Iryna Morozova
Olena Pozharytska

Theory of English Grammar
(Students' Major Language)

Iryna Morozova, Olena Pozharytska

THEORY
OF ENGLISH GRAMMAR

(Students' Major Language)

A UNIVERSITY MANUAL
on Theoretical Grammar
(Students' Main Modern Language)

for BA students majoring in 035 Philology, Specialisation 035.041
Germanic Languages and Literatures (Including Translation),
Major Language – English

UNIVERSITY
BOOK

І. Б. Морозова, О. О. Пожарицька

ТЕОРЕТИЧНА ГРАМАТИКА АНГЛІЙСЬКОЇ МОВИ

(для студентів, які спеціалізуються з англійської)

УНІВЕРСИТЕТСЬКА КНИГА

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Пропонований навчальний посібник ставить метою в оригінальній, сучасній та захопливій для здобувачів освіти формі роз'яснити базові поняття теоретичної граматики англійської мови.

Структурно посібник складається з трьох основних частин – «Theory of English Grammar: A Working Programme», де окреслено загальну інформацію щодо програми академічного курсу, «Lecture Notes», що подає базові теоретичні аспекти курсу (із запитаннями для самоконтролю) та «Workshop Plans», де подано рекомендовані та можливі плани практичних занять та теми для обговорення. У додатках пропонуються варіанти презентацій, які можливо завантажити через QR-коди. Наведені ілюстрації сприяють покращенню сприйняття теоретичного матеріалу та його закарбовуванню в пам'яті студентів.

ПРО АВТОРІВ

Iryna Morozova / Ірина Морозова, доктор філологічних наук, професор, професор кафедри граматики англійської мови факультету романо-германської філології Одеського національного університету імені І. І. Мечникова. У своїх роботах, Ірина Морозова першою в Україні запропонувала застосувати гештальт-підхід до теорії синтаксису, розглядаючи будь-яке мовне явище як центровану багатовимірну формацію, що відображається у своїх гештальт-якостях, але є багатшою за їх загальну суму. Такий підхід уможливив проникнути в сутність багатьох мовних явищ та розкрити внутрішні механізми їх функціонування в англійській мові. Ірина Морозова є автором чотирьох монографій та чотирьох навчальних посібників з практичної граматики англійської мови, рекомендованих Міністерством освіти і науки України та Одеським національним університетом імені І.І. Мечникова для студентів університетів зі спеціальності 035 – філологія, спеціалізації 035.041. Германські мови та літератури (переклад включно), перша – англійська. Морозова І. Б. є автором більш, ніж 160 наукових публікацій, неодноразово проходила стажування у країнах Європи (зокрема, у низці університетів Великої Британії у 2013, 2014, 2015, 2016, 2017, 2018 та 2019 рр.), працює у редколегіях фахових журналів з лінгвістики в Україні та за кордоном (наприклад, «International Journal of Sciences: Basic and Applied Research» (IJSBAR) (ISSN 2307-4531), «International Journal of Language and Linguistics» (IJLL) (ISSN: 2330-0205 (Print), ISSN: 2330-0221 (Online)) (США), IAFOR Journal of Literature & Librarianship Scopus (Велика Британія; журнал зареєстрований у Scopus) та ін.), є членом міжнародних асоціацій та товариств з лінгвістики, успішно скеровує роботи своїх аспірантів (під її керівництвом отримано 6 ступенів PhD (кандидатів філологічних наук)). Голова студентського наукового гуртку Grammar Club в Одеському національному університеті імені І. І. Мечникова.

Dr **Iryna B. Morozova** is a Grand PhD, full professor of the Chair of English Grammar, Romance-Germanic Faculty, Odesa Mechnikov National University (Doctor of Philological Sciences, Grand PhD). Having defended two theses – a candidate one and a doctoral one, Iryna Morozova was the first in Ukraine to suggest applying the Gestalt approach to the theory of syntax by treating any linguistic phenomenon as

a centred multidimensional formation which is reflected in its Gestalt properties, but is still richer than their sum total. This approach allowed penetrating into the essence of many linguistic phenomena and disclosing the inner mechanisms of their functioning in the English language. Iryna Morozova is the author of four monographs and four grammar books recommended by the Ministry of Education and Science of Ukraine and Odesa Mechnikov National University for university students majoring in English (specialty 035 – Philology, 035.041. Germanic languages and literatures (translation inclusive), majoring in English); altogether she has authored over 160 papers. I. Morozova has had several internships in Europe (in 2013, 2014, 2015, 2016, 2017, 2018 and 2019, she trained in different universities in the UK). She works on editorial boards of linguistic journals both in this country and abroad («International Journal of Sciences: Basic and Applied Research» (IJSBAR) (ISSN 2307-4531), «International Journal of Language and Linguistics» (IJLL) (ISSN: 2330-0205 (Print), ISSN: 2330-0221 (Online)) (USA), IAFOR Journal of Literature & Librarianship Scopus (UK; indexed in Scopus) and is a current member of international linguistic associations and societies. Six post-graduate students have successfully defended their theses under her supervision. Iryna Morozova is President of Grammar Club, functioning at Odesa Mechnikov National University as a popular extra-curricular linguistic speaking club.

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Olena Pozharytska / Олена Пожарицька, кандидат філологічних наук, доцент, доцент кафедри граматики англійської мови факультету романо-германської філології Одеського національного університету імені І.І. Мечникова. Найкраща випускниця факультету свого року, наразі Олена Пожарицька є автором більш, ніж 80 статей на теренах лінгвістики та літературної семантики. Охоче бере участь у міжнародних конференціях та ніколи не припиняє вчитися через свою допитливість та жагу до знань. У 2014 вона захистила кандидатську дисертацію ««Авторський концепт позитивності у мовленнєвому портреті головного героя: комунікативно-парадигматичний аналіз (на матеріалі англомовних романів жанру «вестерн»)» (спеціальність 10.02.04 – германські мови) та є зараз кандидатом наук (доктором філософії) з лінгвістики, доцентом. Активно підвищує кваліфікацію на інтернаціональних стажуваннях в університетах Великої Британії. Посіла 2 місце на конкурсі молодих вчених Одеського національного університету ім. І.І. Мечникова та стала лауреатом стипендії ім. Л.Н. Калустьяна (перше місце серед кандидатів

наук, PhD) у 2022–2023 р. Головною сферою наукового інтересу сьогодні є дигітальна лінгвістика та людонарративні студії.

Olena Pozharytska is a PhD, associate professor of the Chair of English Grammar, Romance-Germanic Faculty, Odesa Mechnikov National University (Candidate of Philological Sciences, PhD). Having graduated from university as the top-student of her year, Olena Pozharytska is now the author of over 80 articles in the field of linguistics and literary semantics. She is an active participant of international conferences and never stops learning due to her curiosity and thirst for knowledge. In 2014 she defended her candidate thesis "The Author's Concept of the Positive in the Main Character's Speech Portrait: A Communicative and Paradigmatic Analysis (Based on American "Western" Novels)" (specialty 10.02.04 – Germanic languages) and is now a PhD in Linguistics, Associate Professor. Olena Pozharytska often takes part in various international internships in the UK universities. She was nominated the 2nd best young researcher of Odesa Mechnikov National University and became a laureate of the Kalustian Scholarship (first place among young PhD scholars) in 2022–2023. The domain of her prime interest today is digital linguistics combined with ludonarrative studies.

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ПЕРЕДМОВА

Представлений навчальний посібник розроблений для здобувачів освіти на факультеті романо-германської філології, які обрали спеціальність 035 Філологія і спеціалізацію 035.041 Германські мови та літератури (переклад включно), перша – англійська. Навчальна дисципліна «Теоретична граматика основної іноземної мови», яку він висвітлює, є частиною освітньо-професійної програми підготовки бакалаврів та належить до обов'язкових її компонентів.

Мета цього навчального посібника – навчити студентів основним принципам та закономірностям граматичної побудови сучасної англійської мови в аспекті її структури та функціонування, класичним та сучасним підходам до аналізу мовних одиниць та явищ, а також розвинути у студентів науково-лінгвістичне мислення, уміння орієнтуватися у науковій лінгвістичній інформації, розуміння природи граматичних явищ та процесів.

Завданнями посібника є: стимулювати аналітичне мислення студентів; підштовхнути їх до більш чіткого розуміння історичних передумов розвитку англійської мови та теоретичної граматики як науки про мову; забезпечити читацьку цікавість, базуючись на ілюстраціях з важливими фактами або портретами тих чи інших граматистів; полегшити запам'ятовування вивченої інформації завдяки використанню легкої захопливої форми подачі інформації.

В оригінальній, сучасній та захопливій для здобувачів освіти формі роз'яснюючи базові поняття теоретичної граматики англійської мови, дана праця показує сучасні шляхи розвитку теоретичної граматики.

Посібник складається з трьох основних частин – «*Theory of English Grammar: A Working Programme*», де окреслено загальні поняття щодо програми академічного курсу, «*Lecture Notes*», що подає інформацію з теоретичних аспектів курсу (із запитаннями для самоконтролю та питаннями для дискусій) та розділом «*Workshop Plans*», де представлено можливі та рекомендовані плани семінарів та теми для обговорення. На початку навчального посібника подано Вступ (*Introduction*), де окреслено шляхи та можливості роботи з даною книгою.

Навчальний посібник орієнтовано на студентів спеціальних факультетів з іноземної філології для аудиторної роботи та самостійного опрацювання тем; а також орієнтовано на широке коло філологів (науковців, викладачів та ін.) та людей, що цікавляться та вивчають англійську мову. Особливо наголосимо, що представлена праця пропонується викладачам англійської мови для полегшення сприйняття студентами історичних мотивів розвитку англійської граматики та стимулювання у здобувачів освіти аналітичного мислення на базі особливої рубрики «Питання для обговорення».

Навчальний матеріал подано чітко і зрозуміло, з поступовим ускладненням. Методологічно посібник продовжує кращі зарубіжні та вітчизняні традиції з фаху. Рівень подачі матеріалу: Upper Intermediate (B2), Advanced (C1-C2).

INTRODUCTION

How to use this book

We are happy to be presenting to you this new manual on Theory of English Grammar. This discipline is known as one of the most difficult delivered by the English Grammar Department, but we tried to make this manual both informative and interesting to read.

This book consists of three basic parts:
- general information about the academic course working programme;
- lecture notes with "Questions for revision" for self-control;
- workshop plans and topics for discussion.

"Questions for discussion" given after every few units encourage students' analytical thinking and can be used for brainstorming in class or as home assignment. They also help to understand the historical background of language development and certain linguistic facts discussed above or below more clearly. Discussing them during workshops is also possible.

The book provides a number of illustrations showing what this or that grammarian looked like and this way aims to ensure the readers' curiosity and better emotional response and, thus, make it easier to memorise the information studied.

After the workshop plans, you will find a number of power point presentations and a link to more of them made by Odesa Mechnikov National University students (graduates of 2021–2022), which will either outline some new aspects of the topics discussed, or give them a more detailed view.

A list of used and recommended literature is provided at the end of the book together with an index for easier reference.

As with all our manuals, both theoretical and practical[1], we tried our best to tailor the material in a reader-friendly way and, hence, welcome to our grammar family those who are eager to know more about English.

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1 *See:* Morozova I., Chaikovska I. *The Use of Modal Verbs*: навч. посібн. для студентів пед. інститутів та університетів за спец. № 2103 «Іноземна мова»; 10.02.04 «Германські мови». [2-ге вид., переробл. та доповн.]. Одеса : Друкарський дім, 2008. 124 с. (Рекомендовано Міністерством освіти і науки України, лист № 2/1861 від 24.11.2000 р.).

We also hope our approach will make the Theory of English Grammar a perfectly understandable subject, interesting for people studying and teaching English as well as for those who would like to widen their linguistic horizons.

Acknowledgements

We are most grateful to teachers and teaching establishments who participated in the trials of this manual or its parts. We have received their important feedback and creative guidance at all stages of preparing this book. We would like to express our deep gratitude to prof. Andrey Korsakov who was our Teacher and who inspired us to dedicate our careers to grammar and English language studies.

We also express many thanks to our dear reviewers prof. Nadiia Andreychuk, prof. Iryna Seryakova, and prof. Elina Koliada for their constructive criticism and general appreciation of the initial manuscript. And naturally, we appreciate the help and assistance provided to us by our colleagues from the English Grammar Department, its head prof. Elena Yu. Karpenko and, especially, by associate prof. Elena Lymarenko who helped us a lot with introducing this book into practice and her first-hand experience with it as a lecturer. Thank you all for your encouragement and support!

Dear bachelor students (graduates of 2021-2022), this manual would not be complete without your input. Thank you for granting your permission to share your presentations with our readers. We hope you enjoyed listening to our lectures and taking part in the workshops.

We extend our warmest and most sincere gratitude to Jack Margolin (from the USA) and Linda Shaughnessy (from the UK), our colleagues from abroad. They not only assisted us in the process of writing this book, but also helped us in proofreading its units.

To the Teachers

This book is intended for upper intermediate (B2) and advanced (C1-C2) students of English. Therefore, the readers are supposed to be competent in

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Morozova I., Stepanenko O. *The Use of the Non-Finites*: навч.посібн. для вузів. Одеса: Освіта України, 2012. 235 с. (Рекомендовано Міністерством освіти і науки, молоді та спорту України як навч.посібник для спец. ф-тів вузів. Лист № 1/11-5230 від 17.04.2012).

Morozova I., Stepanenko O. *The Use of the Non-Finites*: навч. посіб. для вузів. – Київ: Освіта України, 2021, вид. 3-е, доп. 238 с.

Morozova I., Pozharytska O. *The Use of Modal Verbs & Moods*: навч. посіб. для вузів. Т. 1. *Modal Verbs*. Київ: Освіта України, 2021. 246 с.

Morozova I., Pozharytska O. *The Use of Modal Verbs & Moods*: навч. посіб. для вузів. Т. 2. *Moods in Modern English*. Київ: Освіта України, 2022. 196 с.

speaking, writing, and reading in English – both general English and language studies.

Teachers will hopefully find this manual useful since it is ready to be taken to class and also shows all the academic loading presupposed for *Theory of English Grammar*.

Each thematic unit is provided with a number of questions for self-control. Samples of possible workshop plans are provided at the end of the book.

You will also find more information online in the format of powerpoint presentations made by the students of Odesa Mechnikov National University (graduates of 2021-2022) who gave their permission to share them in the manual. These presentations, different in style and academic quality, can be used for teachers' class preparation, on the one hand, and as benchmarks for new students' presentations, on the other hand.

Teaching strategies

The book can be used by teachers with the following purposes:
- for lecture and workshop preparation;
- for reference information on particular grammar topics;
- for detailed explanations during classes of practical grammar;
- for general reference – while dealing with problems which come up in class;
- for assistance in clearing up the teacher's own and their students' grammar vision;
- for exam preparations.

The book can also be used for group work, pair and individual work under the teacher's supervision, and/or for self-studies.

To the Students

If you are an upper-intermediate- or advanced-level student (B2–C2), you may find it useful to work with this book on your own, in class, or preparing for your examinations. Our goal is to show students that *Theory of English Grammar* is not too complicated or boring, but quite an interesting and sometimes even intriguing discipline that helps you understand the language structure & mechanisms, as well as the way native speakers' mindset works.

The presentations at the end of the book can be used as information for further reading or give inspiration for your own.

We will be grateful to both teachers and students for using this book and expressing their opinions and recommendations for its further revisions.

Hope you will enjoy using this book and studying Theory of English Grammar with it as much as we liked writing this book for you.

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Theory of English Grammar: A Working Programme

1. Description of the Academic Discipline

	Field of knowledge, specialty, specialization, level of higher education	Characteristics of the discipline	
		Day department	Distant department
Total credit number – 3 Hours – 90/90 Content modules – 2/2	Field of knowledge 03 Humanitaries	Obligatory	
	Speciality: 035 Philology		
	Specialisation: 035.041. Germanic Languages and Literatures (Including Translation), Major language English	**Year**:	
		4th	4th
		Semester	
		7th	7th
	Language – Level of higher education: first (BA)	**Lectures**	
		24 hours	10 hours
		Workshops	
		12 hours	4 hours
		Self-studies	
		54 hours	76 hours
		Form of final control: exam	

2. Objective and Tasks of the Discipline

Objective: to teach students the basic principles and patterns of modern English grammar in terms of its structure and functions, classical and modern approaches to analysing language units and phenomena, as well as to develop students' academic and linguistic thinking, ability to understand academic linguistic information, nature of grammatical phenomena and processes.

Tasks:
- Methodical: generalization and systematization of theoretical knowledge about the English language;
- Cognitive: expansion of normative information about English as a foreign language;
- Practical: improving the professional and pedagogical training of future English professionals.

The process of studying the discipline is aimed at forming a number of elements of the following competencies:

Integral competence:

Ability to solve complex specific problems and deal with practical issues in the fields of philology (linguistics, literature, translation) and methods of teaching foreign languages while carrying out professional activities or training, which involves applying philological and methodological theories and methods.

General competencies:

GC02. Ability to preserve and spread moral, cultural, academic values and achievements of society which are based on understanding the history and patterns of the development of the subject area, its place in the general system of knowledge about nature and society and in the development of society & technologies.

GC06. Ability to search for, process and analyze information from various sources.

GC07. Ability to identify and solve problems; make informed decisions in professional activities.

GC10. Ability of abstract thinking, synthesis and analysis.

GC11. Ability to apply knowledge in practical situations.

Special competencies:

SC01. Ability to understand the structure of linguistics and its theoretical foundations.

SC07. Ability to collect and analyze, systematize and interpret linguistic and literary facts, oral and written professional translations from English into Ukrainian and back from Ukrainian into English.

SC04. Ability to analyze dialectal and social varieties of the language studied & to describe the sociolingual situation in general.

SC08. Ability to use special terminology so as to solve professional problems.

Expected programmed learning outcomes:

PO 16. To know and understand the basic concepts, theories and concepts of Germanic philology, to be able to apply them in professional activities.

As a result of studying the discipline, the student is to:
- know:
- basic information about the grammatical structure of modern English and its peculiarities;
- basic modern linguistic theories and approaches to analysing language units;
- basic methods of grammatical-and-linguistic analysis: distributive analysis, transformational analysis, oppositional-and-categorical analysis, speech-act analysis, discursive analysis;

- be able to:
- collect linguistic facts and make generalizations about certain linguistic processes in modern English;
- provide correct theoretical interpretation of linguistic phenomena;
- illustrate each theoretical position with specific language examples;
- work with academic linguistic literature;
- use theoretical knowledge in the practical teaching of English;
- use modern methods of linguistic analysis so as to analyze linguistic phenomena.

The theoretical fondations of the course is the scientific achievements of modern linguistics in the field of grammatical semantics, categorical grammar, constructive syntax, text linguistics, linguistic pragmatics, discourse analysis, cognitive linguistics and psycholinguistics in relation to English. The inclusion in the theoretical course of grammar of the basics of special methods of grammatical and linguistic analysis (distributive, oppositional-categorical, transformational, constructive, speech-act, discursive analyses) makes it possible to show ways of scientific understanding of linguistic facts and phenomena on a specific language material.

The course is based on students' knowledge of the courses: «Introduction to Germanistics», «History of English», «Lexicology of English», as well as «Philosophy», and «Logic».

The discipline is studied during one semester. The study material consists of two module-blocks. Each module aims to give the student an idea about the system of English grammar, its formation and development, to help students summarize information about the grammatical structure of modern English, and to get acquainted with modern approaches to language problems and trends in language use. Linguistic phenomena are presented in diachrony and in connection with the historical conditions of nation-building.

The course involves preparing future teachers of English to overcome methodological difficulties that may arise in the process of teaching English at school and university.

3. Topics for Studying

MODULE 1

THEORY OF GRAMMAR AS A SCIENCE: HISTORICAL DEVELOPMENT

Topic 1. Grammar Among Other Linguistic Sciences. Origin of Grammar. Different Types of Grammar. Grammar Objective & Grammar Subjective.

Topic 2. Periodisation of English Grammar. Pre-Normative (Descriptive) English Grammar. The Most Outstanding Grammarians of the Periods Outlined and Their Works.

Topic 3. The Rise of Prescriptive Grammar in the XVIII–XIX Centuries. Robert Lowth & His Input into the English Grammar. The Norm: Its First Definition. Lindley Murray & Speech Etiquette

Topic 4. Classical English Grammar. Its Aims and Objectives, Main Notions and Approaches. Henry Sweet as Its Father Founder. "A New English Grammar, Logical & Historical", 1892. Henry Sweet's Main Postulates.

Topic 5. Modern English Grammar. Practical Prescriptive English Grammar: Traditions and Perspectives. John Nesfield's Grammar. Classical Scientific Grammar, Otto Jespersen & Etsko Kruisinga

Topic 6. New Grammar Schools Arising. English Structural (Descriptive) Grammar. L. Tesniere & His IC-Analysis Sample. Ch. C. Fries & His Test-Frames. Ch. C. Fries's Test-Frames: Critical Analysis. Transformational Grammar. Transformational Grammar: Its Origin & Transformation Rules. Noam Chomsky's Generative Grammar & Kernel Sentences in TG. Sentence Surface Structure. Frank Palmer's Criticism of TG

Topic 7. Generative Semantics. Basic Outline of Generative Semantics. Charles Fillmore's Case Grammar. Generative Semantics: Drawbacks. Textual Grammar. The Prague Linguistic Circle. Textuality: Seven Standards

Topic 8. Newest Trends in Grammar. Basic Notions & Main Representatives.

MODULE 2

KEY GRAMMATICAL PROBLEMS & POSSIBLE WAYS OF SOLVING THEM

Topic 9. General Principles of Linguistic Analysis. Stages of Linguistic Analysis. Hegel's dialectic. Quantity of Selection.

Topic 10. Famous Grammatical Problems and Their Possible Solutions. The Problem of Part of Speech**.** The Number of Parts of Speech in English. Principles of Their Classification. The Category of State.

Topic 11. The "Stone Wall" Problem. Composite / Compound Words. Language and Speech. Ferdinand de Saussure & His Five Distinctions Between Speech and Language.

Topic 12. Parts of Speech as Singled Out by Prof Korsakov. Syntactic Organisation of the Sentence. Traditional and Non-Traditional Approaches to Sentence Classifications.

4. Discipline Structure

Modules and units	Number of hours									
	Day department					Distant department				
	Total	Including				Total	Including			
		l	w	lab	s-s		l	w	lab	s-s
1	2	1	2	1	2	1	2	1	2	1
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
Module 1. THEORY OF GRAMMAR AS A SCIENCE: HISTORICAL DEVELOPMENT										
Topic 1. Grammar Among Other Linguistic Sciences. Origin of Grammar. Different Types of Grammar. Grammar Objective & Grammar Subjective.	8	2	2		4	7,5	2	2		6
Topic 2. Periodisation of English Grammar. Pre-Normative (Descriptive) English Grammar. The Most Outstanding Grammarians of the Periods Outlined and Their Works.	7	2			5	7,5				6

Continuation of the table

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
Topic 3. The Rise of Prescriptive Grammar in the XVIII-XIX Century. Robert Lowth & His Input into the English Grammar. The Norm: Its First Definition. Lindley Murray & Speech Etiquette	8	2	2		4	7,5	2			6
Topic 4. Classical English Grammar. Its Aims and Objectives, Main Notions and Approaches. Henry Sweet as Its Father Founder. "A New English Grammar, Logical & Historical", 1892. Henry Sweet's Main Postulates.	7	2			5	7,5				6
Topic 5. Modern English Grammar. Practical Prescriptive English Grammar: Traditions and Perspectives. John Nesfield's Grammar. Classical Scientific Grammar, Otto Jespersen & Etsko Kruisinga	6	2			4	6,5	2			6
Topic 6. New Grammar Schools Arising. English Structural (Descriptive) Grammar. L. Tesniere & His IC-Analysis Sample. Ch. C. Fries & His Test-Frames. Ch. C. Fries's Test-Frames: Critical Analysis. Transformational Grammar. Transformational Grammar: Its Origin & Transformation Rules. Noam Chomsky's Generative Grammar & Kernel Sentences in TG. Sentence Surface Structure. Frank Palmer's Criticism of TG	9	2	2		5	6,5				6

Continuation of the table

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
Topic 7. Generative Semantics. Basic Outline of Generative Semantics. Charles Fillmore's Case Grammar. Generative Semantics: Drawbacks. Textual Grammar. The Prague Linguistic Circle. Textuality: Seven Standards	6	2			4	6,5				6
Topic 8. Newest Trends in Grammar. Basic Notions & Main Representatives.	7	2			5	6,5				6
Sum total (Module 1)	**58**	**16**	**6**		**36**	**56**	**6**	**2**		**48**
Module 2. KEY GRAMMATICAL PROBLEMS & POSSIBLE WAYS OF SOLVING THEM										
Topic 9. General Principles of Linguistic Analysis. Stages of Linguistic Analysis. Hegel's dialectic. Quantity of Selection.	8	2	2		4	8,5	2			7
Topic 10. Famous Grammatical Problems and Their Possible Solutions. The Problem of Part of Speech. The Number of Parts of Speech in English. Principles of Their Classification. The Category of State.	9	2	2		5	8,5		2		7
Topic 11. The "Stone Wall" Problem. Composite / Compound Words. Language and Speech. Ferdinand de Saussure & His Five Distinctions Between Speech and Language.	6	2			4	8,5	2			7
Topic 12. Parts of Speech as Singled Out by Prof Korsakov. Syntactic Organisation of the Sentence. Traditional and Non-Traditional Approaches to Sentence Classifications	9	2	2		5	8,5				7
Sum total (Module 2)	**32**	**8**	**6**		**18**	**34**	**4**	**2**		**28**
Hours total	**90**	**24**	**12**		**54**	**90**	**10**	**4**		**76**

6. Workshop Topics

№	Topic/Assignments	Hours	
		Day department	**Distant department**
1	**Topic 1.** What is Grammar? Grammatical theory and practice. Types of grammar in accordance with the scientific approach: structural (formal); synchronic / diachronic; functional grammar; comparative grammar; cognitive grammar; communicative grammar. The origin of grammar as a working instrument of communication. Do animals use or understand grammar? (presentations & discussion)	**2**	**2**
2	**Topic 3.** Practical and Theoretical Grammar. Prescriptive Grammar and teaching English. Report: "*Standard Grammar and Its Regional Deviations*" (reports & discussion)	**2**	
3	**Topic 6.** Functional transpositions of grammatical forms. The notions of transposition and transformation & their types. Transformation as a grammatical operation. Synonymy & homonymy in grammar (presentations & essays, discussion)	**2**	
4	**Topic 9.** Grammatical categories and problems. Report: "*Grammatical Representation of Time Relations in the English and Ukrainian Grammars*" (presentations & essays, discussion)	**2**	
5	**Topic 10.** Problem of the Part of Speech in English. Definitions of parts of speech in classical Latin Grammar books, after R.Lowth, H.Sweet, Ch. Fries, J.Nesfield, O.Jespersen, Ganshina et Vasilevskaya, Kaushanskaya et al. : differences & similarities. Report: "*Ferdinand De Saussure. Life And Scientific Input*" (presentations, essays, reports & discussion)	**2**	**2**
6	**Topic 12.** The Noun & the Verb. The problem of classification of nouns. Basic characteristics of the noun & the verb? Report: "*Verbo- or Nomenocentric Organisation of the Language*". (presentations, essays, reports & discussion)	**2**	
	Total	**12**	**4**

8. Self-Studies

Here belong two types of activities:
- preparing for lectures & workshops;
- writing reports (linguistic essays).

A report (a linguistic essay) presupposes contrasting several points of view on the problem given and presenting their analysis by the student.
- Formalities:
- Wordcount: 2,500 – 3,000 words.
- Cover, Table of Contents, References and Appendix are excluded of the total wordcount.
- Font: Times New Roman 14 pts.
- Text alignment: Justified.
- The in-text References and the Bibliography have to be in APA citation style.

№	Topics/Assignments	Hours	
		Day department	Distant department
1	2	3	4
1	**Topic 1.** Grammar Among Other Linguistic Sciences. Origin of Grammar. Different Types of Grammar. Grammar Objective & Grammar Subjective (self-studies & reports).	4	6
2	**Topic 2.** Periodisation of English Grammar. Pre-Normative (Descriptive) English Grammar. The Most Outstanding Grammarians of the Periods Outlined and their Works (reading up for lectures & reports).	5	6
3	**Topic 3.** The Rise of Prescriptive Grammar in the XVIII–XIX Century. Robert Lowth & His Input into the English Grammar. The Norm: Its First Definition. Lindley Murray & Speech Etiquette (self-studies, reading up for lectures & reports).	4	6
4	**Topic 4.** Classical English Grammar. Its Aims and Objectives, Main Notions and Approaches. Henry Sweet as Its Father Founder. Henry Sweet's Main Postulates (self-studies, reading up for lectures & essays)	5	6
5	Topic 5. Modern English Grammar. Practical Prescriptive English Grammar: Traditions and Perspectives. John Nesfield's Grammar. Classical Scientific Grammar, Otto Jespersen & Etsko Kruisinga (self-studies, reading up for lectures & reports).	4	6

Continuation of the table

1	2	3	4
6	**Topic 6.** New Grammar Schools Arising. English Structural (Descriptive) Grammar. L. Tesniere & His IC-Analysis Sample. Ch. C. Fries & His Test-Frames. Transformational Grammar. Transformational Grammar: Its Origin & Transformation Rules. Noam Chomsky's Generative Grammar & Kernel Sentences in TG (self-studies, reading up for lectures).	5	6
7	**Topic 7.** Generative Semantics. Basic Outline of Generative Semantics. Charles Fillmore's Case Grammar. Generative Semantics: Drawbacks. Textual Grammar. The Prague Linguistic Circle (self-studies, reading up for lectures & essays).	4	6
8	**Topic 8.** Newest Trends in Grammar. Basic Notions & Main Representatives (self-studies, reading up for lectures & essays).	5	6
9	**Topic 9.** General Principles of Linguistic Analysis. Stages of Linguistic Analysis. Hegel's dialectic. Quantity of Selection (self-studies, reading up for lectures).	4	7
10	**Topic 10.** Famous Grammatical Problems and Their Possible Solutions. The Problem of Part of Speech**.** The Number of Parts of Speech in English. The Category of State (self-studies, reading up for lectures & reports).	5	7
11	**Topic 11.** The "Stone Wall" Problem. Language and Speech. Ferdinand de Saussure & His Five Distinctions Between Language and Speech (self-studies, reading up for lectures & research projects).	4	7
12	**Topic 12.** Parts of Speech as Singled Out by Prof Korsakov. Syntactic Organisation of the Sentence (self-studies, reading up for lectures).	5	7
	Total	**54**	**76**

9. Teaching Methods

Verbal methods: lecture, explanation, discussion of students' essays & the results of grammatical problems analysis presented there; *visual methods*: illustration of educational material, video and audio recordings demonstration; *practical methods*: reports preparation and presentation, individual independent tasks, essays preparation & discussion, research projects preparation & discussion.

Depending on the teacher's approach, the following teaching methods can be used:

- Brainstorming;
- Case studies;
- Chalkboard instruction;
- Class projects;
- Classroom discussion;
- Debates;
- Discussion groups;
- Essays (Persuasive);
- Group discussion;
- Individual projects;
- Lecturing;
- Oral reports;
- Panel discussions;
- Problem solving activities;
- Reading aloud;
- Research projects;
- Student presentations;
- TED talks;
- Web quests;
- Work in real and virtual libraries.

You can find some more information as to how to use this book in the Introduction.

10. Assessment

It is suggested that all activities carried out by students be assessed by the teacher, including discussions during the lectures, research projects, short quizzes, and presentations. At the end of the course, an oral exam is held where students discuss with the teacher the problems considered in class in detail.

Assessment Criteria for Workshops

Points	The student
5 points («excellent»)	is fully proficient in the educational material, gives deep & comprehensive answers to theoretical questions and does practical tasks without mistakes. He/she is fluent in scientific terminology and can express his/her own attitude to alternative opinions on the problem; demonstrates an ability to present the academic material reasonably, logically and without any outside assistance; analyses phenomena and facts, and makes correct generalisations and conclusions.
4 points («good»)	has a good command of the educational material and can answer questions on the topic, making reasonable and logical statements. At the same time, his/her answers often lack sufficient depth and argumentation, contain insufficient inaccuracies and/or minor mistakes.
3 points («satisfactory»)	reproduces the better part of educational material, highlights its gist, shows rudimental knowledge of certain topics; can do practical tasks. However, the student is incapable of a deep, comprehensive analysis, proving his/her point and argumentation. He/she does not use the necessary recommended literature, makes mistakes and gives inaccurate information.
2 points («unsatisfactory»)	does not have sufficient knowledge of the educational material, but presents certain issues of the discipline in a fragmented, superficial manner (without any argumentation or reasoning); does not give reasonable answers to core questions of the subject and cannot fulfil practical tasks. He/she gives incomplete answers to questions, makes gross mistakes when discussing theoretical issues.
1 point («basic level»)	does not have a command of the necessary amount of information discussed at lectures; shows no enthusiasm or abilities to analyse facts and events, or draw conclusions; makes gross mistakes when completing practical tasks.
0 points («low level»)	does not know the educational material and cannot cover it in discussion; does not understand the essence of theoretical issues and practical tasks.

11. List of Examination Questions

Dwell on the following topics

1. The notion of "Grammar" in the ancient times and at present. Place of grammar among other linguistic sciences.
2. Different types of grammar. Prescriptive and descriptive grammar. Objective and subjective grammar.
3. Historical premises of the origin of theoretical grammar.

4. Periodization of grammar.
5. Early prenormative grammar. Its founders and their input.
6. The English Academy of the 18 c. The first prescriptive grammars and the codification of the English language.
7. Henry Sweet, his postulates and the rise of scientific grammar.
8. Henry Sweet's understanding of the norm.
9. The development of grammar in the 20 c. The rise of modern theoretical grammar.
10. The development of structural and functional grammars and their best-known representatives.
11. The development of transformational and generative grammars and their best-known representatives.
12. The rise of pragmatics and textual grammar.
13. Newest trends in grammar and their most outstanding representatives.
14. Stages and main principles of linguistic analysis.
15. The problem of parts of speech in modern English.
16. Parts of speech classifications: Development in diachrony.
17. The problem of the category of state.
18. The "Stone-Wall" problem and the clue to its solution.
19. The problem of language and speech in modern linguistics.
20. Parts of speech on the levels of language and speech.
21. Traditional understanding of parts of speech. Their definitions. Different sets of parts of speech.
22. The definition of the part of speech given by prof. A.K.Korsakov.
23. The noun. Definition and classification.
24. The problem of the article. Its definition and scientific understanding.
25. The verb. Traditional definition. Different approaches to the problem.
26. Actions, states, processes. Classification of processes. The improved definition of the verb.
27. Members of the sentence. Syntactic structures. Syntactically-structured and syntactically non-structured sentences.
28. The structure of predication. Its constituents. The primary and the secondary structures of predication.
29. The structure of complementation. Its components. Types of complements.
30. The structures of modification and coordination. Their components.

12. Rubrics

Each topic within the scope of the discipline (12 topics altogether) presupposes the student getting a maximum of 5 points (60 points in sum total). Two test-papers are written, each covering the issues of one module and assessed with 5 points (10 points in sum total). An answer on the examination can give the student 20 points, and the individual research project carried out in written form covers the remaining 10 points.

During the semester												Individual research project	Final control (Exam)	Number of points
Module 1								Module 2						
T1	T2	T3	T4	T5	T6	T7	T8	T9	T10	T11	T12	10	20	100
5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5			
Test on Module 1 – 5 points								Test on Module 2 – 5 points						

Assessment scale: National scale and ECTS

Number of points, Odesa Mechnikov National University	Grade ECTS	Assessment: National scale	Definitions
1	2	3	4
90–100	A	Excellent	The higher education applicant has a full command of the educational material, gives full and coherent answers to questions covering theoretical issues of the discipline and fulfils practical tasks. He/she gives valuable creative ideas.
85–89	B	Good	The student gives correct, full and coherent answers to questions covering theoretical issues of the discipline and shows a creative approach.
75–84	C		The student made one or two minor mistakes, though his/her answer was, in general, characterized as sufficiently complete and systematic.

Continuation of the table

1	2	3	4
70–74	D	Satisfactory	The student made two significant errors in the discussion of the educational material or while addressing theoretical issues of the discipline; the answer is not sufficiently complete and non-systematic.
60–69	E		The student made three or more significant errors in the discussion of the educational material or while addressing theoretical issues of the discipline; the answer is not complete and systematic enough.
35–59	FX	Unsatisfactory with an opportunity to re-take the exam	The student demonstrated the knowledge only of some elements of the problem under consideration.
0–34	F	Unsatisfactory with an obligatory repetition of the course	The student did not address the problem under consideration or answer the teacher's questions.

Lecture Notes

1.1. ORIGIN OF GRAMMAR

Grammar is one of the three main parts of language teaching: lexis, or vocabulary studies, phonetics, and grammar.

If phonetics can be called your pass, because by listening to how you speak, one can judge about the vicinity you come from, your education, etc.

Lexis shows your general culture. However, the amount and variety of words and phrases one uses in the process of communication often cannot guarantee a good job and a steady position in the society.

That is usually the matter of your grammar. And not only that.

Grammar shows one's mental abilities and logic. There's even an English saying "His thinking is beyond all grammar" meaning he can't think reasonably. Still, there are very few strict grammatical rules.

The big idea is not which is the form to be used, but where to use this very form and why. If you convey your thoughts in sentences, according to their initial message, one can say you have done well. The use of different grammatical forms presumes different understanding and reaction of your interlocutors. There's a great number of jokes based on grammar.

* * *

Visitor: 'Can I smoke here?'
Secretary: 'Yes, you can. But you certainly may not. Our boss can't stand smoke.'

* * *

A foreigner to an Englishman: 'This lady is a bride of mine'.
An Englishman: 'It's a pleasure to meet you, m'am. I'd love to see them all'.

A foreigner (slightly surprised), 'But you see all!' (meaning 'whole')
An Englishman, 'You mean they are twins, I guess'.

* * *

The Hatter opened his eyes very wide on hearing this; but all he said was, "Why is a raven like a writing-desk?"

"Come, we shall have some fun now!" thought Alice. "I'm glad they've begun asking riddles. – I believe I can guess that," she added aloud.

"Do you mean that you think you can find out the answer to it?" said the March Hare.

"Exactly so," said Alice.

"Then you should say what you mean," the March Hare went on.

"I do," Alice hastily replied; "at least–at least I mean what I say–that's the same thing, you know."

"Not the same thing a bit!" said the Hatter. "You might just as well say that 'I see what I eat' is the same thing as 'I eat what I see'!"

"You might just as well say," added the March Hare, "that 'I like what I get' is the same thing as 'I get what I like'!"

"You might just as well say," added the Dormouse, who seemed to be talking in his sleep, "that 'I breathe when I sleep' is the same thing as 'I sleep when I breathe'!"

(Lewis Carroll 'Alice's Adventures in Wonderland', Chapter 7)

* * *

Grammar falls into two main parts: **Syntax**, and **Morphology**. Whilst **morphology** studies the form of the word, **syntax** studies how words are combined into phrases and sentences.

The first four years at university, students usually study morphology. The last year at university for master students is, as a rule, dedicated to studying Syntax.

Usually, **morphology** is studied by groups of words making up one part of speech. Though there are many existing classifications of parts of speech today, the most common is the following:

1. The Noun;
2. The Verb;

3. The Pronoun;
4. The Adjective;
5. The Adverb;
6. The Article;
7. The Particle;
8. The Conjunction;
9. The Preposition;
10. The Numeral;
11. The Interjection;

To a certain **part of speech** belong the words having the same meaning, form, and function in the sentence. E.g., **the Noun** means a thing in wide understanding, may have the grammatical categories of number (singular and plural), gender (three genders: *a lion, a lioness, a cub*), case (two cases – common and possessive), and a number of classes (common, proper, concrete, abstract, mass, class, collective nouns). **The Pronoun** is a substitute for the noun, etc. (There will be a more detailed discussion of the problem of parts of speech given in **UNIT 4** of this book).

The word **«grammar»** goes back to a Greek word that may be translated as «a letter». But later this word acquired a much wider sense and came to embrace the whole study of language.

In Europe, the Greeks were first to write grammars. To them, grammar was an instrument that could be used in the study of Greek literature. The Alexandrians of the I century BC further developed Greek grammar in order to preserve the purity of the language. The Romans adopted the grammatical system of the Greeks and applied it to Latin. The works of Donatus and Priscian were widely used to teach Latin grammar during the European Middle Ages. In medieval Europe, education was conducted in Latin, and Latin grammar became the foundation of the liberal arts curriculum.

In our present understanding, *grammar* is the study or use of the rules about how words change their form and combine with other words to express meaning. A book presenting these rules is also known as a grammar (book).

1.2. TYPES OF GRAMMAR. GRAMMAR OBJECTIVE & GRAMMAR SUBJECTIVE

• **Practical grammar** presents a set of rules that are to be used and that are necessary to understand and formulate sentences. These rules are taught at the lessons of grammar, they are fixed in the books and considered as a norm.
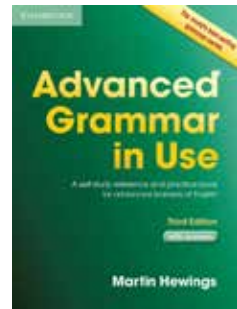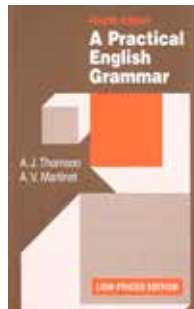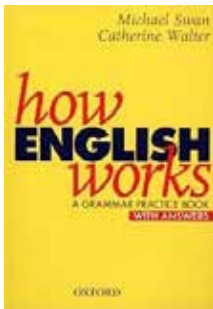
• **Theoretical grammar** is an attempt to give an explanation for the existing rules and to interpret different grammatical phenomena. This explanation can be right and can be wrong.

• **Objective grammar** is a grammar objectively existing in the language and governing the speech communication of the given society at the certain period of time. Objective grammar is registered in books, taught at schools etc.

• **Subjective grammar** belongs to an individual and reflects the main regularities of the objective grammar. It is the ability of individual to speak and write.

Both practical and theoretical grammars are objective and subjective.

Practical grammar is *objective* in the way it reflects the objective grammar existing in the speaking society. And it is *subjective* in the way it is written by different authors and fixed in different manuals, therefore it reflects the subjective view point of the author.

Theoretical grammar is *objective* because it reflects the objective truth of the state of science existing in the language. Still, it is *subjective* because it gives subjective explanation of the phenomena suggested by different scientists.

Questions for Discussion

1. What is the difference between "prescriptive" and "theoretical" grammar? Which of them is subjective?
2. What type of grammar is given in grammar manuals?

Questions for Revision

1. What are the two main parts Grammar falls into? What does each of them study?
2. Who wrote the first grammar books and why?
3. What types of grammar do you know? How to differentiate between them? Which of them is objective? Which of them is subjective? Why?

2.1. PERIODIZATION OF ENGLISH GRAMMAR

There is no universally acknowledged periodization of the development of grammar in English. The existing approaches could be generalized in the following way, according to the qualitative changes in the interpretation of the grammatical phenomena.

I *XVI–XVIII c* – pre-normative descriptive grammar

Grammatical phenomena were described according to the view-points of the author who made no attempts of explaining or codify the material described.

II *XVIII c – 1871* – prescriptive normative grammar

This is the period of standardisation in grammar and reducing the variety of uses to a certain «norm».

III *1871–1940* – classical scientific grammar

This period is marked by H. Sweet's work "*A New English Grammar Logical and Historical"* where the first attempt is made to explain the registered grammar facts from the point of view of logic and psychology.

IV *1940–1980s* – modern period of theoretical grammar

This period faces appearance of a number of new schools breaking from the classical approach in treating grammatical phenomena. That time saw the world structural grammar, transformational, generative semantics, functional grammar, pragmatics, textual grammar.

V *1980s* (up to now) – the current trends in grammar

Now we are actually eye-witnessing the outburst of different grammatical trends mostly based on psychology and cognitive studies. Here belong communicative grammar, psycholinguistics, socio-linguistics, cognitive grammar, neuro-linguistic grammatical programming, acquisition of grammar by children and others.

2.2. PRE-NORMATIVE (DESCRIPTIVE) ENGLISH GRAMMAR

The first period in the history of the development of the theory of English Grammar as a science is the period of **pre-scientific**, **pre-normative** or **descriptive grammar**. It was born in the time of the formation of the national English language. At that time the term «grammar» was applied only to the

W. Lily

study of <u>Latin</u>. This usage was a result of the fact that Latin grammar was the only one learnt in schools. In that sense one can say that Shakespeare was writing ungrammatically.

One of the earliest and most popular Latin grammars was written by **W. Lily**. It set the Latin paradigms with their English equivalents, thus early suggesting the possibility of presenting English forms in a similar way. Hence, Lily's grammar of the Latin language may be considered the precursor of the earliest English grammar.

As to the number of cases in English, there was claimed by **W. Bullokar** to be 6 (six) of them, though he himself had noticed that the English language had no flexions (1586).

William Bullokar's Pamphlet for Grammar (1586)

was the first grammar of English to be written in English.

There he used a "reformed spelling system" of his own invention.

a. b. c. c. ɗ. ꝺ. c. ċ. f. g. g. ḣ. i. l. ſ. m. ıñ. ıı. ń. o. ꝍ. p. q. r. ſ. ꝼ. t. ꝥ. ꝥ. ꝺ. ꝑ. ꝟ. ꟷ. ꝥ. r. ꝝ. ȝ.

Bullokar's phonetic alphabet used in his "Brief Grammar for English" (1586)

The set of declinations was achieved by means of using prepositions:
Nominative – *a* table
Genitive – *of* the table
Dative – *for* the table, etc.

Questions for Discussion

1. In theoretical grammar books, different scholars give their personal viewpoints on grammar. Does it mean that there are as many grammars as there are points of view?
2. Why is W. Bullokar, not W. Lily, considered to be the first English grammarian?
3. What modern grammar books follow the principle of material presentation suggested by W. Lily?

In the first half of the 17th century, there appeared two new grammar books written by **Ben Jonson** and **Charles Butler,** respectively. These authors known as literary writers of their time, used to be university friends.

Ben Jonson

Ben Jonson is also known as W. Shakespeare's rival who wrote plays for the stage ("*Every Man in His Humour*", "*Volpone, or The Fox*", "*The Alchemist*"). The two great dramatists certainly knew each other personally and it's due to Jonson that Shakespeare's "*First Folio*" saw the world.
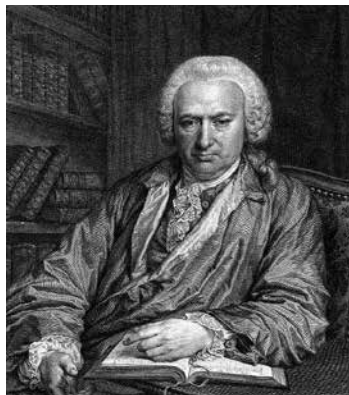
Charles Butler

Ch. Butler's grammar, published in 1633, suggested improving the English spelling system and bringing it closer to a phonetic alphabet: "*men should*
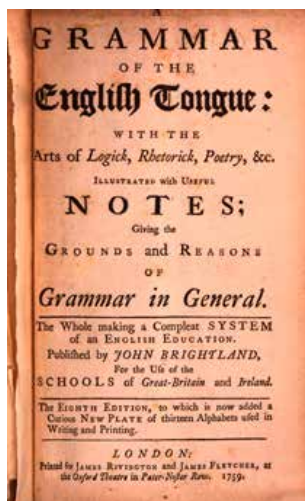
*write altogeđer according to đe sound now gener-
ally received".* The grammarian is often nicknamed
as the Father of English Beekeeping and, enjoying
these two hobbies with the same enthusiasm, he
wrote and published a book on beekeeping using
his new orthography in 1634.

Both these authors had already restricted the
number of cases to two.

At the beginning of the 18ᵗʰ century, there
appeared another outstanding grammar by
J. Brightland.

Here we find an important innovation.
J. Brightland introduced syntax into the English
grammar, thus dividing it into two major spheres:
morphology and *syntax*. He introduced the notion of «*sentence*» into syntax,
where the sentence structure became the key object.

2.3. THE RISE OF PRESCRIPTIVE GRAMMAR IN THE XVIII–XIX CENTURIES

The second stage of the grammar development began in the second half
of the XVIII century. The rise of **prescriptive grammar** met the demand for
setting usage and codifying and systematising the already accumulated gram-
mar material. The mentioned approach is much caused by the establishment of
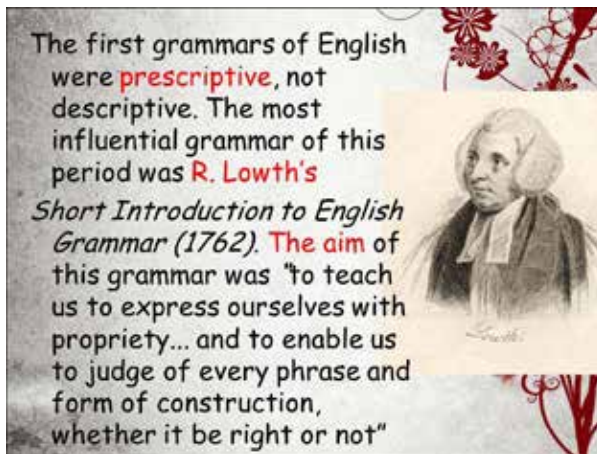
the English Academy in the XVIII century, similar to the French Academy. The academy would decide which words and constructions should be regarded as correct. Besides, it was historically conditioned by the whole atmosphere of Enlightenment and classicism. The main function of the newly-founded scientific academy was censorship.

- **Robert Lowth & His Input into the English Grammar**

R. Lowth, a former clergyman became Head of the Academy after the King's order. He wrote the most influential grammar book of that period «*A Short Introduction to English Grammar*», 1762. In the preface to his book, he wrote that the **aim** of his grammar was to reduce the English language to rules and set up a standard of correct uses. He claimed that a grammar book should settle the most disputed points of usage by appealing to reason, the laws of thought and logic.

The first grammars of English were prescriptive, not descriptive. The most influential grammar of this period was R. Lowth's *Short Introduction to English Grammar (1762)*. The aim of this grammar was "to teach us to express ourselves with propriety... and to enable us to judge of every phrase and form of construction, whether it be right or not"

- **The Norm: Its First Outline**

R. Lowth's book became a best-seller and was adapted to the needs of secondary schools and universities. Altogether, he advocated for a prescriptive approach, aiming to standardize English usage by applying logical principles and Latin-based grammatical rules. In his book, R. Lowth emphasised that grammar provides a framework for proper expression and linguistic correctness. He believed that a grammar book should help speakers judge whether a phrase or construction is right or wrong and foresaw the notion of a grammatical norm. The correct grammar was understood as a result of the way

educated people wrote and expressed their thoughts in public. It was supposed to be historically conditioned, motivated by logic and sound reason, fixed up in books, and observed by all language speakers.

Although Lowth did not explicitly define a "norm", his grammar book sought to codify correct English usage and promote linguistic standards, particularly in formal writing and public discourse. His influence contributed to the idea that grammatical correctness is important for all language users and should be fostered particularly through education and reference works, like grammars and dictionaries.

Having chosen **logic** as the main principle for his works, R. Lowth often absolutised it. However, O. Jespersen correctly observed later, commenting upon Lowth's input to the theory of English grammar: «In many cases what gives itself out as logic is not logic at all, but Latin grammar disguised».

Sometimes what seems illogical functions in the language quite all right. For instance, let's take the word «un|help|ful». As we see, there are two self-annihilating suffixes. Still, the word does exist. Or take a sentence, like: «*John was not an immodest person*», where two negations work out to create a positive image.
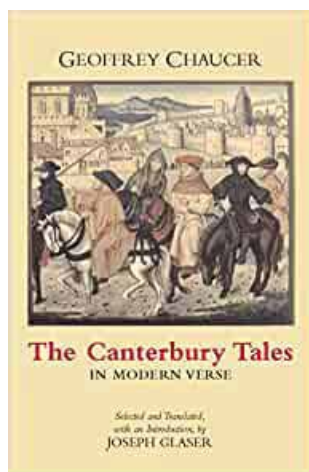
Discussing the tendencies in the English grammar of the XVIII century, we must also mention «**the Oxfordian grammar scholars**» who were governed by Lowth's definition of the norm in their work and started revising the existing classical works of literature by «correcting» the initial texts and bringing them down to the norm.

The attitude to this grammar school and trend is still undetermined. On the one hand, they corrupt the existing works, created by the author, by adjusting them to the modern norms of the language. On the other hand, it is very often a case that works of the world literature become readable and easy to grasp for a contemporary audience due to such amendments.

- **Lindley Murray & Speech Etiquette**

In the XIX century, there was published a very popular grammar book by **Lindley Murray**. Basing upon R. Lowth's method, L. Murray wrote his «*English Grammar Adapted to Different Classes of Learners*» in 1795. It was so popular

in its time that the first book underwent 50 editions and its abridged version – more than 120.
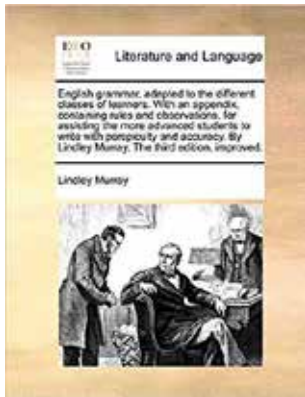
Lindley Murray

The popularity of L. Murray's book was motivated by the necessity of the new social class of bourgeoisie to overtake the leading positions in society. And that was impossible without their ability to speak and write adequately, using correct grammar.

Ch. Dickens in his «*Pickwick Papers*» quoted Murray's book mocking out the nouveaux riches' aspirations to become equal in their ways and manners with the nobility. He describes two neighbours living across the fence and known to each other by their first names. Having bought L. Murray's book, they try to imitate the polite behaviour of real ladies:

- *"Mrs Tibbs inquired after Mrs Bloss's health in a low subdued voice. Mrs Bloss with the supreme knowledge of L. Murray's book answered her in a most satisfactory manner. And they both felt elegant ladies."*

- *"This desirable impression was not lost on Mrs Jarley, who, lest Nell should become too cheap, soon sent the Brigand out alone again, and kept her in the exhibition room, where she described the figures every half-hour to the great satisfaction of admiring audiences.*
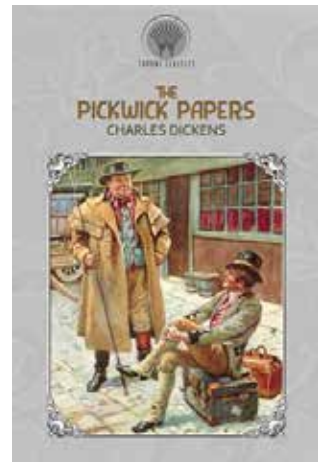
And these audiences were of a very superior description, including a great many young ladies' boarding-schools, whose favour Mrs Jarley had been at great pains to conciliate, by altering the face and costume of Mr Grimaldi as clown to represent Mr Lindley Murray as he appeared when engaged in the composition of his English Grammar, and turning a murderess of great renown into Mrs Hannah More--both of which likenesses were admitted by Miss Monflathers, who was at the head of the head Boarding and Day Establishment in the town, and who condescended to take a Private View with eight chosen young ladies, to be quite startling from their extreme correctness. Mr Pitt in a nightcap and bedgown, and without his boots, represented the poet Cowper with perfect exactness; and Mary Queen of Scots in a dark wig, white shirt-collar, and male attire, was such a complete image of Lord Byron that the young ladies quite screamed when they saw it. Miss Monflathers, however, rebuked this enthusiasm, and took occasion to reprove Mrs Jarley for not keeping her collection more select: observing that His Lordship had held certain opinions quite incompatible with wax-work honours, and adding something about a Dean and Chapter, which Mrs Jarley did not understand."

(*Ch. Dickens*, "The Old Curiosity Shop")

- Squeers responds to Peg Sliderskew's question ('Is that you?'), in these words: *"Ah! it's me, and me's the first person singular, nominative case, agreeing with the verb 'it's', and governed by Squeers understood, as a acorn, a hour; but when the h is sounded, the a only is to be used, as a and, a art, a ighway," replied Mr Squeers, quoting at random from the grammar."*

(*Ch. Dickens, "*Nicholas Nickleby")

Lyda Fens–De Zeeuw in "*English Today*" (2018) points out the following about L. Murray's influence as a grammarian:

"As the publication history of the grammar in Alston (1965) suggests, Murray was also the most popular grammarian of the late 18th and perhaps the entire 19th century, and this is most clearly reflected in the way in which a wide range of 19th- and even some 20th-century literary authors, from both sides of the Atlantic, mentioned Lindley Murray in their novels. Examples are Harriet Beecher Stowe (Uncle Tom's Cabin, 1852), George Eliot (Middlemarch, 1871–2), Charles Dickens, in several of his novels (Sketches by Boz, 1836; Nicholas Nickleby, 1838–9; The Old Curiosity Shop 1840–1; Dombey & Son, 1846–8); Oscar Wilde (Miner and Minor Poets, 1887) and James Joyce (Ulysses, 1918) (Fens–de Zeeuw, 2011: 170–2). Another example is Edgar Allen Poe, who according to Hayes (2000) grew up with

Murray's textbooks and used his writings as a kind of linguistic touchstone, especially in his reviews. Many more writers could be mentioned, and not only literary ones, for in a recent paper in which Crystal (2018) analysed the presence of linguistic elements in issues of Punch published during the 19th century, he discovered that '[w]henever Punch debates grammar, it refers to Lindley Murray'. Murray, according to Crystal, 'is the only grammarian to receive any mention throughout the period, and his name turns up in 19 articles' (Crystal, 2018: 86). Murray had become synonymous with grammar prescription, and even in the early 20th century, he was still referred to as 'the father of English Grammar' (Johnson, 1904: 365)".

(Lyda Fens–De Zeeuw in "*English Today*"
by Cambridge University Press (2018))

Thus, grammar penetrated into another sphere of human life, governing the speech etiquette of the language users.

The **speech etiquette,** in accordance with L. Murray, is *a set of standard rules of verbal behaviour observed in the given society at a certain period of time*.

By the end of the XVIII century prescriptive grammar had become a dominating type in linguistics. It had some *positive* influence:
- the language became codified and systematized;
- the oral and written forms of speech became closer;
- the English grammar became a separate subject of linguistic interest.

At the same time, the *downsides* of this period of English grammar development consist in the fact that the language studies became:
- scholastic & non-creative;
- dictating & non-observing.

Hence, P. Roberts summed up the information about that period as a time when «generations of boys and girls were informed as part of their preparations to life that there were 8 parts of speech, that a noun was a name of a person, place and thing and a verb indicated an action».

Questions for Discussion

1. What kind of grammar was taught at school at Ch. Dickens' time (pre-normative, descriptive, prescriptive, normative)?
2. What do you think about contemporary peculiarities of the speech etiquette?

2.4. CLASSICAL ENGLISH GRAMMAR & HENRY SWEET AS ITS FATHER FOUNDER

By the end of the XIX century, the prescriptive grammar had reached the highest peak of its development and there was a need felt for a grammar of a qualitatively higher level.

- **«A New English Grammar, Logical & Historical», 1892**
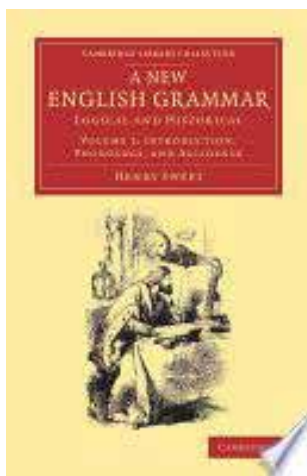
In contrast to prescriptive grammar, **classical scientific grammar** was both descriptive and explanatory. It stated the views of its founders. And its father founder was **Henry Sweet** who had started as a phonetician and later on became a prominent grammarian. In 1892, he wrote a book entitled «*A New English Grammar, Logical and Historical*».

Henry Sweet, A New English Grammar, Logical and Historical. Cambridge University Press, 1892. Language Arts & Disciplines. 528 pages

Henry Sweet

- English philologist and phonetician
- Authority on Anglo-Saxon and the history of the English language (Oxford, England)
- Pioneer in modern scientific phonetics
- His *History of English Sounds* (1874) was a landmark study.
- Thought to be the model for "Professor Higgins" in G. B. Shaw's play *Pygmalion*

  (although it was actually Daniel Jones…)

1845–1912

The respected phonetician and philologist, Henry Sweet (1845-1912) has had a lasting influence on the study and teaching of linguistics, particularly

phonetics and Old English. Sweet is also known for being, in part, the inspiration for Henry Higgins in B. Shaw's "Pygmalion".

His two-volume work, first published in 1892-8, marks the start of a new tradition in the study of English, although it received little attention in Britain upon its publication. Resting on the developments in European linguistics, this was the first grammar of English to adopt a scientific approach to the description of language, which applies the same rigorous analysis to the spoken language as to the written language, as well as detailed descriptions of parts of speech, accidence, and the history of English.

In the **Introduction** of his book, H. Sweet wrote the following:

"This work is intended to supply the want of a scientific English grammar. The difference in purpose between scientific and prescriptive grammars is stated in the following terms. As my exposition claims to be scientific, I confine myself to the statement and explanation of facts without attempting to settle the relative correctness of divergent uses. If an «ungrammatical» expression such as «it's me» is in general use among educated people, I accept it as such. Whatever is in general use is for that reason correct."

This new approach is reflected in the five principles put forward by Henry Sweet and known as his postulates. They are all grounded upon «**the Doctrine of General Use**» quoted above ("whatever is in general use is for that reason correct").

- **Henry Sweet's main postulates**

• Henry Sweet introduced a new interpretation of **norm** in linguistics. From his viewpoint, **the norm** is *a way educated people speak and write. It changes in the course of time together with cultural and social changes taking place in the given society*.

• He also claimed priority of the **oral** speech over the written speech.

• H. Sweet suggested that grammar rests upon three whales:
    1) history of the language;
    2) philosophy;
    3) logic.

Nowadays, with the development of cognitive studies and gestalt-approach

in linguistics, we may say that there is a fourth whale to join the rest, i.e. psychology.

• H. Sweet was the first who gave a definition to a **part of speech** as a class of words having the unity of *meaning*, *form* and *function*. This definition is termed as threefold unity. He also gave definitions to some general grammatical concepts such as a noun, a verb, a sentence.

• H. Sweet foresaw the two approaches in modern grammar, synchronic and diachronic, and substantiated the priority of **synchrony** over diachrony:

Before history, there must come knowledge of what now exists. We must learn to observe things as they are without regard to their origin, as a zoologist must learn how to describe accurately a horse and not a dinosaur it originated from.

EVOLUTION OF THE HORSE
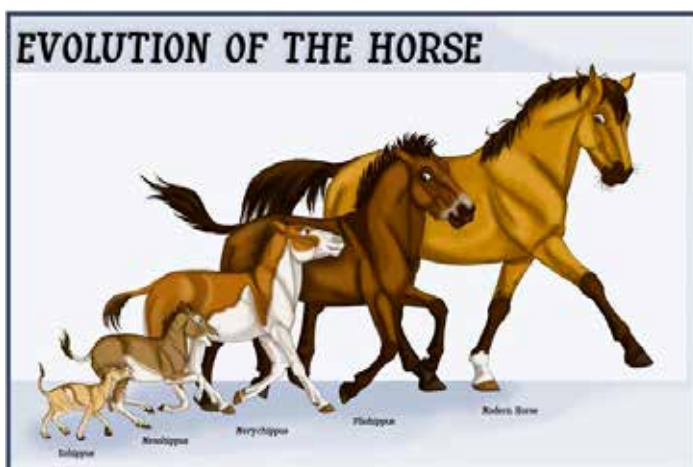
Evolution of the horse from the Eohippos (left) to the Modern Horse (right) as an illustration of H. Sweet's postulate

As another metaphor for synchrony and diachrony, we shall mention a layer-cake. Taking one layer after another, one resorts to the synchronic approach to this or that period of time. By cutting the cake vertically, one manifests a synchronic approach to the phenomenon studied, thus showing its evolution in time.

A layer-cake metaphor illustrating synchrony and diachrony

Henry Sweet's book had a great influence on the educated society of his time. **C. L. Wrenn** wrote the following about its significance for linguistics:

"I can think of no better way of recalling the Society in the above sense than by attempting to-day to remind you of what those things are for which English, and indeed European, Philology must ever remain grateful to Henry Sweet, and to recall something of those qualities and achievements which made him the manner of man he was. I have lately been looking at the astonishingly small amount of biographical and appreciative material which Sweet's admirers have left us.

This volume is a philosopher's grammar as well as a working student's: and though terminologies rise and fall and fashions in teaching have rather passed it by, it lives in undiminished value as the best guide to its subject for those wise enough to use it."

C. L. Wrenn

The title of the book speaks for itself, so it is common practice nowadays to take the date of **1900** as the dividing line between the two periods in the history of English grammar and the **beginning of the age of scientific grammar**.

Classical scientific grammar accepted the traditional grammatical system of prescriptive grammars. During the first half of the XX century, an intensive development of scientific English grammar took place, with great contributions to it being made by O. Jespersen ("The Philosophy of Grammar", 1924; "Essentials of English Grammar", 1933; "A Modern English Grammar on Historical 9 Principles",

7 vols, 1914–1949), E. Kruisinga ("*A Handbook of Present-Day English*", 1909), H. Poutsma ("*A Grammar of Late Modern English*", 5 vols, 1904–1929), C. T. Onions ("*An Advanced English Syntax*", 1904), G. O. Curme ("*A Grammar of the English Language*", 1931) and many other scholars.

Questions for Discussion

1. What ideas of Henry Sweet are used in practical grammars nowadays, if any?
2. Do practical and theoretical grammars have any correlations in their language treatment? (Prove your answer)
3. What is a must for a scientific grammarian in the language phenomena interpretation?
4. Choose one of Henry Sweet's followers (W. Chafe, L. Bloomfield, O. Jespersen, H. Paul, etc.) and show the way they interpreted Sweet's ideas (1000-1200 words).

2.5. MODERN ENGLISH GRAMMAR

The modern period may be described as a simultaneous development of several branches and trends in grammatical theory. First of all, let's consider the new tendencies in practical and theoretical grammar.

- **Practical Prescriptive English Grammar: Traditions and Perspectives**

While practical grammar demonstrates variations in the explanations of topics, depending on the author's personal viewpoints, in theoretical grammar there is observed a great variety of theories and approaches. The dominant position is occupied by the «classical scientific grammar» which steps to the traditions of H. Sweet and grounds upon the philosophical principles of grammar as reflecting the structure of human's mind. Here we can speak about such scholars as **O. Jespersen**, **F. de Saussure**, **W. Chafe**, **L. Bloomfield** etc.

Later, after World War II, there appear new types of grammar schools, like structural, transformational, generative semantics and others.

Thus, the modern period is characterized by the co-existence of several grammar trends, with their falling into two major groups of prescriptive grammars and descriptive scientific grammars.

The prescriptive grammar studied at schools, universities etc. was not greatly influenced by the changes taking place in the classical scientific grammar. More than that, the relations between prescriptive grammar and scientific

grammar were rather complicated in their interaction. For instance, prescriptive grammars tended to using terminology worked out by structural grammar, though, on the whole, the grammatical systems they suggested were left unchanged.

Meanwhile, some authors of structural grammars tried to blend the principles of structural analysis with some notions and concepts of traditional grammar in order to introduce them into the practice of teaching (H. W. Whitehall «*Essentials of English Grammar*», 1955; P. Roberts «*Understanding English*»; J. Sheld's «*A Short Introduction to English Grammar*»).

In spite of introducing new terms, prescriptive grammar hasn't changed its attitude towards the English language. **R. C. Pooley** described it this way: «*English as it is currently used is full of errors. The grammarians know these errors and are determined to correct them. The purpose of teaching grammar is to eliminate error*».

- **John Nesfield's Grammar**

Among the XX century prescriptive grammars, **J. Nesfield's** should be mentioned.

Though first published in 1898, the book survived over twenty five editions (the latest of 2015) and extended influence not only upon prescriptive grammars, but upon scientific grammars as well. Its popularity is comparable with L. Murray's grammar book and now it is presented in several versions: «*English Grammar Past and Present*», «*Aids to the Study and Composition of English*». It was revised in 1924 according to the requirement of the Joint Committee on Grammatical Terminology and then again in 1964. It is still on sale in the USA is often used as *the basic university manual.*

The author chose an original system of presenting grammar. For example, he distinguishes between the following sentence parts:

1) the Subject;

J. Nesfield
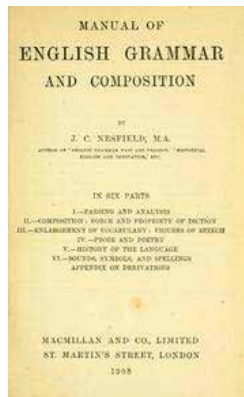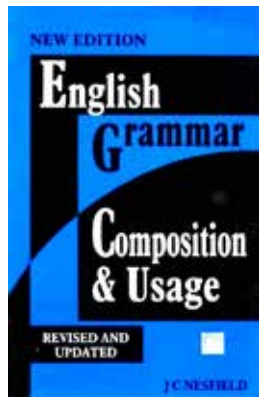
J. Nesfield's grammar

2) adjuncts to the Subject (Attributive Modifiers / Adjuncts Enlargement of the Subject);
3) the Predicate;
4) adverted adjuncts, the Object and the Complement (predicatives with their qualifying words).

He tried to explain the grammatical phenomena through the already existing definitions:

*'**The Noun** is a part of speech pointing at the thing or any object of the thought reference.'*

*'**The Adjective** is a part of speech qualifying a part of speech linguistically treated as a noun.'*
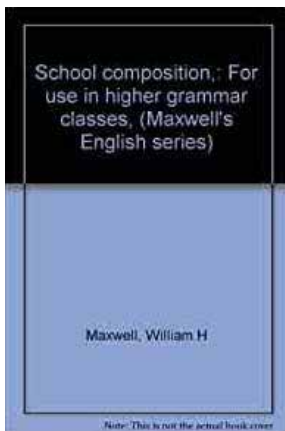
W. Maxwell

In the UK, there appeared **a rivalry manual**, written by **W. Maxwell in 1911,** which is also rated as one of top best ever written grammar books today due to his talent for explaining complex phenomena in a simple way. It has survived more than 50 editions at different periods of time. It is still in great demand among the students of English in British colleges and universities.

It's noteworthy that some of the XIX-century normative grammars were reprinted in the XX century, too. For example, W. Lennie's "*Principles of English Grammar*" underwent numerous editions, the 99th edition being published in 1905.

Questions for Discussion

1. What kind of grammar was represented by J. Nesfield (1895-1964)? Was it objective or subjective? Why did it hold good for so long?
2. What was William Bullokar's grammar known for? Why was it important? Contrast it with Maxwell's and Nesfield's grammars.

- **Classical Scientific Grammar, Otto Jespersen & Etsko Kruisinga**

Classical Scientific Grammar continued the traditions of H. Sweet. Here we can mention H. Stukos, L. Kynball, Deutschbein, O. Jespersen, etc. A great number of grammarians pursued an ambitious aim to describe English grammar scientifically as a whole. They stuck to **eight** parts of speech, but preferred the term «adjunct» to the sentence member. Still, apart from all the rest there stands "The Philosophy of Grammar" written by Otto Jespersen.

*"Besides being one of the most perceptive observers and originalthinkers that the field of linguistics has ever known, Jespersen was also one of its most entertaining writers, and reading **The Philosophy of Grammar** is fun. Read it, enjoy it."*

James D. McCawley, from the Introduction

Otto Jespersen's morphological system includes only *six parts of speech:* substantives, adjectives, verbs and pronouns, the latter include articles, adverbs. Like Henry Sweet, he grounds upon the three-folded principle in accordance with which parts of speech are singled out: meaning, form and function.

His syntactic system is even more original. He introduces the *«theory of ranks»* based upon the so-called «principle of determination». The primary is an absolutely independent word, the secondary determines the primary, while the tertiary determines the secondary.

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       3   2   1

</div>

Example: *a furiously barking dog*

             1(2)   1(2)

But: *a dog is barking furiously*

Moreover, in a sentence, like «*I see a dog*», the leading element in the group «*see a dog*» is «*dog*», while grammatically «*see*» is a primary element.

Otto Jespersen, in full **Jens Otto Harry Jespersen**, (born July 16, 1860, Randers, Den.—died April 30, 1943, Roskilde), Danish linguist and a foremost authority on English grammar. He helped to revolutionize language teaching in Europe, contributed greatly to the advancement of phonetics, linguistic theory, and the history of English, and originated an international language.

Hence, it's possible to attribute O. Jespersen to the grammarians working out formulas in syntactic modelling. He also spoke about the ***Subject-Predicate nexus***.
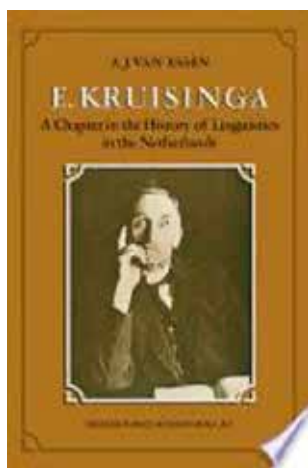
Etsko Kruisinga

Alongside with Otto Jespersen's book, there should be mentioned **Etsko Kruisinga**'s grammar.

His approach is marked by a logically critical approach to other grammar books, concerning the suggested definitions of the «sentence», «phrase», «word-group», etc. However, the author doesn't give his own scientifically grounded definitions.

Paying tribute to the critical approach suggested by E. Kruisinga, we should mention that despite a solid logical platform his grammar book lacked practical grounding.

Still, they both – Jespersen and Kruisinga – can be named the *pre-cursors* of the new English grammar schools, and namely *"structural and transformational"* approaches.

Questions for Discussion

1. What kind of grammar is "structural" grammar? Is structural grammar objective or subjective?
2. Why do you think English was among the first languages where structural and transformational grammars got popular?
3. How to distinguish to what part of speech English words belong? Thus, Otto Jespersen gave a curious example:

   WATCH and **STAND**

   People   WATCH   a curious WATCH
                STAND   a curious STAND

   What is your opinion on this problem?
4. To delve deeper to the problems of structural and transformational grammars, you have to look back into the history of language. How did it happen that English lost its flections?
5. What is the difference between the article usage in English and, say, French or German? What is the basic meaning of the article in English?

2.6. NEW GRAMMAR SCHOOLS ARISING

On the whole, the development of Theory of Grammar can be contrasted with a big tree with a solid stem and bushy branches growing above it. To put it figuratively, classical scientific grammar is associated with the trunk of this tree while its branches can be compared to new trends and schools arising in the process of the evolution of Grammar as a science (see the picture below). In other words, classical scientific grammar takes rational ideas proven on practice and absorbs them in its widening trunk, which goes up reflecting the objective approach to the language state at present and its formation in the future.

More than that, just like with the tree branches, which are naturally entwined with each other, different Grammar schools are developing not in isolation, but usually in such close connection with each other that sometimes it is even difficult to tell representatives of one school from those of another since they tend to change their conceptions and general approaches to grammatical phenomena as new discoveries are being made.

The end of World War II is marked by an outburst of cultural development, including all spheres of science. Linguistics, and namely Grammar, wasn't an exception in this cross-cultural process. The iron curtain having fallen for some period of time granted opportunities for scientists of different nationalities and
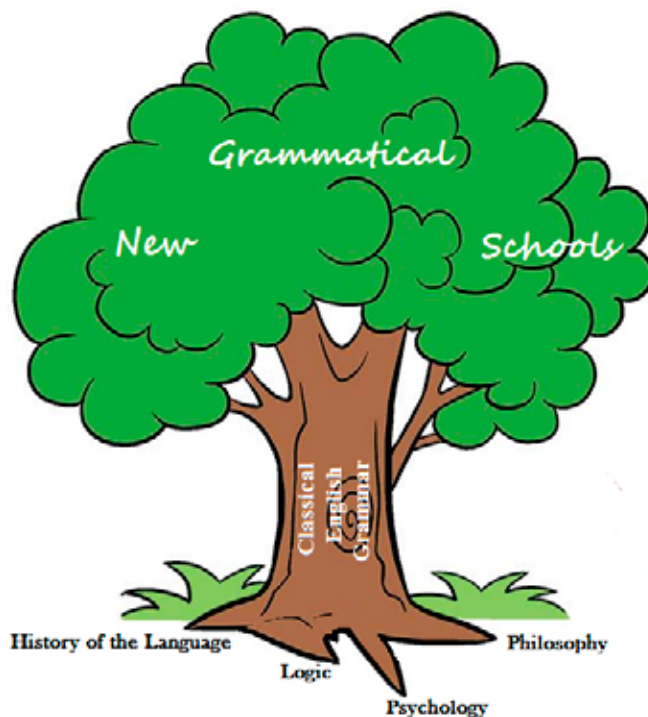
Development of Grammar as a science

scientific viewpoints directly to associate with each other and exchange their opinions concerning various problems. These factors had a great impact on Grammar as well.

The 1940s faced an outburst of new different grammar schools, such as *structural linguistics, transformational grammar, generative semantics, textual grammar, pragmatics.* The co-existence of several types of grammars led to a considerable influence of one type of grammar on the other. Even prescriptive grammar borrowed some notions from new types of grammar. Hence, their chronological placement is more or less conditional as some researchers go ahead of their time, publishing papers actually illustrating a new vision, different from the grammar school the author represents in his major works. The next few units will discuss the most important grammar trends and their representatives.

- **English Structural (Descriptive) Grammar**

The 1940s–50s saw the rise of structural (descriptive) grammar, which began treating the problem of the structure of English by lumping together pre-scriptive and classical grammar, naming them «a pre-scientific era».

*Basically though, **structural grammar** is a way to <u>look at a language</u>. The focus is on the spoken language and not the written form. The idea is to look at all the parts of spoken language separately but keeping in mind how every-thing interacts. These linguists first look at the sound system, (phonology), move up to morphology and then to the phrase structure, (syntax).*

Professor V.Curlette, University of Victoria (BC, Canada)

*"One aspect of analyzing grammar structurally is that it is **not** based on semantics. By that I mean that traditional grammar taught us that a noun was a word that referred to "a person, place, or thing." Which means that to know if it is a noun, you have to know what it means.*

A structuralist would tell you that a noun is a word that follows an article, a word that can be modified by an adjective, a word that can be the subject of a sentence, etc."

Professor Evelyn Elwell Uyemura,
Northeastern Illinois University (the USA)

In 1951, **G. L. Trager** and **H. L. Smith** published their book «*An Outline of the English Structure*». Though the book was full of phonology and hardly more than suggestive in syntax, it introduced the so-called **«IC Analysis»** («Immediate Constituents Analysis») into language studies.
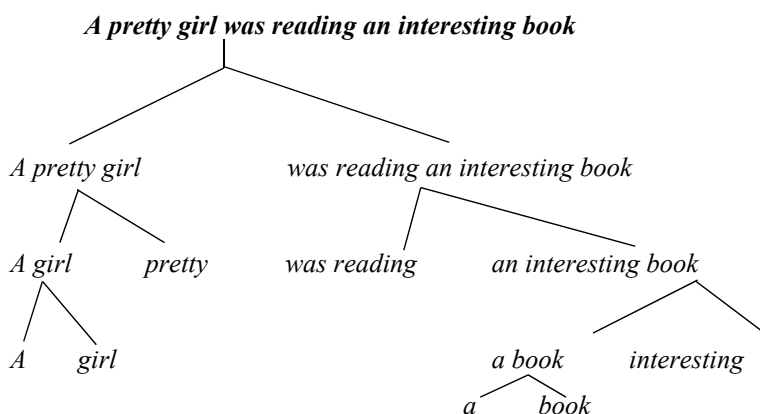

G. L. Trager & H. L. Smith, An Outline of English Structure: Studies In Linguistics, Occasional Papers, No. 3 Paperback

Here we must also mention such outstanding grammarians as **Ch. Fries**, **R. Long** and, of course, **L. Tesnière** with his famous «tree».

→ L. Tesniere & His IC-Analysis Sample

The French structuralist <u>**L. Tesnière**</u> (French: [lysjɛ̃ tɛnjɛ]) gives a shining example of the subject-and-predicate-centred approach to sentence analysis. He suggests analysing sentences in terms of singling out subject and predicate groups and within those distinguishes phrases with head and dependent elements. A close study of his famous <u>**tree**</u> shows that it is largely based upon **the theory of ranks** as suggested by **Otto Jesperson** since the main criterion of his conception is grounded upon the inter-dependence of elements in a phrase structure. The scheme is known as *Tesnière's tree* due to the possibility of its imaginary rotation upside down, forming a bushy tree with the subject and predicate trunk (see the scheme below):

A pretty girl was reading an interesting book

A pretty girl   *was reading an interesting book*

A girl   *pretty*   *was reading*   *an interesting book*

A   *girl*   *a book*   *interesting*

a   *book*

L. Tesnière's tree of sentence parsing

→ Ch. C. Fries & His Test-Frames

When linguists began to look at the English grammatical structure closely in the 1940s and 1950s, they encountered many problems of identification and definition of certain words in the sentence frame, so the term *"part of speech"* soon fell out of favour, with **"word class"** being introduced instead. Of the various alternative systems of word classes attempted by different scholars, the one proposed by Ch. C. Fries is of a particular interest.

<u>**Charles Carpenter Fries**</u> [friːz] **(**Nov. 29, 1887 – Dec. 8, 1967) was a prominent American linguist, structuralist, and language teacher. He believed, along with **Robert Lado**, that language teaching and learning should be approached in a scientific way.
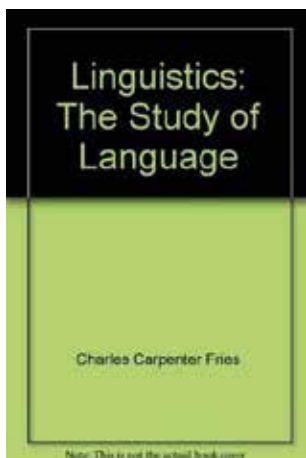
Charles Fries

Ch. Fries's language theory grounded on the following assumptions.

The words of language are divided into *grammatically relevant sets, or classes*, termed parts of speech. Thus, **parts of speech** are grammatical (or lexico-grammatical) classes of words identified on the basis of the three criteria: the **meaning** common to all the words of the given class, the **form** with the morphological characteristics of a type of word, and the **function** in the sentence typical of all the words of a certain class (e. g., the English noun has the categorical meaning of "thingness").

Hence, Ch. C. Fries developed a **syntactic-and-distribution classification of words** based on their position in the sentence and combinability. To find that position of a word, he used *substitution tests*.

Tape-recorded spontaneous conversations comprising about 250,000 word entries provided the material of his investigation. The words isolated from that corpus were tested on three typical **sentence patterns** (substitution *test-frames*) which marked the main positions of notional words. The basis of his classification is the structural position of a word in a sentence and its degree of independence.

As a result, the scholar arrived at a conclusion about there existing four positional classes and 15 groups of functional words. The four classes may be indicated by the functional words without ever being their indicators, they are the basic elements of a sentence. All 19 form classes are sorted out by Ch. Fries in terms of the position the words can take in sentence, representing different syntactic test-frames. A **test-frame** is an ideal sentence.

Ch. Fries's Test-Frames

Class I   The   <u>dog</u>   barks loudly
                The   <u>coffee</u>   is good
                The   <u>children</u>   go to   <u>school</u>

Class I is represented by words that can be used instead of lexemes, like *concert, clerk, tax,* and *team*.

Class II   The Class I   <u>barks</u>   loudly
                 The Class I   <u>is / was</u>   good
                 The Class I   <u>go</u>   to Class I

Class II is represented by words that can be used instead of lexemes, like *was*, *remembered*, and *went*.

Class III   The   <u>angry</u>   Class I (dog) Class II (barks) loudly
                  The Class I (coffee) Class II (was)   <u>good</u>
                  The   <u>little</u>   Class I (children) Class II (go) to Class I (school)

Class III is represented by words that can be used instead of lexemes, like *good*.

Class IV   The Class I (dog) Class II (barks)   <u>loudly</u>
                 The Class I (coffee) Class II (was) Class III (good)   <u>here</u>

Class IV is represented by words that can be used instead of lexemes, like *there*.

Now let's consider the **functional word-groups** to get an idea about the <u>test-frames.</u>

1. Group A

The	concert(s) was / were good
Three	
No	
Their	
John's	

So, Group A includes determiners.

2. Group B (words which can stand before Class II (markers of Class II))

The concert	may	be good there
	might	
	is to	
	has to	

Group B includes modal verbs in the traditional classification.

3. Group C («*not*» in the test-frames)

The concert	may	not	be good
	might		
	is to		

4. Group D (words that can occur immediately in the position before Class III in the following test-frames)

The concert	may not be	very	good there
	may be	quite	
	was	enough	
		rather	
		indeed	

So, Group D includes adverbs of degree in their traditional understanding.

5. Group E deals with coordinating conjunctions.

6. Group F encompasses what we call prepositions.

…

→ Ch. C. Fries's Test-Frames: Critical Analysis

The ***positive*** about the given above classification of words is an answer to the question what relative position in a sentence a word can occupy. It is the first attempt to give a new approach to the classification of words according to their structural value in a sentence (C.f. Russian: "*Глокая куздра штеко будланула бокра и курдячит бокрёнка" (L. Shcherba)* – Ukrainian *"Глока куздра штеко будланула бокра і курдячить бокреня")*.

Still, the ***negative*** side of it lies in numerous limitations of the test-frame. Let's analyse some of them.

• Any word that can occupy the blank position in the test-frame to the **right** of Class II is Class III. For example: "*The good weather is good"*.

BUT! There are a good number of adjectives that can be used attributively only. We cannot say "*The solar system is solar".* or "*The daily paper is daily"*. So, these words belong to neither of the classes.

• **All numerals** *(three, five, etc)* in Ch. Fries's classification fall under **Group A** and are not dealt with elsewhere.

For example:

The concert is good → ***three*** *concerts are good*

BUT! What about the utterances below:

1. ✦ *There were **three** of us.*
2. ✦ *They were a good **three**.*
3. ✦ ***Three** came up to the border.*

• Group A covers everything that can stand for «the» in the frame «*The concert was good*». One of the possible substitutes given by Ch. Fries is *John's*, which makes it a function word instead of being a Class I word:

Class I
   John is good.
BUT! *John's concert = The concert of John's.*

Conclusion:

Ch. Fries' classification was **a new step in the development of grammar**, since it showed the role of syntactic structures in the sentence. At the same time, it was **inconsequential in its absolutisation of structure and ignoring meaning** and violating the basic law of philosophy of **«the form and meaning unity».**

Questions for Discussion

1. What is the basic difference between classical theoretical and structural grammar?
2. What ideas of O. Jespersen can be referred to in structural grammar?
3. *"Syntactic structures have their own meaning" (R. Kimball).* Comment upon the quotation.
4. What was positive about Ch. Fries's classification of parts of speech?

• **Transformational Grammar**

➜ **Transformational Grammar: Its Origin & Transformation Rules**

Structural grammar was followed by a new type of grammar whose main aim was to find out mechanisms accounting for the generation and variety of sentences in the language basing on the so-called «kernel sentences». This type of grammar was called **transformational** grammar.

The ideas of transformational grammar were first discussed by the American linguist **Zellig S. Harris** who was an immigrant from Balta, Ukraine, and suggested it as a method of analysing the "raw material" (concrete utterances). Today he is best known as the discoverer of transformational structure in language, one of the fathers-founders of discourse analysis, and for his theory of linguistic information.

Transformational grammar

- a **device** for generating sentences in a language.
- It generates only the well-formed or grammatically correct sentences of a language since it is meant to **create the rules and principles** which are in the mind or brain of a native speaker
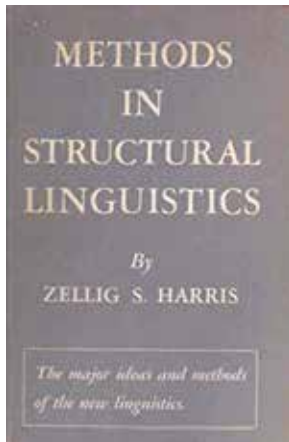
Zellig S. Harris (1909–1992)

It was quite clear at first sight that all the infinite variety of English sentences can easily be classified into structurally similar groups, or ***MODELS.*** Numerous experiments carried out within students, schoolchildren and even housewives proved that instinctively people group together sentences like:

1. *I see a dog.*
Tom has a book.
The boy hit the ball
We study English

into one group, while sentences like:

2. *There is a book in my bag*
There are pencils on the table.

There is a man downstairs.
into another group.

And sentences of the type:
   3. *It is cold.*
     It is five o'clock.
     It was autumn.
into the third one.

It all suggested an idea of the possibility to single out a specific finite quantity of sentence types, or **models,** in accordance with which all sentences are generated in the given language.

However, it was also clear to any language observer that a great many utterances actually convey similar ideas codifying them in language symbols differently. Let's take a close look at the sentences below manifesting the active and the passive structural organization, correspondingly.

I wrote the letter. → *The letter was written by me.*

OR

I saw that he crossed the street. → *I saw him cross the street.*

The difference between the given sentences lies only in the choice between the active or passive voices and the tense-form representation or the infinitive construction.

Already the above given examples show that practically the same information can be rendered in English by resorting to different ways of organizing sentences. Hence, there ought to be certain rules of re-organisation, or re-arrangement the sentence structure for the purpose of conveying practically the same sense. Such rules were termed **transformation rules**.

A transformation operation consists in the sentence elements rearrangement without affecting much in the general sense of the sentence.

Encyclopaedia Britannica characterises transformational grammar as:

[…] "a system of language analysis that recognizes the relationship among the various elements of a sentence and among the possible sentences of a language and uses processes or rules (some of which are called transformations) to express these relationships".

For example, transformational grammar relates the active sentence "*John read the book*" with its corresponding passive, "*The book was read by John.*"

The statement "*George saw Mary*" is related to the corresponding questions, "*Whom [or who] did George see?*" and "*Who saw Mary?*" Although sets such as these appear to be very different on the surface (i.e. in terms of the word order), transformational grammar tries to show their similarity in the "underlying structure" (i.e., in their deeper relations to one another).

→ Noam Chomsky's Generative Grammar & Kernel Sentences in TG

Though Zellig Harris is generally considered the inventor of transformational grammar, the most famous representative of this school and its main theorist is undoubtedly Noam Chomsky. Moreover, generative transformational grammar as we know it can be considered resting upon the principles formulated by **Noam Chomsky** in his books, starting with "*Syntactic Structures*" (1957) and up to the publication of his enlarged edition of "*Language and Mind*" (1972).

Noam Chomsky

Generative grammar

Generative grammar is a linguistic theory that regards grammar as a system of rules that generates exactly those combinations of words that form grammatical sentences in a given language.

Noam Chomsky first used the term in relation to the theoretical linguistics of grammar that he developed in the late 1950s.

Cambridge, 1687

Cambridge, 1957

S
NP
NP   VP
A   A   N   V   Adv
Colorless green ideas sleep furiously.

"1. *The generative-transformational system is both a theory and a grammar. The theory reaches beyond the particular grammar by providing a view of how we **acquire language** and by enabling the linguist to formulate a universal grammatical model – «**universal**» in the sense that **any** language may be accommodated.*

2. *A primary assumption in GT-theory is that a grammar of a language describes the sentences of that language or, more exactly, the underlying processes by which a speaker-listener **creates and comprehends** sentences. We should note the use of the word **'create'** rather than 'construct' or 'produce'. The latter words might give the erroneous impression that a GT-grammar is a mechanical device rather than an analogue for, or symbolic representation of, **creative acts.***

3. *The sentences a GT-grammar creates will be **grammatical**. Grammaticality is determined by the speaker-listener's acceptance of a given sentence as part of his language.*

4. *The English language is **not** a finite-state language; that is, the speaker-listener creates and understands an infinite number of sentences. Many of them are unique, having been neither uttered nor heard before. If a finite-state language existed, the linguist would not need to account for the creative aspect; to make a grammar, he would merely collect and classify the sentences of that language, whatever their number.*

5. *A speaker-listener's ability to communicate (his performance) is dependent on his **intuitive knowledge of the underlying structure of the language** (his competence).*

6. *Although a language itself is **not** composed of a finite number of sentences, a linguist's descriptive **model** may contain a base component that does have finite characteristics. The base component can be termed generative because it will **generate the fundamental structures** from which an infinite number of sentences can be derived.*

7. *The derivation of sentences from the base component involves the act of reordering, adding, or deleting or a combination of reordering, adding, and deleting. The ability to perform and understand these creative acts may be termed a **transformational capacity**.*

8. *The base component may be said to consist of **deep structures** at the phonological, lexical, and syntactic levels. The deep structures, when subjected to transformations, will create the surface structures or sentences of the language. The design features of a GT-grammar will specify rules for the base component and rules for the transformational component"*

(W. R. Elkins, A New English Primer).

At the first stage of its development, the representatives of this type of grammar gave a list of rules for deriving **the kernel sentences** out of all others. These rules are termed «TG-rules». Transformational grammar grounded on the concept of **kernel sentences and generated** sentences.

> Language is a process of free creation; its laws and principles are fixed, but the manner in which the principles of generation are used is free and infinitely varied. Even the interpretation and use of words involves a process of free creation.
>
> ~ *Noam Chomsky*

Kernel sentences are organised by sentence elements obligatory for conveying an elementary sense. The basic constituents of a kernel sentence are *noun phrases* (NP-s) and *verb phrases* (VP-s).

The *generated* sentences are built up by means of adding non-obligatory elements, or adjuncts, or by means of changing the communicative sentence type.

For example, the sentence '*The girl dances.*' can be transformed by adding adjuncts into such sentence as: → *The young girl dances gracefully.*' or without using any adjuncts into → '*Does the girl dance? The girl does **not** dance.*'

N. Chomsky's system of transformational grammar, though developed on the basis of his work with Harris, differs from Harris's in a number of respects and it is Chomsky's system that attracted the most attention and received the most extensive exemplification and further development.
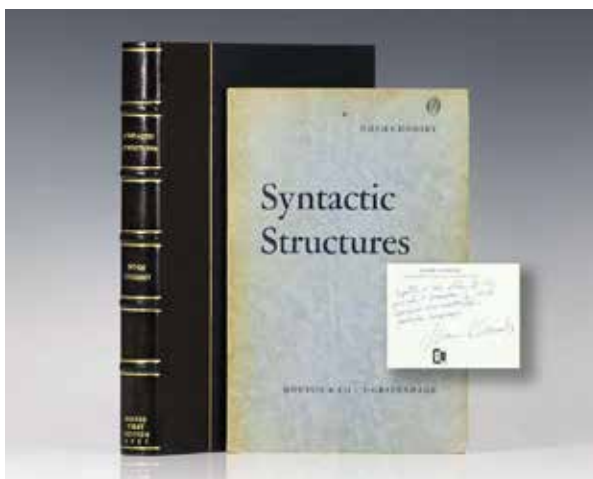
"Syntax is the study of the principle and processes by which sentences are constructed in particular languages", Noam Chomsky

N. Chomsky's "***Syntactic Structures***" (1957) is claimed to be one of the 100 as one of best 100 non-fiction books written in English since 1923 best by Time Magazine. N. Chomsky developed a system of syntactic models among which he believed the three-element kernel structure to be dominant among the others. His kernel sentences comprised three sections, or components: the phrase-structure component, the transformational component, and the morphophonemic component. Each of these components consisted of a set of rules operating upon a certain "input" to yield a certain "output." The notion of phrase structure may also be dealt with independently of its incorporation in the larger system.

Chomsky's signature sentence is '***The boy hit the ball***'*.*

In this sentence, the noun subject "boy" is combined with the verb "hit" which, in its turn, takes the indispensable complement "the ball" making the elementary sense of the sentence complete.

• CHOMSKY'S CONCEPT OF GENERATIVE GRAMMAR IMPLIES A FINITE SET OF RULES THAT CAN BE APPLIED TO GENERATE SENTENCES, AT THE SAME TIME CAPABLE OF PRODUCING INFINITE NUMBER OF STRINGS FROM THE SET RULES.

→ Sentence Surface Structure

The second period of TG development begins with the introduction of notions "deep" and "surface structure" for each sentence.

By ***the surface structure*** we understand the evident sentence organization, manifesting the subject and the predicate nexus, together with other sentence constituents, depending on the latter.

The deep structure is a more complicated, hidden structure, resting on the given basis, provided by the primary predication structure.

E. g.: *I saw <u>him cross</u> the street → I saw that <u>he crossed</u> the street.*

Transformational grammar assigns a "**deep structure**" and a "**surface structure**" to show the relationship between such sentences.

"Thus, '*I know a man who flies planes*' can be considered the surface form of a deep structure approximately like '*I know a man. The man flies airplanes.*' The notion of deep structure can be especially helpful in explaining ambiguous utterances: '*Flying airplanes can be dangerous*' may have a deep structure, or meaning, like '*Airplanes can be dangerous when they fly*' or '*To fly air planes can be dangerous.*'"

(Encyclopaedia Britannica, 2022)

Actually, the analysis of the deep structure of a sentence reveals the hidden secondary structure of predication which comes into the open due to the existing transformational rules. The most typical case of it is unwinding **syntactic complexes** with the non-finite forms of the verb (infinitive, gerundial, participle complexes and constructions[1]).

E.g.: *I saw <u>him crossing</u> the street. → I saw that/how <u>he was crossing</u> the street.*

→ Frank Palmer's Criticism of TG

Transformational grammar is organized by three basic parts: <u>syntactic</u> component, <u>semantic</u> component and <u>phonological</u> component.

F. Palmer, criticising the basics of transformational grammar, turned to the example given by **J. Smallet** in his '*Introduction to Transformation Grammar*' (1957): '***We enjoy smoking.***'

Using a typical transformational operation, F. Palmer proves the Noun/Verb character of the gerund.

E. g.: *We enjoy smoking →   We **smoke** and we enjoy it, ("**it**" stands for the noun, **smoke** is the verb).*

F. Palmer mockingly named his lecture "*On the Harm of Smoking*" and gave the following example, formally corresponding to that of Smallet's:

E. g.: *We oppose smoking ≠ **We smoke and we oppose it.***

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1   For more information about it, see: Morozova I. Verbals: Why cannot we do without them in English? In: Morozova I., Stepanenko O. *The Use of the Non-Finites : навч. посіб. для вузів.* Київ: Освіта України, 2022. P. 12–16.
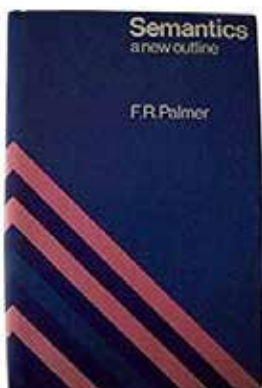
Frank Robert Palmer (9 April 1922 – 1 November 2019) was a British linguist, one of the founders of the Department of Linguistic Science at the University of Reading, famous for his works on moods and modality and semantics.

It sounded funny and was definitely absurd. F. Palmer's lecture coincided with the decay of transformational grammar and actually marked the bridge to another grammatical school, i.e. **generative semantics**.

The input of TG into the theory of grammar consisted in the following main finds:

1) mechanisms of info-coding on the level of syntax;
2) disclosing the basic principles of sentence derivation;
3) prophesying the finite set of syntactic models organizing the language;
4) N. Chomsky spoke about 3 main components of syntactic organization in English: *The boy hit the ball* (S + V + C), thus, actually he introduced a three-component model of the English sentence;
5) TG views about the deep and the surface structure serve as a platform for further language research.

Questions for Discussion

1. Watch a video on YouTube, discussing the differences between Z. Harris's & N. Chomsky's understanding of discovery procedures:

   https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=7f6Q_7qTBSY

   What is the biggest difference between them?

2. Give a definition of a syntactic model.
3. What is the basic drawback of TG?
4. Why are there so many ways of lingual codifying the same idea in English?
5. What is the practical appliance of Chomsky's theory?

6. Watch two more videos on YouTube showing N. Chomsky speaking about his theories. How does he see the future of English? Comment on the ideas expressed.

The Concept of Language (Noam Chomsky)
https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=hdUbIlwHRkY&t=9s

Noam Chomsky – On Being Truly Educated
https:// www.youtube.com/watch?v=eYHQcXVp4F4

7. Read the excerpt and comment upon the transforms below:
"The transformational grammar is organized in three basic parts:

1) syntactic component (lexicon, i.e., list of words: boy, hit, ball);
2) semantic component, i.e., semantic interpretation of the deep structure:
We enjoy smoking. → We smoke and we enjoy it.
3) phonological component, which provides a phonetic interpretation.
Transforms:
We oppose smoking. →
John came smiling. →
Father and I went home. →

- **Generative Semantics**

➔ **Basic Outline of Generative Semantics**

Generative semantics includes **semantic** and **pragmatic** information in a linguistic description. According to generative semantics, interpretation is <u>independent of syntactic structure</u>. That is, changing the structure does not influence the meaning.

Generative semantics saw its outburst in the 1970s and became less popular in the 1980s. It is considered to be the most difficult branch of grammar, since it is based on **logic**. The input of generative semantics into grammatical theory is great and based upon a logical approach to the situation.

Generative semanticists accepted the general principles of transformational grammar, but challenged Chomsky's conception of deep structure as a separate and identifiable level of syntactic representation. In their opinion, the basic component of grammar should consist in a set of rules for generating well-formed semantic representations. These would then be converted by a succession of transformational rules into strings of words with an assigned surface-structure syntactic analysis, there being no place in the passage from semantic representation to surface structure identifiable as Chomsky's deep structure.

The adherents of this grammar school tried to give their own explanations of the popular grammar terms (*the Sentence, the Subject, the Predicate*) from the logical point of view. The developing platform for generative semantics is that *grammatical terms* are derived from those taken from logic and actually **coincide** with them.

Representatives of generative semantics moved to **the original sources** of grammar, i. e. logic and tried to link up grammatical categories with their logical correlates by means of applying the terms of symbolic logic, like the logical subject and the logical predicate which denote properties, relationships, and individual symbols (arguments).

Let's consider an example given by the great Ukrainian linguist **O. Potebnya** who gave to his students the following sentence:

'Нам важко добре вчитися.'

Depending upon the stress, laid on each separate word, the *logical* subject will shift from word to word:

'Нам *важко добре вчитися.' (It's we who have trouble with studying well)*

'Нам **важко** *добре вчитися.' (It's difficult that we should study hard)*

Oleksandr Potebnya

'Нам важко **добре** *вчитися.' (It's studying well (not badly) that is hard for us)*

'Нам важко добре **вчитися**.' *(It's studying (not, for instance, doing sport or cooking) well that is hard for us)*

Generative semanticists introduced a method of semantic transformation based upon **logical development** of the information given in the sentence and opened a new way for philological analysis which is widely used nowadays and is termed ***philological interpretation of*** the text or discourse.

Representatives of generative semantics opposed the notion of «deep structure». They focused on the semantic components of a sentence (**Mc Cawley, Ch. Fillmore** «*The Case for Case*», 1968) and propounded the idea of a specific <u>semantic level</u> where all the information relevant for the syntactic structure of the sentence is accumulated.

→ Charles Fillmore's Case Grammar

Ch. Fillmore is one of the most brilliant representatives of this school. He wrote a prominent work «*The Case for Case*» and deserves our special attention.

In 1968, Fillmore published his theory of Case Grammar, which highlighted the fact that syntactic structure can be predicted by semantic participants. An action can have an agent, a patient, purposes, locations, and so on. These

Charles Fillmore

participants were called "cases" in his original paper, but later on came to be known as semantic roles or thematic relations, which are similar to thematic roles in generative grammar.

The basic principle of his approach consists in <u>applying deduction to the given sentence elements</u>. Hence, the given sentence can be understood in the following way:

John killed Bill. → *John caused Bill to become not alive.* → *John is the reason (instrument) of Bill's death.* → *Bill's death is the result of John's physical attack.*

To illustrate the method of logical development suggested by Ch. Fillmore, let's turn to a shining example of its appliance from **H. Kemelman**'s detective story "*The Nine-mile Walk*".

For the first time in the long-run history of the detective story, H. Kemelman makes a professor of philology the main detective, investigating crimes too difficult for the police to crack.

Here below is a fragment of the story.

"My dear boy," he purred, "although human intercourse is well-nigh impossible without inference, most inferences are usually wrong. "<u>Give me any sentence of ten or twelve words," he said, "and I'll build you a logical chain of inferences that you never dreamed of when you framed the sentence.</u>"
I decided to wait outside until Nicky completed his transaction … When he joined me on the sidewalk I said, "A nine mile walk is no joke, especially in the rain."
"No, I shouldn't think it would be," he agreed absently. Then he stopped in his stride and looked at me sharply. "What the devil are you talking about?"
"<u>It's a sentence and it has eleven words,</u>" I insisted. And I repeated the sentence, ticking off the words on my fingers.
Very well." His voice became crisp as he mentally squared off to the problem. "<u>First inference: the speaker is aggrieved.</u>"
"I'll allow that," I said, "although it's pretty obvious." "First inferences should be obvious," said Nicky tartly.
I let it go at that. He seemed to be floundering and I didn't want to rub it in. "<u>Next inference: the speaker is not an athlete or an outdoors man.</u>"
*"You'll have to explain that one," I said.*

*"It's the 'especially' phrase again," he said. "The speaker does not say that a nine mile walk in the rain is no joke, but merely the walk—just the distance, mind you—is no joke. Now, nine miles is not such a terribly long distance. You walk more than half that in eighteen holes of golf—and golf is an old man's game," he added slyly. **I** play golf".*

(H. Kemelman, "The Nine-Mile Walk")

Representatives of generative semantics differentiate between <u>two types of semantic properties</u> in a sentence:

1) proposition, defined after Ch. Fillmore as a tenseless set of relationships;

2) modal constituent including negation, tense, mood and aspect.

Every proposition consists of one predicate (P) which opens up places for one or more individual names (names of things). They expose different semantic relations towards the P $\diagdown$ N_1
N_2
N_3
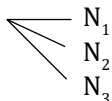
Human consciousness subdivides words into the sphere of names and the sphere of actions and states. The verb group occupies the centre in this dichotomy, while the noun-group remains in the periphery.

→ Generative Semantics: Drawbacks

Paying tribute to the logical approach to syntactic analysis, we must point out the basic ***drawback*** of generative semantics. The logical development of the semantic structure of a sentence could be equally right or wrong. Hence, logical derivatives obtained as a result of this analysis structurally and semantically may be too far from the initial sentence and its meaning.

Questions for Discussion

1. Is logical development a one-way street or can there be deviations?
2. What is the practical appliance of generative semantics? Give your own examples.
3. Draw a conclusion comparing structuralism, transformational grammar, and generative semantics.
4. Prepare a report on the topic: "*Logical inference, deduction and implication*".

- **Textual Grammar**

Textual Grammar, or Grammar of the Text, appeared as a feedback to the close sentence analysis. With the progress of logical development suggested by Generative Semantics, it has become clear that text can function as a unit of transmitting information and since, a unit of communication. Text as it is demonstrates specific regularities in organising sentences within its space and governing their inner grammar and sequence within its body. Such phenomena are known as governed by the textual contour. For instance:

*There were five persons present at table: **a** doctor, **a** lawyer, **a** student, **a** teacher and **the** musician.*

It is quite clear that the use of the definite article breaks the textual contour, immediately attracting the reader's attention and actualising the use of the article for the reason significant to the author. The reader understands that it is the musician who is worthy their attention in contrast to the rest of the audience.

Even a layman can mark the difference in the textual representation of, say, a dialogue or a weather forecast placed in the newspaper. Consequently, the text manifests some hidden regulations governing its organisation on the lower levels.

→ The Prague Linguistic Circle

The development of this branch of grammar owes much to the **Prague Linguistic Circle**, and namely to **V. Mathesius**.

Vilém Mathesius (3 August, 1882 – 12 April, 1945) was a Czech linguist, literary historian and co-founder of the Prague Linguistic Circle. He is considered one of the founders of ***structural functionalism*** in linguistics.

Functional linguistics concentrates on the functionality of language and believes the function of the language and its elements to be the key to understanding linguistic processes and structures.

Textual grammar is the study of texts above the level of the sentence. It shows how texts are put together so as to convey ideas and facts. The basic principle of textual grammar is the principle of _cohesion,_ implying there existing relationships of meaning that exist within a text. Cohesion is thought to be expressed through strata organization of language.

Text-oriented notion (semantic concept). Relations of meaning that exist within a text build up semantic concepts when the interpretation of one element in discourse is dependent on that of another one (and one presupposes the other).

Thus, the founders of this approach suggested interpreting the text as a unity having its own characteristics understood as **the text contour**. For instance, analyzing R. Kipling's well-known poem "_If..._", we actually deal with a complex sentence with the principal clause **_YOU'LL BE A MAN, MY SON_** placed at the end of the poem, and lots of subordinate conditional clauses placed at its beginning:

> _"If you can talk with crowds and keep your virtue,_
> _Or walk with Kings — nor lose the common touch,_
> _If neither foes nor loving friends can hurt you,_
> _If all men count with you, but none too much;_
> _If you can fill the unforgiving minute_
> _With sixty seconds' worth of distance run,_
> _Yours is the Earth and everything that's in it,_
> _And—which is more — you'll be a Man, my son!"_
>
> _(R. Kipling, "If...")_

→ Textuality: Seven Standards

Texts are characterized by the so-called **_textuality_**, which means that texts in order to be appropriate and function as texts have to stick to 7 standards:

1) cohesion;
2) coherence;
3) intentionality;
4) acceptability;
5) informativity;
6) situationality;
7) intertextuality.

Theme and **_rheme_** belong to the semantic structure of the text. By theme here something already known is meant, while rheme presupposes something new.

Any text is believed to manifest **three levels**:
Proposition → Thematic structure → Information structure.

On any level we can find:
Subject and predicate → theme and rheme → old and new information.

Hence, on every level we can find:
Lexical semantics → Syntax → Discourse
(every sequence in that specific order).

Intentionality and Acceptability

Intentionality and acceptability is a user-centred notion which describes the psychological rationale of the text producer. The text producer influences the set of his utterances so that they should constitute a cohesive and coherent text. All the ways in which text producers utilize text to pursue and fulfil their intentions are reflected in the text's final generation. At the same time, acceptability relates to the rationale of the message receiver, it's up to the good-will of the listener/reader to assume that the wording is meaningful and purposeful.

Informativity

Informativity is related to acceptability. It deals with how the mind computes information, the extent to which the text is expected or unexpected, known or noteworthy.

Intertextuality

Intertextuality deals with social aspects of text interpretation. It concerns the factors which make the utilization of one text dependent upon the knowledge of one or more previously encountered texts. It can be explicit (explicit
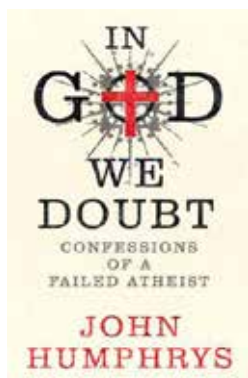
Intertextuality

mentioning of a previous text) or implicit (e.g. "*In God we doubt*" makes reference to the motto "*In God we trust*", but it is an implicit relationship). Sometimes it helps us to ***classify text types*** (we can recognize different text types because we have seen the same structure several times), though in that case intertextuality is not related to specific wording.

→ Discourse Vs Text

Grammar of the text, which deals with text by its definition, has many competitors. Among the traditional disciplines, there can be named stylistics, among more modern branches we shall mention semiotics, communication theory, sociolinguistics, pragmalinguistics, psycholinguistics, cognitive linguistics, cultural linguistics, and discourse theory.

According to many philological interpretations, **discourse** is understood as a text in terms of the language units treated in a certain aspect (or aspects) of their functioning and, thus, creating a new more meaningful unity, grounding on the reader's/listener's understanding of the text and cognitive experience.

The dictionary definition runs as follows:

"*Discourse (from the French discours – speech) is a coherent text taken in several dimensions, like extralinguistic-pragmatic, socio-cultural, psychological and other factors; it is the text taken as an event or speech, considered as a purposeful social action, involved in the interaction of people and in the mechanisms of their consciousness (cognitive processes)"*

(Linguistic Encyclopaedic Dictionary).

Hence, textual linguistics was a first step in discourse analysis and context interpretation.

Questions for Discussion

1. Discuss Ch. Fries's classification and his test-frames. What drawbacks can you see in Ch. Fries's classification of parts of speech?
2. Speak on transformation as a linguistic and logic operation.
3. Make all possible logical deductions following from the given sentence as is typical of generative semantics: *John may live in London*.
4. What grammatical finds of the modern period are used in language teaching?

- **Current Trends in Grammar Theory**

The schools enumerated above (structural, transformational, textual grammars, generative semantics) gave a push to the development of the newest trends in grammar starting with the 80s of the previous century.

A new peculiarity Grammar has acquired with their appearance is the fact that it has become an applied science. That is why most grammatical trends are based and oriented at communication and its psychological platform, which is specifically coded and organised by means of different grammatical structures and grants a corresponding effect produced by the speaker on the listener. Here we should mention:

- **pragmatics**, based upon the benefit the speaker might get from the conversation and the performative force of the utterance;
- **communicative grammar**, suggesting a variety of humanitarian techniques and speech strategies for the speaker to change the inner world of his/her interlocutor;
- **gender and social grammars,** demonstrating the differences represented in communication by people belonging to different social strata and genders;
- **cognitive grammar**, grounded on metaphoric acquisition of grammatical terms and structure of the language;
- **gestalt approach** to grammatical phenomena, presupposing obtaining a multidimensional image of an object richer in its properties than a sum of its constituents;
- **neuro-linguistic programming,** implying adjustment of grammatical structures to the peculiarities of the psychological type of the interlocutor for the purpose of governing his/her verbal and non-verbal behaviour.

→ **Pragmatics**

Pragmatics is a field of linguistics concerned with what a speaker implies and a listener infers based on contributing factors like the situational context, the individuals' mental states, the preceding dialogue, and other elements.

Pragmatics was a reaction to **structuralist** linguistics as outlined by **Ferdinand de Saussure**. In many cases, it expanded upon his idea that language has an analyzable structure, composed of parts that can be defined in relation to others. Pragmatics first engaged only in **synchronic** study, as opposed to examining the historical development of language. However, it rejected the notion that all meaning comes from signs existing purely in the abstract space of *langue*. Meanwhile, **historical pragmatics** has also come

into being. The field did not gain linguists' attention until the **1970s**, when two different schools emerged: the Anglo-American pragmatic thought and the European continental pragmatic thought (also called the perspective view)

Thus, **pragmatics** is a specialized branch of study, focusing on the relationship between natural language and users of that language.

People often associate pragmatics with other areas of linguistic study, such as semantics, syntax, and semiotics, but these terms have different definitions. *Semantics* is the study of rule systems that determine the literal linguistic meanings of expressions; *syntax* describes how words are combined to form sentences with specific meaning; and *semiotics* is concerned with the use and interpretation of signs and symbols.

Pragmatics dates back to antiquity when *rhetoric* was one of the three liberal arts.

Dialogue theory, as a part of pragmatics (from Greek *pragma* – 'acts', 'affairs', 'business'), can be traced back to *Plato's theory of ideal philosophic communication,* which again is reconstructable by means of interpretative conversation analysis of his dialogues. Philosophy is presented there not as a formal and compact system, but as **a communicative**

activity, where philosophic issues are discussed and validity is established in consensus on the basis of evidence and logical reasoning.

The more modern idea of pragmatics arose between **1780** and **1830** in Britain, France, and Germany. Pragmatism saw a rise in popularity between **1880 and 1930** when linguists studying the philosophy of language agreed on a point of view that language must be studied **in the context of dialogue and life**, and that language itself is a kind of human action.

SPEECH ACT THEORY

Speech act theory is a subfield of pragmatics that studies how words are used not only to present information but also to carry out actions.

The speech act theory was introduced by Oxford philosopher **J.L. Austin in "*How to Do Things with Words"*** and further developed by **American philosopher J.R. Searle**. It considers the degree to which utterances are said to perform locutionary acts, illocutionary acts, and/or perlocutionary acts.

John Langshaw Austin (26 March 1911 – 8 February 1960) was a British philosopher of language and leading proponent of ordinary language philosophy, perhaps best known for developing the theory of speech acts.

Many philosophers and linguists study speech act theory as a way to better understand human communication.

"Part of the joy of doing speech act theory, from my strictly first-person point of view, is becoming more and more remindful of how many surprisingly different things we do when we talk to each other".

(Kemmerling, 2002).

Searle's Five Illocutionary Points

Philosopher **J.R. Searle** is responsible for devising a system of speech act categorization.

The speech act theory notes that the interrogative sentence ***Where do you live?*** equals to the declarative sentence ***I'd like to know your address*** and the imperative sentence ***Tell me your address, please.*** The fact is that all these sentences, different from the point of view of grammar, realise the same communicative intention and are similar pragmatically. Thus, pragmatics and

John Rogers Searle [sɜːl] born July 31, 1932) is an American philosopher widely noted for contributions to the philosophy of language, philosophy of mind, and social philosophy.

speech act theory classify utterances grounding not on their structure, but on the communicative intention realised by the interlocutor.

"In the past three decades, speech act theory has become an important branch of the contemporary theory of language thanks mainly to the influence of [J.R.] Searle (1969, 1979) and [H.P.] Grice (1975) whose ideas on meaning and communication have stimulated research in philosophy and in human and cognitive sciences..."

(Vanderkeven and Kubo, 2002).

From Searle's view, there are only **five illocutionary points** that speakers can achieve on propositions in an utterance, namely:

- the *assertive* illocutionary point;
- the *commissive* illocutionary point;
- the *directive* illocutionary point;
- the *declaratory* illocutionary point;
- the *expressive* illocutionary point.

*"Speakers achieve the **assertive point** when they represent how things are in the world; the **commissive point** when they commit themselves to doing something; the **directive point** when they make an attempt to get hearers to do something; the **declaratory point** when they do things in the world at the moment of the utterance solely by virtue of saying that they do and the **expressive point** when they express their attitudes about objects and facts of the world"*

(Vanderkeven and Kubo 2002).

Speech Act Theory and Literary Criticism

Literary criticism has been impacted by speech act theory since 1970. It offers a systematic framework for identifying the unspoken assumptions, implications, and effects of speech acts that competent readers and critics have always taken into account, subtly though unsystematically, when applied to the analysis of direct discourse by a character within a literary work.

However, a more radical application of speech act theory has also been made to reframe the theory of literature, particularly prose narratives. A fictional work's author's narration, or the narration of the author's invented narrator, is considered to be a «pretended» set of assertions that the author intends, and the competent reader understands, to be detached from a speaker's customary commitment to the veracity of what the speaker asserts.

"Within the frame of the fictional world that the narrative thus sets up, however, the utterances of the fictional characters—whether these are assertions

or promises or marital vows — are held to be responsible to ordinary illocutionary commitments".

(Abrams and Galt Harpham 2005).

CRITICISM OF SPEECH ACT THEORY

Although Searle's theory of speech acts has had a tremendous influence on functional aspects of pragmatics, it has also received very strong criticism.

Frank Palmer in his lecture about Tom and an Elephant and the controversial nature of pragmatics practically laughed out the theory of speech acts and ruined the fundamentals of pragmatics. The linguist told a story about a boy eating porridge and an elephant in the Zoo. Let's imagine the following situation. Tom, a boy of four, is having breakfast. There's a plate of porridge in front of him. The boy's mother addresses her son with the phrase: "Tommy, when you finish up your breakfast, we'll go to the Zoo and see a big animal". The question is what kind of speech act is objectivised in her sentence. The linguist suggested the following interpretations.

a) Tom is a good boy and an animal lover. He likes his visits to the Zoo and, especially, the big grey elephant living there. In this case, his mother's words would be a *promisive*;

b) Tom is receiving some information about what they are going to do during the day. He is mostly indifferent to animals, but wants to be in the know about his own and his mother's plans. Here the mother's phrase is an *explicitive*;

c) Tom deeply dislikes porridge, which irritates his mother greatly. At the same time, Tom is afraid of big beasts and, especially, of the big grey elephant living in the Zoo. Beyond herself with irritation with Tom's treating the porridge, his mother threatens the boy with a possible meeting the elephant. In this situation, her words should be treated as a *menacive*.

All three variants are equally possible because the interlocutors or participants of the speech situation get never aware of all its details and circumstances. Here we mean evident and undercurrent motives of the speakers, their cognitive experience, feelings, state of health, individual preferences and suchlike.

To conclude, it seems practically impossible to give absolutely adequate interpretation of the communicative intentions of the interlocutors in all cases and, consequently, deduce the pragmatic status of their speech acts.

Some contend that **Austin** and **Searle** only focused on statements taken out of their potential context, basing their research primarily on their intuitions. In this way, the inability of the *illocutionary force* of a physical speech act to adopt the shape of a sentence as Searle regarded it constitutes one of the primary inconsistencies to his proposed typology.

> *«Rather, researchers suggest that a sentence is a grammatical unit within the formal system of language, whereas the speech act involves a communicative function separate from this.»*
>
> *(Barron 2003).*

Subfields & Areas of Pragmatics

Conversational implicature. This theory rests on the notion that participants in a discussion are working together to accomplish a shared objective, a common conversational goal; as a result, conclusions can be drawn from a speaker's answers to queries. When a parent inquires about their child's homework progress and the child replies that they have completed their math assignment, for instance, the parent may assume that the child still has homework for other subjects to complete. The term and notion of implicature were coined around 1975 by philosopher **Paul Grice**; other researchers have since improved upon his work.

Cognitive pragmatics. This field centres around cognition, or the mental operations that underlie human communication, commonly referred to as cognitive processes. The study of language difficulties in people with developmental impairments or those who have experienced brain trauma that impairs their speech may be the focus of cognitive pragmatics researchers.

Intercultural pragmatics. This branch of study examines communication between speakers of various first languages and cultural backgrounds. Likewise to this, second language learners can benefit from interlanguage pragmatics.

Managing the flow of reference. During a discussion, listeners follow syntactic cues to figure out what happened or who did what. This process is referred

to as managing the flow of reference. Let's assume someone were to approach you and announce, «Ben is inside. He asked me to see you.» You will probably realise that Ben is the one who gave the speaker the order to meet you.

Relevance theory. Relevance theory, initially put forth by **Dan Sperber** and **Deirdre Wilson**, is a prominent framework in pragmatics. The theory, which takes its cues from **Grice**'s theories on implicature, holds that every statement a speaker makes transmits enough pertinent information for the addressee to make the effort to understand what they are saying.

Sociolinguistics. The study of sociolinguistics focuses on how different social groups that native speakers of the same language may belong to can influence them to speak differently from one another. Depending on what namely a sociolinguistic study focuses on, the research may be pragmatic or not.

Speech acts. The term «speech acts» in linguistics has a broader philosophical meaning and has nothing to do with phonology, the area of linguistic study that focuses on a language's individual phonemes or dialects. According to the speech act hypothesis, humans utilise language and its conventions to carry out tasks and achieve objectives. A spoken act would be asking for a glass of water or giving someone an order to drink one, whereas a physical act would be drinking a glass of water and a mental act would be considering drinking a glass of water.

Theory of mind. This notion was first put forth by **David Premack** and **Guy Woodruff** in the 1970s. The main idea behind theory of mind is that knowledge of a person's mental health can aid in explaining how they utilise language. Some academics believe that pragmatic competence – which addresses language use within a specific linguistic context – and the philosophy of mind are related.

→ Sociolinguistics

In 1971, **Basil Bernstein,** a British sociologist with a particular interest in the sociology of education, had a theory about how **social class** can impact linguistic use and how a person's linguistic use can affect their academic performance.

According to Bernstein's theory, people's everyday language both reflects and shapes the perceptions of the social group they belong to. Furthermore, the ties formed within a social group have an impact on the language and speech patterns employed by that group. In a general theory of cultural transmission, language acts as a mediator of social structure, which is why language is important to Bernstein.

Bernstein introduced the concept of **limited and developed language codes** in the 1960s. As a teacher, he was curious as to why working-class students performed so poorly in language classes despite having the same test scores as their middle-class counterparts in maths. According to Bernstein's view, language and social class are directly related.

Basil Bernstein

Sociolinguistics is the study of the connection between language and society and the way people use language in different social situations.

Sociolinguistics is concerned with a big question: how do language and social life influence each other? The breadth and complexity of it varies widely, spanning from the examination of regional dialects to the research of gendered speech patterns in specific contexts.

The fundamental idea of sociolinguistics is that language is *flexible* and constantly evolving. Thus, language is neither consistent nor uniform. Instead, it is different and inconsistent for each user as well as within and among groups of speakers of the same language. Individuals modify their speech patterns in response to social context. For example, a person will communicate with a toddler in a different way than they would with a college professor. This socio-situational diversity, sometimes referred to as *register*, is contingent upon the participants' area, ethnicity, socioeconomic status, age, and gender in addition to the occasion and interaction between them.

Historical sociolinguists analyze historical language data by studying dated written records, including both handwritten and printed documents. Historical sociolinguistics, thus, explores the interaction between language and society in the past, trying to understand how changes in society influence changes in language over time.

Historical sociolinguists have examined the usage patterns of the pronoun «thou» in old documents. They have discovered a correlation between the decline of «thou» and the rise of «you», which is linked to shifts in social class during XVI and XVII century England.

Sociolinguists frequently investigate *dialects*, which are variations of a language based on region, social factors, or ethnicity. For instance, while English is the predominant language in the United States, there are noticeable differences in speech patterns and vocabulary between individuals residing in the Southern region compared to those in the Northwest, despite all speaking
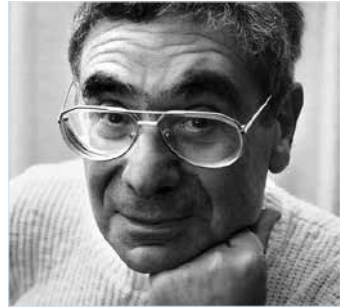
the same language. This variation results in different English dialects across various regions of the country.

ThoughtCo, one of the top-10 information sites, enumerates the following **problems** studied by sociolinguists in the USA:

- In the northern regions, a vowel shift is taking place where systematic changes to vowel pronunciation are occurring in specific words. For instance, individuals in cities like Buffalo, Cleveland, Detroit, and Chicago are now pronouncing words like «bat» as «bet» and «bet» as «but.» Researchers are investigating *who is driving this shift in pronunciation, the reasons behind these changes, and how and why this pronunciation trend is spreading*.
- *Which aspects of African American Vernacular English grammar are being adopted by white middle-class teenagers?* For instance, white adolescents may use phrases like «she money» to compliment a peer's clothing, a linguistic feature commonly associated with African American English.
- *What effects will the decline of monolingual French speakers in the Cajun region of Southern Louisiana have on the local language? Will the French linguistic elements persist even after the disappearance of these French speakers?*
- *What slang expressions do younger generations employ to express their connection to specific subgroups and differentiate themselves from their parents' generation?* For instance, in the early 2000s, teenagers used terms like cool, money, tight, or sweet to describe things they liked, while avoiding terms like swell, which would have been more typical of their parents' generation.
- *Which words exhibit variations in pronunciation based on factors such as age, gender, socioeconomic status, or race/ethnicity?* For example, African Americans often have distinct pronunciations for certain words compared to white individuals. Similarly, pronunciation differences can be observed based on whether the speaker was born after World War II or before.
- *What vocabulary terms exhibit regional and temporal variations, and what are the diverse meanings associated with specific words?* For instance, in Southern Louisiana, a breakfast dish is commonly referred to as «lost bread,» whereas in other regions, it is known as «French toast.» Similarly, which words have undergone changes over time? For example, «frock» previously referred to a woman's dress but is seldom used in that context today.

Sociolinguists study many other issues as well. For instance, they often examine the values that hearers place on variations in language, the regulation of linguistic behaviour, language standardization, and educational and governmental policies concerning language.

Language and Dialect

A dialect refers to a form of language that displays systematic differences from other forms of the same language. These variations within a language are typically mutually understandable, but when communication breaks down between speakers of different dialects, they may be classified as separate languages. Geographic factors also play a role in distinguishing between dialects and languages. For instance, Swedish, Norwegian, and Danish are recognized as distinct languages due to consistent differences in grammar and the regions where they are spoken, although speakers of these languages can generally understand each other to a significant extent. Hindi and Urdu are mutually intelligible languages in speech but utilize different writing systems. Conversely, Mandarin and Cantonese are mutually incomprehensible in spoken form despite sharing the same writing system.

A standard dialect is defined as one that is utilized by the upper class, political leaders, found in literary works, and is formally taught in educational institutions as the correct form of the language. This dominant dialect embodies overt prestige. Conversely, a non-standard dialect is associated with covert prestige and typically represents an ethnic or regional variation of a language. These non-standard dialects are linguistically sophisticated like the standard dialect, and any judgments of inferiority are rooted in social biases or racism.

African-American English displays numerous regular deviations from the standard dialect, much like variations found in dialects worldwide. Phonological distinctions include the deletion of sounds like «r» and «l» in words such as «poor» (pronounced as «pa») and «all» (pronounced as «awe»). Simplification of consonant clusters also occurs, such as pronouncing «passed» as «pass,» along with a reduction in interdental fricatives. Syntactic variances encompass the use of double negatives and the habitual use of the verb «be.» For instance, «He late» signifies he is currently late, while «He be late» indicates a habitual lateness.

A lingua franca is a dominant language utilized in a region where speakers of multiple languages reside, facilitating communication and commerce among them. English is widely referred to as the global lingua franca, whereas French historically served as the lingua franca in diplomatic circles.

A pidgin is a simplified language with a limited vocabulary and less intricate grammatical structures, often derived from another language. Pidgins are not acquired as a first language, but children may learn creoles, which are pidgins that have evolved into native tongues within a community.

In addition to dialects, speakers may employ various ***styles*** or ***registers***, such as contractions, depending on the context. Slang is another aspect of language used in informal speech but is generally avoided in formal settings or writing. Jargon pertains to specialized vocabulary associated with specific fields like technology or medicine. Taboo words or expressions are those deemed inappropriate or offensive, leading to the creation of euphemisms, which are substitute words or phrases used to avoid the taboo expressions.

The language choices people make can reveal **a society's stance** on topics like sexuality, bodily functions, religious beliefs, as well as expose underlying racism or sexism. It's important to note that language itself is not inherently racist or sexist; rather, these biases stem from societal attitudes. Offensive language can perpetuate discriminatory attitudes, and shifts in societal norms are often mirrored in language changes over time.

Naturally, there are also other interesting and productive grammatical schools enjoying popularity nowadays, besides pragmatics, to be studied within the course of Current Trends in Grammar.

Questions for Revision

1. What is the traditional periodisation of Grammar Theory? Who are known as the most outstanding grammarians? What are they known for?
2. What was characteristic of the pre-normative English Grammar?
3. What is Robert Lowth famous for?
4. What is the definition of the norm? Why is it important?
5. What is Lindley Murray's input into the theory of English Grammar?
6. Why is Henry Sweet considered the founding father of classical English Grammar? What Henry Sweet's postulates do you know?
7. What was special about John Nesfield's grammar and his approach to grammar problems?
8. Why is Otto Jespersen known as "the genius Dutchman"? Speak about his main findings and crucial ideas.
9. What was new in Etsko Kruisinga's grammar? Did it become popular with the usual readers?

10. Speak about L. Tesniere's scholarly views. What step forward in syntactic analysis did he make? What is IC-analysis?
11. Define Ch.C. Fries's test frames. Why are they important? What synonym do we use instead of the word combination "test frame" now?
12. What criticism did Ch.C. Fries's test-frames receive? Why?
13. Outline transformational grammar, its rules and origin.
14. What is Generative Grammar? What is Noam Chomsky's input into linguistics?
15. How and why did Frank Palmer criticise TG?
16. Speak about Generative Semantics. Who are its representatives? What are its pros and cons?
17. What is Textual Grammar? What representatives of the Prague Linguistic Circle do you know? What is textuality? What are the differences between text and discourse?
18. What current trends in grammar do you know?

Before we begin...

Give your point of view on the problems below. Give reasons to support your opinion.

- How many examples does a linguist need to make a conclusion?
- What is necessary to carry out a valid scientific research?

To tackle any grammatical problem an objective scientist should work out a reliable roadmap of their scientific research. For that reason one must be provided with a solid methodological basis. Any scientific research is grounded on the theory of cognition as suggested by **G.F. Hegel** in his world-known work "Phenomenology of Spirit".

3.1. HEGEL'S DIALECTIC

All linguistic and, in general, scientific work is founded upon the laws of cognition formulated by **G.F. Hegel**: «*From vivid speculation to abstract thinking and from it to practice*», i.e. a dialectic way of conceiving the truth.

G.F. Hegel was a German philosopher and the most important figure in German idealism. He is considered one of the fundamental figures of modern Western philosophy.

Hegel's principal achievement was his development of a distinctive articulation of *idealism*, sometimes termed absolute idealism, in which the **dualisms** of, for instance, mind and nature or sub-

G.F. Hegel

ject and object are overcome. His philosophy of spirit conceptually integrates psychology, the state, history, art, religion and philosophy. His **dialectic** was influential, especially in the XX century in France, Germany, and England.

G.F. Hegel's first law runs, *"From live speculation to abstract thinking that is the way of dialectic conceiving the truth."*

For a linguist, it means to cover all possible texts and speech examples having been written, being written at present and still to be written in future. It means that a linguist starts by collecting examples containing the phenomenon investigated.

While studying them, he or she puts forward certain hypotheses and checks them up on the examples selected.

3.2. QUANTITY OF SELECTION

The *first step* to valid research is using the method of **saturation of models** grounded on the laws of geometrical progression suggested by Prof. **A. K. Korsakov**.

Prof. A.K. Korsakov was a prominent Ukrainian linguist and language philosopher who specialised in the grammar of the English language and is considered a founding father of Grammar School in Ukraine.

Having organised the Chair of English Grammar (English Grammar Department) at Odesa Mechnikov National University in 1963, he was at the head of it for the following 30 years. Professor Korsakov was one of the first to give philosophical

A.K. Korsakov

interpretations to grammatical phenomena. The basis of his linguistic school is made up by the philosophic understanding of conceivable reality as an interconnected system of *things*, their *qualities* and *relations*.

Linguistic research is granted validity by the **laws of mathematical linguistics** that should be considered and employed while carrying it out.

At the very first stage, the selection should be **consecutive**. Later, it may be **non-systematic**, but done with an eye to the theory of probability.

The quantity of examples is motivated by another G.F. **Hegel**'s law of philosophy**: «To come to know the object under study one is to cover all its properties, links and connections».**

For a linguist, it means to cover all possible surface structures, morphological and syntactic forms and to study the semantic relations of the phenomenon with its environment. We are proud to say that the fundamentals of mathematical linguistics were elaborated in this country. Among others, we shall mention such outstanding specialists as **Y. Nosenko, R. Piotrowski, K. Bektaev, A. Piotrowska, V. Levytskyi** and other linguists.

Below is presented one of the ready-to-use formulae, giving a mathematic evaluation of scientific selection validity:

$$N=\sqrt{Zp^2\, e^2 f}\; ;$$

$$e =\sqrt{1{,}96\; Nxb}\; ;$$

$$e \approx 15\%$$

where:

Zp^2 = 1,96;

N is the necessary quantity of examples;

f is the frequency of the phenomena studied;

e is a relative mistake.

The **final stage** of linguistic analysis presupposes singling out the **essential** in the semantic content of the phenomenon under analysis. By *essential* we mean what is *most general, invariable* and *common* in all the examples selected, and it's **paradigmatic** analysis that discloses the essential meaning.

A **paradigm** is a typical example or pattern of something. In linguistics, it is a set of linguistic forms or items that make up *mutually exclusive choices in particular syntactic roles*.

The **essential**, hence, is a set of features without which a substance is not what it truly is. The essential is always present within the phenomenon studied. In fact, the process of cognition itself consists in rejecting accidentals and singling out the essential. The form is essential. Thus, the essential has a form, this or that way depending upon the essential meaning and, at the same time, influencing the essential itself. Such is the *Law of Unity of Content and Form.*

The next philosophic law to be applied in linguistic analysis is the *Law of Unity of the Particular and the General:* the *Particular* does not exist without a lead that takes it to the *General.*

The <u>Particular</u> is richer in its properties than the <u>General</u>, but the *General* is *essential*.
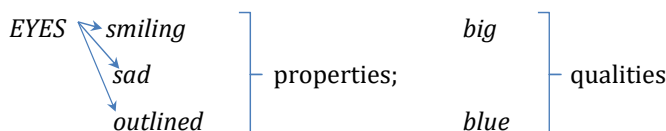
For example:
TABLE
The essential characteristics are: a *flat surface, a support* and its functions.

The essential <u>properties</u> of the object are termed **qualities**.
For instance:

EYES	smiling			big	
	sad	⎤ properties;			⎤ qualities
	outlined			blue	

In accordance with the philosophical conception about **practice as criterion of truth**, to prove validity of his/her investigation a linguist should turn to a practical check-up of the conclusions made as a result of his/her work. Here we must resort to **linguistic experiments** of the necessary kind.

Questions for Discussion

1. Suppose you are doing research on the use of the definite article in American periodicals. What will the stages of your linguistic research be like? How will you count out a sufficient quantity of selection?
2. What is your current topic of linguistic research (possibly, your term paper)? How do you tackle the stages of linguistic research outlined?
3. In teams, think of the importance of the Law of Unity of Content and Form & the Law of Unity of the Particular and the General for linguistics.
4. In teams, think of a possible topic for linguistic research, its stages and ways to tell a sufficient quantity of selection

Questions for Revision

1. What stages of linguistic analysis do you know? Why are they important?
2. What is the basic idea behind Hegel's dialectic? How can it help with linguistic research?
3. How can one understand that the number of examples accrued is sufficient for a valid research and conclusions? What is the quantity of selection?

4. What grammatical finds of the modern period are used in language teaching?
5. How many examples does a linguist need to make a conclusion?
6. What is necessary to carry out a valid scientific research?
7. What do you know about Prof A.K. Korsakov?
8. What is the Law of Unity of Content and Form? Why is it important for linguistics?
9. What is the Law of Unity of the Particular and the General? How is it applicable to linguistics?

4.1. THE PROBLEM OF PART OF SPEECH

In fact, the first question concerning language processes that was asked and, thus, studied by scholars in history, was that of parts of speech. Today, there may be found several approaches to word classes, including semantic, stylistic, etymological classes, etc. Still, the most traditional system of parts of speech rests on grammatical principles.
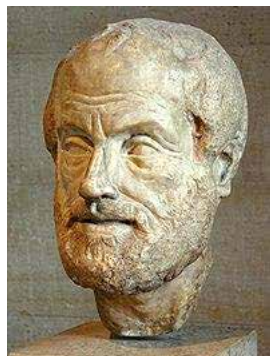
Aristotle,
a Greek philosopher

More than two thousand years back, **Plato** distinguished between nouns and verbs, the latter termed as "an expression applied to actions".

When the Greek philosopher **Aristotle** (384-322 BC) started developing the idea of parts of speech, he talked about **four** of them: *nouns, verbs, articles, and conjunctions.* The verb was defined as "what additionally signifies time".

"*Parts of speech are the names of important writing tools.*"

(Aristotle)

Quite a bit later, **Dionysius Thrax** (170-90 BC), in his turn, came up with **eight** parts of speech: nouns, verbs, pronouns, articles, conjunctions, participles, prepositions, and adverbs. His classification represents the results of the Stoics' investigations (where five parts of speech were recognized), and was also known to Dionysius Thrax's teacher **Aristarchus**. The most important input made by **Dionysius Thrax** is his outlining the classification in terms of both grammatical form (morphology) and function (syntax), though parts of his works rely on the semantics of parts of speech, too, discussing what the parts of speech signify. Later on, this classification was inherited by the Romans and applied to Latin and other European languages, with the course of time.

The loss of the article (as the article is not used in Latin) was made up for by the interjection.

In his studies already in the last decade of the XIX century, **H. Sweet** declared ***form*** to be of more potential for singling out parts of speech:

«*The only satisfactory definition of a part of speech must be a purely formal one: "snow", for instance, is not a noun because it stands for a thing, but because it can stand as the subject of a proposition, because it can form its plural by adding -s, because it has no definite prefix, etc., and "whiteness" is a noun for precisely the same reason. By using the technical term "noun", etc., in a purely formal sense, and distinguishing words according to their meaning as thing-words, attribute-words, etc., we shall be able to escape the hopeless confusion into which grammarians fall, who appeal alternately to the meaning and the form of the parts of speech in grammatical discussions*»

("Words, Logic, and Grammar",
Transactions of the Philological Society, 1876, p. 487).

The reasoning above, however, dwells a lot on the function of the word "snow", and, thus, looks quite inconsistent.

Still, later **H. Sweet** re-considered his formalistic approach, coming to a conclusion that «*a **Part of Speech** is a group of words having the same meaning, form and function*».

However, the definition given above all the same looks more like a description than a term. Moreover, the scholar himself failed to stick to it, dwelling more on the form and function of word classes than on their inner meanings.

Today, taking into account the law of unity of content and form, linguists more frequently use the term **parts of speech** about classes of words having the same <u>referential content</u> and <u>linguistic treatment</u>.

4.2. THE NUMBER OF PARTS OF SPEECH IN ENGLISH

Different linguists single out different sets of parts of speech, grounding upon H. Sweet's definition quoted above. Altogether, there are four basic approaches to this problem, depending on the school scholars belong to.

- **Classical (or logical-inflectional) approach** to parts of speech classification springs out of the prescriptive grammarians' ideas and describes English through the paradigms of Latin. In fact, the whole classification rests upon the study of ***form***, analysed both morphologically and syntactically.

Thus, this classification had parts of speech analysed as declinable (those that can be declined, i.e. nouns, pronouns, verbs, participles & adjectives) and indeclinable (those that cannot be declined (adverbs, prepositions, articles, interjections, conjunctions), which was rather problematic if not impossible in case with English as an analytical language;

- **Functional-formal approach** is typical of non-structural descriptive grammarians, including **H. Sweet**:

Henry Sweet (1892), a prescriptivist,divided words into

Declinables (**nominative**):	Indeclinables
noun-words (noun, noun-pronoun, noun-numeral, infinitive, gerund),	(**particles**):
adjective-words (adjective, adjective-pronoun, adjective-numeral, participle),	adverb, preposition, conjunction, interjection.
verb (finite verb),	
verbals (infinitive, gerund, participle)	

Whilst dealing with the part of speech problem, H. Sweet himself operates with the criterion of function *only* within the word class, leaving the better part of his classification rest on the principle of form (nominative Vs particles).

G. L. Trager and **H. L. Smith** also speak of the necessity to pay more attention to *form*, though they do not criticise the idea of the trinity of meaning, form, and function in their book "*An Outline of the English Structure*".

Another famous representative of this approach is **Otto Jespersen**, who already in the XX century also proclaimed the unity of form, function and meaning as the most essential grounding of his theory, but still concentrated more on the *form*. Thus, he singles out *substantives (=nouns)*, *adjectives*, *pronouns*, *verbs*, and *particles* (prepositions, conjunctions, interjections,

Otto Jespersen,
a famous Danish grammarian

and adverbs). In contrast to H. Sweet, O. Jespersen makes *pronouns* a separate class of words and speaks of noun-words as those that can function as nouns, but aren't such.

- **Distributional approach** is traditional for structural descriptive grammarians (L. Bloomfield, Z. Harris, Ch. Fries etc).

Ch. Fries refused from the traditional understanding of the part of speech, giving a definition of his own, where he writes the following: *«It is impossible to give definition to such eternal categories in grammar, like parts of speech. They must be taken as axioms, such as existing in Geometry 'a straight line' or 'a point'».*

To avoid this discrepancy, he suggested his ***test frames*** instead, representing **four formal classes** (covering 67% of one's vocabulary), and **fifteen functional groups**, or form-classes (154 words only, which usually make up one third of the recorded lexemes). Thus, all in all, Ch. Fries singled out nineteen parts of speech.
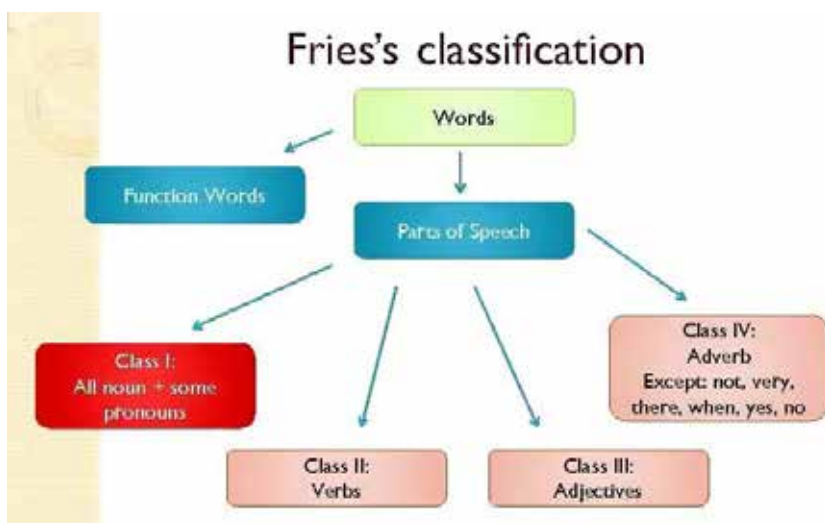
Ch. Fries

Fries's Classes of Words

Fries's Groups of Words
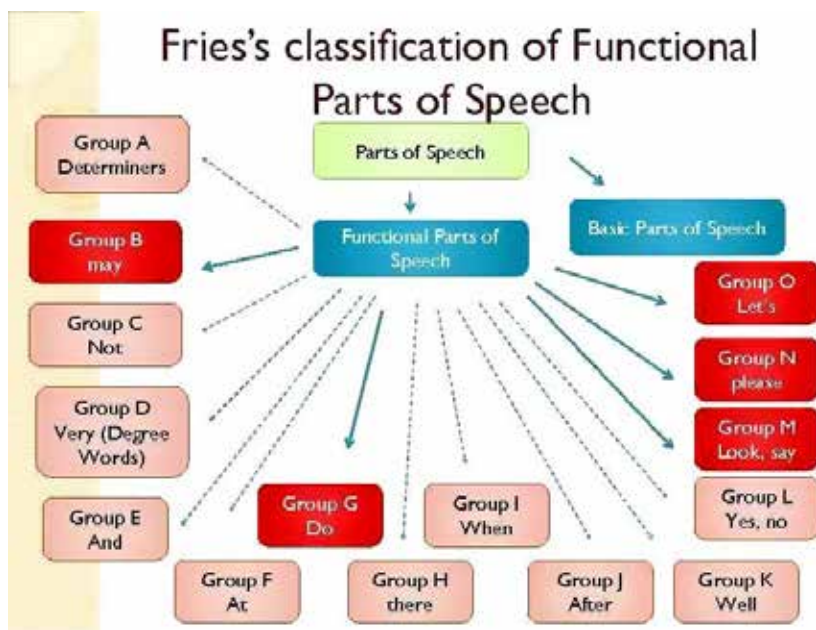
It's clear that Ch. Fries's classification didn't consider the word's lexical meaning at all, basing on the word's distribution, i.e. its position in a sentence and how it can be combined with other words.

- **Complex approach**

A new approach was demonstrated in the "*Grammar*" by **O. Shedd,** who singled out, on the basis of formal and functional approaches, the following groups of words: *nominals*, *adjectivals*, *verbals* and *adverbials,* uniting them into a set due to the suffix -*al*- registered in all of them.

M.A. Ganshina & N.M. Vasilevskaya in their "*English Grammar*" give thirteen parts of speech:

Noun	Pronoun	Article	Modal words
Adjective	Verb	Particle	Interjection
Numeral	Adverb	Conjunction	Word-sentences "Yes" – "No"
		Prepositions	
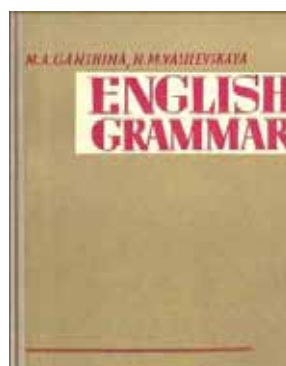
B. Ilyish

B. A. Ilyish (1948) does away with the <u>article</u> *(treating articles as «word-form hanging morphemes»)* and <u>word-sentences</u> *(referring them to the level of syntax since they deal with sentences)* and adds a new part of speech – ***"the category of state"*** («stative»), basing on the studies by L.V. Shcherba and V.V. Vinogradov. All in all, he gets **twelve** nominations.

This new part of speech included words showing properties of nouns, but different from adjectives, and built up with the help of the prefix *a-* and denoting various states, often of temporary duration: *asleep, afraid, adrift, ablaze*, etc. Traditional grammar usually treats such words as predicative adjectives as it is their main syntactic function.

For singling out statives into a separate part of speech, B. Ilyish gives the following reasons within the triad of "meaning, form, and function":
1. Statives show a passing state a person or thing happens to be in, and, thus, have a specific meaning;
2. Their form is invariable;
3. In terms of function, they most often follow link verbs (*to fall asleep*), and sometimes go after nouns (*man alive*). Statives can take adverbs in front of them (*to be fast asleep*). In the sentence, they are mostly used predicatively (*The man is asleep*), but may as well be objective predicatives (*I found him asleep*) or attributes in post-positions to the noun (*A man asleep in his chair*).

Supporting B. Ilyish's viewpoint on the stative as a separate part of speech, **B. A. Khaimovich**, however, does not refuse from counting the article and word-sentences as parts of speech either and simply adds the category of state (naming it «the stative») to Ganshina's classification, this way getting fourteen parts of speech altogether.

Traditional arguments in favour of the stative as a special part of speech, listed down by **B. Khaimovich and B. Rogovskaya**, include:

a) Semantically, adjectives denote qualities, while statives-adlinks show states;

b) Statives are all characterized by the prefix a- typical of such words;

c) They do not have the degrees of comparison;

d) They do not come in the pre-position to their headwords.

However, the arguments above oppose statives-adlinks not to the other parts of speech taken together, but mainly to the adjective, and, thus, may pre-suppose their treatment as a specific subclass within it.

"The question of the existence of words of the category of state in English, Russian and other languages is not resolved to this day. Many linguists con-sider this lexico-grammatical category of words an unrecognized category. They attribute this category of words to either adjectives or adverbs, since they are close in properties to adjectives and adverbs"

(T. Tatarkulova, 2015).

Though **Otto Jespersen** didn't use the term "category of state", his work "The Philosophy of Grammar" dwells on adjectives, participles, and stative expressions in ways that mostly align with the concept of the category of state, laying the groundwork for later discussions on this notion in linguistics.

R. Quirk and his co-authors, in "*A Comprehensive Grammar of the English Language*" (1985), also dis-cussed "predicative adjectives," which share some characteristics with a separate grammatical cat-egory.
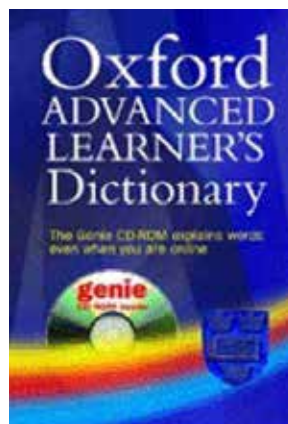
Most **British grammar schools** give *eight* parts of speech grounding on the fact that in English, the **morphological nature** of the given word depends on its position in a sentence.

For example,   **end** (n) **– *the end of a line;***

end (vi and t.) **– *How does the story end?***

Noun	
Pronoun	Preposition
Adjective	Conjunction
Verb	Interjection
Adverb	

R. Hall and **L. Potter** almost jokingly point out that the sentence "*O, and how the sun shines above us*" would illustrate the most conventional subdivision of words into parts of speech, each used only once in the sentence, "if we class the article as an adjective".

4.3. PARTS OF SPEECH IN ENGLISH: A TRADITIONAL APPROACH TODAY

Today, by **parts of speech** lexical and grammatical word classes are meant, characterized by the same peculiarities of meaning, form and function, and, thus, sharing a general abstract grammatical meaning codified by certain grammatical markers.

Most scholars subdivide parts of speech into **notional** and **functional** (form) **parts of speech**, depending on whether they have a meaning of their own or function mainly to connect words in sentences and word combinations (though, naturally, those aren't devoid meaning altogether).

Notional parts of speech have a bright and distinct independent lexical meaning, besides a distinct grammatical meaning, and are often termed autosemantic words. They perform different syntactic functions in a sentence and represent open classes of words, productive from the viewpoint of word-building. Here belong:

- the noun;
- the verb;
- the adjective;
- the adverb;
- the pronoun;
- the numeral.

While grammarians are ubiquitous about the first four parts of speech mentioned above and forming over 90% of the English wordstock in general, their viewpoints on the pronoun and the numeral might differ. For instance, **S. Barkhudarov** calls them structural words and **Otto Jesperson** talks about the inconsistency in their classes.

Functional parts of speech represent a more closed system, with their number being limited (about 150 words), their lexical meaning – rather wide and general, and their combinability being more or less obligatory. Syntactically, they function as linking and specifying words, without having a syntactic function of their own. To functional parts of speech belong prepositions and conjunctions.

Functional parts of speech are sometimes called syn-semantic words, showing more relations between other words, than bearing a clear easily deter-

mined lexical meaning, and they never point to notions, objects or things. While it is possible to make up a sentence without functional parts of speech (*I went home early last Sunday*), it's next to impossible to come up with one containing functional parts of speech only.

As to the article, the particle, and the interjection, their status is seen differently by various scholars. Though the first two are often attributed to the functional parts of speech, sometimes the article (the same as the pronoun and the numeral) is classified into the group of determiners.

The interjection, in its turn, is a more complicated notion as it shows the speaker's emotions and attitude to the speech situation or its parts. More or less limited in number, interjections originate from sound imitation or notional words, may look like word combinations and are hard to define, which results in grammarians often calling them emotional elements or discourse particles instead of classifying them into notional or functional parts of speech.

Below we will consider the basic categories of the notional parts of speech as determined today. However, before concentrating on their current understanding, we will discuss the history of the noun studies. The other parts of speech will not be given such a detailed coverage, but it's advisable that the readers look up more information on the history of their studies and development in grammar on their own as well.

- **The Noun**

→ The Noun: A Historical Development of Studies

Word classes (parts of speech) were described by Sanskrit grammarians from at least the 5th century BC. **Yāska (**an **ancient Indian grammarian** who is believed to have lived before Panini, between the 7th and 4th centuries BC, and to have written the Nirukta, a book which deals with "etymology" (the study of word origins) as part of the Sanskrit grammatical tradition, and the Nighantu,

recognized as India's oldest proto-thesaurus) points out that the noun (nāma) is one of the four main categories of words defined.

Among the main categories of words, Yāska defines:
- nāma – nouns or substantives;
- ākhyāta – verbs;
- upasarga – pre-verbs or prefixes;
- nipāta – particles, invariant words (perhaps prepositions).

Yāska singled out two main ontological categories: <u>a process or an action (bhāva)</u>, and an <u>entity or a being or a thing (sattva)</u>. Then he first defined the **verb** as that in which the bhāva ('process') is predominant, whereas a **noun** is that in which the sattva ('thing') is predominant. The 'process' is one that has, according to one interpretation, an early stage and a later stage and when such a 'process' is the dominant sense, a finite verb is used as in vrajati, 'walks', or pacati, 'cooks'.

However, this characterisation of noun / verb is inadequate as some processes may also have nominal forms. E.g., *He went for a walk*. Hence, Yāska proposed that when a process is referred to as a 'petrified' or 'configured' mass (*mūrta*) extending from start to finish, a verbal noun should be used, like *vrajyā*, a walk, or *pakti*, a cooking.

Yāska also gives a test for nouns, both concrete and abstract: nouns are words which can be indicated by the pronoun '*that'*.

The Ancient Greek equivalent for 'noun' was ónoma (ὄνομα), referred to by **Plato** in the Cratylus dialog, and later listed as one of the eight parts of speech in "*The Art of Grammar*", attributed to **Dionysius Thrax** (II century BC).

By **Dionysius Thrax**, *a noun* is a declinable part of speech, signifying something either concrete or abstract (concrete, as *stone*; abstract, as *education*); common or proper (common, as *man, horse*; proper, as *Socrates, Plato*). It has live accidents: p-enders, species, forms, numbers, and cases.

There are two species of nouns, the *primitive* and the *derivative*.

A *primitive* noun is one which is said according to original imposition, as γη (earth); a *derivative* noun is one which derives its origin from another noun, as γηγενής (earth-born).

There are three forms of nouns: ***simple, compound, and super-compound.*** Simple, as *Memnon*; compound, as *Agamemnon*; super-compound, as *Agamemnonides, Philippides.*

There are **three numbers**: *singular, dual, and plural*; singular, as *Ὅμηρος (Homer)*; dual, as *δύο Ὅμηροι (both Homers);* plural, as *Ὅμηροι (Homers)*, dual, as *καὶ τα δυο (both)*.

There are **five cases**: ***the right, the generic, the dative, the accusative, and the vocative.*** *The right case* is called also the *nominative* and *the direct*; *the*

generic, *the possessive, and the patrial; the dative, the injunctive*: while *the accusative* is named from *cause*, and the *vocative* is called *the allocutive*.

The term used in **Latin grammar** was «**nōmen**». All of these terms for «noun» were also words meaning **«name».** The English word «noun» is derived from the Latin term, through the Anglo-Norman noun. The most prominent philosophers and grammarians who studied the problem of the noun and other parts of speech were **Sextus Empiricus** ("*Against the Professors"*), and **Diogenes Laërtius** ("*Lives of the Philosophers"*).

On the whole, in ancient times, the **word classes** (like parts of speech) were partly defined by **the grammatical forms** that they take. In Sanskrit, Greek and Latin, for example, nouns were categorized by ***gender and inflected for case and number***. Since adjectives shared these three grammatical categories, ***adjectives were placed in the same class as nouns.***

Similarly, the Latin *nōmen* included both nouns (substantives) and adjectives, as originally did the English word *noun*, the two types being distinguished as *nouns substantive* and *nouns adjective* (or substantive nouns and adjective nouns, or short *substantives* and *adjectives*). The word nominal is now sometimes used to denote a class that includes both nouns and adjectives.

So, we can see, that **The Noun** was something more complicated and compound than nowadays.
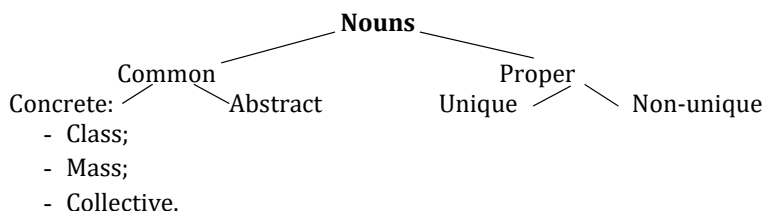
→ The Noun: Categories

Today, **the noun** is regarded as a part of speech that is semantically linked to thingness (in its most generalised meaning). In other words, the noun refers to the concept of substance.

Nowadays, the noun is traditionally considered to have the following categories:

1) type and place in the classification (see below);
2) number (**singular** – *a boy*, or **plural** – *boys*);
3) case (**common case** – *a cat / cats*, or **possessive case** – *cat's / cats'*);
4) gender (**masculine**, **feminine**, or **neuter gender**);
5) animateness / inanimateness (**animate** nouns denote living-beings, like *a dog*; **inanimate** nouns are lifeless things or ideas, like *a table* or *love*)

• THE NOUN: TYPE AND PLACE IN THE CLASSIFICATION

General classification of nouns

```
                          Nouns
                 Common                    Proper
      Concrete:          Abstract    Unique        Non-unique
           - Class;
           - Mass;
           - Collective.
```

So, traditionally, there are singled out **common** and **proper nouns**.

To **proper nouns** belong names of people, places and things, usually spelled with capital letters, e.g., *San Francisco, Sam, Sprite...*

Proper nouns fall into *unique*, like names of countries (Ukraine, Britain, etc), and *non-unique*, like personal names (*Peter, Mary*, etc).

Common nouns refer to classes of things and mean their particular examples, e.g. *a class, a fridge, an apple*...

Common nouns can be *concrete* and *abstract*. Whilst *concrete nouns* mean physical things that can be sensed – heard, felt, seen, touched, or tasted (*a girl, water, music*...), *abstract nouns* refer to notions, ideas, and things that cannot be perceived directly through the five senses (*advice, love, friendship...*).

Amongst concrete nouns, there are specified *class, mass* and *collective nouns.*

Class nouns are words used for representatives or units that can be singled out from a class. As a rule, they can have two forms – singular and plural. For instance, *a bench – benches, a pen – pens, a mouse – mice*...

Mass nouns represent something that cannot be counted and, thus, they have one form only. Here belong such words as *air, bread, hair*...

Collective nouns are names of groups of things, animals or people. Even when singular in form, they refer to a number of objects, like: *foliage, family, group, police, herd*...

• NUMBER OF NOUNS

Within the category of *number*, there can also be specified **countable** (*a girl, a sofa, a laptop...*) and **uncountable** nouns (*sand, hope, advice*...); **singularia tantum** (words having only a singular form, esp*.* non-count nouns, like *milk, chemistry, news*) and **pluralia tantum** nouns (words with a plural form only, without a singular form for referring to one object only, like *scissors, jeans, alms*, etc).

• Gender of Nouns

The category of *__gender__* is rather disputable when it comes to the English noun today since it has generally lost the grammatical gender, characteristic of, for instance, the German or the French noun, where the gender of the noun is conditioned not by the sex or perceived sexual characteristics of the object or subject in question, but by the tradition and historical development of the language and requires a certain type of inflection or agreement (German: *das Maedchen, der Tisch, die Frage*). Thus, having lost grammatical gender still in Middle English, the English noun has mostly natural gender nowadays. Lifeless things or concepts are understood as having neuter gender.

At the same time, there are gender-specific nouns, like *actor / chairman / bull / son / Tom* – masculine gender, *actress / chairwoman / cow / daughter / Jane* – feminine gender, *chairperson* – neuter gender (form), where the word itself and not the context prompts the gender and, thus, the pronoun used about the noun under consideration. Ships, vehicles, and countries can also be referred to with the help of feminine pronouns and will then be considered of feminine gender.

The existence of the gender-specific nouns enumerated above **Benjamin Whorf** and other linguists sometimes see as a proof of grammatical gender still existing as a category of the noun since the sex of the referent is clear devoid context. However, **Robert A. Hall Jr.** argues about such nouns having only natural gender, depending on the referent. So, if Jane or Alice is a male individual, it won't be a mistake to use the pronoun "*he*" about them.

• The Verb

The verb is a part of speech semantically referring to the existence of a substance in time. Traditionally, the verb has the following **categories**:

1) mood (indicative, imperative, or subjunctive/oblique moods);
2) tense (present simple, past simple, future simple, present continuous, past continuous, future continuous, present perfect…);
3) aspect (common aspect or continuous aspect);
4) voice (active voice or passive voice);
5) person (first, second, or third person);
6) number (singular or plural).

• Mood

There are three **moods** in English:

- **Indicative mood** states facts that do not contradict the reality. It's represented by different tense-aspect forms of the verbs. E.g., *The boy __went__ home.*;

- *Imperative mood* shows commands, requests, and directions. E.g., <u>*Go home, boy!*</u>;
- *Subjunctive, or oblique moods* describes desires, wishes and processes contradicting the reality. E.g., *If I <u>were</u> you, I <u>would go</u> home.*

• TENSE

Tense is the form of the verb that shows the time of the action. There are four groups of tenses – *Simple (Indefinite), Continuous (or Progressive), Perfect, and Perfect Continuous (Perfect Progressive)* tenses. Each of them can be used in three time references – *present, past*, and *future*. The fourth time-reference, singled out by scholars, is "*future-in-the-past*" with its traditional marker "would".

E.g., *The children <u>came</u> home.* – "*Came*" is the Past Simple tense of the verb *"to come".*

<u>*Has*</u> *Mary <u>arrived</u> home yet?* – "*Has arrived*" is the Present Perfect tense of the verb *"to arrive".*

• ASPECT

There are two **aspects** of the verb – *common* (showing actions as facts) and *continuous* (determining processes, actions in progress).

E.g., *Boris <u>is reading</u> a book.* – "*Is reading*" is the continuous aspect of the verb *"to read".*

We<u>'ve lived</u> here since last year. – "*Have lived*" is the common aspect of the verb *"to live".*

• VOICE

Depending on whether the subject is the doer or the receiver of the action, *the active* or *the passive voice* is singled out, respectively.

E.g., *I <u>read</u> books every day.* – The verb "*read*" is in the active voice.

Books <u>are read</u> every day. – The verb "*are read*" is in the passive voice.

• NUMBER AND PERSON OF THE VERB

The number and the person of the verbs can only be specified for the verbs in the present tenses or forms containing the verb "*to be*".

E.g., *I am a student.* – *"Am"* is the 1st person singular.

The ladies were dancing. – *"Were dancing"* is a plural form of the verb *"to dance".*

• Modal Verbs

Modal verbs can have the category of mood, but traditionally only their forms are described – present (*can, may, shall*…) or past (*could, might, should*…). Some grammars even term them defective as they do not boast the other categories.

● The Pronoun

The pronoun is a part of speech used to substitute for any nominal part of speech without specifying it. The pronoun can be described through the following categories:

1) class:
   - **personal** pronouns: *I, you, he, she, it, we, they;*
   - **possessive** pronouns: *your, yours, my, mine, her, hers, his, its, our, ours, their, theirs;*
   - **reciprocal** pronouns: *each other, one another*;
   - **reflexive & emphatic** pronouns: *myself, yourself, yourselves, himself, herself, itself, ourselves, themselves*;
   - **indefinite** pronouns: *someone, anyone, all, whole, both, nobody*…;
   - **demonstrative** pronouns: *this – these; that – those; such, the same;*
   - **relative & conjunctive** pronouns: *who; that; which…;*
   - **interrogative** pronouns: *Who? What? Which? Whose?*

2) person – for personal, possessive, reflexive and emphatic pronouns only:
   - **first person** – *I, we, myself, ourselves;*
   - **second person** – *you, yourself, yourselves*;
   - **third person** – *he, she, it, they, herself, himself, itself, themselves*)

3) number – for personal, possessive, reflexive and emphatic, and demonstrative pronouns only as well as the indefinite pronoun *other*:
   - **singular** – *I, my, mine, myself; this…; other*;
   - **plural** – *we, our, ours, ourselves; these…*; *others*;

4) gender – for personal, possessive, reflexive and emphatic pronouns only:
   - **masculine gender** – *he, him, his, himself*;
   - **feminine gender** – *she, her, hers, herself*;
   - **neutral gender** – *it, its, itself*;

5) case:
• for personal pronouns and the pronoun «who» only:
   - **nominative case** – *I, you, we, he, she, it, they; who*;
   - **objective case** – *me, you, us, him, her, it, them; whom*;

- for indefinite and reciprocal pronouns only:
  - **common case** – *somebody, anybody, nobody, no one, someone, anyone, everybody, everyone, one, another, other; each other, one another;*
  - **possessive case** – *somebody's, anybody's, nobody's, no one's, someone's, anyone's, everybody's, everyone's, one's, another's, other's; each other's, one another's;*

6) form – for possessive pronouns only:
  - **absolute form**, functioning without a proceeding noun: *mine, yours, hers, ours, theirs…: The book is <u>mine</u>.*
  - **conjoint form**, asking for a noun to follow, e.g. *my, your, her, his, our, their…: It is <u>my</u> book.*

• Indefinite, Defining, & Negative Pronouns

"Indefinite pronouns" is an umbrella term used for three groups of pronouns, which may also be singled out as separate classes of pronouns. Here belong:

1) indefinite pronouns proper: *some, somebody, something, someone; any, anybody, anything, anyone, one;*
2) negative pronouns: *no, none, nobody, nothing, no one, neither;*
3) defining pronouns: *each, every, all, either, everybody, everyone, everything, both, another, (the) other(s).*

• Possessive Pronouns & Possessive Adjectives

Some grammar books use two different terms for the absolute and conjoint forms of possessive pronouns. In that case, the conjoint form of what we know as possessive pronouns is supposed to be called **possessive adjectives** as they require nouns used after them, like: *my, your, her, its, our, their.* E.g., *<u>My dog is in the yard.</u>*

The absolute form, functioning without nouns, e.g., *mine, yours, hers, ours, theirs (The dog in the yard is <u>mine</u>.)*, is termed **possessive pronouns** within such approach.

The pronoun *his* belongs to both possessive adjectives and possessive pronouns as it can go with or without a noun.

• 'You': Singular or Plural?

The status of the personal pronoun "*you*" in English may at times pose a problem for learners who are not native English speakers, especially if their mother tongue has two forms of the second person pronoun – the non-official

friendly form used between pals or people of the same social status (German "*du*", or Ukrainian "*mu*"), and the official form employed with those of a higher social rank or for the sake of politeness (German "*Sie*", or Ukrainian "*Bu*"). The same concerns the problem with the number. So, is "*you*" singular or plural, respectful or not?

To answer this question, it's necessary to look back to the history of the English language, where there existed one more second person pronoun – "*thou*" [ðaʊ] (changed for "*thee*" in the objective case, and having the possessive form "*thy/thine*" and the reflexive form "*thyself*"), which still crops up in addresses to God in religious texts today and can sometimes be heard in Northern England and in Scotland. The form "*thou*" was the singular form of the second person pronoun. It was used to talk about a singular individual in Old English in contrast to "*ye*" (modern "*you*"), addressing several people. The verbs used with "*thou*" were traditionally associated with the ending "*-(e) st*", e.g. *Thou goest (you go); thou art (you are)….* In fact, it is from "*thou*" that the friendly German "*du*" originates (C.f. German: *du hast* – Old English: *thou hast*).

Still, in Middle English, after the Norman Conquest of 1066 and following the traditions of the French language, where plural pronouns were used for addressing the high and mighty, the plural form "*ye*" began to be used as an official form of address, first to those of a higher rank and later – even between people of the same social standing. "*Thou*", in contrast, was employed in conversations with those of a lower position or background, and starting from XIV century, expressed familiarity or contempt. It was gradually ousted by the plural form "*you*" altogether in XVII century. The peculiarities of the use of "*thou*" and "*you*" can be traced in Shakespeare's plays.

<u>Samuel Johnson</u> (one of the first and best lexicographers) wrote in "*A Grammar of the English Tongue*": "*in the language of ceremony … the second person plural is used for the second person singular*", suggesting that *"you"* could be used for the same grammatical person as "*thou*" in formal contexts.

In modern English, the second-person pronoun "*you*" encompasses both the singular and the plural meanings, depending on the context, though always being plural in form and asking for the plural verb. Thus, in a sentence like "*Bobby, you know the answer*", "*you*" is a second-person pronoun plural in form, singular in meaning. In a sentence "*You, guys, follow the guide and we'll wait for Michael*", "*you*" is a second-person pronoun plural in both form and meaning.

Terming the pronoun "*you*" as simply singular is both logically and grammatically inconsistent and incorrect, showing a complete ignorance of the language history and modern English studies.

It's interesting that in some language variants, like Southern United States and Australian English, the pronouns "*y'all*" ("*you all*") and "*yous*" is sometimes employed as a special additional plural form of the already plural "*you*" when addressing several interlocutors.

• Singular 'They'

Today, it's considered politically correct to use the pronoun "*they*" about one individual if we do not know the sex/gender of the person. Thus, in tag-questions to the statement with -one and -body indefinite pronouns, the pro-noun "*they*" is necessary. E.g., **Nobody** *knows the answer, do* **they**?

In situations discussing a person whose gender identity is unknown, "*they*" or "*he or she*" can be used. E.g., *The author of the story is anonymous. In Chapter 1,* **they** *write about* **their** *difficult relations with their family* (or: *In Chapter 1,* **he or she** *writes about* **his or her** *difficult relations with* **his or her** *family*.).

Transgender, non-binary and genderqueer people can also choose "*they/them*" as their personal gender pronoun or as one of them ("*they/he*" or "*she/they*"), which should be respected if considered preferable and appropriate by the individual in question.

All the usage of the traditionally plural pronoun "*they*" discussed above is called '**singular they'** (a phenomenon which is traced back to as far as XIV century). Naturally, the pronoun always remains plural in form and becomes singular in meaning only – a fact which can be added to the analysis of such sentences or omitted.

E.g., *Somebody has broken my cup, haven't* **they**? – "*They*" is a personal pro-noun, third person plural (*singular in meaning).

• Neopronouns (LGBTQ+ Pronouns)

Some transgender, non-binary and genderqueer people feel that their gen-der identity is better reflected by other pronouns, beyond the traditional set of third-person pronouns "*he*", "*she*", "*they*" and prefer neopronouns to be used about them.

A reference to a person with "*ze*" (personal pronoun, third-person, nomi-native case), "*hir*" (personal pronoun, third-person, objective case), "*hir(s)*" or "*zir(s)*" (possessive pronoun, third-person) and "*hirself*" or "*zirself*" (reflexive and emphatic pronoun, third-person) is made when their gender identity is unclear or when they are neither male, nor female.

All neopronouns (a term derived in the 2010s) are also understood as third-person pronouns, created to serve as pronouns and alluding to traditional pro-

nouns (the gender-neutral neopronouns "*ze/hir* or *zir*", "*ey/em*") or stemming from other words (the gender-neutral neopronoun "*fae/faer*", coming from the word "*faerie*").

The Oxford English Dictionary added "*ze*" in 2018 and "*hir*" and "*zir*" in 2019.

- ## The Adjective

The adjective is a part of speech functioning as a qualifier of any nominal part of speech. The adjective has two main categories:

1) type:
   - **relative**, showing a constant quality of the object/subject through its relation to other objects, subjects, qualities, or states and having no degrees of comparison, like: *wooden, American, hourly…;*
   - **qualitative,** showing qualities that are less constant and often mark the size, form, position, physical/physiological or intellectual properties, character traits, etc, like: *big, rough, straight, tall, narrow, clever, calm…*

2) degree of comparison – for qualitative adjectives only:
   - **positive degree of comparison:** *good, kind, beautiful*;
   - **comparative degree of comparison:** *better, kinder, more beautiful*;
   - **superlative degree of comparison:** *best, kindest, most beautiful*.

• Relative or Qualitative?

Relative adjectives describe something/somebody through its/their relation to some other object, quality, or concept, usually a material (*wooden*), place (*Spanish*), time (*annual*), or action (*preparatory*). When trying to distinguish the type of the adjective, it will be handy to keep it in mind that relative adjectives are usually <u>derivative</u>, making a reference back to the concept actualised by the basic noun, e.g., *England – English, wool – woollen…*

Typical suffixes relative adjectives are usually built up with include, but are not limited to: *-an* (*America – American*), *-en* (*silk – silken*), *-ist* (*capital – capitalist*), *-ic* (*electricity - electric*), *-ical* (*electricity – electrical*).

Traditionally, relative adjectives cannot form adverbs with the help of the suffix *-ly.*

Relative adjectives do not have degrees of comparison.

Qualitative adjectives express qualities not through their relations, but directly, showing shape, size, colour, physical/physiological or intellectual properties, or giving a general impression: *big, hard, hot, white, weak, courageous, handsome, important,* etc.

Typical suffixes qualitative adjectives are associated with are: **-ful** (*colour-ful*), **-ous** (*famous*), **-able/-ible** (*comfortable*), -**less** (*colourless*), **-ent/-ant** (*important*), **-ish** (*stylish*), **-y(-ie)** (*fuzzy*).

In contrast to relative adjectives, qualitative adjectives often form adverbs by adding **-ly**, e.g., *cleverly, comfortably, colourfully*…

Usually, qualitative adjectives have degrees of comparison, but there are exceptions, like: *chief, main, principal, incurable*, and adjectives in **-ish**, e.g., *pinkish, reddish*, etc.

Though in general, adjectives are either relative or qualitative by their nature, in many cases their type can change, depending on the context.

C.f. *Peter is a typical <u>American</u> cowboy,* (*American* – a relative adjective).

There is nothing more <u>American</u> than apple pie, (*American* – a relative adjec-tive, functioning as a qualitative adjective in the sentence and, thus, boasting a comparative degree of comparison).

Maggie's got a <u>woolly</u> sweater (*woolly = woollen*, a relative adjective).

The article seemed a <u>woolly</u> topic to Maggie (*woolly = unclear*, a qualitative adjective).

• SUBSTANTIVISED ADJECTIVES

Substantivization is the process by which words from other parts of speech (usually, adjectives, adverbs, participles, infinitives, or gerunds) acquire noun-like properties and function as nouns in a sentence. When the adjective acquires the characteristics of a noun and gets used as a noun, taking the article or having the plural number or the possessive case, it is supposed to be **substantivized**, e.g. *the rich, the blind, valuables, a giant*, etc.

If the adjective boasts all the features of a noun, it's considered ***wholly substantivized***, like: *greens, a native, sweets, a German, a Roman*…

If the adjective can be used as a noun with the definite article only and shows a class of people or things, or an abstract notion, it's seen as ***partially substantivized***, like: *the English, the French, the singular, the homeless, the lame, the good…*

• The Adverb

The adverb is a part of speech modifying the verb, the adjective, another adverb, or the sentence as a whole. The adverb has two categories:

1) type:
   - adverbs of **time**: *today, now, then, later, soon, yesterday*…;
   - adverbs of **frequency**: *always, regularly, normally, often*…;
   - adverbs of **place**: *everywhere, here, outdoors, downstairs, underground*…;
   - adverbs of **manner**: *brightly, sharply, angrily, shyly, sideways, clockwise*…;

- adverbs of **degree and measure**: *extremely, greatly, strongly, slightly, entirely, totally, almost, very, enough, rather…*;
- adverbs of **viewpoint**: *probably, hopefully, maybe, perhaps…*;
- adverbs of **emphasis** (often **intensifying** adverbs): *really, just, certainly, too, right, indeed…*;
- **connective** adverbs: *firstly, besides, though, further…;*
- **interrogative** adverbs (*Where? When? Why? How?*);
- **relative** adverbs (*where, when, why, how…*);
- **conjunctive** adverbs (often showing contrast) (*therefore, however, moreover, nevertheless, furthermore…*);
- adverbs of **certainty** (*surely, probably, certainly…*);
- adverbs of **purpose** (*consequently, since, thus, hence…*).

2) degree of comparison – for adverbs of manner only:
- **positive degree of comparison:** *well, quickly…*;
- **comparative degree of comparison:** *better, quicker / more quickly…*;
- **superlative degree of comparison:** *best, quickest / most quickly….*

- **The Numeral**

The numeral is a part of speech associated with specifying the number or the order of objects. Numerals boast one category only – their type. There are:
- **cardinal** numerals, used for giving numbers or defining quantity: *one, two, three, five, twenty…*
- **ordinal** numerals, showing order: *first, second, third, fifth, twentieth…*

Questions for Discussion

1. Does the notion of the Part of Speech reflect the norm?
2. What is the basic difference between the Pronoun and the Noun?
3. What Parts of Speech are common to all national languages in the world?
4. Read up on the history of studying the other parts of speech. What has changed in their understanding through history?
5. Analyse the parts of speech and their categories in the sentences below:
   1) *A black cat was quickly chasing five little mice in the darkest corner of the basement.*
   2) *Love gives me wings, and hope is my air. That is the first law of my life.*
   3) *Do you know Tom's best friend from the States? – Oh, it's Bob! He has just lent us fifty dollars. – What a kind soul!*
   4) *The strict boss ordered that silence be kept and nobody said a word.*
   5) *The blind usually walk with canes.*

4.4. THE CATEGORY OF STATE

- ### The Category of State: Scientific Debating

As mentioned above, the term "category of state" was introduced in 1948 by **B. A. Ilyish** in his *«Theoretical grammar of the English language»* as a newly found part of speech. He named this additional part of speech «*the category of state*», or «*ad-link, stative*» (after B. Khaimovich). In this unit, we'll consider this problem in more detail.

The idea of the category of state itself had been taken as following from H. Sweet's description of the part of speech and saw the world in the conversation with the famous academician **L.V. Shcherba** and **V.V. Vinogradov**.

L. Shcherba

Thus, a hypothesis was suggested: since «parts of speech are groups of words having the same *meaning*, *form* and *function*», there exists a special group of words in English:

1. They all have the prefix "***a-***": *afraid, aloof, awake*;
2. They have no degrees of comparison – <u>form</u>;
3. They are used predicatively – <u>function</u>;
4. They denote passing states – <u>meaning</u>.

- ### The Category of State: A.K. Korsakov's Counter Arguments

Having collected a sufficient quantity of examples of actual material, **A.K. Korsakov** from Odesa Mechnikov National University was the first to speak against the substantive treated as a separate part of speech, and, despite the great authority and influence of B.A. Ilyish in the academic circles, he had enough courage to criticise the validity of the category of state in public.

On his part, B.A. Ilyish was scientifically honest and academically open-minded. He agreed with A.K. Korsakov's arguments and admitted himself being in the wrong.

Before we move on…

Give your point of view on the problems below. Give reasons to support your opinion.

> Can you guess the counter arguments to the idea of the category of state understood as a separate part of speech?
>
> What do you personally think about this idea?

So, here below are **the counter arguments** formulated by A.K. Korsakov.
- Words with the prefix «***a-***» often do not denote any states whatsoever, but are ***adverbs***, ***prepositions*** and even ***nouns*** and ***verbs***:
    - *I lit my pipe <u>afresh</u>* (= *again* → adverb).
    - *Our job is to treat everybody <u>alike</u>* (= *in the same way* → adverb).
    - *His 15-floor room <u>atop</u> the hotel was a tiny affair* (= *on the top* → noun + preposition).
    - *A life-ring was thrown to him from <u>above</u>* (noun).
    - *He didn't <u>awake</u> till dark* (verb).

- Often states expressed by such words are not passing, but ***permanent***:
    - *All modern houses are <u>alike</u>.*

- If necessary, such words, like adjectives and adverbs, do have ***degrees of comparison***:
    - *I was <u>more afraid</u> than him.*
    - *He felt <u>more ashamed</u> afterwards.*
    - *She was <u>the most aloof</u> of women.*

- They are often used ***attributively***:
    - *<u>Amazed</u> looks.*
    - *<u>Alive</u> hands.*
    - *He was a proud <u>aloof</u> man.*
    - *His <u>amazed</u> stare.*

<u>Conclusion:</u>
The carried out analysis of the actual material proves that there is **no** such part of speech as «the category of state» or «the stative». The words analysed can refer to the already known parts of speech.

4.5. THE "STONE WALL" PROBLEM

The "**Stone Wall" Problem** is the problem of defining the first element in syntactic phrases (collocations) consisting of two nouns or words, morphologically looking like nouns, e.g. *stone wall, cannon ball,* or *rose garden.*

- **The Stone Wall Problem: Scientific Debating**

Noun pre-modifiers of other nouns often become so closely ***fused together*** with what they modify that it is difficult to say whether the result is a <u>compound</u> or a <u>syntactically free phrase</u>. Even if we agree that these are phrases and not words, the status of the first element remains to be determined. Is it a **noun** used as an attribute or is it to be treated as an **adjective**?
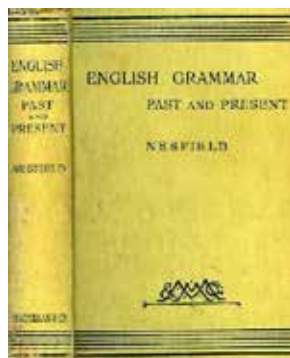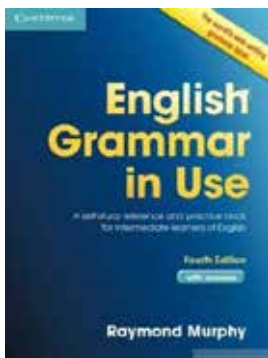
It is customary to begin teaching grammar by dividing words into certain classes, generally called parts of speech. The traditional definitions found in **J. Nesfield's** Grammar ("*English Grammar Past and Present",* 1908) runs: «*<u>A Noun</u> is a word used for naming a person or a thing»; «<u>An Adjective</u> is a word used to qualify a noun».*

If we take such word collocations as "*evening school", "boy messenger", "house builder",* what is the first element of their "stone wall" structure? The traditional definition given by J. Nesfield gives no answer*.*
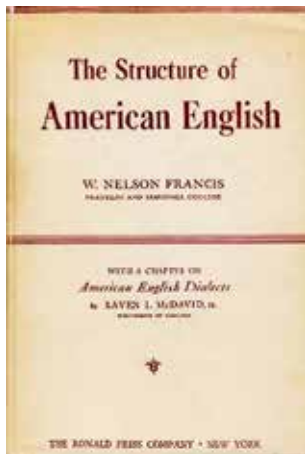
W. Nelson Francis

W. Nelson Francis in his book «*The Structure of American English*» (1958) noted that «*it is often not possible to classify an English word when we use or hear it in isolation. What it actually means is that a given form may be common to two or more words which are members of different parts of speech*».
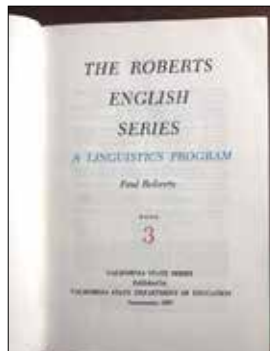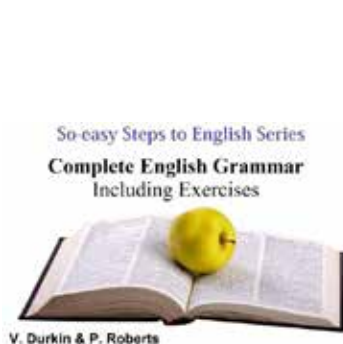
Paul Roberts in his book «*The Relation of Linguistics to the Teaching of English*» (1964) wrote the following: «*We must give up hope of finding definition for such concepts as noun, adjective, subject*». He gives the following argumentation for it: «*Linguistics defines a **noun** as a word that can fill the blank in The __ was maddening, or a noun is a word which takes plural*».

However, **neither** criteria seem to work out*!*

There may be words that easily fill the gap in the test frame, but do not belong to nouns, like *the blue, the very being, etc.* If a **noun** is a word that may

form *plural,* then «*chaos*» cannot be treated as a noun and «*earth*» is not a noun either.

If **adjectives** are words which form their degrees of comparison with the help of endings (-*er, -est*), then *«beautiful», «hopeful»* etc. are not adjectives.

Thus, as we see, P. Roberts' approach appears to be of no help when it comes to the "stone wall" problem either.

Before we move on...

Give your point of view on the problems below. Give reasons to support your opinion.

> So, how should such collocations as ***boy messenger, stone wall,*** or *literature course* be linguistically treated in English?

There are the **following approaches** to such collocations known in linguistics.
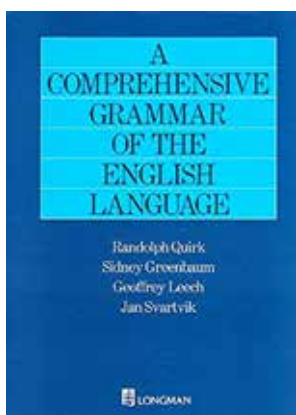
Lord Randolph Quirk,
British linguist & life peer

- **R. Quirk** and his co-authors in their fundamental "*Grammar of Contemporary English"* emphasise the fact that such words become so closely connected that they should be regarded as ***compounds***. Likewise,

Alexander Smirnitskiy
(Oleksandr Smirnytskyi)

G.G. Pocheptsov

A.I. Smirnitsky treats them as <u>***composite words***</u> (c.f. ***a blackboard, a bumble bee, a sunflower***) which spontaneously spring up and disappear.

- English lexicologists believe that the sentence elements should be considered **adjectives** or **nouns** depending on their position.
- **B. A. Ilyish** claimed them to be **nouns** since taken in isolation, such words as a *boy* (in *boy messenger*) or *stone* (in *stone wall*) can form their plural or possessive case like any other nouns.
- Taking the above given reasons into consideration, **G. Potcheptsov** (Kyiv National Linguistic University) and **A. Shubin** introduced a new, intermediate part of speech bordering on the noun and adjective and named it **"the attributive noun"** or **"the noun attribute".**

- **The Stone Wall Problem: Critical Analysis of Viewpoints**

Now let's analyse every point of view mentioned. According to them, the first element in "*stone wall*" is to be treated as:

- **Composite word**

A word as it is forms a solid unit used to name a certain concept. Hence, new words name new concepts. E.g., "***a blackboard***" is not obligatory a black thing, but a flat surface used for writing in a classroom. Words cannot appear or disappear out of the blue, with only one part of them used occasionally. Still, there exist: a ***boy*** *messenger*, a ***girl*** *messenger*, an ***office*** *messenger, etc.* Are they all new words? They <u>do not belong</u> to neologisms since they are easy to understand and already known.

More than that, the first element of the analysed structure can sometimes take <u>the possessive case</u>, c.f. **«*children* *language*»** and «***children's*** *language*», **«*Friday* *afternoon*»** and «***Friday's*** *afternoon*».

H. Marchand, a German linguist, also points out that the " '*stone* '*wall*" is a two-stressed combination, and the two-stressed pattern shows the lack of closeness in the semantic relationship between the two components, which is typical of compound words.

H. Marchand

Thus, this approach seems to be lacking argument.

• <u>An Adjective</u>

Adjectives have ***no*** possessive case (which, as mentioned above, some words from the analysed group can take), but many of them (qualitative adjectives) take degrees of comparison. However, it is impossible to say *«a **more** stone wall» or «a ston**er** wall»* in normal English. And lastly, basing upon the philosophic law of cognition, *"we must throw away the accidental and single out only the essential"*, so we cannot but mention that such uses as «*stone wall*» and «*boy messenger*» are far less frequent for the words "*stone", "boy*" and words alike than cases where the first element of the structure functions as a traditional noun. Hence, the first word in such structures as "*a stone wall"* cannot be analysed as an adjective.

• <u>A noun and a noun attribute</u>

The noun attribute and the noun are very close to each other. The only item to dispute here is whether one should single out an attributive noun as a special part of speech.

To solve this problem, it's necessary to turn to the dichotomy of language and speech for the answer.

4.6. LANGUAGE AND SPEECH

People have long recognized the force and significance of **language,** and ***naming*** has always been treated as its <u>dominant feature</u>. The biblical account, representing ancient Jewish beliefs of Adam's naming the creatures on the earth under God's guidance is one of such examples:

*"So out of the ground the Lord God formed every beast of the field and every bird of the air, and brought them to the man to see **what he would call them**; and whatever the man called every living creature, that was its name"*

(Genesis 2:19).

Hence, several independent traditions ascribe a divine or at least a super-natural origin to language or to the language of a particular community. In the debate on the nature and origin of language, given in **Plato**'s Socratic dialogue "*Cratylus*", **Socrates** is made to speak of the gods as those responsible for first fixing the names of things in a proper way.

The later biblical tradition of the ***Tower of Babel*** (Genesis 11:1–9) exemplifies three aspects of early thought about language: (1) divine interest in and control over its use and development; (2) **a recognition of the power it gives to humans in relation to their environment and its social character;** and (3) an explanation of linguistic diversity. We are interested in the second aspect of language appliance since it manifests its significance for organising individual communication.

However, in everyday life there is hardly a necessity to distinguish between language and speech. Many of us use these terms synonymously, without paying attention to their differentiations.

The first person who dwelt on the distinction between language and speech was **Ferdinand de Saussure** (1857–1913) whose scientific views are recognized as being on the joint-point of different linguistic trends and schools.

F. de Saussure

Ferdinand de Saussure supported the ideas of ***psychological*** and ***social*** linguistics. A number of Saussure's ideas were developed by French and American ***structuralists***, and gave a push to the development of ***linguosemiotics***. Though his works are not numerous, being twenty one years of age, the scientist published his work «*About the primary system of vowels in Indo-European languages*» which influenced the whole study of Indo-European vocalism greatly.
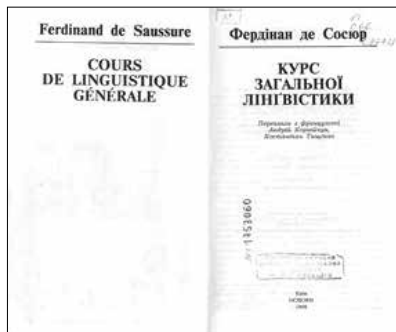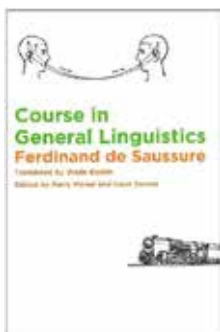

He presented lectures on linguistics first in Paris and then in Geneva. Surprising may be the fact that F. de Saussure didn't publish his ideas. Instead, after his death two of his followers, the most talented scholars ***Albert Sechehaye*** [se.ʃə.ɛ] and ***Ch.Bally***, whose names make French linguistics proud, compiled a book «*A Course in General Linguistics*» (*«Cours de linguistique générale»*), which was based upon the students' notes of Saussure's lectures. This book made F. de Saussure known all over the world.

The genius of this man let him notice and describe the contradictory nature of linguistic investigation. He foresaw ***the law of unity of the opposites,*** which
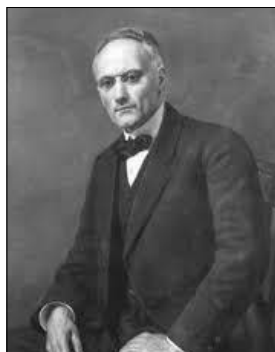
Albert Sechehaye   ***Charles Bally***

was further on developed by dialectic philosophy, and as one of the main opposites in linguistic contradictions he saw **the antinomy of language and speech**.

Ferdinand de Saussure singled out <u>**five distinctions between speech and language.**</u>

1. *Language is social, speech is individual.*
2. *Language is systematic, speech is asystematic.*
3. *Language is potential, speech is realized.*
4. *Language is diachronic, speech is synchronic.*
5. *Language is the essential, speech is a phenomenon.*

Language lives in documents of the community and the community's oral speech. Speech of an individual is acquired by him/her personally and dies together with that individual. Thus, language exists in the brains of native speakers and gets realized in speech. For that reason, nowadays, the Latin language is considered dead because, though still existing in texts, it does not exist in the minds of people.

In English, the surface look at **a word taken by itself** and its dictionary form cannot be a reliable criterion of this word's belonging to a particular part of speech. In the list of the following words: *black, ready, mad, tennis, radio, maybe* the first three will most commonly be referred to as **adjectives**, the next two as **nouns** and the last one as a **modal word**. In the sentences below, however, they function on the <u>level of speech</u> as different parts of speech. Still, taken on the <u>level of the language</u>, they should be linguistically treated in accordance with their **essential** and ***not*** accidental uses in the given language.

Let's analyse the highlighted words in the aspect of their morphological belonging on the levels of speech and language, respectively.

1. <u>***Black***</u> *suited her* (a noun on the level of speech and an adjective on the level of language).
2. *He got over his* <u>***mad***</u> *soon enough* (a noun on the level of speech and an adjective on the level of language).
3. *The flight* ***was*** <u>***readying***</u> *for takeoff* (a verb on the level of speech and an adjective on the level of language).

Do the same operation with the rest of the words!
If you feel lost, turn the book upside down and read the answers.

I will **radio** you from there.
Ken is **tennising** with him.

In *speech*, words and word sequences can often be treated as certain parts of speech, **not** being such on the level of *language*. For example: *There was silence at table except the «pass me's»*. On the level of speech, *pass me's* is treated as a noun. Still, on the level of language, it's undoubtedly a combination of a verb and a pronoun.

- **The Stone Wall Problem through the Language – Speech Dichotomy**
  - Taking a second look at the "stone wall problem" after studying the language – speech dichotomy, we can make certain new observations:
  - The first element of the following collocations has typical noun-suffixes *(-ance, -ist, -ment, -tion, -ion): entrance exams, girlhood friends, administration building, engagement ring, departure time;*
  - The pre-positional element can go in the possessive case: *the child's speech, children's language, the men's washroom, a dentist's chair.*
  - The pre-positional element can be modified by an adjective or a numeral: *the English literature course, a long distance call, her mother's story, a first class passenger, three star brandies, after dinner coffee;*
  - Transformation is possible: *a lovely sea view → a lovely view over the sea; bus ride → a ride in a bus.*
  - If we compare**:**
    Peace lovers ≠ *peaceful lovers;*
    wood-stove ≠ *wooden stove;*
    blood door (*door to the room where blood is taken***) ≠ *bloody door*

Conclusion:

Quite ironically, **parts of speech** are words on the ***level of language***, though we call them parts of *speech*.

A word is a **particular part of speech** only if it preserves its referential content, and is linguistically treated so in all its patterns of uses. The linguistic treatment of the noun «*boy*» is usually different from its treatment in the sentences.

For example: *Two girls are talking, «Oh, **boy**, its wonderful!»* (an interjection).

In such cases, «*boy*» can be used as a **noun** and the interjection should be called a **lexeme**.

In speech, however, words and word sequences can be treated as certain **parts of speech, not** being such on the *level of language.*
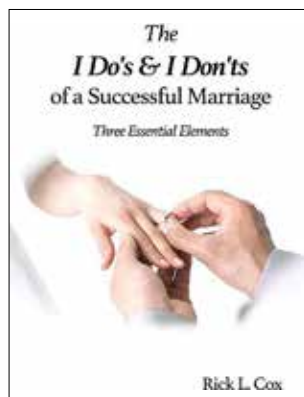
A book cover

For example: *The I Do's & I Don'ts of a Successful Marriage.* On the level of speech, *I Do's & I Don'ts* are treated as a noun. But on the level of language, it's a combination of a pronoun and a verb.

Questions for Discussion

Analyse the following words as to their belonging to different parts of speech and on the levels of language and speech:
1. *I went back to **where** Johnson was sitting*
2. *I'm looking forward to **being** alone*
3. *I'm tired of your constant **why's**.*

4.7. SYSTEM OF PARTS OF SPEECH AS SINGLED OUT BY PROF. KORSAKOV

The law of unity of form and content presupposes that ***parts of speech*** are sets of words having the same **essential form** and **content** characteristics. In other words, parts of speech are specific concepts that people have about groups of words, stocked together in minds of native speakers of a given language.

In accordance with **reflection theory,** developed by **John Locke,** human knowledge about the world reflects the 'real world' around. Thus, people have ideas of the world that resemble (or reflect) the objects that give rise to them, and certain concepts appear in the brain as a result of the objective world reflected in the minds of native speakers and transformed by their mentality.

In the course of evolution, every national ethnos has worked out a number of concepts or images about the surrounding world. It's undeniable that concepts are products of the brain, and the brain is the highest *objective matter* since it does not only exist in the objective reality, but is also able to generate abstract ideal notions.

Human cognition, in its turn, represents the highest level of reflection. The latter is a universal property characteristic of all animate objects in the objective world, including animals and plants due to their reactions to given stimuli.
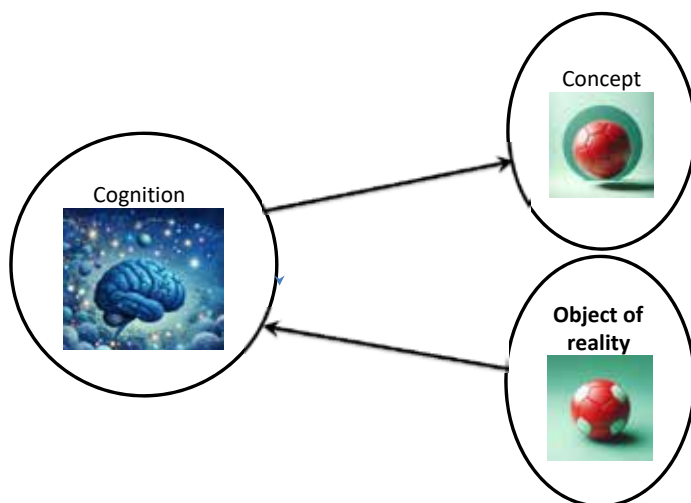
As illustrates the picture above, our cognition reflects the object of reality not as an ideal iconic picture, but in a specifically transformed way depending on the angle of vision of the person or ethnos and their world picture.

On the one hand, it is known in philosophy that the surrounding world is a totality of **processes.** On the other hand, the world is seen as **moving matter.** In other words, it can be deduced that a process is a particular case of moving matter. Hence, a process encompasses two components, matter and movement, i.e.:

"*a process = matter + movement*".

At the same time, in philosophy, **matter** can be represented as a totality of different phenomena which differ from each other by their properties.

Philosophically, **movement** is seen in relationship between different substances, or phenomena. As stated by Professor **A.I. Uyomov**, the basic elementary components of the objective world are: **substances, properties and relationships**.

Thus, the surrounding world can be represented by substances with certain properties coming into certain relationships with each other. They are reflected in the collective cognition of a certain language-speaking communities as specific concepts for substances, properties and relationships. They are codified in the language by special groups of words referring to *substances, properties and relationships.*

THE OBJECTIVE WORLD

↓

Concepts of the Objective World

↓

Signs for the Concepts of the Objective World in the Language
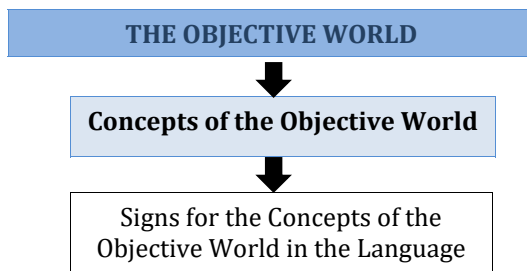
As was mentioned above, the reflections of the objective world ***are not direct***, but **transformed through the prism of human cognition**.

SUBSTANCES	PROPERTIES	RELATIONSHIPS
↓	↓	↓
Concepts of Substances	Concepts of Properties	Concepts of Relationships
↓	↓	↓
Language signs for substances	Language signs for properties	Language signs for relationships

Since language shapes our minds, **the inventory and categories of parts of speech** are different with different nations, though parts of speech themselves belong to grammatical universals and, generally speaking, more or less coincide in different languages owing to the fact that all humans live on the same planet, surrounded by similar reality, influencing the formation of concepts in human minds.

Thus, Professor **A.K. Korsakov** suggested the following *system of parts of speech* in English:

1. **THE SUBSTANTIVE** that represents concepts of <u>substances</u> and falls into two sub-types: ***nouns (ball, girl, dog...)*** and ***noun-pronouns (I, mine, yours, anybody, something...); –*** **[substances];**
2. **THE VERB;**
3. **THE QUALIFIER;**   [**properties**];
4. **THE ARTICLE;**

THE VERB is associated with movement, and movement, after **Aristotle**, is the basic attribute of matter. Hence, the verb corresponds to concepts of <u>properties</u> as does the qualifier, and the article.

Within **THE QUALIFIER**, such parts of speech as ***adjectives** (small, beautiful, British…)*, ***numerals** (one, first, five, tenth…)*, ***adverbs** (kindly, loudly, already…)*, and ***adjective-pronouns** (my, many, some…)* are distinguished.

THE ARTICLE, in its turn, qualifies the noun as it reflects different degrees of its abstraction.

> ***Language** is a basic means of communication* (the highest degree of abstraction of the noun 'language').
> ***A language** is a system of communication which consists of a set of sounds and written symbols which are used by the people of a particular country or region for talking or writing* (Collins Dictionary). ('A language' presupposes any language).
> ***The language** we speak today differs from the language people used twenty years ago.* (A particular, "this" or "that" language is meant by 'the language'; the degree of abstraction is the lowest).

5. **THE PREPOSITION;**
6. **THE CONJUNCTION;**   [**relationships**];
7. **WORDS OF AFFIRMATION AND NEGATION;**

PREPOSITIONS *(under, over, to…)* show relations between different objects in space and with one another.

CONJUNCTIONS *(and, after, while…)* demonstrate relationships of different processes within the sentence frame.

C.f., ***When** we were writing a dictation, they were reading books.*
***After** we wrote a dictation, they started reading books.*

WORDS OF AFFIRMATION AND NEGATION (*Yes, No,* and their variations*: Yeah, Nope, Nay…*) demonstrate whether a statement relates the speaker's understanding reality as the truth or not.

E.g., *Will you go to the movies with me? – Yes.*

The question "*Will you go to the movies with me?*", grammatically being an interrogative, is philosophically regarded as a truthful statement.

8. **INTERJECTIONS**   [**mixed**].

INTERJECTIONS correspond to concepts of both properties and relationships.
E.g., BANG! (a heavy bag was dropped on the table).

The interjection "*Bang!*" shows that, on the one hand, the bag is heavy, and, on the other hand, intensifies the fact that the bag is physically distant from the table. Thus, the relations between two objects in space are shown together with the property of the bag.

- **The Substantive after Prof Korsakov**

It is most obvious that all nouns objectivise the concept of "substance". On the level of language, *a finger* is a particular reference to all fingers in the world and *a girl* – to all girls in the world*.*

And what about *a smile*? There are *smiling girls, smiling boys, smiling lips*. But there are no smiles existing without a referent. Still, they are abstract creations of the human mind which can separate a quality from its referent and make an abstraction from it: *a beautiful girl → beauty; a wise congressman → wisdom; a strong athlete → strength...* Thus, such words are linguistically treated as <u>substances</u>, too, on the level of language.

If we take the property «*hard*» expressed by an adjective, we can easily make the noun «*hardness*» by foregrounding this characteristic and creating an imaginary substance. Though they belong to different parts of speech, they are all semantically based on the same <u>concept</u>.

Hence, the <u>substantive</u> includes nouns and noun-pronouns (which can substitute for any noun without naming it) as two sub-types.

The Noun specifies the substances, while **the Pronoun** correlates with substances, without specifying them. Still, they belong to the same category. For example: *There were millions of **nobodies** (=of people). He murmured a few tactful **nothings** (= useless persons). The man hastened to join the **others** (other people). He was getting on **everyone's** (people's) nerves.*

- **The Noun after Prof Korsakov**

While the classification of nouns discussed above is considered traditional, different grammarians often introduce their own noun taxonomies, trying to make up for the inconsistencies found in the traditional system. For instance, company names, e.g., *Google*, presuppose a group of individuals working together, but, being proper names, they are not classified as collective nouns, despite their meaning.

A.K. Korsakov suggested the following classification of nouns:
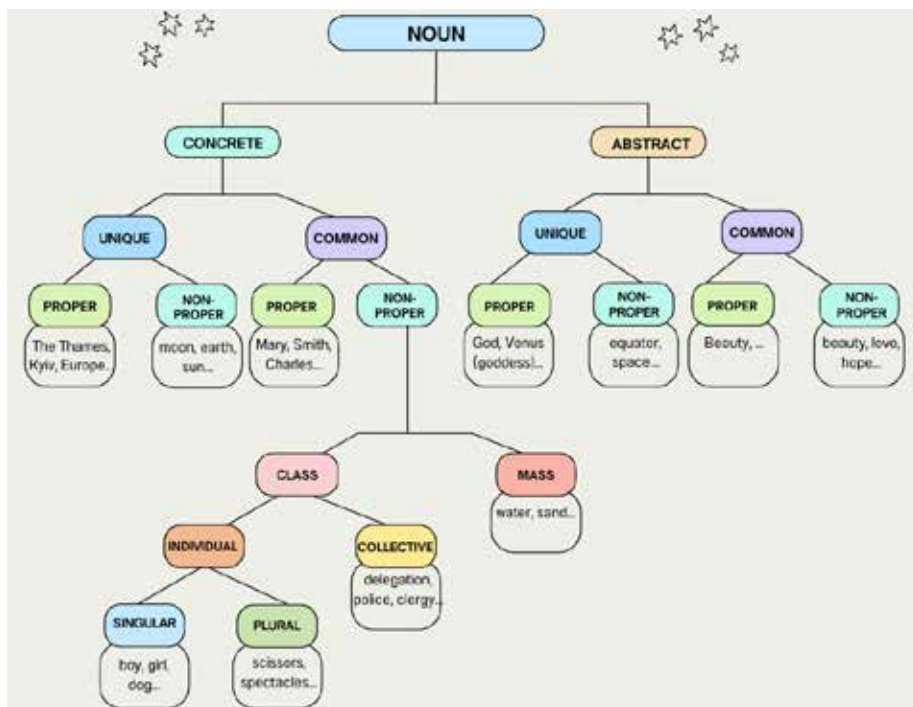
Noun classification suggested by Prof. A.K. Korsakov

Prof A.K. Korsakov's classification of nouns subdivides them first into **concrete** (*a hand, Harry, Ukraine*…) and **abstract nouns** (*freedom, space, Patience*…), depending on their being tangible or intangible and presupposing a certain physical representation or not, respectively. Each group falls into **unique** and **common** nouns, either branching down to **proper** and **non-proper nouns**.

Thus, nouns with one only traditional universally known referent are understood as *unique* (like "*God*" – an abstract unique noun, or "*Mars*" – a concrete unique noun). Representatives of a class of objects or ideas (e.g., *a dog, a boy, a table, love, hate, water…*) are termed *common* nouns. Here also belong personal names, since there can be lots of boys with the name "*Sam"* (a concrete common noun), or girls with the name "*Dawn*" (an abstract common noun).

Proper nouns are personal, geographical or company names ("*Zeus*" – a abstract unique proper noun; the idea of God is intangible; "*Dan*" – a concrete common proper noun; boys are physically represented in the real world, etc). The

highest degree of abstraction, acquired by a word in a certain context and leading to its being spelt with a capital letter, might make the noun proper, e.g. "*And by Love was consummated what Diplomacy begun*" (Bret Harte, "*Echoes of the Foot-Hills*"). Here "*Love*" and "*Diplomacy*" function as abstract common proper nouns. The same concerns nouns spelt with capital letters when used as titles.

Non-proper nouns are not names ("*hope*" – an abstract common non-proper noun; "*sun*" – a concrete unique non-proper noun unless used as the name of the planet. Then it becomes a concrete unique proper name).

Concrete common non-proper nouns fork into **class** and **mass nouns**, following from their representation as a single countable unit or a multitude of pieces which is impossible or difficult to count. E.g., "*a pen*" – a concrete common non-proper class noun; "*sand*" – a concrete common non-proper mass noun, etc.

Within the group of *class nouns*, **individual** and **collective nouns** are distinguished. If a noun shows a single unit or representative of a class, it's considered an *individual noun*. If it names a group of objects, it belongs to *collective nouns*. Thus, "*a doll*" is regarded as a concrete common non-proper class individual noun, and "*police*" is a concrete common non-proper class collective noun.

Individual nouns can be **singular** and **plural**. Here by '*singular'* nouns those that can have both a singular, and a plural form are meant (like "*a laptop – laptops*", "*a pig – pigs*"...). '*Plural'* nouns, in their turn, are those traditionally termed as pluralia tantum, or having a plural form only (like "*pyjamas*", or "*tongs*", etc).

Questions for Discussion

Look at the sentences below and define the parts of speech in them in accordance with Prof A.K. Korsakov's theory (You have already analysed these sentences from the traditional point of view). Define the types of nouns through the prism of Prof Korsakov's classification.

1. *A black cat was quickly chasing five little mice in the darkest corner of the basement.*
2. *Love gives me wings, and hope is my air. That is the first law of my life.*
3. *Do you know Tom's best friend from the States? – Oh, it's Bob! He has just lent us fifty dollars. – What a kind soul!*
4. *The strict boss ordered that silence be kept and nobody said a word.*
5. *The blind usually walk with canes.*

- **The Verb after Prof Korsakov**

There is **no** all-over accepted definition of the verb in linguistics. The existing definitions of the verb could be approximately subdivided into three groups:

1) verbs denote actions and states;
2) verbs denote processes;
3) verbs denote, besides processes, actions, states, or events.

1. The first point of view dates back to classical <u>Latin grammar</u> which has been a universal source of compiling grammar manuals (**A. Pesh-kovsky, L. Scherba, V. Kaushanskaya**).

2. The second point of view has sprung from **Antoine Meillet** who in 1921 wrote that «the verb denotes processes – whether one means actions, states or changing of states» (**M. Halliday, S. Barkhudarov**).

3. A number of grammarians speaking about the meaning of the verb underline that it means **not only processes**, but also **actions and states (J. Allerton, B. Khaimovich, B. Rogovskaya, T. Wasow**).

Antoine Meillet

Such a great variety of opinions about the nature of the verb must be connected with the fact that none of the authors, widely using the terms *«actions»* and *«states»,* give <u>definitions</u> to the terms used. So, let's concentrate on the terms first.

«The objective world consists of processes», as philosophy runs.

Processes are changing <u>matter,</u> and the world, thus, consists of <u>changing substances</u> and <u>relationships</u> between these substances.

Substances don't exist without changes in time and vice versa – changes in time don't exist without substances. Any **substance** is <u>a sum of properties</u>.

A state is a sum of properties of a substance at a given moment of time.

Basing upon the physical encyclopedia, we call an action *a process* with attention paid to the exhibition of power & transfer of motion.

Actions and states are particular cases of processes. Thus, *a process* represents changing matter in its most abstract way, while *states* and *actions* are particular cases of processes.

Thus, the verb itself cannot denote *either* actions *or* states, because a process implies <u>*a substance and its changing in time*</u>.
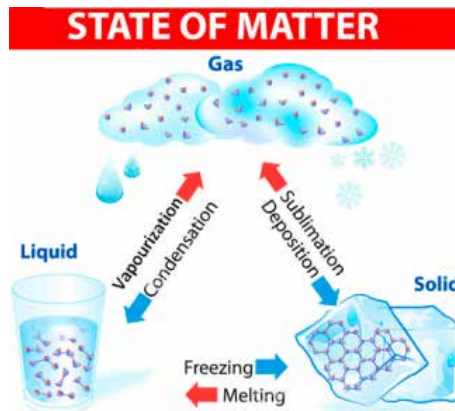
Actually, a <u>structure of predication</u> as a whole represents **a process**.

The verb, in its turn, as follows from the laws of philosophy and was found by Professor Korsakov, only correlates and is connected with processes, but expresses <u>existence in time</u> of one of the components of a process. For example: *Tom was going along the pavement.* Predicate-action: *Tom exhibiting energy necessary for movement.* Predicate-state: *Tom in the state of movement along the pavement.*

Thus, Professor Korsakov terms **the verb** as a part of speech universal for all languages, a grammatical universal, which semantically denotes existence in time and formally manifests a specific paradigm typical of a particular language.

Questions for Discussion

1. Compare two sentences:
    A) *The boy is sleeping.* B) *The boy is asleep.*
   Comment upon their meaning, semantic differences and parts of speech used to express their idea.
2. Prove that the gerund is a particular form of the verb. What is a hybrid form? Is the gerund one?
3. What is the transference of movement one of the definitions of the verb speaks about? Does it mean transference of force from one object to another or not?
4. Traditionally, the passive voice is understood as a form of the verb where the subject of the sentence is not an active doer, but is acted upon. What is the action directed at?

4.8. SYNTACTIC ORGANISATION OF THE SENTENCE

Syntax (from Ancient Greek, meaning "*bringing together*") is a branch of grammar which studies the ways words are organised in syntactic structures and the latter build up sentences. In accordance with **W. Francis**, the well-known structuralist (whose conception is supported by R. Gunter, O. Smirnytskyi, A. Korsakov, I. Morozova and other linguists), all English utterances are formally coded in sentences and represented by four syntactic structures. Here we see how rational ideas put forward by modern grammar schools enter the basic stock of classical grammatical theory.

● **Syntactic Structures**

A syntactic structure is a combination of words joined up together by a special type of link in a sentence.
   E. g. The birds are singing.
   A bird is singing.
   A beautiful girl.
   A loud shot.
   To smile beautifully.
   To laugh loudly.
   As seen above, the word-groups given are built up differently, employing different syntactic means.

There are the following syntactic structures in English[1]:

1. ***The structure of predication:***
   S + Vp,
where S – is a subject; Vp – is a verb-predicate.

The structure of predication is a combination of the subject with the predicate.

E. g.   The students <u>are taking</u> an exam.

2. ***The structure of complementation:***
   V + C,
where V – is a verb; C – is a complement.

The structure of complementation is a combination of the verb with a complement, which completes the meaning of the verb.

In many cases, it is easy to see that verbs without complements, even taken together with the subject, make no sense.

E. g.   She looked   1) *down* (an adverbial complement);
                       2) *young / frightened* (a subjective complement).

       John had   1) *a car* (an objective complement);
                    2) *to go home* (a verbal complement);
                    3) *to look young* (a verbal and a subjective complements).

In the examples provided, the suggested complements essentially change the whole meaning of the utterance.

3. ***The structure of modification:***
   H + M,
where H – is a head word, M – is a modifier.

The structure of modification represents a combination of the headword and its modifier that qualifies the basic element by giving it additional characteristics. Depending on the nature of the modifier, we distinguish the ***attributive modifier*** (*a beautiful girl, a clever dog*) and the ***adverbial modifier*** (*to run fast, to speak slowly*).

4. ***The structure of coordination:***
   $n_1 + n_2 + n_3 ... n_n$,
where *n* – is a sentence element.

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1 *See* Корсаков А. К. *A course of lectures*; Морозова І. Б. *Парадигматичний аналіз структури і семантики елементарних комунікативних одиниць у світлі гештальт-теорії в сучасній англійській мові*; Francis W. N. *The Structure of American English*...

The structure of coordination combines two or more formally similar sentence elements: *to look up and down; ladies and gentlemen;*

E.g.   We are laughing and singing gaily.

- **Primary and Secondary Predication Structures**

The structure of predication is the main sentence structure. It falls into *the primary* and *the secondary predication structures.*

In ***the primary structure of predication,*** the subject is always given in the direct case and always agrees with the predicate in person and number.

E. g.   Children go to school every day.
Pete goes to school every day.

The primary structure of predication is a sentence organizing structure. All the other syntactic structures are included into the structure of predication in a sentence.

The secondary structure of predication is built up by means of the secondary subject, which is not necessarily put in the direct case and does not agree with the predicate in person and number. Most frequently, the secondary structure of predication is represented by syntactic complexes. When paraphrased, the secondary structure of predication becomes the primary structure of predication.

E. g. I saw **him (s') cross (v_p')** *the street,*
where s' – is the secondary subject, v_p' – is the secondary predicate.

→ *I saw that he crossed the street.*

In the paraphrased sentence, the secondary subject becomes the primary subject, and the secondary predicate becomes the primary predicate of the subordinate clause. Hence, the secondary predication structure can always be unwound into the primary predication structure.

E. g.   1. ***Your having come*** *home late yesterday upset your mother very much.* → *The fact that you came home late yesterday upset your mother very much (a gerundial complex[1]).*

2. *Our* ***ship*** *is reported* ***to have left*** *Glasgow.* → *They report that our ship left Glasgow (an infinitive complex).*

3. *Stella watched* ***the clouds gathering*** *over the valley.* → *Stella watched how the clouds were gathering over the valley (a participle complex).*

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1   Morozova I., Stepanenko O. The Use of the Non-Finites : навч.посібн. для вузів. Київ: Освіта України, 2021. 238 с.

Morphologically, there can be three types of syntactic complexes corresponding to the three types of the non-finites (the infinitive, the gerund, and the participle).

Syntactically, there can be as many complexes as there are sentence members:

1) The complex subject;

E. g. **_America_** *is known* **_to have been discovered_** *by Christopher Columbus.*

2) The complex predicative;

E. g. *Your future profession* _is for_ **_you to decide_**.

3) The complex object;

E. g. *I pictured my* **_sister playing_** *the piano and felt proud of her.*

4) The complex attribute;

E. g. *The principal disliked the way of* **_my teaching_** *English and gave some recommendations as to how to improve it.*

5) The complex adverbial modifier.

E. g. *After* **_their all participating_** *in the discussion, the company decided to go to the sea beach.*

Questions for Discussion

1. In the sentences below, find secondary structures of predication, define their types and functions and try to unwind them:
   A. *I was dusting the saloon, and I saw him pass, and his face was white.*
   B. *Norah found Robert curled in the arm-chair.*
   C. *After our carving the pumpkin, Mother decided to put it on the porch.*
   D. *Sam getting ready for the exam, I decided to turn the music down.*
   E. *Kelly happened to be reading a book when the phone rang.*
2. Find examples of different syntactic structures in your favourite songs or movies, share and analyse them in class.
3. Find examples of secondary structures of predication in your favourite songs or movies, share and analyse them in class. Transform them into primary structures of predication.
4. In what functional style do you think secondary structures of predication will be the most frequent? Why?

Questions for Revision

1. Why is the problem of part of speech important? What is the problem with?
2. What viewpoints on the problem of part of speech do you know? Outline each of the approaches you know. Give their pros and cons.
3. What is the category of state? What is the debate about it? What are the arguments of its supporters and their opponents?
4. Speak about the "stone wall" problem. What approaches to it can be singled out? What helped in solving this problem?
5. Enumerate the characteristics of speech and language. Who singled them out? What else is this scholar famous for?
6. What is the classification of parts of speech given by Prof A.K. Korsakov? What is it based on?
7. What is a syntactic structure? What syntactic structures are there in English and how to differentiate between them? Which of them are sentence-organising structures?
8. What are the differences between the primary and the secondary structures of predication? Give examples.

Questions for Discussion: Round-up

1. Classify the given statements as belonging to different grammar schools:
   a) prescriptive grammar;
   b) traditional descriptive grammar;
   c) classical scientific grammar;
   d) generative semantics;
   e) structural grammar;
   f) simply to a layman.

Statements:

1) *"Parts of speech are words mainly distinguished by their positions in the sentence".*

2) *"I love you. You are the object of my affection and the object of my sentence".*

3) *"In my opinion, everything should be kept in view – form, function and meaning – to refer a word to a certain word-class".*

4) *"Words are classified according to the purpose they are used for; and every such class is called a Part of Speech".*

5) *"With me, ungrammatical sentences always arouse mistrust, though ideas they convey may be quite reasonable".*

6) *"Every proposition consists of one predicate which opens up places for one or more individual names. We need semantic or logical development to disclose the meaning of different cases".*

7) *"The study of the usual "formal" grammar has much the same sort of value as the study of the astronomy of Ptolemy. ... Only ridding their [pupils'] minds of all previous acquired notions concerning the language will open the way to true knowledge".*

8) *"A man's grammar, like Caesar's wife, should not only be pure, but above suspicion of impurity".*

9) *"The teacher's main goal is to eliminate errors in speech and writing and teach students the normative rules of English".*

10) *"Some of them [tribes] have more than 15 ways of expressing future actions using not only different verbs, but also different syntactic constructions".*

11) *"Forming grammatically correct sentences is for the normal individual the prerequisite for any submission to social laws. No one is supposed to*

> *be ignorant of grammaticality; those who are belong in special institu-*
> *tions. The unity of language is fundamentally political".*

If you want to check yourselves up, go to the end of this question list and turn the book upside down to read the answers and the sources the quotations were taken from.

2. Define the nature of the given words on the level of speech and language.
   1) *"I won't have any more **buts** from you," I cried out, annoyed (H. Crier).*
   2) *"Oh, **my**!" Jenny smiled happily (J. Lark).*
   3) *She returned his **I-know-what-you-mean** look to him (M. Lofts).*
   4) *He **yessed** several times than fell silent (N. Heyer).*
   5) *I **propelled** to the **parlour** door.*
   6) *"Never mind his "**I-won't-do-it**"", I said. "He shall and he will do what we tell him to" (J. Gray).*

3. Having studied different grammar schools, can you recognise which grammar school is represented below?
   *"**Noun. One of the parts of speech; a lexical word which may follow a noun determiner such as "the" and is inflectable with the plural and possessive inflections -es; -s.**"*

4. Give the definition of Noun. What kind of definition could you give if you were a structuralist? A normative grammarian?

5. Comment upon the following:
   *"**Adjectives are words that can add the endings -er and -est as "small", "smaller", "smallest".**"*
   What is this definition based upon?

6. What classes of words (parts of speech) are used to express properties according to Professor A.K. Korsakov's theory?

7. What classes of words (parts of speech) are used to express relationships according to Professor Korsakov A.K.'s theory?

8. What is the nature of "*studio*" in "*studio film*"? What points of view on this problem do you know?

9. Comment upon the following:

"Adjectives are used with nouns to describe, identify, or enumerate them" (E.A. Sonmenschein).

10. Who could have given the following definition?

"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..."

11. What points of view exist concerning the morphological nature of such combinations as "*evening school*", "*boy messenger*"?

Answers to Question 1:

1) *"Parts of speech are words mainly distinguished by their positions in the sentence"* (Shedd J. A Short Introduction to English Grammar. London, 1999. P. 82). The statement tends to structuralism.

2) *"I love you. You are the object of my affection and the object of my sentence."* (Fogarty M., Grammar Girl's Quick and Dirty Tips for Better Writing (Quick & Dirty Tips)). The statement, though given in the book of tips and rules, can be seen as either prescriptive, or belonging to a layman.

3) *"In my opinion, everything should be kept in view – form, function and meaning – to refer a word to a certain word-class"* (Jespersen O. The Philosophy of Grammar. New York, 2009. P. 60). The statement illustrates classical theoretical grammar.

4) *"Words are classified according to the purpose they are used for; and every such class is called a Part of Speech"* (Nesfield J. English Grammar Past and Present. London, 2010. P. 4). The statement belongs to prescriptive grammar.

5) *"With me, ungrammatical sentences always arouse mistrust, though ideas they convey may be quite reasonable"* (from a personal conversation). The statement belongs to a layman.

6) *"Every proposition consists of one predicate which opens up places for one or more individual names. We need semantic or logical development to disclose the meaning of different cases".* (Fillmore Ch. The Case for Case. Universals in Linguistic Theory, New York, 2008. P. 23). The statement belongs to generative semantics.

7) *"The study of the usual "formal" grammar has much the same sort of value as the study of the astronomy of Ptolemy. ... Only ridding their [pupils] minds of all previous acquired notions concerning the language will open the way to true knowledge".* (Fries Ch. The Structure of English, an Introduction to the Construction of English Sentences. London, 2008. P. 43). The statement belongs to a structuralist.

8) *"A man's grammar, like Caesar's wife, should not only be pure, but above suspicion of impurity."* (Edgar Allan Poe). The statement, though not belonging to a grammarian, illustrates a prescriptive approach.

9) *"The teacher's main goal is to eliminate errors in speech and writing and teach students the normative rules of English".* (Miller J. A Desk-Book of Grammar. London, 2012. P. 18). The statement belongs to prescriptive grammar.

10) *"Some of them [tribes] have more than 15 ways of expressing future actions using not only different verbs, but also different syntactic constructions".* (Kenneth M. Tribal Dialects and African Languages. Oxford, 2010. P. 45). The statement illustrates descriptive grammar.

11) *"Forming grammatically correct sentences is for the normal individual the prerequisite for any submission to social laws. No one is supposed to be ignorant of grammaticality; those who are belong in special institutions. The unity of language is fundamentally political."* (Deleuze Gilles. A Thousand Plateaus: Capitalism and Schizophrenia). The statement can be seen as belonging to either a layman, or a prescriptivist.

Workshop Plans

Below you will find workshop plans that can be used in teaching the discipline.

At Odesa Mechnikov National University, we usually focus on Workshops 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, and 7. Still, if the loading changes, the plans below come handy. Some of the questions can also be used as topics for reports and / or discussion in class.

Workshop 1 (Based on Topic 1)
What is Grammar? Grammatical Theory and Practice
1. Basic conceptions of Grammar. Grammar as a linguistic discipline. Morphology & Syntax.
2. Prescriptive & descriptive grammars. Their origin & development. Is theoretical grammar a prescriptive or a descriptive discipline?
3. Different approaches to the science of grammar.
4. Types of grammar in accordance with the scientific approach: structural (formal); synchronic / diachronic; functional grammar; comparative grammar; cognitive grammar; communicative grammar, etc.
5. The origin of grammar as a working instrument of communication. Do animals use or understand grammar? (Discussions & presentations are welcome).

Workshop 2 (Based on Topic 3)
Practical and Theoretical Grammar
1. Practical & prescriptive grammars: Similarities & differences.
2. The origin of the English prescriptive grammar as a vehicle for education development in Great Britain.
3. Prescriptive Grammar and teaching English. Reports on the topic "Standard Grammar and Its Regional Deviations".
4. Why are theoretical and practical grammars so much interwoven? What finds of the theory of grammar are taught at the lessons of practical grammar?
5. What is universal grammar? What grammatical universals are observed in English and Ukrainian?

Workshop 3 (Based on Topic 6)
Functional Transpositions of Grammatical Forms
1. The notions of transposition and transformation. Transformation as a grammatical operation.
2. Transposition: types. Regular and stylistic transpositions.
3. Types of transformations and their practical usage.

4. Synonymy in grammar. Grammatical synonyms: *I saw John crossing the street.*
5. Homonymy in grammar. Grammatical homonyms: *I want to take two books. Vs He always books a room here.*

Workshop 4 (Based on Topic 9)
Grammatical Categories and Problems
1. The notion of category in grammar. Conceptual categories and ways of their lingual representations.
2. Types of grammatical categories. The notion of grammatical paradigm.
3. Time in terms of field structure and its semantic interpretation.
4. Aspect in terms of field structure and its semantic interpretation.
5. ***REPORT****: "Grammatical Representation of Time Relations in the English and Ukrainian Grammars".*

Workshop 5 (Based on Topic 10)
Problem of Parts of Speech in English
1. What is a part of speech? Problems of understanding, ancient grammarians (Greek, Roman, & British) about parts of speech.
2. The existing inventory classifications of parts of speech (given by H. Sweet, O. Jespersen, Ch Fries, British and American Grammar modern books, M.Ganshina and N.Vasilevskaya, Kaushanskaya et al., B. Ilyish, B.Khaimovich et al., etc)
3. The *Category of State*, or *the Stative :* pro and contra arguments.
4. The existing definitions of the **Noun** in classical Latin Grammar books, after R. Lowth, H. Sweet, Ch. Fries, J. Nesfield, O. Jespersen, M. Ganshina et N. Vasilevskaya, V. Kaushanskaya et al. What differences have you noticed?
5. ***REPORT****: "Ferdinand de Saussure. Life and Scientific Input"*

Workshop 6 (Based on Topic 10)
Syntax and Morphology in the Theory of English Grammar
1. The morpheme as a lexical and grammatical unit. Common views on the morpheme in linguistics.
2. The notion of "case" in grammar. The system of cases in early grammar books (W. Bullokar, W. Lily…).
3. When was syntax introduced into English Grammar? The origin & meaning of "syntax".
4. Morphological typology of languages. Synthetic & analytical languages.
5. ***REPORT****: "English as an Analytical Language. Its Ways of Development".*

Workshop 7 (Based on Topic 12)
The Noun & the Verb
1. What are the basic characteristics of the noun? What is the main difference between the Pronoun and the Noun?
2. The Problem of ***Classification of Nouns.*** The existing classifications and their drawbacks.
3. The Verb, its definition in prescriptive and theoretical grammar books.
4. Three approaches to the interpretations of the conceptual meaning of the Verb (name the scientists)
5. What are the basic characteristics of the noun & the verb?
6. ***REPORT****: "Verbo- or Nomenocentric Organisation of the Language".*

Workshop 8 (Based on Topic 12)
The Noun
1. The existing definitions of the noun in classical Latin grammar books, after R. Lowth, H. Sweet, Ch. Fries, J. Nesfield, O. Jesperson, M. Ganshina & N. Vasilevska, V. Kaushanskaya et al., M. Swan, Cobuild Grammar, R. Huddleston & G. Pullum, etc. What differences have you spotted?
2. What are the basic characteristics of the noun? What is the basic difference between the noun and the pronoun?
3. The problem of classification of nouns. The existing classifications and their drawbacks.
4. The noun and the noun-adjective, the attributive noun. The stone-wall problem.
5. ***REPORT***: "*The Noun in English and Ukrainian Grammars: Similarities and Differences in the Linguistic Treatment".*

Workshop 9 (Based on Topics 8, 11 & 12)
Current Grammatical Problems: Morphology and Syntax
1. The stone-wall problem. Different approaches to singling out parts of speech: a historical outline & modern innovation.
2. The problem of gender: nouns & pronouns. Changes in the 21st century.
3. Syntactic units & their understanding by different scholars: a sentence member, a syntactic phrase, a clause, a syntactic complex, a sentence.
4. Communicative sentence types: Different viewpoints and approaches in English and other languages.
5. Structural sentence types: Different viewpoints and approaches in English and other languages. One and the same sentence analysed differently due to the approach taken (illustrated by examples that are personally collected from the original English texts).

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112. Пожарицька О. О. Американський ковбой: портретизація на опозиційних оповідних рівнях художнього тексту. *Науковий вісник Чернівецького університету : зб. наук. праць.* Чернівці: Видавничий дім «РОДОВИД», 2015. Вип. 740–741: Германська філологія. С. 179–185.

INDEX

This index provides an overview of the main topics and keywords covered in the text. The list is organized alphabetically for easy reference.

STUDENTS' PRESENTATIONS

The presentations are downloadable. Use the QR-code below. They are presented here as examples of students' work and possible discussion points.
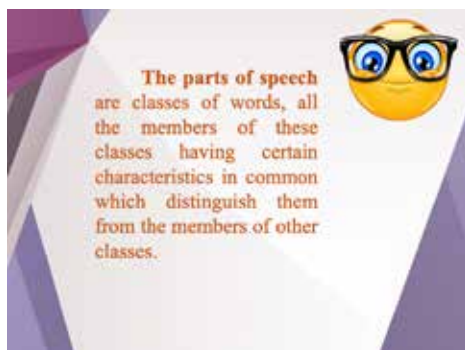
Classical

Similar to Latin, words in English were divided into

- **declinables** (nouns, adjectives, pronouns, verbs, participles)

- **indeclinables** (adverbs, prepositions, conjunctions, interjections, articles).

Functional

Henry Sweet (1892), similar to his predecessors, divided words into
declinable
- noun-words: nouns, noun-pronouns, noun-numerals, infinitives, gerunds;
- adjective-words: adjectives, adjective-pronouns, adjective-numerals, participles;
- verbs: finite verbs, verbals (infinitive, participle, gerund);
indeclinable
- adverbs, prepositions, conjunctions, interjections.

Otto Jespersen, another noted descriptivist, also speaks of *three principles of classification*. On the basis of the three criteria, the scholar distinguishes the following parts of speech: substantives, adjectives, pronouns, verbs, and particles (adverbs, prepositions, conjunctions, interjections).

Distributional

One of the noted representatives of American structuralism, **Charles Fries**, rejected the traditional principle of classification of words into parts of speech replacing it with the methods of distributional analysis and substitution.

Roughly speaking, the distribution of a word is the position of a word in the sentence. To classify the words of English, Charles Fries used **three sentences called substitution frames**.

Complex

In modern linguistics, parts of speech are discriminated according to three criteria.

Criteria

Semantic   Formal   Functional

Semantic

This principle is based on universal forms of human thought which are reflected in *three main categorial meanings of words:*

- **Substance** *(предметность)* – nouns
- **Process** *(процессуальность)* – verbs
- **Property** *(качество, свойство)* – adjectives

Semantic properties of every part of speech find their expression in their grammatical properties.

But it doesn't always work, for it is hard to define the category of meaning of such words as WHITENESS, ACTION etc.

Formal

Another point of view is that *only the form should serve as a criterion* of the classification of the part of speech. This principle is called **"the formal criterion".** It was widely used by **H. Sweet** and others. The formal criterion concerns *the inflectional and derivational features* of words belonging to a given class.

**For example**, the inflexion -es, e.g. box - boxes, map - maps. etc.

Functional

This criteria is based on syntactical functions of parts of speech in a sentence:

PART OF SPEECH	BASIC FUNCTION	EXAMPLES
noun	names a person, place, or thing	pirate, Caribbean, ship
pronoun	takes the place of a noun	I, you, he, she, it, ours, them, who
verb	identifies action or state of being	sing, dance, believe, be
adjective	modifies a noun	hot, lazy, funny
adverb	modifies a verb, adjective, or other adverb	softly, lazily, often
numeral	identifies exact number of things	one, first, thousand
preposition	shows a relationship between a noun (or pronoun) and other words in a sentence	up, over, against, by, for
conjunction	joins words, phrases, and clauses	and, but, or, yet
interjection	expresses emotion	ah, whoops, ouch
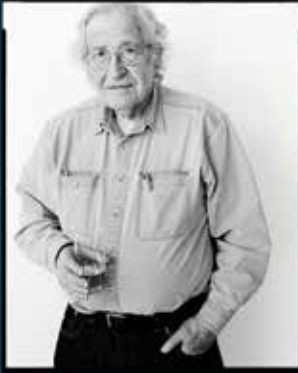
Noam Chomsky

An American theoretical linguist

- Noam Chomsky, in full Avram Noam Chomsky, (born December 7, 1928, Philadelphia, Pennsylvania, U.S.), American theoretical linguist whose work from the 1950s revolutionized the field of linguistics by treating language as a uniquely human, biologically based cognitive capacity.

When he was 10 years old, he wrote an editorial for his school newspaper lamenting the fall of Barcelona in the Spanish Civil War and the rise of fascism in Europe. His research then and during the next few years was thorough enough to serve decades later as the basis of "Objectivity and Liberal Scholarship" (1969), Chomsky's critical review of a study of the period by the historian Gabriel Jackson.

In 1945, at the age of 16, Chomsky entered the University of Pennsylvania but found little to interest him. After two years he considered leaving the university to pursue his political interests. He changed his mind, however, after meeting the linguist Zellig S. Harris, one of the American founders of structural linguistics, whose political convictions were similar to Chomsky's. Chomsky took graduate courses with Harris and, at Harris's recommendation, studied philosophy with Nelson Goodman and Nathan Salmon. In his 1951 master's thesis, The Morphophonemics of Modern Hebrew, and especially in The Logical Structure of Linguistic Theory (LSLT), written while he was a junior fellow at Harvard (1951–55) and published in part in 1975, Chomsky adopted aspects of Harris's approach to the study of language and of Goodman's views on formal systems and the philosophy of science and transformed them into something new.

As in the view of the 17th-century French philosopher Réne Descartes, according to Chomsky, the use of language is due to a "creative principle", not a causal one.
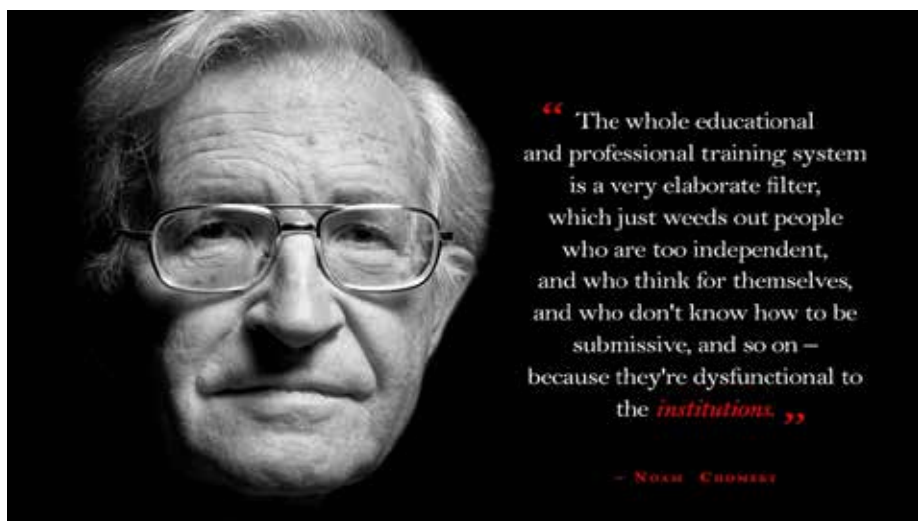
Chomsky received a Ph.D. in linguistics from the University of Pennsylvania in 1955 after submitting one chapter of LSLT as a doctoral dissertation (Transformational Analysis). In 1956 he was appointed by the Massachusetts Institute of Technology (MIT) to a teaching position. Impressed with his book Syntactic Structures (1957), a revised version of a series of lectures he gave to MIT undergraduates, the university asked Chomsky and his colleague Morris Halle to establish a new graduate program in linguistics, which soon attracted several outstanding scholars, including Robert Lees, Jerry Fodor, Jerold Katz, and Paul Postal.

NOAM CHOMSKY

A LIFE OF DISSENT

ROBERT F. BARSKY
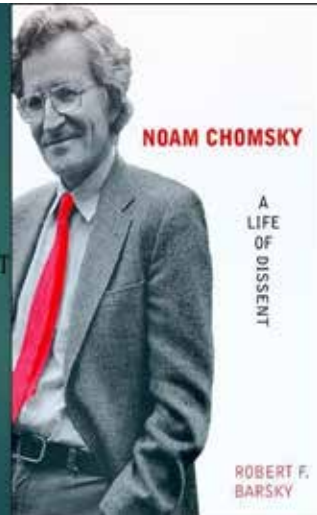
▶ Chomsky's 1959 review of Verbal Behavior, by B.F. Skinner, the dean of American behaviourism, came to be regarded as the definitive refutation of behaviourist accounts of language learning. Starting in the mid-1960s, with the publication of Aspects of the Theory of Syntax (1965) and Cartesian Linguistics (1966), Chomsky's approach to the study of language and mind gained wider acceptance within linguistics, though there were many theoretical variations within the paradigm. Chomsky was appointed full professor at MIT in 1961, Professor of Modern Languages and Linguistics in 1966, and Institute Professor in 1976. He retired as professor in 2002.

"The whole educational and professional training system is a very elaborate filter, which just weeds out people who are too independent, and who think for themselves, and who don't know how to be submissive, and so on — because they're dysfunctional to the *institutions*."

— Noah Chomsky

CONTEXT: MICRO AND MACRO.
DISCOURSE INTERPRETATION OF THE
INFORMATION

Discourse interpretation of the information

Discourse interpretation is a key aspect of the process of human communication in which interactants rely on established social practices in a particular context while striving to achieve their communicative intentions by the use of language.

Definitions of the term "discourse" by different scientists

- Zelling Harris – 1952 in his "Discourse analysis" studied "language units longer than one sentence";
- Emile Benveniste – early 1970s - language, which is assigned by the subject, in order to influence the listener;
- Mikhail Bachtin pointed out that speech occurs through the prism of subjective needs and desires and within the framework of the communicative type of the utterance;
- Patrick Serio defined discourse as a system of requirements imposed on utterances in view of a social or ideological position;
- Ten van Dijk considered discourse in a narrow sense as a text or a conversation and in a broad sense as "a communicative event that occurs between a speaker, a listener in the process of a communicative action in a certain time, space and other context.

Discourse:

- Discourse is verbal or written communication between people that goes beyond a single sentence.
- Discourse looks at the meanings conveyed by language in context. "Context" refers to the social, cultural, political, and historical background of the discourse.
- The field of use of this terminological unit is very wide: linguistics, communication theory, semiotics, logic, philosophy, as well as psycholinguistics, sociolinguistics and others.

Context

Discourse analysis is concerned with the interpretation of texts and an important part of this analysis is how texts are related to the contexts in which they are produced and received. An understanding of context is thus an essential feature of the analysis. However, while, in its relatively short history, discourse analysis has spent a lot of time identifying the structure and functions of the various features which make up text and talk, with notable exceptions, there has been relatively less emphasis on defining just what is meant by context; it has tended to be taken as a 'given'.

What is context?

In spite of the difficulty of pinning down the meaning of the term context, fairly general definitions are to be found.

Context at a general level is understood to be the environment that an object is embedded in or part of; in the case of language use, the two most relevant contexts are the social environment and the linguistic environment.

Teun Adrianus Van Dijk

Linguist Van Dijk brings in a cognitive element, defining context as 'the cognitive, social, political, cultural and historical environments of discourse'. And he distinguishes two rather different levels of context: *the micro* and *the macro*.

Micro and macro

The *micro* is the face-to-face situation of interaction. Micro or narrow context refers to a phrase or sentence together with their syntactic and lexical features.

MACRO
VS
MICRO

The *macro* context is relevant elements of the social structure within which the discourse occurs. It is the linguistic environment of a given unit that goes beyond the scope of the sentence. The exact scope of the macro context cannot be specified - it can be either the context of a group of sentences, a paragraph, a chapter, and even the context of the whole work.

Micro and macro

The concepts of micro- and macro-context are associated with the opposition "proper linguistic" and "extralinguistic" context. If the linguistic context is understood as the language environment of the word, then the extralinguistic context is understood as background knowledge.

❖❖❖❖❖❖❖❖❖❖❖❖❖❖❖❖❖❖❖❖❖❖❖❖❖❖❖❖❖❖❖❖❖❖❖❖

Other discourse analysts have employed various other levels of analysis in their consideration of context. There is no particular model which has been universally accepted. The model adopted very much depends on the analyst, the particular goals of the analysis and the context of the study.

Conclusion

The complexity of meaning interpretation in discourse stems from the fact that discourse processing is a dynamic process, involving the negotiation of meaning between the speaker and the hearer in the context of utterance, speaker's/listener's background and experience, their psychological, emotional state, social position, etc. As a result, discourse interpretation is rather viewed as being more or less temporary and constantly open to reinterpretation in the light of the intentions and purposes that interactants are striving to achieve in a particular social, historical and situational context

George Oliver
Curme

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01
Biography
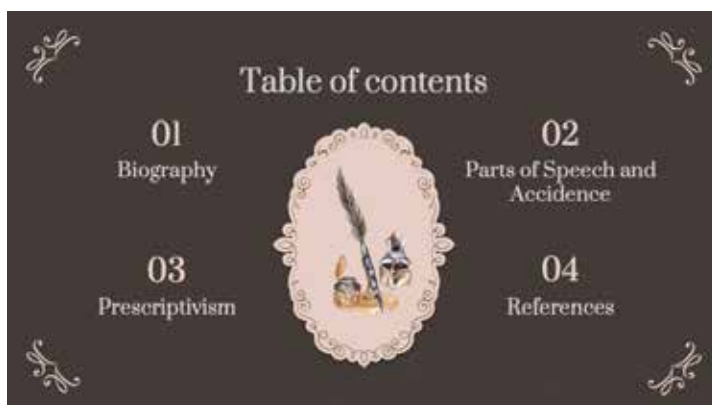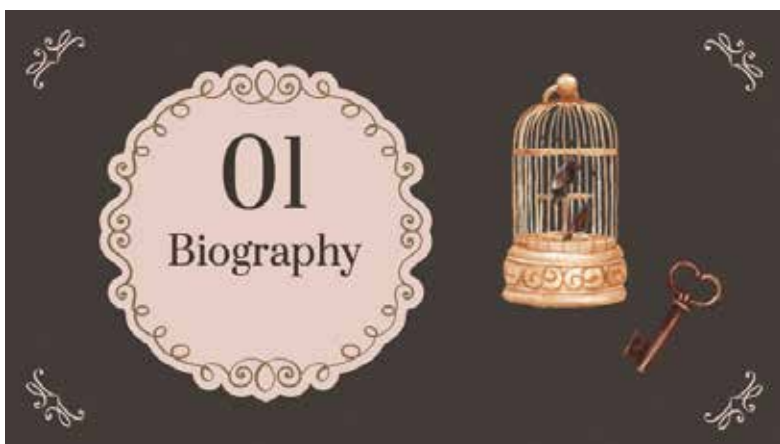
George Oliver Curme

born in Richmond, Indiana, on January 14;
specialized in German and English philology;
Grammar of the German Language (1905, revised 1922) and for his Syntax (1931) and Parts of Speech and Accidence (1935);
studied DePauw University, Greencastle and the University of Michigan, Ann Arbor;
"Congratulations! You have a son!"

"I am George Oliver Curme Jr., actually."

Grammar of the German Language (1905)

Parts of Speech and Accidence (1935)

02
Parts of Speech and Accidence

One of the editions of "*A Grammar*" is also named "***Parts of Speech and Accidence***". The author thinks the two topic are closely related, and should be studied together.

The **purpose** of the book "*is to describe fully the parts of English speech and their changes of form to express thought*".

— George Oliver Curme

For instance, today we often express a change of thought not by changing the endings, but by changing the position of the words:

The author also argues that sometimes we express our forms without the aid of a grammatical form: *I go, you go, we go, they go.*

Curme was also possibly influenced by Darwin's ideas about biological evolutionism.

"There is in fact a very fine natural regulation - the survival of the fittest"

— George Oliver Curme

03
Prescriptivism

"Any attempt to check the development of the language and give it a fixed, permanent form is misdirected energy, and, moreover, as foolish as to attempt to arrest physical or mental growth."

— George Oliver Curme

Is Curme a follower of
H. Sweet?

Sweet, and also:

Jespersen

Poutsma

Kruisinga

04
References

Curme, G. O. (1935). *A Grammar of the English Language: Parts of speech and accidence.* D. C. Heath and Company.
https://www.britannica.com/biography/George-O-Curme

Be smart and study
Grammar.
Thank you!

Logical
inference is an
act of reasoning
from factual
knowledge or
evidence.

Rules of
Inference

Modus Ponens

P ➡ Q
P_____
Q

If it's raining (P), Lucy has an umbrella (Q).
It's raining(P)._____
So: *Lucy has an umbrella(Q).*

Modus Tollens

P ➡ Q
- Q_____
- P

If it's raining(P), Lucy has an umbrella(Q).
Lucy doesn't have an umbrella (-Q)._____
So: *It is not raining(-P).*

Hypothetical Syllogism

P ➡ Q
Q ➡ R___
P ➡ R

If it's raining(P), Lucy has am umbrella(Q).
If Lucy has an umbrella(Q), she wears boots(R).
So: *if rain(P), then boots(R).*

Disjunction Syllegism

P v Q

-P_____

Q

Lucy likes dogs(P). or Lucy likes horses(Q).
Lucy doesn't like dogs(-P)._____
So: *Lucy likes horses(Q).*

Simplification

P^Q_

P

Lucy likes dogs(P) and Lucy likes horses(Q).
So: *Lucy likes dogs(P).*

P^Q_

Q

Lucy likes dogs(P) and Lucy likes horses(Q).
So: *Lucy likes horses(Q).*

Conjunction

P

Q_____

P^Q

Lucy likes dogs(P).
Lucy likes horses(Q).
So: *Lucy likes dogs(P) and Lucy likes horses(Q).*

Addition

$$\frac{P}{P \lor Q}$$

Lucy likes dogs(P).
So: *Lucy likes dogs(P) or horses(Q).*

Deduction is a conclusion that you have reached about something because of other things that you know to be true. Deductive method is based on deduction. Deductive method is proceeding from general to particular and from abstract to concrete.

Deductive Method

is a teacher- dominated approach

starts with abstract rule, generalization, principle and ends with secific examples and concrete details

covers a wider scope of subject matter

drills and exercises come after the explanation of the rule or principle

IMPLICATION

is something that is suggested without being said directly.

Truth table

P	Q	P ⟶ Q
T	T	T
T	F	F
F	T	T
F	F	T

Lucy was born in Kyiv(P).
Lucy was born in Ukraine(Q).

183

Ferdinand de Saussure

26 Nov 1857— 22 Feb 1913

Ferdinand de Saussure, the founding figure of modern linguistics. Having gone beyond the limits of linguistics, de Saussure's approach to language became the primary source of structuralism - one of the most influential trends in humanitarian thought in the 20th century. At the same time, he was the founder of the so-called sociological school in linguistics.

Indo-European vowel system

In 1891 the University in Geneva he created a chair in Sanskrit and the history and comparison of languages for him. He produced some significant work on Lithuanian during this period, connected to his early book on the Indo-European vowel system, and yielding Saussure's Law, concerning the placement of stress in Lithuanian.

F. de Saussure was also an excellent teacher. During two decades of teaching at the University of Geneva, he brought up a whole galaxy of talented students who later became remarkable linguists (A. Sesche, C. Bally, and others).

He developed an approach to languages as systems of signs, each sign consisting of a signifier (sound pattern) and a signified (concept), both of them mental rather than physical in nature, and conjoined arbitrarily and inseparably.

The Cours de linguistique générale, published in 1916 was made from the studet's notes from courses after his death. This book became the basis for the structuralist approach, initially within linguistics, and later adapted to other fields.

Semiology

Semiology, which Ferdinand de Saussure creates, is defined by him as "the science that studies the life of signs within the framework of the life of society". "It must reveal to us what the signs are, what laws are they governed by". The task of the linguist is to find out what distinguishes language as a special system in the totality of semiological phenomena.

Since language is one of the systems of signs, linguistics turns out to be a part of semiology. De Saussure sees the definition of the place of linguistics among other sciences precisely in its connection with semiology: "if for the first time we manage to find linguistics a place among the sciences, this is only because we connected it with semiology".

Speech activity

Speech activity, a speech act, according to Saussure, has three components:

• physical (propagation of sound waves)

• physiological (from the ear to the acoustic image, or from the acoustic image to the movements of the speech organs)

• mental (firstly, acoustic images are mental reality, not coinciding with the sound itself, a mental representation of the physical sound; secondly, concepts).

Thanks for your attention

HAROLD WHITEHALL

Born: 14.05.1905
Died: 25.02.1986
Fellow: Awarded 1939
(Guggenheim Fellow)
Field of Study: Linguistics
Competition: US & Canada

- British educator, lexicographer.

- Fellow School Letters Indiana University, 1951-1986;

- Guggenheim Memorial fellow, 1939, Rockefeller fellow in criticism, 1944.

- Member Linguistic Society of America, American Dialect Society (life), Modern Language Association American.

Background

• Whitehall, Harold was born on May 14, 1905 in Ramsbottom, Lancashire, England. Son of Charles Henry and Beatrice Eliza (Fallows) Whitehall. came to the United States, 1928.

Education

• Student, Nottingham University, England, 1927. Bachelor (honorary,), London University, 1927. Doctor of Philosophy, University Iowa, 1931.

• Whitehall was educated at Hull Technical College in Hull, England, from 1918 to 1924; University College in Nottingham, England, from 1924 to 1928; obtained a B.A. from the University of London in 1927; and a Ph.D. from the State University of Iowa in 1931. He taught English as an instructor at the University of Iowa from 1928 until he received his Ph.D. in 1931.

Career

- He worked on the Middle English Dictionary as a research associate (1931-1932) and an assistant editor (1932-1938), and was an English instructor at the University of Michigan (1932-1938).
- He then moved on to the University of Wisconsin as an English lecturer and research associate (1938-1939), was a visiting lecturer in English language at Western Reserve University (1937-1938), and a visiting professor at the University of Texas during the summers (1937-1939).

More about H. Whitehall

- Harold Whitehall joined the faculty at IU Bloomington as an associate professor of English and chairman of the Linguistic Program in the fall of 1941.
- He was appointed to the faculty of the Graduate School that same year.
- He became professor of English and chairman of the Department of linguistics in 1949, and professor of linguistics in 1959.
- During the summer of 1944, he was awarded a Rockefeller Fellowship to do editorial work on the Kenyon Review, a publication of Kenyon College.
- He was appointed an IU School of Letters Fellow in 1952, was a McGuffey Visiting Professor of English at Ohio University in 1966, and a visiting professor of English language at the University of Puerto Rico in 1960.
- He retired from IU early in 1966, and later that same year, given the rank of professor emeritus of English and linguistics.
- The following year, Whitehall began teaching at the University of Ibadan in West Nigeria (1967-1970). Even after his official retirement, he held a position at the University of Liberia in Monrovia.

PUBLICATIONS

1. A Colloquial English Anthology, 1400–1830, 1937;
2. Middle English A« and Related Sounds: Their Development in Early American English, 1939.
3. Co-author, Middle English Dialect Survey, 1935.
4. Articles and reviews in Philological Quarterly, Tri-State English Notes, Publications of the Modern Language Association, Michigan Studies in English and Comparative Literature.
5. Etymologies in Middle English Dictionary, L-Laik, 1937.

Achievements

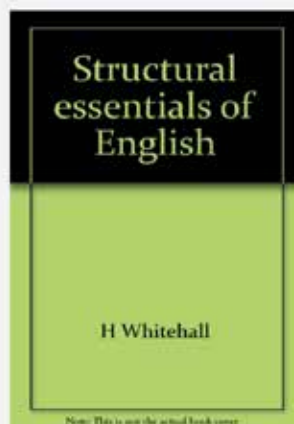Harold Whitehall has been listed as a noteworthy Educator, lexicographer by Marquis Who's Who.

Works

book

Middle English uİ,, and related sounds: Their development in early American English (Language monograph)

Membership

Member Linguistic Society of America, American Dialect Society (life), Modern Language Association American.

MOOD Harold Whitehall

From *Structural Essentials of English* "Although the subjunctive is gradually dying out of the language, English is rich in devices for expressing one's psychological moods toward happenings that are imaginary".

Thank you for your attention

GRAMMAR

Etsko Kruisinga was born on December 8, 1875 at Leens, a village in the Northwest of the Province of Groningen, where his father was a merchant.

On June 20, 1894, Kruisinga received his grammar school diploma. He abandoned his original plan to study law. He combined his Dutch studies with the study for obtaining the two secondary school teacher certificates in English.

From September 1, 1900 Kruisinga was appointed teacher in English and Dutch at the State Secondary School. He was a member of the Teachers' Union and devoted himself to improvement of teachers' position.

E. Kruisinga's Handbook of Present-day English (1932) presents a new viewpoint on some parts of English structure suggesting interesting approaches to various disputable points in the treatment of phrase-structure.

E. Kruisinga

A HANDBOOK OF PRESENT-DAY ENGLISH

E. Kruisinga's grammar is one of the most interesting of those scientific grammars which have retained the traditional grammatical system. Kruisinga criticises the definition of the sentence for its indeterminacy but does not redefine the term. The concept of the phrase was not popular among the writers of scientific grammars. Kruisinga originated the theory of close and loose syntactic groups, distinguishing between subordination and coordination. Closely related to this theory is the author's concept of the complex sentence.

Setting up two major types of syntactic structures: close and loose syntactic groups he defines them as follows:
- ✓ in close groups one of the members is syntactically the leading element of the group;
- ✓ in loose groups each element is comparatively independent of the other member.

By way of illustration: 'a country doctor' or 'mild weather' are close groups; word-combinations like 'men and women' are loose groups. The individual words are thus left "unaffected by their membership of the group".

Describing the close groups according to their leading member, E. Kruisinga classifies them into:
- verb-groups,
- noun-groups,
- adjective-groups,
- adverb-groups and preposition-groups;
- pronoun-groups are included in the noun and adjective-groups.

Modal and auxiliary verbs in verb-groups are referred to as "leading verbs".

Closely connected with this theory is the author's concept of the complex sentence. His classification is dichotomic: **only two sentence types are recognized** — simple and compound sentences.

The traditional compound sentence is not considered to be a syntactic unit at all; the material in question is treated in connection with double and multiple loose syntactic groups.

The new assumptions made by E. Kruisinga are of undoubted interest.

There are, however, disputable points in the discussion of the close groups where the author does not confine himself to one basis for the establishment of verb-phrases which in this part of analysis leads to certain inadequacy of the classification.

But on the whole the book-has notable merits.

The proposed manual aims to explain the basic concepts of theoretical English grammar to students in an original, modern and engaging way. The book consists of three basic parts – "Theory of English Grammar: A Working Programme", which provides general information about the academic course programme; "Lecture Notes", which presents the basic theoretical aspects of the course (with questions for revision), and "Workshop Plans", which provides recommended and possible workshop plans and topics for discussion. The appendix offers presentation options that can be accessed via QR codes. The illustrations provided help improve the comprehension of theoretical material and its retention in students' memory.