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Theoretical Grammar of the English Language

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PREFACE

Linguistics has undergone a considerable transformation in the last few decades. The same can be said about the theory of English grammar. In this course book we tried to present some of the main features of this transformation. Like all other authors, for every chapter we had to choose from dozens of possible ways of presenting an approach or concept, appropriate examples from the literature or our own research experience. We are aware that because of the need for simplicity, we haven't given adequate space to many important conceptions. Since this book is intended for both undergraduate (part I) and graduate (part II) students, the authors kept in mind the academic standards, syllabus, curriculum of these departments and academic hours allocated there for this subject.

It is important to mention that the organization of the book is cyclical: a subject is first introduced very simply and generally in one of the initial chapters and is then taken up again in more detail in one of the later paragraphs, thus allowing the lecturer to select which topics are necessary to focus on. This sort of organization is of great help to the students since it provides repetition and facilitates strengthening the knowledge of the subject.

There are many manuals and course books like the one we are offering. We believe that lecturers can easily improve whatever thematic, methodological and theoretical shortcomings they find in this book by integrating its materials with additional articles or monographs mentioned above.

Another feature of the course book that instructors and students will find helpful is the questions at the end of each chapter under the heading. "Self- control questions". These assignments will help to concentrate the students' attention on the most important data given in the chapter.

A glossary of the most significant linguistic terms is provided at the end of the book. It may be helpful for students and instructors.

We'd like to thank a number of our colleagues for the support and suggestions generously given on earlier drafts of the course book. They are: Dr. U.Yusupov, Dr. A.Ismailov, Dr. G.Bakiyeva, Dr. A.Sadikov, Dr. G.Satimov, Dr. G.Salimov, and Dr. R.Alimardanov.

The draft of this book has been used for some years by instructors and lecturers of two English Philology Departments and the Institute of Translation of Uzbekistan State University of World Languages, who provided numerous helpful comments and suggestions for revision.

Our profound gratitude goes to all of the individuals who gave feedback or criticism that was taken into account in preparing the book for publishing.

Finally, we want to admit that the course book is not free of shortcomings which are, of course, our own responsibility. We are open to any other criticisms and corrections that will help to further perfect this course book.

Contents

PART I

LANGUAGE AND SPEECH LEVELS

Problems to be discussed
- language and speech levels
- primary and secondary levels
- units of levels
- the difference between language and speech

Language (Speech) is divided to certain strata or levels. The linguists distinguish basic and non-basic (sometimes they term them differently: primary and secondary) levels. This distinction depends on whether a level has got its own unit or not. If a level has its own unit then this level is qualified as basic or primary. If a level doesn't have a unit of its own then it is a non - basic or secondary level. Thus the number of levels entirely depend on how many language (or speech) units in language. There's a number of conceptions on this issue: some scientists say that there are four units (phoneme/phone; morpheme/morph; lexeme/lex and sentence), others think that there are five units like phonemes, morphemes, lexemes, word -combinations (phrases) and sentences and still others maintain that besides the mentioned ones there are paragraphs, utterances and texts. As one can see there's no unity in the number of language and speech units. The most wide - spread opinion is that there are five language (speech) units and respectively there are five language (speech) levels, they are: phonetic/phonological; morphological: lexicological, syntax - minor and syntax - major. The levels and their units are as follows:

1. phonological/phonetical level: phoneme/phone
2. morphological level: morpheme/morph
3. lexicological level: lexeme/lex
4. Syntax - minor: sentence
5. Syntax - major: text

Thus, non - basic or secondary level is one that has no unit of its own. Stylistics can be said to be non - basic (secondary) because this level has no its own unit. In order to achieve its aim it makes wide use of the units of the primary (basic) levels. The stylistics studies the expressive means and stylistic devices of languages. According to I.R. Galperin "The expressive means of a language are those phonetic means, morphological forms, means of word -building, and lexical, phraseological and syntactical form, all of which function in the language for emotional or logical intensification of the utterance. These intensifying forms of the language, wrought by social usage and recognized by their semantic function have been fixed in grammars, dictionaries". (41)

"What then is a stylistic device (SD)? It is a conscious and intentional literary use of some of the facts of the language (including expressive means) in which the most essential features (both structural and semantic) of the language forms are raised to a generalized level and thereby present a generative model. Most stylistic devices may be

regarded as aiming at the further intensification of the emotional or logical emphasis contained in the corresponding expressive means". (41)

When talking about the levels one has to mention about the distinction between language and speech because the linguistics differentiates language units and speech units.

The main distinction between language and speech is in the following:

1) language is abstract and speech is concrete;
2) language is common, general for all the bearers while speech is individual;
3) language is stable, less changeable while speech tends to changes;
4) language is a closed system, its units are limited while speech tend to be openness and endless.

It is very important to take into account these distinctions when considering the language and speech units. There are some conceptions according to which the terms of "language levels" are substituted by the term of "emic level" while the "speech levels" are substituted by "ethic levels". Very often these terms are used interchangeably.

The lowest level in the hierarchy of levels has two special terms: phonology and phonetics. Phonology is the level that deals with language units and phonetics is the level that deals with speech units. The lowest level deals with language and speech units which are the smallest and meaningless. So, the smallest meaningless unit of language is called phoneme; the smallest meaningless unit of speech is called phone. As it's been said above the language units are abstract and limited in number which means that phonemes are abstract and that they are of definite number in languages. The speech units are concrete, changeable and actually endless. This means that language units (phonemes) are represented in speech differently which depends on the person that pronounces them and on the combinability of the phoneme.

Phonemes when pronounced in concrete speech vary from person to person, according to how he has got used to pronounce this or that sound. In linguistic theory it is explained by the term "idiolect" that is, individual dialect. Besides, there may be positional changes (combinability): depending on the sounds that precede and follow the sound that we are interested in the pronunciation of it may be different, compare: *low* and *battle*. The sound "l" will be pronounced differently in these two words because the letter "l" in the first word is placed in the initial position and in the second word it stands after the letter "t". So we face "light" (in the first word) and "dark" version (in the second case). These alternants are said to be in the complimentary distribution and they are called allophones (variants, options or alternants) of one phoneme. Thus allophone is a variant of a phoneme.

The second level in the hierarchy of strata is called morphological. There's only one term for both language and speech but the units have different terms: morpheme for language and morph for speech. This level deals with units that are also smallest but in this case they are meaningful. So the smallest meaningful unit of language is called a morpheme and the smallest meaningful unit of speech is called a morph. The morphs that have different forms, but identical (similar) meanings are united into one morpheme and called "allomorphs". The morpheme of the past tense has at least three allomorphs,

they are. /t/, /d/, /id/ - Examples: worked, phoned and wanted. The variant of the morpheme depends on the preceding sound in the word.

The third level is lexicological which deals with words. Word may be a common term for language and speech units. Some linguists offer specific terms for language and speech: "lexeme" for language and "lex" for speech.

The correlation between "lexeme" and "lex" is the same as it is between "phoneme" and "phone" and "morpheme" and "morph". "Lexeme" is a language unit of the lexicological level which has a nominative function. "Lex" is a speech unit of the lexicological level which has a nominative function.

Thus, both lexeme and lex nominate something or name things, actions phenomena, quality, quantity and so on.

Examples: tree, pen, sky, red, worker, friendship, ungentlemanly and so on. An abstract lexeme "table" of language is used in speech as lex with concrete meaning of "writing table", "dinner table", "round table", "square table", and so on. There may be "allolexes" like allophones and allomorphs. Allolexes are lexes that have identical or similar meanings but different forms, compare: start, commence, begin.

To avoid confusion between "morpheme" and "lexemes" it is very important to remember that morphemes are structural units while lexemes are communicative units: morpheme are built of phonemes and they are used to build words - lexemes. Lexemes take an immediate part in shaping the thoughts, that is, in building sentences. Besides, lexemes may consist of one or more morphemes. The lexeme "tree" consists of one morpheme while the lexeme "ungentlemanly" consists of four morphemes: un - gentle - man - ly.

The next level is syntax - minor which deals with sentences. The term "Syntax - minor" is common one for both language and speech levels and their unit "sentence" is also one common term for language and speech units. The linguistics hasn't yet worked out separate terms for those purposes.

The abstract notion "sentence" of language can have concrete its representation in speech which is also called "Sentence" due to the absence of the special term. Example: "An idea of writing a letter" on the abstract language level can have its concrete representation in speech: John writes a letter. *A* letter is written by John.

Since one and the same idea is expressed in two different forms they are called "allo - sentences". Some authors call them grammatical synonyms. Thus, sentence is language and speech units on the syntax - minor level, which has a communicative function.

In the same way the level syntax - major can be explained. The unit of this level is text - the highest level of language and speech. "Syntax- major" represents both language and speech levels due to the absence of separate term as well as "text" is used homogeneously for both language and speech units.

The language and speech units are interconnected and interdependent. This can easily be proved by the fact that the units of lower level are used to make up or to build the units of the next higher level: phones are used as building material for morphs, and morphs are used to build lexes and the latter are used to construct sentences. Besides, the homonyms that appear in the phonetical level can be explained on the following higher level, compare: - "er" is a homonymous morph. In order to find out in which

meaning it is used we'll have to use it on the lexicological level; if it is added to verbs like "teacher", "worker" then it will have one meaning but if we use it with adjectives like "higher", "lower" it will have another meaning. Before getting down to "the theoretical grammar" course one has to know the information given above.

The distinction between language and speech was made by Ferdinand de Saussure, the Swiss scholar usually credited with establishing principles of modern linguistics. **Language** is a collective body of knowledge, it is a set of basic elements, but these elements can form a great variety of combinations. In fact the number of these combinations is endless. Speech is closely connected with language, as it is the result of using the language, the result of a definite act of speaking. Speech is individual, personal while language is common for all individuals. To illustrate the difference between language and speech let us compare a definite *game of chess* and *a set of rules* how to play chess.

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

A linguistic unit can enter into relations of two different kinds. It enters into paradigmatic relations with all the units that can also occur in the same environment. PR are relations based on the principles of similarity. They exist between the units that can substitute one another. For instance, in the word-group *A PINT OF MILK* the word *PINT* is in paradigmatic relations with the words *bottle, cup,* etc. The article *A* can enter into PR with the units *the, this, one, same,* etc. According to different principles of similarity PR can be of three types: **semantic, formal** and **functional**.

a) Semantic PR are based on the similarity of meaning: *a book to read = a book for reading. He used to practice English every day - He would practice English every day.*

b) Formal PR are based on the similarity of forms. Such relations exist between the members of a paradigm: *man - men; play - played - will play - is playing.*

c) Functional PR are based on the similarity of function. They are established between the elements that can occur in the same position. For instance, noun determiners: *a, the, this, his, Ann's, some, each,* etc.

PR are associated with the sphere of 'language'.

A linguistic unit enters into **syntagmatic** relations with other units of the same level it occurs with. SR exist at every language level. E.g. in the word-group A PINT OF MILK the word PINT contrasts SR with A, OF, MILK; within the word PINT - P, I, N and T are in **syntagmatic** relations. SR are linear relations, that is why they are manifested in speech. They can be of three different types: **coordinate, subordinate** and **predicative**.

a) Coordinate SR exist between the homogeneous linguistic units that are equal in rank, that is, they are the relations of independence: *you* and *me;* They were *tired* but *happy*.

b) Subordinate SR are the relations of dependence when one linguistic unit depends on the other: *teach* к *er* – morphological level; *a smart student* - word-group level; predicative and subordinate clauses - sentence level.

c) Predicative SR are the relations of interdependence: primary and secondary predication.

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

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

Generally speaking, Indo-European languages are classified into two structural types - synthetic and analytic. Synthetic languages are defined as ones of 'internal' grammar of the word - most of grammatical meanings and grammatical relations of words are expressed with the help of inflexions. Analytical languages are those of 'external' grammar because most grammatical meanings and grammatical forms are expressed with the help of words *(will do)*. However, we cannot speak of languages as purely synthetic or analytic - the English language (Modem English) possesses analytical forms as prevailing, while in the Ukrainian language synthetic devices are dominant. In the process of time English has become more analytical as compared to Old English. Analytical changes in Modem English (especially American) are still under way.

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

It is difficult to arrive at a one-sentence definition of such a complex linguistic unit as the word. First of all, it is the main expressive unit of human language which ensures the thought-forming function of the language. It is also the basic nominative unit of language with the help of which the naming function of language is realized. As any linguistic sign the word is a level unit. In the structure of language it belongs to the upper stage of the morphological level. It is a unit of the sphere of' language' and it exists only through its speech actualization. One of the most characteristic features of the word is its indivisibility. As any other linguistic unit the word is a bilateral entity. It unites a concept and a sound image and thus has two sides - the content and expression sides: concept and sound form.

Self-control questions

1. How is the word "level" translated into your mother tongue?
2. Why do we have to stratify language and speech?
3. What is the difference between primary and secondary levels?
4. Do all the linguists share the same opinion on the stratification of language?
5. How many basic or primary levels are there in language and speech?
6. What's the difference between language levels and speech levels?

7. Are there special terms for language and speech levels?
8. What does phonetical - phonological level study?
9. What does morphological level study?
10. What does lexicological level study?
11. What does syntax - minor study?
12. What does syntax - major study?
13. Do the levels function separately in speech or they function as one body?
14. What is the function of the word "allo"?

THE GRAMMATICAL STRUCTURE OF A LANGUAGE

Problems to be discussed
- the meanings of the notion of "Grammatical Structure"
- the lexical and grammatical meanings
- the grammatical structure of languages from the point of view of general linguistics
- the morphological types of languages and the place of the English language in this typology
- the grammatical means of the English language
  a) the order of words
  b) the functional words
  c) the stress and intonation
  d) the grammatical inflections
  e) sound changes
  f) suppletion

The grammatical signals have a meaning of their own independent of the meaning of the notional words. This can be illustrated by the following sentence with nonsensical words: Woggles ugged diggles.

According to Ch. Fries (37), (38) the morphological and the syntactic signals in the given sentence make us understand that "several actors acted upon some objects". This sentence which is a syntactic signal, makes the listener understand it as a declarative sentence whose grammatical meaning is actor - action - thing acted upon. One can easily change (transform) the sentence into the singular (A woggle ugged a diggle.), negative (A woggle did not ugg a diggle.), or interrogative (Did a woggle ugg a diggle?) All these operations are grammatical. Then what are the main units of grammar - structure.

Let us assume, for example, a situation in which are involved a man, a boy, some money, an act of giving, the man the giver, the boy the receiver, the time of the transaction - yesterday...

Any one of the units man, boy, money, giver, yesterday could appear in the linguistic structure as subject.

The man gave the boy the money yesterday.

The boy was given the money by the man yesterday.

The money was given the boy by the man yesterday.

The giving of the money to the boy by the man occurred yesterday.

Yesterday was the time of the giving of the money to the boy by the man.

"Subject" then is a formal linguistic structural matter.

Thus, the grammatical meaning of a syntactic construction shows the relation between the words in it.

We have just mentioned here "grammatical meaning", "grammatical utterance". The whole complex of linguistic means made use of grouping words into utterances is called a grammatical structure of the language.

All the means which are used to group words into the sentence exist as a certain system; they are interconnected and interdependent. They constitute the sentence structure.

All the words of a language fall, as we stated above, under notional and functional words.

Notional words are divided into four classes in accord with the position in which they stand in a sentence.

Notional words as positional classes are generally represented by the following symbols: N, V, A, D.

The man landed the jet plane safely

N V A N D

Words which refer to class N cannot replace word referring to class V and vice versa. These classes we shall call grammatical word classes.

Thus, in any language there are certain classes of words which have their own positions in sentences. They may also be considered to be grammatical means of a language.

So we come to a conclusion that the basic means of the grammatical structure of language are: a) sentence structure; b) grammatical word classes.

In connection with this grammar is divided into two parts: grammar which deals with sentence structure and grammar which deals with grammatical word - classes. The first is syntax and the second - morphology.

W. Francis: "The Structure of American English".

The Structural grammarian regularly begins with an objective description of the forms of language and moves towards meaning.

An organized whole is greater than the mere sum of its parts. (36)

The organized whole is a structural meaning and the mere sum of its parts is a lexical meaning.

Five Signals of Syntactic Structure

1. Word Order - is the linear or time sequence in which words appear in an utterance.

2. Prosody - is the over-all musical pattern of stress, pitch, juncture in which the words of an utterance are spoken

3. Function words - are words largely devoid of lexical meaning which are used to indicate various functional relationships among the lexical words of an utterance

4. Inflections - are morphemic changes - the addition of suffixes and morphological means concomitant morphophonemic adjustments - which adopt

words to perform certain structural function without changing their lexical meanings

5. Derivational contrast - is the contrast between words which have the same base but differ in the number and nature of their derivational affixes

One more thing must be mentioned here. According to the morphological classification English is one of the flexional languages. But the flexional languages fall under synthetical and analytical ones. The synthetical-flexional languages are rich in grammatical inflections and the words in sentences are mostly connected with each-other by means of these inflections though functional words and other grammatical means also participate in this. But the grammatical inflections are of primary importance. The slavonic languages (Russian, Ukraine...) are of this type.

The flectional-analytical languages like English and French in order to connect words to sentences make wide use of the order of words and functional words due to the limited number of grammatical flexions. The grammatical means - order of words – is of primary importance for this type of languages.

LEXICAL AND GRAMMATICAL MEANING

In the next chapter we shall come to know that some morphemes are independent and directly associated with some object of reality while others are depended and are connected with the world of reality only indirectly. Examples:

desk-s; bag-s; work-ed; lie-d ...

The first elements of these words are not dependent as the second elements. Morphemes of the 1st type we'll call lexical and meanings they express are lexical.

The elements like *-s, -ed, -d* are called grammatical morphemes and meanings they express are grammatical.

Thus, lexical meaning is characteristic to lexical morphemes, while grammatical meanings are characteristic to grammatical morphemes.

Grammatical meanings are expressed not only by forms of word - changing, i.e. by affixation but by free morphemes that are used to form analytical word-form, e.g.

He will study, I shall go.

The meaning of *shall, will* considered to be grammatical since comparing the relations of *invite - invited - shall invite* we can see that the function of shall is similar to that of grammatical morphemes *-s, -ed.*

1. The notion of 'grammatical meaning'.

The word combines in its semantic structure two meanings - lexical and grammatical. **Lexical** meaning is the individual meaning of the word (e.g. *table).* **Grammatical** meaning is the meaning of the whole class or a subclass. For example, the class of nouns has the grammatical meaning of thingness. If we take a noun *(table)* we may say that it possesses its individual lexical meaning (it corresponds to a definite piece of furniture) and the grammatical meaning of thingness (this is the meaning of the whole class). Besides, the noun *'table'* has the grammatical meaning of a subclass - countableness. Any verb combines its individual lexical meaning with the grammatical meaning of verbiality - the ability to denote actions or states. An adjective combines its

individual lexical meaning with the grammatical meaning of the whole class of adjectives - qualitativeness - the ability to denote qualities. Adverbs possess the grammatical meaning of adverbiality - the ability to denote quality of qualities.

There are some classes of words that are devoid of any lexical meaning and possess the grammatical meaning only. This can be explained by the fact that they have no referents in the objective reality. All function words belong to this group articles, particles, prepositions, etc.

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

The implicit grammatical meaning may be of two types - general and dependent. The general grammatical meaning is the meaning of the whole word-class, of a part of speech (e.g. nouns - the general grammatical meaning of thingness). The **dependent** grammatical meaning is the meaning of a subclass within the same part of speech. For instance, any verb possesses the dependent grammatical meaning of transitivity/intransitivity, terminativeness/non-terminativeness, stativeness/nonstativeness; nouns have the dependent grammatical meaning of countableness/uncountableness and animate-ness/inanimateness. The most important thing about the dependent grammatical meaning is that it influences the realization of grammatical categories restricting them to a subclass. Thus the dependent grammatical meaning of countableness/uncountableness influences the realization of the grammatical category of number as the number category is realized only within the subclass of countable nouns, the grammatical meaning of animateness/inanimateness influences the realization of the grammatical category of case, terminativeness/non-terminativeness - the category of tense, transitivity/intransitivity - the category of voice.

Grammatical categories are made up by the unity of identical grammatical meanings that have the same form (e.g. singular : plural). Due to dialectal unity of language and thought, grammatical categories correlate, on the one hand, with the conceptual categories and, on the other hand, with the objective reality.

It means that we may define grammatical categories as references of the corresponding objective categories. For example, the objective category of **time** finds its representation in the grammatical category of **tense**, the objective category of **quantity** finds its representation in the grammatical category of **number**. Those grammatical categories that have references in the objective reality are called **referential** grammatical categories. However, not all of the grammatical categories have references in the objective reality, just a few of them do not correspond to anything in the objective reality.

They are called **significational** categories. To this type belong the categories of **mood** and **degree**. Speaking about the grammatical category of mood we can say that it has **modality** as its conceptual correlate. It can be explained by the fact that it does not refer to anything in the objective reality - it expresses the speaker's attitude to what he

says.

Any grammatical category must be represented by at least two grammatical forms (e.g. the grammatical category of number singular and plural forms). The relation between two grammatical forms differing in meaning and external signs is called **opposition** - book::books (unmarked member/marked member). All grammatical categories find their realization through oppositions, e.g. the grammatical category of number is realized through the opposition singular::plural.

Taking all the above mentioned into consideration, we may define the grammatical category as the opposition between two mutually exclusive form-classes (a form-class is a set of words with the same explicit grammatical meaning).

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

5. Transposition and neutralization of morphological forms.

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

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

Self-control questions

1. What do you understand by "grammatical structure of a language"?
2. What is the difference between synthetic and analytical languages?
3. What are the basic grammatical means of the English language?
4. Describe all the grammatical means of English.
5. Compare the grammatical structure of English with the grammatical structure of your native language?
6. What is the difference between lexical and grammatical meanings?

MORPHOLOGY

THE MORPHEMIC STRUCTURE OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE

Problems to be discussed:

- what operation is called "Morphemic analysis"?
- language and speech levels and their corresponding units
- morpheme-morph-allomorph
- types of morphemes from the point of view of their:
  a) function
  b) number correlation between form and meaning.

There are many approaches to the questions mentioned above. According to Zellig Harris (46) "The morphemic analysis is the operation by which the analyst isolates minimum meaningful elements in the utterances of a language, and decides which occurrences of such elements shall be regarded as occurrences of "the same" element".

The general procedure of isolating the minimum meaningful elements is as follows:

Step 1. The utterances of a language are examined (obviously) not all of them, but a sampling which we hope will be statistically valid. Recurrent partials with constant meaning (ran away in John ran away and Bill ran away) are discovered; recurrent partials not composed of smaller ones (way) are alternants or morphs. So are any partials not recurrent but left over when all recurrent ones are counted for. Every utterance is composed entirely of morphs. The division of a stretch of speech between one morph and another, we shall call a cut.

Step 2. Two or more morphs are grouped into a single morpheme if they:

a) have the same meaning;
b) never occur in identical environments and
c) have combined environments no greater than the environments of some single alternant in the language.

Step 3. The difference in the phonemic shape of alternants of morphemes are organized and stated; this constitutes morphophonemics

Compare the above said with the conception of Ch. Hockett.

Ch. Hockett (48):

Step 1. All the utterances of the language before (us) the analyst recorded in some phonemic notation.

Step 2. The notations are now examined, recurrent partials with constant meaning are discovered; those not composed of smaller ones are morphs. So are any partials not recurrent but left over when all recurrent ones are accounted for: therefore every bit of phonemic material belongs to one morphs or another. By definition, a morph has the same phonemic shape in all its occurrences; and (at this stage) every morph has an overt phonemic shape, but a morph is not necessarily composed of a continuous uninterrupted stretch of phonemes. The line between two continuous morphs is a cut.

Step 3. Omitting doubtful cases, morphs are classed on the basis of shape and canonical forms are tentatively determined.

Step 4. Two or more morphs are grouped into a single morpheme if they fit the following grouping - requirements:

a) they have the same meaning;
b) they are in non-contrastive distribution;
c) the range of resultant morpheme is not unique.

Step 5. It is very important to remember that if in this procedure one comes across to alternative possibilities, choice must be based upon the following order of priority:

a) tactical simplicity
b) morphophonemic simplicity
c) conformity to canonical forms.

Thus the first cut of utterance into the smallest meaningful units is called morph. The morphs that have identical meanings are grouped into one morpheme. It means the morphs and morphemes are speech and language units that have both form (or shape) and meanings. The smallest meaningful unit of language is called a morpheme while the smallest meaningful unit of speech is called a morph. There's a notion of allomorph in linguistics. By allomorphs the linguists understand the morphs that have identical meanings and that are grouped into one morpheme. There may be another definition of the allomorphs: the variants (or options, or alternants) of a morpheme are called allomorphs.

Compare the above said with Harris's opinion. (46)

Some morphs, however, and some may be assigned simultaneously to two (or more) morphemes. An empty morph, assigned to no morpheme. (All the empty morphs in a language are in complementary distribution and have the same meaning (none). They could if there were any advantages in it, be grouped into a single empty morpheme (but one which had the unique characteristic of being tactically irrelevant), must have no meaning and must be predicable in terms of non-empty morphs. A portmanteau morphs must have the meanings of two or more morphemes simultaneously, and must be in non-contrastive distribution with the combination of any alternant of one of the member morphemes and any alternant of the other (usually because no such combination occur).

The difference in the phonemic shape of morphs as alternants of morphemes are organized and stated; this (in some cases already partly accomplished in Step 1) constitutes morphophonemics.

In particular, portmanteaus are compared with the other alternants of the morphemes involved, and if resemblances in phonemic shape and the number of cases warrant, morphs of other than overt phonemic content are recognized, some of the portmanteaus being thus eliminated.

The Types of Morphemes

Morphemes can be classified from different view-points:

1. functional
2. number correlation between form and content

From the point of view of function they may be lexical and grammatical. The lexical morphemes are those that express full lexical meaning of their own and are associated with some object, quality, action, number of reality, like: lip, red, go, one and so on. The lexical morphemes can be subdivided into lexical - free and lexical - bound morphemes. The examples given above are free ones; they are used in speech independently. The lexical-bound ones are never used independently; they are usually added to some lexical-free morphemes to build new words like- friend-ship, free-dom, teach-er, spoon-ful and so on. Taking into account that in form they resemble the grammatical inflections they may be also called lexical - grammatical morphemes. Thus lexical - bound morphemes are those that determine lexical meanings of words but resemble grammatical morphemes in their dependence on lexical - free morphemes. The lexical - bound morphemes are means to build new words.

The grammatical morphemes are those that are used either to connect words in sentences or to form new grammatical forms of words. The content of such morphemes are connected with the world of reality only indirectly therefore they are also called structural morphemes, e.g., shall, will, be, have, is, - (e)s, -(e)d and so on. As it is seen from the examples the grammatical morphemes have also two subtypes: grammatical - free and grammatical - bound. The grammatical - free ones are used in sentences independently (I shall go) while grammatical - bound ones are usually attached to some lexical - free morphemes to express new grammatical form, like: girl's bag, bigger room, asked.

From the point of view of number correlation between form and content there may be overt, zero, empty and discontinuous morphemes.

By overt morpheme the linguists understand morphemes that are represented by both form and content like: eye, bell, big and so on.

Zero morphemes are those that have (meaning) content but do not have explicitly expressed forms. These morphemes are revealed by means of comparison:

ask – asks

high -higher

In these words the second forms are marked: "asks" is a verb in the third person singular which is expressed by the inflection "s". In its counterpart there's no marker like "s" but the absence of the marker also has grammatical meaning: it means that the verb "ask" is not in the third person, singular number. Such morphemes are called "zero". In the second example the adjective "higher" is in the comparative degree, because of the "- er" while its counterpart "high" is in the positive degree, the absence of the marker expresses a grammatical meaning, i.e. a zero marker is also meaningful, therefore it's a zero morpheme.

There are cases when there's a marker which has not a concrete meaning. i.e. there's neither lexical nor grammatical meaning like: statesman. The word consists of three morphemes: state - s - man. The first and third morphemes have certain meanings. But "s" has no meaning though serve as a connector: it links the first morpheme with the third one. Such morphemes are called empty. Thus empty morphemes are those that have form but no content.

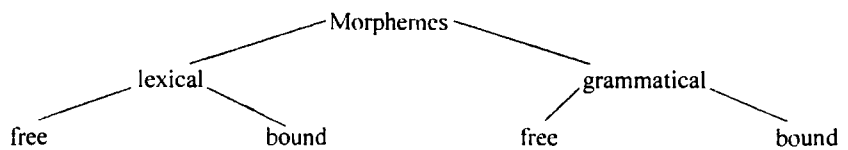
In contemporary English there are cases when two forms express one meaning like:

He is writing a letter

Two morphemes in this sentence "is" and " - ing" express one meaning: a continuous action. Such morphemes are called discontinuous.

Thus there are two approaches to classify morphemes: functional and number correlation between form and content.

The first one can be shown in the following scheme:



The second one can also be shown in the same way:

Morphemes

	overt	zero	empty	discontinuous
form	+	-	+	+-
meaning	+	+	-	+

Self-control questions

1. What operation is called "morphemic analysis?"
2. What are the procedures for revealing morphemes suggested by Z. Harris and Ch. Hockett?
3. What is a morpheme?
4. What is a morph?
5. What is an allomorph?
6. What are the criteria to classify morphemes?
7. What morphemes do you know according to the functional classification?
8. What types of morphemes are distinguished according to the criterion of number correlation between form and content?

THE PROBLEM OF GRAMMATICAL CATEGORIES

Problems to be discussed:
- what is categorization
- what linguistic phenomenon is called a "grammatical category"?
- what is "opposition"?
- the types of grammatical categories.

Any research presupposes bringing into certain order the material being studied. The issue under the consideration is also an attempt to generalize the grammatical means of language.

There are many conceptions on the problem today. According to B. Golovin (12) "a grammatical category is a real linguistic unity of grammatical meaning and the means of its material expression". It means that in order to call a linguistic phenomenon a grammatical category there must be a grammatical meaning and grammatical means.

M.Y. Blokh (6), (7), (28) explains it as follows: "As for the grammatical category itself, it presents, the same as the grammatical "form", a unity of form (i.e. material factor), and meanings (i.e. ideal factor) and constitutes a certain signemic system.

More specifically the grammatical category is a system of expressing a generalized grammatical meaning by means of paradigmatic correlation of grammatical forms.

The paradigmatic correlations of grammatical forms in a category are exposed by the so - called "grammatical oppositions".

The opposition (in the linguistic sense) may be defined as a generalized correlation of lingual forms by means of which a certain function is expressed. The correlated elements (members) of the opposition must possess two types of features: common features and differential features. Common features serve as the basis of contrast while differential features immediately express the function in question.

The grammatical categories are better to explain by comparing them with logical categories. The grammatical categories are opposed to logical ones. The logical categories are universal for all the languages. Any meanings can be expressed in any language. For instance there's a logical category of possession. The meaning of possession can be expressed in all the languages, compare: My book (English) - Моя книга (Russian) - Менинг китобим (Uzbek).

As it is seen from the examples the meaning of possession in English and Russian is expressed, by the possessive pronouns (lexical means) while in Uzbek it can be expressed either by the help of a discontinuous morpheme (...инг ...им) or by one overt morpheme (...им). This category is grammatical in Uzbek but lexical in the other two languages. Thus the universal logical categories can be expressed by grammatical and non - grammatical (lexical, syntactic) means. The grammatical categories are those logical ones that are expressed in languages by constant grammatical means.

The doctrines mentioned above one - side approach to the problem. It is a rather complicated issue in the general linguistics. But unfortunately we don't have universally acknowledged criteria to meet the needs of individual languages.

One of the most consistent theories of the grammatical categories is the one that is suggested by L. Barkhudarov. (3). (4)

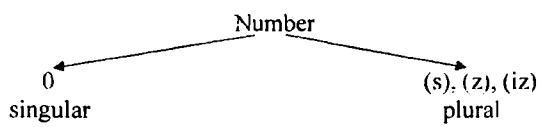
According to his opinion in order to call a linguistic phenomenon a grammatical category there must be the following features:

- general grammatical meaning;
- this meaning must consist of at least two particular meanings;
- the particular meanings must be opposed to each - other:
- the particular meanings must have constant grammatical means to express them.

Thus, any linguistic phenomenon that meets these requirements is called a grammatical category. English nouns have a grammatical category of number. This category has all the requirements that are necessary for a grammatical category:

1. it has general grammatical meaning of number;
2. it consists of two particular meanings; singular and plural;
3. singular is opposed to plural, they are antonymous;
4. singular and plural have their own constant grammatical means:

singular is represented by a zero morpheme and plural has the allomorphs like (s), (z), (iz). There are some other means to express singular and plural in English but they make very small percentage compared with regular means. Schematically this can be shown as follows:



Another example. In English adjectives there's one grammatical category - the degrees of comparison. What features does it have?

1. It has a general grammatical meaning: degrees of comparison:
2. The degrees of comparison consist of three particular meanings: positive, comparative and superlative:
3. They are opposed to each - other;
4. They have their own grammatical means depending on the number of syllables in the word.

If in the category of number of nouns there are two particular meanings, in the grammatical category of degrees of comparison there are three.

Thus, a grammatical category is a linguistic phenomenon that has a general grammatical meaning consisting of at least two particular meanings that are opposed to each - other and that have constant grammatical means of their own to express them.

Self-control questions

1. Why do we categorize the grammatical meanings?
2. Is there one conception of grammatical categories that is shared by all the scientists or are there many approaches?
3. Whose conceptions on grammatical category do you know?
4. What are the main requirements for the grammatical category?
5. Comment the grammatical categories of case of nouns: voice, aspect, order of verbs.
6. What types of grammatical categories do you know?

THE PROBLEM OF PARTS OF SPEECH

Problems to be discussed:
- brief history of grouping words to parts of speech
- contemporary criteria for classifying words to parts of speech
- structural approach to the classification of words (the doctrine of American descriptive School)
- notional and functional parts of speech

A thorough study of linguistic literature on the problem of English parts of speech enables us to conclude that there were three tendencies in grouping English words into parts of speech or into form classes:

1. Pre-structural tendency;
2. Structural tendency;
3. Post - structural tendency;

1. Pre-structural tendency is characterized by classifying words into word - groups according to their meaning, function and form. To this group of scientists H. Sweet (73), O. Jespersen (53), (54), O. Curme (33), B. Ilyish (51) and other grammarians can be included.

2. The second tendency is characterized by classification of words exclusively according to their structural meaning, as per their distribution. The representatives of the tendency are: Ch. Fries (37), (38), W. Francis (36), A. Hill (47) and others.

3. The third one combines the ideas of the two above-mentioned tendencies. They classify words in accord with the meaning, function, form; stem-building means and distribution (or combinability). To this group of scientists we can refer most Russian grammarians such as: Khaimovitch and Rogovskaya (57), L. Barkhudarov and Shteling (5) and others.

One of the central problems of a theoretical Grammar is the problem of parts of speech. There is as yet no generally accepted system of English parts of speech. Now we shall consider conceptions of some grammarians.

H. Sweet's (73) classification of parts of speech is based on the three principles (criteria), namely meaning, form and function. All the words in English he divides into two groups: 1) noun-words: nouns, noun-pronouns, noun-numerals, infinitive, gerund; 2) verbs: finite verbs, verbals (infinitive, gerund, participle)

I. Declinable Adjective words: adjective, adjective pronouns, adjective-numeral, participles

II. Indeclinable: adverb, preposition, conjunction, interjection

As you see, the results of his classification, however, reveal a considerable divergence between his theory and practice. He seems to have kept to the form of words. Further, concluding the chapter he wrote: "The distinction between the two classes which for convenience we distinguish as declinable and indeclinable parts of speech is not entirely dependent on the presence or absence of inflection, but really goes deeper, corresponding, to some extent, to the distinction between head - word and adjunct-word. The great majority of the particles are used only as adjunct-words, many of them being only form-words, while declinable words generally stand to the particles in the relation of headwords.

O. Jespersen. (53), (54)

According to Jespersen the division of words into certain classes in the main goes back to the Greek and Latin grammarians with a few additions and modifications.

He argues against those who while classifying words kept to either form or meaning of words, he states that the whole complex of criteria, i.e. form, function and meaning should he kept in view. He gives the following classification:

1. Substantives (including proper names)
2. Adjectives

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

3. Pronouns (including numerals and pronominal adverbs)
4. Verbs (with doubts as to the inclusion of "Verbids")
5. Particles (comprising what are generally called adverbs, prepositions, conjunctions- coordinating and subordinating - and interjections).

As it is seen from his classification in practice only one of those features is taken into consideration, and that is primarily form. Classes (1-4) are declinable while particles not. It reminds Sweet's grouping of words. The two conceptions are very similar.

Tanet R. Aiken kept to function only. She has conceived of a six-class system, recognizing the following categories: absolute, verb, complement, modifiers and connectives.

Ch. Fries' (37), (38) classification of words is entirely different from those of traditional grammarians. The new approach - the application of two of the methods of structural linguistics, distributional analysis and substitution - makes it possible for Fries to dispense with the usual eight parts of speech. He classifies words into four form - classes, designated by numbers, and fifteen groups of function words, designated by letters. The form-classes correspond roughly to what most grammarians call noun and pronouns (1st clause), verb (2nd clause), adjective and adverbs, though Fries warns the reader against the attempt to translate the statements which the latter finds in the book into the old grammatical terms.

The group of function words contains not only prepositions and conjunctions but certain specific words that more traditional grammarians would class as a particular kind of pronouns, adverbs and verbs. In the following examples:

1. Woggles ugged diggles
2. Uggs woggled diggs
3. Diggles diggled diggles

The woggles, uggs, diggles are "thing", because they are treated as English treats "thing" words - we know it by the "positions" they occupy in the utterances and the forms they have, in contrast with other positions and forms. Those are all structural signals of English. *So Fries comes to the conclusion that a part of speech in English is a functioning pattern.*[1] All words that can occupy the same "set of positions" in the patterns of English single free utterances (simple sentences) must belong to the same part speech.

Fries' test-frame-sentences were the following:

Frame A

The concert was good (always)

Frame B

The clerk remembered the tax (suddenly)

Frame C

The team went there

Fries started with his first test frame and set out to find in his material all the words that could be substituted for the word concert with no change of structural meaning (The materials were some fifty hours of tape-recorded conversations by some three hundred different speakers in which the participants were entirely unaware that their speech was being recorded):

The concert was good
food
coffee
taste.....

The words of this list he called class I words.

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[1] «the difference between nouns and verbs lies not in what kinds of things they stand for, but in what kinds of frames they stand in. *I saw Robert kill Mary. I witnessed the killing of Mary by Robert*"
"Language process" Vivien Tartter. N.Y., 1986, p.89

The word "was" and all the words that can be used in this position he called class 2 words.

In such a way he revealed 4 classes of notional words and 15 classes of functional words.

These four classes of notional words contain approximately 67 per cent of the total instances of the vocabulary items. In other words our utterances consist primarily of arrangements of these four parts of speech.

Functional words are identified by letters

	Class	A	Words
the			concert was good
the	a/an	every	
no	my	our	
one	all	both	
that	some	John's	

All the words appearing in this position (Group A) serve as markers of Class 1 words. Sometimes they are called "determiners".

The author enumerates fourteen more groups of function words among which we find, according to the traditional terminology

Group B - modal verbs
Group C - n.p.not
Group D - adverbs of degree
Group E - coordinating conj-s.
Group F - prepositions
Group G - the aux-v. do
Group H - introductory there
Group I - interrogative pr-ns and adverbs
Group J - subordinating conj-s
Group K- interjections
Group L- the words yes and no
Group M - attention giving signals look, say, listen
Group N - the word please
Group O - let us, let in request sentences.

The difference between the four classes of words and function words are as follows:

1. The four classes are large in number while the total number of function words amounts to 154.

2. In the four classes the lexical meanings of the separate words are rather clearly separable from the structural meanings of the arrangements in which these words appear. In the fifteen groups it is usually difficult if not impossible to indicate a lexical meaning apart from the structural meanings which these words signal.

3. Function words must be treated as items since they signal different structural meanings:

The boys were given the money.
The boys have given the money. (37), (38)

Russian grammarians in classifying words into parts of speech keep to different concepts;

A.I. Smirnitsky identifies three criteria. The most important of them is the syntactic function next comes meaning and then morphological forms of words. In his opinion stem-building elements are of no use. His word-groups are:

Notional words	Function words
1. Nouns	link - verbs
2. Adjectives	prepositions
	conjunctions
3. Numerals	modifying function words
4. Pronouns	(article, particle)
5. Adverbs	only, even, not
6. Verbs	

Khaimovich and Rogovskaya identify five criteria

1. Lexico - grammatical meaning of words
2. Lexico - grammatical morphemes (stem - building elements)
3. Grammatical categories of words.
4. Their combinability (unilateral, bilateral)
5. Their function in a sentence.

Their Classification

1. Nouns
2. Adjectives
3. Pronouns
4. Numerals
5. Verbs
6. Adverbs
7. Adlinks (the cat. of state) asleep, alive
8. Modal words
9. Prepositions
10. Conjunctions
11. Particles (just, yet, else, alone)
12. Interjections
13. Articles
14. Response words (yes, no)

As authors state the parts of speech lack some of those five criteria. The most general properties of parts of speech are features 1, 4 and 5. ***B. A. Ilyish (51) distinguishes three criteria***:

1. meaning; 2. form, 3. function. The third criteria is subdivided into two:

a) the method of combining the word with other ones

b) the function in the sentence.

a) has to deal with phrases; b) with sentence structure. B. A. Ilyish considers the theory of parts of speech as essentially a part of morphology, involving, however, some syntactical points.

1. Nouns	7. Adverbs
2. Adjective	8. Prepositions
3. Pronoun	9. Conjunctions
4. Numerals	10. Particles
5. Statives (asleep, afraid)	11. Modal words
6. Verbs	12. Interjections

L. Barkhudarov, D. Steling (5). Their classification of words are based on four principles. But the important and characteristic feature of their classification is that they do not make use of syntactic function of words in sentences: meaning,

grammatical forms, combinability with other words and the types of word - building (which are studied not by grammar, but by lexicology).

1. Nouns
2. Articles
3. Pronouns
4. Adjectives
5. Adverbs
6. Numerals
7. Verbs
8. Prepositions
9. Conjunctions
10. Particles
11. Modal words
12. Interjections

We find another approach of those authors to the words of English.

All the words are divided into two main classes:

notional words and function - words: connectives, determinatives

Function words are those which do not have full lexical meaning and cannot be used as an independent part of sentences. According to their function these words, as has been mentioned, are subdivided into connectives and determinatives:

1. connectives form phrases as to believe in something or as in the hall. To connectives authors refer: prepositions, conjunctions, modal and link verbs;

2. determinatives are words which define the lexical meaning of notional words (they either limit them, or make them more concrete). These words include articles and particles.

The consideration of conceptions of different grammarians shows that the problem of parts of speech is not yet solved. There's one point which is generally accepted: in M-n English there are two classes of words-notional and functional - which are rather distinct.

THE NOUN

Problems to be discussed:

- nouns as a part of speech
- the grammatical categories of nouns
  - a) number
  - b) case
- the meaning of gender in Modern English
- gender and sex.

In most cases in treating parts of speech in English we shall keep to the conception of scientists that we refer to post-structural tendency. It's because they combine the ideas of traditional and structural grammarians.

The noun is classified into a separate word - group because:

1. they all have the same lexical - grammatical meaning :
   substance / thing
2. according to their form - they've two grammatical categories:
   number and case
3. they all have typical stem-building elements:
   - er, - ist, - ship, - merit, -hood ...

4. typical combinability with other words:
   most often left-hand combinability
5. function - the most characteristic feature of nouns is - they can be observed in all syntactic functions but predicate.

Some words about the distribution of nouns. Because of the fact that nouns express or denote substance / thing, their distribution is bound with the words which express the quality of substance, their number, their actions and their relation to the other words /nouns/ in English.

When the quality of nouns are described we make use of adjectives:

big, red apple

energetic crisis

a long, dusty track and others.

When the quantity and order of nouns are described the numerals are to be used:

the six continents

25th anniversary

12 students....

When we denote the action of substances we make use of the verbs:

An apple-tree grows in the garden

Russia assisted India in Mounting Bokaro Steal Plant

When the relation of nouns to other words are described we make wide use of prepositions

a window of the school

to the park

at the construction of the bridge

In all these cases with the exception of verbs the noun is characterized with left-hand combinability / in overwhelming majority/. So far as to the verbs are concerned they may both precede and follow them.

The Problems of Number and Case in Modern English Nouns

Number is a grammatical category of nouns which denotes the number of objects, expressed by a word.

In English there are two numbers: singular and plural. The formal signal of the singular number is a zero morpheme, while the usual signal of plurality -/e/s. The formation of plural by means -/e/s is considered to be productive, but in Modern English there are some non-productive types of plural number, as for instance:

a) suffix - en : ox - oxen

b) variation of vowels in the root of a word:
   tooth-teeth; goose-geese; mouse-mice; man-men,

c) variation of vowels of the root к suffix- "ren" children;

d) homonymous forms for both sing and plural:
   sheep – sheep
   deer – deer

swine – swine

This type of formation of plurality was a norm for the whole group of words in Old English, but in Modern English only some words have been preserved.

Non-productive type of number we find in some borrowed words from Latin and Greek. such as:

datum – data	basis – bases /si:z/
memorandum – memoranda	crisis – crises /si:z/
formula – formulae /i: /	analysis – analyses /si:z/

These words form their plural as per the norms of Latin and Greek languages, though some of them form their plural according to English: formulas, memorandums.

With regard to the category of number English nouns fall under two subclasses: countable and uncountable. The latter is again subdivided into those having no plural form and those having no singular. The former type is called Pluralia tantum: clothes, goods, the latter - singularia tantum: milk, water.

The lexical and grammatical morphemes of a word linked together so closely that sometimes it seems impossible to separate them. The relation between foot and feet, goose and geese, man and men is similar to the relation between.

bag – bags; desk – desks

The examples above remind us the facts of the Arabic language. In this language lexical morphemes are usually consist of consonants. They are united with vocalic morphemes grammatical in character and occurring between consonants, e.g.,

Ktb
ktaab - a book
kutub - books
katab - he wrote
kaatib - clerk
kattab - he dictated.

In these examples consonants Ktb are lexical morphemes as well as English f...t, g...s, m...n and so on. But there are two different things here to be distinguished. Arabic is a Semitic synthetic language while English is an Indo-European analytical one. If a discontinuous lexical morpheme is characteristic to the system of Arabic, for English it is an exception. English forms its plural forms by - /e/ s.

Some linguists consider the case as above as internal inflection inserted into a lexical one / -u- / and / - i : - / / as it is in Arabic / and others think of vowel change / u > i: /.

To be consistent we'll regard nouns above as follows:

sing. Man - pl /man ɤ s/ = men

The group of pluralia tantum is mostly composed on nouns which express things as objects consisting of two or more parts, e.g. trousers, scissors. Nouns like clothes, sweets must also be referred to pluralia tantum since they denote collective meaning. The - s, here is lexicalized and developed into an inseparable part of the stem. The suffix here is no longer a grammatical morpheme.

In compound nouns both the 1st and 2nd components may be pluralized: father-in-law / 1st /, suitcase / 2nd /, Manservant—menservants etc.

The Category of Case in Nouns

The problem of the number of cases in English has given rise to different theories which were based on the different ways of approaching the description of English grammatical structure.

Case is an indication of a relation in which the noun stands to some other word.

H. Sweet's (73) conception of the number of cases in English doubtful. He is not sure whether in English there are five or two cases. He writes: "English has only one inflected case, the genitive /man's, men's/, the uninflected base constituting the common case / man, men /, which is equivalent to the nominative, vocative, accusative and dative of such a language as Latin".

As we see he is under a certain influence of the Latin grammar. If we treat the English language out of the facts of Latin, then we'll really have to acknowledge the existence of five cases. But the facts of English made Sweet identify only two.

O. Curme (33) considers that of many case endings once used English has preserved only one, - *'s* of the genitive. Apart from the genitive relation, these grammatical relations are now indicated by the position of the noun with regard to the verb or prepositions which have taken the place of the old inflectional endings / He distinguishes four cases:

1. Nominative-performs 3 functions:
subject, predicate and direct object
2. Accusative - performs 3 functions: object, adverbial modifier, predicate.
The dog bit my brother /obj./
He stayed an hour /adverbial acc/
I believed to be him /predicate/
3. Dative: When an action directed toward smb:
He makes coat for John.
4. Genitive: girl's ...

O. Jespersen (53), (54) distinguishes two cases: common and genitive.

M. Bryant (29) is of the same opinion:

H. Whitehall (85) distinguishes two cases in nouns on analogy with the pronouns which can substitute for them: nominative and objective.

He says: "The so-called possessive case is best thought of as a method of transforming a noun into a modifier" ...

Among the Russian grammarians we find different views on the problem of case system in Modern English nouns.

B.A. Ilyish (51) considers that – 's is no longer a case inflexion in the classical sense of a word. Unlike such classical inflections, -'s may be attached:

a) to adverbs: yesterday's events
b) to a word group: Mary and John's apartment

c) to a whole clause: the man I saw yesterday's son.

Ilyish concludes that the – 's morpheme gradually develops into a "form-word", a kind of particle serving to convey the meanings of belonging, possession".

G.U. Vorontsova (11) does not recognize -'s as case morpheme. She treats it as a "postposition", "a purely syntactical form - word resembling a preposition", used as a sign of syntactical dependence". Her arguments are as follows:

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

e.g. мальчик – а – мальчиков

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

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

To Khaimovich and Rogovskaya (57) -' s still function as a case morpheme, because:

1. The-'s morpheme is mostly attached to individual nouns, not noun groups /in 96 %/.

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

3. The fact that -'s occurs, as a rule, with a more or less limited group of words bears testimony to its not being a "preposition like form word". The use of the preposition is determined, chiefly by the noun it introduces: on /in/ under the table ...

4. oxen's - cows' /z/, /θ/ and /of/ alternants: identical meanings and in complementary distribution.

5. –'s not a "preposition like word" since it has no vowel as it is found in other prepositions in English.

GENDER IN MODERN ENGLISH

The term "gender" is opposed to the term "sex" (пол). The first term (gender) is a pure grammatical term which deals with the grammatical expression of grammatical gender, i.e. the expression of masculine, feminine and neuter genders. The second word (sex) is used as a common word for both male and female. Thus, it is often used to denote biological notions.

Speaking about the Modern English language we can say that the English nouns do not have a grammatical category of gender. It is because that the nouns do not have constant grammatical means to express the gender distinctions. Such a grammatical category is found in Russian which is one the most important grammatical phenomenon in this language "категория рода существительного –

это несловоизменительная синтагматически выявленная морфологическая категория, выражающаяся в способности существительного в формах единственного числа относиться избирательно к родовым формам согласуемой (в сказуемом - координируемой) с ним словоформы: письменный стол, большое дерево; Вечер наступил; Девочка гуляла бы; Окно открыто; Ночь холодная. Морфологическая категория рода выявляется в формах единственного числа, однако она принадлежит существительному как слову в целом, во всей системе его форм. Категорию рода образуют три незамкнутых ряда морфологических форм, в каждый такой ряд входят формы разных слов, объединённых общим для них морфологическим значением рода – мужского, женского или среднего".

Морфологическое значение рода существительного это такое значение, которое обуславливает собою: 1) способность существительных определяться прилагательными со следующими флексиями в форме именительного падежа единственного числа: - ой, -ий, ый - мужской род (большой стол, синий свет, добрый человек), -ая, -яя – женский род (большая книга, синяя тетрадь); -ое, -ее – средний род (*большое окно, синее небо*)..." (10)

It becomes clear that in Russian we find three grammatical genders - masculine, feminine and neuter as well as in the personal pronouns in the 3rd person singular – он, она, оно. These pronouns, as a rule, replace nouns in accordance with their gender. Nouns denoting persons may be either masculine or feminine - according to the sex of the person usually denoted by them. Nouns denoting inanimate objects may be of masculine, feminine and neuter.

If nouns in the nominative case (им. падеж) singular form have no special ending, and no soft sign (мягкий знак) at the end, they are included into the masculine gender: дом, семья.

If in the same case and form they have the endings -a or -я (ручка, станция), they are included into the feminine gender.

If nouns have the endings -o or -e (радио, замечание) they are in neutral gender.

Nouns ending in "ь" (soft sign – мягкий знак) are either masculine (портфель - он) or feminine (тетрадь - она).

In the English language we do not find such phenomenon. Because of this fact the Russian and the most other foreign grammarians think that English does not have the grammatical category of gender. "English has no gender: the nouns of English cannot be classified in terms of agreement with articles, adjectives (or verbs)" (18), (19)

In English there were three genders with their own markers. B.A.Ilyish writes the following in this respect: "Three grammatical categories are represented in the OE nouns, just as in many other Germanic and Indo-European languages: gender, number and case. Of these three gender is a lexical-grammatical category, that is, every noun with all its forms belong to gender (masculine, feminine or neuter).

But in Modern English the meaning of gender may be expressed by the help of different other means:

1. gender may be indicated by a change of words that is, by the help of lexico-semantic means: man – woman, cock (rooster) – hen, bull-cow, Arthur, Ann, Edgar, Helen and so on.

2. gender may be indicated by the addition of a word that is, by syntactic means examples: Grandfather – grandmother, manservant – maidservant, male cat – female cat or he cat – she cat and so on.

3. gender may be expressed by the use of suffixes, examples, host – hostess (хозяин – хозяйка), hero – heroine (герой - героиня), tiger – tigress (тигр - тигрица). There are opinions according to which these suffixes are morphological means, thus they are grammatical means and because of this fact one may consider that English has the grammatical category of gender. But it can hardly be accepted.

A.I. Smirnitsky (18), (19) gives convincible counter-arguments on this question. Here it is: "Однако на самом деле и здесь выражение «рода» относится не к грамматике, а к лексике. Слово actor – «мужского рода», а actress – «женского рода» потому, что это соответствует реальным внеязыковым фактам, а не вследствие особенностей склонения или каких-либо других формальных грамматических особенностей данных слов. Слово actress по сравнению с actor обозначает реально иное живое существо женского пола, и соотношение actor – actress является по существу таким же, как соотношение слов father отец – mother мать ... этот суффикс является не грамматическим, а лексическим, словообразующим. (его можно сопоставить, например, с уменьшительным суффиксом – у в doggy и т.п.). Следовательно, в соотношении actor – actress нет ничего противостоящего общим закономерностям выражения «родовых» различий в системе английских существительных"

There is a regular correspondence between English nouns and the personal pronouns in the third person singular he, she, it. But this correspondence is not equal with the one which is found in Russian. In the Russian language this correspondence is based on both the lexical-semantic and the grammatical aspects but in English it is based on only the lexical-semantic aspect, that is "he" is usually used to indicate real biological male sex, "she" indicates real biological female sex and "It" is used to indicate inanimate objects. It is important to remember that the pronouns he, she, may also be used with regard to inanimate nouns. Such a use of these pronouns is explained by the cultural and historical backgrounds and it has nothing to do with the grammatical expression of the meaning of gender. Examples: moon - she, ship - she, love - he and so on.

Summing up the problem of gender in Modern English, it is important to say that:

1. gender is the grammatical distinction between; masculine, feminine and neuter;

2. the lexical - grammatical category of gender existed only in the OE period but in ME (middle English) this category has been lost;

3. in Modern English we find only lexical-semantic meanings of gender, that is, the gender distinction is based on the semantic principle;

4. English has certain lexical and syntactic means to express a real biological sex.

Self-control questions

1. What peculiar features of nouns do you know?
2. How many grammatical categories of nouns do you know?
3. What do you understand by regular and irregular formation of plural of nouns?
4. What means of irregular formation of plural meaning do you know?
5. Does English have the grammatical category of case?
6. What conceptions on the category of case do you know?
7. Is the category of case in English nouns is as stable as it is in your native language?
8. Is there a grammatical category of gender in English nouns?
9. What is the difference between the terms "gender" and "sex"?
10. Compare the gender meanings in English and your native language?

THE ADJECTIVES

Problems to be discussed:
- the characteristic features of the adjectives as a part of speech
- the types of adjectives
- the grammatical category of degrees of comparison
- the means of formation of the degrees of comparison of adjectives
- substantivization of adjective Pronouns
- general characteristics of this class of words
- the difference between pronouns and other parts of speech
- the personal pronouns
- the possessive pronouns
- the reflexive pronouns

The characteristic features of the adjective as a part of speech are as follows:

1. their lexical-grammatical meaning of attributes or we may say that they express property of things /persons/;

2. from the morphological view point they have the category of degrees of comparison;

3. from the point of view of their combinality they combine with nouns, as it has already been stated above, they express the properties of things. The words that express things we call nouns. It seems to be important to differentiate the combinability of a word with other words and reference of a word of a part of speech to another part of speech. We put this because adjectives modify nouns but they can combine with adverbs, link verbs and the word "one":

a white horse. The horse is white.

The sun rose red. The sun rose extremely red.

4. the stem-building affixes are: -ful, -less, -ish, -ous, -ive, -ir, un-, -pre-, in- ...;

5. their syntactic functions are: attribute and predicative

It is important to point out that in the function of an attribute the adjectives are in most cases used in pre-position; in post- position they are very seldom: time immemorial; chance to come.

The category of comparison of adjectives shows the absolute or relative quality of a substance.

The Grammatical Category of Degrees of Comparison

Not all the adjectives of the English language have the degrees of comparison. From this point of view they fall under two types:

1) comparable adjectives

2) non- comparable adjectives

The non-comparable adjectives are relative ones like golden, wooden, silk, cotton, raw and so on.

The comparable ones are qualitative adjectives. The grammatical category of degrees of comparison is the opposition of three individual meanings:

1) positive degree

2) comparative degree

3) superlative degree

The common or basic degree is called positive which is expressed by the absence of a marker. Therefore we say that it is expressed by a zero morpheme. So far as to the comparative and superlative degrees they have special material means. At the same time we'll have to admit that not all the qualitative adjectives form their degrees in the similar way. From the point of view of forming of the comparative and superlative degrees of comparison the qualitative adjectives must be divided into four groups. They are:

1) One and some two syllabic adjectives that form their degrees by the help of inflections - er and -est respectively,

short - shorter - the shortest

strong - stronger - the strongest

pretty - prettier - the prettiest

2) The adjectives which form their degrees by means of root-vowel and final consonant change:

many - more - the most

much - more - the most

little - less - the least

far - further - the furthest

(farther - the farthest)

3) The adjectives that form their degrees by means of suppletion

good - better - the best

bad - worse - the worst

Note: The two adjectives form their degrees by means of suppletion. It concerns only of the comparative degree (good - better; bad - worse). The suppletive degrees of these adjectives are formed by root - vowel and final consonant change (better - the best) and by adding "t" to the form of the comparative degree (in worse - the worst).

4) Many - syllabic adjectives which form their degrees by means of the words "more" and "most":

interesting - more interesting - the most interesting

beautiful - more beautiful - the most beautiful

So far we have not been referring to the works of grammarians on the problem since the opinions of almost all the grammarians coincide on the questions treated. But so far as to the lexical way of expressing the degrees is concerned we find considerable divergence in its treatment. Some authors treat more beautiful, the most beautiful not as a lexical way of formation of the degrees of comparison but as analytical forms. Their arguments are as follows:

1. More and -er identical as to their meaning of "higher degree";

2. Their distribution is complementary. Together they cover all the adjectives having the degree of comparison.

Within the system of the English Grammar we do not find a category which can be formed at the same time by synthetic and analytical means. And if it is a grammatical category it cannot be formed by several means, therefore we consider it to be a free syntactic unit which consists of an adverb and a noun.

Different treatment is found with regard to the definite and indefinite articles before most: the most interesting book and a most interesting book.

5) Khaimovich and Rogovskaya (57): One must not forget that more and most are not only word-morphemes of comparison. They can also be notional words. Moreover they are poly- semantic and poly-functional words. One of the meanings of most is "very, exceedingly". It is in this meaning that the word most is used in the expression a most interesting book".

As has been stated we do not think that there are two homonymous words: most - functional word; most - notional word.

There is only one word - notional /adverb/ which can serve to express the superlative degree by lexical means and since it's a free combination of three notional words any article can be used according to the meaning that is going to be expressed. The difference in the meaning of the examples above is due to the difference in the means of the definite and indefinite articles.

Substantivization of Adjectives

As is known adjectives under certain circumstances can be substantivized, i.e. become nouns.

B. Khaimovich (27) states that "when adjectives are converted into nouns they no longer indicate attributes of substances but substances possessing these attributes.

B. Khaimovich (27) speaks of two types of substantivization full and partial. By full substantivization he means when an adjective gets all the morphological features of nouns, like: native, a native, the native, natives. But all the partial substantivization he means when adjectives get only some of the morphological features of nouns, as far instance, the adjective "rich" having substantivized can be used only with the definite article: the rich.

B. Ilyish (51) is almost of the same opinion: we shall confine ourselves to the statement that these words are partly substantivized and occupy an intermediate position.

More detailed consideration of the problem shows that the rich and others are not partial substantivization. All the substantivized adjectives can be explained within the terms of nouns. (63)

Self-control questions

1. What are the most important characteristic features of adjectives?
2. Why do we have to differentiate the qualitative and relative adjectives?
3. How are the comparative and superlative of adjectives formed?
4. What adjectives form their degrees by both inflections and words more and most?
5. Are their adjectives that form their degrees of comparison by means of suppletion?
6. What do you understand by substantivization?
7. Are the words "more" and "most" lexical or grammatical means when, they form the degrees of comparison of adjectives?
8. What adjectives form their comparative and superlative by root-vowel and final-consonant change?

THE VERB

Problems to be discussed:
- the characteristic features of verbs as a part of speech
- verbs are morphologically most developed part of speech
- the types of verbs
- the grammatical categories of verbs: voice, mood, tense, number and others.

Verb as a Part of Speech

Words like *to read, to live, to go, to jump* are called verbs because of their following features.

1. they express the meanings of action and state;
2. they have the grammatical categories of person, number, tense, aspect, voice, mood, order and posteriority most of which have their own grammatical means;
3. the function of verbs entirely depends on their forms: if they in finite form they fulfill only one function – predicate. But if they are in non-finite form then they can fulfill any function in the sentence but predicate; they may be part of the predicate;
4. verbs can combine actually with all the parts of speech, though they do not combine with articles, with some pronouns. It is important to note that the combinability of verbs mostly depends on the syntactical function of verbs in speech;
5. verbs have their own stem-building elements. They are:

postfixes: -fy (simplify, magnify, identify...)
-ize (realize, fertilize, standardize...)
-ate (activate, captivate...)

prefixes: re- (rewrite, restart, replant...)
mis- (misuse, misunderstand, misstate...)
un- (uncover, uncouple, uncrown...)
de- (depose, depress, derange...) and so on.

The Types of Verbs

The classification of verbs can be undertaken from the following points of view:

1) meaning
2) form - formation;
3) function.

I. There are three basic forms of the verb in English: infinitive, past indefinite and PII. These forms are kept in mind in classifying verbs.

II. There are four types of form-formation:

1. affixation: reads, asked, going ...
2. variation of sounds: run – ran, may – might, bring – brought ...
3. suppletive ways: be – is – am – are – was; go – went ...
4. analytical means: shall come, have asked, is helped ...

There are productive and non-productive ways of word-formation in present-day English verbs.

Affixation is productive, while variation of sounds and suppletion are non-productive.

Notional and Functional Verbs

From the point of view of their meaning verbs fall under two groups: notional and functional.

Notional verbs have full lexical meaning of their own. The majority of verbs fall under this group.

Function verbs differ from notional ones of lacking lexical meaning of their own. They cannot be used independently in the sentence; they are used to furnish certain parts of sentence (very often they are used with predicates).

Function verbs are divided into three: link verbs, modal verbs, auxiliary verbs.

Link verbs are verbs which having combined with nouns, adjectives, prepositional phrases and so on add to the whole combination the meaning of process.

In such cases they are used as finite forms of the verb they are part of compound nominal predicates and express voice, tense and other categories.

Modal verbs are small group of verbs which usually express the modal meaning, the speaker's attitude to the action, expressed by the notional verb in the sentence. They lack some grammatical forms like infinitive form, grammatical categories and so on. Thus, they do not have all the categories of verbs. They may express mood and tense since they function as parts of predicates. They lack the non-finite forms.

Besides in present-day English there is another group of verbs which are called auxiliaries. They are used to form analytical forms of verbs. Verbs: to be, to do, to have and so on may be included to this group.

Regular and Irregular Verbs

From the point of view of the formation of the Past Tense verbs are classified into two groups:

1) Regular verbs which form their basic forms by means of productive suffixes-(e)d. The majority of verbs refer to this class.

2) Irregular verbs form their basic forms by such non-productive means as:

a) variation of sounds in the root:
   should - would - initial consonant change
   begin - began - begun - vowel change of the root
   catch - caught - caught - root - vowel and final consonant change
   spend - spent - spent - final consonant change;

b) suppletion:
   be – was / were
   go – went

c) unchanged forms:
   cast - cast - cast
   put - put – put

By suppletion we understand the forms of words derived from different roots.

A. Smirnitsky (18) gives the following conditions to recognize suppletive forms of words;

1. when the meaning of words are identical in their lexical meaning.

2. when they mutually complement one another, having no parallel opposemes.

3. when other words of the same class build up a given opposemes without suppletivity, i.e. from one root. Thus, we recognize the words *be - am, bad - worse* as suppletive because they express the same grammatical meanings as the forms of words: *light – lighter, big - bigger, work – worked.*

Transitive and Intransitive Verbs

Verbs can also be classified from the point of view of their ability of taking objects. In accord with this we distinguish two types of verbs: transitive and intransitive. The former type of verbs are divided into two:

a) verbs which are combined with direct object: to have a book to find the address
b) verbs which take prepositional objects: to wait for, to look at, talk about, depend on...

To the latter type the following verbs are referred:

a) verbs expressing state: be, exist, live, sleep, die ...
b) verbs of motion: go, come, run, arrive, travel ...
c) verbs expressing the position in space: lie, sit, stand ...

As has been told above in actual research work or in describing linguistic phenomena we do not always find hard-and-fast lines separating one phenomenon from the other. In many cases we come across an intermediate stratum. We find such stratum between transitive and intransitive verbs which is called causative verbs, verbs intransitive in their origin, but some times used as transitive: *to fly a kite, to sail a ship, to nod approval* ...

The same is found in the construction "cognate object": *to live a long life, to die the death of a hero*...

The Grammatical Categories of Verbs

Grammatical categories of verbs

In this question we do not find a generally accepted view-point. B.A. Ilyish (51) identifies six grammatical categories in present-day English verb: tense, aspect, mood, voice, person and number.

L. Barkhudarov, D. Steling distinguish only the following grammatical categories: voice, order, aspect, and mood. Further they note, that the finite forms of the verb have special means expressing person, number and tense. (5)

B. Khaimovich and Rogovskaya (57): out of the eight grammatical categories of the verb, some are found not only in the finites, but in the verbids as well.

Two of them-voice (ask - be asked), order (ask - have asked) are found in all the verbids, and the third aspect (ask - to be asking) - only in the infinitive.
They distinguish the following grammatical categories: voice, order, aspect, mood, posteriority, person, number.

The Category of Voice

By the category of voice we mean different grammatical ways of expressing the relation between a transitive verb and its subject and object.

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

H. Sweet (73), O. Curme (33) recognize two voices. There are such terms, as inverted object, inverted subject and retained object in Sweet's grammar.

The Inverted object is the subject of the passive construction. The Inverted subject is the object of the passive constructions.

The rat was killed by the dog. O. Jespersen (54) calls it "converted subject".

But in the active construction like: "*The examiner asked me three questions*" either of the object words may be the subject of the passive sentence.

I was asked 3 questions by the examiner.

Three questions were asked by the examiner.

Words *me* and ***three questions*** are called retained objects.

H. Poutsma (70) besides the two voices mentioned above finds one more voice – reflexive. He writes: "It has been observed that the meaning of the Greek medium is normally expressed in English by means of reflexive or, less frequently, by reciprocal pronouns". It is because of this H. Poutsma distinguishes in Modern English the third voice. He transfers the system of the Greek grammar into the system of English. He gives the following examples: *He got to bed, covered himself up warm and fell asleep.*

H. Whitehall (85)

This grammarian the traditional terms indirect and direct objects replaced by inner and outer complements (words of position 3 and 4) consequently. The passive voice from his point of view is the motion of the words of position 3 and 4 to position one. The verb is transformed into a word-group introduced by parts of *be, become, get* and the original subject is hooked into the end of the sentence by means of the preposition by.

Different treatment of the problem is found in theoretical courses written by Russian grammarians

The most of them recognize the existence of the category of voice in present-day English. To this group of scientists we refer A.I. Smirnitsky (18), (19), L. Barkhudarov, L. Steling (5), Khaimovich and Rogovskaya's (57) according to their opinion there are two active and passive voices. But some others maintain that there are three voices in English. Besides the two mentioned they consider the reflexive voice which is expressed by the help of semantically weakened self-pronouns as in the sentence:

He cut himself while shaving.

B.A. Ilyish (51) besides the three voices mentioned distinguishes two more: the reciprocal voice expressed with the help of each-other, one another and the neuter ("middle") voice in such sentences as: *The door opened. The college was filling up.*

The conception reminds us Poutsma's view. (70) He writes: "A passive meaning may also not seldom be observed in verbs that have thrown off the reflexive pronoun and have, consequently, become intransitive. Thus, we find it more or less distinctly in the verbs used in: *Her eyes filled with tears ...*"

We cannot but agree with arguments against these theories expressed by Khaimovich and Rogovskaya: "These theories do not carry much conviction, because:

1) in cases like he washed himself it is not the verb that is reflexive but that pronoun himself used as a direct object;

2) washed and himself are words belonging to different lexemes. They have different lexical and grammatical meanings;

3) if we regard washed himself as an analytical word, it is necessary to admit that the verb has the categories of gender, person, non-person (washed himself-washed itself), that the categories of number and person are expressed twice in the word-group washed himself;

4) similar objection can be raised against regarding washed each-other, washed one another as analytical forms of the reciprocal voice. The difference between "each other" and "one another" would become a grammatical category of the verb;

5) A number of verbs express the reflexive meanings without the corresponding pronouns: *He always washes in cold water. Kiss and be friends.*

The grammatical categories of voice is formed by the opposition of covert and overt morphemes. The active voice is formed by a zero marker: while the passive voice is formed by (be-ed). So the active voice is the unmarked one and the passive-marked.

To ask- to be asked

The morpheme of the marked form we may call a discontinuous morpheme.

From the point of view of some grammarians O. Jespersen (53), (54), O. Curme (33), G. Vorontsova (11) verbs get / become к Participle II are passive constructions. Khaimovich and Rogovskaya (57) seem to be right when they say that in such constructions get / become always retain lexical meanings.

Different opinions are observed as to the P II.

G. V. Vorontsova (11), L. Barkhudarov and D. Steling (5) the combination be к PII in all cases treat as a passive voice if PII is not adjectivized (if particles very, too and adverbs of degree more (most) do not precede PII on the ground that PII first and foremost, a verb, the idea of state not being an evident to this structure but resulting from the lexical meaning of the verb and the context it occurs in).

Khaimovich and Rogovskaya (57) arguing against this conception write that in such cases as: His duty is fulfilled we deal with a link verb кPII since:

1) it does not convey the idea of action, but that of state, the result of an action:

2) The sentence correspond rather *He has fulfilled his duty*, as the perfective meaning of Participle II is particularly prominent.

The Grammatical Category of Mood

The problem of the category of mood i.e., the distinction, between the real and unreal expressed by the corresponding forms of the verb is one of the most controversial problems of English theoretical grammar. The main theoretical difficulty is due:

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

2) to the fact that there are verbal forms homonymous with the Past Indefinite and Past Perfect of the Indicative Mood which are employed to express unreality. Another difficulty consists in distinguishing the analytical forms of the subjunctive with the auxiliaries should would, may (might) which are devoid of any lexical meaning.

Opinions differ in the establishment of the number of moods in English.

Below we'll consider views of some grammarians on the problem.

H. Sweet (73): "By the moods of a verb we understand grammatical forms expressing different relations between subject and predicate".

1. There are two moods in English which oppose to each other

Thought -form fact mood

The thought- form is divided into 3 moods:

1. conditional mood-the combination of should and would with the infinitive, when used in the principle clause of conditional sentences.

2. permissive mood-the combination of may/might with the infinitive.

3. compulsive mood-the combination of the finite form of the verb "to be" with the supine. If it were to rain I do not know what shall we do.

G.O. Curme (33): "Moods are the changes in the form of the verb to show the various ways in which the action or state is thought of by the speaker".

He distinguishes three moods:

1. Indicative Mood. This form represents something as a fact, or as in close relation with reality, or in interrogative form inquires after a fact.

2. Subjunctive Mood. There are two entirely different kinds of subjunctive forms: the old simple subjunctive and newer forms consisting of a modal auxiliary and a dependent infinitive of the verb to be used.

3. The function of the Subjunctive is to represent something not as an actual reality, but as formed in the mind of the speaker as a desire, wish, volition, plan, conception, thought, sometimes with more or less hope of realization. The present subjunctive is associated with the idea of hopeless. likelihood, while the past subjunctive indicates doubt, unlikelihood, unreality;

I desire that he go at once.

I fear he may come too late.

I would have bought it if I had had money.

Mood is the grammatical category of the verb reflecting the relation of the action expressed by the verb to reality from the speaker's point of view. The three moods: indicative, imperative and subjunctive are found in almost all the grammars of Russian grammarians. We say «almost» because Barkhudarov and Steling (4) consider only the first and third.

- in the indicative mood the speaker presents the action as taking place in reality;
- in the imperative mood the speaker urges the listener to perform some action.
- in subjunctive mood the speaker presents the action as imaginary.

As to the number of mood we do not find common opinion: Smirnitsky and some others speak of six moods (indicative, imperative, subjunctive I, subjunctive II, conditional and suppositional).

B. Ilyish and Ivanova (13), (51) find three (Indicative, Imperative, Subjunctive) B.A. Ilyish divides the latter into two forms-the conditional and the subjunctive and so on.

The indicative mood is the basic mood of the verb. Morphologically it is the most developed category of the verb.

According to Khaimovich and Rogovskaya (57) the grammarians are unanimous about the meaning of the Subjunctive Mood. While in all other respects opinions differ. It seems interesting to compare the opinions of Whitehall (85) (above) and Khaimovich on the problem: "The system of the subjunctive mood in Modern English has been and still is in a state of development. There are many elements in it which are rapidly falling into disuse and there are new elements coming into use".

O. Jespersen (53), (54) argues against Sweet's definition of Mood; he writes that it would be more correct to say that mood expresses certain attitudes of the mind of the speaker towards the contents of the sentence.

P. Whitehall (85): "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".

Other Categories of the Verbs

Besides the already discussed categories of the verb, there are some other categories like aspect, order, posteriority, tense and others.

These categories are very often mixed up: most authors consider them within the tense category. To illustrate this we'll view the conception of Henry Sweet.

To H. Sweet (73) there are three tenses in English. "Tense is primarily the grammatical expression of distinctions of time".

Every occurrence, considered from the point of view of time, must be either past (I was here yesterday), present (he is here today), or future (he will be here tomorrow).

Simple and Compound Tenses: The present, preterite and future are simple tenses. All the perfect tenses are referred by him to compound tense. These tenses combine present, past and future respectively with a time anterior to each of these periods:

present perfect = preterite к preterite;
pluperfect (past p.) = pre-preterite к preterite;
future perfect = pre - future к future

Primary and secondary Tenses: He writes: "When we speak of an occurrence as past, we must have some point of time from which to measure it.

When we measure the time of an occurrence from the time when we are speaking, that is, from the present, the tense which expresses the time of the occurrence is called a primary tense. The present, preterite, future and perfect (the present perfect) are primary tenses.

A secondary tense on the other hand, is measured not from the time when we are speaking, but from some past or future time of which we are speaking and consequently a sentence containing secondary tense makes us expect another sentence containing a verb in a primary tense to show the time from which that of the secondary tense is to be measured. The pluperfect and future perfect are both secondary tenses.

He will have informed his friends by the time they (the quests) arrived.

He had informed his friends when the quests arrived.

Complete and Incomplete Tenses. The explanation of this classification of tenses by H. Sweet is vague and confused because he mixes up the lexical and grammatical means, compare:

I have lived my life.

I have lived here a good many years.

The first is complete and second is incomplete. As one can see there's no difference in the form of verbs. He makes his division because of different distribution of the tense forms. But one point is clear in his conception. He considers continuous tense to be also incomplete as for instance:

The clock is striking twelve while.

The clock has struck twelve. (complete)

Continuous Tenses are opposed to Point-Tenses:

I've been writing letters all day.

We set out for Germany.

Though even here we observe some confusion. Such examples are also considered to be continuous or recurrent:

He goes to Germany twice a year.

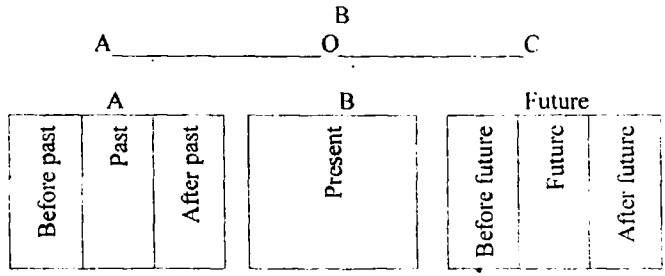
Definite and Indefinite Tenses: the shorter a tense is, the more definite it generally is in duration. Long times (continuous and recurrent) - are generally more indefinite:

I write my letters in the evenings.

I am writing a letter.

O. Jespersen (53), (54):

O. Jeperson's view of the grammatical tenses in English is illustrated in the table below:



After-past time: I know of no language which possesses a simple tense for this notion. A usual meaning "obligation" in English most often is expressed by "was to":

Next year she gave birth to a son who was to cause her great anxiety.

After future. This has a chiefly theoretical interest, and I doubt very much whether forms like I shall be going to rewrite (which implies nearness in time to the chief future time is of very frequent occurrence).

The Continuous tenses he calls expanded ones: is writing, will be asking, will have been asking ... or composite tense-forms.

The categories of tense, aspect and order characterize an action from different points of view.

The tense of a verb shows the time of the action; the aspect of a verb deals with the development of the action, while order denotes the order of the actions.

When discussing grammatical categories we accepted that a grammatical category is a grammatical meaning which has a certain grammatical means to be expressed.

The analyses of the following example will help us to make certain conclusions: *When you come he will have been writing his composition.* The predicates of the sentence are in the indicative mood. And, as has been stated, it is in this mood all the grammatical categories of the verb are expressed. The tense is future and it is expressed by the auxiliary word/verb will. The order is prior and it is expressed by the auxiliary verb have к *-en* or *-ed.* The aspect is continuous and it is expressed by the auxiliary verb be к *ing.*

Since all these categories have their own means we may call them grammatical ones. And as any category must have certain opposition (while defining the grammatical categories we defined it as "at least having two individual forms").

The category of tense is orientated with regard to the present tense. The tense category is the system of three-member opposition. So the present tense may be called as the point of measurement or orientation point.

The category of order is a system of two-member opposition: prior and non-prior. Compare:

I work - I have worked.

So the prior order marker have к *ed* is opposite to the zero of non-prior. As in English there are three tenses. This grammatical category can be expressed in all of them. Present: I work – I have worked. Past: I worked – I had worked. Future: I shall work – I shall have worked.

The category of aspect is a system of two-member opposition: Continuous – Non-continuous: I work – I am working.

To be - *ing* is the morpheme of the continuous meaning. This category is found in all the three tenses.

Present: I work – I am working
Past: I worked – I was working.
Future: I'll work – I'll be working.

The means of expression of these categories are arranged in a certain sequence. In the active voice they are arranged in the following way:

Tense is expressed in the first component of the predicate: order – in first or second (second if it is in the future tense), aspect – in the second or third components. The order means always precede the aspect means if both are found in the predicate.

If the predicate is in the passive voice the tense is again expressed by the first component of it while the means of the passive voice follows the means of the aspect and order categories.

Note: In the future tense the passive meaning and the aspect (continuous) is incompatible.

The Category of Posteriority

This category is distinguished by B. Khaimovich and Rogovskaya. (57)
As they put it this category is the system of two member opposition:

shall come - should come.
will come - would come

their meaning is: absolute and relative posteriority.

When posteriority is expressed in relation to the moment of speech it is called absolute. If posteriority is with regard to some other moment then it is relative.

If we accept this category, according to the definition of the grammatical category it is expressed by auxiliary verbs shall and will for absolute posteriority and should and would for relative. Shall and will cannot denote at the same time, two meanings: those of tense and posteriority, if in this case - there are two meanings then we must admit that the auxiliaries will- would, shall-should consist of two morphemes each. Applying the usual procedure we cut the words into w-ill and w-ould; sh-all and sh-ould; w-w and sh-sh are combined into morphemes of tense, and ill-all as allmorphs of the morpheme of absolute posteriority while ould-ould - as morpheme of relative posteriority.

The Categories of Number and Person

The category of person is the system of two member opposition. It is available only in the Present Tense in singular number. B. Khaimovich and Rogovskaya (57) state that "the third person with a positive morpheme being opposed to the first person with a zero morpheme". In the future tense sh- of the first person is opposed to w- of the second and third persons.

A similar treatment of the problem is observed in works of L.S. Barkhudarov (3), (4), who opposes third person to the common person (1^{st}, 2^{nd} persons) because "almost all the verbs in the 1^{st} and 2^{nd} persons have a zero marker".

So far as to the category of number is concerned many grammarians consider that it is in its purity represented only in the verb "to be", for other verbs the opposition of the 3^{rd} person singular, to 3^{rd} person plural accepted (in the present-tense).

Self-control questions

1. What are the most important features of verbs?
2. Why do some scientists say that verbs are "System of systems"?
3. Why do they say that verbs are morphologically most developed part of speech?
4. What are the criteria for classification of verbs?
5. What is the difference between finite and non-finite forms of the verb?
6. What verbs are called non-finite?
7. What verbs are called irregular?
8. How many basic forms of the verb do you know?
9. What is the difference between terminative and non-terminative verbs?
10. What is the difference between notional and functional verbs?
11. What functional verbs do you know?
12. What is the difference between auxiliary and link-verbs?
13. What are the peculiar features of modal verbs? Why are they called defective?
14. How many grammatical categories of the verb do you know?
15. Which grammatical category of the verb is the most intricate and why?
16. Do English verbs have the reciprocal and reflexive voices?

THE ADVERB

Issues to be discussed:
- what words are called adverbs
- the types of adverbs
- the grammatical category of degrees of comparison
- about the constituents of phrasal verbs like "give up"

The adverb is separated into a special part of speech because of the following facts:

1. Meaning: they express the degree of a property, property of an action, circumstances under which an action takes place.

2. Form: they have the degrees of comparison.

3. Stem-building elements: - ly, -ways, -wards, ...

4. Combinability: bilateral combinability with verbs, adjectives, adverbs, less regularly with adlinks: e.g. He was hard asleep.

5. Function: Adverbial modifiers.

According to the meaning adverbs fall under three subclasses:

1. qualitative

2. quantitative

3. circumstantial

Qualitative adverbs usually modify verbs.

Adverbs like: badly, quickly, slowly, steadily. comparatively may be referred **to** this type of adverbs.

They denote the quality of actions:

Ex: Clay collapsed on the sand beside Cathie, a wet arm playfully snatching her towel away.

I want to go home, she said determinedly.

The Qualitative adverbs are derived from the adjectives by the help of productive adverb forming suffix - ly. Like adjectives the qualitative adverbs have distinctions of degree. These adverbs can both precede and follow the verbs.

Quantitative adverbs show the degree, measure, quantity of an action and state. To this subclass adverbs like *very, rather, too, nearly, greatly, fully, hardly, quite, utterly* may be referred. Ex. She had told herself before that it would be foolish to fall in love with Rob. And she had finally done it.

Her gaze trailed around the room again, stopping at the partially opened double doors that led into the parlour.

Some part of her was walking with him because of that strange, intimate look they had exchanged - a look that Cathie would rather forget, but warmth was too fresh. J. Daiby.

If the combinability of the qualitative adverbs is bound with verbs only the combinability of the quantitative adverbs are more extensive: they can modify verbs, the words of category of state, adjectives, adverbs, numerals and nouns.

Circumstantial adverbs serve to denote in most cases local and temporal circumstances attending an action. Accordingly they are divided into two groups:

a) adverbs of time and frequency /today, tomorrow, often, again, twice .../.

b) adverbs of place and direction: upstairs, behind, in front of, ... Ex. They stood outside the door, giving me directions. Now and then they deliberately refused to jump up and find himself something to do when the unpleasant sensations clutched at him.

c) She waited in front of the window and when he came down he thrust a small dark blue box into her hands. L.Wright

Thus, circumstancial adverbs denote the time and place the action took place. Therefore unlike the previous subclasses the circumstantial adverbs can occupy any position in the sentence.

Some circumstantial adverbs can have the degrees of comparison: often, late, near and so on.

Special attention should be given to the fact that some circumstancial adverbs may be preceded by prepositions: from now on, up to now, from there and so on.

The So-called Phrasal Verbs

One of the fundamental problems within the adverbs is the problem connected with such groups of verbs as: to give in, to get down, to dream about and so on. In most cases the meaning of such groups as above does not depend on the meaning of their components. The thing here is: are the second elements prepositions, adverbs or some other parts of speech? This problem has become acute in Modern English.

The prevailing view here is that they are adverbs. But there are other views like Palmer's - "prepositions like adverbs"; Amosova's "postpositives" (1), Ilyish's "half-word, half-morphemes" (51) and so on. None of these suggestions can be accepted. They are not adverbs because other adverbs do not fulfill such functions, i.e. they do not change the meaning of the preceding word; they are not postpositives, because postpositives in other languages do not serve to build new words, and at last they are not grammatical morphemes and consequently the whole group can not be a word since in English no discontinuous word is found as, for instance, bring them up. The word them breaks the unity. The problem remains unsolved. For the time being, the most acceptable theory is the theory expressed by B.A. Ilyish in his latest grammar. He refers them very cautiously, with doubts, to phraseology and thus it should be the subject-matter of the lexicology.

Some foreign Grammarians (48), (63) give different treatment to phrasal verbs. According to their opinion phrasal verb is an umbrella term for different kinds of multi - word verbs (including phrasal - prepositional and prepositional verbs). Such verbs are of typical and frequent occurrence in all types of English, but most especially in every day spoken English.

Phrasal verbs are often of particular difficulty experienced by learners of English. There are several reasons for this. One reason is that in many cases, even though students may be familiar with both the verb in phrasal verb and with the particle, they may not understand the meaning of the combination, since it can differ greatly from the meanings of the two words used independently. The fact that phrasal verbs often have a number of different meanings adds to this complexity additional difficulty.

There are some particular grammatical problems associated with phrasal verbs. For example, there are restrictions on the positions in which an adverb can be placed in relation to the object of a verb. Some particles, such as about, over, round and through can be used as both adverbs and prepositions in particular phrasal verbs combinations, although in other combinations they are used either as adverb or preposition. Some phrasal verbs are not normally used with pronouns as objects, others are normally used with pronouns as objects.

There are other difficulties such as the fact that there are frequently strong collocation associations between phrasal verbs and other words. Thus, in some cases a particular word or small set of words is the only one normally found as the subject or object of a particular verb.

According to our classification all phrasal verbs fall under 3 main types (and 6 subtypes-from the viewpoint of verb transitivity):

1. free nonidiomatic constructions, where the individual meaning of the components are preserved as in look over (=inspect), set up (=organize). The individuality of the components appears in possible contrastive substitutions: bring in (out), take in (out) etc.

2. "Semi-idiomatic" constructions which are variable but in a more limited way. The relation between the verb and particle is similar to between a stem and an affix in form formation in that the substitution of one verb for another, or one particle for another, is constrained by limited productivity. In phrasal verbs like *find over* ("discover"), *cut up* "cut into pieces" the verb keeps its meaning, whereas the meaning of the particle is less easy to isolate. In contrast, it is the particle which establishes a family resemblance.

3. "Highly idiomatic" constructions such as *bring up, come by, turn up.* These are thoroughly idiomatic in that there is no possibility of contrastive substitution: *bring/down, come by /past/through, turn up/ down, etc.*

In such combinations there is no possibility of contrastive substution: there are no pairs such as bring up/down, put off/on, give up/down, give in/out, etc. for this subclass. The adverbial, lexical values of the particles have been lost, and the entire verbкparticle combination has acquired a new meaning.

It is often said that phrasal verbs tend to be rather colloquial or informal and more appropriate to spoken English then written, and even that it is better to avoid them and choose single - word equivalents or synonyms instead. Yet in many cases phrasal verbs and their synonyms have different ranges of use, meaning, or collocation, so that a single - word synonym cannot be substituted appropriately for a phrasal verb. Single - word synonyms are often much more formal in style than phrasal verbs, so that they seem out of place in many contexts, and students using them run the risk of sounding pompous or just unnatural. Besides, these are phrasal verbs, like get away with and run of, which do not have one word paraphrases. Second, these are nonidiomatic combinations, such as go across (= cross), go past (=pass), and sail around (=circumnavigate) which do have such paraphrases.

The set of English phrasal verbs is constantly growing and changing. New combination appear and spread. Yet these new combinations are rarely made on a random basis, but from patterns which can to some extent be anticipated. Particles often have particular meanings which they contribute to a variety of combinations, and which are productive; that is these fixed meanings are used in order to new combinations.

The Collins COBUILD Dictionary of Phrasal Verbs list over three thousand combinations of verbs with adverbs or prepositions, explaining over five and a half thousand different meanings.

These are the combinations which are in common use in everyday modern English.

Self-control questions

1. What are the main features of adverbs?
2. Why the term "adverb" chosen to name this group of words?
3. What sub-types of adverbs do you know?
4. Do adverbs have any grammatical category? If the answer is positive which adverbs have it?
5. Why do some grammarians consider such verbal phrases as "give up", "dream about" within the adverbs?
6. What is the main problem within this group of words?

STATIVES OR THE WORDS OF CATEGORY OF STATE

In English there is a certain class of words which are still disputable.

In works of foreign grammarians they are not considered to be a separate part of speech. Some dictionaries published in the United Kingdom and the USA refer them to predicatives. It is well-known that no grammarians mention this kind of part of speech. To this class of words we include aboard, alive, asleep, afraid, aghast, awake and so on.

Some Russian scientists regard them as a separate part of speech.

B. Khaimovich and Rogovskaya (57) call them adlinks on the analogy of adverbs. These words can be viewed as a part of speech because of their following features:

1. meaning they denote: state
2. stem building morpheme: it is formed by the help of productive prefixal morpheme /a-/
3. combinability: these words are exclusively combined with the link-verb to be and adverbs
4. Syntactic function: they are always used as predicatives.

They do not have any grammatical category and this is the only feature of them which differ them from other parts of speech /notional parts are meant/: This part of speech can't be mixed up with adjectives or adverbs as some linguists do, because they do not possess the degrees of comparison and their combinability is different.

"A-" component homonymically combines in itself the functions of prefix, preposition and article.

- the prefix a- can express the meanings of prepositions: away, on, up, out. She is asleep - She is sleeping /on/. He has gone to the shore - He is ashore.

This part of speech seems to be more economical as it is seen from the examples above. Therefore it may be one of the reasons of its wide usage in Modern English.

Self-control questions

1. What words are called statives? Why are they called so?
2. There's no unanimously accepted conception on this group of words, why?
3. What is the main difference between statives and other notional parts of speech?
4. Are there any other terms that name this group of words?
5. Why are these words develop so fastly?
6. How are these words translated in your native language?

THE FUNCTIONAL PARTS OF SPEECH

Issues to be considered:

- the difference between the notional and functional words
- the different approaches of linguistics to this issue
- the ways of classifying of functional parts of speech

Now, when we have viewed all the notional words we may get down to the study of structural or functional parts of speech. To this group of words traditionally prepositions, conjunctions, articles and some auxiliary words are referred. Some scholars include adverbs, link-verbs, and even modal-verbs (Fries). It is important to consider the conceptions of some pre-structural grammarians.

H. Sweet (73) in the sentence "The earth is round" differs two types of words: full words and form words or empty words: earth and round are full words while the and is are form words. He states that the and is are "form words because they are words in form only ... they are entirely devoid of meaning". Is does not have a meaning of its own but is used to connect subject and predicate. Thus though it has no meaning of its own, independent meaning, it has a definite grammatical function - it is a grammatical form-word. But "the" has not even a grammatical function and serves only to show that earth is to be taken as terrestrical globe and therefore it is a part of the word as the derivational prefix un - in unknown. In treating form-words by Sweet one of the most valuable point is the following his conception. He states that very often a word combines the function of a form - word with something of the independent meaning of a full word. To this type of words he includes words like become in he became a prime minister. As full word it has the meaning of "change" and the function of the form - word is. The above sentence consists of "He changed his condition к he is a prime minister". Now his conception schematically may be shown as follows:

full words - intermediate stratum - form - word.

Facts like these bear the proof that it is difficult to draw a definite line between full words and form words.

O. Jespersen (53), (54): suggests that adverbs, prepositions, conjunctions and interjections should be called particles. He sees a parallel in the relation between an adverb and a preposition and the relation between intransitive and a transitive verb. According to his statement there is the same difference between the verbs in *He sings, He plays* and *He sings a song, He plays the piano*. "Yet in spite

of these differences in verb no one assigns them to different part of speech. Therefore why we should assign to different parts of speech words like on and since.

Put your cap on (adv.)
Put your cap on your head (preposition); and
I have not seen her since (adv.)
I have not seen her since I arrived (preposition)

Because of these facts they may be termed by one word, i.e. "Particles".

Function Words – 1

Some words in English have no inflectional or derivational ending.

They are simply tools for putting other words together. They perform a function in the system – outside the system they have little or no meaning whatever. These words fall into categories determined only on the basis of their position in grammatical structures they enter into. They are referred to by the collective term function words. The categories of function words are often called closed classes because new ones are rarely, ever, added to them. The list of function words in English is firmly established.

The relationship of function words to form class is often linked to that of mortar and bricks.

Major Categories of Function Words – 1

1.	Determiners:	Function words which signal nouns. They never appear except when followed by a noun and invariably signal its coming: a, the, an, possessive pr-ns
2.	Auxiliary verbs:	have and be. Modals are subcategories.
3.	Qualifiers:	work with both adj. and adv.: more and most, very, quite, rather, less (intensifiers)

Function Words – 2

4.	Prepositions	
5.	Conjunctions:	work as coordination of linguistic forms of syntactic units having equal value
6.	Subordinators:	Connect dependent clauses and include words like: because, after, as well as relative pronouns
7.	Interrogatives:	Operate in the formation of questions and include words like when, where, why, how and so on: as well as – the interrogative pronouns which, what, who

SYNTAX

Problems to be discussed:
- subject-matter of syntax
- syntax-minor and syntax-major
- the types of syntactical relations
  a) coordination
  b) subordination
  c) predication: primary and secondary predication
- the types of syntactical relations according to the form of the constituents
  a) agreement
  b) government
  c) collocation
- word-combinations and their types

The Subject-Matter of Syntax

It has been mentioned above that the syntactic level is divided into two: syntax – minor and syntax – major. The first one deals with sentence structure and the second – with text and its structure.

The term "Syntax - minor" is common one for both language and speech levels and their unit "sentence" is also one common term for language and speech.

The abstract notion "sentence" of language can have concrete its representation in speech which is also called "sentence" due to the absence of the special term. Example: "An idea of John's writing a letter" on the abstract language level can have its concrete representation in speech: John writes a letter. A letter is written by John.

Since one and the same idea is expressed in two different forms they are called "allo - sentences". Some authors call them grammatical synonyms. Thus, sentence is language and speech units on the syntax - minor level, which has a communicative function.

The basic unit of syntax - minor i.e. sentence often consists of some word - groups (or word - combinations):

The roundness of the earth is known all over the world.

1 .The sentence consists of two distinct word - combinations: "the roundness of the earth" and "is known all over the world". The same word - combinations may be used without any change in other sentences. The teacher explained the pupils the roundness of the earth. This means that word - combinations can be studied as a separate unit.

2. In utterances there may be simple sentences like "It was dark", "It began to rain". Sometimes they may be joined together, depending on the intensions of the speakers. as for example:

(a) It was dark, and it began to rain.
(b) When it was dark, it began to rain.

Though the structure of constituting sentences are identical when they are joined together the structure of joined units (a) and (b) are different. This means that such units (which are traditionally called composite or compound/complex sentences) may be also studied separately.

Thus syntax - minor deals with simple sentences, with a smaller unit than the simple sentence i.e. word combinations and with the bigger unit than the simple sentence - composite sentences.

In the same way the level syntax - major can be explained. The unit of this level is text - the highest level of language and speech. "Syntax- major" represents both language and speech levels due to the absence of separate term as well as "text" is used homogeniously for both language and speech units.

The Types of Linguistic Relations Between Words

There are two types of relations between words in languages: paradigmatic and syntagmatic.

1) paradigmatic bond is a connection among the classes of linguistic units/words combined by the existence of some certain common features, e.g.

a) asking, sitting, barking, sleeping (all these words have common *-ing* ending);

b) ask, asking, asks, asked, has asked, be asked (in this case it is stem "ask" is common);

2) Syntagmatic connection is a bond among linguistic units in a lineal succession in the connected speech.

Syntagmatic connection between words or group of words is also called a syntactic bond.

Types of Syntactic Relations

One of the most important problems of syntax is the classification and criteria of distinguishing of different types of syntactical connection.

L. Barkhudarov (3) distinguishes three basic types of syntactical bond: sub-ordination, co-ordination, predication.

Subordination implies the relation of head-word and adjunct-word, as e.g. a tall boy, a red pen and so on.

The criteria for identification of head-word and adjunct is the substitution test. Example:

1) A tall boy came in.
2) A boy came in.
3) Tall came in.

This shows that the head-word is "a boy" while "tall" is adjunct, since the sentence (3) is unmarked from the English language view point. While sentence (2) is marked as it has an invariant meaning with the sentence (1).

Co-ordination is shown either by word-order only, or by the use of form-words:

4) Pens and pencils were purchased.

5) Pens were purchased.

6) Pencils were purchased.

Since both (5), (6) sentences show identical meaning we may say that these two words are independent: coordination is proved.

Predication is the connection between the subject and the predicate of a sentence. In predication none of the components can be omitted which is the characteristic feature of this type of connection, as e.g.

7) He came ...

8) *He ...

9) * ... came or

10) I knew he had come

11) * I knew he

12) * I knew had come

Sentences (8), (9) and (11), (12) are unmarked ones.

H. Sweet (42) distinguishes two types of relations between words: subordination, coordination. Subordination is divided in its turn into concord when head and adjunct words have alike inflection, as it is in phrases this pen or these pens: and government when a word assumes a certain grammatical form through being associated with another word:

13) I see him, here "him" is in the objective case-form. The transitive verbs require the personal pronouns in this case.

14) I thought of him. "him" in this sentence is governed by the preposition "of". Thus, "see" and "of" are the words that governs while "him" is a governed word.

B. Ilyish (15) also distinguishes two types of relations between words: agreement by which he means "a method of expressing a syntactical relationship, which consists in making the subordinate word take a form similar to that of the word to which it is subordinated". Further he states: "the sphere of agreement in Modern English is extremely small. It is restricted to two pronouns-this and that ..." government ("we understand the use of a certain form of the subordinate word required by its head word, but not coinciding with the form of the head word itself-that is the difference between agreement and government")

e.g. Whom do you see

This approach is very close to Sweet's conception.

E. Kruisinga (36) considers two types of word-groups: close and loose.

I. Close group - when one of the members is syntactically the leading element of the group. There may be verb groups like *running quickly, to hear a noise* and nouns groups: *King Edward, my book*

II. Loose group - when each element is comparatively independent of the other members: *men and woman*; strict but just and so on.

Thus, if we choose the terms suggested by Barkhudarov L.S., then we may say all grammarians mentioned here are unanimous as to the existence in English the subordination and coordination bonds. In addition to these two bonds

Barkhudarov adds the predication. So when speaking on the types of syntactic connections in English we shall mean the three bonds mentioned.

As one can see that when speaking about syntactic relations between words we mention the terms coordination, subordination, predication, agreement and government. It seems that it is very important to differentiate the first three terms (coordination, subordination and predication) from the terms agreement and government, because the first three terms define the types of syntactical relations from the standpoint of dependence of the components while the second ones define the syntactic relations from the point of view of the correspondence of the grammatical forms of their components. Agreement and government deals with only subordination and has nothing to do with coordination and predication. Besides agreement and government there is one more type of syntactical relations which may be called collocation when head and adjunct words are connected with each-other not by formal grammatical means (as it is the case with agreement and government but by means of mere collocation, by the order of words and by their meaning as for example: *fast food, great day, sat silently* and so on).

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

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

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

Syntactic units may be analyzed from different points of view, and accordingly, different syntactic theories exist.

Transformational-Generative Grammar. The Transformational grammar was first suggested by American scholar Zelling Harris as a method of analyzing sentences and was later elaborated by another American scholar Noam Chomsky as a synthetic method of 'generating' (constructing) sentences. The main point of the Transformational-Generative Grammar is that the endless variety of sentences in a language can be reduced to a finite number of kernels by means of transformations. These kernels serve the basis for generating sentences by means of syntactic processes. Different language analysts recognize the existence of different number of kernels (from 3 to 39). The following 6 kernels are commonly associated with the English language:

(1) NV -*John sings.*

(2) NV Adj. - *John* is *happy.*

(3) NVN -*John* is *a man.*

(4) NVN -*John hit the man.*

(5) NVNN -*John gave the man a book.*

(6) NVPrep.N - *The book* is *on the table.*

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

Transformational method proves useful for analysing sentences from the point of their deep structure:

Flying planes can be dangerous.

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

a) *Planes can be dangerous* b) *Planes can be dangerous*
X (people) fly planes *Planes fly*

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

Communicative Syntax. It is primarily concerned with the analysis of utterances from the point of their communicative value and informative structure. It deals with the actual division of the utterance - the theme and rheme analysis. Both the theme and the rheme constitute the informative structure of utterances. The theme is something that is known already while the rheme represents some new information. Depending on the contextual informative value any sentence element can act as the theme or the rheme:

Who is *at home? - John* is *at home. Where* is *John? - John* is *at home.*

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

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

Accordingly, we can distinguish different speech acts.

Of special interest here is the problem of indirect speech acts: *Are you leaving already?* In our everyday activities we use indirect speech acts rather willingly because it is the best way to influence people, to get what we want and to

be polite at the same time.

Text linguistics studies the text as a syntactic unit, its main features and peculiarities, different ways of its analysis.

Discourse analysis focuses on the study of language use with reference to the social and psychological factors that influence communication.

Syntactic notions

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

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

a) they are hierarchical units - the units of a lower level serve the building material for the units of a higher level;

b) as all language units the syntactic units are of two-fold nature:

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

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

Syntactic meaning is the way in which separate word meanings are combined to produce meaningful word-groups and sentences.

Green ideas sleep furiously. This sentence is quite correct grammatically. However it makes no sense as it lacks syntactic meaning.

Syntactic form may be described as the distributional formula of the unit (pattern). *John hits the ball-* NI к V к N2.

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

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

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

The syntactic units can go into three types of syntactic relations.

1. **Coordination (SR1)** - syntagmatic relations of independence. SR1 can be observed on the phrase, sentence and text levels. Coordination may be symmetric and asymmetric. Symmetric coordination is characterized by complete interchangeability of its elements - *pens and pencils.* Asymmetric coordination occurs when the position of elements is fixed: *ladies and gentlemen.* Forms of connection within SR1 may be copulative *(you and me)*, disjunctive *(you or me)*, adversative *(strict but just)* and causative-consecutive (sentence and text level

only).

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

3. **Predication (SR3)** - syntagmatic relations of interdependence. Predication may be of two kinds primary (sentence level) and secondary (phrase level). Primary predication is observed between the subject and the predicate of the sentence while secondary predication is observed between non-finite forms of the verb and nominal elements within the sentence. Secondary predication serves the basis for gerundial, infinitive and participial wore-groups (predicative complexes).

SYNTAX AND ITS MAIN UNITS
TRADITIONAL AND COGNITIVE APPROACHES IN SYNTAX

I. Syntax as part of grammar. The main units of syntax.
II. Traditional and cognitive understanding of syntax.
III. The basic principles and arguments of the cognitive linguistics.
IV. Syntagmatic and paradigmatic patterning.

I. Syntax as part of grammar. The main units of syntax.

Syntax as part of grammar analyses the rules of combining words into phrases, sentences and supra-sentential constructions or texts.

The rules of combinability of linguistic units are connected with the most general and abstract parts of content of the elements of language. These parts of content together with the formal means of their expression are treated as "grammatical categories". In syntax, they are, for instance, the categories of communicative purpose or emphasis, which are actualized by means of word-order. Thus, word-order (direct or indirect), viewed as a grammatical form, expresses the difference between the central idea of the sentence and the marginal idea, between emotive and unemotive modes of speech, e.g.: In the center of the room stood the old man. The word arrangement in this sentence expresses a narrative description with the central informative element placed in the strongest position, i.e. at the end.

Thus, grammatical elements of language present a unity of content and expression (i.e. a unity of form and meaning). Accordingly, the purpose of Modern Grammar, and Syntax in particular, is to disclose and formulate the rules of the correspondence between the plane of content and the plane of expression in the process of utterance-formation.

The main units of syntax are phrases and sentences.

The phrase is a combination of two or more notional words which is a grammatical unit but is not an analytical form of some word. The main difference between the phrase and the sentence is in their linguistic function. The phrase is a nominative unit, the sentence is a predicative one.

Nomination is naming things and their relations. A nominative unit simply names something known to everybody or a majority of native language speakers, recalling it from their memory, e.g.: a book, a departure. A phrase represents an object of nomination as a complicated phenomenon, be it a thing, an action, a quality or a whole situation, e.g.: an interesting book, to start with a jerk, absolutely fantastic, his unexpected departure.

The sentence is the immediate unit of speech built up of words according to a definite syntactic pattern and distinguished by a communicative purpose. The sentence, naming a certain situation, expresses predication, i.e. shows the relation of the denoted event to reality through the grammatical categories of tense, person and mood. The category of tense is used to convey something new and define its place in reality as preceding, or following the act of communication. The category of person shows, whether the situation involves the communicators or not. Through the category of mood the event is shown as real or unreal, desirable or obligatory. Thus, the sentence presents a unity in its nominative and predicative aspects, denoting a certain event in its reference to reality. The distinguishing features of the sentence are predication, modality and communicative meaningfulness.

It is stated that the center of predication in a sentence of verbal type is a finite verb, which expresses essential predicative meanings by its categorial forms (categories of tense and mood). Some linguists though (V.V Vinogradov, M.Y.Blokh) insist that predication is effected not only by the forms of the finite verb, but also by all the other forms and elements of the sentence, which help establish the connection between the named objects and reality. They are such means as intonation, word order, different functional words.

Due to their nominative meaning, both the sentence and the phrase enter the system of language by their syntactic patterns. The traditional linguistics considers four main types of syntactic patterns: predicative (subject predicate), objective (verb object), attributive (attribute noun), adverbial (verb/adverb/adjective adverbial modifier).

II. Traditional and cognitive understanding of syntax.

The traditional, or systemic approach in Grammar, centers around the description of structural properties of linguistic units and their meanings, as they are represented in the system of language without considering the process of utterance-formation, i.e. it doesn't envisage the general (cognitive and linguistic) mechanisms which enable us to shape the conceptual content into a sentence and what's more important to structure the exact sentence we want, corresponding to our pragmatic intention (for example, what's the difference between the following pairs of sentences, if any at all:

Bill sent a walrus to Joyce. Bill sent Joyce a walrus;

Buzzing, the car went down the road. The car buzzed down the road.

To find the answers seems possible within a cognitive approach, the approach which was started in the second half of the 20th century and since then has been greatly promoted by foreign linguists such as G.Lakoff. R.Jackendoff. R. Langacker, L.Talmy, J.R. Taylor, A.Wierzbicka and others.

Cognitive linguistics appeared within a framework of approaches to the analysis of language, which are the formal, the psychological, and the conceptual. The formal approach addresses the linguistic patterns, abstracted away from any associated meaning. Thus, this approach includes the study of morphological, syntactic, lexical structure. Traditional generative grammar has centered itself within this approach. The psychological approach looks at language from the perspective of general cognitive systems, within this approach language is examined from the perspective of perception, memory, attention, reasoning. The main target of the conceptual approach is to consider the global system of schematic structures with which language organizes conceptual content that it expresses.

Cognitive approach is concerned with the patterns in which and the processes by which conceptual content is organized in language, or, in other words, how language structures conceptual content. Cognitive linguistics studies how language structures such basic conceptual categories as those of space and time, scenes and events, entities and properties, motion and location, force and causation. It considers the semantic structure of morphological and lexical forms as well as that of syntactic patterns. Cognitive linguistics considers language a cognitive system, which along with other cognitive systems, such as perception, attention, reasoning, affect, memory, motor control comprises human cognition. In this respect language appears to have some structural properties common to other cognitive systems.

The investigation of linguistic means in cognitive aspect, that is examining of meaning-form mappings (хариталаш, акс эттириш; картирование, отображение) is based on the recent findings of psychology: such as the prototypical principle of category structure, the principle of figure-ground segregation (шакл ва фонни ажратиб кўрсатиш; выделение фигуры и фона), "windowing" of attention (диққатни каратиш; распределение внимания) and some others. Let's consider each of them.

III. The basic principles and arguments of the cognitive linguistics.

The prototypical principle of category structure argues that any category possesses center-periphery pattern. The center comprises entities which maximally reveal categorial properties, while the periphery is represented by the entities which demonstrate categorial properties only to a certain degree. The principle is used in the study of the syntactic categories (syntactic constructions with P. Hopper and S. Thompson, A. Goldberg, J.R. Taylor; parts of sentence - the object, the adverbial modifier – with N.N. Boldyrev; in morphology – parts of speech with E.S. Kubryakova).

The principles of figure-ground segregation, and "windowing" of attention are viewed as common to the cognitive system of attention and considered to be essential ones in examining "meaning-form" mappings in syntax.

Figure-ground segregation principle implies that our visual and auditory input is organized in terms of prominence of the different parts. The part of the whole which is perceived as more prominent is given the status of figure and the part which is less prominent is given the status of ground (e.g., when we listen to a piano concert we can easily make out the part played by the piano as more prominent than the accompaniment of the orchestra; thus, the piano part is figure and the orchestra accompaniment is ground). In the system of language the figure – ground principle is believed to work as follows: the properties of the figure are those of concern, the ground functions is a reference entity and is used to characterize the properties of the figure (figure-ground segregation explains, for instance, the principle of semantic asymmetry of syntactic structures: we can say, for example, "My sister resembles Madonna" , but "Madonna resembles my sister" seems hardly possible. In R.Langacker terminology the subject of the sentence performs the function of the syntactic figure, while the object is the syntactic ground, in other words, object is a conceptual "anchor" for the subject and specifies the latter. In the case "Madonna resembles my sister" the concrete content of the subject and object (realized through the lexical semantics) disagrees with the functions of subject and object as syntactic figure and ground.

The terms "Figure" and "Ground" are adopted by L.Talmy, R. Langacker for the investigation of conceptualization processes in human mind as they are reflected in syntactic structures (different types of sentences). At the same time in cognitive linguistics are widely used terms "Profile" and "Base" (R.Langacker, J.R.Taylor) for explicating the same cognitive phenomena. Figure-Ground segregation as well as Profiling (rendering one aspect of the conceptual content more prominently) reflect the essence of the mechanisms of conceptualization. Profiling, in fact, is structuring of any conceptual content by principle of Figure-Ground segregation. It is axiomatic in cognitive grammar that all linguistic expressions profile something or other, and thus determine the conceptualization of any entity or event. A sentence type profiles a particular event type, a verb profiles a process, a preposition profiles a kind of relation.

The principle of "windowing" of attention in the language is discovered in the fact that linguistic forms can differentially direct or withdraw attention from particular portions of a situation, conceptualized by the speaker into a particular utterance (compare the active and passive constructions).

According to cognitive linguistics the fundamental design feature of language is that it has 2 subsystems, which are the grammatical and the lexical ones. The grammatical properties of language, and syntactical in particular, are examined by such linguists as L.Talmy, R.Langacker, A.Wierzbicka. All of them share the view that the grammatical means of language (that is morphology and syntax) along with lexicon form a continuum of symbolic units and perform a concept structuring function in language. It means that when we use a particular construction we select a particular image or profile to structure the conceived situation for communicative purposes. Imagery or profiling can be examined in the following sentences, while considering the semantic contrast:

a) Bill sent a walrus to Joyce.

b) Bill sent Joyce a walrus (R.Langacker' example).

The sentences differ in meaning because they employ subtly different images of the same situation. The semantic contrast is in the prominence of certain parts of this scene. In (a) sent. the preposition "to" brings into focus "the path" followed by the walrus, and thereby rendering this aspect of the situation as more prominent. In (b) sent. the juxtaposition of two nouns ("Joyce" and "walrus") after the verb renders the idea of possessivity.

The difference in imagery determines the use of "to" and the "double –object construction" for certain types of situations. Consider the following examples:

a) I sent a walrus to Antarctica. – sounds OK;

b) I sent the zoo a walrus. – sounds OK;

but c) I sent Antarctica a walrus. - is doubtful.

Thus, the first argument of cognitive approach, concerning syntax. sounds as follows: grammatical constructions, (according to R. Langacker), possess schematic characteristics, i. e. provide alternative imagery (conceptualizations) for the same event or situation. (In L.Talmy's conception the idea of imagery function of grammatical constructions was formulated as a principle of conceptual alternativity. It means that the variety of grammatical forms provide a choice among alternative conceptualizations, from which a speaker selects one or another according to her communicative purposes.)

The second argument says, that the set of grammatical notions constitutes the fundamental concept structuring system of language. The grammatical forms of a sentence, and its syntactic pattern particularly, determine the structure of the conceptual material represented in the sentence, while the lexical elements specify its content. It is due to this argument that it becomes possible to distinguish different formats of representing knowledge in syntactic forms: configurational format, where linguistic knowledge prevails – the knowledge of syntactic configurations or schemas, such as transitive and intransitive constructions; actualizational format, where extra-linguistic knowledge prevails – the knowledge of event types (event concepts as mapped onto the basic syntactic configurations-transitive and intransitive constructions); format of mixed type, where linguistic knowledge and extra-linguistic knowledge are equally represented. (For details see: 2, стр. 67-74; 20, стр. 166-181.)

To illustrate the basic function of grammatical forms to determine the structure of the conceptual material represented in the sentence let's consider the following sentences:

He panted up to the school.

The car rattled down the road.

He dozed into a new cut.

The syntactic construction, containing a prepositional word-group, structures the conceived event as Motion, while the lexical semantics of the verbs "to pant", "to rattle", "to doze" evokes the Processual aspect of the event in the listener's mind.

Within a cognitive approach the sentence as a unit of syntax is viewed in terms of schematization or profiling or imagery. It means, as it has been already

discussed, that every grammatical construction possesses schematic characteristics, provides some particular imagery or conceptualization for the same event.

In this aspect the study of a transitive construction is very illustrative, performed by such linguists as G.Lakoff, G. Taylor, A. Wierzbicka. The prototypical transitive construction is built up according to a certain syntactic pattern, which is the subject the verb-predicate the direct object. Initially it encodes transitive events: events which involve two participants, an agent and a patient, where an agent consciously acts in such a way as to cause a change in state of a patient, and its concept- structuring pattern or scheme is agent-action-patient. When the speaker uses the transitive construction for naming a particular event or situation he profiles it as a transitive event, that is he conceptualizes this particular event in terms of a agent-action-patient schema, even if this particular event is not inherently transitive. Let's compare pairs of sentences which describe the same situation:

a) He swam across the Channel;

b) He swam the Channel (J.R. Taylor's examples).

Sentence (a) denotes the location of swimming. Sentence (b) presents the event as a transitive one and suggests its reading/conceptualization as follows: the Channel is a challenge to the swimmer's power. In this respect the sentence "He swam our new swimming pool." seems odd.

A. Wierzbicka analyses the use of two- objects- constructions, one object is a patient, the other is an addressee, e.g.: John offered Mary a rose.

Such like constructions are used to encode events, where the patient is involved into the action but doesn't undergo any structural changes, for example destruction. It means that this type of semantic-syntactic constructions profiles the event in terms of an agent-action-addressee-patient scheme, where the action is understood as "giving to", (and in this aspect it becomes clear, why the sentence "Kill me a spider." is impossible).

Thus, if the traditional linguistics concentrates on the study of the formal, structural and semantic properties of the syntax units, in the cognitive linguistics the sentence, its syntactic structure or pattern, is understood in terms of conceptualization, that is how the sentence, as a particular syntactic model, performs the concept-structuring function.

IV. Syntagmatic and paradigmatic patterning.

The sentence and the phrase as particular syntactic patterns are traditionally viewed as standing to one another in two types of relations: syntagmatic and paradigmatic.

Syntagmatic relations are immediate linear relations between units in a sequence.

e.g.: The book was sold at a great reduction in price.

In this sentence syntagmatically connected are the words: "was sold", "at a reduction in price", "at a great reduction" etc.

Paradigmatic relations exist between elements of the system outside the strings where they co-occur. Paradigmatics finds its expression in a system of oppositions, for example sentences of various functional destination can be

viewed as opposed to each other: question as opposed to statement, negation as opposed to affirmation (about syntactic oppositions read in the book by M.Y. Blokh p.286).

Syntactic oppositions are realized by correlated sentence patterns, the relations between which can be described as transformations. Some of the patterns are base patterns, others are their transformations, for example, a question can be described as produced from a statement, e.g.: He is interested in sports.→ Is he interested in sports? A negation produced from an affirmation, e.g.: He is interested in sports. → He is not interested in sports.

Paradigmatics can be understood as syntactic derivation of more complex pattern-constructions out of basic or kernel pattern-constructions. There are two types of derivational relations in the paradigmatic system:

1) the constructional relations
2) the predicative relations.

The constructional derivation effects the formation of more complex clausal structures out of simpler ones. Kernel sentences can undergo changes into clauses (the process of clausalization) and phrases (the process of phrasalization). For example, the two kernel sentences "They departed from the city" and "They started a new life" produce the following constructions, which demonstrate *clausalization*:

1) As they departed from the city, they started a new life;
2) If they depart from the city they shall start a new life;
3) They departed from the city, and they started a new life;
4) They departed from the city, but they did not start a new life.

These kernel sentences also produce constructions, which demonstrate *phrasalization*:

1) On their departure from the city (a case of complete nominalization) they started a new life;
2) They departed from the city to start a new life (a case of partial nominalization);
3) They departed from the city starting a new life (a case of partial nominalization);
4) Having departed from the city, they started a new life (participal construction of adverbial status).

The predicative derivation realizes the formation of predicatively different units, and is responsible for the expression of the predicative semantics of the sentence.

So, kernel sentences undergo structural modification, which expresses the predicative functions of the sentence, e.g.: He has done the job. -> He has not done the job.

In this respect *the kernel sentence* is the simplest construction both in the notional and functional sense, that is it is an elementary sentence which is non-interrogative, non-imperative, non-negative, non-modal.

Thus, the main units of syntax, phrases and sentences, enter the system of language by their syntactic patterns. Syntactic patterns are explicated in syntagmatic and paradigmatic patterning.

SYNTAX OF THE PHRASE

I. Traditional conceptions of phrases in home linguistics and abroad.
II. Types of syntactic relations in phrases. Types of phrases.
III. Phrase theory in cognitive linguistics (J.R. Taylor's conception).

I. Traditional conceptions of phrases in linguistics.

Investigations of phrases have a long history. It dates back as early as the 18th century and it has been first mentioned in practical Grammar books. The first really scientific conception of phrases appeared in the 19th century and the beginning of the 20th. The phrase theory has been started by home linguists, such as Ph. F. Fortunatov, A.A.Shakhmatov, A.M. Peshkovskiy. They termed phrase as any syntactically arranged group of words. This conception tested the course of time and now it is shared by the majority of linguists. But it is not the only one adopted in home linguistics.

In the 50th V.V.Vinogradov introduced another conception of phrase. He termed phrase as a group of notional words which are syntactically unequal that is one dominates the other, e.g.: to make notes, an interesting book. Coordinated words, e.g.: run and jump, sister and brother, were considered as a sequence of separate words in speech. This point of view was widely spread and acknowledged in the middle of the 20th century. Nowadays the majority of linguists accept the first broad interpretation of phrase as any syntactically arranged group of notional words.

M.Y. Blokh suggested that one should distinguish between combinations of notional words alone (notional phrases), those of a notional and a functional word (formative phrases), and combinations of functional words alone (functional phrases):

1) combinations of notional words, such as, *a sudden arrival, extremely difficult*, have a clearly pronounced nominative destination and denote a complex phenomena;
2) combinations of a notional word with a functional word, such as, *can swim, of my sister*, are equivalent to separate words by their nominative function. Functionally they may be compared to separate notional words used in various marked grammatical forms: *of my sister – my sister's;*
3) combinations of functional words, such as, *as far as, such as, from behind*, are equivalent to separate functional words and are used as connectors and specifiers of notional elements of various status.

Theoretical investigation of phrase in foreign linguistics was started much later, in the 30th of the 20th century. It was greatly promoted by L. Bloomfield. He termed phrase in the broad sense of the word, i.e. as any syntactically organized group of words. According to this conception all phrases of any language fall into 2 main groups:

1) endocentric (исходящий изнутри, центробежный: марказдан кочувчи)

2) exocentric (исходящий с поверхности внутрь, центростремительный; марказга интилувчи).

The first group includes phrases any element of which can be used separately instead of the whole phrase, e.g.: daughter and son. If in the sentence "I will never forget my daughter and son once said it." we omit "and son" it would be grammatically correct. The phrases no element of which can substitute the whole group in the sentence L.Bloomfield referred to the second group, e.g.: to write a book. We can not use any element of the phrase separately in a sentence instead of the whole phrase.

L.Bloomfied's theory of phrase was developed by his followers. Thus, one of them Ch. Hockett suggested a more detailed structural description of endocentric-exocentric phrases taking into consideration the position of the head word (for details see: Иванова И.П., Бурлакова В.В., Почепцов Г.Г. Теоретическая грамматика современного английского языка., 1981.).

One more specification of foreign conceptions concerned the type of connection of phrase-elements. It was suggested that all phrases in all languages should be first divided into phrases with hypotaxis (subordination) and those with parataxis (coordination). The following subdivision repeats L.Bloomfield's classification of phrases into endocentric and exocentric. One of the serious drawbacks of such like classification is that it lacks uniformity of principles of classification. Every other stage of classification is based upon another principle either syntactical or structural.

II. Types of syntactic relation in phrases. Types of phrases.

Traditionally coordination and subordination are viewed upon as the basic types of syntactic relations.

Coordination is the connection of equal and relatively independent parts, words, sentences, or sentence parts. It can be realized with or without conjunctions, i.e. syndetically and asyndetically respectively, e.g.: 1) desks and chairs (syn), 2) cars ,buses, lorries (asyn), 3) The water was warm and the sun was shining (syn).

This is a traditional view point on this type of syntactic relation, yet it is not shared by all linguists here and abroad.

As for subordination it was defined by all linguists as syntactically unequal connection of parts, words, sentences, sentence parts. M.Y. Blokh terms syntactically equal connection of words as equipotent (тенг кучли; равнопотенциальный) type of syntactical relation and syntactically unequal connection as a dominational type of syntactical relation.

Dominational (or subordinational) connection, as different from equipotent connection is effected in such a way that one element of the dominational or subordinational phrase is principal (dominating) and the other is subordinate (dominated). The principal element is also called "kernel" or "head word", the subordinate element – the "adjunct" or "expansion".

Subordination (or domination) can be of two main types: bilateral (or two-way or reciprocal – икки томонлама ёки ўзаро; двусторонняя или взаимная) and monolateral (or one-way – бир томонлама; односторонняя).

Two-way subordination is realized in predicative connection of words, uniting the subject and the predicate. The reciprocal nature of this connection is consists in the fact that the subject dominates the predicate, determining the person of predication, while the predicate dominates the subject, determining the event of predication, ascribing to the person of predication some action, or state, or quality (ср: ўзаро боғлиқлик муносабати; отношение интердепенденции (взаимообусловленности) у Л.Ельмслева). Compare the following sentences:

1) The man ran up to the house (action);
2) The man smokes (quality);
3) The cup has been broken by the child (action);
4) The cups break easily (quality - the use of the decausative construction);
5) The car rattled down the road (action к process);

One-way subordination is realized in the attributive, objective and adverbial connections.

Objective connection reflects the relation of the object to the process, and subdivided into non-prepositional (actualized by word-order) and prepositional, e.g.:

1) He regretted the event;
2) I forget about the event.

From the semantico-syntactic point of view objective connections are classed as direct and indirect (or oblique). Direct object constructions reflect immediate transition of the action to the object. Indirect (oblique) object constructions reflect the indirect relation of the object to the process, e.g.:

1) Will you give me the book (direct object)?
2) He ran up to the house.

Attributive connection unites a substance with its attribute expressed by an adjective or a noun, e.g.: a nice picture, a woman of means, a man of his word.

Adverbial connection can be of two types: primary and secondary. Primary connection is established between the verb and its adverbial modifiers, e.g.: to come late; to do (smth.) with enthusiasm.

Secondary adverbial connection is established between the non-verbal head word expressing a quality and its adverbial modifiers, e.g.: no longer attractive (head word), appallingly alike (head word).

Subordination is expressed by means of:

agreement – e.g.: these books – when the subject agrees with the head word grammatically in the categories of number, person;

government – prepositional or non-prepositional – e.g. follow him, listen to him – when the head word determines the grammatical form of the adjunct;

adjoining – prepositional or non-prepositional – e.g.: come up to the point, very nice – when words are connected by their meaning, word order and intonation;

enclosure – e.g.: at a great reduction, must have been already done – is realized by means of functional words, which together with the head word make up a framing construction.

To sum it up, classification of types of phrases can be based upon various principles:

- L.Bloomfield divides all phrases into endocentric (any element of which can substitute for the whole phrase in its function) and exocentric (neither element of which can substitute for the whole group in its function in a major group);
- M.Y. Blokh distinguishes between notional phrases, formative phrases, functional phrases;
- traditional classification is based upon the types of syntactic relations between the phrase components, distinguishing the coordinate and subordinate phrases.

Coordinate phrases are divided according to:
a) their structure (simple or complex);
b) their manner of connection (syndetic or asyndetic).

Subordinated phrases are divided according to:
a) their structure (simple or complex);
b) types of subordinate relations (predicative, attributive, objective, adverbial phrases);
c) the position of the adjunct in the phrases (before the kernel (prepositional phrases) or after the kernel (postpositional phrases, e.g.: a woman of character);
d) manner of subordination (phrases with agreement, government or adjoining, enclosure);
e) morphological nature of the kernel – noun, verbal, adjectival and adverbial phrases.

IV. Phrase theory in cognitive linguistics (J.R. Taylor's conception).

Classifications of types of phrases introduced within traditional (structural) approaches are primarily based on the study of their formal (structural) properties. The investigation of phrases within a cognitive approach presupposes that the analysis of syntactic units should be performed in terms of conceptual integration. The syntagmatic relations in this case are viewed in terms of mechanisms which allow the combination of units with each other. Thus, J.R. Taylor in his book "Cognitive Grammar" introduces generalized schemas which reflect the mechanisms of conceptual combination (the mechanisms that govern the production of syntactic units) and groups phrases of different types as mapped onto these schemas. J.R. Taylor terms these schemas constructional schemas.

Constructional schemas belong to the conceptual level, they show what different types of phrases have in common at the semantic level. For example, the prepositional phrase with the structure [Prep к [Noun phrase]] – *on the table, on the mat, under the bed, etc.* and the verb phrase with the structure [V к [Noun phrase]]- *leave the office, drive the car* appear to map onto one of the four types of constructional schemas, proposed by J.R. Taylor, - the head-complement schema, as these two types of phrases are headed by the relational u nit (preposition and verb)- the head of the phrase, which is elaborated by a nominal part of the phrase - the complement of the phrase.

According to the mechanisms of combining simpler units into more complex structures there are 4 types of constructional schemas: schemas with head-complement relation, schemas with head-modifier relation, schemas of appositional relation, schemas with parataxis. While investigating the mechanisms

of conceptual combination J.R. Taylor uses notions "profile" and "base" – the basic notions in Cognitive Grammar analysis of meaning.

The profile and base constitute the concept. The semantics of any linguistic expression resides on the combination of profile and base (compare: Figure and Ground, cognitive anchoring – terms adopted by L. Talmy for analysis of the conceptual level of the sentence, mechanisms of sentence production, and types of sentences, for details see: Talmy L. Toward a cognitive semantics. 2000). The concept consists in knowledge of the profile against the base: the profile picks out one aspect of the base and renders it particularly prominent. Consider the concept *father*. The word *father* profiles an adult male human and invokes, as its base, the notion of relation between a profiled individual and his offspring. The notions of profile and base are essential for the constructional schemas.

Head-complement schemas include the head of the expression and the complement of the expression, e.g.: on the table. The preposition *on* designates the spatial relation, that one of support and contact, and determines the profile of the complex concept *on the table*, it means that the semantics of the expression is relational in character. Both *on* and *on the table* designate the same relation . but with different degree of specificity. *On* is the head, it needs specification, which is achieved in the *on the table*; *the table* is the complement, it elaborates an entity already present in the semantic structure of the head. The head is conceptually more dependent (needs specification), the complement is more autonomous.

Head-modifier schemas include the head of the expression and the modifier of the expression, e.g.: the book on the table. The expression profiles a thing, *the book*, which is determined by the profile (the semantics) of *the book*. *The book* is the head of the phrase , and *on the table* is a modifier. The modifier provides additional conceptual content to the head. The head in this case is conceptually more autonomous, the modifier is more dependent.

Appositional schemas include components which designate one and the same entity, but does it in different ways. They combine to form a more elaborate conception of the entity, e.g.: my neighbour, the butcher. In this case one and the same person is characterized in terms of a relation to the speaker as "my neighbour" and in terms of his profession as "the butcher". In this kind of schemas each component profiles one and the same entity. It is as if it has two heads, each component contributes its profile to the phrase.

Parataxis schemas can be viewed in linguistic expressions (phrases or sentences) where the components occur one after another, without conceptual integration, e.g.: the sun, the sea, the water; I came, I saw, I conquered. The relations between the components are not overtly marked and have to be inferred by the hearer.

To sum it all up, within a cognitive approach different kind of phrases, as well as the syntagmatic relations which they reveal, are studied in accord with the mechanisms of conceptual integration, i.e. mechanisms of combining words into phrases. J. R. Taylor proposes four such like mechanisms and constructional schemas which correspond them:

-complementation - the mechanism, where one component conceptually specifies the other component elaborating an entity already present in the semantic structure of the latter (head-complement schema); this type of conceptual integration can be observed, for example, in the traditional analysis of the obligatory valency of the verb: subject and direct object, e.g.: I left the office;
- modification – the mechanism, where one component provides some additional conceptual content to the other component (head-modifier schema) (compare the optional valency of the verb: adverbial modifiers);
- apposition – the mechanism, where both the components elaborate one and the same entity but profile its different aspects (appositional schema);
- parataxis – the mechanism, where the relations between the components are not overtly marked by the speaker (parataxis schema). (For details see: 81, 53-56. It is necessary to mention that the discussed mechanisms of conceptual integration reveal the essence of syntagmatic relations in general, as the basis of speech and thinking processes, and can be successfully applied to the study of sentence types (simple sentences, composite sentences and semi-composite sentences as an intermediary sentence type) within a cognitive approach.

Self-control questions

1. What types of linguistic relations between words do you know?
2. What relation is called paradigmatic?
3. What relation is called syntagmatic?
4. What is agreement?
5. What is government?
6. What is collocation?
7. Are there agreement, government and collocation in your native language?
8. What relation between words are called syntactic?
9. What relation is called predicative?

WORD-COMBINATIONS AND THEIR TYPES

Word-combination (or phrase) is a syntactically connected group of notional words within the limits of sentence but which is not a sentence itself. (3).

B. Ilyish (15) defines it as follows: "Phrase is every combination of two or more words which is a grammatical unit but is not an analytical form of some word (as, for instance, the perfect forms of verbs)" and further Ilyish writes that "the difference between a phrase and a sentence is a fundamental one. A phrase is a means of naming some phenomenon or process, just as a word is. Each component of a phrase can undergo grammatical changes in accordance with grammatical categories represented in it. Without destroying the identity of the phrase.".

"With a sentence things are entirely different. A sentence is a unit with every word having its definite form. A change in the form of one or more words would produce a new sentence".

But if one takes into consideration that any phrase is a constituent of sentences then it is difficult to accept Ilyish's concept of phrases. Any change in the structure of a phrase may result the change in the sentence to which this phrase refers. In this case that sentence will become another sentence as per the concept of the author.

Following I. Barkhudarov's conception we distinguish three types of word-combinations:

1. Subordinate phrases the IC of which are connected by a subordination bond: cold water, reading a book, famous detective, smoked fish, and so on.

Z. Co-ordinate phrases the IC of which are connected by a coordination bond: slowly but steadily; pen and pencils.

3. Predicative phrases the IC of which are connected by a predication bond: for you to go; breakfast over... When he turned his head the two behind could see his lips moving.

But phrases don't always consist of two elements; their IC may contain more than one word, as e.g.

three black dogs

In the same phrase we find 3 words. IC are connected by a subordination bond. When I C of two or more membered phrases are connected by a similar bond we'll call elementary phrase, e.g. mighty entertaining story; teaching English Grammar: men, women and children... But very often certain phrases in their turn fall under some other phrases, IC of which are connected by different bonds. as it is in the phrase. Red and blue pencils.

Here we find subordination and coordination. Such phrases are called compound phrases, e.g. brought pens and pencils. Subordinate phrases may be of different types which depend on the part of speech the head word is expressed by

The Types of Co-ordinate Phrases

The coordinate phrases may be of two types: syndetically connected (free and happy) and asyndetically connected coordinate phrases (hot, dusty, tired out). In the structure of the first type, there's always a word that connects the constituents of the phrase while in the second type there's no connector.

The Types of Subordinate Phrases

The subordinate phrases are classified according to the head word. Thus there are noun phrases (cold water), verb phrases (saw a house), adjective phrases (extremely red) and so on.

The Types of Predicative Phrases

The predicative phrases fall under:

Infinitive predicative phrases: I asked him to stay.

Gerundial predicative phrases: I saw him running.

Absolute predicative phrases: Everybody stood up, glass in hand.

As it is seen from the examples the types of predicative phrases depend on what non-finite form of the verb verbal part of them is expressed by.

There are a lot of definitions concerning the word-group. The most adequate one seems to be the following: the word-group is a combination of at least two notional words which do not constitute the sentence but are syntactically

connected. According to some other scholars (the majority of Western scholars and professors B.Ilyish and V.Burlakova - in Russia), a combination of a notional word with a function word *(on the table)* may be treated as a word-group as well. The problem is disputable as the role of function words is to show some abstract relations and they are devoid of nominative power. On the other hand, such combinations are syntactically bound and they should belong somewhere.

General characteristics of the word-group are:

1) As a naming unit it differs from a compound word because the number of constituents in a word-group corresponds to the number of different denotates: a black bird (2), a blackbird (1); a loud speaker (2), a loudspeaker (1).

2) Each component of the word-group can undergo grammatical changes without destroying the identity of the whole unit: *to see a house - to see houses.*

3) A word-group is a dependent syntactic unit, it is not a communicative unit and has no intonation of its own.

Classification of word-groups.

Word-groups can be classified on the basis of several principles:

a) According to the type of syntagmatic relations: **coordinate** *(you and me)*, **subordinate** *(to see a house, a nice dress)*, predicative *(him coming, for him to come)*.

b) According to the structure: **simple** (all elements are obligatory), **expanded** *(to read and translate the text* – expanded elements are equal in rank), **extended** (a word takes a dependent element and this dependent element becomes the head for another word: *a beautiful flower - a very beautiful flower)*.

Subordinate word-groups are based on the relations of dependence between the constituents. This presupposes the existence of a governing.

Element which is called **the head** and the dependent element which is called the **adjunct** (in noun-phrases) or the **complement** (in verb-phrases).

According to the nature of their heads, subordinate word-groups fall into **noun-phrases** (NP) - *a cup of tea*, **verb phrases** (VP) - *to run fast, to see a house*, adjective phrases (AP) - *good for you*, **adverbial phrases** (DP) - *so quickly*, **pronoun phrases** (IP) - *something strange, nothing to do.*

The formation of the subordinate word-group depends on the valency of its constituents. **Valency** is a potential ability of words to combine. Actual realization of valency in speech is called combinability.

Noun word-groups are widely spread in English. This may be explained by a potential ability of the noun to go into combinations with practically all parts of speech. The NP consists of a noun-head and an adjunct or adjuncts with relations of modification between them. Three types of modification are distinguished here:

a) **Premodification** that comprises all the units placed before the head: *two smart hard-working students.* Adjuncts used in pre-head position are called pre-posed adjuncts.

b) **Post modification** that comprises all the units all the units placed after the head: *students from Boston.* Adjuncts used in post-head position are called post-posed adjuncts.

c) **Mixed modification** that comprises all the units in both pre-head and

post-head position: *two smart hard-working students from Boston.*

Pre-posed adjuncts		Post-posed adjuncts
Pronoun	Adj.	Ving
Adj	Ven	D
N2	Prep. №2	Num
N's	Prep Ving	
Ven	wh – clause, that- clause	
Ving		
Num		
D		

In noun-phrases with pre-posed modifiers we generally find adjectives, pronouns, numerals, participles, gerunds, nouns. nouns in the genitive case (see the table). According to their position all pre-posed adjuncts may be divided into **pre-adjectivals** and **adjectivals**. The position of adjectivals is usually right before the noun-head. Pre-adjectivals occupy the position before adjectivals. They fall into two groups: a) **limiters** (to this group belong mostly particles): *just, only, even, etc.* and b) **determiners** (articles, possessive pronouns, quantifiers - *the first, the last).*

Premodification of nouns by nouns (N+N) is one of the most striking features about the grammatical organization of English. It is one of devices to make our speech both laconic and expressive at the same time. Noun-adjunct groups result from different kinds of transformational shifts. NPs with pre-posed adjuncts can signal a striking variety of meanings:

world peace - peace all over the world
silver box - a box made of silver
table lamp -lamp for tables
table legs - the legs of the table
river sand - sand from the river
school child - a child who goes to school

The grammatical relations observed in NPs with pre-posed adjuncts may convey the following meanings:

1) subject-predicate relations: *weather change;*
2) object relations: *health service, women hater;*
3) adverbial relations: a) of time: *morning star,*
b) place: *world peace, country house,*
c) comparison: *button eyes,*
d) purpose: *tooth brush.*

It is important to remember that the noun-adjunct is usually marked by a stronger stress than the head.

Of special interest is a kind of 'grammatical idiom' where the modifier is reinterpreted into the head: *a devil of a man, an angel of a girl.*

NPs with post-posed may be classified according to the way of connection into preposition less and prepositional. The basic prepositionless NPs with post-posed adjuncts are: Nadj. - *tea strong,* NVen - *the shape unknown,* NVing - *the girl*

smiling, ND - *the man downstairs*, NVinf - *a book to read*, NNum - *room ten*.

The pattern of basic prepositional NPs is NI prep. N2. The most common preposition here is 'of - *a cup of tea, a man of courage*. It may have quite different meanings: **qualitative** - *a woman of sense*, **predicative** - *the pleasure of the company*, objective - *the reading of the newspaper*, **partitive** - *the roof of the house*.

The VP is a definite kind of the subordinate phrase with the verb as the head. The verb is considered to be the semantic and structural centre not only of the VP but of the whole sentence as the verb plays an important role in making up primary predication that serves the basis for the sentence. VPs are more complex than NPs as there are a lot of ways in which verbs may be combined in actual usage. Valent properties of different verbs and their semantics make it possible to divide all the verbs into several groups depending on the nature of their complements.

VPs can be classified according to the nature of their complements - verb complements may be nominal *(to see a house)* and adverbial *(to behave well)*. Consequently, we distinguish nominal, adverbial and mixed complementation.

Nominal complementation takes place when one or more nominal complements (nouns or pronouns) are obligatory for the realization of potential valency of the verb: *to give smth. to smb., to phone smb., to hear smth.(smb.), etc.*

Adverbial complementation occurs when the verb takes one or more adverbial elements obligatory for the realization of its potential valency: *He behaved well, I live ... in Kiev (here)*.

Mixed complementation - both nominal and adverbial elements are obligatory: *He put his hat on he table* (nominal adverbial).

According to the **structure** VPs may be **basic** or **simple** *(to take a book)* - all elements are obligatory; **expanded** *(to read **and translate** the text, to read books **and newspapers**)* and **extended** *(to read an **English** book)*

Predicative word combinations are distinguished on the basis of secondary predication. Like sentences, predicative word-groups are binary in their structure but actually differ essentially in their organization. The sentence is an independent communicative unit based on primary predication while the predicative word-group is a dependent syntactic unit that makes up a part of the sentence. The predicative word-group consists of a nominal element (noun, pronoun) and a non-finite form of the verb: N к Vnon-fin. There are Gerundial, Infinitive and Participial word-groups (complexes) in the English language: *His reading for me to know, the boy running, etc.)*

Self-control questions

1. What is phrase (word - combination)?
2. What is the difference between a word and a phrase?
3. What is the difference between a word and a phrase and a sentence?
4. What conceptions on phrase (word-combination) do you know?
5. What are the criteria to distinguish the types of phrases?

6. What types of phrases do you know according to the syntactic relations between the constituents of phrases?
7. What types of phrases do you know according to the word-groups constituting phrases?

SENTENCE

Problems to be discussed:

- definition of sentence
- the types of sentences according to the different grouping requirements
- the problem of one-member sentences
- the problem of elliptical sentences

There are many definitions of the sentence and these definitions differ from each other because that the scientists approach from different view points to this question. Some of them consider the sentence from the point view of phonetics, others - from the point of view of semantics (the meaning of the sentence) and so on. According to the opinion of many grammarians the definition of the sentence must contain all the peculiar features of the smallest communicative unit.

Some of the definitions of a sentence are given below.

«Предложение – минимальная синтаксическая конструкция, используемая в актах речевой коммуникации, характеризующаяся предикативностью и реализующая определенную структурную схему» (14)

"The sentence is the immediate integral unit of speech built up of words according to a definite syntactic pattern and distinguished by a contextually relevant communicative purpose"

The definitions which are mentioned above prove that B.A. Ilyish is quite right when he writes: "The notion of sentence has not so far received a satisfactory definition" (15)

"A sentence is a unit of speech whose grammatical structure conforms to the laws of the language and which serves as the chief means of conveying a thought. A sentence is not only a means of communicating something about reality but also a means of showing the speaker's attitude to it.

"В отличие от слова или словосочетания, которые выражают лишь различные понятия, предложения выражают относительно законченные мысли и тем самым используются как единицы общения между людьми; произнося (или изображая на письме) предложения, люди что-то сообщают, выясняют, побуждают друг другу к выполнению действия.

The train moved out of the city.
Are you ready?
Put down the book.

Для того чтобы сообщение о том или ином факте, явлении был полным, законченным, требуется указать каким образом данный факт, явление, событие и т.д. относится к реальной действительности, существует

ли оно на самом деле или же мыслится как возможное предполагаемое, воображаемое, необходимое и т.д., т.е. необходимо выразить модальность сообщения. Модальность непременно имеется в любом предложении».

«Важнейшим средством грамматического оформления предложения является законченность интонации». (15)

Thus, concluding the above mentioned conceptions, we can say that in any act of communication there are three factors:

1. The act of speech;

2. The speaker;

3. Reality (as viewed by the speaker).

B. Khaimovich and Rogovskaya (22) state that these factors are variable since they change with every act of speech. They may be viewed from two viewpoints:

1) from the point of view of language are constant because they are found in all acts of communication;

2) they are variable because they change in every act of speech.

Every act of communication contains the notions of time, person and reality.

The events mentioned in the communications are correlated in time and time correlation is expressed by certain grammatical and lexical means.

Any act of communication presupposes existence of the speaker and the hearer. The meaning of person is expressed by the category of person of verbs. They may be expressed grammatically and lexico-grammatically by words: I, you, he...

Reality is treated differently by the speaker and this attitude of the speaker is expressed by the category of mood in verbs. They may be expressed grammatically and lexically (may, must, probably...)

According to the same authors the three relations - to the act of speech, to the speaker and to reality - can be summarized as the relation to the situation of speech.

The relation of the thought of a sentence to the situation of speech is called predicativity.

Predicativity is the structural meaning of the sentence while intonation is the structural form of it. Thus, a sentence is a communication unit made up of words /and word-morphemes/ in conformity with their combinability and structurally united by intonation and predicativity.

Within a sentence the word or combination of words that contains the meanings of predicativity may be called the predication.

My father used to make nets and sell them.

My mother kept a little day-school for the girls.

Nobody wants a baby to cry.

A hospital Nursery is one of the most beautiful places in the world. You might say, it's a room filled with love.

Thus, by sentence we understand the smallest communicative unit, consisting of one or more syntactically connected words that has primary predication and that has a certain intonation pattern.

The Types of Sentences

There are many approaches to classify sentences. Below we shall consider only some of them.

B. Ilyish classifies sentences applying two principles:

1) types of communication. Applying this principle he distinguishes 3 types of sentences: declarative, interrogative, imperative.

2) according to structure. Applying this principle he distinguishes two main types of sentences; simple and composite.

Ch. Fries (31), (32) gives an original classification of types of sentences. All the utterances are divided by him into Communicative and Non-communicative.

The Communicative utterances are in their turn divided into 3 groups:

I. Utterances regularly eliciting "oral" responses only:

A) Greetings. B) Calls. C) Questions.

II. Utterances regularly eliciting "action" responses, sometimes accompanied by one of a limited list of oral responses: requests or commands.

III. Utterances regularly eliciting conventional signals of attention to continuous discourse statements.

L. Barkhudarov (3) compares source (kernel) sentences with their transforms, he distinguishes several types of sentences from their structural view-point. His classification will represent binary oppositions where the unmarked member is the source kernel sentence and marked one is the transformed sentence.

The most important oppositions within the limits of simple sentences are the following two:

1. Imperative (request) and non-imperative sentences.
2. Elliptical and non-elliptical sentences.

Summarizing the issue about the classification of sentences in the English language, we can say that this can be done from different points of view. But the most important criteria so are as follows:

1. the criterion of the structure of sentences
2. the criterion of the aim of the speaker
3. the criterion of the existence of all parts of the sentence.

From the point of view of the first criterion sentences fall under two subtypes: simple and composite.

The difference between them is in the fact that simple sentences have one primary predication in their structure while composite ones have more than one.

According to the criterion of the aim of the speaker sentences fall under declarative, interrogative, imperative and exclamatory.

From the point of view of the existence of all parts of the sentence we differentiate elliptical and non-elliptical sentences.

Below we shall consider these types of sentence.

Types of Sentences according to the Aim of the Speaker

The declarative sentences: This type of sentence may be called basic, when compared with other types of sentences because all other types of sentences are the result of transformation of kernel sentences which are affirmative in their origin (kernel sentences).

- they convey some statement. Maybe because of this fact these sentences are called declarative.
- they usually have the falling an intonation
- usually they have regular order of words with no inversion.

Interrogative Sentences

Interrogative sentences differ from the declarative or interrogative ones by some their specific features.

There are two structural types of interrogative sentences in Modern English - general questions (yes- or no- questions) and special (or wh-) questions. Both of them are characterized by having partial inversions:

Are we staying here?

Where are we staying?

Besides, the first one has a special (rising) intonation pattern. The second one (wh-question) has interrogative words. But the intonation pattern of wh-questions is identical with that of the affirmative sentences.

And it is important to point out that the interrogative sentences require answers (if they are not rhetorical ones).

Exclamatory Sentences

The peculiar features of these sentences are:

1. exclamatory sentences usually express some sort of emotion, feeling or the spirit of the person who pronounces it;
2. in their structure they have such introductory words as *what* and *how*:
   Ex. What a lovely night! How beautiful it is here!
3. they are always in the declarative form;
4. there's usually no inversion;
5. they are pronounced with a falling intonation;

Imperative Sentences

The imperative sentences are opposed to non-imperative ones because.

1. In imperative sentences the predicate is used in only one form-in the imperative one, while in non-imperative sentences predicate may be used in any form except the imperative.

2. In imperative sentences no modal verb is used.

3. The imperative sentences are most often directed to the second person.

4. The subject of the imperative sentences are almost always represented by the zero alternant of you, that is, elliptically.

5. The imperative sentences urge the listener to perform an action or verbal response.

The above said is quite sufficient to characterize the structure of imperative sentences to be specific and distinct from that of the structure of non-imperative sentences.

Elliptical Sentences

The problem of elliptical sentences has been and still is one of the most important and at the same time difficult problems of syntax.

The problem is solved by different linguists in different way. According to H. Kruisinga's (36) concept "Any noun that is used to call a person may be looked upon as a sentence, or a sentence-word.

Some words regularly form a sentence, such as "yes" or "no"; but they do so only in connection with another sentence. Words used in a sentence with subject and predicate may also be alone to form a complete sentence, but again in connection with another sentence only..."

As we stated above elliptical sentences are also the result of transformation of kernel sentences. Since transforms are derived from kernel sentences they must be considered in connection with the latter.

L. Barkhudarov (3) looks upon the sentences like «Вечер», «Утро» and so on as two-member sentences. Really, if we isolate such utterances from the language system it will not be divisible. If an investigator wants to be objective he cannot neglect the language system. Any unit of any language is in interdependence of the other units of the language. Since the overwhelming majority of sentences are two-member ones as e.g. «Был вечер», «Будет вечер» the above-mentioned utterances are also two-member ones. In sentences «Был вечер», «Будет вечер» the predicates are expressed explicitly, while in «Вечер», «Утро» the predicates are expressed by zero alternants of the verb «быть». M. Blokh is conception is very close to this (2), (6).

The classification of elliptical sentences may be based on the way of their explication. By explication we understand the replacement of the zero alternant of this or that word by the explicit one. There are two kinds of explication:

1. Syntagmatically restored elliptical sentences - when the explicit alternant of the elliptical sentence is found in the same context where the elliptical sentence is:

One was from Maine; the other from California.

If you have no idea where Clive might be, I certainly haven't. (Nancy Buckingam).

2. Paradigmatically restored elliptical sentence - when the explicit alternant of the zero form is not found in the context where the ellipsis is used but when it is found in similar language constructions, e.g.

Stop and speak to me. (Galsworthy)

You listen to me, Horace. (Steinback)

The Problem of One -Member Sentences

"A sentence is the expression of a self- contained and complete thought". Quite often the terms are applied to linguistic forms lack completeness in one or more respects. It will of course be readily agreed that sentences like "All that glitters is not gold" and "Two multiplied by two are four", are formally and notionally complete and self-contained.

But in everyday intercourse utterances of this type are infrequent in comparison with the enormous number which rely upon the situation or upon the linguistic context - to make their intention clear.

In the extract Strove asked him if he had seen Strickland. "He is ill", he said. "Didn't you know?" – "Seriously?" – "Very, I understand", to Fries "Seriously" is a sentence - equivalent. They all seem to be a complete communication. But it can not be denied that each of them, either through pronouns (he, him) or through omissions, depend heavily on what has been said immediately before it is spoken; in fact the last three would be unthinkable outside a linguistic context. Properly speaking, therefore, omissions must be said to effect connection between sentences (31), (32).

Sentences with syntactic items left out are natural, for omissions are inherent in the very use of language. "In all speech activities there are three things to be distinguished: expression, suppression, and impression.

Expression is what the speaker gives, suppression is what the speaker does not give, though he might have given it, and impression is what the hearer receives". (35)

Grammarians have often touched upon omissions of parts of sentences. But it is difficult to find an opinion which is shared by the majority of linguists.

When considering the types of sentences some grammarians recognize the existence of two-member, one-member and elliptical sentences. The two-member sentences are sentences which have the subject and the predicate. However, language is a phenomenon where one cannot foresay the structure of it without detailed analysis. There are sentences which cannot be described in terms of two-member sentences. We come across to sentences which do not contain both the subject and the predicate. "There's usually one primary part and the other could not even be supplied, at least not without a violent change of the structure of the sentence", (Ilyish) Fire! Night. Come on!

As Ilyish (15) puts it, it is a disputed point whether the main part of such a sentence should, or should not be termed subject in some case (as in Fire! Night...) or predicate in some other (Come on!; Why not stay here?) There are grammarians who keep to such a conception. Russian Academician V.V. Vinogradov (10) considers that grammatical subject and predicate are correlative notions and that the terms lose their meaning outside their relation to each other. He suggests the term "main part".

Thus, one member sentence is a sentence which has no separate subject and predicate but one main only instead. B. Ilyish (15) considers some types of such sentences:

1) with main part of noun (in stage directions);

Night. A lady's bed-chamber ... .

2) Imperative sentences with no subject of the action mentioned:

Come down, please.

infinitive sentences are also considered to be one special type of one-member sentences. In these sentences the main part is expressed by an infinitive. Such sentences are usually emotional:

Oh, to be in a forest in May!

Why not go there immediately?

B.A. Ilyish (15) states that these sentences should not be considered as elliptical ones, since sentences like:

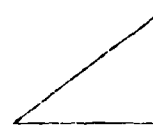
Why should not we go there immediately? - is stylistically different from the original one.

By elliptical sentence he means sentence with one or more of their parts left out, which can be unambiguously inferred from the context.

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

The most essential features of the sentence as a linguistic unit are a) its **structural** characteristics - subject-predicate relations (primary predication), and b) its **semantic** characteristics - it refers to some fact in the objective reality. It is represented in the language through a conceptual reality:

conceptual reality proposition



objective reality lingual representation objective situation predicative unit

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

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

Different approaches to the study of the sentence.

a) Principal and secondary parts of the sentence.

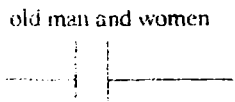
b) Immediate constituents of the sentence. IC analysis.

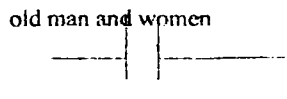
To grasp the real structure of the English sentence, one must understand not only words that occur but also the principles of their arrangement. Each language has its own way of structural grouping. English has dichotomous phrase structure, which means that the phrase in English can always be divided into two elements (constituents) until we get down to the single word. All groups of words are arranged in levels. The name given by linguists to these different levels of relationship is immediate **constituents**.

Thus, one way of analyzing a sentence is to cut it to its immediate constituents, that is, to single out different levels of meaning:

The old man saw a black dog there.

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





c) Oppositional analysis.

The oppositional method in syntax means correlating different sentence types: they possess common features and differential features. Differential features serve the basis for analysis.

E.g. two member sentence :: one member sentence (John worked:: John! Work! Or: I speak English :: I don't speak English.

d) Constructional analysis.

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

The structural sentence types are formed on the basis of kernels (basic structures). Three main types of propositional kernels may be distinguished: N V, N is A, N is N. However, if we take into account the valent properties of the verbs (their obligatory valency) the group will become larger (8 kernels), e.g. N1 V N2

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

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

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

Any linguistic unit is a double entity. It unites a concept and a sound image. The two elements are intimately united and each recalls the other. Accordingly, we distinguish **the content side** and **the expression side**. The forms of linguistic units bear no natural resemblance to their meaning. The link between them is a matter of convention, and conventions differ radically across languages. Thus, the English word 'dog' happens to denote a particular four-footed domesticated creature, the same creature that is denoted in Uzbek or Russian languages by the completely different form. Neither form looks like a dog, or sounds like one.

Self-control questions

1. What type of meaning is called "referential"?
2. What can you say about the existing models of linguistic description?
3. What is the essence of the functional approach in language analysis?
4. What characterises language as a functional system?
5. What characteristics of the notions "system" and "structure" and other linguistic units?

PRAGMATICS. SPEECH ACT THEORY. DISCOURSE ANALYSIS

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

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

from the statement that linguistic pragmatics is the study of the ability of language users to pair sentences with the context in which they would be appropriate. What do we mean by 'appropriate context'?

In our everyday life we as a rule perform or play quite a lot of different roles - a student, a friend, a daughter, a son, a client, etc. When playing different roles our language means are not the same - we choose different words and expressions suitable and appropriate for the situation. We use the language as an instrument for our purposes. For instance,

(a) What are you doing here? We're talking

(b) What the hell are you doing here? We're chewing the rag

have the same **referential** meaning but their **pragmatic** meaning is different, they are used in different contexts. Similarly, each utterance combines a **propositional base** (objective part) with the **pragmatic component** (subjective part). It follows that an utterance with the same propositional content may have different pragmatic components:

It's hot	just mentioning of the fact explanation excuse inducement to do something about it menace

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

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

I pronounce you man and wife

I declare war on France

I name this ship The Albatros

I bet you 5 dollars it will rain

I apologize

The peculiar thing about these sentences, according to J. Austin, is that they are not used to say or describe things, but rather actively to do things. After you have declared war on France or pronounced somebody husband and wife the situation has changed. That is why J. Austin termed them as **performatives** and contrasted them to statements (he called them constatives). Thus by pronouncing a performative utterance the speaker is performing an action. The performative utterance, however, can really change things only under certain circumstances. J. Austin specified the circumstances required for their success as **felicity conditions**. In order to declare war you must be someone who has the right to do it. Only a

priest (or a person with corresponding power) can make a couple a husband ad wife. Besides, it must be done before witnesses and the couple getting married must sign the register.

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

I promise I will come tomorrow - I will come tomorrow;

I swear I love you - I love you.

On any occasion the action performed by producing an utterance will consist of three related acts (a three-fold distinction):

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

2) **illocutionary act** - we form an utterance with some kind of function on mind, with a definite communicative intention or illocutionary force. The notion of illocutionary force is basic for pragmatics.

3) **perlocutionary act** - the effect the utterance has on the hearer. Perlocutionary effect may be verbal or non-verbal. E.g. *I've bought a car - Great! It's cold here* - and you close the window.

It was John Searle, who studied under J. Austin at Oxford, who proposed a detailed classification of speech acts. His speech act classification has had a great impact on linguistics. It includes five major classes of speech acts: declarations, representatives, expressives, directives and commissives:

Speech act type	Direction of fit	s - speaker, x - situation
Declarations	words change the world	S causes X
E.g. I pronounce you man and wife. You're fired		
Representatives	make words fit the world	S believes X
E.g. It was a warm sunny day. John is a liar.		
Expressives	make words fit the world	S feels X
E.g. I'm really sorry. Happy birthday! (statements of pleasure, joy, sorrow, etc.)		
Directives	make the world fit words	S wants X
E.g. Don't touch that (commands, orders, suggestions)		
Commissives	make the world fit words	S intends X
E.g. I'll be back (promises, threats, pledges - what we intend to do)		

J. Searle can also be merited for introducing a theory of indirect speech acts. Indirect speech acts are cases in which one speech act is performed indirectly, by way of performing another: *Can you pass me the salt?* Though the sentence is interrogative, it is conventionally used to mark a request - we cannot just answer "yes" or "no". According to modern point of view such utterances contain two illocutionary forces, with one of them dominating.

Another classification of speech acts was introduced by G.Potcheptsov. It is based on purely linguistic principles. The main criterion for pragmatic

classification of utterances is the way of expressing communicative intention. This classification includes six basic speech acts: constatives, promissives, menacives, performatives, directives and questions.

More details can be found in the book by И.П. Иванова, В.В. Бурлакова, Г.Г. Почепцов "Теоретическая грамматика современного английского языка". С. 267-281.

Text as a unit of the highest level manifests itself as discourse in verbal communication. Therefore actual text in use may be defined as discourse. Discourses are formed by sequence of utterances. It is obvious that many utterances taken by themselves are ambiguous. They can become clear only within a discourse. Utterances interpretation, or **discourse analysis**, involves a variety of processes, grammatical and pragmatic. By pragmatic processes we mean the processes used to bridge up the gap between the semantic representations of sentences and the interpretation of utterances in context. Quite often, the sentence may be ambiguous:

His soup is not hot enough

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

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

You're not leaving

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

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

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

Understanding the meaning of a discourse requires knowing a lot of things. There are times when people say (or write) exactly what they mean, but generally they are not totally explicit. They manage to convey far more than their words mean, or even something quite different from the meaning of their words. It was Paul Grice who attempted to explain how, by means of shared rules or conventions, language users manage to understand one another. He introduced guidelines necessary for the efficient and effective conversation. He defined these guidelines as Cooperative Principle. **Cooperative Principle** presupposes that conversation is governed by four basic rules, **Maxims of Conversation**. There are four of them:

1. The Maxim of Quality

Do not say what you believe to be false

Do not say for what you lack adequate evidence

2. The Maxim of Quantity

Make your contribution as informative as required

Do not make your contribution more informative than is required

3. The Maxim of Relevance

Be relevant

4. The Maxim of Manner

Be clear

Be orderly

Communicative maxims make it possible to generate inferences which are defined as **conversational implicatures** and **conventional implicatures**. **Conversational implicatures** are such components of an utterance that are not expressed semantically but are understood by communicants in the process of communication: *Was it you who broke the cup?* This question presupposes: *Someone has broken the cup.* If you did not do that your normal reaction would be: *What cup?*, while the answer *I didn't do that* shows that you know about the fact. Conversational implicatures are universal, they do not depend on the language used. The second type of implicatures, conventional implicatures, are derived from a definite lexical or grammatical structure of an utterance: *I saw only John* (conventional implicature – *I didn't see anyone else*), *Even Bill is smarter than you (Everybody is smarter than John, John is stupid).*

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

A). In the following example Polonius is talking to Hamlet:

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

Hamlet: *Words, words, words.*

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

B). In the utterance *You're being too smart!* the Maxim of Quality is flouted and the hearer is made to look for a covert sense. Similarly, the same maxim is flouted with metaphors. If I say: *He is made of iron,* I am either non-cooperative or I want to convey something different.

C). The Maxim of Relevance can also be responsible for producing a wide range of standard implicatures:

A: *Can you tell me the time?*

B: *The bell has gone.*

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

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

in the order in which they happen because the Maxim of Manner is flouted.

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

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

B: *I have an exam tomorrow.* B is saying 'no', but indirectly, in order to be polite.

THE FUNCTIONS OF ARTICLES IN TEXT

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

It is not a secret that articles often turn into stumbling blocks for students of English, especially for those whose first language is synthetic. Different language types represent different mentalities. Therefore, one of the ways to learn to use articles correctly is developing the necessary communicative skills through countless repetition, which can only be achieved in a corresponding language environment. Another way is trying to develop a system of rules governing the use of articles in the language by understanding the basic principles of their functioning. This is what we are going to do, though of course, both methods complement one another. A language student needs both theory and practice.

As you know, there are two articles in English: the definite article "the" and the indefinite one "a". It has become a tradition to also single out the so-called "zero" article, which is found in the contexts where neither the definite nor the indefinite article is used. It is better to speak of the zero article rather than of the absence of the article for the same reason that we ascribe the zero marker to the "unmarked" member of the opposition. We speak of zero units in situations where the grammatical meaning needs to be made explicit.

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

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

same function is performed by inflexions.

e.g. Read the poem and comment on determiners:

Twas brilling, and the slithy toves
Did gyre and gimble in the wabe.
All mimsy were the borogoves,
And the mome raths outgrabe.

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

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

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

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

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

A. *man entered the room.*
The man entered the room.

The object denoted by the word is called the "**referent**". Referents can be concrete, if something is said about a concrete object or phenomenon, and general, if what we say is true for the whole class of objects.

e.g. *I have a dog at home (a concrete dog).*
The dog is man's friend (any dog).

In the second sentence the definite article is used as a **generalizer**. The generalizing function can be performed by both the definite, the indefinite and the zero article. The zero article is used in the plural or with uncountable nouns, for example: *Conscience and cowardice are really the same things.*

Iron is metal.

When concrete nouns are used in generic sense, they are usually preceded by the definite article. The indefinite article may be used when two classes of objects are compared, for example:

A dog is stronger than a cat.

If asked for an explanation, I would say that the general conclusion about the

strength of cats and dogs is first made on the level of individuals, i.e. to determine who is stronger we would probably have to get a dog and a cat to fight. Then we would pick up another dog and another cat, until some general conclusion could be drawn. This is the reason the indefinite article appears in this sentence.

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

The noun is a part of speech which denotes substance.

The tragedy of life is indifference.

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

The indefinite article can be used in four functions:

1. The classifying function
2. The indefinitizing function
3. The introductory function
4. The quantifying function

Each of them is realized under specific contextual conditions.

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

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

This is a computer.

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

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

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

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

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

e.g. *I wish I had a home like you do.*

Have you ever seen a living tiger?

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

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

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

The definite article may be used in the following functions:

1. The identifying function.

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

2. The definitizing function.

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

e.g. *I want to talk to the rector* (even if you have never met the man).

3. The individualizing function.

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

a) adjectives in the superlative degree

e.g. *This is the easiest way out.*

b) ordinal numerals

e.g. *I have forgotten the first word.*

c) attributive relative restrictive clauses

e.g. *I need the book I bought yesterday.*

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

e.g. *It was a large room with many windows.*

The toasts were in chamoagne.

Still there are situations where the zero article is used in its specific functions which are different from those of the indefinite article. When used with the zero article, the noun loses its general grammatical meaning of thingness to a certain degree and acquires the meaning of qualitativeness. For example, the nouns "day" and "night" used with the zero article stand for "light" and "darkness" rather than time units.

Self-control questions

1. What is cohesion and what major categories of cohesion do you know?
2. What does collocation include? What is its function in the text?
3. What can you say about the essential functions of the English article in the text?
4. What are the major types of deictic markers?

5. What is Ch. Morris's opinion on pragmatics?
6. What verbs do we call "performative verbs"?
7. What can you say about locutionary act (illocutionary act? perlocutionary act, etc.)?
8. What is the essence of "discourse analysis"?
9. What are conversational implicatures and conventional implcatures?

PSYCHO-LINGUISTIC ASPECTS OF GRAMMAR

For many years language was approached as just a system, outside the processes of its acquisition and use. Nowadays it has become quite popular to study language in action, taking into account the human factor. There has been a great interest in the analysis of different parameters of the communicative speech situation, like time place and social environment. It is evident that when we speak, we are influenced by everything around us as well as by our own inner selves. It would be very easy to analyze texts, if people spoke like computers, following the principle of formal logic and that of economy. Luckily, it is not so. If we were absolutely logical, trying to relate to others, our speech would be very dull and lifeless.

Psycholinguistics is one of several linguistic disciplines which focus on the relationship between language structures and the one who uses them it stands on the borderline between Psychology and Linguistics. The subject matter of **Psychology** is the nature and function of the human soul. The term itself is derived from the two Greek words "psyche" which means "soul" and "logos" which stands for "science". There are three aspects in the human soul: "mind", "will" and "emotions", and all of them are studied by Psychology. The subject matter of Psycho linguistics is, of course, narrower. It is not concerned with human soul as it is. Its scope of interest is human ability to use language.

On the other hand, Psycholinguistics is not a completely independent discipline, it is a branch of **General Linguistics**. Psycholinguistics can be briefly defined as a branch of language science studying speech behavior of man. *B.Skinner*, a famous American psychologist, suggests that language is a part of a more encompassing human behavior.

Psycholinguistics was officially recognized as a discipline, as a branch of linguistics in 1953, in the city of Bloomington, USA. It was based on the principles of the "theory of information". The key terms that were used were *"sender"*, *"channel"* and *"recipient"*. The importance of using the channel effectively was underlined. The channel is described in terms of "effectiveness" and "reliability". The **effectiveness** of the channel is related to the number of the bites of information that can be conveyed for a certain time unit. It means that the more information is conveyed for, let us say, an hour or a minute the more effective the channel is.

The reliability of the channel can be defined as the answer to the question "Is there any difference between what was sent and what was received?" To increase the reliability the speaker may want to speak slower, repeating the same

over and over again, which, of course, will decrease the effectiveness of the channel. It has been proved for example that the study material covered by an average half-an-hour lecture could be successfully presented for just twenty minutes, if the teacher were after the efficiency of the channel only. However, it would be extremely difficult, if not impossible, for the students to receive pure semiological (or logical) information, not dissolved by any flashbacks or jokes. Normal speech is half-reliable and half-effective.

In 1954 a book by ***Ch. Osgood*** and ***L. Sebeok*** was published. The title of it was "Psycholinguistics: A study of Theory and Research Problems" and it gave birth to psycholinguistics as an independent discipline. Psycholinguistics is defined as "a science which provides for the use of linguistic analysis of grammar to identify the mental and behavioral processes which underlie language acquisition and development". *Ch. Osgood* suggested a three-level model of the derivation of the utterance. The speaker (sender) realizes his communicative intention step by step, level by level, choosing one of the possible phonetic, lexical and morphological variants. According to *P.L. Newcomer* and *D.D. Hanllill*, psycholinguistics is the study of the mental processes which underlie the acquisition and use of language.

A.A. Leontyev, defines the subject matter of psycholinguistics as the relationship between language system and linguistic competence. What is meant, scholars no longer focus on language as a system, but they also analyze the person's ability to use the linguistic units and structures more effectively.

Psycholinguistics focuses on the speaking individual. Therefore, **I. the human factor** is extremely important in defining psycholinguistics as an independent discipline. It is not the product of speaking, that is of greatest importance, it is also the speaking person, with all of its strengths, weaknesses, creative abilities and disturbances. It is interesting to study the differences between women's and men's speech, for example. Men and women are sure to speak differently, because their personalities are not the same. Children's speech is something to be studied too. It can hardly be denied that teenagers speak somewhat differently from senior adults. The speaker's personality type as well as his current emotional state can't but affect the choice of language structures.

II. Another thing is the **situation factor**. If we look at any text more or less carefully, we will see that all the parameters of the communicative speech situations are somehow reflected in it. We can basically determine where and when this or that conversation takes place.

III. Experimental factor is important too. The experiment is generally recognized as the leading method of psychology. The experiment helps to create an artificial situation, allowing the speaker to resort to special linguistic devices, those that are of special interest to the scholar. On the other hand, the experimental situation may cause the speaker to exercise certain linguistic abilities, so that the scholar may determine whether the latter are well developed, underdeveloped or impaired. Tests are extremely popular in psycho linguistic studies.

IV. The abnormal factor. Linguistics has always been a normocentric discipline. It means that linguists have analyzed "correct" texts only. It has never

been clear what is to be done with "wrong" texts. Stories derived by illiterate people, foreigners or mentally sick individuals were merely defined as "incorrect' and, therefore, not considered worth studying at all. However, those texts do exist, so something must be done with them. The term "wrong" is not a very lucky one, because it adds nothing to the understanding of what those texts are actually like and what are the mechanisms that bring them into being. It was the Russian academician L.V. Scherba that suggested the term "negative speech material", including everything that does not meet the existing norms and standards. Here are some genres or types of the text that L.V. Scherba considers negative:

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

Without any doubt all those phenomena are worth studying too.

Psycho linguistics is an interdisciplinary study of language development, language in relation to human mind, language in thought, etc. Therefore the analysis of different language units and structures can hardly be separated from the study of human mind and the way it functions. Let us proceed from the assumption that there are two spheres in human soul: the conscious sphere and the subconscious one. We will talk about those spheres in the next chapter.

When studying different aspects of the subconscious sphere, modern psychologists use the term **"MIND SET"**.

It was *D.N. Uznadze*, a Georgian psychologist, who defined mind set as a state that precedes every human activity, including speaking. It is a special form of soul modification that underlies every involvement into the world. The mind set is the person's readiness to perform an action, it is the modality of human behavior. *D.N. Uznadze* shows that it is in the mind set that the person's need and the concrete situation are reflected in the form of a drive. So the mind set is the beginning of every human activity, and it underlies both conscious and subconscious behavior.

Speaking about the language, we can think of two possible mind sets that underlie the process of speaking:

1) the communicative mind set and

2) the expressive mind set,

which correspond to the two main functions of language: the communicative function and the expressive function. Of course, when we speak, both functions are realized. However, the person's desire to say something may proceed from the necessity to get something from the hearer, which can be either of material or ideal nature: an object, an action, a piece of advice, even understanding and compassion. Of course, the speaker will do his best to be understood by the hearer. He will control what he is saying, he will keep in mind the hearer's social status, his specific character traits as well as different parameters of the communicative speech situation, like the time and the place. So 'when the speaker wants to share some information with somebody, he will proceed from the communicative mind

set. Most speech acts are realizations of the communicative mind set.

Therefore, any speech activity, proceeding from the communicative mind-set is well controlled, and attention is highly involved, even though certain operations are realized automatically without the speaker actually controlling them.

When the expressive mind set is realized, the person is driven by the desire to pour out his soul, to get rid of something that is tormenting him. He doesn't care whether he will be understood or not. He perceives linguistic signs as a part of himself. The speaker creates, he is just like an artist or a composer. And it doesn't matter what will eventually appear: a poem, a hypnotic text, a joke or a schizophrenic text. What is really important is that the expressive mind set has been realized. The speaker forgets about the hearer or the reader to some extent. Of course, there can be different stages or levels of the speaker's drift from reality. Still it is the logic of wish-fulfillment that underlies everything that goes on. That is why the texts that are the product of speech based on the expressive mind set are, in most cases, samples of the negative speech material.

Self-control questions

1. What is the subject matter of psycholinguistics?
2. What is the channel of Information and how is its reliability measured?
3. What factors of psycholinguistics can you name?
4. Explain the term "negative speech material"?
5. What are the essential features of the subconscious language?

COGNITIVE ASPECTS OF GRAMMAR

Cognitive linguists, like other linguists, study language for its own sake: they attempt to describe and account for its **systematicity**, its **structure**, the **functions** it serves, and how these functions are realised by the language system. However, an important reason behind why cognitive linguists study language stems from the assumption that language reflects patterns of thought. Therefore, to study language from this perspective is to study patterns of **conceptualisation**. Language offers a window into cognitive function, providing insights into the nature, structure and organisation of thoughts and ideas. The most important way in which cognitive linguistics differs from other approaches to the study of language, then, is that language is assumed to reflect certain fundamental properties and design features of the human mind. As we will see throughout this book, this assumption has far-reaching implications for the scope, methodology and models developed within the cognitive linguistic enterprise. Not least, an important criterion for judging a model of language is whether the model is psychologically plausible.

Cognitive linguistics is a relatively new school of linguistics, and one of the most innovative and exciting approaches to the study of language and thought that

has emerged within the modern field of interdisciplinary study known as cognitive science.

In this chapter we will begin to get a feel for the issues and concerns of practicing cognitive linguists. We will do so by attempting to answer the following question: What does it mean to know a language? The way we approach the question, and the answer we come up with will reveal a lot about the approach, perspective and assumptions of cognitive linguists. Moreover, the view of language that we will finish with is quite different from the view suggested by other linguistic frameworks.

We take language for granted, yet we rely upon it throughout our lives in order to perform a range of functions. Imagine how you would accomplish all the things you might do, even in a single day, without language: buying an item in a shop, providing or requesting information, passing the time of day, expressing an opinion, declaring undying love, agreeing or disagreeing, signalling displeasure or happiness, arguing, insulting someone, and so on. Imagine how other forms of behaviour would be accomplished in the absence of language: rituals like marriage, business meetings, using the Internet, the telephone, and so forth. While we could conceivably accomplish some of these things without language (a marriage ceremony, perhaps?), it is less clear how, in the absence of telepathy, making a telephone call or sending an e-mail could be achieved. In almost all the situations in which we find ourselves, language allows quick and effective expression, and provides a well developed means of **encoding** and **transmitting** complex and subtle ideas. In fact, these notions of encoding and transmitting turn out to be important, as they relate to two key functions associated with language, the **symbolic function** and the **interactive function**.

The symbolic function of language

One crucial function of language is to express thoughts and ideas. That is, language encodes and externalises our thoughts. The way language does this is by using **symbols**.

Symbols are 'bits of language'. These might be meaningful sub-parts of words (for example, *dis-* as in *distaste*), whole words (for example, *cat*, *run*, *tomorrow*), or 'strings' of words (for example, *He couldn't write a pop jingle let alone a whole musical*). These symbols consist of **forms**, which may be spoken, written or signed, and meanings with which the forms are conventionally paired. In fact, a symbol is better referred to as a **symbolic assembly**, as it consists of two parts that are conventionally associated (Langacker 1987). In other words, this symbolic assembly is a **form-meaning pairing**.

A form can be a sound, as in [kæt]. (Here, the speech sounds are represented by symbols from the International Phonetic Alphabet.) A form might be the orthographic representation that we see on the written page: *cat*, or a signed gesture in a sign language. A **meaning** is the conventional ideational or semantic content associated with the symbol. A symbolic assembly of form and meaning is represented in figure 1.1.

Figure 1.1 A symbolic assembly of form and meaning

It is important to make it clear that the image of the cat in figure 1.1 is intended to represent not a particular referent in the world, but the idea of a cat. That is, the image represents the meaning conventionally paired with the form pronounced in English as

/kæt/. The meaning associated with a linguistic symbol is linked to a particular mental representation termed a **concept**. Concepts, in turn, derive from **percepts**. For instance, consider a piece of fruit like a pear. Different parts of the brain perceive its shape, colour, texture, taste, smell, and so on. This diverse range of perceptual information, deriving from the world 'out there' is integrated into a single **mental image** (a representation available to consciousness), which gives rise to the concept of PEAR. When we use language and utter the form *pear*, this symbol corresponds to a conventional meaning, and therefore 'connects' to a concept, rather than directly to a physical object in the external world (see figure 1.2)

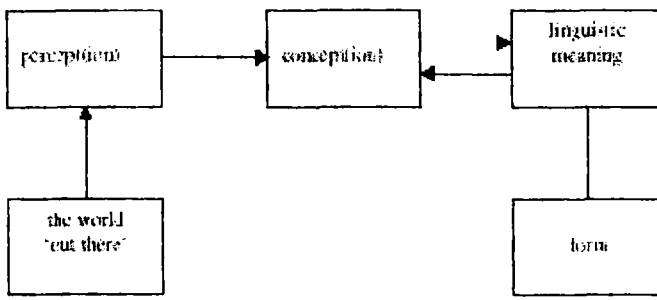


Figure 1.2 Levels of representation

Our cognitive abilities integrate raw perceptual information into a coherent and well defined mental image. The meanings encoded by linguistic symbols then, refer to our **projected reality: a** mental representation of reality, as construed by the human mind, mediated by our unique perceptual and conceptual systems.

We stated above that the symbolic function of language serves to encode and externalise our thoughts. We are now in a position to qualify this view. While our **conceptualisations** are seemingly unlimited in scope, language represents a limited and indeed limiting system for the expression of thought: we've all experienced the frustration of being unable to 'put an idea into words'. There is, after all, a finite number of words, with a delimited set of conventional meanings. From this perspective then, language merely provides **prompts** for the construction of a conceptualisation, which is far richer and more elaborate then the minimal meanings provided by language percept(ion): concept(ion); linguistic; meaning; the world; 'out there' form. Accordingly, what language encodes is not thought in its complex entirety, but instead rudimentary instructions to the conceptual system to access or create rich and elaborate ideas. To illustrate this point, consider the following illustration adapted from Taylor (2003):

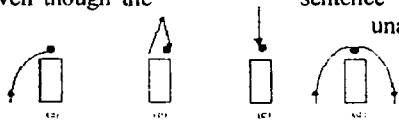
(1) The cat jumped over the wall

This sentence describes a jump undertaken by a cat. Before reading on, select the diagram in figure 1.3 that best captures, in your view, the trajectory of the jump.

(a) (b) (c) (d)

We anticipate that you selected the fourth diagram, figure (1.3d). After all, the conventional interpretation of the sentence is that the cat begins the jump on one side of the wall, moves through an arc-like trajectory, and lands on the other side of the wall.

Figure (1.3d) best captures this interpretation. On first inspection, this exercise seems straightforward. However, even a simple sentence like (1) raises a number of puzzling issues. After all, how do we know that the trajectory of the cat's jump is of the kind represented in figure (1.3d)? What information is there in the sentence that provides this interpretation and excludes the trajectories represented in figures (1.3a-c)?



Even though the sentence in (1) would typically be judged as unambiguous, it contains a number of words that have a range of interpretations. The behaviour described by *jump* has the potential to involve a variety of trajectory shapes. For instance, jumping from the ground to the table involves the trajectory represented in figure (1.3a). Jumping on a trampoline relates to the trajectory represented in (1.3b).

Bungee jumping involves the trajectory represented in (1.3c), in which the bungee jumper stops just prior to contact with the surface. Finally, jumping over a puddle, hurdle, wall, and so on, involves an arc-like trajectory as in (1.3d). If the lexical item *jump* does not in itself specify an arc-like trajectory, but is vague with respect to the shape of the trajectory, then perhaps the preposition *over* is responsible. However, *over* can also have a range of possible interpretations. For instance, it might mean 'across', when we walk *over* a bridge (a horizontal trajectory). It might mean 'above', when an entity like a hummingbird is *over* a flower (higher than but in close proximity to). Equally, *over* could mean 'above' when a plane flies *over* a city (much higher and lacking close proximity). These are just a few of the possibilities.

The point to emerge from this brief discussion is that *over* can be used when different kinds or amounts of space are involved, and with a number of different trajectories, or paths of motion.

Consider a further complication. Figure (1.3d) crucially represents the cat's motion ending at a point on the opposite side of the wall, relative to the starting position of the jump. Yet no linguistic element in the sentence explicitly provides us with this information. Example (1) therefore illustrates the following point: even in a mundane sentence, the words themselves, while providing meanings, are only partially responsible for the conceptualisation that these meanings give rise to. Thought relies on a rich array of encyclopaedic knowledge (Langacker 1987). For example, when constructing an interpretation based on the sentence in (1), this

involves at the very least the following knowledge: (1) that the kind of jumping cats perform involves traversing obstacles rather than bungee jumping; (2) that if a cat begins a jump at a point on one side of an obstacle, and passes through a point above that obstacle, then gravity will ensure that the cat comes to rest on the other side of the obstacle; (3) that walls are impenetrable barriers to forward motion; (4) that cats know this, and therefore attempt to circumnavigate the obstacle by going over it. We use all this information (and much more), in constructing the rich conceptualisation associated with the sentence in (1).

The words themselves are merely prompts for the construction process. So far, then, we have established that one of the functions of language is to represent or symbolise concepts. Linguistic symbols, or more precisely symbolic assemblies, enable this by serving as prompts for the construction of much richer conceptualisations. Now let's turn to the second function of language.

The interactive function of language

In our everyday social encounters, language serves an **interactive function**. It is not sufficient that language merely pairs forms and meanings. These form-meaning pairings must be recognised by, and be accessible to, others in our community. After all, we use language in order to 'get our ideas across', in other words, to **communicate**. This involves a process of transmission by the speaker, and decoding and interpretation by the hearer, processes that involve the construction of rich conceptualisations (see figure 1.4).

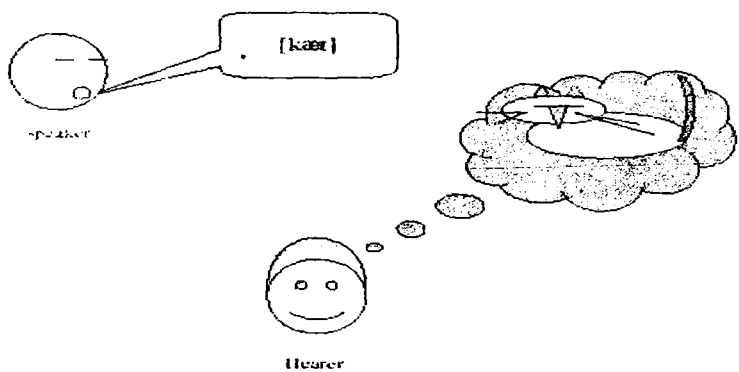


Figure 1.4 The interactive function

The messages we choose to communicate can perform various interactive and **social functions**. For example, we can use language to change the way the world is, or to make things happen:

(2) a. I now pronounce you man and wife.

b. Shut the door on your way out!

The utterance in (2a), spoken by a suitably qualified person (such as a member of the clergy licensed to perform marriages), in an appropriate setting (like a church), in the presence of two unmarried adults who consent to be joined in matrimony, has the effect of irrevocably altering the social, legal, and even spiritual relationship between the two people. That is, language itself can serve as a **speech act** that forever alters an aspect of our reality.

Similarly, in the example in (2b), the utterance represents a command, which is also a type of speech act. Language provides a means of communication, allowing us to share our wishes and desires. Moreover, the way in which these wishes and desires are expressed signals who we are, and what kind of relationship we have with our addressee. We would be unlikely to issue a command like (2b) to the Queen of England, for example.

Another way in which language fulfils the interactive function relates to the notion of **expressivity**. Language is 'loaded', allowing us to express our thoughts and feelings about the world; consider the different mental images evoked by the following expressions, which might be used by different speakers to refer to the same individual:

(3) a. The eminent linguist

b. The blonde bombshell

While the example in (3a) focuses on the profession of the individual, and her relative standing in that profession, the example in (3b) focuses on her physical appearance. Moreover, although both these sentences relate to a female linguist, the person's gender cannot be inferred from the sentence in (3a) while it can from the second sentence, due to normative patterns of linguistic behaviour and social stereoptypes. That is, we typically use the expression *blonde bombshell* to describe the physical attributes of women rather than men.

Language also plays a role in how we affect other people in the world, and how we make others feel by our choice of words. That is, language can provide information about **affect** (emotional response):

(4) a. Shut up!

b. I'm terribly sorry to interrupt you, but...

These examples also illustrate the way in which we present our public selves through language. The language we choose to use conveys information about our attitudes concerning others, ourselves and the situations in which we find ourselves.

Language can be used to create scenes, or **frames** of experience, indexing and even constructing a particular context (Fillmore 1982). In other words, language use can invoke frames that summon rich knowledge structures, which serve to call up and fill in background knowledge.

(5) a How do you do?

b. Once upon a time...

The example in (5a) creates a greeting frame, signalling an acknowledgement of another person, and a recognition that this is the first time they have met. It also signals a degree of formality, which expressions like *hey*,

what's up?, or *hi* would not. Analogously, the utterance in (5b) signals the beginning of a fairytale. In other words, just by hearing or reading the expression in (5b) an entire frame is invoked, which guides how we should respond to what follows, what our expectations should be, and so forth.

In summary, we've seen that not only does language encode particular meanings, but also that, by virtue of these meanings and the forms employed to symbolise these meanings, which constitute part of shared knowledge in a particular speech community, language can serve an interactive function, facilitating and enriching communication in a number of ways.

THE SYSTEMATIC STRUCTURE OF LANGUAGE

Having seen some examples of what language is used for, let's now consider how language is structured. Language is a system for the expression of meaning, and for carrying out its symbolic and interactive functions. So, what evidence is there for the systematicity of language?

Language consists of symbolic assemblies that are combined in various ways to perform the functions we described in section 1. A symbolic assembly is a conventional **linguistic unit**, which means that it is a piece of language that speakers recognise and 'agree' about in terms of what it means and how it is used. As we will see later in the book, particularly in Part III, one of the prominent concerns in cognitive approaches to grammar is how to model the inventory of linguistic units that make up a language. For example, speakers of Modern English 'agree' that the form *cat* is used to refer to a certain kind of meaning, which we illustrated in figure 1.2. A conventional unit can be a meaningful sub-part of a word, which linguists call a **morpheme** *(anti-dis-establish....)*, a whole word, a string of words that 'belong' together (a **phrase**), or a whole sentence.

Now let's consider another example:

(6) He kicked the bucket

This utterance consists of a sentence that has an **idiomatic meaning** in English. That is, its meaning is not predictable from the integrated meanings of the individual words. A non-native speaker of English who has not learnt the 'special' idiomatic meaning will only be able to interpret example (6) literally. Native speakers of English, on the other hand, while also being able to interpret the sentence literally, often cannot avoid the idiomatic meaning 'he died'. Of course, whether a literal versus an idiomatic interpretation is accessed depends on the situation or **context** in which the utterance occurs.

Focusing for now on the idiomatic interpretation, we can view this utterance as a unit that has a particular meaning associated with it. Therefore, it counts as a symbolic assembly. Another term for symbolic assembly that is employed by some cognitive linguists is **construction** (e.g., Goldberg 1995). We will look in detail at the notion of symbolic assemblies and constructions in Part III of the book.

When we change certain aspects of the sentence in (6), the meaning is affected. For example, if we change the object (the thing being kicked), as in (7), we lose the idiomatic meaning and are left with a **literal** utterance:

(7) He kicked the mop

For many cognitive linguists, what makes example (7) 'literal' is that this sentence 'as a whole' does not represent a construction. Instead, the meaning of (7) is interpreted by **unifying** the smaller units, the words. In contrast, example (6) is interpreted as a whole single unit: a construction. One way of expressing this idea in more intuitive terms is to use the metaphor of 'storage': suppose we store our knowledge of words, phrases and complex constructions in a mental 'box'. The behaviour of larger constructions, like *kick the bucket*, suggests that these are stored as 'chunks' or single units, just like words. The meanings of sentences like (7) on the other hand, are 'built' by unifying the individual words that make them up.

Now consider another example. If we change the structure of example (6) in the following way, we also lose the idiomatic meaning:

(8) The bucket was kicked by him.

This example shows that, in addition to meaning, constructions (form-meaning pairings) have particular formal grammatical patterns associated with them. In other words, the properties of the construction relate not only to the individual words that make it up, as in (6), but also to the grammatical form, or **word order**. The passive construction in (8), in which *the bucket* is placed in subject position, fails to provide the idiomatic meaning associated with the sentence in (6). We can conclude from this that the linear arrangement of the words in the sentence constitutes part of an individual's knowledge of idiomatic constructions like (6).

This point is also illustrated by an **ungrammatical** sentence, a sentence that does not correspond to any of the formal patterns associated with the constructions of English, as in (9), and consequently does not have a conventional meaning associated with it. Ungrammaticality is indicated by an asterisk:

(9) *Bucket kicked he the

As we noted above, the sentence in (6) qualifies as a construction because it consists of particular words arranged in a particular order, and these words are conventionally associated with a particular (idiomatic) meaning. However, we have suggested that constructions can also give rise to 'literal' meanings. To illustrate this, we will examine another sentence that has both idiomatic and literal meanings. For instance, consider the following linguistic joke:

(10) A: Waiter, what is this fly doing in my soup?

B: I think that's the breaststroke, sir!

This joke turns on the ambiguity between the regular interrogative construction, in which a speaker is enquiring after the intention or purpose of something or someone *(What's that seagull doing on the roof? What's that woman doing over there?)*, and the 'What's X doing Y construction', studied in detail by cognitive linguist Charles Fillmore (1987), in which the speaker is indicating that a particular situation is incongruous or unacceptable *(What are you doing wearing*

those bunny ears? What are those clothes doing on the floor?). Notice that each of these interpretations requires a different kind of response. For the regular interrogative construction, the response should consist minimally of a piece of information corresponding to the question word *(building a nest; waiting for a bus*). For the 'what's X doing Y' construction, on the other hand, the expected response is typically an explanation, excuse or apology *(I'm going to a fancy-dress party; I've been busy*).

Crucially, for example (10), these two very different meanings are conventionally associated with exactly the same words arranged in the same sequence.

The humorous effect of the waiter's reply rests on the fact that he has chosen to respond to the 'wrong' interpretation. While the diner is employing the 'what's X doing Y' construction, the waiter prefers to respond to the interrogative construction. The examples in this section illustrate the fact that there is a systematic relationship between words, their meanings, and how they are arranged in conventional patterns. In other words, language has a systematic structure.

The systematic structure found in language reflects a systematic structure within our conceptual system? Cognitive linguists certainly think so. Cognitive linguists explore the hypothesis that certain kinds of linguistic expressions provide evidence that the structure of our conceptual systems is reflected in the patterns of language. Moreover, as we will see throughout this book, the way the mind is structured can be seen as a reflection, in part, of the way the world (including our socio-cultural experience) is structured and organised. Consider the examples in (11).

(11) a. Christmas is fast approaching
b. The number of shares we own has gone up
c. Those two have a very close friendship

These examples relate to the abstract **conceptual domains** of TIME (11a). QUANTITY (11b) and AFFECTION (11c). A conceptual domain is a body of knowledge within our conceptual system that contains and organises related ideas and experiences. For example, the conceptual domain of TIME might relate a range of temporal concepts including *Christmas*, which is a temporal event. Notice that in each sentence in (11) the more abstract concepts *Christmas*, *number (of shares)* and *friendship* are understood in terms of conceptual domains relating to *concrete* physical experience. For instance, Christmas is conceptualised in terms of the domain of physical MOTION, which is evident in the use of the word *approaching* in (11a). Clearly *Christmas* (and other temporal concepts) cannot literally be said to undergo motion. Similarly, the notion of *number of shares* is conceptualised in terms of VERTICAL ELEVATION, which is clear from the use of the phrase *gone up* in (11b). Finally, *friendship* is conceptualised in terms of PHYSICAL PROXIMITY in (11c), which is shown by the use of the word *close*.

One of the major findings to have emerged from studies into the human conceptual system is that abstract concepts are systematically structured in terms of conceptual domains deriving from our experience of the behaviour of physical objects, involving properties like motion, vertical elevation and physical proximity

(Lakoff and Johnson 1980, 1999). It seems that the language we use to talk about temporal ideas such as *Christmas* provides powerful evidence that our conceptual system 'organises' abstract concepts in terms of more concrete kinds of experiences, which helps to make the abstract concepts more readily accessible.

As we have begun to see, cognitive linguists form hypotheses about the nature of language, and about the conceptual system that it is thought to reflect. These hypotheses are based on observing patterns in the way language is structured and organised. It follows that a theory of language and mind based on linguistic observation must first describe the linguistic facts in a systematic and rigorous manner, and in such a way that the description provides a plausible basis for a speaker's tacit knowledge of language.

This foundation for theorising is termed **descriptive adequacy** (Chomsky 1965; Langacker 1987, 1991). This concern is one that cognitive linguists share with linguists working in other traditions. Below, we provide an outline of what it is that linguists do, and how they go about it.

Linguists try to uncover the systems behind language, to describe these systems and to **model** them. Linguistic models consist of theories about language. Linguists can approach the study of language from various perspectives. Linguists may choose to concentrate on exploring the systems within and between sound, meaning and grammar, or to focus on more applied areas, such as the evolution of language, the acquisition of language by children, language disorders, the questions of how and why language changes over time, or the relationship between language, culture and society. For cognitive linguists, the emphasis is upon relating the systematicity exhibited by language directly to the way the mind is patterned and structured, and in particular to conceptual structure and organisation. It follows that there is a close relationship between cognitive linguistics and aspects of cognitive psychology. In addition to this, applied linguistics also informs and is informed by the cognitive linguistics research agenda in various ways.

Linguists are motivated to explore the issues we outlined above by the drive to understand human cognition, or how the human mind works. Language is a uniquely human capacity. Linguistics is therefore one of the **cognitive sciences**, alongside philosophy, psychology, neuroscience and artificial intelligence. Each of these disciplines seeks to explain different (and frequently overlapping) aspects of human cognition. In particular, as we have begun to see, cognitive linguists view language as a system that directly reflects conceptual organisation.

As linguists, we rely upon what language tells us about itself. In other words, it is ordinary language, spoken every day by ordinary people, that makes up the **'raw data'** that linguists use to build their theories. Linguists describe language, and on the basis of its properties, formulate hypotheses about how language is represented in the mind. These hypotheses can be tested in a number of ways.

Native speakers of any given human language will have strong intuitions about what combinations of sounds or words are possible in their language, and which interpretations can be paired with which combinations. For example, native

speakers of English will agree that example (6), repeated here, is a well-formed sentence, and that it may have two possible meanings:

(6) He kicked the bucket.

They will also agree that (7) and (8), repeated here, are both well-formed sentences, but that each has only one possible meaning:

(7) He kicked the mop.

(8) The bucket was kicked by him.

Finally, and perhaps most strikingly, speakers will agree that all of the following examples are impossible in English:

(12) a. *bucket kicked he the
b. *kicked bucket the he
c. *bucket the kicked he
d. *kicked he bucket the

Facts like these show that language, and speakers' intuitions about language, can be seen as a 'window' to the underlying system. On the basis of the patterns that emerge from the description of language, linguists can begin to build theoretical 'models' of language. A model of language is a set of statements that is designed to capture everything we know about this hidden cognitive system in a way that is principled, based on empirical evidence, and psychologically plausible.

How do cognitive linguists evaluate the adequacy of their models? One way is to consider **converging evidence** (Langacker 1991). This means that a model must not only explain linguistic knowledge, but must also be consistent with what cognitive scientists know about other areas of cognition, reflecting the view that linguistic structure and organisation is a relatively imprecise, but nevertheless an indicative reflection of cognitive structure and organisation. By way of illustration, consider the scene in figure 1.5.

Figure 1.5 *The cat is on the chair*

How might we use language to describe a scene like this? Most English speakers will agree that (13a) is an appropriate description but that (13b) is 'odd':

(13) a. The cat is on the chair
b. ?The chair is under the cat

Why should (13b) be 'odd'? It's a perfectly grammatical English sentence. From what psychology has revealed about how the human mind works, we know that we have a tendency to focus our attention on certain aspects of a visual scene. The aspect we focus on is something about which we can make certain predictions. For example, in figure 1.5 we focus on the cat rather than the chair, because our knowledge of the world tells us that the cat is more likely than the chair to move, to make a noise, or to perform some other act. We call this prominent entity the **figure**, and the remainder of the scene the **ground**, which is another way of saying 'background'. Notice that this fact about human psychology provides us with an explanation for why language 'packages' information in certain ways. In (13a) *the cat* has a prominent position in the sentence: any theory of language will tell you that sentence initial position is a 'special' position in many of the world's

languages. This accords with the prominence of the corresponding entity in the visual scene. This explanation, based on the figure-ground distinction, also provides us with an explanation for why (13b) is 'odd'. This is an example of how converging evidence works to strengthen or confirm theories of language. Can you think of a situation in which (13b) would not be odd?

Let's look more closely now at some of the claims made by cognitive linguists about how language is represented in the mind. We have established that the linguist's task is to uncover the systematicity behind and within language. What kinds of systems might there be within language? We'll begin to answer this question by introducing one fundamental distinction based on the foundational work of pioneering cognitive linguist Leonard Talmy. Talmy suggests that the **cognitive representation** provided by language can be divided into **lexical** and **grammatical** subsystems. Consider the following example:

(14) **The** hunter trac**ked the** tiger**s**.

Notice that certain parts of the sentence in (14) – either whole words **(free morphemes)**, meaningful sub-parts of words **(bound morphemes)** – have been marked in boldface. What happens when we alter those parts of the sentence?

(15) a. **Which** hunter trac**ked the** tiger**s**?

b. **The** hunter trac**ks the** tiger**s**.

c. **Those** hunter**s** track **a** tiger.

All the sentences in (15) are still about some kind of tracking event involving one or more hunter(s) and one or more tiger(s). What happens when we change the 'little' words like a, *the* and *those*, and the bound morphemes like *-ed* or –s, is that is that we then interpret the event in different ways, relating to information about number (how many hunters or tigers are/were there?), tense (did this event happen before now or is it happening now?), old/new information (does the hearer know which hunters or tigers we're talking about?), and whether the sentence should be interpreted as a statement or a question.

These linguistic elements and morphemes are known as **closed-class** elements and relate to the grammatical subsystem. The term *closed-class* refers to the fact that it is typically more difficult for a language to add new members to this set of elements.

This contrasts with the non-boldface 'lexical' words which are referred to as **open-class**.

These relate to the lexical subsystem. The term *open-class* refers to the fact that languages typically find it much easier to add new elements to this subsystem, and do so on a regular basis.

In terms of the meaning contributed by each of these two subsystems, while 'lexical' words provide 'rich' meaning, and thus have a **content function**, 'grammatical' elements perform a **structuring function** in the sentence. They contribute to the interpretation in important but rather more subtle ways, providing a kind of 'scaffolding' which supports and structures the rich content provided by open-class elements. In other words, the elements associated with the grammatical subsystem are constructions that contribute **schematic meaning** rather than rich

contentful meaning. This becomes clearer when we alter the other parts of the sentence. Compare (14) with (16):

(16) a. **The** movie star kiss**ed the** directors.

b. **The** sunbeam illumina**ted the** rooftops.

c. **The** textbook delight**ed the** students.

What all the sentences in (16) have in common with (14) is the 'grammatical' elements.

In other words, the grammatical structure of all the sentences in (16) is identical to that of (15). We know that both participants in the event can easily be identified by the hearer. We know that the event took place before now. We know that there's only one movie star/sunbeam/textbook, but more than one director/rooftop/student. Notice that the sentences differ in rather a dramatic way, though. They no longer describe the same kind of event at all. This is because the 'lexical' elements prompt for certain kinds of concepts that are richer and less schematic in nature than those prompted for by 'grammatical' elements. The lexical subsystem relates to things, people, places, events, properties of things, and so on. The grammatical subsystem on the other hand relates to concepts having to do with number, time reference, whether a piece of information is old or new, whether the speaker is providing information or requesting information, and so on.

A further important distinction between these two subsystems concerns the way that language changes over time. The elements that comprise the lexical (open-class) subsystem make up a large and constantly changing set in any given human language; over a period of time, words that are no longer 'needed' disappear, and new ones appear. The 'grammatical' (closed-class) elements that make up the grammatical subsystem, on the other hand, constitute a smaller set, relatively speaking, and are much more stable. Consequently, they tend to be more resistant to change. However, even 'grammatical' elements do change over time. This is a subject we'll come back to in more detail later in the book when we discuss the process known as **grammaticalisation.**

Table 1.1 provides a summary of these important differences between the lexical and grammatical subsystems. Together, these two subsystems allow language to present a cognitive representation, encoding and externalising thoughts and ideas.

Lexical Subsystem Grammatical Subsystem

Open-class words/morphemes Closed-class words/morphemes

Content function Structuring function

Larger set; constantly changing Smaller set; more resistant to change

Prompts for 'rich' concepts, e.g., people, things, places, properties, etc.

Prompts for schematic concepts, e.g., number, time reference, old vs. new, statement vs. question, etc.

Lexical Subsystem	Grammatical Subsystem
Open-class words/morphemes	Closed-class words/morphemes
Content function	Structuring function
Larger set, constantly changing	Smaller set, more resistant to change
Prompts for 'rich' concepts, e.g., people, things, places, properties, etc.	Prompts for schematic concepts, e.g., number, time reference, old vs. new, statement vs. question, etc.

Table 1.1 Properties of the lexical and grammatical subsystems

Having provided a sketch of what it means to know a language from the perspective of cognitive linguistics, we will now begin to examine the cognitive linguistics enterprise in more detail. In particular, we must consider the assumptions and commitments that underlie the cognitive linguistics enterprise, and begin to examine this approach to language in terms of its perspective, assumptions, the cognitive and linguistic phenomena it considers, its methodologies, and its approach to theory construction. We turn to these issues in the next chapter.

We began this chapter by stating that cognitive linguists, like other linguists attempt to describe and account for linguistic **systematicity**, **structure** and **function**. However, for cognitive linguists, language reflects patterns of thought; therefore, to study language is to study patterns of **conceptualisation**. In order to explore these ideas in more detail we looked first at the functions of language. Language provides a means of **encoding** and **transmitting** ideas: it has a **symbolic function** and an **interactive function**. Language encodes and externalises our thoughts by using **symbols**. Linguistic symbols consist of **form-meaning pairings**, termed **symbolic assemblies**. The **meaning** associated with a linguistic symbol relates to a mental representation termed a **concept**. Concepts derive from **percepts**; the range of perceptual information deriving from the world is integrated into a **mental image**. The meanings encoded by linguistic symbols refer to our **projected reality**: a mental representation of reality as construed by the human mind. While our **conceptualisations** are unlimited in scope, language merely provides **prompts** for the construction of conceptualisations. Language also serves an **interactive function**; we use it to **communicate**. Language allows us to perform **speech acts**, or to exhibit **expressivity** and **affect**. Language can also be used to create scenes or contexts; hence, language has the ability to invoke experiential **frames**. Secondly, we examined the evidence for a linguistic system, introducing the notion of a conventional **linguistic unit**, which may be a **morpheme**, a **word**, a string of words, or a sentence. We introduced the notion of **idiomatic meaning** which is available in certain **contexts**, and which can be associated with **constructions**. This contrasts with **literal** meaning, which may be derived by **unifying** smaller constructions like individual words. **Word order**

constitutes part of an individual's knowledge of particular constructions, a point illustrated by **ungrammatical** sentences. We also related linguistic structure to the systematic structure of thought. **Conceptual domains** reflected in language contain and organise related ideas and experiences. Next, we outlined the task of the cognitive linguist: to form hypotheses about the nature of language, and about the conceptual system that it reflects. These hypotheses must achieve **descriptive adequacy** by describing linguistic facts in a systematic and rigorous manner. Linguists try to uncover, describe and **model** linguistic systems, motivated by the drive to understand human cognition. Linguistics is therefore one of the **cognitive sciences**. Cognitive linguists carry out this task by examining linguistic **data**, and by relying on native speaker **intuitions** and **converging evidence**. As an example of converging evidence, we explored the linguistic reflex of the distinction made in psychology between **figure**, and **ground**.

Finally, we looked at what it means to know a language, and introduced an important distinction between kinds of linguistic knowledge: the **cognitive representation** provided by language can be divided into **lexical** and **grammatical** subsystems. The lexical subsystem contains **open-class** elements, which perform a **content function**. The grammatical subsystem contains **closed-class** elements, which perform a **structuring function**, providing **schematic meaning**.

Consider the following examples in the light of our discussion of example (1). Using the diagrams in Figure 1.3 as a starting point, try to draw similar diagrams that capture the path of motion involved in each example. In each case, how much of this information is explicitly encoded within the meanings of the words themselves? How much seems to depend on what you know about the world?

(a) The baby threw the rattle out of the buggy

(b) I threw the cat out of the back door

(c) I tore up the letter and threw it out of the window

(d) I threw the tennis ball out of the house

(e) I threw the flowers out of the vase

The examples below contain idiomatic constructions. If you are a non-native speaker of English, you may need to consult a native speaker or a dictionary of idioms to find out the idiomatic meaning. In the light of our discussion of example (6), try changing certain aspects of each sentence to see whether these examples pattern in the same way.

For instance, what happens if you change the subject of the sentence (for example, *the presidential candidate* in the first sentence)? What happens if you change the object (for example, *the towel*)? It's not always possible to make a sentence passive, but what happens to the meaning here if you can?

(a) The presidential candidate threw in the towel

(b) Before the exam, Mary got cold feet

(c) She's been giving me the cold shoulder lately

(d) You are the apple of my eye

(e) She's banging her head against a brick wall

What do your findings suggest about an individual's knowledge of such constructions as opposed to sentences containing literal meaning? Do any of these examples also have a literal meaning?

Take example (b) from Exercise 2 above. Believe it or not, a sentence like this with 7 words has 5040 mathematically possible word order permutations! Try to work out how many of these permutations result in a grammatical sentence. What do your findings suggest?

The examples below contain linguistic expressions that express abstract concepts. In the light of our discussion of the examples in (11), identify the relevant conceptual domain that the concept might relate to. Do these abstract concepts appear to be understood in terms of concrete physical experiences? What is the evidence for your conclusions?

(a) You've just given me a really good idea

(b) How much time did you spend on this essay?

(c) He fell into a deep depression

(d) The Stock Market crashed on Black Wednesday

(e) Unfortunately, your argument lacks a solid foundation

Now come up with other sentences which illustrate similar patterns for the following conceptual domains:

(f) THEORIES

(g) LOVE

(h) ARGUMENT

(i) ANGER

(j) KNOWING/UNDERSTANDING

Consider the scenes in figure 1.6. below. For each one, state the sentence that springs first to mind as the most natural way of describing the scene? For example, for the scene in (a), you might come up with *The goldfish is in the bowl*. What happens if you change the sentence around as we did for example (15)? What do your findings suggest about the figure/ground distinction?

Consider the example below in the light of our discussion of examples (15) – (16). First, try to identify the open-class words/morphemes and the closed-class words/morphemes by referring to the properties described in Table 1.1. Next, come up with a set of examples in which only the closed-class words/morphemes have been altered. What kinds of differences do these changes make to the sentence? Finally, try changing the open-class words/morphemes. What kinds of differences do these changes make to the sentence?

The supermodel was putting on her lipstick

Self-control questions

1. Explain the scope of the meaning denoted by the term "conceptualisation"?
2. What is language for?
3. Tell about the essence of the encoding, transmitting, symbolic and other functions of the language?

4. What levels of representation do you know?
5. What is the meaning of the term "projected reality"?
6. How is the interactive function of the language realised?
7. How is the language structured?
8. What does the systematic structure of thought reflect?
9. What do the conceptual domains related in the language contain and how do they organize ideas and experiences?
10. Why is Linguistics considered to be one of the cognitive sciences?

THE SIMPLE SENTENCE: TRADITIONAL INTERPRETATION

I. The simple sentence as a monopredicative unit.

II. Constituent structure of the simple sentence: sentence parsing and the IC-model analysis (the model of immediate constituents).

III. Paradigmatics of the simple sentence.

I. The simple sentence as a monopredicative unit.

The sentence as a main syntactic unit performs the function of predication. The basic predicative meanings are expressed by the finite verb which is connected with the subject of the sentence. This predicative connection is referred to as the predicative line of the sentence. Depending on their predicative complexity, sentences can feature one predicative line or several predicative lines, respectively sentences can be "monopredicative" and "polypredicative". Under this distinction the simple sentence is a sentence in which only one predicative line is expressed, e.g.: We have much in common. It is raining.

In respect of predication a proper simple sentence should be distinguished from a semi-composite sentence (traditional term) or complementational sentence (J.R. Taylor's term) and clause-conflational sentence (L.Talmy's term), (conflation – соединение, объединение).

Semi-composite sentence can include, for example, homogeneous sentence-parts: either subjects or predicates, which represent polypredicative structures. e.g.:

1. My brother and I were absolutely happy that time.
2. The cousin greeted me and offered a cup of tea.

It is quite evident that the sentences express two different predicative lines: in the first one the two subjects form separate predicative connections and in the second one the two predicates are separately connected with the subject. Semi-composite sentences, as well as complementational sentences, can also include a clause which functions as the subject or the object of the verb. e.g.:

3. I saw them break into the house.
4. To finish it in time was impossible.

Clause-conflational sentences, as termed by L.Talmy, are syntactic units which are based on clause fusion. They represent conceptual complex and

therefore possess polypredicative structures, though on the formal syntactic level appear as simple sentences. Such like structures are probably based on a higher degree of conceptual integration between parts of an event complex, as compared to semi-composite or complementational sentences (for details also see: Taylor J.R. 2002), e.g.:

5. The leaves withered away.
6. He whistled his way out of the restaurant.
7. These cars are expensive to repair.

Representation of polypredication is conditioned by interaction of lexical semantics of sentence elements and a particular type of syntactic construction. Thus, we may state, that a proper simple sentence, or a single-clause sentence, to put it more exactly, is a monopredicative unit, as distinguished from composite and semi-composite sentences (complementational and clause-conflational sentneces in terms of cognitive approach).

II. Constituent structure of the simple sentence: sentence parsing and the IC-model analysis (model of immediate constituents).

Traditionally the investigation of structure of the simple sentence and its constituents is performed in terms of sentence-parsing. Sentence-parsing scheme presupposes that a sentence is organized as a system of function-expressing positions. The content of the functions reflects a situational event. The function-expressing positions are viewed as parts of the simple sentence, which are subject, predicate, object, adverbial, attribute, parenthetical enclosure (вводная часть), addressing enclosure and interjectional enclosure. The parts are arranged in a hierarchy, all of them perform some modifying role.

Thus, the subject is a person-modifier of the predicate;
the predicate, (or rather the predicative part of the sent.) is a process-modifier of the subject;
the object is a substance-modifier of the predicate (actional or non-actional (processual or statal) – e.g. Rose was behind panting her gratitude);
the adverbial is a quality-modifier of the predicate or rather that of the processual part;
the attribute is a quality-modifier of a substantive part;
the parenthetical enclosure is a speaker-bound modifier of any sentence-part;
the addressing enclosure (address) is a substantive modifier of the destination of the sentence;
the interjectional enclosure is a speaker-bound emotional modifier of the sentence.

Analyzing the sentence-constituents in terms of syntagmatic connection we may distinguish two types of functional positions: obligatory and optional. The obligatory positions make up a syntactic unit as such. As for the optional positions they are not necessary represented in the sentence. The pattern of obligatory syntactic positions is determined by the valency of the verb-predicate. In the sentence " The small boy looked at him with surprise." This pattern will be

expressed by the string "The boy looked at him". The attribute "small" and the adverbial "with surprise" are the optional parts of the sentence. The sentence all the positions of which are obligatory is called an
"elementary sentence" or " unexpended sentence", and it may include not only the principal parts of the sentence (the subject or the predicate) but also secondary parts, the object, for example. The sentence which includes not only the obligatory parts but also some optional parts (supplementive modifiers, such as an attribute or adverbial modifier) is called the expanded simple sentence.

Thus, the sentence-parsing scheme exposes the subordination ranks of the parts of the sentence, but it fails to present their genuine linear order in speech. This weak point of the sentence-parsing scheme is overcome in another scheme of analysis called the "model of immediate constituents" (IC-model). The IC-model consists in dividing the whole sentence into 2 groups: that of the subject and that of the predicate, which are further divided according to the successive subordinative order of the sub-groups constituents.

For example, the sentence

"The small boy looked at him with surprise"

on the upper level of analysis is looked upon as a whole;

1. on the next level it is divided into the subject noun-phrase (NP-subj.) and the predicate verb-phrase (VP-pred.);
2. on the next level the subject noun-phrase is divided into the determiner (Det.) and the rest of the phrase; the predicate verb-phrase is divided into the adverbial (ADV) and the rest of the phrase:
3. on the next level the noun-phrase is divided into its adjective constituent (A) and the noun constituent (N); the verb-phrase is divided into its verb constituent (V) and object pronoun-phrase (NP-obj);
4. the latter is finally divided into the preposition constituent (Prp) and pronoun constituent (Pron).

The IC-analysis continues until the word-level of the sentence is reached. The IC-representation of the sentence exposes both the subordination ranks of the sentence-parts and their linear order in speech.

III. Paradigmatics of the simple sentence.

Paradigmatics of the simple sentence is closely connected with the idea of the kernel sentence and sentence-derivation, which was introduced by N.Chomsky. He believed that all sentences generated in speech (that is surface structures) are derived from or can be reduced to some limited number of basic syntactic structures which he called "kernel". The sentence "He did the job carefully and thoroughly" can be reduced to the kernel sentence "He did the job". The sentence "I saw him come" is derived from two kernel sentences "I saw him" and "He came". The derivation of sentences out of kernel ones can be analyzed as a process falling into sets of transformational steps:

1. "morphological arrangement" of the sentence, i.e. morphological changes expressing syntactically relevant categories, such as the predicate categories of the verb: tense, aspect, voice, mood,

e.g.: He writes. → He will be writing/would write/ has written;

2. "functional expansion" includes various uses of functional words, e.g.: He regretted the trip. → He seemed to regret the trip;
3. "substitution", e.g.: The children ran out of the house. → They ran out of the house. I want a different book, please. → I want a different one, please;
4. "deletion" – elimination of some elements of the sentence in various contextual conditions, e.g.: Would you like to go out? - To go out?
5. "positional arrangement", e.g.: A loud bang came from there. → From there came a loud bang;
6. "intonational arrangement", e.g.: They should do it on their own. → They? Should do it on their own?

Thus, the simple sentence is a monopredicative unit. The grammatical structure of a simple sentence is mainly determined by its syntactic pattern which presents a system of function-expressing positions, defined by the syntactic valency of the verb predicate.

THE SIMPLE SENTENCE: ALTERNATIVE CONCEPTIONS

I. The verbocentric conception of the sentence.
II. The semantic interpretation of the sentence.
III. The cognitive aspects of the simple sentence.

I. The verbocentric conception of the sentence.

The verbocentric conception of the sentence is based on the alternative interpretation of the syntactic structure of the sentence, its functional or syntactic positions. Unlike the traditional grammar, which says that there are two principal parts in the sentence –the subject and the predicate, the verbocentric conception (or verb-centered conception) argues that the main part of the sentence is the verb. This conception has been worked out by L.Tesniere. According to this theory the verb determines the constituent structure of the whole sentence. L.Tesniere pictured the sentence as a "small drama", centered around an action, denoted by the verb-predicate and its participants which he termed "actants" (the subject and the object of the sentence) and "circonstants" (the time, the place, the quality of the action). In other words, the verb opens up some syntactic positions for other parts of the sentence. This combining power of the verb (or its combinability) L. Tesniere called the valency of the verb. Thus, in the sentence "We started our journey at the dawn" the verb predicate "start" denotes an action, while the other parts denote its participants: "We" – the subject or the doer of the action, "journey" its object. So there are two actants of the verb. There's also one circonstant "at the dawn", which denotes the time of the action.

Thus, the syntactic structure of the sentence according to L.Tesniere is conditioned by the syntactic valency of the verb predicate. The syntactic valency of the verb can be of two cardinal types: obligatory and optional. The obligatory valency is necessary realized in the sentence, otherwise the sentence is grammatically

incomplete. Obligatory valency mostly refers to the actants –the subject and the object, (there are cases, however, when the adverbial can be also viewed as an obligatory position: e.g. The summer lasts into the early September.) The optional valency is not significant for the competence of the sentence. It may or may not be realized depending on the needs of communication . The optional valency, as a rule, is the adverbial valency of the verb.

II. The semantic interpretation of the sentence.

It's important to point out that all verb predicates are not identical, as there are different types of verbs, denoting them. We can distinguish between transitive (to raise) and intransitive (to rise) verbs, between verbs, denoting action (to make), state (to be), or relation (to have, to belong), between causative (to cause, to force, to order) and noncausative (to look) verbs. Different types of verbs open different positions for actants or, in other words, different types of verbs have different valency. The semantic meaning of the verb determines its ability (or inability) to combine with different types of actants. This can be described from the point of view of semantic interpretation of the sentence.

The semantic interpretation of the sentence and its structure is now commonly given in terms of semantic cases or semantic functions of actants. This type of semantic description, called "case grammar", "role grammar" has been first employed by Ch. Fillmore in his book "The case for case". According to his viewpoint the semantic case is the type of semantic relations, occurring between the verb predicate and its actants: Agentive, Dative, Instrumental, Factitive, Locative, Objective, etc.

Agentive is the case of the typically animate instigator of the action identified by the verb, e.g.: He broke the window. The window was broken by him.

Instrumental is the case of the inanimate force or object causally involved in the action or state identified by the verb, e.g.: The hammer broke the widow. He broke the window with the hammer.

Dative is the case of the animate being affected by the state or action identified by the verb or nominative part of the predicative, e.g.: He believed that he was right. We encouraged him to go there. The failure was obvious to him.

Factitive is the case of the object or result from the action or state identified by the verb, or understood as a part of the meaning of the verb, e.g.: I waved a salute. I thought up a plan. I Xeroxed up three copies of his letter.

Locative is the case which identifies the location or spatial orientation of the state or action identified by the verb or nominative part of the predicative, e.g.: Here is noisy. It is noisy here.

Objective, the semantically most neutral case, the case of anything representable by a noun. It represents a thing which is affected by the action or state identified by the verb, e.g.: I Xeroxed his letter. His letter was Xeroxed by me.

Thus, the semantic interpretation of the sentence is given in terms of semantic cases or semantic functions of actants and is conditioned by the semantic meaning of the verb.

III. The cognitive aspects of the simple sentence.

Traditional grammar holds that a simple sentence normally consists of 3 key elements: a subject, a verb element(or predicate) and a complement (an object or an adverbial). This standard pattern can be illustrated in the following examples:

1. Susan resembles my sister.
2. Susan is peeling a banana.
3. Susan loves bananas.
4. The hammer breaks the glass.
5. Susan has a large library.
6. Susan received the present.
7. Susan swam the Channel.
8. The garden is swarming with bees.
9. There was a loud bang (R.Langacker's examples).

Though all these examples contain the said elements, they are in fact rather divergent. The subjects refer to persons, things, places or they are empty (as "there"-subject in the last example). Persons, things and places are also eligible as complements. In one case (sent.1) the subject and the object can be exchanged, while this is not possible with the other sentences, and the transformation into passive sentences is also restricted.

Both traditional grammarians and modern linguistic schools have recognized these differences and have tried to cope with them by proposing different verb classes or case frames (Ch. Fillmore) or explaining some of them in terms of transformations of other patterns (N. Chomsky : e.g. "She swam the Channel." – derived from "She swam across the Channel.").

In cognitive linguistics the semantic diversity of subjects and objects is viewed within the main cognitive principles: the prototypical principle of category structure, the principle of figure-ground segregation and "windowing of attention".

According to the prototypical principle of category structure the categories are based on the principle of relative similarity but not absolute identity (like it was in traditional grammar). Any category has the list of properties typical for its members. The more properties a category member realizes the more prototypical (or typical for this category) it is and vice versa. Real members of categories are evaluated as possessing this or that degree of prototypicalness which depends on their closeness to the prototype.

American linguists **P. Hopper** and **S. Thompson** suggested the notion of the prototypical transitive construction, associating the interpretation of the sentence with the idea of transitivity. The scientists suggested 10 semantic criteria, possession of which makes concrete syntactic construction (sentence) perfectly transitive, i.e. prototypical from the point of transitivity. The less characteristic features it realizes the less transitive and so the less prototypical it is.

Taking into consideration these criteria we can judge that constructions (sentences), describing the event where the concrete subject (semantically characterized as agency) commits the concrete intentional action (semantically described as patience), resulting in modification of the object, including its creation

or destruction, can be characterized as prototypical from the point of transitivity. So, we can see that within the cognitive approach the transitive syntactic constructions are believed to make up a prototypical category.

J. R. Taylor examines the semantic potential of syntactic constructions (compare: "He swam across the Channel. He swam the Channel." In the second sentence the "path" is incorporated into the verb: thus, a motion event is constructed as a transitive event.).

J.R. Taylor views this semantic divergence as categorial extension motivated by metaphor. (R. Dirven and M.A.K. Halliday, the representatives of the functional approach in linguistics, deal with sentences like "The fifth day saw our departure." in terms of grammatical metaphor.)

J. R. Taylor argues that metaphorical extension of the said category presupposes that the agent- action- patient schema (characteristics of transitive events) is projected onto states of affairs which are not inherently transitive. Non-prototypical transitive sentences are interpreted in terms of an agent acting as to cause a change of state in a patient:

e.g.: the sentence "Guns kill people" suggests such like interpretation: "guns" are responsible agents for what is happening.

e.g.: "The book sold a million copies" Here the subject "book", which looks more like a patient than an agent, receives certain aspects of agency. And in this respect the sentence is interpreted as follows: the seller does not have complete control over the act of selling, the successful sale depends on the attributes of the thing that is sold.

Thus, J.R. Taylor examines the semantic basis of the prototypical category of transitive constructions and states that transitivity is a property of the sentence, not lexical items. The prototypical transitive sentence is made up by a prototypical subject, which is an agent, and by a prototypical object, which is a patient.

The problem which is to be solved here is to disclose the principles according to which we give a particular constituent of the event the status of the syntactic subject or that of the syntactic complement (including the object and the adverbial). The plausible solution of the problem was suggested by R.Langacker.

R.Langacker argues that a unified explanation of the syntactic diversity is possible if the subject-verb-complement pattern is viewed in terms of schematization and understood as a reflection of the general cognitive principles of figure/ground segregation, role archetypes and "windowing" of attention.

According to the figure/ground principle the subject in a simple transitive sentence corresponds to the figure and the complement – to the ground (with the object being a more prominent element of the ground and the adverbial as less prominent) the verb expresses the relationship between figure and ground. So, linguistically, the way to manifest prominence is to put the preferred element into subject position. The influence of this principle is most plausible in symmetric constructions, as illustrated by the sentences:

a) Susan resembles my sister.

b) My sister resembles Susan.

The role archetypes principle governs the choice of syntactic figure where the figure/ground principle alone doesn't work.

It should be noted that the role archetypes are by no means a novelty, because role archetypes like "agent", "patient", "instrumental", "experiencer" are very much the same as "cases" with Ch.Fillmore, "actants", "participants" with L.Tesniere, "semantic roles" with P.Quirk, "theta-roles" with A. Radford (transformational grammar).

In R.Langacker's conception the roles are not just a linguistic construct, but a part of cognitive instruments, which we use for both linguistic and mental processing. The role archetypes emerge from our experience, they appear as cognitive constituents of any conceived event or situation.

The role of "agent" refers to a person who initiates motion or physical activity in objects or other persons. The "patient" refers to an object or organism, affected by physical impact from outside and undergoes a change of state or is moved to another location. The "instrument" is an intermediary between agent and patient, the "experiencer" refers to smn. engaged in mental activities, including emotions, the "setting" comprises different facets of an event which are present in our minds as "background". The "setting" is stable compared to participants (agent, patient, instrument, experiencer), which are mobile and engaged in physical contact or mental interaction. In linguistic perspective "setting " as "space" and "time" conventionally provides corresponding adverbials, while participants provide subjects and objects.

The principle which governs the process of putting a particular role in the subject or in the complement position is that of "windowing " of attention. According to this principle any element of an event can be viewed as more or less prominent and according to the ascribed degree can be raised to the status of syntactic figure (subject), or syntactic ground (object), or syntactic background (adverbials of space and time, which also can be of different prominence).

Linguistically, a conceived event can be reflected in a number of syntactic constructions (1- 2 or 3-element constructions), which represent the event perspectives. Thus, the 3-element construction provides the overall view of the event, including the agent, patient and instrument roles as in the sentence "Floyd broke the glass with a hammer" with the agent viewed as syntactic figure and placed in the subject position. The 2-element construction, profiling the same event, expresses only a certain portion
(an intermediary stage) as in "The hammer broke the glass." with the instrument as a syntactic figure and the subject. The 1-element construction, describing the same event, expresses the final stage of the event as in "The glass easily broke." with the patient as a syntactic figure and the subject. R.Langacker notes, that the choice of subject, i.e. syntactic figure is governed by a hierarchy "agent-instrument-patient", the hierarchy which repeats/structures the event as an action "chain" in our mind.

Due to the principle of "windowing" of attention "setting" can be given different degree of prominence and raised to the status of object or subject.
Compare the following sentences:

a) Susan swam in the Channel.
b) Susan swam across the Channel.
c) Susan swam the Channel.

In (a) sentence the agent initiates an action which takes place in a certain setting (Channel). Linguistically this is expressed by an intransitive structure with a place adverbial. In (b) sentence the setting is more tangible, it has two boundaries and it is fully traversed by the agent/figure, this is implied by the preposition "across", as a result, this setting is more prominent than in (a) sentence. In (c) sentence the preposition is dropped and cognitive interpretation will claim that "the Channel" in its syntactic prominence has moved further away from being a plain "setting". It is treated more like a participant in an interaction with the agent-subject, e.g. an enemy that has to be overcome and this is reflected in the object-like use of the noun phrase. Thus, the "setting" is given the status of object. Greater prominence of "setting" results in the subject position of the latter:

e.g.: a) The garden is swarming with bees.
b) There was a loud bang.

"There" is used to express a kind of abstract or unspecified setting.

Thus, in cognitive linguistics the use of syntactic structures is largely seen as a reflection of how a situation is conceptualized by the speaker, and this conceptualization is governed by the attention principle. Salient participants , especially, agents, are rendered as subjects and less salient participants as objects; verbs are selected as compatible to the choice of subject and object; locative, temporal and many other types of relations are "windowed " for attention by expressing them as adverbials.

Self-control questions

1. Why is the simple sentence referred to as a monoprediactive unit?
2. How is the constituent structure of the simple sentence analysed?
3. What is the difference between obligatory and optional positions in syntagmatic connection?
4. What is the essence of "the verbocentric conception of the sentence"?
5. How is the semantic interpretation of the sentence carried out?
6. What are the main cognitive aspects of the simple sentence?
7. what is valency?
8. What is the essence of J.R. Taylor's theory?
9. What do P. Hopper and S. Thomson suggest?
10. What is the essence of R. Langacker's theory?

ACTUAL DIVISION OF SENTENCES (FUNCTIONAL SENTENCE PERSPECTIVE) COMMUNICATIVE TYPES OF SENTENCES

I. Actual division of the sentence and means of expressing it.
II. Actual division of the sentence in terms of cognitive linguistics.
III. The problem of classification of sentence according to the purpose of communication.
IV. Communicative types of sentences in Modern English.

I. Actual division of the sentence and means of expressing it.

One of the basic characteristic features of the sentence is its communicative and informative sufficiency. It means that every sentence should convey some new information in the process of communication. The interpretation of the sentence from this point of view requires the division of the sentence into two parts. One of them contains the starting point of communication or that already known to the listeners and the other part conveys new information or that not yet known to the listeners and for the sake of which the sentence is constructed. This interpretation of the sentence has been termed the actual division of the sentence or the functional sentence perspective.

The idea of actual division of the sentence has first been put forward by W. Mathesius. He termed the starting point of communication the "basis" and the new information the "nucleus". Recently there came into common use a new pair of terms. They are the "theme" and the "rheme". The theme denotes the starting point of communication, it is an object or phenomenon about which something is reported. The rheme expresses the information reported, e.g.: Their visit to the Blacks was quiet promising. "Their visit to the Blacks" is the "theme", the rest part is the "rheme".

The theme and the rheme of the sentence may or may not coincide with the subject and the predicate respectively. The actual division in which the "theme" is expressed by the subject and the "rheme" - by the predicate is called "direct". Due to a certain context the order of actual division can be changed into the reverse one, in which the rheme is expressed by the subject, while the predicate exposes the theme. This kind of actual division is "inverted", compare:
a) This old photo wakes up my memories. – a case of "direct" actual division. The theme is expressed by the subject, while the rheme coincides with the predicate;
b) From behind the corner there appeared a smart car. – a case of "inverted" actual division. The rheme is expressed by the subject.

There are several formal means of expressing distinction between the theme and the rheme. They are word – order patterns, intonation contours, constructions with introducers, constructions with articles and other determiners, constructions with intensifying particles, constructions with contrastive complexes.

With the word – order patterns the rheme is placed towards the end of the sentence, while the theme is positioned at the beginning of it, when it is necessary the inversion is used, e.g.:

Theme / rheme

1. Jane stood in the center of the large hall.

2. In the center of the large hall stood Jane.

Constructions with introducers, such as the *there-patterns* and *it-patterns*, help to identify the subject of the sentence (or maybe any other part of the sentence within the it-pattern) as its rheme, e.g.:

3. There came a loud sound (rheme).

4. It was him (rheme) who made the party a party.

Determiners, among them the articles, used as means of forming certain patterns of actual division, divide their functions so that the definite determiners serve as identifiers of the theme while the indefinite determiners serve as identifiers of the rheme, e.g.:

5. The man came up to me.

6. A man came up to me.

Intensifying particles identify the rheme, e.g:

7. Even she has done it come.

8. He is being so kind.

9. Only then did he realize the situation.

Syntactic patterns of contrastive complexes, based on some sort of antithesis, are employed to make explicative the inner contrast inherent in the actual division 10. This is a real story, not a fiction.

Intonation presents itself a universal means of expressing the actual division of a sentence in all types of contexts and known as logical accent. It is inseparable from the other rheme-identifying means mentioned above.

The thematic reduction of responses in dialogue speech serves to identify the rheme of the sentence. In these cases the rheme is placed in isolation, e.g.:

11. - Where did you see her last time?
    - London.

12 - Shall we go out tonight?
    -Yes. The night club.

Thus, we may conclude, that the actual division of the sentence is closely connected with the context of communication and enters the predicative aspect of the sentence. It meets the same function, which is to relate the nominative content of the sentence to reality.

II. Actual division of the sentence in terms of cognitive linguistics.

In the cognitive approach the problem of actual division of the sentence seems to be correlated with the issue of semantic asymmetry of syntactic constructions and principles which govern semantico-grammatical accuracy of syntactic structures.

The semantic asymmetry is understood as semantic nonsynonymy of two sentences which are the inverse forms of spatial or temporal relations.

The semantic asymmetry presupposes semantic and grammatical restrictions imposed by the language system on the process of sentence-formation, and its theme-rheme division accordingly. Compare the sentences:

a) My sister (F) resembles Madonna (G).

? b) Madonna (F) resembles my sister (G). – (b) sentence seems impossible;
c) He had two affairs (F) while he was married (G);
? d) He was married (F) through –a-period-containing two affairs of his. – impossible.

Restrictions imposed by the language come from the restrictions imposed by the conceptual system, by the mechanism of cognitive anchoring, as termed by L.Talmy.

Within the cognitive approach syntactic structures are understood as formal means by which language represents one concept as a reference point or anchor for another concept. According to L.Talmy cognitive anchoring involves the two fundamental functions of attention cognitive system, that of the Figure and that of the Ground. Thus, The theme-rheme division of the sentence, which is a property of the language, is governed by the Figure-Ground Segregation, which is a property of the conceptual system.

Cognitive anchoring and semantic asymmetry is governed by the definitial characteristics of Figure and Ground. In linguistic usage they can be characterized as follows:

In simple sentence the Figure is a moving or conceptually moving entity whose site, path or location needs identification, the Ground is a reference entity whose setting identifies the Figure's path or orientation. On the syntactic level Figure and Ground are represented by 2 nominals. In complex sentences the Figure is an event whose location in time needs identification, the Ground is a reference event which characterizes the Figure's temporal location. On the level of syntax the Figure-event is represented in the main clause of a complex sentence, the Ground-event – in the subordinate clause. Compare the sentences:

a) The pen (functions as Figure) fell off the table (functions as Ground).
b) She (Figure) resembles him (Ground). – metaphorical extension to nonphysical situations (relational state, for example), can be taken as derived from smth. like: She is near him in appearance.
c) He exploded after he touched the button. – "the button-touching-event" is Ground (as a fixed, known reference point) and "the explosion event" is Figure (as more prominent with respect to the other).

Thus, the semantic asymmetry, and therefore the theme-rheme division of the sentence, can be highlighted by choosing objects with different capacities to serve as a reference point, and in this respect it is clear why the sentence "My sister (F) resembles Madonna (G)" sounds good, while the inverse form "Madonna (F) resembles my sister (G)" doesn't. In simple sentences semantic asymmetry is observed in spatial relations between two objects, in complex sentences – in temporal, causal and other type of inter-event relations.

The cognitive functions of Figure and Ground govern the process of conceptual anchoring, they are incorporated in the grammatical constructs of the language system (the Figure-event as appeared in the main clause of a complex sentence and the Ground-event - in the subordinate clause) and bring down certain restrictions on the process of sentence-formation, and therefore its theme-rheme division.

L. Talmy proposes principles, which govern the asymmetric relations between two events, as represented in a complex sentence:

1. Temporal sequence principle says that in a relation of 2 events the earlier event is Ground and the later event is Figure. In a full complex sentence the Figure-event is in the main clause and Ground-event is in the subordinate clause:
   a) She departed (F) after he arrived (G).
   b) He arrived (F) before she departed (G).

The favored linguistic expression here is that with "after" form. The priority follows from the fact that no language will have simpler means for expressing "before" than for expressing "after".

2. Cause-result principle says that in a causal relation the causing event is Ground and in a complex sentence is in the subordinate clause and the resulting event is Figure and is in the main clause:
   a) We stayed home (F) because he had arrived (G).
   The inverse form is impossible:
   b) He arrived (F) to-the-occasioning-of- our staying home.
3. Inclusion principle governs the relation of "temporal inclusion" between 2 events, where a temporally containing event is Ground and appears in the subordinate clause, a contained event is Figure and appears in the main clause of a complex sentence:
   a) He had 2 affairs (F) while he was married (G).
   The inverse form is impossible:
   b) He was married through (F) -a-period-containing 2 affairs of his.
4. Contingency principle governs the relation of "contingency" between 2 events. An event which is necessary for a second event acts as Ground and appears in the subordinate clause, the second event that is contingent or dependent acts as Figure and appears in the main clause of a complex sentence:
   a) He dreamt (F) while (the whole time) he slept (G).
   but b) He slept (F) while he dreamt. - impossible.

To sum it all up, the semantic asymmetry of syntactic structures, and therefore their grammatical accuracy, is determined by cognitive functions of Figure and Ground. Figure and Ground govern the process of conceptual anchoring, they are incorporated in the grammatical concepts of the language system (compare the principles which govern the semantic asymmetry: the Figure-event as appeared in the main clause of a complex sentence and the Ground-event - in the subordinate clause) and bring down certain restrictions on the process of sentence-formation, and therefore its theme-rheme division.

III. The problem of classification of sentence according to the purpose of communication.

Classification of sentences according to the purpose of communication has always been the subject to criticism and several modifications. Now it has become a tradition in grammar to distinguish three cardinal communicative types of sentences:

the declarative sentence, the interrogative sentence, the imperative sentence.
Some linguists suggested the 4th type of this classification – the exclamatory sentence (B. A. Ilyish , I.P. Ivanova). In modern linguistics however exclamatory sentences are not referred to as a separate communicative type since they can't be opposed to the 3 cardinal types by regular grammatical means such as word – order, the use of special auxiliary forms. That is why the exclamation can not be considered as a principal of discriminating a communicative type of sentence.

Some original classifications of sentence according to the purpose of communication were suggested by Charles Fries (for details see: Blokh M.Y. A Course in Theoretical English Grammar. - pp. 252-254), by G.G. Pocheptzov, L.P. Chakhoyan and other linguists.

Thus, G.G. Pocheptzov discriminates in addition to proper types of sentences a group of sentences which convey no information and have no subject-predicate division. Among them – addresses: Jack, Nora!
- interjectional sent.: Oh, well!
- conversational formulas: Good morning! How are you doing?
Such like sentences have also been mentioned by Ch.Fries. He called them non-communicative utterances. M.Y. Blokh calls them non-sententional utterances.

L.P. Chakhoyan discriminates the communicative types and types of sentences. which express them. It makes the classification too detailed and complicated for practical purposes, though interesting from the theoretical point of view.

G.G. Pocheptzov (see: Теоретическая грамматика современного английского языка, стр. 271-278) analyses sentences in the light of their pragmatic interpretation, i.e. from the point of view of their communicative intention. The sentences are used to express a certain speech action: request, suggestion, promise, threat, e.g. the declarative sentences can be used to express promise or threat, the verb-predicate in the Future-Tense- Form, e.g.: I will show you. What is still remained unsolved here is the problem of the exact system of pragmatic sentence types and means discriminating one type from another. And in this light the traditional classification remains the best one to follow.

M.Y. Blokh exposes the communicative properties of sentences in terms of the theory of the actual division of the sentence. He stresses that each communicative type is distinguished by its specific actual division patterns. The actual division features are revealed in the nature of the rheme of the sentence as the meaningful nucleus of the utterance. The *declarative sentence* immediately expresses a certain proposition. The actual division presents itself in the most complete form. The rheme of the sentence makes up the center of some statement as such. The question-test reveals the rheme, e.g.: The next moment she had recovered. - What had happened the next moment? . The *imperative sentence* does not express any proposition proper. It is only based on a proposition, without formulating it directly. The proposition in this case is contrasted against the content of the expressed inducement, e.g.: Let's get it ready. (The premise: It is not ready.). Thus, the rheme of the imperative sentence expresses a wanted (or unwanted) action. The actual division of the *interrogative sentence* is determined by the fact that the

interrogative sentence expresses an inquiry about information which the speaker does not possess. Therefore the rheme of the interrogative sentence, as the nucleus of the inquiry, is informatively open (for details see: Blokh M.Y. A Course in Theoretical English Grammar.- pp. 255-261).

IV. Communicative types of sentences in Modern English.

The three cardinal communicative types are strictly opposed to one another in Modern English by their meaning and form. Each sentence type is distinguished by the specific word-order and intonation, by the absence or presence of the interrogative pronouns or forms of the verb-predicate.

Thus, the declarative sentence expresses a statement, either affirmative or negative. It is built up around the direct word-order pattern, e.g.: He knew him pretty well.

The imperative sentence expresses inducement, either affirmative or negative. It urges the listener, in the form of request or command, to perform or not to perform a certain action, e.g.: Let's do it right away!

The structure of the imperative sentence is characterized by the lack of the subject and by the imperative mood form of the verb-predicate.

The interrogative sentence expresses a question and is naturally connected with the listener, e.g.: - Are you all right?

- Yes, thank you.

Structurally the interrogative sentence is characterized by the reverse word-order pattern, the use of interrogative pronoun and interrogative forms of verb-predicate.

Alongside of the 3 cardinal communicative types there are also 6 intermediary subtypes distinguished by mixed communicative features. The intermediary communicative types may be identified between all the three cardinal communicative correlations – statement-question, statement-inducement, inducement-question. They have grown as a result of the transference of certain characteristic features from one communicative type of sentence to another.

The first one in the classification is interrogative-declarative, i.e. declarative by its form and interrogative by its meaning, e.g.: I'd like to know what you are going to do under the circumstances.

The intermediary subtypes usually render some connotations, such as, insistency in asking for information, a request for permission to perform an action, etc.

The second subtype is declarative-interrogative, i.e. interrogative by its form and declarative by its meaning – the so-called rhetorical questions, is best seen in proverbs and maxims, e.g.: Can a leopard change his spots?

The next subtype is imperative-declarative, i.e. inducement expressed in the form of a declarative sentence. It is regularly achieved:

- by means of constructions with modal verbs, e.g.: You must take care of him. You ought to follow the instructions. You can't see her;

-by interaction of grammatical elements of the sentence with its lexical elements, e.g.:

I guess you'll excuse me if I say what I have to say. You will then let me have a look at his picture.

Declarative-imperative, i.e. imperative constructions used to express a declarative meaning, a characteristic feature of proverbs, e.g.: Live and learn. Don't put it off till tomorrow if you can do it today.

Imperative-interrogative, inducement in the form of a question, is employed in order to convey such additional shades of meaning as request, invitation, suggestion, softening of a command, e.g.: - Why don't you help him out of the car? - Would you like to go for a walk?

Interrogative-imperative sentence induces the listener not to action but to speech, e.g.: Please tell me what the right number is.

It should be noted that all cardinal and intermediary communicative sentences types are typical of Modern English and therefore should be reflected in practical teaching of English.

Self-control questions

1. What is actual division of the sentence and how it is expressed?
2. How is the actual division of the sentence considered in cognitive linguistics?
3. How is the sentence classified according to the purpose of communication?
4. What are the main communicative types of sentence in Modern English?

SYNTAX OF A COMPOSITE SENTENCE: THE STRUCTURE OF A COMPLEX SENTENCE

I. Composite sentence as a polypredicative unit.
II. Classifications of complex sentences according to the types of clauses in Modern English.
III. Other classifications of complex sentences in Modern English.

I.Composite sentence as a polypredicative unit.

The composite sentence is a general term for all types of sentences with more than one predicative line. Composite sentence in which clauses are subordinated to one another is called a complex sentence (сложноподчиненное – эргаш гапли кўшма гап). Composite sentence with coordinated clauses is termed as a compound sentence (сложносочиненное, богланган кўшма гап).

The composite sentence in general is formed by 2 or more predicative lines as different from the simple sentence. Composite sentence is a polypredicative construction which reflects 2 or more elementary situations making up a unity. Each predicative unit in a composite sentence makes up a clause. This clause corresponds to a separate sentence but is not equivalent to it. Let's consider the following sentence:

When she entered the hall the party was in full swing.

This sentence includes 2 clauses which correspond to the following sentences:

She entered the hall.

The party was in full swing.

The logical difference between the composite sentence and the sequence of simple sentences is in the purpose of communication. The independent sentences are utterances each expressing an event of self-sufficient significance. The communicative purpose of the sentence discussed is to inform of the fact that "the party was in full swing" and is destroyed in a sequence of simple sentences. Thus, we see that the composite sentence, as a particular structural unit of language is remarkable for its own purely semantic merits, it exposes the genuine logic of events making up a situational unity. The fact proves the unity of the 2 predicative units within the composite sentence.

The composite sentence including no more than 2 predicative lines is called elementary.

Composite sentence displays 2 principal types of clause connection: hypotaxis – that of subordination and parataxis – that of coordination.

It's remarkable that the initial rise of hypotaxis and parataxis as forms of composite sentences can be traced back to the early stages of language development, i.e. to the times when the language had no writing. The illustrations of the said syntactic relations are contained, for example, in the old English epic "Beowulf", dated from the VII c. A.D.

Subordination is revealed between clauses of unequal rank, one of them being dominated by the other. From the structural point of view it means that one clause, the dominated or subordinate one, is in a notional position of the other clause (which is a principal one). It means that a subordinate clause refers to one notional constituent (expressed by a word or a phrase) in a principal clause. From the communicative point of view a subordinate clause renders the information which is additional to that of the principal clause.

Coordination is observed between the syntactically equal sentences, e.g.:

Soon he left the house and I followed him.

Ranking of clauses into equal or unequal comes from their relation to one another. A sequential clause in a composite sentence with coordination refers to the whole of the leading clause. It is due to this fact that the position of a coordinate clause is rigidly fixed in all cases. As for the composite sentences with subordination a subordinate clause usually refers to one notional constituent in a principal clause, e.g.: I would never believe the silly fact that he had been under her influence.

There are two general ways of combining clauses into a sentence. They are syndetic (conjunctional) and asyndetic (non-conjunctional). According to the traditional point of view all composite sentences are classed into compound sentences and complex sentences, syndetic or asyndetic type of clause connection being specifically displayed with both classes. Consider the following examples:

compound sent.	asyndetic	syndetic
	The day was hot,	I was extremely disappointed
	we felt exhausted.	but she never noticed it.

complex sent. with attributive remembered clause	asyndetic That was a fantastic show I remembered forever.	syndetic That was a fantastic show which I forever.
with objective that it clauses	We realized at once it was a strong argument.	We realized at once was a strong argument.
with predicative did clauses	The news is she did leave the city.	The news is that she leave the city.

Thus, the composite sentence is a polypredicative unit revealing 2 or more predicative lines connected with one another by coordination, that is a compound sentence, or subordination, that is a complex sentence.

II. Classifications of complex sentences according to the types of clauses

The complex sentence is a polypredicative unit built up on the principle of subordination. It is derived from 2 or more base sentences one of which becomes the principal clause and the other its subordinate clause. The principle and the subordinate clauses form a semantico-syntactic unity. It cannot be destroyed without affecting the structure of the sentence. The existence of either of clauses is supported by the existence of the other, e.g.: He looked as though he were looking at an absolute stranger.

One can't eliminate either of the clauses and preserve the grammatical structure of the sentence at that (?He looked. As though he were looking at an absolute stranger.)

The subordinate clause is joined to the principal clause either by a subordinating connector (subordinator) or asyndetically. Sometimes asyndetic connection is called zero subordinator. In this way the meaningful function of the asyndetic connection is stressed.

The principal clause dominates the subordinate one positionally, but it doesn't mean that their syntactic status determines the actual division of the sentence. An important role in theme-rheme division is played by the order of clauses. Compare the following sentences:

1. He is called Mitch (the theme), because his name is Mitchell (the rheme). – principal clause expresses the starting point, while the subordinate clause renders the main idea (the speaker's explanation of the reason of "calling him Mitch").

2. As his name is Mitchell (the theme), he is called Mitch (the rheme). the informative roles will be re-shaped accordingly.

One of the central problems concerning the complex sentences deals with the principles of classification of subordinate clauses. Within the traditional linguistics the 2 different principles have been put forward. The first is functional and the second is categorial.

In accord with the functional principle subordinate clauses are classed on the basis of their similarity in function with parts of a simple sentence. Namely, they are classed into subject, predicative, object, attributive, adverbial clauses. Actually, there are certain clauses that have no correspondences among the parts of a sentence, for example, some adverbial clauses. Still a general functional similarity between the clauses and parts of a simple sentence does exist and it can be clearly seen from their comparison, e.g.: I was completely frustrated yesterday. – "yesterday" can be substituted by a clause: - I was completely frustrated when they told me about it yesterday. – the clause answers the same question "when?".

Thus, the functional classification of subordinate clauses, based on the analogy with the parts of the simple sentence, reflects the essential properties of the complex sentences.

The categorial classification draws a parallel between subordinate clauses and parts of speech. According to the categorial principle subordinate clauses are classed by their nominative properties, that is on their analogy with the part-of-speech classification of notional words. From this point of view all subordinate clauses are divided into 3 categorial groups.

The first group is formed by the substantive-nominal clauses. It includes clauses that name an event as a certain fact. They are also called noun-clauses and are similar to the nominative function of a noun. Their noun-like nature is easily revealed by substitution, e.g.: I thought up what we could do under the circumstances. – the clause can be substituted by "the plan"- I thought up the plan.

The second group of clauses is called qualification-nominal or adjective clauses. They name an event as a certain characteristic of another event. The adjective-like nature of these clauses can also be proved by substitution. e.g. The man whom you saw in the hall was our client. – That man was our client; e.g.: Did you find a room where we could hold a meeting? – Did you find such kind of room?

The third group of clauses can be called adverbial. They name an event as a dynamic characteristic of another event. Adverbial clauses are best tested by transformations, e.g.: They will meet us half way if we follow the agreement.- They will meet us half way on condition that we follow the agreement; e.g.: I could hardly make up any plan, as I did not know the details.- I could hardly make up any plan for the reason that I did not know the details.

In conclusion it should be noted that the discussed principles of classification (functional and categorial) are mutually complementary (for details see: Blokh M.Y. A Course in Theoretical English Grammar.- p. 311).

III. Other classifications of complex sentences in Modern English.

Complex sentences can also be classed according to the intensity of connection between the principal and the subordinate clauses. Within the cognitive

approach this criterion of complex sentences classification is viewed as principle of conceptual integration of clauses (see, for example, J.R. Taylor's classification of clauses in: Taylor J.R. 2002).

The classification of complex sentences based on the intensity of connection between clauses has been introduced by N.S. Pospelov, who divided all subordinate clauses and their connections into obligatory and optional, and on this account all complex sentences of minimal structure are classed into one-member complexes, appearing in obligatory subordinate connection and two-member complexes with an optional connection.

The obligatory connection is characteristic of subject, predicative and object clauses. It means that without the subordinate clause the principal clause can not exist as a complete syntactic unit, e.g.: The thing is that they don't know the facts. – you can't just say: "The thing is..."

The optional connection is typical of adverbial clauses and attributive clauses of descriptive type. These clauses can be easily deleted without affecting the principal clause as a self-dependent unit of information, e.g.: He chose a large room which overlooked the sea.

Extending this classification to all complex sentences, not only to those of minimal structure M.Y. Blokh introduced the notions of monolythic and segregative types of sentence structures. Monolythic constructions are built upon obligatory subordinative connections while segregative complexes are based upon optional subordinative connections. M.Y. Blokh discriminates 4 basic types of monolythic complexes according to the degree of syntactic obligation and its reasons complementary (for details see: Blokh M.Y. A Course in Theoretical English Grammar. - p. 330).

It should be also noted that complex sentences with two or more subordinate clauses can be of two types of subordination arrangement: parallel and consecutive. Parallel subordination is observed when subordinate clauses immediately refer to one and the same principal clause, e.g.: I knew that he would like the trip and that his wife would approve of the idea. – both the clauses refer to the principal clause.

Consecutive subordination presents a hierarchy of clausal levels. In this hierarchy one subordinate clause is subordinated to another, e.g.: I thought you knew how to react under the circumstances.

The syntactic arrangement classification of complex sentences is definitely useful. It gives the evaluation of the "depth" of subordination – one of the essential syntactic characteristics of the complex sentence.

Thus, the traditional (structural) linguistics suggests the interpretation of the complex sentence based on the analysis of its semantico-syntactic properties. The complex sentence is viewed as a subordinative arrangement of clauses, one being the principal and the rest subordinate. The existing classifications of complex sentences are built up around the semantic difference of clauses, the essence and intensity of the subordinate connection.

SYNTAX OF A COMPOSITE SENTENCE: THE COMPOUND SENTENCE THE STRUCTURE AND TYPES OF SEMI-COMPOSITE SENTENCES IN MODERN ENGLISH

I. The problem of a compound sentence as a polypredicative unit.
II. The structure of a semi-composite sentence. Types of semi-composite sentences.

I. The problem of a compound sentence as a polypredicative unit.

Compound sentence is a composite sentence, the clausal parts of which are equal in their status and are connected on the principle of coordination. The main semantic relations between the clauses in the compound sentence are copulative, adversative, disjunctive, causal, consequential, resultative. Similar relations are observed between independent sentences in the text. Proceeding from this fact some linguists deny the existence of the compound sentence as a polypredicative unit (for details see: Иофик Л.Л.). But this idea should be rejected on account of both syntactic and semantic difference between the compound sentence and the corresponding sequence of independent sentences in the text. The compound sentence denotes the closeness of connection between the reflected events, while the independent sentences present the looseness of this connection.

The first clause in the compound sentence is called leading and the successive clause is sequential. From the structural point of view the connection between the clauses can be either syndetical (e.g.: She did it on her own initiative, but no one noticed it), or asyndetical (e.g.: It was too late, the papers were destroyed.)

From a semantico-syntactical point of view the connection between clauses can be regarded as marked or unmarked.

The unmarked coordination is realized by the coordinative conjunction "and" and also asyndetically. The semantic nature of the unmarked connection is not explicitly specified. The unmarked connection presents mainly copulative and enumerative relations, e.g.: Police troops engaged in battle with a militant group of 15 people and six of the militants were killed. Police troops engaged in battle with a militant group of 15 people, six of the militants were killed.

The broader connective meanings of these constructions can be exposed by equivalent marked connectors: the sentence "I had to stay at home, he was about to come." presents causal relation which is explicated in the construction "I had to stay at home, for (because) he was about to come."

The marked coordination is effected by the connectors. Each semantic relation is marked by the semantics of the connector. In particular, connectors
- *but, yet, still, however* express adversative relations;
- the discontinuous connectors *both...and, neither ... nor* express correspondingly positive and negative copulative relations;
- the connectors *so, therefore, consequently* express causal consequence.

Compound sentence can often be transformed into complex sentences, because coordinative connectors and subordinative ones correlate semantically,

e.g., the sentence "The place had a sinister look, and (so) we decided to leave the Marbles as soon as possible. " may be transformed into a complex one: "We decided to leave the Marbles as soon as possible because the place had a sinister look." – the sentence exposes causal relation "and", "so", "because".

Thus, the subordinative connection is regularly used as a diagnostic model for the coordinative connection, since the latter is semantically less "refined", i.e. more general. The diagnostic role of the subordinative connections is especially important for the unmarked coordination. The correlation between the complex and compound sentences gives the reason to speak about syntactic synonymy of the level of the composite sentence.

II. The structure and types of semi-composite sentences.

The described composite sentences are formed by minimum 2 clauses each having a subject and a predicate of its own. It means that the predicative lines in these sentences are expressed separately and explicitly. Alongside of these completely composite sentences there exist polypredicative constructions in which one predicative line is not explicitly or completely expressed. These sentences, containing 2 or more predicative lines, which are presented in fusion with one another, are called semi-composite sentences. One of this lines can be identified as the leading while the others make their semi-predicative expansion of the sentence. The semi-composite sentence presents an intermediary construction between the composite sentence and the simple sentence. Its surface structure is similar to that of an expanded simple sentence because it displays only one completely expressed predicative line. Its deep structure is similar to that of a composite sentence since it is derived from more than one base sentences, e.g.: She saw him dancing. – is derived from 2 base sentences: "She saw him. He was dancing". Trapped by the fire, the animal could hardly escape. - (adverbial, not attributive, as it can be transformed into "As the animal was trapped by the fire, it could hardly escape") – is derived from: "The animal was trapped by the fire. The animal could hardly escape".

According to the structure of the semi-composite sentences, they are divided into semi-complex and semi-compound ones, which correspond to the proper complex and compound sentences.

The semi-complex sentence is built up on the principle of subordination. It is derived from 2 or more base sentences, one is matrix and the other is insert. The matrix sentence becomes the dominant part of the resulting construction and the insert sentence – its subordinate semi-clause. The insert sentence becomes embedded in one of the syntactic positions of the matrix sentence, e.g.: I could see a tall man, coming in our direction.

(- embedded in the attributive position)

The semi-compound sentence is built up on the principle of coordination. It is derived from 2 or more base sentences having an identical element. These sentences being fused into a semi-compound construction share this element either syndetically or asyndetically. These are sentences with homogeneous (coordinated) subjects or predicates, e.g.: I composed my thoughts and gave a proper answer. – I composed my thoughts. I gave a proper answer.

The semi-complex sentences fall into a number of subtypes according to the character of predicative fusion. Predicative units can be fused by the process of position-sharing (word-sharing) or by the process of direct linear expansion. The sentences based on position-sharing are divided into those of subject-sharing and those of object-sharing.

The semi-complex sentences of subject-sharing are built round the common subject, e.g.: She entered the room an unhappy woman.- She entered the room. к She was an unhappy woman.

In the position of the predicative of the construction different classes of words are used: 1) nouns, e.g.: He turned up at the party a handsome, grown-up man.

2) adjectives, e.g.: The wind blew cold.

3) participles both present and past, e.g.: She appeared bewildered. He stood staring at her (во всех случаях заполняется именная часть составного сказуемого матричного предложения).

Semi-complex sentences of object-sharing are built up round the word which performs the function of the object in the matrix sentence and that of the subject in the insert sentence, e.g.: She saw him coming. She saw him к come.

The adjunct to the shared object is expressed by:

1) an infinitive, e.g.: She let him come in.
2) a present or past participle, e.g.: I've never seen the man acting like that.
   I've never heard the story told like that.
3) a noun, e.g.: He announced the performance a flop.
4) an adjective, e.g.: He cooked the stove black (базавий қурилмада тўлдирувчи, аниқловчи ва ҳолнинг позицияси тўлдирилади; заполняется позиция дополнения, определения, обстоятельства в матричной конструкции).

The semantic relations between the 2 connected events expressed by the object-sharing sentence can be of three basic types:

- simultaneity in the same place, e.g.: She saw him dancing;
- cause and result, e.g.: I helped him out of the car;
- mental attitude, e.g.: I find the place great.

The sentences based on semi-predicative linear expansion fall into those of attributive complication, adverbial complication, nominal-phrase complication.

Semi-complex sentences of attributive complication are derived from 2 base sentences. The insert sentence drops out its subject and is transformed into a semi-predicative post-positional attribute to any notional part of the matrix sentence.

The attributive semi-clause may contain:

1) a past participle, e.g.: That was the book written by a famous French writer.
2) present participle, e.g.: Soon we found a room opening onto the sea.
3) an adjective, e.g.: I loved the place, calm and romantic.

Semi-complex sentences of adverbial complication are derived from 2 base sentences, one of which (the insert one) is reduced and performs an adverbial function in the matrix sentence, e.g.:

1. When a young girl, she liked to travel on foot.
2. Being late, we failed to see the beginning of the film.

3. The windows being closed, she did not hear the noise in the street.

Semi-complex sentences of adverbial complication are classed into:

- conjoint (совмещенные) constructions, where the subject of the insert sentence is identical with that of the matrix sentence , as in (1,2);
- absolute constructions, where the subjects of the insert and the matrix sentences are not identical, as in (3).

Conjoint adverbial semi-clauses are introduced by conjunctions, expressing temporal, local, causal, conditional, comparative relations; or are joined to the dominant clause asyndetically, revealing temporal or causal semantics, e.g.: Being tired, I could not read the article (causal semi-clause, it can be transformed into "As I was tired I could not read...") (for more examples see Blokh M.Y. A Course in Theoretical English Grammar. - p. 349).

Absolute adverbial semi-clauses are joined asyndetically or by the conjunction *with*, revealing temporal, causal, circumstantial semantics, e.g.: With all these people waiting for me, I could not postpone the meeting (causal semi-clause).

Semi-complex sentences of nominal phrase complication are derived from 2 base sentences , one of which is partially nominalized and performs one of the nominal (subject or object positions) or prepositional adverbial functions in the matrix sentence. The nominalization can be of 2 types: the gerundial nominalization and the infinitival nominalization, e.g.:

1. His coming late annoyed everybody. - The fact that he came late ...
2. For him to come so late was unusual.- It was unusual that he came late.
3. Let's consider our going to the country.

Gerundial and infinitival phrases in these examples are used in nominal semi-clauses, performing either the function of subject (as in "His coming late..." and "For him to come...") or that of object (as in "Let's consider our...).

In contrast with infinitival phrases, gerundial phrases perform the function of adverbial and are used with prepositions, e.g.: She went away without saying a word. – As she went away she didn't say a word.

The prepositional use of gerundial adverbial phrases differentiates it from the participial adverbial phrase as a constituent of the semi-complex sentence of adverbial complication.

Semi-compound sentence is a semi-composite sentence built up on the principle of coordination. Semi-compound sentence is derived from 2 base sentences having an identical element performing the syntactic function of the subject or that of the predicate. The semi-compound sentences fall into those with coordinated subjects or coordinated predicates with syndetic or asyndetic connection.

The semi-compound sentence of subject coordination is derived from base sentences having identical predicates, e.g.: First Simon entered the room and then his friend.

The semi-compound sentence of predicate coordination is derived from base sentences having identical subjects, e.g.: She sat down and looked up at him.

He opened the door to see a young woman outside.

The syndetic formation of semi-compound sentences with coordinated predicates is effected by pure conjunctions, such as: "and" (copulative); "but", "or", "nor" (adversative); "both ... and" (simple copulative relation); "not only...but also" (copulative antithesis); "either ... or" (disjunctive); "neither... nor" (copulative exclusion); and by conjunctive adverbials such as: "then" (action ordering), "so" (consequence), "just" (limitation), "only" (limitation), "yet" (adversative-concessive),

e.g.: They can neither read nor write, nor comprehend such concepts., (for more examples see Blokh M.Y. A Course in Theoretical English Grammar. - p. 354-355).

Thus, the semantic relations which are expressed by conjunctions and conjunctive adverbials are as follows: copulative connection of events, contrast, disjunction, consequence, limitation:

- copulative: and; both...and (simple copulative)
  not only ...but (copulative antithesis)
  neither ... nor (copulative exclusion)
- disjunction: either ...or;
- consequence: so;
- adversative or contrast: but, yet, still, however;
- limitation: just, only.

The asyndetic formation of the semi-compound sentence with coordinated predicates is close to the syndetic "and"-formation (without a definite mark of the semantic relations). The central connective meaning of the asyndetic connection of predicative parts is enumeration of events, either parallel or consecutive.

e.g.: The crowd shouted, pushed, elbowed at the doors (parallel);

He stopped at the shop for a minute, cast a glance at the shop-window, made some recommendations (consecutive).

In conclusion it should be stressed that alongside of the complete composite sentences there exist in Modern English semi-composite sentences in which polypredication is expressed in a fused implicit way.

Self-control questions

1. What is the logical difference between the composite sentence and the sequence of simple sentences?
2. What are the main ways of joining clauses into a sentences?
3. What is the functional classification of subordinate clauses?
4. What is the principal of conceptual integration of clauses?
5. What are monolithic and segregative types of sentences?

SEMANTIC ASPECTS OF SYNTACTIC CONSTRUCTIONS SENTENCE TYPOLOGY WITHIN A COGNITIVE APPROACH

I. The problem of the semantic study of syntactic constructions. Concepts represented by syntactic constructions.
II. The problem of sentence typology within a cognitive approach:
   a) L.Talmy's classification of syntactic structures;
   b) J.R. Taylor's conception of sentence classification.

I. The problem of the semantic study of syntactic constructions. Concepts represented by syntactic constructions.

There are two main approaches to the study of the sentences in cognitive linguistics investigations. The first one brings into focus the observation of the concepts represented by syntactic constructions, their nature, content and structure (A.Goldberg, L. Talmy, N.N. Boldyrev, L.A. Fours). The second one concerns the sentence typology and principles of sentence classification (L.Talmy, J.R. Taylor).

One of the semantic investigations of the syntactic structures within a cognitive approach has been started by **A.Goldberg**. She argues that constructions are conventionalized pieces of grammatical knowledge and they exist independently of the particular lexical items which instantiate them. The constructions brought under her observation are: ditransitive construction, caused-motion construction, resultative construction, way construction.

Ditransitive construction in the most general sense represents transfer between an agent and a recipient and schematically it can be defined as:
Subject (Agent)- Predicate (Cause-Receive)- Object 1 (Recipient)- Object 2 (Patient), e.g.: Joe loaned Bob a lot of money.

Caused-motion construction represents the situation where one object (the causer) directly causes the motion of the other object: Subject (Causer)- Predicate (Cause-Move)- Object – Obl (Goal), e.g.: They laughed the poor guy out of the room.

Resultative construction represents the situation where a patient undergoes a change of state as a result of the action denoted by the verb. Resultatives can apply to direct objects of some transitive verbs, e.g.: I had brushed my hair smooth; or to subjects of particular intransitive verbs, e.g.: The river froze solid.
Thus, resultative construction can be defined as: Subject (Agent) – Predicate (Cause-Become) – Object (Patient) – Obl-adjective or prepositional phrase (Result-Goal) for transitive resultatives, and Subject (Patient) – Predicate (Become) – Obl (Result-Goal) for intransitive resultatives.

"Way" construction represents the situation which involves the motion of the subject along some path. The construction admits two interpretations: "means" interpretation and "manner" interpretation. The first one means that that the path of motion is created by some action of the subject, e.g.: He pushed his way through the others; He bought his way into the exclusive country club (metaphorical motion). The second one means that the path is pre-established, e.g.: They were clanging their way up and down the narrow streets. The construction can be

defined as Subject (Creator-Theme) – Predicate (Create-Move) – Object *way* (Createe-Way) – Obl (Path).

The semantics of a construction is viewed as a family of closely related senses. It means that one and the same construction is paired with different but related senses, one of which is a central sense (a prototypical one), the others (non-prototypical ones) are the senses which are its metaphorical extension. Thus, within the semantics of the ditransitive construction A.Goldberg distinguishes the central sense "the actual successful transfer"(e.g.: He gave her a lot of money) and metaphorical extension senses, such as, "causal events as transfers" (e.g.: The rain brought us some time), "communication as reception", (e.g.: She told Joe a fairy tale), "perception as reception"(e.g.: He showed Bob the view). "actions as reception entities"(e.g.: She blew him a kiss), "facts and assumptions as objects which are given" (e.g.: I'll give you that assumption). Thus, a syntactic construction is viewed by A. Goldberg as a category structured by the prototypical principle.

The main object of her further study is to make proposals for how to relate verb and construction. For this purpose she proposes the notion "semantic constraints". The latter are the principles which license the use of verb in the construction. Thus, the semantic constraints for the caused-motion construction, for example, are the constraints on the causer and on the type of causation.

Constraint on the Causer presupposes that the causer can be an agent or a natural force, e.g.: Chris pushed the piano up the stairs; The wind blew the ship off the course.

Constraints on Causation, i.e. constraints on what kind of situations (causations) can be encoded by the Caused-Motion Construction, are as follows:

I. No Cognitive Decision can mediate between the causing event and the entailed motion, e.g.: Sam frightened (coaxed, lured) Bob out of the room.

II. The Implication of Actual Motion: if motion is not strictly entailed, it must be presumed as an implication and can be determined pragmatically, e.g.: Sam asked (invited, urged) him into the room.

III. Causations can be Conventionalized Causations – causations which involve an intermediate cause, i.e. are indirect, but cognitively packaged as a single event, e.g.: The invalid owner ran his favorite horse (in the race).

IV. Incidental Motion Causations: incidental motion is a result of the activity causing the change of state which is performed in a conventional way. It means that the path of motion may be specified and the causation may be encoded by the Caused-Motion Construction, e.g.: Sam shredded the papers into the garbage pail. The action performed by the agent typically implies some predictable incidental motion.

V. Path of Motion: the path of motion must be completely determined by the causal force. Which paths count as "completely determined" is in part a matter of pragmatics, e.g.: They laughed the poor guy into his car.

The semantic constraints have been proposed in an attempt to show principled patterns where there seems to be idiosyncrasy (compare the examples with relative

verbs: *Pat coaxed him into the room.* – sounds correct, while *Pat encouraged him into the room.* – does not). (For details see: Goldberg Adele E., 1995).

The main value of A.Goldberg's observation of the senses encoded by the constructions is that it deals with the analysis of the conceptual constituents of the events, such as agent, patient, causer, path , as well as the processual parameters of events (aspectual characteristics, characteristics of motion – directed motion, self-propelled motion, etc.) The constituent content is determined by lexical semantics and general world knowledge.

The linguistic investigations within the cognitive approach for the present give the priority to the issue of concepts represented by the simple sentence. Thus, it has been stated that syntactic concepts represent both linguistic and extra-linguistic knowledge in their structure (N.N. Boldyrev and L.A. Fours); it has been observed that the simple sentence as a linguistic unit represents not only a single event but also an event complex; when the syntactic pattern shapes two distinct events into a unitary one – the phenomenon termed by L.Talmy "event integration". In other words, the linguists have performed a study of the nature and structure of concepts represented by the simple sentence.

The basic target of **N.N. Boldyrev and L.A. Fours'** study is to observe the nature of the concepts represented by simple sentences and propose concepts typology. The main principle governing the concept typology is the assumption that syntactic concepts represent both linguistic and extra-linguistic knowledge in their structure.

L.A. Fours argues that there are three formats of representing knowledge in syntax of the simple sentence and points out a configurational format, an actualizational format and a format of mixed type (combining properties of configurational and actualizational formats).

Configurational format includes concepts which are represented by the basic syntactic configurations (schemes) defining the rules of combining words into constructions. Actualizational format includes concepts which are verbalized by particular types of sentences. The concepts of configurational format are: "autonomous action" (автономное действие, автоном харакат) –represented by the intransitive construction configuration, as "A moves to B" in the most generalized sense, and "directed action" (направленное действие, йўналтирилган харакат) – represented by the transitive construction configuration, as "A moves B". Configurational format represents the linguistic knowledge (the knowledge of the transitive and intransitive congigurations) which is common for different types of sentences. Actualizational format represents the extralinguistic knowledge – the knowledge of the different types of events as they become verbalized in the basic configurational structures through the concrete lexical content. The concepts of these format are: "actionality"(акциональность, акционаллик), e.g.: They moved to the city. (uncausative construction) , "causativity" (каузативность, каузативлик), e.g.: He galloped the horse forward. (causative construction), "process" (процессуальность, жараёнлик), e.g.: The cup cracked (decausative construction), "state" (состояние, холат). e.g.: Cables and wires ran in all

directions., "quality" (свойство, хосса), e.g.: The clothes washed well. (medial construction). Thus, within the actualizational format the two configurational structures actualize particular event types reflecting the world ontology through the speaker's intentions, in other words, the transitive and intransitive constructions as combined with lexical units of the sentence profile various aspects of events and thus help to conceptualize them as particular event types (actions, processes, states, quality, causations). In this format extra-linguistic knowledge prevails.

Format of mixed type – the format combining configurational and actualizational ones - represent both linguistic and extra-linguistic knowledge. This format includes configurations of combining words into sentences which are different from the transitive and intransitive ones. They are: there-constructions , e.g.: There is a house on the corner. There existed an inborn instinct of aggression; it-constructions, e.g.: It's so lonely here. It is raining hard; inverted constructions. e.g.: Now there comes another. There above him stood Fleur; elliptical constructions, e.g.: Are you going to write that composition for me? I have to know. – If I get the time, I will. If I don't I won't.

There-constructions verbalize the conceptual characteristics of "object existence", it-constructions – those of "process orientation" or "quality orientation", inverted constructions – "temporal parameters" and "spatial parameters", elliptical constructions – "sense verification".

Thus, within syntax of the simple sentence there exist three formats of concepts. They are based on aspects of world ontology, speaker ontology and language ontology. Each of these formats is characterized by its own mode of knowledge coding and reflects the dynamic character of speech and thinking processes. (For details see: Болдырев Н.Н., Фурс Л.А., 2004, стр. 67-74; Фурс Л.А., 2004, стр. 166-181).

One of the basic arguments of cognitive approach to syntax says that grammatical constructions provide alternative imagery (conceptualizations) for the same event or situation. The idea of imagery function of grammatical constructions was formulated as a principle of conceptual alternativity by **L.Talmy** and became the basis in his investigation of conceptual content of syntactic structures.

L.Talmy brings into focus a certain type of event complex which can acquire alternative conceptualizations through different syntactic structures.

The different ways of conceptualization of the same content is viewed in the following examples:

a) The guy left the room because they had laughed at him (complex sentence).

b) They laughed at him and he left the room (compound sentence).

c) They laughed the guy out of the room (simple sentence).

On the one hand, the event complex can be conceptualized as composed of two simple events and relation between them and expressed by a composite sentence. On the other hand, the event complex can be conceptualized as a single event and expressed by a simple sentence. L. Talmy proposed the term "event

integration" to identify the process of conceptual fusion of distinct events into a unitary one.

L.Talmy studies complex events that are prone to conceptual integration and representation by a single clause. L. Talmy calls this type of complex events a *macro-event* and distinguishes several event- types: Motion, Change of State, Action Correlation and some others, e.g.:

Motion - The bottle floated into the cave. I kicked the ball into the box;

Change of State (this event-type involves any process or activity which determines the dynamics of the macro-event and causes a change in some of its property) – The door blew shut. I kicked the door shut;

Action Correlation (involves two or more activities associated with each other and performed by different agents)- I jog together with him. I jog along with him. I outran him.

L.Talmy observes the conceptual structure of these event-types and linguistic means of its representation. The general idea of the macro-event as Motion, Change of State, etc. is expressed in the syntactic structure of the sentence by satellites (verb particles, prefixes, resultatives (adjectives), prepositional phrases containing a "locative noun"), e.g.: The coin melted free (from the ice).; He waved us into the hall. The main verb in the predicate position in such like sentences expresses the idea of circumstance event within the macro-event, such as Manner, Cause, Constitutiveness, etc., e.g.:

Manner – I rolled the pen across the table (Motion); I eased him awake gently. He jerked awake (Change of State);

Cause – I blew the pen across the table (Motion); I shook him awake (Change of State);

Constitutiveness – I ate with Jane. I ran after Jane. I outcooked him (Action Correlation).

Thus, L.Talmy has studied the conceptual structure of the event complexes as it appears mapped onto the linguistic forms. (For details see: Talmy L. Toward a cognitive semantics. 2000; Further Readings on English Syntax (this book, pp. 65-73).

Summing it all up, it is necessary to note that the study of the concepts represented by the syntactic structures is centered around the following principles:

- syntactic structures reveal a concept-structuring function in the language, i.e. syntactic structures provide alternative conceptualizations of the event;
-conceptual content expressed in the linguistic forms integrates linguistic and extra-linguistic knowledge;
- syntactic categories are viewed as categories organized in accord with the prototypical principle of category structuring.

The observation of the recent studies shows that the linguists have examined practically the same syntactic structures, but from slightly different angles. As a result, various facets of the conceptual content of the syntactic structures have been profiled. The further investigation of the syntactic concepts and the linguistic means of their representation is more likely to be based on the elaboration and unification of the recent cognitive linguistic findings of syntax study.

II. The problem of sentence typology within a cognitive approach.

The study of the sentence in the traditional linguistics is based on viewing the sentence as a predicative unit, sentences are classed in accord with:

a) the number of predicative lines implicitly or explicitly represented in the sentence. (simple, composite, semi-composite);
b) types of syntactic connection between 2 or more predicative lines in composite and semi-composite sentences;
c) syntactic and semantic specifications of the sentences within the major classes.

Thus, the main points of the sentence typology in Modern English concern the structural properties of the sentence as a purely linguistic entity.

The main target of the sentence investigation in the cognitive linguistics, as different from the traditional (structural and functional) linguistics, is to introduce the sentence classification, based on correlation of grammatical constructions and concepts represented by them as well as conceptualization processes.

L. Talmy has made an attempt to introduce the classification of syntactic structures which represent cross-related events in accord with the cognitive functions of Figure and Ground. In linguistic tradition syntactic structures, representing cross-related events, such as temporal, causal, concessive, additive and etc., are viewed as one of the sentence-classes that reflect different types of relations between events.

L. Talmy provides a classification of syntactic structures which represent cross-related Figure-Ground events (one of the events is a Figure-event, i.e. bears the cognitive function of Figure, and the other is a Ground event, i.e. functions as a Ground) and examines semantic relationships that extend across such structures. All the syntactic structures of the said type are divided into those where there is only one Ground-event reference (they are simple sentences and complex sentences) and the syntactic structures where the Ground-event appears twice (they are copy-cleft sentences).

The first syntactic structure which represents the 2 events is a **simple sentence** and it represents cross-related events as nominals. Each of these nominals can either be a nominalized clause or some noun or pronoun that refers to the whole event. The range of cross-event relations, which are "*concession*," "*reason*", "*additionality*", is realized by the corresponding preposition or prepositional complex:

a) (concession) Their going out was *in spite of* their feeling tired.
b) (reason) Their staying home was because of their feeling tired.

Nominalized clauses can be substituted by pro-forms; particularly by nominal pro-clauses: *this* or *that*:

c) This was in spite of that.
d) This was because of that.

The next syntactic structure which represents cross-event relations is **a complex sentence**. Within this set of syntactic structures L. Talmy distinguishes *complex sentences with subordinating preposition* and *complex sentences with subordinating conjunction*. They express relations of:

"concession" with the help of prepositions: *in spite of, despite*;
conjunctions: *although, though, even though*;
"reason" – with the help of preposition: *because of*;
conjunctions: *because, since, as*:

a) (concession) They went out in spite of their feeling tired.

b) (concession) They went out even though they were feeling tired.

The Figure event is expressed by a finite (principal) clause, and the Ground event is represented by a subordinate clause introduced by a subordinating preposition or subordinating conjunction.

Copy-cleft sentences, as it has been said, represent the Ground event twice. Copy-cleft sentences can express a cross-event relation either explicitly or implicitly, i.e. there are copy-cleft sentences with the explicit representation of a cross-event relation and copy-cleft sentences without the explicit representation of a cross-event relation.

Copy-cleft sentences which explicitly express a cross-event relation can be of two types: the *paratactic copy-cleft sentences* and *connective copy-cleft sentences*.

Paratactic sentences can be regarded as a succession of 2 separate sentences. The reference to the Ground-event appears once in the finite form and once as a nominalized clause:

a) (concession) They were feeling tired; they went out despite their feeling tired.

Connective copy-cleft sentences retain the constituents of a paratactic sent. and adds a connective, which is a coordinating conjunction *and* or *but*:

a) They were feeling tired, but they went out despite their feeling tired.

We have seen the copy-cleft sentences with subordinate clauses in a full form; but there are cases of copy-cleft sentences where subordinate clauses are replaced by pro-forms or pro-clauses. They can be of different types: nominal pro-clauses, adverbial pro-clauses and conjunctional pro-clauses. The pro-forms represent the second reference to the Ground-event.

Nominal pro-clause is typically expressed by the form *that* and takes part in the prepositional phrases, e.g.: *despite that, because of that, after that, in addition to that*, e.g.: They were feeling tired, but they went out despite that.

Adverbial pro-clause stands as a substitution for a subordinating prepositional phrase with nominal pro-clause. For example, the form *despite that* can be replaced for the form *anyway*, e.g.: They were feeling tired, but they went out anyway.

Adverbial pro-clauses express the semantic relation of:

- "concession" is expressed by: *anyway , even so, all the same, nevertheless, still, yet, however, though;*
-"reason" is expressed by *so*, as a counterpart of *because of that*:
-"posteriority" is expressed by *then* as a counterpart of *after that*:
-"additionality" is expressed by *also* as a counterpart of *in addition to that*:

Conjunctional pro-clause is an equivalent to the combination of a coordinating conjunction and an adverbial pro-clause. These forms express the semantic relations of "negative additionality" and "exceptive counterfactuality":

-"negative additionality" is expressed by *nor* as a counterpart of *and* к any of the adverbial pro-clauses – *also, either, neither*, e.g.:He does not hold a regular job, *nor* does he take odd jobs.
- "exceptive counterfactuality" is expressed by *or* as an equivalent to a *but* к the adverbial pro-clauses – *otherwise, else* ,e.g.: I was busy, *or* I would have joined you.

The phenomenon of copy-cleft sentences with pro-clauses illustrates the language capacity for conflation and carrying substitution relationship, particularly.

The set of copy-clef sentences without explicit representation of a cross-event relation is build around structures consisting of a finite clause which represents a Ground-event, followed by a coordinating conjunction and a finite clause representing a Figure-event; e.g.: She stopped at the store, and she went home.
L.Talmy interprets these structures as copy-cleft sentences in which a cross-event relation is structurally implicit, but is unspecified. Compare:
She stopped at the store, and she went home = She went home but/and first she had stopped at the store.

Further concern of the discussed sentence types is their ability to represent a particular type of cross-event relation. For example, complex sentences with subordinating conjunction can not be used for representation of the relations of "cause", "additionality", "substitution".

To sum it all up: L. Talmy groups syntactic structures, which represent cross-event relations, according to their formal properties which reflect conceptual-syntactic regularities. The classification is based on the principle of Figure and Ground events representation. The Figure–Ground model of event conceptualization is universal: it works as a general principle of producing different types of sentences. The Figure event is represented in the main clause of a complex sentence, and in the second constituent of a copy-cleft sentence. The Ground event is represented in the subordinate clause of a complex sentence, in a copy-cleft sentence it appears as the initial clause, and additionally within the second constituent of the sentence. (For details see: Talmy L. Toward a cognitive semantics. 2000).

One more sentence typology, proposed within a cognitive approach, has been introduced by **J.R. Taylor**. He has classed all the sentences into single clauses and constructions which are built as combinations of clauses. The main criterion for further division becomes the degree of integration between clauses. The merit of this classification is that it is based on correlation between formal syntactic properties of the sentences and processes of conceptual operations (basically, conceptual integration) which enable the creation of sentences.

The notion "clause" is understood by J.R. Taylor as a syntactic structure which designates a single process and should be distinguished from clause fusion – a case of clause combination, based on conceptual and syntactic integration, though both the structures reveal the "syntax of the simple sentence". Compare: *These cars are expensive. These cars are expensive to repair.* The clause fusion

construction can be "unpacked" into two independent clauses, designating two different processes.

J.R. Taylor starts with c l a u s e c l a s s i f i c a t i o n. The basic parameters of this classification are the structural and semantic characteristics of clauses, such as, the number of participants, the semantic role of the participants and their syntactic expression, kinds of situations (processes) that clauses designate, i.e. concepts (event types) represented by different kind of clauses.

According to the process type (event type) clauses are classed into those which designate:

-dynamic processes, e.g.: The house collapsed. The telephone rang.

- stative processes e.g.: The book is 200 pages long. The book is boring. The road follows the river. .

- cognitive processes (mental and perceptual processes), e.g.: I watched the film. The noise frightened me. I'm afraid of the dark.

-complex processes (processes which are made up of 2 or more component processes), e.g.: Jane returned the book to the library. I broke the vase.

(The analysis of complex processes in terms of component processes is justified in that it is sometimes possible to focus on just one component in contrast to the process in its totality, e.g.: I almost broke the vase. They didn't elect Joe president.)

According to the number of participants clauses are classed into one-participant clauses (Intransitives), two-participant clauses (Transitives), three-participant clauses (Double-object clauses). J.R. Taylor addresses the semantic roles of participants and their syntactic expression in the clause.

One –participant clause (intransitive) presents a situation as involving only one participant, which is an Experiencer, Mover or Patient. There are three types of intransitives: unergatives, e.g.: The child slept., unaccusatives, e.g.: The building collapsed., middles, e.g.: The car drives smoothly. The poem doesn't translate. I don't photograph very well.

Two- participant clause (transitive) prototypically involves the transfer of energy from an Agent (the subject) to a Patient (the object), e.g.: The farmer shot the rabbit. The prototypical transitive clause can also be made passive, e.g.: The rabbit was shot by the farmer. A remarkable fact about the schema for a prototypical transitive clause is that it accommodates all manner of relations between entities. The following examples exhibit this fact, though exhibiting fewer and fewer characteristics of a transitive interaction, e.g.: I remember the event. My car burst a tyre. The road follows the river. Joe resembles his grandfather.

The non-prototypical, status of these transitives is proven by the fact that they cannot be made passive.

Three-participant clause (double-object clause) is a clause where a second post-verbal object is obligatory, its presence determines the existence of the clause as such, e.g.: I'll mail you the report. I'll bake you a cake.

The three participants are the Agent, the thing that undergoes changes at the hands of the Agent, and the person which benefits from the change (Beneficiary). Characteristic of this clause type is that the Beneficiary is construed as the Patient

of the interaction and it appears immediately after the verb, as the verb's object (it means that "my" action directly affects "you", in that "you" come to receive the report). The clause profiles the relation between the Agent and Beneficiary by means of placing the Beneficiary immediately after the verb. The sentence renders the idea of "possessivity". The same situation can be conceptualized in an alternative way, e.g.: I'll mail the report to you. I'll bake a cake for you. The clause bears the intermediary status between the prototypical two-participant clause and prototypical three-participant clause. It profiles the relation between the Agent and Patient. The sentence renders the idea of "path".

In the end it should be noted that different types of processes (event concepts) appear to be "packed" into two basic syntactic configurations: transitive and intransitive constructions. It becomes possible due to the fact that the subject and object can instantiate not only their prototypical use, the Agent and Patient, but also other semantic roles. This mechanism is the basis of alternative conceptualizations (imagery) of situations of the real world in syntactic forms.

The classification of larger syntactic units - clause combinations (clause complexes) - is based on the criterion of the degree of integration between clauses

J.R. Taylor distinguishes minimal integration, coordination, subordination, complementation, clause fusion which reveals the highest degree of integration.

Clause complexes of minimal integration. Two clauses are simply juxtaposed, with no overt linking, e.g.: I came, I saw, I conquered. The clauses are in sequential relation to each other – the first mentioned was the first to occur.

Clause complexes of coordination. Each clause could in principle stand alone as an independent conceptualization. The clauses are linked by means of words such as *and, but, or*, e.g.: She prefers fish, and/but I prefer pasta. A slightly higher degree of integration is possible if both clauses share the same subject, e.g.: I went up to him and asked the way.

Clause complexes of subordination. Here, there are two clauses, but one is understood in terms of a particular semantic relation (temporal, causal, etc.) to each other. Typical subordinators are *after, if, whenever, although*.

Clause complexes based on complementation. Complementation represents a closer integration of clauses, in that one clause functions as a participant in another. There are different syntactic forms that a complement clause can take. A complement clause functions as the subject or the object of the main verb. The complement clause may appear as:

- an infinitive without *to*, e.g.: I saw them break into the house;
- "to"-infinitive, e.g.: To finish it in time was impossible. I advise you to wait a while. I want to go there myself;
- "ing"-form of the verb, e.g.: I avoided meeting them. I can't imagine him saying that;
- subordinate clause, introduced by *that* or question words e.g.: I hope that we will see each other again soon, I wonder what we should do.

Clause fusions represent the highest degree of integration. It occurs when

two clauses fuse into a single clause, e.g.: These cars are expensive to repair. One could "unpack" this sentence into two independent clauses, designating two different processes: "someone repairing the cars" and "this process is expensive". In the example the two clausal conceptions have fused into one. We characterize the cars as "expensive" with respect to a certain process. (For details see: Taylor J.R. Cognitive Grammar. 2002).

Summing it all up, it is necessary to mention that sentence classifications proposed by different linguists within a cognitive approach are aimed at grouping sentences on the basis of their formal properties in relation to the concepts they represent as well as the conceptual mechanisms which enable the creation of different types of sentences (cognitive functions of Figure and Ground in L.Talmy's conception or operations of conceptual integration in J.R. Taylor's typology). It is evident that such like classifications bear the status of more unified theories of sentences compared to the classifications introduced within the traditional approaches to syntax. Traditional syntax profiles the formal characteristics of syntactic units which results in the strict division: "the simple sentence, the composite sentence: the complex and the compound sentences". Sentence classifications proposed within a cognitive approach profile the concepts represented by syntactic constructions, conceptual mechanisms which determine the production of different types of sentence and which in the most general sense reflect the basic conceptualization processes. "Cognitive" classifications, by their nature, are more likely to show that the distinctive features of sentence types form a continuum rather than discreet categories which reflect the work of human mind.

Self-control questions

1. What are the main approaches to the study of the sentences in cognitive linguistics?
2. What is essence of the notion "semantic constraints"?
3. What semantic types of causation do we observe in English sentence?
4. What is a configurational format?
5. What is the essence of L. Talmy's theory?
6. How is the sentence classified in cognitive linguistics?

TEXT
AS AN OBJECT OF SYNTACTIC STUDY

I. The inter-sentence connections in the text.
II. The textual linguistics: history of the textual linguistics, categories of textuality.

I. The inter-sentence connections in the text.

Text is the unit of the highest (supersyntactic) level. It can be defined as a

sequence of sentences connected logically and semantically which convey a complete message. The text is a language unit and it manifests itself in speech as discourse. Textlinguistics is concerned with the analysis of formal and structural features of the text. Textual basic integrative properties can be described with the help of the notions of **coherence, cohesion** and **deixis**.

Coherence is a semantic or topical unity of the spoken or written text - that is, the sentences within the text are usually connected by the same general topic. Generally speaking, a coherent text is the text that 'sticks together' as a whole unit. Coherence is usually achieved by means of the theme and rheme progression. There exist various types of the theme and rheme progression, e.g.

Naturally, in the process of text development different types of theme and rheme progression are combined.

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

a) additive – *and, furthermore, similarly, in addition, etc.*

b) adversative - *but, however, on the other hand, infact, anyway, after all, nevertheless, etc.*

c) causal - *so, consequently, for this reason, thus, etc.*

d) temporal- *then, after that, finally, at last, in the long run, etc.*

The full list of text connectors is very long. Some of them do not possess direct equivalents in the Ukrainian language. At the same time it is impossible to speak and write English naturally without knowing for sure when and how to use text connectors of the English language.

Lexical cohesion occurs when two words in the text are semantically related in the same way - in other words, they are related in terms of their meaning. Two major categories of lexical cohesion are **reiteration** and **collocation**. Reiteration includes repetition, synonym or near synonym use and the use of general words. E.g. (1.) *You could try driving the car up the slope. The incline isn't at all that steep.* (2) *Pneumonia arrives with the cold and wet conditions. The illness can strike everyone from infants to the elderly.*

Collocation includes all those items in text that are semantically related. The items may be related in one text and not related in other. For instance, the words 'neighbour' and 'scoundrel' are not related at all. However, in the following text they are collocated: *My neighbour has just let one of his trees fall into my garden. And the scoundrel refuses to pay for the damage he has caused.*

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

Look at the sun. It is going down quickly. 'It' refers back to 'the sun'.

It is going down quickly, the sun. 'It' refers forwards to 'the sun'.

As a linguistic term deixis means 'identification by pointing'.

Much of the textual meaning can be understood by looking at linguistic markers that have a pointing function in a given context. For example, consider the following note pinned on a professor's door: *"Sorry, I missed you. I'm in my other office. Back in an hour.* " Without knowing who the addressee is, what time the note was written, or the location of the other office, it is really hard to make a precise information of the message. Those terms that we cannot interpret without an immediate context are called deixis. Deictic terms are used to refer to ourselves, to others, and to objects in our environment. They are also used to locate actions in a time frame relative to the present. Deictic terms can show social relationship - the social location of individuals in relation to others. They may be used to locate parts of a text in relation to other parts.

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

Inter-sentence connections have come under linguistic investigation but recently. The highest lingual unit which was approached by traditional grammar as liable to syntactic study was the sentence. However , further studies in this field have shown that sentences in continual speech are not used in isolation, they are interconnected both semantically and syntactically.

The first scholars who identified a succession of such sentences as a special syntactic unit were the Russian linguists N.S. Pospelov and L.A. Bulakhovsky. N.S. Pospelov called the unit in question a "complex syntactic unity", L.A. Bulakhovsky termed it a "super-phrasal unity". M.Y. Blokh suggested the term the "supra-sentential construction". In the course of study it has been stated that sentences in speech come under broad grammatical arrangements and combine with each other on strictly syntactic lines in the formation of the text.

The general idea of a sequence of sentences forming a text provides its two distinguishing features: *semantic (topical) unity and semantico-syntactic cohesion.* Semantic unity implies that a text as a succession of sentences centers on a common informative purpose. Semantico-syntactic cohesion interprets the sentences in a succession as syntactically relevant.

Sentences in a sequence can be connected either *prospectively* or *retrospectively.* Prospective connection is effected by connective elements that relate a given sentence to one that is to follow it. A prospective connector signals a continuation of speech: the sentence containing it is semantically incomplete, e.g.: And now let us *switch onto the next topic.* The environmental protection. Retrospective connection is effected by connective elements that relate a given sentence to the one that precedes it and is semantically complete by itself. Retrospective connection is the basic type sentence connection in ordinary speech. e.g.: The man hit the ball. The crowd cheered *him* on.

On the basis of the functional nature of connectors, sentence connection can be of two types: *conjunctive* and *correlative.* Conjunctive connection is effected by conjunction-like connectors: regular conjunctions (coordinative and subordinative) and adverbial or parenthetical sentence-connectors (then, yet, however, consequently, hence, besides, moreover, nevertheless). Conjunctive connection can be only retrospective,

e.g.: Carter was upset and angry. *But* remained firm.

The president emotionally declared that he was "glad to be home". ***Then*** he told the gathering what it had come to hear.

Correlative connection is effected by a pair of elements one of which refers to the other, used in the foregoing sentence. By means of this reference the sentences in a succession are related to each other. Correlative connection can be both retrospective and prospective. Correlative connection is divided into *substitutional* and *representative.*

Substitutional connection is based on the use of substitutes,

e.g.: There was an old woman who lived in a shoe.

She had so many children, *she* didn't know what to do. (children's rhyme).

A substitute may have as its antecedent the whole of the preceding sentence or a clausal part of it. Substitutes often go together with conjunctions, effecting the mixed type of connection, e.g.: As I saw them I thought that they seemed prosperous. *But it* may have been all the same just an illusion.

Representative connection is based on representative elements which refer to one another without the factor of replacement, e.g.: Soon he went home. None regretted *his departure.* Representative correlation is achieved also by repetition:

e.g.: He has a lean and hungry look. He thinks too much. *Thinks too much.* Such men are dangerous.

M.Y. Blokh investigates the two important border-line phenomena between the sentence and the sentential sequence. The first is known as "parcellation". The parcellated construction presents two or more collocations separated by a sentence-tone (in writing they are delimited by a full stop) but related to one another as parts of one and the same sentence, e.g.: ... I realized his horse was the first to come. Again. I thought I was finished.

The second of the border-line phenomena in question is the opposite of parcellation and may be called fusion. It consists in forcing two different sentences into one, e.g.: She said that she was very glad to meet him and *would he please join her company.*

II. The textual linguistics.

When modern linguistics began to emerge, it was customary to limit investigation to the framework of the sentence as the largest unit with an inherent structure

(L. Bloomfield). All the other structures, as different from the sentence, were assigned to the field of stylistics. The reason for this lies with the fact that it is much more straightforward to decide what constitutes a grammatical or acceptable sentence than what constitutes a grammatical or acceptable sentence sequence, paragraph or text, as the text formation is characterized by lesser conformity with established rules.

Teun van Dirk stresses that "text linguistics" is in fact a designation for any linguistic investigation devoted to the text as the primary object of inquiry. There is a number of disciplines which, for various motives, share many concerns with a science of texts: rhetoric, stylistics, anthropology, discourse analysis. For example, anthropology scrutinizes texts as cultural artifacts (B. Malinovsky) Special attention was devoted to myths and folktales (C. Levi-Strauss). Discourse analysis (the study of conversation) brings into focus the mechanisms which combine texts as single contributions into a set of relevant texts directed to each other, reveal the standards of textuality (cohesion, coherence, intentionality, acceptability, situationality, intertextuality, informativity) (M. Coulthard).

In the field of linguistics proper, i.e. philology, the text was generally considered a marginal entity until it became hard to ignore any longer. Thus, comparing word order in ancient and modern languages H. Weil detected another principle besides grammar: the relations of "thoughts" to each other evidently affect the arrangement of words in sentences. His investigations were renewed by Czech linguists ("Prague School") under the notion of *functional sentence perspective.*

The first large-scale inquiry into text organization was performed by R. Harweg within the *descriptive structural approach.* R. Harweg postulated that texts are hold together by the mechanism of "substitution" (one expression following up another one of the same sense and thus forming a cohesive or coherent relationship). His notion of "substitution" is extraordinary broad and complex, subsuming relationships such as synonymy, class/instance,

subclass/superclass, cause/effect, part/whole. The main tendencies of the text studies within the structural approach are as follows: the text was defined as a unit larger than the sentence (K. Pike), research proceeded by discovering types of text structures and classifying them in some sort of scheme.

The transformational generative grammar approach combined with the basic principles of cognitive psychology provides a process-oriented model of the text, i.e. the model of text generating (T.A. van Dirk, I. Mel'cuk, A. Zolkovskiy). T.A. van Dirk introduced the notion of macrostructure: a statement of the content of a text, and reasoned that the generating of a text must begin with a main idea which gradually evolves into the detailed meanings that enter sentences with the help of "literary operations". When a text is presented, there must be operations which work in the other direction to extract the main idea back out again. Thus, the main concern of T.A. van Dirk's study is to describe cognitive processes that can render texts "literary". A different line has been adopted in the work of I. Mel'cuk. He argues that the central operation of a text model should be the transition between "meaning" and text, i.e. how meaning is expressed in a text or abstracted out of a text, which is possible due to the speaker's/hearer's ability to express/identify one and the same idea in a number of synonymous utterances. Thus. I. Mel'cuk adopts the text model as that one of meaning representation in cognitive continuity. All the discussed trends of the text study illustrate the evolution in theory and method of text linguistics.

The main target of the text linguistics of the present day is to describe various text types used in discourse, explain both the shared features and the distinctions among texts of different types, i.e. to find out what standards texts must fulfill, how they might be produced or received. In modern text linguistics a text is defined as a communicative occurrence which meets particular standards (categories) of textuality. If any of these standards is not considered to have been satisfied, the text will not be communicative (R.Beaugrande, W. Dressler). Different scholars point out various parameters of the text: Ts.Todorov - verbal, syntactic, semantic; N.E. Enkvist –topic, focus, linkage; I.R.Galperin – informative contents, cohesion, prospection, retrospection, modality, integrity, completeness; R. Beaugrande and W. Dressler – cohesion, coherence, intentionality, acceptability, informativity, situationality, intertextuality.

Cohesion and coherence are the most obvious categories of textuality. They indicate how the component elements of the text fit together and make sense. Cohesion concerns the ways in which the components of the surface text , i.e. the actual words we hear or see, are mutually connected within a sequence. The surface components depend upon each other according to grammatical forms and conventions, such that cohesion rests upon grammatical dependencies. The notion of cohesion includes all the functions which can be used to signal relations among surface elements, e.g.: the road sign: *slow*

children

at play

which is more likely to be read as "slow" and "children at play", cannot be rearranged into: *Children play slow at.*

Coherence concerns the ways in which the semantic components of the text, i.e. the concepts and relations which underlie the surface text are mutually accessible and relevant. For example, in "children at play", "children" is an *object* concept, "play" – an *action* concept, and the relation – "*agent of*", because the children are the agents of the action. Coherence can be illustrated by a group of relations of causality, such as cause, reason, purpose, enablement (one action is sufficient, but not necessary for the other, as in "The Queen of Hearts, she made some tarts, all on a summer day.

"The Knave of Hearts, he stole those tarts, and took them quite away").

These relations concern the ways in which one situation or event affects the conditions for some other one. Coherence is not a mere feature of texts, but rather the outcome of cognitive processes among text users. Coherence already illustrates the nature of texts as human activities. A text does not make sense by itself, but rather by the interaction of text-presented knowledge with people's stored knowledge of the world. It follows that text linguistics must co-operate with cognitive psychology to explore such a basic matter as the sense of a text.

Cohesion and coherence are text-centered notions, designating operations directed at the text materials. There are also user-centered notions which are brought to bear on the activity of textual communication at large, both by producers and receivers. They are intentionality, acceptability, informativity, situationality, intertextuality.

Intentionality is the category of textuality which concerns the text producer's attitude to constituting a coherent and cohesive text to fulfill the producer's intentions.

Acceptability as a category of textuality concerns the text receiver's attitude that the text should have some use of relevance for the receiver. This attitude is responsive to such factors as text type, social or cultural setting. Receivers can support coherence by making their own contributions to the sense of the text, which is provided by the operation of inference (операция инференции, т.е. получения выводного знания, инференция операцияси, яъни хулосавий билимни эгаллаш). Text producers often speculate on the receivers' attitude of acceptability and present texts that require important contributions in order to make sense. For example, the bell telephone company warns people: *Call us before you dig. You may not be able to afterwards.*

People are left to infer the information on their own, which is: *Call us before you dig. There might be an underground cable. If you break the cable, you won't have phone service, and you may get a severe electric shock. Then you won't be able to call us.*

Informativity as a category of textuality concerns the extent to which the presented texts are expected/unexpected or known/unknown. The texts which need inference, i.e. are implicit to a certain degree, are considered to be more informative than those which are more explicit (see the example above).

Situationality concerns the factors which make a text relevant to a situation of occurrence. Thus, the road sign *slow children at play*

can be treated in different ways, but the most probable intended use is obvious. The ease with which people can decide such an issue is due to the influence of the situation where the text is presented. Situationality even affects the means of cohesion. On the one hand, a more explicit text version, such as:

Motorists should proceed slowly, because children are playing in the vicinity and might run out into the street. Vehicles can stop more readily if they are moving slowly.

would remove every possible doubt about the sense. On the other hand, it would not be appropriate to a situation where receivers have only limited time and attention to devote to signs among other moving traffic. That forces the text producer toward a maximum of economy; situationality works so strongly that the minimal version is more appropriate than the clearer.

Intertextuality concerns the factors which make the utilization of one text dependent on knowledge of one or previously encountered texts. Intertextuality is responsible for the evolution of text types as classes of texts with typical patterns of characteristics. Within a particular type, reliance on intertextuality may be more or less prominent. In types like parodies, critical reviews, the text producer must consult the prior text continually, and text receivers will usually need some familiarity with the latter. There was an advertisement in magazines showing a petulant young man saying to someone outside the picture: "As long as you're up, get me a Grant's." A professor working on a research project cut the text out of a magazine , altered it slightly, and displayed it on his office door as: "As long as you're up, get me a Grant." In the original setting it was a request to be given a beverage of a particular brand. In the new setting it seems to be pointless unless the text receiver has the knowledge of the originally presented text and its intention.

To sum it all up, the discussed categories (standards) of textuality function as constitutive principles of textual communication, they create and define the form of behavior identifiable as textual communicating. There are also regulative principles that control textual communication rather than define it (they are: efficiency of a text, effectiveness of a text and appropriateness of a text). The problem of interaction of the said principles (i.e. how the constitution and use of texts are controlled by the regulative principles) is studied within the framework of cognitive linguistics.

SYNTAGMATIC RELATIONS

J.R. Taylor views the syntagmatic relations in the light of conceptual combination. It means that he proposes the analysis of syntactic units in terms of mechanisms whereby semantic units combine with each other. The target of J.R. Taylor's analysis is to introduce generalized schemas which reflect conceptual processing that enables creation /interpretation of syntactic units, and group syntactic structures as mapped onto these schemas.

J.R. Taylor introduces the notion "constructional schema". A constructional schema abstracts what is common to phrases of different kind. Here we may start

with the analysis of the expressions which share the same constituent order (the level of syntax). For example, on the one hand, the assembly of prepositional phrases with the structure [Prep к [Noun phrase]] – *on the table, on the mat, above the sofa, under the bed,* etc., on the other hand, the assembly of verb phrases with the structure [V к [Noun phrase]] – *leave the office, drive the car, push the cart* and countless more. We could go further, and propose a constructional schema that covers both the prepositional and verb phrases (conceptual level). In this case a constructional schema shows what these two types of phrases have in common at the semantic level: they are headed by the relational unit (preposition and verb) - the head of the expression, which is elaborated by a nominal expression – the complement of the expression. Here we have a head-complement constructional schema, one of the four types of constructional schemas, proposed by J.R. Taylor.

Constructional schemas have two principal functions. First, they have a sanctioning function. They allow expressions which are constructed in conformity with the schemas to be rapidly categorized and interpreted. Secondly, the schemas have an enabling function. They facilitate the rapid creation of an indefinite number of new expressions in conformity with the schemas.

While investigating the mechanisms of conceptual combination J.R. Taylor uses notions "profile", "base", "domain" – the basic notions in Cognitive Grammar analysis of meaning.

Profile, base, domain

The profile and base constitute the concept. The semantic value of any linguistic expression resides in the combination of profile and base. The profile picks out one aspect of the base and renders it particularly prominent. The concept consists in knowledge of the profile against the appropriate base. Consider the concept *father*. The word *father* profiles an adult male human and invokes, as its base, the notion of a relation between a profiled individual and one more individual who counts as the father's offspring. (It is axiomatic in Cognitive Grammar that all linguistic expressions profile something or other. A clause profiles a situation or event, a verb profiles a process, a preposition profiles a kind of relation.) If the base of an expression is the conceptual content that is inherently invoked by the expression, the domain is a more generalized "background" knowledge against which conceptualization is achieved. In the "father" example more general notions, such as kinship, genealogy, gender constitute domains against which a whole cluster of concepts are characterized: father, son, aunt, cousin, etc.

The distinction between base and domain, though not always clear-cut, does have linguistic manifestation. Consider the expressions with preposition *of* and the verb *have*, which profile an intrinsic relation between entities. Since the base is intrinsic to a concept, it is not surprising that *of* and *have* can express the relation between the profiled entity and the base. On the other hand, the relation between the profiled entity and a domain is a more distant relation, and *of* and *have* are often inappropriate in such cases. Compare: *the thumb of my left hand* (normal) and *the thumb of my left arm* (odd); *A hand has five fingers* (normal) and *An arm has five fingers*. Thus, the instances of the linguistic level and rules of

combinability of linguistic units are determined and somehow restricted by the hierarchy within the conceptual content.

Conceptual combination and syntagmatic relations

In J.R. Taylor's opinion there are 4 types of constructional schemas, according to the type of conceptual combination and therefore syntagmatic relation: constructional schemas with head-complement relation, schemas with head-modifier relation, schemas of appositional relation, schemas with parataxis. Accordingly there are 4 mechanisms for combining simpler units into more complex structures: complementation, modification, apposition, parataxis.

Head-complement constructional schemas

Head-compliment construction reveals head-complement relation. It means that its constituents bear the status of head and that of complement. Consider the example *on the table*. The preposition *on* in this expression designates spatial relation, that one of support and contact, and determines the profile of the complex concept [on the table]. It means that the semantics of the expression is relational in character, *the table* helps to specify *on*, which is initially rather abstract or schematic, as compared to *the table*. The polysemous *on* needs specification, which is achieved in the combination *on the table*. Both *on* and *on the table* designate the same relation, but with different degrees of specificity. *On* in the given expression is the head and *the table* is the complement. The head designates the same entity as the whole expression does, the expression bears the profile of the head. The complement elaborates an entity already present in the semantic structure of the head. The head is conceptually more dependent, it needs elaboration, the complement is more autonomous.

Head-modifier constructional schemas

Head-modifier construction reveals head-modifier relation. Consider the example *the book on the table*. The expression no longer profiles a relation , but a thing, namely, the book. In this case the expression bears the profile of *the book*, which is the head of the phrase, and *on the table* is a modifier. The modifier provides additional conceptual substance to the head. The head in this case is conceptually more autonomous, the modifier is more dependent.

Head and complement stand in a "closer" semantic relation to each other than head and modifier. It comes from the fact that in a head-complement construction the complement is part of the expression's profile; the complement is "intrinsic" to the profile. In a head-modifier construction the modifier is not part of the profile; the modifier is in a sense an optional extra.

Consider more examples:

Joe left the office. *Leave* profiles a temporal relation. *Leave* combines with *the office*, which inherits the profile of *leave*. Leave *the office* combines with *Joe*, but the resultant expression again inherits the relational profile of *leave the office*. The expression designates an event of leaving, it does not designate Joe. The head of the expression is *left*, both the subject *Joe* and the direct object *the office* are complements. The proof that *Joe* also has the status of a complement is the alternative constituency - [Joe left] [the office] which is actualized in the following: *Joe left, but everyone else entered, the office*.

The complements elaborate the schematic elements in the semantic structure of the verb (an entity capable of motion - Joe, a schematic container – the office).In this respect the analysis of conceptual constituents (conceptual combination), as head ↔complement or head↔modifier, correlates with the traditional analysis of obligatory and optional valency of the verb (subject and the direct object realize the obligatory valency of the verb).

Consider more examples:

Father of twins. On the one hand, *father* (the head), like *book* in the expression *book on the table*, elaborates the semantic structure of *of twins*. *Of twins* is therefore a modifier of *father*. On the other hand, *father*, unlike book, is a relational noun: a father has to be the father of someone, whereas a book does not to be a book in a certain location. *Of twins* elaborates the semantic structure of *father* and for this reason takes on features of a complement. Thus, *of twins* exhibits features of both a modifier and a complement of *father*. Cognitive Grammar does not take the head-complement and the head-modifier relations to be mutually exclusive, we can simply say that the expression simultaneously satisfies the requirements of two different constructional schemas.

Appositional constructional schemas

In an appositional relation, each component designates one and the same entity, but does it in different ways. They combine to form a more elaborate conception of the entity. In the expression *my neighbour, the butcher* one and the same person characterized as "my neighbour" and also as "the butcher". The person is characterized in terms of a relation to the speaker and in terms of his profession.

Consider more examples:

Now, at midnight	*We were amazed, stunned, by the event.*
Tomorrow, Tuesday	*He ran – absolutely raced – up the hill.*
We, the people	*They sent him to Coventry, refused to speak to him.*

In an appositional relation each of the components profiles one and the same entity. It is as if an apposition has two heads, each component contributes its profile to the expression.

There are cases which exhibit, for example, both apposition and modification as in the expression *you, the butcher* (*the butcher* can be viewed as a modifier, as it gives additional information), or apposition and complementation as in *[The fact] [that the earth is flat] must be obvious to everyone (that the earth is flat* can be viewed as the complement of *fact*, as it is schematically present in the semantic structure of *fact* (a fact is necessarily a fact that something is the case).

Consider more examples:

[The question] [what to do] is still unanswered.
[The question] of [what to do] is still unanswered.
[The question] as to [what to do] is still unanswered.

Some syntactic phenomena need to be understood in terms of the apposition relation. For example, one of the semantic values of *of* Consider *the crime of shoplifting*. One and the same entity is characterized, first, as a crime, and secondly, as shoplifting. *Crime* has a rather schematic profile, *shoplifting* is more

fully specified. By virtue of apposition "the crime" is elaborated as "shoplifting" and "shoplifting is categorized as "a crime".

Consider more examples:

the Island of Madeira	*the thought of going there alone*
the State of California	*the question of where to go*
a feeling of despair	*the fact of his absence*

A similar situation holds in the following cases, where the first constituent is a so-called epithet. Consider *a beast of a problem*. The epithet has a highly schematic profile, with speaker attitude towards the profiled entity very prominent in the base. The second constituent elaborates the epithet's profile.

Consider more examples:

an angel of a girl
that bastard of a man

Parataxis constructional schemas

Parataxis relation can be viewed in linguistic expressions which are simply lined up, one after the other, with no conceptual integration. Clauses and sentences in the text can be lined up in this way. Consider *I came, I saw, I conquered*. The speaker could have chosen to overtly mark the relations between the clauses, by means of linking elements such as *then* and *finally*. Without these overt connectors, the relations between the clauses have to be inferred by the hearer.

SENTENCE TYPOLOGY IN COGNITIVE GRAMMAR: CLAUSE TYPES AND CLAUSE STRUCTURE

J.R. Taylor proposes the sentence typology: all the sentences can be classed into single clauses and constructions which are built as combinations of clauses. The main criterion for further division becomes the degree of integration between clauses. The merit of this classification is that it is based on correlation between formal syntactic properties of the sentences and processes of conceptual operations (basically, conceptual integration) which enable the creation of the sentences. The classification is also aimed to show that the distinctions between clause types form a continuum rather than discreet categories, which somehow reflects the work of the human mind.

The notion "clause" is understood as a syntactic structure which designates a single process and should be distinguished from clause fusion – a case of clause combination, based on conceptual and syntactic integration, though both the structures reveal the "syntax of the simple sentence". Compare: *These cars are expensive. These cars are expensive to repair.* The clause fusion construction can be "unpacked" into two independent clauses, designating two different processes.

Clauses, clause structure

J.R. Taylor defines the clause as a linguistic structure that designates a process, created through the elaboration of the participants in a temporal relation. He observes the internal structure of the clause – its participants, the semantic role of the participants, and their syntactic expression, in relation to the kinds of

situations (processes) that clauses designate. The said properties are the basic parameters of clause classification.

According to the process type clauses are classed into those which designate:

- dynamic processes (processes in which something happens, they are change-of-state processes (1-3) and energy input processes (4-5)),

e.g.: 1.The house collapsed.
2. The farmer shot the rabbit.
3. I gave Peter the book.
4. The telephone rang.
5. The light flashed.

- stative processes (there is neither energy input, nor change; a situation simply exists, where certain properties are attributed to an entity (6-7), the disposition of one entity with respect to the other is stated (8-9), an entity is identified (10-11)),

e.g.: 6. The book is 200 pages long.
7.The book is boring.
8. The road follows the river.
9. The picture hangs above the sofa.
10. The cat is the one that stole the liver.
11. The photographer was Beryl.

- cognitive processes (mental and perceptual processes, which can be described in terms of dynamic cognitive processes (12-13) and stative cognitive processes (14-15)),

e.g.: 12. I watched the film.
13. The noise frightened me.
14. I liked the film.
15. I'm afraid of the dark.

-complex processes (processes which are made up of 2 or more component processes),

e.g.: 16. Jane returned the book to the library.
17. They elected him president.
18. I broke the vase.

(The analysis of complex processes in terms of component processes is justified in that it is sometimes possible to focus on just one component in contrast to the process in its totality, e.g.:

19. I almost broke the vase.
20. They didn't elect Joe president.)

According to the number of participants clauses are classed into one-participant clauses (Intransitives), two-participant clauses (Transitives), three-participant clauses (Double-object clauses). J.R. Taylor addresses the semantic roles of participants and their semantic expression in the clause. The question under discussion is how a participant with a certain semantic role (Agent, Patient, etc) is mapped in to the syntax, that is into particular grammatical relation (subject, direct object, etc.).

Among the semantic roles of the participants J.R. Taylor distinguishes: Agent, Instrument (dynamic processes)
Mover – an entity which changes its location, e.g.: The guests departed (dynamic processes),

Patient - an entity which is affected by the process designated by the verb; the entity may undergo a change in state, it may occupy a new location, it can change ownership, etc, e.g.: John opened the door, The child put her toys away, The building collapsed (dynamic processes),
Locatives – Place, Source, Goal, Path, e.g.: In the study (Place), I moved the books from the table (Source), I put my affairs in order (Goal) (dynamic or stative processes),

Experiencer – an animate entity which is the locus of a cognitive activity or a cognitive state, e.g.: I know, I itch, I heard the noise (cognitive processes),
Stimulus – an entity which causes a cognitive activity or state in the Experiencer, e.g.: I heard the noise; The noise startled me (cognitive processes),
Zero – a participant which merely exists or exhibits a property, but does not interact with another entity, e.g.: Alice is asleep, The book costs 50 pounds (stative processes).

One –participant clause (intransitive) presents a situation as involving only one participant, which is an Experiencer or Zero, a Mover and Patient. There are three types of intransitives: unergatives (a), unaccusatives (b), middles (c):

a) The telephone rang. The child slept;
b) The guests departed. The building collapsed;
c) The book sold well. The car drives smoothly. The ice-cream scoops out easily. The poem doesn't translate. The food won't keep. The dirt brushes off easily. I don't photograph very well.

In (a) the subject exhibits the role of Zero (or Experiencer (the child)), in (b) the subject is a Mover, in (c) the subject is a Patient-like entity.

Two- participant clause (transitive) prototypically involves the transfer of energy from an Agent (the subject) to a Patient (the object), e.g.: The farmer shot the rabbit. The prototypical transitive clause can also be made passive, e.g.: The rabbit was shot by the farmer. A remarkable fact about the schema for a prototypical transitive clause is that it accommodates all manner of relations between entities. The following examples exhibit this fact, though exhibiting fewer and fewer characteristics of a transitive interaction:

I remember the event.
My car burst a tyre.
The road follows the river.
Joe resembles his grandfather.
The road crosses the railway line.

The examples also illustrate a point that the subject can instantiate all manner of participant roles, in addition to its prototypical use to designate an Agent. What unifies the subject is its function – to designate the more prominent entity in the conceptualization.

Three-participant clause (double-object clause) is a clause where a second post-verbal object is obligatory, its presence determines the existence of the clause as such, e.g.:

I'll mail you the report.

I'll bake you a cake.

The three participants are the Agent, the thing that undergoes changes at the hands of the Agent, and the person which benefits from the change (Beneficiary). Characteristic of this clause type is that the Beneficiary is construed as the Patient of the interaction and it appears immediately after the verb, as the verb's object (it means that "my" action directly affects "you", in that "you" come to receive the report). In the clause we have the two objects, the syntax doesn't "allow" to omit the intermediate element (Patient) in the action chain (Agent- Patient- Beneficiary) while profiling the relation between the initial and final elements (Agent and Beneficiary) by means of placing the Beneficiary immediately after the verb. In this respect the syntax bears the restrictions imposed by the action chain hierarchy – our mind permits this kind of profile of the situation but can't leave out the essential, the real patient. Otherwise the object "you" appears as the real patient, which invokes a different situation type.

The same situation can be conceptualized in an alternative way, e.g.:

I'll mail the report to you.

I'll bake a cake for you.

Here the Patient is the thing that undergoes changes due to the action of the Agent. The Beneficiary appears in the prepositional phrase, which is often optional, e.g.: I'll mail the report – is acceptable. Thus, this construction can't be viewed as a prototypical double-object clause because, strictly speaking, it illustrates a two-participant interaction, profiling the relation between the initial and intermediate elements of the action chain and leaving out the final element. This type of clause, probably, takes the intermediate position between prototypical two-participant clauses (prototypical transitive constructions) and prototypical three-participant clauses, due to the double interpretation of "you", i.e. either as a Path κGoal or Benificiary, accordingly.

The existence of the two constructions for description of the same situation illustrates a point that the object can instantiate not only the Patient, its prototypical use, but also some other semantic roles.

Clause combination, integration of clauses

There are several ways of combining clauses into larger units. The criterion which is used for classification of clause combinations is the degree of integration between clauses. J.R. Taylor distinguishes minimal integration, coordination, subordination, complementation, clause fusion which reveals the highest degree of integration.

Minimal integration. Two clauses are simply juxtaposed, with no overt linking, e.g.: I came, I saw, I conquered. The clauses are in sequential relation to each other – the first mentioned was the first to occur.

Coordination. Each clause could in principle stand alone as an independent conceptualization. The clauses are linked by means of words such as *and, but, or,*

e.g.: She prefers fish, and/but I prefer pasta. A slightly higher degree of integration is possible if both clauses share the same subject, e.g.: I went up to him and asked the way.

Subordination. Here, there are two clauses, but one is understood in terms of a relation (temporal, causal, etc)to each other. Typical subordinators are *after, if, whenever, although.*

Complementation represents a closer integration of clauses. in that one clause functions as a participant in another. There are different syntactic forms that a complement clause can take. A complement clause functions as the subject or the object of the main verb. The complement clause may appear as:

- an infinitive without *to*, e.g.: I saw them break into the house;
- "to"-infinitive, e.g.: To finish it in time was impossible. I advise you to wait a while. I want to go there myself;
- "ing"-form of the verb, e.g.: I avoided meeting them. I can't imagine him saying that;
- subordinate clause, introduced by *that* or question words e.g.: I hope that we will see each other again soon, I wonder what we should do.

The highest degree of integration (clause fusion) occurs when two clauses fuse into a single clause, e.g.: These cars are expensive to repair. One could "unpack" this sentence into two independent clauses, designating two different processes: "someone repairing the cars" and "this process is expensive". In the example the two clausal conceptions have fused into one. We characterize the cars as "expensive" with respect to a certain process.

SEMANTICS OF THE CONSTRUCTIONS IN COGNITIVE GRAMMAR

A.Goldberg argues that constructions are conventionalized pieces of grammatical knowledge and they exist independently of the particular lexical items which instantiate them. The constructions brought under her observation are: ditransitive construction, caused-motion construction, resultative construction, way construction.

Constructional meanings can be generally captured by skeletal structures, e.g.: " X causes Y to receive Z", "X causes Y to move Z". Constructions are associated with a family of closely related senses, i.e. the same form is paired with different but related senses. A. Goldberg makes proposals for how to relate verb and construction and for constraints on that relation. To capture the semantic constraints on constructions A. Goldberg brings into focus the analysis of the systemic metaphors which play a significant role in the semantics of constructions.

Ditransitive Construction

The central sense of the construction is argued to involve transfer between a volitional agent and a willing recipient: the actual successful transfer:
Subject (Agent)- Predicate (Cause-Receive)- Object 1 (Recipient)- Object 2 (Patient), e.g.: *Joe loaned Bob a lot of money.*

The metaphorical extension of the semantic structure of the Ditransitive Construction is based on the systemic metaphors and includes the following senses:

causal events as transfers: e.g.: *The rain brought us some time. The music lent the party a festive relief.*;

communication as "reception", communication is understood as "traveling across" from the stimulus to the listener, e.g.: *She told Jo a fairy tale. She wired Jo a message.*

perception as "reception", perceptions are understood as entities which move toward the perceiver: e.g.: *He showed Bob the view.*

actions as "reception entities", which are understood as intentionally directed at another person and transferred to that person, e.g.: *She blew him a kiss. She gave him a wink.*

facts and assumptions as objects which are given: e.g.: *I'll give you that assumption.*

Semantic constraints which license the use of verb in the construction concern the semantic roles of agent and recipient.

Constraint on the Agent: the referent designated by the subject must be a volitional agent. The agent may also reveal no volitionality, e.g. in the cases when causal events are construed as transfers due to a conventional systemic metaphor. (The metaphor licenses more abstract senses into semantics of the Ditransitive Construction.) *Mary accidentally murdered Jane. She gave me the flue.* Here the effect of the causal event is construed as an object which is transferred. The given examples imply that the subject is the cause of the first object being affected in some way by "receiving" the second object: *The rain brought us some time.* - *The rain* (cause - as agent), *us* (affected entity - as recipient), *some time* (effect - as patient).

Constraint on the Recipient: the referent designated by the first object must be a "willing" recipient, i.e. willing to accept or potentially able to accept the transferred object in order for transfer to be successful, e.g.: *Bill gave Chris a headache.* In this aspect the sentences *Bill told Mary a story, but she wasn't listening.* and *Bill threw the coma victim a blanket.* are impossible. The prototypical "willing" recipient is an animate being. The rest cases are viewed as metaphorical extension, e.g.: *The paint job gave the car a higher sale price.*

The semantic constraints relate verb and construction and are true for the central sense of the Ditransitive Construction "the actual successful transfer", the other, non-prototypical senses are viewed as extensions from the basic sense as licensed by the systemic metaphors.

Caused-Motion Construction

The Caused-Motion Construction is defined structurally as
Subject - Predicate (nonstative verb) - Object - Obl (directional phrase).
The semantics of the construction is argued to involve the causer that directly causes the theme to move along a path designated by the directional phrase:
Subject (Cause) - Predicate (Cause-Move) - Object (Theme) - Obl (Goal), e.g.: *They laughed the poor guy out of the room. They sprayed the paint onto the wall.*

The construction is associated with a category of related senses:

A. X causes Y to move Z:
Frank pushed it into the box.

B. X causes Y to move Z (verbs encode a communicative act):
Sam asked (ordered, invited, urged) him into the room.

C. X enables Y to move Z (verbs encode the removal of the barrier):
Sam let (allowed, freed, released) him into the room.

D. X prevents Y from moving Z (is understood as imposition of the barrier, causing the patient to stay in a location despite its inherent tendency to move):
Harry locked Joe into the bathroom. He kept her at arm's length.

D. X helps Y to move Z (involves ongoing assistance to move in a certain direction):
Sam helped (assisted, guided, showed) him into the living room.

The central sense of the construction is A sense. It involves manipulative causation and actual movement, which has been suggested as the most basic causative situation.

Semantic constraints are proposed to explain idiosyncrasy in pairs with relative verbs, e.g.: *Pat coaxed him into the room.* – sounds correct, while *Pat encouraged him into the room.* – does not.

Constraint on the Causer: the causer argument can be an agent or a natural force, e.g.: *Chris pushed the piano up the stairs.*
The wind blew the ship off the course.

Constraints on Direct Causation (constraints on what kind of situations (causations) can be encoded by the Caused-Motion Construction):

I. No Mediating Cognitive Decision: no cognitive decision can mediate between the causing event and the entailed motion, e.g.: *Sam frightened (coaxed, lured) Bob out of the room.*

II. The Implication of Actual Motion: if motion is not strictly entailed, it must be presumed as an implication (implication can be determined pragmatically), e.g.: *Sam asked (invited, urged) him into the room. Sam allowed (permitted) him into the house.*

III. Conventionalized Causations - causations which involve an intermediate cause, i.e. are indirect, but cognitively packaged as a single event, i.e. their internal structure is ignored, e.g.: *The invalid owner ran his favorite horse (in the race). The company flew her to Chicago for an interview.*

IV. Incidental Motion Causations: incidental motion must be effected as a result of the activity causing the change of state which is performed in a conventional way or with the intention of causing the motion. It means that the path of motion may be specified and the causation may be encoded by the Caused-Motion Construction, e.g.: *The butcher sliced the salami onto the wax paper. Sam shredded the papers into the garbage pail.* The action performed by the agent typically implies some predictable incidental motion.

V. Path of Motion: the path of motion must be completely determined by the causal force. The causing event must determine the entire path of motion, even though actual physical contact is not maintained over the entire path. Which paths count as "completely determined" is in part a matter of pragmatics. If the action is interpreted to be the driving force determining the particular path of motion, the motion can be said as "completely determined" by the action, e.g.: *He shoved the cart down the incline. They laughed the poor guy into his car.*

The semantic constraints have been proposed in an attempt to show principled patterns where there seems to be idiosyncrasy. These constraints have been argued to involve a combination of lexical semantics and general world knowledge.

Resultative Construction

The Resultative Construction is argued to be a metaphorical extension of the caused-motion construction. The semantics of the construction involves the patient, that is why resultatives can only be applied to arguments which potentially undergo a change of state as a result of the action denoted by the verb. Resultatives can apply to:

- direct objects of some transitive verbs, e.g.: *I had brushed my hair smooth. You killed it stone-dead.;*
- subjects of particular intransitive verbs, e.g.: *The river froze solid.;*
- "fake" objects, i.e. post-verbal arguments that do not bear the normal argument relation to the verb, e.g.: *She laughed herself crooked.*

Thus, resultative construction can be defined as
Subject (Agent) – Predicate (Cause-Become) – Object (Patient) – Obl-adjective or prepositional phrase (Result-Goal) for transitive resultatives, and
Subject (Patient) – Predicate (Become) – Obl (Result-Goal) for intransitive resultatives.

Semantic constraints are proposed to explain extensions.

(Animate) Instigator Constraint: ,subject in the 2-argument resultative construction must hold the role of an (animate) instigator and it is not necessarily an agent, since no volitionality is required, e.g.: *She coughed herself sick.* Inanimate instigators are also possible, e.g.: *The alarm clock ticked the baby awake*. Instrument subjects are not possible, e.g.: * *The hammer pounded the metal flat.*

Aspectual Constraint: the change of state must occur simultaneously with the endpoint of the action denoted by the verb. This constraint rules out cases in which there is any time delay between the action denoted by the verb and the subsequent change of state, e.g.: *He ate himself sick.* (implies that the agent's continuous eating made him sick).

End-of-Scale Constraint: the endpoint must be clearly delimited. It may be on some absolute scale (in this case nongradable adjectives are used) or on a scale of functionality, in which case continued functioning is impossible beyond it. Most of the adjectives which can occur in the construction are nongradable. If gradable

adjectives are used they receive a nongradable interpretation, e.g.: *He talked himself hoarse.* (implies that the patient argument has "gone over edge" beyond the point where normal functioning is possible). The type of adjectives that occur as a resultative is fairly limited. The adjectives which occur regularly are: *asleep/awake, open/shut, flat/straight/smooth, free, full/empty, dead/alive, sick, hoarse, sober, crazy.*

The resultatives cannot be adjectives derived from either present or past participles, e.g.: * *She kicked the door opening.* * *She kicked the door opened.* The restriction has been attributed to a semantic clash of aspect.

"Way" Construction

The "Way" Construction is generally used to render literal or metaphorical motion, e.g.: *Frank dug his way out of the prison. The players will maul their way up the middle of the field. Their customers snorted and injected their way to oblivion. Lord King ... joked and blustered his way out of trouble at the meeting.* The verbs cannot be used with other than "way" valences: * *Chris mauled / bludgeoned into the room.* The same is not true of verbs which clearly do lexically code literal or metaphorical motion, e.g.: *to inch* and *to worm* – *Lucky may have inched ahead of Black Stallion. He can't worm out of that station.*

The "Way" Construction admits two interpretations: means interpretation as a basic one and manner interpretation as extension (means interpretation diachronically preceded the manner interpretation by several centuries).

The Means Interpretation: Creation of a Path

This interpretation means that the path through which motion takes place is not preestablished, but rather is created by some action of the subject referent. In other words the motion must be through a literal or metaphorical self-created path, e.g.: *Sally made way into the room.* – implies that Sally moved through a crowd or other obstacles.

The most common interpretation involves motion through a crowd, mass, obstacle, e.g.: *He pushed his way past the others. Troops have been shooting their way through angry, unarmed mobs.* Another interpretation (a metaphorical case) involves situations in which a path may need to be created, if there are social obstacles standing in the way, e.g.: *Joe bought his way into the exclusive country club.*

The semantics of the construction involves both the creation of a path and movement along that path and can be defined as **Subject (Creator-Theme) – Predicate (Create-Move) – Object *way* (Createe-Way) – Obl (Path).** The means interpretation of the construction always entails that the subject referent moves despite external difficulty or in some indirect way. Thus, "way" is a meaningful element, designating the path of motion.

The Manner Interpretation

This interpretation does not imply external difficulties, there is no necessary implication that a path must be created. The subject referent moves along a pre-established path, e.g.: *They were clanging their way up and down the narrow streets.*

He was scowling his way along the fiction shelves in a pursuit of a book. The "way" phrase is not represented in the semantics of the construction. but is syntactically encoded into the form of the direct object complement.

Semantic constraints

Unbounded Activity (for both interpretations): the verb neccssarily designates a repeated action or unbounded activity, e.g.: *Firing wildly, Jones shot his way through the crowd. He hiccupped his way out of the room.*

Self-Propelled Motion (for the means interpretation): motion must be self-propelled. The constraint rules out unaccusative verbs, as unaccusativity correlates with lack of agentivity or lack of self-initiation, e.g.: *The bank-debt restructuring is the centerpiece of Lomas Financial's month-long efforts to shrink its way back to profitability after '2 years of heavy losses.* But * *The wood burns its way to the ground.*

Directed Motion (mostly for the means interpretation): the motion must be directed – it cannot be aimless, e.g.: *She shoved her way through the crowd.*

The Way Construction is available for use with a wide variety of verbs (compare "resultatives" and "fake object resultatives" which are highly restrictive). The Way Construction is directly associated with a certain semantics independently of the lexical items which instantiate it.

EVENT INTEGRATION IN SYNTAX

The notions "event integration" and "macro-event". Linguistic patterns for the representation of macro–events

In the conceptual organization of language there is a certain type of event complex. On the one hand, the event complex can be conceptualized as composed of two simple events and relation between them and expressed by a complex sentence. On the other hand, the event complex can be conceptualized as a single event and expressed by a simple sentence. L. Talmy proposed the term "event integration" to identify the process of conceptual fusion of distinct events into a unitary one.

The different ways of conceptualization of the same content is viewed in the alternative linguistic patterns:

a complex sentence consisting of a main clause (representing a main event) and a subordinate clause that has a subordinating conjunction (representing a subordinate event, which bears a particular kind of semantic relation to the main event);

a simple sentence. Compare:

a) The aerial toppled because I did smth. to it (e.g. because I threw a rock at it).

b) I toppled the aerial.

Sentence (a) manifests a causal sequence of separate events, sentence (b) manifests the same content as a unitary event.

There is a generic category of complex events that is prone to conceptual integration and representation by a single clause. L. Talmy calls this type of complex events a **macro-event** and distinguishes the following event- types: Motion, Change of State, Temporal Contouring, Action Correlation. Realization. Within the macro-event there should be distinguished: a **framing event** (can be compared to the main event, expressed by the main clause within a complex sentence) and a **co-event** (can be compared to the subordinate event, expressed by the subordinate clause within a complex sentence).

The framing event constitutes an event schema, which schematizes the macro-event as Motion, Change of State, etc. The co-event constitutes an event of circumstance within the macro-event and bears the support relation to the framing event. The support relations include those of Cause, Manner, Precursion, Enablement, Concomitance, Purpose and Constitutiveness. The most frequent among these are Cause and Manner.

The conceptual structure of the macro-event is mapped onto syntactic structure. In English the framing event (or rather the event schema) is expressed by the satellite, while the co-event – by the main verb. The satellite is the grammatical category of any constituent other than a nominal or prepositional- phrase complement that is in a sister relation to the verb root. In English they are verb particles, prefixes, resultatives (formally adjectives). Although, the event schema is largely expressed by the satellite alone, it can be also expressed by a combination of a prepositional phrase containing a "locative noun", e.g.:

1. The coin melted free (from the ice).- satellite (resultative);
2. He waved us into the hall. – prepositional phrase, containing a "locative noun";
3. He came back. – satellite;
4. He drove her home. – satellite.

State change as the framing event

The macro-event framed by a state change event consists of a co-event (any process or activity that determines the dynamics of the macro-event and causes a change in some of its property) and a framing event "state change", which announces the result or final stage of the dynamics of the macro-event.

The analysis of linguistic expressions suggests that the schema of the macro-event is that of the motion event: "Path" or "Path κ Ground". Within the structure of the macro-event, state change as a framing event is more abstract than a co-event and often involves change in an individual's cognitive state. For example, state changes may include "to become awake / aware / familiar / in possession / existent / nonexistent / dead etc. The co-event is concrete and physical (compare the verb predicates in the examples below). The most prevalent type of relation between a co-event and framing event are the same as with the case of motion (Manner and Cause).

Action correlating as the framing event

The macro-event framed by an action correlating event consists of a particular activity performed by some agency (a co-event) which is associated with another activity performed by a different agency (a framing event). The framing event (the second activity) is either comparable to or complementary to the co-event (the first activity). The support relation between the co-event and the framing event is that of Constitutiveness, e. g.:

1. I met John (it means, that John is also engaged in the action of meeting me).
2. I ate with Jane.
3. I threw the ball to John.
4. I ran after Jane.

There are 3 types of action correlating, schematizing the macro-event in English: concert, accompaniment, surpassment.

GLOSSARY

Назарий грамматикага оид таянч атамалар луғати

English	Uzbek	Russian
Ablative	Аблатив келишик	Аблативный падеж
Absolute	Абсолют, мустақил, мутлақ	Абсолютный
Abstract	Мавҳум	Отвлечённый, абстрактный
Accent	Урғу, акцент	Ударение, акцент
Accidence	Америка ва Британия тилшунослигида бу атама орқали грамматиканинг морфология қисмни тушунилади.	Словоизменение, морфология
Accommodation	Мослашув	Аккомодация
Accusative	Аккузатив келишик	Винительный падеж
Active	Фаол, аник	Действительный
Active voice	Аниқ даража	Действительный залог
Adjective	Сифат	Прилагательное
Adjunct	қарам сўз	Ведомое (подчинённое) слово
Adverb	Равиш	Наречие
Adverbial	Равиш орқали ифодаланган	Наречный
Adversative	Зид	Противительный
Affix	Аффикс, кўшимча	Аффикс
Agent	Иш бажарувчи	Деятель
Agglomerating (languages)	Мужассамлаштирувчи тиллар	Инкорпорирующие языки
Agglutination	Агглютинация	Агглютинация
Agglunative languages	Агглютинатив тиллар (туркий ва фин-угор тиллари)	Агглютинативные языки
Agreement	Мослашув	Согласование
Allomorph	Алломорф, морфеманинг бир кўриниши	Алломорф
Alphabet	Алфавит, алифбо	Алфавит
Alternative	Танлов, альтернатив	Альтернативный
Analysis	Таҳлил	Анализ
Analytic (languages)	Аналитик (тиллар)	Аналитические языки

Anaphora	Анафора	Анафора
Anaphoric	Анафорик, кўрсатиш	Анафорический, указательный
Animate	Жонли	Одушевлённый
Animate nouns	Жонли отлар	Одушевлённое имя существительное
Antithesis	Антитеза	Антитеза
Antonym	Антоним, зид	Антоним
Apostrophe	Апостроф	Апостроф
Applied	Амалий	Прикладной
Applied linguistics	Амалий тилшунослик	Прикладное языкознание
Apposition	Изоҳловчи	Приложение
Archaic	Архаик, қадимий	Архаический
Archaism	Архаизм	Архаизм
Area	Худуд	Ареал
Areal linguistics	Ареал (худуд) тилшунослик	Ареальная лингвистика
Article	Артикл	Артикль
Artificial (language)	Суъний (тиллар)	Искусственные (языки)
Aspect	Аспект	Вид
Assimilation	Ассимиляция	Ассимиляция
Assumptive	Тахминий	Предположительный
Attribute	Аниқловчи	Определение
Auxiliary	Ёрдамчи	Вспомогательный
Auxiliary verb	Ёрдамчи феъл	Вспомогательный глагол
Baby-word	Болалар тили	Детский язык
Base	Асос	База
Basic	Асосий	Основной
Basis	Асос	База
Bilingualism	Икки тиллик	Двуязычие
Bilateral	Икки томонлама	Двусторонний
Binary	Бинар, икки томонлама	Бинарный
Borrowed word	Ўзлаштирма сўз	Заимствованное
Borrowing	Ўзлаштириш	Заимствование
Calque	Калька	Калька
Cardinal number	Саноқ сон	Количественное числительное
Case-ending	Келишик кўшимчаси	Падежное окончание
Causal clause	Сабаб эргаш гап	Предложение причины
Causative	Каузатив	Каузатив
Circumstantial	Хол, холга оид	Обстоятельственный
Classical	Классик, мумтоз	Классический
Clause	Гап	Предложение

Cognate	қариндош	Родственный
Cognate object	Ўхшаш тылдировчи	Винительный внутреннего объекта
Colloquial	Оғзаки	Устный
Combination	Бирикма	Комбинация
Common	Умумий	Общий
Common noun	Турдош от	Нарицательное имя
Comparative philology	Қиёсий филология	Сравнительно-сопоставительная филология
Comparison	Қиёслаш	Сравнение
Complement	Тўлдирувчи	Дополнение
Compound sentences	Боғланган қўшма гап	Сложно - сочинённое предложение
Concord	Мослашув	Согласование
Concordance	Келишув	Соответствие
Concrete	Аниқ	Конкретный
Conditional	Шартли	Условный
Conditional clause	Шарт эргаш гап	Придаточное предложение
Conjugation	Туслаиш	Спряжение
Conjunction	Боғловчи	Союз
Conjunctive	Боғловчили	Соединительный
Connecting vowel	Боғловчи унли	Соединительный гласный
Connecting word	Богловчи сўз	Соединяющее слово
Connection	Боғланиш	Сосдинение
Contents	Мундарижа	Содержание
Continuous	Давомий	Длительный
Contracted	Қисқартирилган	Стяженный
Contrasting stress	Контраст урғу	Контрастное ударение
Coordinate	Боғланган	Сочинительный
Coordination	Тенг боғланиш	Сочинение
Coordinating conjunction	Тенг Боғловчи	Сочинительный союз
Correlative	Ўзаро боғланган, корреляция	Соотносительный
Correspondence	Уйғун, мос	Соответствие
Creolized languages	Креол тиллар	Креольские языки
Dative	Датив келишик	Дательный падеж
Dead language	Ўлик тил	Мёртвый язык
Declension	Турланиш	Склонение
Definite	Аниқ	Определённый
Definite article	Аниқ артикл	Определённый артикль
Degree of comparison	Сифат даражали	Степень сравнения
Deictic	Дейктик, кўрсатиш	Дейктический

Deictic function	Кўрсатиш функцияси	Дейктическая функция
Demonstrative pronoun	Кўрсатиш олмошлари	Указательное местоимение
Dependent	Тобе	Зависимый
Derivation	Сўз ясаш	Деривация
Determinative	Аниқловчи	Определительный
Determining	Аниқловчи	Определяющий
Diachrony	Диахрония, тарихий	Диахрония
Dialect	Диалект, шева	Диалект
Differentiation	Фарқлаш	Расподобление
Direct	Воситали	Прямой
Direct object	Воситали тўлдирувчи	Прямое дополнение
Discourse	Нутк	Речь
Disjunctive	Ажратувчи	Разделительный
Distributive	Дистрибутив	Дистрибутивный
Double	Жуфт	Двойной
Dual number	Иккилик сони	Двойственное число
Duration	Давомийлик	Длительность
Durative	Давомий	Длительный
Dynamic	Динамик	Динамический
Element	Элемент, бирлик	Элемент
Emphasis	Ажратиб кўрсатиш	Выделение
Emphatic	Эмфатик	Эмфатический
Empty word	Маъносиз сўз	Пустое слово
Ending	Қўшимча	Конец слова, окончание
Ergative	Эргатив	Эргатив
Etymological	Этимологик	Этимологический
Etymology	Этимология	Этимология
Euphemism	Эвфемизм	Эвфемизм
Evolution	Эволюция	Развитие, эволюция
Excessive	Олий даража	Чрезмерная степень
Exclamation	Ундов	Восклицание
Exclusive	Истисно	Эксклюзивный
Expression	Ибора, ифода	Выражение
Expressive	Ифодали	Экспрессивный
Falling	Пасаювчи	Нисходящий
Falling tone	Пасаювчи интонация	Нисходящий тон
Family of languages	Тиллар оиласи	Семья языков
Feminine	Аёлларга хос	Женский
Finite verb	Феълнинг аниқ формаси	Финитные формы глагола
Folk etymology	Халқ этимологияси	Народная этимология
Form	Шакл	Форма
Function	Функция, вазифа	Функция
Functional	Вазифали	Функциональный

Fundamental meaning	Асосий маъно	Основное значение
Fusion	Фузия	Фузия
Future	Келаси	Будущее время
Gender	Жинс (грамматика)	Род
Genderless	Жинси йўқ	Неродовой
General linguistics	Умумий тилшунослик	Общее языковедение
Genitive	қаратқич келишиги	Родительный падеж
Gerund	Герундий	Герундий
Glossematics	Глоссематика	Глоссематика
Glosseme	Глоссема	Глоссема
Govern	Бошқармоқ	Управлять
Governing	Бошқарувчи	Управление
Government	Бошқарув	Управление
Grammar	Грамматика	Грамматика
Grammatical	Грамматика оид	Грамматический
Grammatical analysis	Грамматик таҳлил	Грамматический анализ
Grammatical categories	Грамматик категориялар	Грамматические категории
Grammatical gender	Грамматик жинс	Грамматический род
Grammaticalisation	Грамматикалаштириш	Грамматикализация
Haplology	Гаплология	Гаплология
Harmony	Гармония, мос келиш	Гармония
Heterogeneous	Турдош бўлмаган	Разнородовое
Heterosyllabic	Турли бўғин турлари	Гетеросиллабический
Historic (al)	Тарихий	Исторический
Historical grammar	Тарихий грамматика	Историческая грамматика
Homonym	Омоним	Омоним
Homophone	Омофон	Омофон
Hyperbole	Гипербола	Гипербола
Hypotaxis	Гипотаксис, эргаш кўшма гап	Гипотаксис
Hypothetical	Гипотетик, тахминий	Гипотетический
Ideogram	Идеограмма	Идеограмма
Idiom	Идиома	Идиома
Immediate	Бевосита	Непосредственный
Imperative	Буйрук	Повелительный
Imperative mood	Буйрук майли	Повелительное наклонение
Impersonal	Шахси ифодаланмаган	Неличный
Implication	Импликация, шаъма қилиш	Импликация
Inanimate	Жонсиз	Неодушевлённый
Inanimate noun	Жонсиз от	Неодушевлённое имя существительное

Inclusion	Ўз ичига олиш	Включение
Indeclinable	Тусланмайдиган	Несклоняемый
Indefinite	Ноаник	Неопределённый
Indefinite article	Ноаник артикл	Неопределённый артикль
Independent	Мустақил	Независимый
Indicative mood	Аниқлик майли	Изъявительное наклонение
Indirect	Воситасиз	Косвенный
Indirect speech	Ўзлаштирма гап	Косвенная речь
Indo-European languages	Хинд – Европа тиллари	Индоевропейские языки
Infinitive	Инфинитив, харакат номи	Инфинитив
Infix	Ички қўшимча	Инфикс
Inflexion	Қўшимча	Окончание
Inner form	Ички шакл	Внутренняя форма
Instrumental case	Инструментал келишик	Творительный падеж
Intensity	Интенсивлик тезлик	Интенсивность
Interjection	Ундов сўзлар	Междометие
Interrogative	Сўроқ	Вопросительный
Intonation	Оханг, интонация	Интонация
Intransitive	Ўтимсиз	Непереходный
Invariable	Ўзгармас, тусланмас	Неизменяемый
Inversion	Ўринни алмаштириш	Инверсия
Irregular	Нотўғри	Неправильный
Irrelevant	Ахамиятсиз	Нерелевантный
Isolating languages	Ажратувчи тиллар	Изолирующие языки
Jargon	Жаргон	Жаргон
Juxtaposed	Ёнма-ён қўйилган	Соположенное слово
Language	Тил	Язык
Lateral	Ён	Боковой
Length	Узунлик	Длительность
Lengthened forms	Узайтирилган шакл	Протяжённые формы
Lexical	Лексик, сўзга оид	Лексический
Lexicography	Лексикография	Лексикография
Lexicology	Лексикология	Лексикология
Lineal	Бир чизигда кетма-кет ёзилган	Линейный
Lingual	Тилга оид	Свойственный языку
Linguistic comparison	Тилга оид киёслаш	Лингвистическое сравнение
Linguistic family	Тиллар оиласи	Семья языков
Linguistic geography	Лингвистик география	Лингвистическая география
Living language	Тирик (жонли) тиллар	Живой язык

Loan-word	Ўзлаштирма-сўз	Заимствование
Local languages	Маҳаллий тиллар	Местные языки
Locative Case	Ўрин-пайт келишиги	Местный падеж
Logical	Мантиқий	Логический
Main	Асосий	Главный
Main clause	Бош гап	Главное предложение
Main stress	Асосий урғу	Главное ударение
Mark	Белги	Признак
Masculine	Эркак жинс	Мужской род
Meaning	Маъно	Значение
Measure	Ўлчов	Размер
Media	Восита	Средство
Melody	Оҳанг	Мелодика
Metaphor	Метафора	Метафора
Metathesis	Метатеза	Метатеза
Metonymy	Метонимия	Метонимия
Mixed language	Аралаш тил	Смешанный язык
Modal	Модал	Модальный
Mode	Майл	Наклонение
Monosyllable	Бир бўғинли	Односложный
Mood	Майл	Наклонение
Morpheme	Морфема	Морфема
Morphology	Морфология	Морфология
Mother-tongue	Она тил	Родной язык
Name study	Ономастика	Ономастика
Negation	Инкор	Отрицание
Neogrammarians	Младограмматиклар	Младограмматики
Neologism	Неологизм, янги пайдо бўлган сўзлар	Неологизм
Neuter	Нейтрал	Средний, нейтральный
Neutral	Нейтрал	Средний, нейтрал
Neutralization	Нейтрализация, нейтраллаштириш	Нейтрализация
Neutralized	Нейтраллашган	Нейтрализированный
Nomenclature	Атамалар	Терминология, номенклатура
Nominal	Отга мансуб	Именной
Nominative case	Бош келишик	Именительный падеж
Notional	Мустақил	Знаменательный
Noun	От	Имя
Number	Сон, миқдор	Число, количество
Numeral	Сон	Числительное
Object	Тўлдирувчи	Дополнение
Objective case	Объект келишиги	Объектный падеж
Onamasiology	Онамасиология	Онамасиология

Onomastic	Ономастика	Ономастика
Open	Очиқ	Открытый
Open syllable	Очиқ бўғин	Открытый слог
Opposition	Оппозиция	Противопоставление
Oral	Оғзаки	Разговорный
Ordinal number	Тартиб сон	Порядковое числительное
Orthography	Орфография	Орфография
Outer form	Ташқи шакл	Внешняя форма
Paradigm	Парадигма	Парадигма
Parataxis	Паратаксис, Боғланган қўшма гап	Паратаксис
Parent language	Бобо тил	Праязык
Parts of speech	Сўз туркумлáри	Части речи
Passive voice	Мажҳул даража	Страдательный залог
Past tense	Ўтган замон	Прошедшее время
Pause	Пауза, тўхташ	Пауза
Perfect	Тугалланганлик маъноси	Совершенный
Perfective aspect	Тугалланганлик аспекти	Совершенный вид
Period	Нукта	Период
Periphrasis	Перефраз, қайта тузиш	Перифраза
Permutation	Ўрин алмаштириш	Перемещение
Person	Шахс	Лицо
Personal	Шахсий, кишилик	Личный
Personal ending	Шахс кўшимчаси	Личное окончание
Philology	Филология	Филолгия
Phone	Фон	Фон, звук речи
Phoneme	Фонема	Фонема, звук языка
Phonemics	Фонология	Фонология
Phonetic change	Фонетик ўзгариш	Звуковое измерение
Phonetic harmony	Фонетик гармония (мос келиш)	Фонетическая гармония
Phonetic law	Фонетик қонун	Фонетический закон
Phonetic transcription	Фонетик транскрипция	Фонетическая транскрипция
Phonetics	Фонетика	Фонетика
Phonology	Фонология	Фонология
Phrase	Фраза, бирикма	Фраза, словосочетание
Pleonastically	Плеонастик, икки марта	Плеонастический
Plural	Кўплик	Множественное число
Polysemy	Полисемия, кўп маънолик	Полисимия
Polysyllable	Кўп бўғинли	Многосложный
Polysynthetic (languages)	Мужассамлаштирувчи	Полисинтетические

	тиллар	языки
Position	Ўрин	Положение
Positive	Ижобий	Положительный
Possessive	караткич, эгалик	Притяжательный
Postposition	Сўздан кейин турувчи	Постпозиция
Potential	Потенциал	Потенциальный
Pre	Олд	Пре
Predicate	Кесим	Сказуемое
Predicative	Кўшма от кесимнинг от кисми	Именная часть именного составного сказуемого
Prefix	Сўз олдида турувчи кўшимча	Префикс
Preposition	Предлог	Предлог
Present tense	Ҳозирги замон	Настоящее время
Preterit	Ўтган	Претерит
Primary	Асосий, биринчи	Первичный, основной
Primary stress	Асосий ургу	Гланое ударение
Primary tenses	Асосий замонлар	Главное время
Primary word	Асосий сўз	Корневое слово
Principal	Бош, асосий	Главный
Process	Жараён	Процесс
Proclitic elements	Проклитик элементлар	Проклитические элементы
Progressive	Давом этувчи харакат	Прогрессив
Pronoun	Олмош	Местоимение
Proper name	Атокли от	Собственное имя
Prosody	Просодия	Просодия
Qualitative stress	Сифат ургуси	Качественное ударение
Quality	Сифат	Качество
Quantitative stress	Микдор ургуси	Количественное ударение
Quantity	Микдор	Количество
Reciprocal	Биргалик	Взаимный
Reduced form	кискартирилган шакл	Редуцированная форма
Reduction	Редукция	Редукция
Redundance	Ошиқ, кўп	Избыточное
Redundant	Керадиган кўп	Избыточно-возвратный
Reduplication	Такрор	Повтор
Reflexive	Ўзлик	Возвратный
Regression	Пасайиш	Регрессия
Regressive	Регрессив	Регрессивный
Regular	Одатий, тўғри	Правильный
Relation	Муносабат	Отношение
Relationship	Муносабат	Отношение

Relationship of languages	Тилларнинг қардошлиги	Родство языков
Relative	Нисбий	Относительный
Relevant	Ахамиятли	Релевантный
Reported speech	Ўзлаштирма гап	Косвенная речь
Rising	Кўтарилувчи	Восходящий
Rising tone	Кўтарилувчи оҳанг	Восходящий тон
Root	Ўзак	Корень
Rule	Қоида	Правило
Script	Ёзув	Письменность
Secondary stress	Иккинчи даражали урғу	Второстепенное ударение
Secondary tenses	Иккинчи даражали замонлар	Вторичные времена
Semanteme	Семантема, маъно бирлиги	Семантема
Semantic change	Маънонинг ызгариши	Изменение значения
Semantics	Семантика	Семантика
Semasiology	Семасиология	Семасиология
Sentence	Гап	Предложение
Sentence stress	Гап урғуси	Фразовое ударение
Separable compounds	Бўлинадиган бирикма	Раздельные композиты
Sequence of tenses	Замонлар мослашуви	Согласование времён
Sex gender	Табиий жинс	Биологический пол
Shift	Силжиш	Сдвиг
Shortening	Қисқартириш	Сокращение
Sign	Белги	Знак
Significance	Ащамият	Значение
Simile	Ўхшатиш	Сравнение (в стилистике)
Simple	Содда	Простой
Simple word	Содда сўз	Простое слово
Singular	Бирлик	Единственное число
Slang	Слэнг, арго	Арго, слэнг
Slavonic	Славян	Старославянский
Sound	Товуш	Звук
Sound-change	Товуш ўзгариши	Звуковое изменение
Sound-shift (ing)	Товушнинг силжиши	Мутация
Speech	Нутқ	Речь
Speed of utterance	Нутқ тезлиги	Темп речи
Spelling	Сўзнинг ёзилиши	Написание слова
Spoken language	Оғзаки нутқ	Разговорный язык
Standard	Стандарт	Норма, стандарт
State	Ҳолат	Состояние
Statement	Мулоҳаза	Высказывание
Stem	Негиз	Основа

Stop	Нуқта	Точка
Stress	Урғу	Выделение, ударение
Study of personal names	Антропонимика	Антропонимика
Style	Стиль, услуб	Стиль
Stylistics	Стилистика	Стилистика
Subject	Эга, мавзу	Подлежащее
Subordinate	Эргаш, тобе	Придаточный
Subordinate clause	Эргаш гап	Подчинённое предложение
Subordinate conjunction	Эргаш богловчи	Подчинительный союз
Subordination	Эргашиш	Подчинение
Substantive	От	Существительное
Substitution	Алмаштирш	Субституция
Suffix	Суффикс	Суффикс
Superlative	Орттирма	Превосходная степень
Supine	Супин, ҳаракат номи	Супин, инфинитив
Suppletive	Супплетив	Супплетивный
Syllabic	Бўғинли	Слоговой
Syllable	Бўғин	Слог
Symmetry	Симметрия	Симметрия
Synchrony	Синхрония	Синхрония
Synecdoche	Синекдоха	Синекдоха
Synonymy	Синоним	Синоним (ия)
Syntactic	Синтактик	Синтаксический
Syntactical	Синтаксисга оид	Синтаксический
Syntax	Синтаксис	Синтаксис
Synthesis	Синтез	Синтез
Synthetic (languages)	Синтетик тиллар	Синтетические языки
System	Тизим	Система
Taboo	Табу, маън қилинган сўзлар	Табу
Tautology	Тафтология, қайтариш	Тафтология
Temporal	Замонга хос	Временной
Tendency	Тенденция, оким	Тенденция
Tense	Замон	Время
Term	Атама	Термин
Terminative	Маъноси чекланган	Терминативный
Terminology	Терминология, атамалар билан шуғулланадиган фан	Терминология
Thematic	Тематик, мавзуга оид	Тематический
Time	Вақт	Время
Tongue	Тил	Язык (орган речи)
Traditional stress	Анъанавий урғу	Традиционное ударение
Transcription	Транскрипция	Транскрипция

Transition	Ўтиш	Переход
Transitive	Ўтимли	Переходный
Transliteration	Транслитерация	Транслитерация
Transposition	Транспозиция	Транспозиция
Trial	Учлик сони	Тройственное число
Ultimate	Сўнгги, якуний	Конечный
Unilateral	Бир томонлама	Односторонний
Unmarked	Белгисиз	Немаркированный
Unreal	Ноаник	Нереальное
Utterance	Нутк	Высказывание
Variable	Ўзгарувчан	Изменяемый
Variant	Вариант	Вариант
Verb	Феъл	Глагол
Verbal system	Феъл тизими	Глагольная система
Vocabulary	Луғат	Словарь
Weak	Кучсиз	Слабый
Weak stress	Кучсиз урғу	Ударение слабое
Weakening	Кучсизланиш	Исчезающий
Word	Сўз	Слово
Word-order	Сўз тартиби	Порядок слов
Word-stress	Сўз урғуси	Словесное ударение
Writing	Ёзув	Письменность
Zero morpheme	Нол морфема	Нулевая морфема

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Remarks

Bosishga 30.12.2011.-y.da ruxsat etildi.
Bichimi 60x84 "Times" garniturasi. Ofset bosma.
Bosma taboq 12.25 Buyurtma № 37. Adadi 100 nusxa.
MChJ "YANGIOBOD MATBAA" bosmaxonasida bosildi.