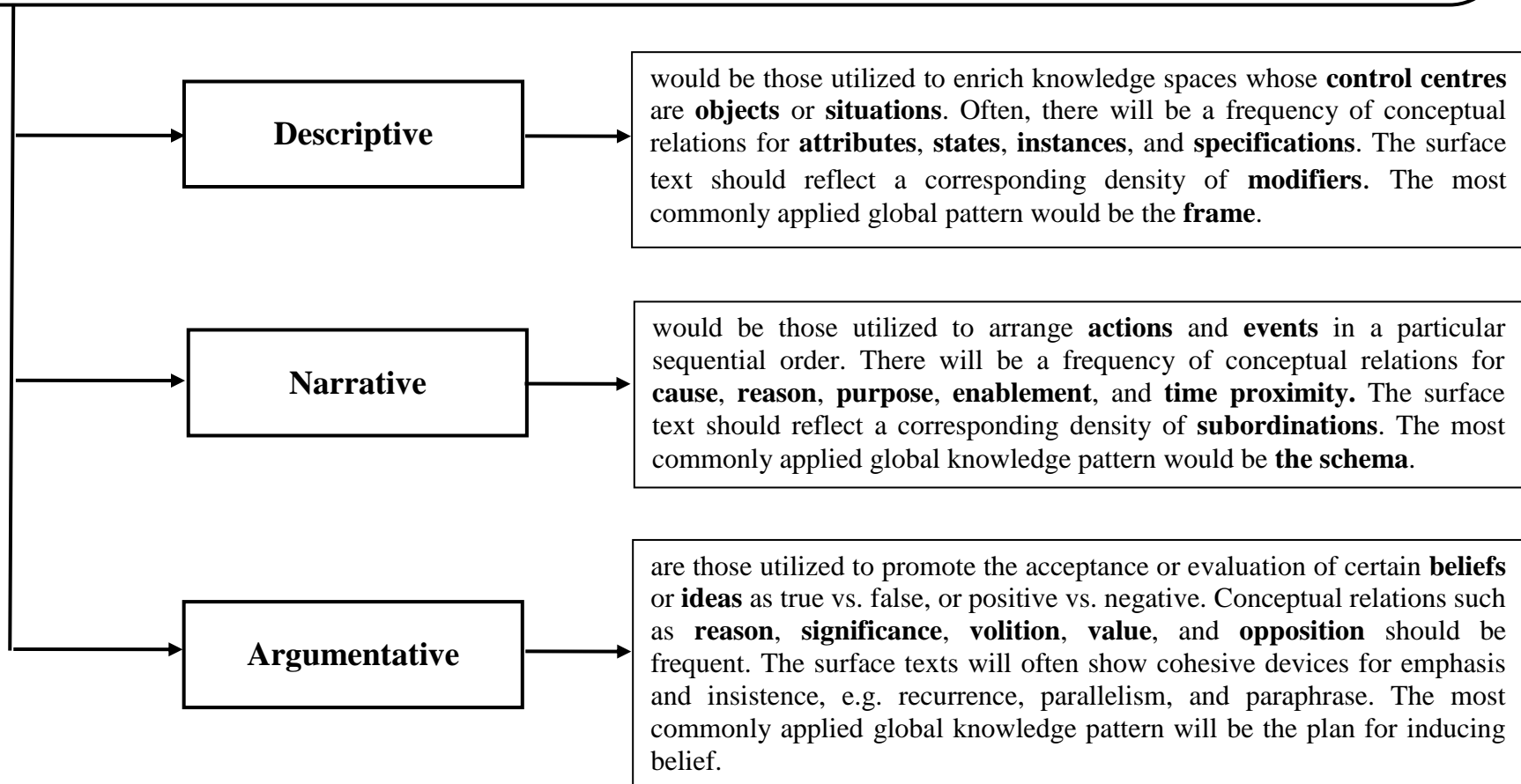**SLOW   CHILDREN   AT PLAY**
might be divided up into various dependencies:
1. we may construe it as a notice about 'slow children' who are 'at play" or
2. we may divide the text into 'slow' and 'children at play', and suppose that drivers should reduce speed to avoid endangering the playing children

Intertextuality: concerns the factors which make the utilization of one text dependent upon knowledge of one or more previously encountered texts. E.g.: a driver who has seen a road sign is likely to see another sign further down the road.

Text Types

The question of text types offers a severe challenge to linguistic typology, i.e. systemization and classification of language samples. **Intertextuality** is responsible for the evolution of text types as classes of texts with typical patterns of characteristics. Within a particular type, reliance on intertextuality may be more or less prominent. In types like parodies, critical reviews, rebuttals, or reports, the text producer must consult the prior text continually, and text receivers will usually need some familiarity with the latter.
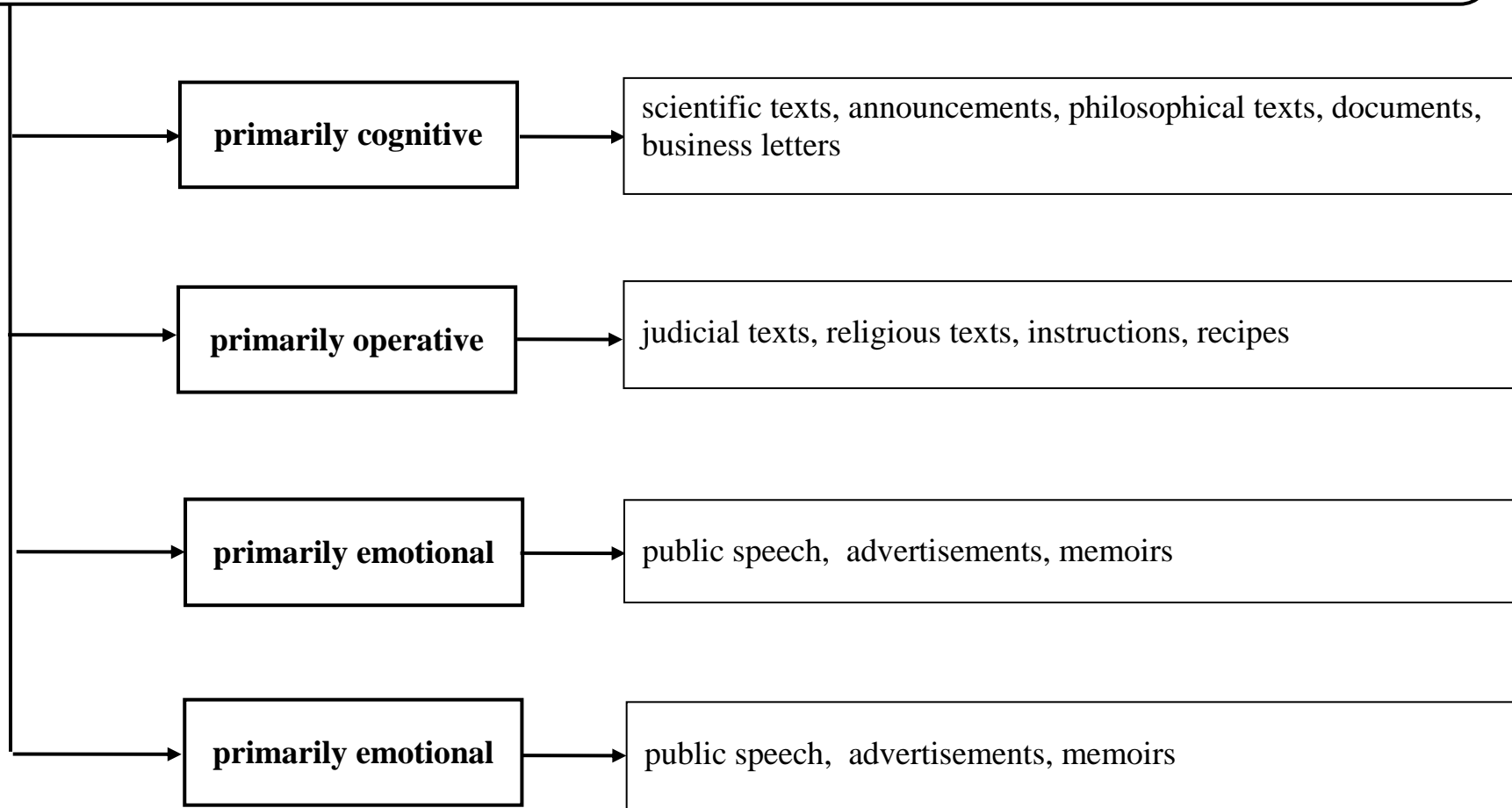
Descriptive → would be those utilized to enrich knowledge spaces whose **control centres** are **objects** or **situations**. Often, there will be a frequency of conceptual relations for **attributes**, **states**, **instances**, and **specifications**. The surface text should reflect a corresponding density of **modifiers**. The most commonly applied global pattern would be the **frame**.

Narrative → would be those utilized to arrange **actions** and **events** in a particular sequential order. There will be a frequency of conceptual relations for **cause**, **reason**, **purpose**, **enablement**, and **time proximity.** The surface text should reflect a corresponding density of **subordinations**. The most commonly applied global knowledge pattern would be **the schema**.

Argumentative → are those utilized to promote the acceptance or evaluation of certain **beliefs** or **ideas** as true vs. false, or positive vs. negative. Conceptual relations such as **reason**, **significance**, **volition**, **value**, and **opposition** should be frequent. The surface texts will often show cohesive devices for emphasis and insistence, e.g. recurrence, parallelism, and paraphrase. The most commonly applied global knowledge pattern will be the plan for inducing belief.

Text Types

In many texts, we would find a mixture of the descriptive, narrative, and argumentative functions.

For example, the *Declaration of Independence* contains descriptions of the situation of the American colonies, and brief narrations of British actions; yet the dominant function is undeniably argumentative, i.e. to induce the belief that America was justified in 'dissolving' its 'political bands'. The text producers openly declare their 'decent respect to the opinions of mankind' and the 'rectitude' of their 'intentions'.

Text Types
according to the prevailing type of information

| **primarily cognitive** | scientific texts, announcements, philosophical texts, documents, business letters |

| **primarily operative** | judicial texts, religious texts, instructions, recipes |

| **primarily emotional** | public speech, advertisements, memoirs |

| **primarily emotional** | public speech, advertisements, memoirs |

Text type	Function of speech	Predominant illocutionary force	Examples
Informative texts A. Constative texts B. Quesitive texts	Cognitive	I want you to get to know X I want you to give me information on X	Novels, Stories, Reports Inquires
Directive texts	Regulatory	I want you to do X	Instructions, Offers, Recommendations
Expressive texts	Expressive	I express my attitude to you because of X	Condolences, Sympathies, Messages of thanks/appreciation
Commissive texts	Changing of the Speaker/addressee status	I commit myself to X (future action)	Vows, Promises, Threat

XV. Discourse

- **Definition;**
- **Discourse analysis;**
- **Maxims of Conversation;**
- **Politeness Principle;**
- **Speech Strategies.**

Discourse
Latin – "argument", French – "speech"

- "Language in operation" (**Halliday**)

- Stretches of language perceived to be meaningful, unified, and purposive (**Cook**)

- "A continuous stretch of especially spoken language larger than a sentence, often constituting a coherent unit, such as a sermon, argument, joke or narrative." (**Crystal**)

- Discourse is verbal communication; talk, conversation, a formal treatment of a subject in speech or writing, such as a sermon or dissertation, a unit of text used by linguists for the analysis of linguistic phenomena that range over more than one sentence. (**Poluzhyn**)

- "the interpretation of a communicative event in context" (**Nunan**)

- In the broad sense the term "discourse" is used for designating various types of speech and speech compositions.

- It is a coherent text in combination with pragmatic, sociocultural, psychological and other factors.

- It includes all language units with definable communicative function, spoken or written.

Discourse analysis

Discourse analysis focuses on the **structure of naturally occurring spoken language,** as found in such discourses as conversations, interviews, commentaries, speeches, etc. Language is seen as a dynamic, social, interactive phenomenon – whether between speaker and listener or writer and reader.

- Conversation turns out to be a highly **structured activity**, in which people operate with a set of basic conversations.
- The participants make their moves and follow certain rules as the dialogue proceeds.
- Conversations vary in length and complexity.
- Analysis begins by breaking an interaction into the smallest possible units ("exchanges" or "interchanges"):

  questioning / answering;

  informing / acknowledging;

  complaining / excusing, etc.

Discourse analysis

Telephone conversations

British English	French
• Telephone rings. • Answerer gives number. • Caller asks for intended addressee.	• Telephone rings. • Answerer: "Allo". • Caller verifies number • Answerer: "Oui". • Caller identifies self, apologizes, asks for intended addressee.

A **successful conversation** is a mutually satisfying linguistic exchange.

Implicature

additional conveyed meaning – IMPLICATURE

Conventional

Conversational

- Includes those aspects of information that are connected with what is said (in a strict sense) in a sentence.
- is derived from a definite lexical or grammatical structure of an utterance.

E.g. *I saw only John - I didn't see anyone else.*

- is such component of an utterance that is not expressed but is understood by communicants in the process of communication.

Q: Would you like some coffee?

R: Coffee would keep me awake ("Yes" or "No"?)

Think of situations when it means "yes" and "no".

Conversational implicature is connected with the violation of maxims, the A interprets this violation as a purposeful means of making him understand without words: e.g. if a question *"Is Mr. Smith a good scientist?"* is answered *"He plays chess well."* the S means that he is not of a high opinion of a scientific abilities of Smith.

Otherwise Maxim of relevance would be violated.

Polonius: *What do you read, My Lord?*

Hamlet: *Words, words, words.*

(Maxim of Quantity)

The politeness principle (G. Leech)

Politeness is a form of behavior that establish and maintain comity.

The ability of communicants to engage in interaction in an atmosphere of relative harmony.

Two types of politeness: negative (avoidance of discord) and positive (seeking concord).

The general principle is followed by special rules or maxims: tact, generosity, approbation, modesty, agreement and sympathy.

Maxims by G. Leech

Tact	in directives and commissives: minimize cost to other, maximize benefit to other
Generosity	in directives and commissives: minimize benefit to self, maximize cost to self
Approbation	in expressives and representatives: minimize dispraise of other, maximize praise of other
Modesty	in expressives and representatives: minimize praise of self, maximize dispraise of self
Agreement	in representatives: minimize disagreement between self and other, maximize agreement between self and other
Sympathy	in representatives: minimize antipathy between self and other, maximize sympathy between self and other

Face and Politeness

"**Face**" refers to a speaker's sense of social and linguistic identity. Any speech act may impose on this sense, and is face threatening. Speakers have strategies for lessening this threat.

Positive politeness means being complimentary and gracious to the Addressee.

Negative politeness is found in ways of mitigating the imposition.
- **Hedging**: *Could you, er, perhaps, close the, um, window?*
- **Pessimism**: *I don't suppose you could close the window, could you?*
- **Apologizing**: *I'm terribly sorry to put you out, but could you close the window*?
- **Impersonalizing**: *The management requires all the windows to be closed*.

Penelope Brown and Stephen Levinson

- Politeness is defined as redressive action taken to counter-balance the disruptive effect of face-threatening acts (FTAs);
- Communication is seen as potentially dangerous and antagonistic;
- Face is defined as the public-self image that every member of society wants to claim for himself;
- People tend to maintain one another's face continuously in communication;
- Face consists of two related aspects: negative and positive.

Negative face: freedom of action, freedom from imposition.

Positive face: the positive self-image that people have desire to be appreciated and praised de some other people.

Brown and Levinson sum up politeness behavior in four strategies

Bald on-record:
- An emergency: *Help!*
- Task oriented: *Give me those!*
- Request: *Put your jacket away.*
- Alerting: *Turn your lights on! (while driving)*

Positive politeness:
- Attend to the Addressee: *You must be hungry. It's a long time since breakfast. How about some lunch?*
- Avoid disagreement: *A: What is she, small? B: Yes, she's small, smallish, um, not really small but certainly not very big.*
- Assume agreement: *So when you are coming to see us?*
- Hedge opinion: *You really should sort of try harder.*

Negative politeness:
- Be indirect: *I'm looking for a pen.*
- Request forgiveness: *You must forgive me but …*
- Minimize imposition: *I just want to ask you if I could use your computer?*
- Pluralize the person responsible: *We forgot to tell you that you needed to buy your plane ticket by yesterday.*

OFF-Record
- Give hints: *It's a bit cold in here.*
- Be vague: *Perhaps some one should have been more responsible.*
- Be sarcastic or joking: *Yeah, he is a real Einstein.*

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Dominant features of speech behavior

expression	English speech	Ukrainian speech
Inducement	implicit	explicit
Positive evaluation	overstatement	understatement
Negative evaluation	understatement	overstatement

Inducement

English:
- I wonder if you would do …;
- Would/will/could it be too much if you …;
- Would you mind if …;
- May/Might I just ask you ...?;
- Could/ would/ will you…?;
- If you haven't got any objections …;
- I'd like to ...;
- Would you do me a favor …?;
- You could do smth., etc.

Українська:
- Чи можу я попросити Вас…?;
- Чи не могли б Ви…?;
- Я хотів би попросити Вас …;
- Чи не будете Ви так люб'язні …?;
- Запишіть, будь ласка, наступне…;
- Дайте відповідь на запитання;
- Підійдіть до дошки, тощо.

Overstatement

- Intensification: *so, too, extremely, awfully, terribly, absolutely etc.,*

  e.g.: Thank you <u>so much/ very much</u> indeed! I'm <u>terribly</u> sorry.

- Exaggeration: *like, want – dream, adore, love, enjoy etc.; good – happy, delighted, super, smashing etc.,*

  e.g.: How is it going! – <u>Great! I really hate</u> to bother you.

Understatement

- Minimizing adverbs: *a little, a bit, just, only, somewhat etc.,*

  e.g.: It is just *a slip* of the tongue. The news *somewhat* shocked me.

- Fillers: *a sort of, a kind of, more or less, so to speak etc.,*

  e.g.: I've got *a bit of* a problem.

- Verbs of intention: *to intend, to mean, feel etc.,*

  e.g.: You tend to miss your classes.

- Negation: *not, hardly ever, barely, not, to fail, to lack etc.*

  e.g.: Sorry, but I'm *not quite* clear on … (= I don't understand).

  I *hardly ever* speak in public. (= I never speak in public).

Examples

- *Oh, by the way, you know this morning when I overheard you telling the CEO that you thought that I had the intellectual capacity of a squashed apricot, well, the thing is, I sort of thought that was a little bit, kind of, well, a teensy bit out of line. I mean, depends of course, but perhaps, I don't know, you could maybe have been slightly more, you know, well, a bit nicer…although, come to think of it, I do rather like apricots actually…*

- *This morning I overheard you telling the CEO that you thought I had the intellectual capacity of a squashed apricot. I thought that was rude and deeply unprofessional. However, I want you to know that I do like apricots.*