

Contrastive Grammar: Theory and Practice = Порівняльна граматики: теорія і практика: навч. посіб. / авт.-сост.: Н. Ф. Гладуш, Н. В. Павлюк; Київ. ун-т. ім. Б. Грінченка; Нац. ун-т «Кієво-Могилянська акад.» – К., 2019. – 296 с.

Навчальний посібник з порівняльної граматики англійської та української мов висвітлює теоретичні питання, які розкривають спільні та відмінні риси у структурі двох мов. Кожна тема з морфології та синтаксису супроводжується практичними завданнями, які допомагають краще зрозуміти і засвоїти матеріал. У другій частині надаються таблиці, які систематизують і класифікують явища, що вивчаються. Посібник відповідає програмі курсу «Порівняльна граматики англійської та української мов» для вищих навчальних закладів.

Розраховано на студентів спеціальності «Філологія» навчальних закладів вищої освіти, викладачів та усіх, кого цікавлять питання структурної організації мови.

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PREFACE

Language is like a human being – it never stays the same, it reacts to all that happens around, it transforms over time, and gets difficult to recognize. Like a person, it tries to find the best way to reflect reality, puts words together in a certain way, and its logic is sometimes difficult to understand. Moreover, it has its own skeleton which helps it function in the world.

All languages seem to be so different that it scares those who think of learning more of them, and still they have a lot in common. How is it possible that languages with different structures have so many similarities? What makes them look for compensation if they lack this or that structure, inflexion, suffix or any other grammatical element? Why is a table, a tree or a book are ‘he’ for some languages, and ‘she’ – for another, and some of languages do not make any difference? There are so many exciting questions that need answering if you are a real fan of linguistics.

This book tells about grammatical structures of two languages, English and Ukrainian. Specifics of different word-groups, their grammatical categories are described here: comparing nouns in these two languages you will see that they have much more in common than it may seem; looking at verbs you will be surprised what amazing things a language can do to compensate a lack of some grammatical category. Syntax, so important for all translators, appears to be both similar and different for English and Ukrainian, which makes our studies more complicated and still, more fascinating. When we read some theory, no matter how interesting it is, we need practicing to understand and remember it better. So, each unit of the book contains some practical exercises which will help you penetrate deeper into each problem and make this knowledge a solid part of your professional expertise. We also took care that the theory you study is systematized and classified, so all the material is presented in the form of tables in the second part of the book.

In training for your future work as a translator, interpreter, editor or teacher, grammar cannot be overestimated. Mastering grammar you can obtain profound knowledge of a language, realizing why grammatical structures work so and in no other way, how word-order works in languages with analytical and synthetic features, why grammar can be important for being polite and behaving properly in society.

Here we go, to the exciting new world of contrastive grammar, with all our creative energy, eager to master this subject and use this knowledge later on!

Natalia Pavliuk

UNIT 1. Introduction to Contrastive Grammar

1. Contrastive Grammar as a linguistic discipline.
2. Basic notions of Contrastive grammar.
3. Basic notions of Grammar: functions of language, language as a structure, the system of language, syntagmatic and paradigmatic relations, linguistic signs as units of two fold nature.
4. Types of Languages.

Contrastive grammar is a branch of contrastive linguistics that aims at establishing common and divergent as well as dominant and recessive features of the grammatical structure of the languages compared and determining their structural types on this basis. The number of languages subjected to typological contrasting at a time is not limited.

Contrastive investigations may be focused on various linguistic phenomena ranging from separate signs of the phonetic/ phonological, morphological, lexical or syntactic phenomena of the languages.

Contrastive grammar as a branch of linguistics employs some terms and notions of its own:

- 1) **Absolute universals** (i.e. features which are common to any languages of the world, cf. parts of speech, parts of the sentence etc.);
- 2) **Near universals**, i.e. features which are common to some languages under typological investigation;
- 3) **Metalanguage**, i.e. the language in which analysis of contrasted languages is carried out;
- 4) **Typologically dominant features**, i.e. features dominating in one/some/all the contrasted languages and predetermining its structural type as analytical or synthetic; cf. rigid word order, prominent role of prepositions in expressing case relations, word morphemes in expressing grammar categories, etc. in English and case, person, gender, number, tense etc. inflexions in Ukrainian;
- 5) **Typologically recessive features**, i.e. features losing their former dominant role; cf. case forms in English or dual number forms of some nouns in Ukrainian;
- 6) **Isomorphic features**, i.e. common features, observed in all the compared languages; cf. categories of number, person, tense, parts of speech.
- 7) **Allomorphic features**, i.e. divergent features, observed in one language and missing in others; cf. analytical verb forms in English;
- 8) **Typological constants**, i.e. features that are contrasted. The main typological constants of the English and Ukrainian morphology are: 1) morphemes; 2) parts of speech; 3) morphological categories of the parts of speech.

Contrastive typological investigations are carried out with the help of some methods. The main one is the **contrastive method**, which is also employed in historical and comparative linguistics. The main aim of the contrastive method is to establish isomorphic and allomorphic, dominant and recessive features of the languages compared and drawing conclusions as to their structural types. Comparing is done on the basis of deduction and induction. **Inductive method** draws on the empirical facts: scientists observe the facts, make conclusions and verify these conclusions by more facts. Practically, this method needs no verification since preceding generations of researchers already proved the investigated phenomena. **Deductive method** presupposes making conclusions on the basis of logical calculations, which suggest all theoretically admissible variants of realization of a certain feature in, contrasted languages and consequently need verification.

The (ICs) immediate constituents method is employed to contrast constituent parts of the language units. At the morphological level the ICs method helps determine morphemic structures of the words of the languages compared; cf. the nouns in-nova-tion-s and пере-напр-уг-a consist of 4 ICs.

Method of oppositions is used to establish grammatical categories. Opposition is made by two forms carrying two manifestations of one categorical meaning, cf. works :: is working carry two particular manifestations (non-Continuous :: continuous) of the general categorical meaning of aspect.

The term “**grammar**” goes back to a Greek word that may be translated as the “art of writing”. But later this word acquired a much wider sense and came to embrace the whole study of language. Now it is often used as the synonym of linguistics.

Language is understood as a **system of signals** (linguistic signs), interconnected and interdependent. It is this network of interdependent elements that forms the object of linguistics as an independent science. Language as a system of signals may be compared to other systems of signals, such as writing, alphabets for the deaf-and-dumb, military signals, symbolic rites, forms of courtesy, etc. Thus, language becomes the object of a more general science — **semiotics** — that studies different systems of signals used in human societies.

The difference of language and other sign systems may be presented graphically:

Language	Other Sign System
Natural	Artificial
Open	Closed
Used by all	Used by a definite group of people
A system of denotators	A system of indicators

A sign may have several meanings	A sign has one meaning
Universal	Situationally conditioned

Language has two aspects: the system of **language** (French: langue) and the manifestation of this system in social intercourse — **speech** (French: parole). The system of language is a body of linguistic units — sounds, affixes, words, grammar rules and rules of lexical series. The system of language enables us to speak and to be understood since all members of a speech community know it. Speech is the total of our utterances and texts. It is based on the system of language, and it gives the linguist the possibility of studying the system. Speech is the linear (syntagmatic) aspect of languages; the system of language is its paradigmatic aspect.

The linguistic sign is bilateral, i.e. it has both form and meaning. We understand the meaning of the linguistic sign as reflecting the elements (objects, events, situations) of the outside world.

Language is regarded as **a system of elements** (or: signs, units) such as sounds, words, etc. These elements have no value without each other, they depend on each other, they exist only in a system, and they are nothing without a system. A linguistic unit can enter into relations of two different kinds: paradigmatic and syntagmatic.

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

Semantic PRs 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.

Formal PRs are based on the similarity of forms. Such relations exist between the members of a paradigm: man — men; play — played — will play — is playing. ^[]_{SEP}

Functional PRs 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.

PRs are associated with the sphere of "language".

A linguistic unit enters into **syntagmatic relations** with other units of the same level it occurs with. SRs 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. SRs are linear relations, which are manifested in speech. Thus syntagmatic relations expose linear relationships of dissimilar units following each other in the syntagmatic chain. Such relations are obvious, seen on the surface, one can observe them in speech or a text and generalize them on the basis of common knowledge of the under study.

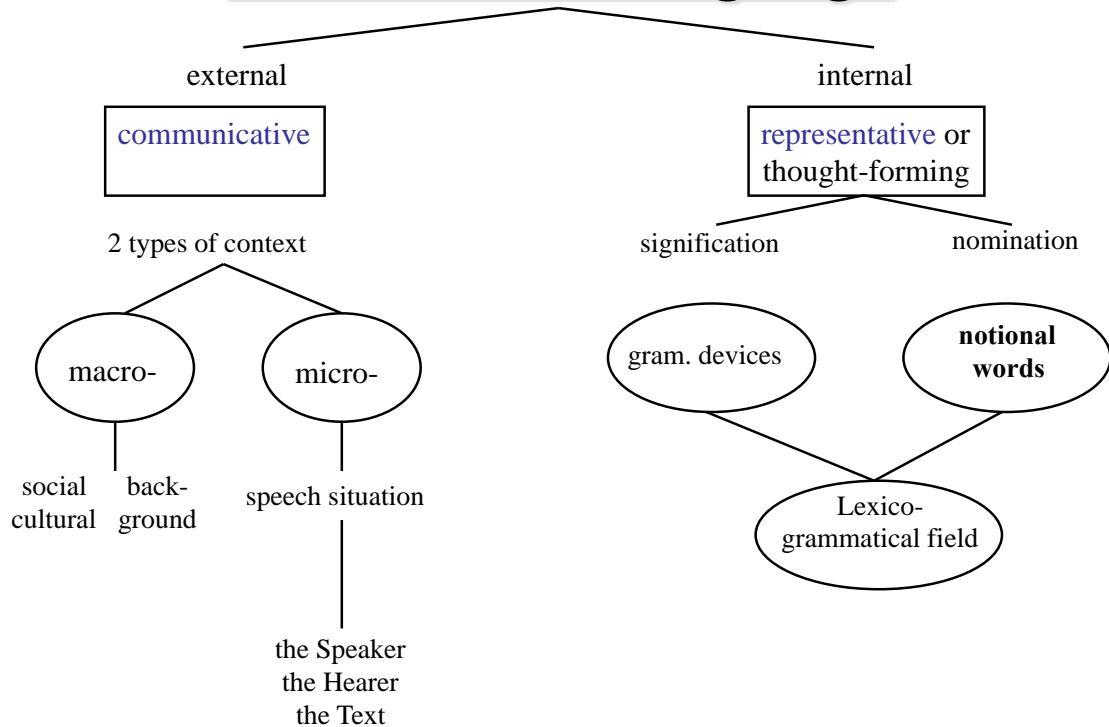
Syntagmatic relations can be of three different types: **coordinate, subordinate and predicative**.

System implies the characterization of a complex object as made up of separate parts (e.g. the system of sounds). Language is a structural system.

Structure means hierarchical layering of parts in constituting the whole. In the structure of language there are four main structural levels: phonological, morphological, syntactical and supersyntactical. The corresponding level units represent the levels: the phoneme, the morpheme and the word, the word group and the sentence, the text.

Language functions. There are two main functions of language: Communicative (as a means of communication) and Representative (as a means of thinking).

Functions of language



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A **typological classification** groups languages into types according to their structural characteristics. The most famous typological classification is probably that of **isolating, agglutinating, and inflecting (or fusional)** languages, which was frequently invoked in the 19th century in support of an evolutionary theory of language development. Roughly speaking, an **isolating language** is one in which all the words are morphologically unanalyzable (i.e., in which each word is composed of a single morph); Chinese and, even more strikingly, Vietnamese are highly isolating. An **agglutinating** language (e.g., Turkish) is one in which the word forms can be segmented into morphs, each of which represents a single grammatical category. An **inflecting** language is one in which there is no one-to-one correspondence between particular word segments and particular grammatical categories.

Modern English shares the following typical features of analytic languages:

1. Predominantly monosyllabic morphemes (and sometimes words).
2. Conversion (a word may shift part of speech with no change of form).
3. Extensive use of tonemes (the functional load carried by word length in many synthetic languages tends to be carried by tonemes in analytic languages).
4. Extensive use of function words.

5. Relatively fixed word order. (In a language without inflection, function words and fixed word order carry some of the information that is taken care of by inflection in synthetic languages).

6. Less rigid grammatical rules.

Practice assignments:

Task 1. Answer the following questions (2 - 4 sentences).

1. Specify the difference between contrastive grammar and contrastive linguistics.
2. Mention the subject matter and the tasks of contrastive grammar.
3. Define the terms: structure and system.
4. Enumerate levels of language structure and its units.
5. Determine the difference between SR and PR.
6. Exemplify different types of SRs.
7. Exemplify different types of PRs.
8. State the difference between the notions of "language" and "speech".
9. What is the difference between "isomorphic" and "allomorphic" features? Provide examples considering English and Ukrainian.
10. Describe the methods used in contrastive studies.
11. Explain the difference between synthetic and analytic languages.

Task 2. Describe types of languages. Give your own examples (7 -10 sentences).

Task 3. Read the following article and discuss principal notions of Contrastive Linguistics as viewed by Yu. O. Zhluktenko (5-7 sentences):

The research and advance of contemporary CL is impossible without knowing the history of their development. Therefore, research into contribution of separate personalities in different historical periods is promoting better understanding of historical processes taking place in the development of a discipline or its branch. The development of both applied and theoretical contrastive studies in Ukraine is associated with name of prof. Yu. O. Zhluktenko (1915 - 1990).

Yu. O. Zhluktenko's article „Contrastive Linguistics. Problems and Prospects" published in „Movoznavstvo" in 1976 was the first Ukrainian article introducing theoretical CL as a discipline. He defined it as a linguistic discipline aiming at synchronic-comparative description of two or several lingual systems on all levels based on one and the same linguistic model. He drew the demarcation line between:

- HCL and CL emphasizing that the first deals exclusively with related languages and concentrates on similarities in researched languages while the second can deal with structurally different languages and aspires to

- discover the ultimate goal of typological singularities;
- Linguistic Typology and CL, which study both differences and analogical phenomena in, compared languages but the ultimate goal of typology is the classification of language types and determination of language universals. Thus the starting point of typological studies is the isomorphic nature of language structures, which makes the basis for future typological classifications. On the contrary, the object of CL are more or less non-homogeneous languages, moreover inadequacy of their structural relations is „programmed” beforehand;
 - Areal linguistics and CL which are related due to the fact that they both research languages irrespective of their genetic ties, but the first is based on the obligatory territorial or geographical principle and pays much attention to interlanguage impacts, while CL is not confined to territory;
 - Translation theory and CL claiming that the first deals with the linguistic process of recoding the message coded in the text of L1 using means of the target L2 and thus providing the communication of the sender and the receiver. Thus both linguistic disciplines have the same object – relation of two language systems. Means used for recoding can be not identical means of source language but should provide sense equivalence. Thus equivalence is the central notion of translation theory and CL but is treated differently in them. One of the axiomatic provisions of CL is the absence of the full identity in sense and content of two language phenomena in compared languages. Structural equivalence occurs but functional-semantic equivalence is, as a rule, of relative character and in most cases is violated when viewed from the stylistic or distributional point of view. Thus CL studies practically all aspects and „blocks” of compared language systems and the translation theory focuses mainly on „difficult spots” of interlingual correlations assuming that other things in those languages are analogous.

Task 4. Choose the appropriate answer to the following statements:

4.1. *Contrastive grammar studies languages comparing them with the purpose of establishing:*

- a) their isomorphic grammatical features
- b) their isomorphic and allomorphic features
- c) their allomorphic features
- d) peculiarities of their phonetic systems

4.2. *Find the false statement:*

- a) language is a system, phonological, lexical and grammatical
- b) speech is the manifestation of language, its use by various speakers and writers

- c) grammar is found both in language and speech
- d) grammar belongs to the sphere of language only

4.3. *Isomorphic features are:*

- a) opposite features of the languages
- b) divergent features of the languages
- c) common features of the languages
- d) features of all the existing languages

4.4. *Which of the following does not characterize analytical language organization:*

- a) morphologically indeclinable words and analytical (compound) forms and constructions
- b) comparatively few grammatical inflections
- c) well-developed declension system
- d) strict word-order

4.5. *Main branches of grammar are:*

- a) Phonology and syntax
- b) Morphology and syntax
- c) Morphology and synthesis
- d) Analysis and synthesis

4.6. *Language units can undergo contrastive study if they obtain:*

- a) Functional similarity, ability to combine general and particular features, ability to represent a whole class
- b) Functional similarity, disability to combine general and particular features, ability to represent individual words
- c) No similar features

Task 5. Read the definitions of the language given below. Define the principles they are based upon: A - cognitive, B - systemic, C- social, D- semiotic, E - informational, F - communicative

1. "Language is the reflection of thought by means of words, that is by means of signs of a particular sort made with the vocal organs" (James B. Greenbough)
2. "A language is not an assembling of unconnected patterns but a system which is integrated in a high degree" (H. Gleason)
3. "Language is first and foremost a means of transmitting information..." (J. Whatmough)
4. Language. A vocabulary and way of using it prevalent in one or more countries (DEAD ~); (transf.) method of expression (*finger~*, talk by

conventional signs with fingers); words and their use; faculty of speech; person's style of expressing himself (*bad* ~, or || vulg. ~, oaths and abusive talk; *strong* ~, expressing vehement feelings; professional or sectional vocabulary; literary style, wording; ~ *master*, teacher of (usu. mod. foreign) ~ or ~ s (COD)

5. Language. 1. the system of human expression by means of words. 2. a particular system of words, as used by a people or nation (LDCE)

Task 6. State the type of Paradigmatic relations in the given examples:

- a. beautiful, wonderful, marvelous, splendid;
- b. some ideas, these ideas, the ideas expressed;
- c. to go – to have gone – to be going;
- d. this table – that table – a table – some tables – the table in the corner;
- e. to kill, to assassinate, to slaughter, to murder, to massacre;
- f. man-men, foot-feet, book-books.

Task 7. State the type of Syntagmatic relations in the given examples:

- a. restlessness
- b. I respect and adore this man.
- c. I saw his surreptitiously entering the house in the darkness of the night.
- d. He was chattering and chattering and there was no end seen to this conversation.

Task 8. Identify what language English or Ukrainian has the following features:

According to the existing morphological classifications, the ... language may be defined as a slightly synthetic fusional language developing towards the highly isolating (analytic) type like Chinese while the ... language may be characterized as a predominantly synthetic fusional language.

Modern ... shares the following typical features of analytic languages:

- A. Predominantly monosyllabic morphemes (and sometimes words).
- B. Conversion (a word may shift part of speech with no change of form).
- C. Extensive use of tonemes (the functional load carried by word length in many synthetic languages tends to be carried by tonemes in analytic languages).
- D. Extensive use of function words.
- E. Relatively fixed word order. (In a language without inflection, function words and fixed word order carry some of the information that is taken care of by inflection in synthetic languages).
- F. Less rigid grammatical rules.

Give examples to illustrate A – F points.

Unit 2. Basic Grammar Notions

1. Grammatical meaning.
2. The characteristic features of a grammatical category.
3. Means of expressing grammatical meanings.
4. Grammatical oppositions.

The grammatical category is a fundamental notion of grammar. Such categories are usually a reflection of the objectively existing things, their properties and interrelations. There is one prerequisite for existence of a grammatical category in a certain language: there should be an opposition of at least two word-forms in a language expressing a certain grammatical meaning.

Grammatical category can be defined as an aggregate of grammatical meanings opposed to each other and expressed by some formal criteria. More specifically, the grammatical category is a system expressing a generalized grammatical meaning by means of paradigmatic correlation of grammatical forms.

Grammatical meanings are most general meanings rendered by language. Therefore the grammatical form is not confined to an individual word, but to a whole class of words, so that each word of the class expresses the corresponding grammatical meaning. Grammatical meaning can be

- *Explicit* – having a formal marker, e.g. cats, cat's.
- *Implicit* – implied, having no formal marker, e.g. cat (“animate”).
- *General* - meaning of the whole word-class, e.g. N – thingness, V – verbiality;
- *Dependent* – meaning of a subclass within the same word-class, e.g. N – animateness/ inanimateness, countableness/ uncountableness

The opposition may be defined as a generalized correlation of two or more lingual forms by means of which a certain grammatical meaning is expressed. The member of the binary opposition that bears a certain differential feature is called the “marked” member (or strong), the member in which the feature is absent is called “unmarked” (or weak). The set of grammatical forms in a category constitute the paradigm of the category. For instance, the category of case in Modern English is based on a two-member opposition of the Common case against the Genitive case, the category of case in Ukrainian is based on the so called multiple opposition (the seven-member opposition).

Paradigms of notional words in English contain fewer flecational forms than those in Ukrainian, e.g.: English nouns have 2 flecational forms (cars, car's), English verbs have 4 flecational forms (write – wrote – written – writing). The paradigm of a notional word may also have suppletive forms (the longest one is that of the verb be: am, is, are, was, were, been, be, being). The morphological paradigm of the word also includes analytical forms, and these make paradigms of English words rather complicated. On the contrary, Ukrainian paradigms of notionals have considerable number of flecational forms and few analytical forms (e.g. analytical future form, comparative and superlative degree forms).

Besides the above-described explicit (formal) morphological categories there are also so called implicit lexico-grammatical categories. Here belong general implicit lexico-grammatical meanings of parts of speech (for example, the meaning of “thingness” in nouns, the meaning of “property” in adjectives etc.); here also belongs the implicit lexico-grammatical meaning of transitivity/non-transitivity of verbs, etc. Implicit lexico-grammatical categories have no formal expression but they influence (limit) the realization of some explicit grammatical categories. For instance, the implicit lexico-grammatical category of transitivity restricts the sphere of application of the formal category of voice: intransitive verbs are commonly not used in the passive.

Grammatical meanings have different morpho-syntactic implementations in the languages of the world. One language has grammaticalised a distinction that another language represents only optionally in the lexicon. A concept can be expressed by a grammatical category in one language, but be expressed only lexically in another. Cross-linguistic or comparative research into the realization of semantic categories in related and non-related languages is an interesting and expanding field of research. Research on **referential categories** (definiteness, specificity, generosity) has shown that such categories are differently encoded in particular languages, and that although languages differ in grammatical structure they can nevertheless express the same concepts.

All languages possess the same set of about 25 categories each of which have several functions (roughly 100). Languages differ in how they express these categories in speech: some use lexemes (Chinese, Vietnamese), some use freestanding grammatical morphemes (pronouns, prepositions, etc.), while others use affixes. When one begins learning a new language, one does not have to learn a new set of grammatical categories since all languages have the same categories; one only has to learn how these categories are expressed in the new language. Thus languages differ in terms of which grammatical categories are built into their morphology. Second, grammatical categories are in a sense forced on the speakers of a language. In English, we need the -s for *pencils* in the phrase *three pencils*; three pencil is ungrammatical even though it is perfectly understandable. For example, English nouns are inflected for number,

and number inflection is obligatory. Therefore grammatical categories are an important typological constant of the morphological level.

When comparing the grammatical categories and forms of the English and Ukrainian languages we identify the following differences: a) the absence of the morphological categories in one of the compared languages, b) partial correspondence and c) complete correspondence.

Practice assignments:

Task 1. Answer the following questions (2 – 4 sentences).

1. What is a grammatical category? Give examples of a grammatical category in English and Ukrainian.
2. What is a grammatical opposition? Give examples of them in English and Ukrainian.
3. Name some of the explicit (grammatical) and implicit (lexico-grammatical) categories.
4. Enumerate types of grammatical categories in English and Ukrainian.
5. Point out lexical, general grammatical and dependent grammatical meanings of the words 'to take, 'брату'.

Task 2. Point out means of expressing grammatical meanings:

John's bag; took; I'll be seeing you; phenomena; worst; he's been there; appendices; children; more interesting; greatest; shook; she works as a teacher.

Дівчата; якнайкраще; ніс; будуватиметься; буду говорити; пришла; гірше; на вулиці; паляницею; лікар прийшла; збудовано.

Task 3. Classify the following words into groups on the basis of their a) general lexico-grammatical meaning; b) implicit grammatical meaning; c) categorial grammatical meaning:

Love, money, writer's, writers, snow, lamp, pants, customs, water, parts,

Музика, письменник, фінанси, консенсус, інститути, сніг, гроші, коні, родина.

Task 4. Provide the paradigms of the following words and characterize them:

to lie, to raise; бігти, питати; window, вікно; large, великий.

Task 5. Read the following extract. Comment on the morphological forms and the meanings they render.

As I have explained, I was about to leave London. It was a raw damp cold afternoon in May. The wind carried no flowery smells, but rather laid a moist healthless humour upon the flesh, which it then attempted to flay. I had my suitcases ready and was about to telephone for a taxi, had in fact already lifted the phone, when I experienced that nervous urge to delay departure, to sit down and reflect, which I am told the Russians have elevated into a ritual. I replaced the instrument and went back into my crowded little Victorian sitting room and sat down. The result of this manoeuvre was that I was immediately aching with anxiety about a number of arrangements, which I had already checked ten times over. Had I got enough sleeping pills? Had I packed the belladonna mixture? Had I packed my notebooks? I can only write in a certain kind of notebook with the lines a certain distance apart. I ran back into the hall. I found the notebooks and the pills and the belladonna of course, but by now the suitcases were half unpacked again and my heart was beating violently. (Murdoch)

Task 6. Analyze the following oppositions and state what grammatical categories they constitute: L
SEP

- 1) had:: had had; 2) will do:: will have done; 3) will do:: will be done;
4) cats:: cats'; 5) she:: her.

Task 7. Choose the appropriate answer to the following statements:

1. Grammatical category is a system of opposed grammatical forms with homogeneous ... :
 - a) parts of the sentence
 - b) inflections
 - c) meanings
 - d) morphological features

2. Grammatical meaning is a generalized meaning characteristic of a set of words, word-forms, syntactic constructions which has its own regular expression in the language:
 - a) the definition has three wrong statements
 - b) the definition is incorrect
 - c) the definition concerns the grammatical paradigm
 - d) the definition is correct

3. Decide what is common in the following group of words:
 - a) General implicit lexico-grammatical meaning;
 - b) Lexico-semantic meaning;
 - c) Denotative meaning;

d) Connotative meaning.

1. Bread, life, work, snow, man, book, сніг, життя, праця, хліб, книга, чоловік;
2. Affright, to adore, babe, pass away, літа, чоло, золото;
3. He, they, five, today, він, вони, п'ять, сьогодні;
4. стрибати, ходити, блукати, їхати, wander, go, jump, walk, move.

Unit 3. Contrastive Morphology

1. Morphemic structure of words
2. The word and word-forming means
3. Parts of speech

The morpheme is the smallest unit of a language that has a binary nature (that can combine form and meaning). Morphemes are classified into (1) free morphemes and (2) bound morphemes. Free morphemes appear as independent words (e.g. cat). Bound morphemes do not constitute independent words, but are attached to other morphemes or words (e.g. re-connect -ing).

Free morphemes are further subdivided into lexical, lexico- grammatical and grammatical. The distinction between the two categories of lexical (content) and grammatical (function) morphemes is conceptually distinct from the free-bound distinction but partially overlaps with it in practice. The idea behind the distinction is that some morphemes express some general sort of referential or informational content, while other morphemes are heavily tied to a grammatical function, expressing syntactic relationships between units in a sentence, or obligatorily marked categories such as number or tense. Thus (the roots of) nouns, verbs, adjectives are typically free (content) morphemes: "throw," "green, and "sand" are all English content morphemes. Content

morphemes are also often called open-class morphemes, because they belong to categories that are open to the invention of arbitrary new items.

By contrast, prepositions (to, by), articles (the, a), pronouns (she, his), and conjunctions are typically grammatical (function) morphemes, since they either serve to tie elements together grammatically (“hit by a truck,” “Kim and Leslie,” “Lee saw his dog”), or express obligatory (in a given language) morphological features like definiteness (“she found a table” or “she found the table” but not “*she found table”). Function (grammatical) morphemes are also called “closed-class” morphemes, because they belong to categories that are essentially closed to invention or borrowing - it is very difficult to add a new preposition, article or pronoun. For years, some people have tried to introduce non-gendered pronouns into English, for instance “sie” (meaning either “he” or “she”, but not “it”). This is much harder to do than to get a new noun or verb adopted.

Lexico-grammatical free morphemes (modal verbs, link verbs) preserve some lexical meaning while grammatical morphemes (auxiliary verbs, articles) are deprived of any lexical meaning signaling only grammatical meaning.

Bound morphemes, also called affixes, are either prefixes (attached to the beginnings of words, e.g. re-build), or suffixes (attached to the ends of words, e.g. look-ed). From the functional point of view affixes are classified into derivational and inflectional. Derivational (lexical) affixes make new words from old ones while inflectional (grammatical) affixes build up new forms of the same word. Thus creation is formed from create by adding a morpheme that makes nouns out of (some) verbs. And Boy and boys, for example, are two different forms of the “same” word.

The morphological system of language reveals its properties through the morphemic structure of words. Being a language of predominantly synthetic structural type Ukrainian possesses a well-developed system of affixes (derivational and inflectional). Lexical affixes are used in numerous derivational models and inflectional affixes are used as primary means of indicating grammatical functions of words in the sentence.

English as an analytic type of language, on the contrary, mostly makes use of free morphemes (lexical, lexico-grammatical and grammatical) having a poor system of affixes.

The problems associated with **the definition of the word** have always been most complex and remain disputable. Determining the word involves considerable difficulties for the criteria employed in establishing it are of different character and each language presents a separate system with its own patterns of vocabulary items, its specific types of structural units and its own ways of distinguishing them. The matter is that the simplest word has many different aspects. It has a sound form because it is a certain arrangement of

phonemes. It has its morphological structure, being a certain arrangement of morphemes.

Many scholars have attempted to define the word as a linguistic phenomenon. Yet none of the definitions can be considered totally satisfactory in all aspects. The definition which is a bit extended but takes into account different aspects and hence can be considered optimal is the definition of the word given by I. Arnold: *The word is a speech unit used for the purposes of human communication, materially representing a group of sounds, possessing a meaning, susceptible to grammatical employment and characterized by formal and semantic unity.*

A word has at least one **lexical morpheme** represented by a root by which we mean the ultimate constituent element, which remains after the removal of affixes, and it does not admit any further analysis. It is the common element of words within a word-family. It is the primary element of the word; its basic part conveys its fundamental lexical meaning. There are many root-morphemes, which can stand alone as words: table, car, chair, room. It is one of the specific features of the English language. Free morphemes can be found only among roots. But not all roots are free morphemes. Only productive roots are free.

Unlike roots affixes are usually bound morphemes. According to their function and meaning prefixes and suffixes are divided into derivational and functional. **Derivational affixes** are those by means of which new words are formed: to teach - a teacher. **Functional** are those by means of which new forms of words are formed: teach - teaches.

Affixation is the creation of a word by modifying its root with an affix. It is a very productive type of word formation. In conformity with the division of derivational affixes into **suffixes and prefixes** affixation is subdivided into suffixation and prefixation. A careful study of a great many suffixal and prefixal derivatives has revealed an essential difference between them. First of all in modern English suffixation is characteristic of noun and adjective formation. Prefixation is typical of verb formation. In the English language there prevails either suffixation or prefixation, in the Ukrainian language they can be used in the same word. English suffixes usually transfer a word from one part of speech into another, Ukrainian affixes never do it.

In the Ukrainian language the most productive is the prefix не-, which is used to form adjectives and nouns, but never verbs: нелегкий, невільний. A very productive prefix is the prefix без-: безпомічний. In the English language this prefix corresponds to the suffix -less: defenseless. The prefixes де-, дис-, а- are used as parts of borrowed words and they are unproductive: децентралізація, дисбаланс, асиметричний.

There can be semantically alien prefixes pertaining to one of the contrasted languages: - de- (decamp); - mis- (misstate); -по- (по-українському); - що-

(щонайкраще). A specifically Ukrainian phenomenon is the usage of the prefix по- (попоїсти).

Suffixation is the formation of words with the help of suffixes. Suffixes usually modify the lexical meaning of stems and transfer words to a different part of speech. There are suffixes, however, which do not shift words from one part of speech into another. A suffix of this kind usually transfers a word into a different semantic group e.g.: A concrete noun becomes an abstract one: child - childhood.

In the Ukrainian language (but not in English) diminutive suffixes are often used: -ньк (малесенький), -чк (дівчатко), -ець (вітерець).

Conversion is the process of coining a new word in a different part of speech and with different distribution characteristics but without adding any derivative element, so that the basic form of the original and the basic form of derived words are homonymous. This phenomenon can be illustrated by the following cases: work - to work, love - to love, water - to water.

As a type of word-formation conversion exists in many languages. What is specific for the English vocabulary is not its mere presence, but its intense development.

The main reason for the widespread development of conversion in present-day English is no doubt the absence of morphological elements serving as classifying signals, or, in other words, of formal signs marking the part of speech to which the word belongs. The word *back* may illustrate the fact that the sound pattern does not show to what part of speech the word belongs. It may be a noun, a verb, an adjective, and an adverb. Cf.: *They lay on their backs and gazed at the sky. Back your car out of the driveway. There is a shop in a back street behind the station. Put that book back, please.*

Many affixes are homonymous and therefore the general sound pattern does not contain any information as to the possible part of speech. e.g.: maiden (N), darken (V), woolen (A), often (Adv).

Conversion is not characteristic of the Ukrainian language. The only type of conversion that can be found there is substantivation: молодий, хворий.

Composition can be defined as the formation of a lexical unit out of two or more stems, usually the first differentiating, modifying or qualifying and the second identifying. In the English language compound words can be graded according to frequency in the following way: nouns - adjectives - verbs. In the Ukrainian language the scheme will be the following; adjectives - nouns - verbs.

Parts of Speech. In every language, almost all of the lexical items fall naturally into a small number of classes, and the words in each class behave grammatically in much the same way. Linguists often call these word classes or lexical categories, but the traditional term is parts of speech. The ancient Greek

grammarians recognized eight parts of speech for their language. The Roman grammarians who followed them recognized a slightly different list of eight classes for their own language, Latin. Over the centuries, European grammarians proposed several different lists for English and other languages. Different schools of grammar present different classifications for the parts of speech (H.Sweet, O.Jespersen, Ch.Fries, H.Glisson, L.Shcherba, I.Meshchaninov, V.Vinogradov, V.Admony, E.Kubryakova), but none of them is considered perfect.

The “traditional” classification of words is based on the three criteria, which have proved to be valuable in defining parts of speech: semantic, formal and functional. The semantic criterion presupposes valuation of the general implicit lexico-grammatical meaning, characteristic of all the words constituting a given part of speech (e.g. thingness - for nouns, quality - for adjectives etc.). The formal criterion provides for the exposition of all formal features (specific derivational and inflectional) of all the lexemic subsets of a particular part of speech. The functional criterion concerns the typical syntactic functions of a part of speech and its combinability.

According to their values, parts of speech are usually subdivided into two classes: **notional and functional**. Notionals are words that possess denotative ability, i. e. they have nominative value (lexical meaning). Their nominative character enables them to function as a separate part in the sentence. Function words (words like prepositions, conjunctions, determiners) have little meaning of their own, but this meaning is different from that of notional words - they do not name separate concepts. They only possess significative value, i.e. they represent general conceptual notions by signifying or marking them. Thus, function words are words that exist to explain or create grammatical or structural relationships into which the notional words may fit.

English and Ukrainian, in accord with the traditional criteria of meaning, form and function, have the parts of speech that almost coincide. The languages have similar notionals (the noun, the adjective, the numeral, the pronoun, the verb, the adverb, the stative) and similar functional parts of speech with the exception of the article not found in Ukrainian (the preposition, the conjunction, the particle, the modal word, the interjection).

A major difficulty in English is that the same word can often belong to different parts of speech (round N,V - round off the figures, A, Prep - come round the corner, Adv - come round with some fresh air). Some of the forms are accounted by functional shift or conversion, but some of them are homonyms. Recategorisation can occur within a class (from one subcategory to another) or between classes. For example, the subcategory of a noun can be shifted in the following ways: from abstract to concrete (a youth meaning ‘a boy’), from uncountable to countable (wines), from proper to common (an Einstein meaning ‘a genius’, a Benedict Arnold meaning ‘a traitor’).

Therefore the traditional criteria of meaning, form and function are not equally important in the contrasted languages. In English, due to its analytic nature and poor system of affixes, the part-of-speech identification is mostly based not on formal characteristics (as in Ukrainian, which is rich in synthetic forms) but rather on syntactic properties of words. The different approaches to singling out parts of speech in English and Ukrainian are accounted for by different grammatical structures of the contrasted languages.

Practice assignments:

Task 1. Answer the following questions (1 – 3 sentences):

1. Explain what is meant by the binary nature of the morpheme.
2. What types of morphemes exist according to their meaning and form?
3. In what type of languages inflectional morphemes are capable of expressing several grammatical meanings.
4. Compare the typical structure of the word in English and Ukrainian.
5. What are different criteria for part-of-speech classification in English and Ukrainian accounted for? $\begin{matrix} [L] \\ [SEP] \end{matrix}$
6. Enumerate all notional parts of speech in English and Ukrainian.
7. Describe any notional part of speech in English and Ukrainian according to the three criteria.
8. Enumerate and compare functional parts of speech in English and Ukrainian.

Task 2. Split the words into lexical, grammatical and lexico-grammatical morphemes:

- A. Shorten, tiresome, waitress, kitchenette, grateful, nicer, phenomenon, characterizing, stated, blacken, purify, badly, quickest, booklet;
- B. Вчителька, робити, дожити, найвеличніший, щонайкращий, нашого, тридцять, добрий, твій.

Task 3. Point out international and national affixes in the words:

- A. Translation, depression, stylistics, duckling, underestimate, antisocial, renewed, refugee, spokesperson.
- B. Популізм, антиукраїнський, транспортування, лінгвістика, переробити, спікер, манюсінський, ультраправий, супермодний

Task 4. Point out the factors employed in the identification of the following word-forms as belonging to a certain part of speech: $\begin{matrix} [L] \\ [SEP] \end{matrix}$

Cleaned, cleaner, cleaner; having done; good, goody, best, goodness; joyful, enjoying, joyfulness; entertainment, entertained; grateful, gratefulness; having decided, decision, decided; finance, financed; manful, man, manned, mans,

men; translator, translates, translated; power, powers, powered, powerful, powerfully.

Добре, добро, добріший, добротний, роздобріти, подобріти; оберіг, зберегти, оберігати, збережений; молода, молодий, молоде, молоді, молодші, молодіти, помолодівший; усміхнений, усміхатися, усмішка, посміхалася; багатій, багатство, багата, багатіти, розбагатіли, будемо багатіти, розбагатіємо, багатіі, найбагатший.

Task 5. Define the type of stems:

Table, underwrite, knee-deep, live, supersonic, less, merry-go-round, ablaze, cross-examine, degrading, dictatorship, employee, transportation, short-sighted, sideways, hijack, sister-in-law,

керманич, тепло, жіноцтво, спритність, зимувати, правдивий, читатиму, хоч-не-хоч, гірше, найбільший, сяк- так, Непийвода, п'ятнадцять, треба, жаль, перевчити, танцюючий, щонайменше, хід, прихід, вголос.

Task 6. What part of speech do the italicized words belong to?

After the conversation he went back to the memory of the previous afternoon, *just* recalling fragments of friendliness and *exactly* revealed solicitude (*Cronin*). 2. Ten years *after* his famous experiment was performed (*Wilson*). 3. Fox longed for an earthquake to shake him *back* to working till midnight. He went to bed *only when* he finished it up. *Too* tired to *work*, too dulled to talk and *simply* vaguely satisfied that he had *just* managed to complete the minimum (*Wilson*). 5. *Come, now*, that's just a get-out (*Mansfield*). 6. I look *over* the rail. *There, just below* me, stand three young men, just *too* big to be called lads... (C.B.Shaw)

Task 7. Read the following citations and formulate the concept the scholars stick to concerning the parts of speech problem.

A. "As regards their function in the sentence, words fall under certain classes called parts of speech, all the members of each of these classes having certain formal characteristics in common which distinguish them from the members of the other classes. Each of these classes has a name of its own – noun, adjective, verb, etc.

Thus, if we compare nouns, such as *snow, tree, man*, with adjectives, such as *big, white, green*, and verbs, such as *melt, grow, speak*, we shall find that all nouns whose meaning admits of it agree in having plural inflections – generally formed by adding *s* (*trees*); that adjectives have no plural inflections, but have degrees of comparison (*big, bigger, biggest*) – which nouns and verbs have not; that verbs have inflections of their own distinct from those of the other parts of speech (*I grow, he grows, grown*); that each part of speech has special form-words associated with it (*a tree, the tree; to grow, is growing*); and that each part of speech has a more or less distinct position in the

sentence with regard to other parts of speech (*white snow, the snow melts, the green tree, the tree is green*).

If we examine the function of these three classes, we see at once that all verbs are predicative words – that they state something about a subject-word, which is generally a noun (*the snow melts*); that adjectives are often used as assumptive words (*white snow*), and so on.

If we examine the meanings of the words belonging to the different parts of speech, we shall find that such nouns as *tree, snow, man*, are all substance-words, while the adjectives and verbs given above are all attribute-words, the adjectives expressing permanent attributes, the verbs changing attributes or phenomena. We can easily see that there is a natural connection between the functions and meanings of these parts of speech [...]"

H. Sweet *A New English Grammar*

B. "Obviously even in the usual procedure of classifying words into 'parts of speech' – noun, adjective, pronoun – the criteria indicated in the definitions, that 'names' are nouns, that 'modifiers of nouns' are adjectives, and that 'substitutes for nouns' are adjectives, do not include all that is actually used, and these definitions, therefore, cannot provide the basis for our approach here. We cannot use 'lexical' meaning as the basis for the definition of some classes, 'function in the sentence' for others, and 'formal characteristics' still others. [...]"

Our [...] problem is to discover just what the criteria are that the users of the language actually employ to identify the necessary various form-class units when they give and receive the signals of structural meaning.

[...] One need not know the lexical meaning of any of the following:

1. Woggles ugged diggles.
2. Uggs woggled digs.
3. Woggs diggled uggles.

If we assume that these utterances are using the structural signals of English, then at once we know a great deal about these sequences. [...]"

We would know that *woggles* and *ugges* and *woggs* are 'thing' words, in sentences 1, 2, 3, because they are treated as English treats 'thing' words – by the 'positions' they occupy in the utterances and the forms they have, in contrast with other positions and forms. We would know that *ugged* and *woggled* and *diggled* are 'action' words in these same sentences because they are treated as English treats 'action' words – by the 'positions' they occupy and the forms they have, in contrast with the positions and forms of the other 'words'."

Ch. Fries. *The Structure of English*

Unit 4. The Noun in English and Ukrainian

1. General characteristics of the Noun
2. Isomorphic classes of Nouns in the contrasted languages

3. Categories of number, case and gender in the contrasted languages

The Noun is a part of speech, which is characterized by the following features in English and Ukrainian:

1. Lexico-grammatical meaning of **substance**;
2. The noun is characterized in the contrasted languages by the existence of a system of suffixes and prefixes performing, as a rule, isomorphic functions in both contrasted languages. These suffixes fall into several common in English and Ukrainian subgroups. Among them are traditionally distinguished productive and unproductive suffixes, native and borrowed (or international) suffixes, as well as different semantic groups of suffixes which, when added to various roots or stems, may form agent nouns.
3. Typologically isomorphic are also the main paradigmatic classes of nouns, which are two: 1) common nouns and 2) proper names.
4. The noun possesses the categories of number, case and gender.

The only morphological category of the noun, which is almost always marked in present-day English, is that of **number**. Like in Ukrainian, it is mostly realized synthetically, i.e. through zero and marked inflexions respectively. E. g: *child — children, book — books etc.* Completely allomorphic, i.e. pertained only to the English language is the formation of plural number by way of sound interchange (ablaut): *foot — feet, tooth — teeth, goose — geese; man — men etc.*

Unlike English number inflexions, Ukrainian inflexions are predetermined by the gender of the noun, its declension and the final consonant or vowel, which can, respectively, be hard, soft or mixed (sibilant).

Typologically isomorphic is the existence in both languages of the classes of **singularia and pluralia tantum** nouns.

Singularia tantum: 1. Names of materials (iron, milk, snow; срібло, пісок etc.) 2. Collective nouns (brushwood, foliage, leafage; білизна, листя, etc.) 3. Abstract notions (courage, knowledge; відвага, знання etc.)

Pluralia tantum: 1. Summation plurals (scissors, tongs, trousers; терези, окуляри). 2. Nouns denoting remnants after some processes (scraps, leavings, sweepings; висівки, помий). 3. Geographic names (Athens, the Netherlands, the Andes, Афіни, Лубни). 4. Nouns having the meaning "finance and property" (savings, valuables; цінності, заощадження, etc.).

However there are a lot of nouns not coinciding in the two languages. Consequently, a number of nouns may have plural meaning in English and singular meaning in Ukrainian (*barracks, goods, police, arms — казарма, товар, поліція, зброя* etc. and some Ukrainian plurals (*меблі, вершки, дрова, гроші*) have singularia tantum equivalents in English (*furniture, cream, yeast, firewood,*

money, etc.). Also, countables in one language may correspond to uncountables in the other (e.g. the nouns *onion*, *potato* are countable in English while their Ukrainian counterparts are used as singularia tantum nouns: цибуля, картопля). There are also cases when English countable nouns correspond to pluralia tantum nouns in Ukrainian (*sledge* – сани, *election* – вибори, *rake* – граблі). Another important allomorphy is lexicalized plural forms, which are more frequent in English and almost unknown in Ukrainian, Cf: *custom* © – звичай, *customs* (UC Pl) – таможня, мито.

The category of case in English is represented by zero inflexion (common case) :: positive inflexion 's/' (genitive case) which is added to a noun in singular ('s) or in plural ('), cf. boy :: boy's, boys :: boys'. In Ukrainian there are 7 cases, which have different inflexions in singular and in plural depending on the gender, declension and the consonant group of the noun. The cases are: nominative, genitive, dative, accusative, instrumental, locative and vocative.

The case meanings in English relate to one another in a peculiar, unknown in other languages way: the common case is quite indifferent from the semantic point of view, while the genitive case functions as a subsidiary element in the morphological system of English because its semantics is also rendered by the Common Case noun in prepositional collocations and in contact.

The category of case has become one of the vexed problems of theoretical discussion. Four special views advanced at various times by different scholars should be considered as successive stages in the analysis of this problem:

- (1) According to the "theory of positional cases" the English noun distinguishes the inflectional genitive case and four non-inflectional, purely positional, cases – Nominative, Vocative, Dative, Accusative
- (2) "The theory of prepositional cases" regards noun combinations with prepositions as morphological case forms: Dative case (to + N, for + N), Genitive (of + N), Instrumental (with+ N, by + N)
- (3) "The limited case theory" recognizes the existence in English of a limited case system of two members – Genitive Case (a strong form) and Common Case (a weak form)
- (4) "The postpositional theory" claims that the English noun in the course of its historic development has completely lost the morphological category of case, and 's is not a flection but a postpositional particle since it can be attached not only to words but word-combinations as well (somebody else's bag).

As the case opposition does not work with all nouns, from the functional point of view the Genitive Case is regarded as subsidiary to the syntactic system of prepositional cases.

In terms of functionality, the English noun in genitive is used to express few types of possessive relations. Accordingly, the genitive of nouns can be further sub-categorized as being one of the following: possessive genitive, subjective

genitive, authorship genitive, objective genitive, descriptive genitive, and adverbial genitive etc..

In terms of structure English has genitive forms unknown in Ukrainian: double genitive, absolute genitive. The double genitive is sometimes called the “post-genitive”. The double genitive has been around since the fifteenth century, and is widely accepted. It’s extremely helpful, for instance, in distinguishing between “a picture of my father” (in which we see the old man) and “a picture of my father’s” (which he owns). What precedes the element “of” is usually indefinite article (a friend, not the best friend but “one of many”), unless it is preceded by the demonstratives this or that, as in “this friend of my father’s”.

Absolute genitive is used to avoid repetition of the noun (Tom’s is a nice car.) or it can be used in the meanings of “dwelling place” (He spent the week-end at his uncle’s.) and “establishment” (dentist’s).

The Category of Gender

Some languages discriminate two types of gender. There is natural gender, which relates to the gender of the referent and distinguishes nouns referring to males from those referring to females. There is also grammatical gender, which has nothing to do with natural gender, but is only a system of noun classes. The Indo-European languages generally combine the two, i.e. do not distinguish one from the other so that in French, for example, la table ‘the table’ reflects feminine gender (purely grammatical) as does la femme ‘the woman’ (combined natural and grammatical).

Languages, which distinguish either type of gender usually, also have an agreement system whereby adjectives modifying gendered nouns must have an ending, which reflects the gender of the noun they modify. Verbs also often reflect the gender of their subject nouns and, sometimes, their object nouns as well. The most common genders are Masculine and Feminine but some languages have Neuter. Ukrainian gender has purely formal features that may even “run contrary” to semantics. The Ukrainian category of gender essentially divides the noun into the inanimate set having no meaningful gender (*книжка, стіл, ліжка*), and the animate set having a meaningful gender reflecting objective sex distinctions.

The grammatical gender in English had disappeared by the end of the Middle English period. The expression of objective sex distinctions is provided only by lexical means. English nouns can show the sex of their referents lexically.

English has one masculine derivational suffix -er(or) and a small number of feminine derivational suffixes: -ess, -ette, -a, -oine and -ester. All but one of these feminizing suffixes (-ster) are of foreign origin.

Nouns may also express gender by means of being combined with certain notional words used as sex indicators, or by suppletion: Cf.: she- bear, landlord, landlady; lion/lioness, sultan/ sultana; bull/cow, cock/ hen.

Thus the English gender differs much from the Ukrainian gender: the English gender has a semantic character, while the gender in Ukrainian is partially semantic (Ukrainian animate nouns have semantic gender distinctions), and partially formal. Traditionally some English nouns are associated with feminine gender (nouns denoting boats and vehicles) when used in connotative meaning (Fill her (car) up!). This, however, is considered a stylistically marked, optional figure of speech (a figure of speech, sometimes termed a rhetorical, or elocution, is a word or phrase that departs from straightforward, literal language). This usage is furthermore in decline and advised against by most journalistic style guides. Gender in English is also used in poetic language as means of personification (e.g. Sun is usually associated with the pronoun he, while Moon is referred to as she).

Practice assignments:

Task 1. Answer the following questions (1 – 3 sentences)

1. Compare the criteria for identifying a word as a noun in the contrasted languages.
2. What are typologically isomorphic classes of nouns in contrasted languages?
3. What groups of suffixes are isomorphic in contrasted languages? Give examples.
4. What is the only morphological category of the noun, which is almost always marked in present-day English?
5. Comment on singularia and pluralia tantum groups of nouns in contrasted languages. Give examples.
6. How many cases are distinguished in present-day English?
7. What is the morphological category of gender in Ukrainian identified through?
8. What are allomorphic features of the morphological category of gender in contrasted languages?
9. What do lexicalized plural forms mean? Provide examples.
State the difference in the realization of the category of case in the contrasted languages.

Task 2. Put the following words into isomorphic and allomorphic lexicogrammatical classes:

Arrow, cattle, air, crew, Alaska, Ann, desk, book, house, snow, news, government, flour, Ford, salt.

Чорне море, хата, пісок, кіт, цукор, худоба, екіпаж, залізо, сіль, Ярослав Мудрий, Довженко, гроші, ненависть, лялька, уряд.

Task 3. Find allomorphy and isomorphy in the expression of gender in the following Ukrainian and English nouns:

The lawyer won the case – адвокат виграв/виграла справу; director/directrix came – директор прийшов/ директорка/директорша прийшла; king/queen ordered – король наказав/ королева наказала; a young doctor/a young female/lady/woman – молодий лікар/молода лікар; the first was a young woman – першою була молода жінка.

Task 4. Find allomorphy and isomorphy in the expression of number by the following Ukrainian and English nouns:

The North-West, advice, courage, information, mathematics, contents, means, savings, billiards, goods, gymnastics, shorts, sweepings.

Братва, Афіни, комарня, ярина, дітвора, жіноцтво, бадилля, вишняк, адвокатура, терези, помиї, недопитки, злидні, проводи, гроші, побігеньки, витребеньки, ласощі.

Task 5. Read the following extracts. Identify nouns; group them according to their types.

BBC news

By Anne Burke

2 January 2019

Around 30 years ago, Jacques-André Istel turned to his wife, Felicia Lee, and said, “We’re going to sit in the desert and think of something to do.” Hardly an enticing proposition, but by then, Lee was surely used to her husband’s hare-brained schemes.

If I told her tomorrow we were going to Mars, she would say, ‘What do I pack?’

In 1971, at great risk to himself and his then bride-to-be, Istel piloted the couple on a round-the-world flight in a tiny, twin-engine plane that had hardly the oomph of a Chevrolet automobile. Before that, there was the whole business of convincing people to jump out of planes: in the 1950s, after returning home from the Korean War, where he served with the US Marines, Istel developed parachuting equipment and techniques that made it possible for the average Joe to leap out of an airplane at 2,500ft and land as if having tumbled from a 4ft bookcase. Soon, Americans by the thousands were enjoying the latest craze: skydiving.

Lee was a reporter for Sports Illustrated– she met Istel, by then known as ‘the father of American sport parachuting’, during an interview for a piece in the

magazine – and had her own taste for adventure. “If I told her tomorrow we were going to Mars, she would say, ‘What do I pack?’, Istel said.

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Минулий рік ознаменувався виходом безлічі цікавих книг у всіх літературних жанрах. Однак ми вибрали всього лише три художні романи, в компанії яких точно не доведеться нудьгувати.

“Моя неймовірна подруга”, Елена Ферранте

Ця книга є лише першою частиною “Неаполітанського квартету”, що розповідає про долю двох подруг – сміливої і зухвалої Ліли і її скромної тіні Лену. Вперше роман був опублікований 2011 року і відразу ж приніс своєму авторові неймовірну популярність як на батьківщині, так і в усьому світі.

З його героїнями ми познайомимося в ранньому дитинстві і проживемо все життя, де будуть злидні і багатство, любов і зради, мафія і дружба, яка іноді буває не завдяки, а всупереч. До слова, за книгою вже знятий серіал, який НВО обіцяє показати вже нинішнього року.

“Книга Балтиморів”, Жоель Діккер

Другий роман автора “Правди про справу Гаррі Квеберта” вийшов не менш заплутаним, динамічним і захоплюючим. А його головним героєм залишився все той же Маркус Гольдман, тільки тепер вже зрілий письменник, який цього разу згадує свою молодість, яка минула у компанії багатьох кузенів і дівчини Олександри, в яку кожен з них був колись закоханий.

Діти проводили разом щоліта і одного разу дали один одному клятву. А коли стали старше, хтось нею знехтував, хтось зробив підлість і все це і багато іншого призвело до трагедії, про масштаби якої ви навіть не здогадуєтесь.

“Вбивство п’яної піонерки”, Сергій Оксенік

Події цього роману розгортаються наприкінці 1950-х в невеликому селі. Його головні герої – діти, які одного разу вночі стали свідками дивних подій. І поки вони намагаються дізнатися, що ж сталося, місцевий міліціонер починає розплутувати іншу ниточку цього кримінального клубка, стикаючись в результаті з радянською системою, з якою краще не жартувати. Одним з головних достоїнств книги є гумор, з яким вона написана – у деяких місцях ви просто реготатимете на весь вагон метро.

Task 6. Translate the following. Think of the ways quantity and plurality are realized in both languages, English and Ukrainian.

“As he watched the bird dipped again slanting his wings for the dive and then swinging them wildly and ineffectually as he followed the flying fish. The old man could see the slight bulge in the water that the big dolphin rose as they

followed the escaping fish. The dolphin was cutting through the water below the flight of the fish and would be in the water, driving at speed, when the fish dropped. It is a big school of dolphin, he thought. They are wide spread and the flying fish have little chance. The bird has no chance. the flying fish are too big for him and they go too fast." (*Hemingway*)

Task 7. Read the following extracts and formulate the position of the grammarians concerning the problem of case in English.

a. *Otto Jespersen. Essentials of English Grammar.*

"In substantives we have two cases, a common case, corresponding to both nominative and objective in pronouns, and a genitive. The regular way of forming the genitive is by adding the *s*-ending with its threefold pronunciation. [...]

THE GROUP GENITIVE

The *s* is appended to a group of words if it forms a sense unit:

All the other people's opinions. The King of Denmark's court. We had an hour and a half's talk.[...]

[...] the function of a genitive is that of closely connecting a word or a unit of words with the following word: therefore the *s* is always wedged in between the two and is felt as belonging nearly as much to the word following it as to the preceding one. It is even more important that the *s* should come immediately after the word which it turns into a genitive case. Hence *the King of Demark's castle.*"

b. *M.Bryant. A functional English Grammar.*

Definition of case. [...] We shall [...] define case as follows: Case is the change of form by which is indicated the grammatical relationship in which a noun or a pronoun stands to other parts of a communication.

Three cases. So far as the noun is concerned, it is necessary to recognize only two cases under this definition: the nominative case just mentioned, and the genitive [...]. Indeed, if the noun were all we had to think about, we might easily classify the genitive as an adjective and say that the English noun has entirely lost the aspect known as case.

But there are in English six little words which constitute are of this solution. These are *me, us, him, her, them,* and *whom*. These words still keep alive the distinction between nominative and accusative. We shall therefore recognize as existent in English grammar a nominative, an accusative, and a genitive idea, and add that these ideas are imperfectly embodied in word forms. This is particularly true of the accusative, which finds no embodiment except in the six words just mentioned."

c. *G.O. Curme. A Grammar of the English Language.*

[...] Of the many case endings once used in English has, in nouns, preserved only one, namely the *-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 preposition, or by means of inflectional prepositions, which have taken the place of the old inflectional endings, or often by the context alone; that is, the context without the aid of word-order or inflectional preposition suggests the grammatical relation [...]. In the genitive relation we still frequently employ the genitive ending *-s*, but employ also frequently the inflectional preposition *of* [...].

There are now four cases, nominative, accusative, dative, genitive [...]. The cases other than the nominative are called the oblique cases.”

Unit 5. The Adjective, Numeral and Pronoun in English and Ukrainian

1. Classes and categories of the Adjective.
2. Typological features of the Numeral.
3. Pronouns in English/Ukrainian

The Adjective is a part of speech, which is characterized by the following features:

- (1) Lexico-grammatical meaning of properties of substances such as size, colour, position in space, material, psychic state of person etc;
- (2) Typical stem-building elements, cf. *-able* (capable), *-al* (formal), *-ial* (presidential), *-fold* (manifold), *-ful* (beautiful), *-ic* (laconic), *-ile* (futile), *-ish* (selfish), *-less* (meaningless), *-ous* (industrious), *-some* (tiresome) etc.;
- (3) Right-hand combinability with nouns or noun substitutes (nice-looking lady/ симпатична дівчина) and left hand combinability with link-verbs (she's beautiful/ дитя було маленьким), adverbs (quite interesting/ досить цікавий);

- (4) Functions of an attribute (a nice flower/ гарна квітка) and predicative complement (she grew nervous/ вона стала нервовою);
- (5) Category of degree of comparison.

According to their lexico-grammatical meaning, English and Ukrainian adjectives fall into such isomorphic groups as qualitative which denote some quality of the object or phenomenon, cf. cold/ холодний, small/ малий, high/ високий; relative which denote some relation between the object, designated by the noun, and its characteristic expressed by the modifying adjective, cf. wooden table/ дерев'яний стіл (table made of wood) also golden/ золотий, English/ англійський тощо), and possessive-relative which denote some relation between the object, designated by the noun, and the person or geographical name expressed by the modifying adjective with the suffixes -ic, -ian та -івськ-/-овськ-, -зьк-, cf. Shevchenkian/ шевченківський, Shakespearian/ шекспірівський, дніпровський, запорізький.

Allomorphic is the group of possessive Ukrainian adjectives with the suffixes -ин/-ін-, -ів/-їв-, -ов/-ев-, -ач-/-яч-, -цьк-/-зьк- cf. мамин/материн, журавлиний, батьків/татів, водіїв, соловейкові, телячий вояцький which are rendered in English by possessive case or of-constructions.

As far as their structure is concerned, English and Ukrainian adjectives fall into simple, derivative, compound and composite.

English has a great number of simple-stem adjectives, cf. big, red, bold, black, clean, high, old, young, thin, wet, small, tall. Such adjectives are rather rare in Ukrainian, cf. рад, жив.

Qualitative adjectives in both languages have the category of the degrees of comparison showing whether the adjective denotes the property absolutely (positive degree) or relatively in its higher (comparative degree) or the highest manifestation (superlative degree).

Both in English and Russian the category can be expressed synthetically and analytically. English synthetic ways of expression include grammatical morphemes -er/-est while analytical means embrace word-morphemes more/most, cf. nice – nicer – nicest; important – more important – most important. In Ukrainian the category is expressed with the help of the suffixes -іш-/-ш-, -жч-, -щ- (comparative) and the combination of these suffixes with the prefixes **най-/щонай-/якай-** (superlative), cf. добрий – добріший – найдобріший/щонайдобріший/якнайдобріший. The Ukrainian suffix -ш- in the comparative and superlative degrees correlates with -к- (короткий – коротший – найкоротший), -ок- (глибокий – глибокий – найглибший), -ек- (далекий – дальший – найдальший) in the positive degree; the suffix -жч- correlates with -г- (дорогий – дорожчий – найдорожчий), -ж- (дужий – дужчий – найдужчий), -к- in the soft stem (близький – ближчий –

найближчий); the suffix -щ- correlates with -ок-, (*високий* - *вищий* - *найвищий*).

Isomorphic in both languages is the formation of the degrees of comparison through suppletivity, cf. good – better – best; bad – worse – worst; добрий – кращий – найкращий; поганий – гірший – найгірший.

Some qualitative adjectives in both languages do not form the degrees of comparison:

- (1) those already expressing the highest degree of quality, cf. supreme, extreme; *супермодний, прегарний*;
- (2) indicating some degree of quality, cf. bluish/*синюватий*, reddish/*червонуватий*, yellowish/*жовтуватий*;
- (3) indicating qualities which are not compatible with the idea of comparison, cf. blind/*сліпий*, deaf/*глухий*, pregnant/*вагітна*.

Allomorphy between English and Ukrainian adjectives lies in the fact that Ukrainian adjectives, unlike English, have gender, case and number inflections. Most of the qualitative and relative adjectives belong to the first declension and split into hard and soft consonant groups. Possessive adjectives have their own inflections.

The Numeral is a part of speech, which is characterized by the following features:

- (1) Lexico-grammatical meaning of number;
- (2) Typical stem-building elements, cf. -teen (fifteen), -ty (twenty), -th (fifth); *-дцять (двадцять)*, *-надцять (дванадцять)*;
- (3) Right-hand combinability with nouns, articles (the four days), adverbs (the two below/ahead; двоє внизу/попереду), left-hand combinability with pronouns (all the three, some five or so; усі четверо), bilateral combinability with prepositions (two from ten; два з десяти);
- (4) Functions of an attribute (three girls/*три дівчини*), predicative complement (she came third/*вона прийшла першою*), subject (The first ten have arrived/*Перші десятеро приїхали*), adverbial modifier (They ran four and four/*Вони бігли по чотири*).

In accordance with their lexico-grammatical meaning numerals fall into such isomorphic groups as:

- (1) Cardinals, denoting number, cf. three, five, twenty-one; *три, п'ять, двадцять один*;
- (2) Ordinals, denoting order, cf. the third, the fifth, the twenty-first; *перший, п'ятий, двадцять перший*;
- (3) Fractionals, denoting parts of a whole, cf. two tenth; *дві десятих*.

Besides, in Ukrainian there are also allomorphic groups of collective numerals denoting quantity as indivisibly unity, cf. *двоє, четверо, двадцяттеро, п'ятеро*,

десятеро and indefinite cardinal numerals denoting indefinite number, cf. *кількасот, кількадесят, кільканадцять/кільканадцятро*.

As for their stem structure, numerals can be:

1. **Simple-stem**, cf. one, eleven; *один, п'ять*;
2. **Derivative** stem, formed with the help of the suffixes -teen and -ty (cardinals) and -th (ordinals) in English and -надцять, -дцять (cardinals), in Ukrainian, cf. nineteen, twenty; *тринадцять, п'ятнадцять*;
3. **Compound-stem**, cf. *кількадесят, кількасот, триста*;
4. **Compound-derivative**, cf. twenty-one, forty-three, three-ninth, twenty-fifth; *три двадцятих*;
5. **Composite**, cf. one hundred and twenty, twenty two thousand; *три цілих і одна четверта*.

Ukrainian collective numerals also have diminutive suffixes, cf. двоє – двоєчко. The main allomorphic feature of Ukrainian numerals is that, unlike those in English, they have grammatical categories of number, case and partly gender. All Ukrainian numerals have the category of case, cf. п'ять – п'яти – п'яти – п'ять – п'ятьма – (на) п'яти; семеро – сімох – сімом – сімох – сімома – (на) сімох; дві треті – двох третіх – двом третім – дві третіх – двома третіми – (на) двох третіх; перший – першого – першому – першого – першим – (на) першому. The cardinal numerals один and два have gender and number distinctions, cf. один, одна, одне/одно, одні; два, дві. Ordinal numerals also have number and gender distinctions, cf. перший – перша – перше – перші; перша – першої – першій – першу – першою – (на) першій; перше – першого – першому – перше – першим – (на) першому; перші – перших – першим – перших – першими – (на) перших.

The Pronoun is a part of speech, which serves to denote substances, qualities, quantities, circumstances etc. not by naming or describing them, but by indicating them. Grammarians often speak about some difficulties in singling out this part of speech. Some pronouns, e.g. *somebody, nobody etc.* behave like nouns: *somebody's article*, other pronouns substitute adjectives or numerals: *such, many, some etc.*

English and Ukrainian pronouns correlate with (1) nouns, cf. he/він, she/вона, something/щось, somebody/хтось; (2) adjectives, cf. his/його, that/цей; (3) numerals, cf. some/кілька, much/багато, few/мало; (4) adverbs, cf. here/тут, there/там.

Pronouns fall into the following classes: (1) personal; (2) possessive; (3) reflexive; (4) demonstrative; (5) interrogative; (6) connective; (7) reciprocal; (8) indefinite; (9) negative; (10) generalizing; (11) quantitative; (12) contrasting.

Personal pronouns in both languages distinguish person, gender and number: I/я, you/ти – ви, he/він, she/вона, it/воно, we/ми, they/вони. English personal pronouns have objective case forms: me, you, him, her, it, us, them. Ukrainian personal pronouns have 6 cases, cf. я – мене – мені – мене – мною – (на) мені.

Possessive pronouns: my/мій – моя – моє – мої; your/твій – твоя – твоє – твої, ваш – ваша – ваше – ваші; his/його, etc. Unlike English, Ukrainian possessive pronouns are declinable: they have case, number and gender inflexions (мій/моя/моє/мої – мого/моєї/мого/моїх –etc.)

Reflexive pronouns: myself, yourself, себе, etc. Like personal pronouns English reflexive pronouns distinguish person, number and gender. Ukrainian pronoun себе has the case distinctions with the exception of the nominative case forms (себе – собі – себе – собою – (на) собі) but no number distinctions. The dative case form in some contexts can acquire the function of the particle (Вони сиділи собі на диванчику).

Demonstrative pronouns: this – these, that – those, such, same; цей – ця – це – ці, той – та – те – ті, такий – така etc.

English demonstrative pronouns this/that agree in number with the modified noun. Ukrainian demonstrative pronouns agree with the modified noun not only in number, but also in case and gender, cf. цей/такий хлопець – цього/такого хлопця – цьому/такому хлопцю – цього/такого хлопця – цим/таким хлопцем, etc.

Interrogative pronouns: pronouns proper (what, who/whom – хто, що);

adjective pronouns (whose, which, what – чий/чия/чїє/чїї, який/яка/яке/які, котрий/котра/котре/котрі); adverbial pronouns (why, where, when, how –чому, де, коли, як); numeral pronouns (how much, how many, how long –скільки).

Connective pronouns: *noun pronouns:* what/whatever, who whom/whoever – хто,що; *adjective pronouns:* which/whichever, what/whatever чий/чия/чїє/чїї, який/яка/яке/які, котрий/котра/котре/котрі); *adverbial pronouns:* why, where, when, how – чому, де, коли, як; numeral pronouns: how much, how many, how long – скільки.

Relative pronouns coincide in form with interrogative but differ in function.

They are used to connect clauses. In accordance with the meaning and the types of clauses they introduce they fall into conjunctive and relative. Conjunctive pronouns introduce subject, predicative object and appositive clauses (noun clauses), cf. What he knows is no longer a secret/ Те, що він знає, вже не секрет. English compound conjunctive pronouns introduce adverbial clauses as well, cf. Whatever he says is of no importance.

Relative pronouns introduce relative or attributive clauses and, unlike conjunctive pronouns, they are always correlated with some antecedent in the principal clause, cf. There stood a handsome man who(m) she hadn't met before.

Reciprocal pronouns: each other, one another; один одного/одна одну/одне одного/одні одних. English reciprocal pronouns can take possessive case forms, cf. each other's nerves, one another's tears. Ukrainian reciprocal pronouns admit number, gender and case with the exception of the nominative, cf. один одного – один одному – один одного – один одним – (на) один одному. Sometimes, neuter gender form may be used for any gender and number, cf. Молодята поглядали одне на одного.

Indefinite pronouns: indefinite pronouns proper (some, any, somebody, anybody, someone, anyone, something, anything – дехто, дещо, хтось, щось, хто-небудь, що-небудь, будь-хто, будь-що, казна-хто, казна-що); pro-adjectives (some, any – якийсь/якась/якесь/якісь); pro-numerals (some, any – кілька, декілька, кільканадцять); pro-adverbs (somewhere, somehow, anywhere, anyhow – десь, якимось). English indefinite pro-nouns somebody, anybody, someone, anyone take possessive case inflexions. Ukrainian indefinite pro-adjectives distinguish gender, number and case; pro-nouns and pro-numerals distinguish case.

Negative pronouns: negative pronouns proper (no, nobody, nothing neither – ніхто, ніщо); pro-adjectives (no, neither – ніякий/нікотрий/ніякісінський, жоден, ні один, ніхто інший); pro-adverbs (nowhere – ніде); pro-numerals (none – ніскільки/ніскілочки/аніскілочки). English indefinite pro-noun nobody admits possessive case (nobody's). Ukrainian negative pro-adjectives distinguish gender, number and case; pro-nouns admit case inflexions. Some Ukrainian negative pronouns have diminutive forms not typical for English.

Generalizing pronouns: generalizing pronouns proper (all, both, each, either, everybody, everyone, everything – весь/вся/все/всі, обоє, обидва/обидві, будь-який/будь-яка/будь-яке/будь-які, кожний/кожна/кожне/кожні, всякий/всяка/всяке/всякі, кожнісінський); pro-adjectives (every, each, all, both, either – всякий/всяка/всяке/всякі, кожний/кожна/кожне/кожні, обоє, обидва/обидві, будь-який/будь-яка/будь-яке/будь-які); pro-adverb (everywhere – будь-де).

Ukrainian generalizing pro-adjectives and some pronouns distinguish gender, number. Some Ukrainian generalizing pronouns have diminutive forms not typical for English.

Quantitative pronouns: quantitative pronouns proper (many, much, (a) few,

(a) little, several, enough – багато, чимало, немало, мало/небагато, кілька, достатньо); pro-adjectives (much, (a) little, enough – багато, чимало, немало, мало/небагато, мало/небагато); pro-numerals (many, several, (a)few); pro-adverbs (much, (a)little, enough – багато, чимало, немало, кілька, достатньо).

Some Ukrainian quantitative pro-adjectives and pro-numerals distinguish case.

Contrasting pronouns: contrasting pro-adjectives (other, another інший/інша/інше/інші); pro-adverb (otherwise). English contrasting pro-adjectives admit possessive case. Ukrainian contrasting pro-adjectives distinguish gender, number and case.

According to their stem structure, pronouns fall into (1) simple-stem, cf. I, he, some, which; я, ти, хто, ваш, цей, наш; (2) compound-stem, cf. myself, someone, nobody; абихто, абищо, хто-небудь, будь-хто; (3) composite-stem, cf. somebody else, this same; той самий, хто інший, ніхто й ніщо.

Practice assignments:

Task 1. Answer the following questions (1-3 sentences)

- What are typological classes of English and Ukrainian Adjectives?
- What groups of adjectives according to their structure are there in English and Ukrainian?
- What class of Adjectives can undergo grading in both contrasted languages?
- Comment on the ways of grading in the contrasted languages.
- What groups of adjectives in the contrasted languages have no grading?
- Illustrate suppletive forms of adjectives in English and Ukrainian?
- What are common classes of numerals in the contrasted languages?
- What are allomorphic classes of numerals (pertained only to Ukrainian)?
- What are syntactic functions of numerals in English and Ukrainian?
- What classes of pronouns are there in contrasted languages?
- Give examples of indefinite pronouns in English and Ukrainian.
- What are groups of pronouns in the contrasted languages according to their structure?
- What are syntactic functions of pronouns in English and Ukrainian?
- Give examples of isomorphism and allomorphism in the expression of grammatical categories by English and Ukrainian pronouns.

Task 2. Put into isomorphic and allomorphic lexico-grammatical classes:

Cold, big, golden, Shakespearian, yellow, bluish, good, English, urban, private, western, Crimean, wooden.

Матусин, великий, червоний, Шевченківський, найгірший, великий, дерев'яний, англійський, братів, соловейкові, святковий.

Task 3. Put into allomorphic and isomorphic groups on the basis of the stem structure:

Capable, high, wet, eastern, political, careless, ice-cold, four-storied, all-mighty, counteractive, indisputable, red, grammatical, foolish, breast-high.

Певен, багатющий, дрібнесенький, товариська, доїльний, грушевий, синівський, великий, читацький, доцентровий, чорногрива, задніпровський, чотириповерховий, гречаний, ладен, сестрин, винен, сестрині.

Task 4. Give English equivalents and explain the nature if allomorhism in these Ukrainian numerals:

Першої, шістдесятьма, тридцятьох, десяти, двома, двадцять сьомому, двох п'ятих, шостій, четверте, сорок першим.

Task 5. Put into isomorphic and allomorphic lexico-grammatical classes:

Two, two-fifth, tenth, twenty-seven, thirty-first, one and three fourths, fifteen.

П'ятеро, кількасот, кількадесят, кільканадцять, двадцяттеро, двадцять перший, чотири, одна третя, нуль цілих і п'ять сотих, одинадцятьох, п'ятьма.

Task 6. Find allomorhism and isomorhism in the expression of degrees of comparison by the following Ukrainian and English adjectives:

Less, more important, happier, longest, more interesting, better, supreme, cold. Молодший, найкращий, щонайдобрішою, ліпшому, босий, гарний, поганого, набагато важливішими, дужчий, далі.

Task 7. Are there possessive adjectives in English? Comment your answer giving English equivalences of the Ukrainian word combinations:

материна сумка, дядькова колекція, Оксанина професія, чоловікова краватка, батькова порада, лисяча нора, орлине перо.

Task 8. Define syntactic functions of the adjectives and numerals in the following sentences:

- A. 1. They were only five years younger than I was which made them forty-five. 2. Ann was certainly being bravely cheerful in a way which both exasperated Hugh and half compelled his administration (I. Murdoch). 3. The electric light had been burning all night (E. Hemingway). 4. He is stopping at one of the best hotels in town (W. Saroyan). 5. His hair was grey and he was short and fat (E. Hemingway). 6. There were several small

losses: a spoon used for the baby's feeding, a pair of scissors (D. Lessing).
7. For four months, since in the canteen she saw John's tired smile, he had been one long thought in her mind (J. Galsworthy). 8. That early morning he had already done a good two hours' work (J. Galsworthy).

- V. 1. Трохи далі росла сизувата тополина памолодь, пломеніла червона шелюга, стовбурчилася колюча акація, маленькі берізки, що вже встигли зодягти на себе білі сорочечки... (І. Цюпа). 2. Віками еволюції витворились спеціальні роди словесної творчості, які орудують спеціальними формами для цього ефекту (М. Грушевський). 3. На Лисій горі догоряє багаття нічне, і листя осіннє на Лисій горі догоряє (В. Стус). 4. Я беру з татових рук полив'яний глек, стернями виходжу: на дорогу (В. Стус). 5. Біля школи він помітив високого русявого чоловіка – в пальті з каракулевим коміром, у хутряній шапці (І. Світличний). 6. Кажали, що Захаркового запаху боялись навіть риби і тому погано клювали (О. Довженко). 7. І дрібнесенькі світляні блиски грали, як леліточки, по темній бронзовій правій щоці (Леся Українка). 8. У всі віки на всіх перепуттях історії хліб був найбільшим з багатств.

Task 9. Put into classes (in some cases there are several possibilities):

Yourselves, whose, much, each other, mine, they, him, their, who, somebody, nobody, one another, these, few, nothing, same, which.

Наше, небагато, такий само, хто саме, де, одні одних, чий, вони, собі, ваші, цей, котрий, жодний, всякий, чимало, казна-хто, скільки, достатньо, кілька, всі, будь-яке.

Task 10. Put into allomorphic and isomorphic groups on the basis of the stem-structure:

I, nothing, someone, this same, somebody else, ourselves, which, each other, he, nothing.

Наш, той самий, нічогосінько, кожен і всякий, ніхто, що, абихто, хто-небудь, всякий, жоден, кожнісінький.

Task 11. Give English/Ukrainian equivalents and explain the nature of allomorphy/ isomorphism:

Nobody's business; these; it's too late; each other's; mine; he/she/it; it was he who told me about it; whose child/children.

Кількох; кожної; обома; будь-кого; воно ні на що не здатне; кожнісінькою; аніскілечки, вона собі знай співає; жодного іншого; скількома; такою; вони все дивилися одне на одного; тими самими; чийого/чю/чїїх; якою-небудь; казна- ким, небагатьом.

Task 12. Translate the following word combinations into English. State the classes of the pronouns the word combinations are composed of.

Хтозна-які витівки; чиїсь книжки; будь-чия річ; який-небудь стілець; за будь-яку ціну; якийсь студент; іншим разом; жодний винахід; чийсь задум; з усіх усюд; деяка інформація; дехто з присутніх; усяке птаство; ніхто з опитаних; ніщо з прочитаного; дещо із замовле ного; хтось із дітей; вихвалятися своїми успіхами; пробачити собі; кожен мандрівник; вони обоє; такий самий випадок; почути новину від того й іншого; кожен наступний твір.

Task 13. Choose the proper pronoun to complete the sentence.

1. We looked up and saw a man standing in front of (us/ ourselves).
2. Charlotte is very confident. She has a high opinion of (her/ herself).
3. It's a pity you didn't bring your camera with (you/ yourself).
4. Peter talked to the woman sitting next to (him/ himself).
5. I think Dave is rather selfish. He only really cares about (him/ himself).
6. My mother likes to have all her family near (her/ herself).
7. Luckily we managed to get two seats next to (ourselves/ each other).
8. We'd better set off early to give (us/ ourselves) plenty of time to get there.
9. You shouldn't study all night. You'll make (you/ yourself) ill.
10. Wendy takes lots of photos, but she hasn't got many of (her/ herself).

Task 14. Translate the sentences into Ukrainian paying attention to the defining pronouns.

1. In many areas of these countries every third child is said to face severe malnutrition.
2. Our products need to be competitive in terms of both quality and price.
3. Hillary's the same age as me.
4. Climate change and rising sea level threaten the whole world.
5. Her interest in the newspaper business came from her parents, both of whom were journalists.
6. Every time I go to London I get caught in a traffic jam.
7. In both cases, a code warning was received from the bombers before the explosion.
8. It rained every day of our holiday — all the same we had a good holiday.
9. You have to stand up in court and promise to tell "the whole truth and nothing but the truth".
10. The movie is in every way the masterpiece of the cinematography.
11. I'll do everything in my power to prevent a war.

Unit 6. The Article

1. The status of the article
2. The category of definiteness/indefiniteness
3. Semantic structure of the article
4. Articles as the Theme-and- Rheme markers

There are two approaches to the status of the article. From one point of view, the group "article + noun" contains two word-forms, it is **a peculiar type of**

word-combination, then no “zero” article can exist, and the meaning of the definite and indefinite articles is the meaning of two separate words. Another viewpoint regards the group “article + noun” as **an analytical form of the noun**. This view states that the use of the definite, indefinite and zero articles mark a grammatical category. This category is called determination (definiteness-indefiniteness).

The question is whether the group “article + noun” can be a form of the noun in the same way as, for example, the group *will speak*. If we were to take that view, some nouns would have three forms, two of them analytical, *room, the room, a room*; while other nouns would have two forms: *water, the water*.

The category of definiteness/indefiniteness (determination) is a noun category, which is usually expressed by articles that can be either a function word, as in English, French, German, Greek, Arabic, or an affix, as in Nordic languages, Bulgarian and others. Indefiniteness can be expressed by means of the zero article (Bulgarian) or by the indefinite article. In the languages where no articles are found this category is expressed by other categories, for example, in Russian it can be expressed by case: «выпил воду» (def.) - «выпил воды» (indef.).

Here we are going to speak about articles in English, because it is the only formal sign of this category accepted by all the scholars. Although a great number of philologists have treated the article both in English and in other languages, it will be only fair to say that even the most essential points concerning the theory of the articles still remain doubtful.

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.

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

The definite, indefinite and zero articles have semantic structure of their own, which predetermines their use with the nouns.

The semantic structure of the definite article:

- 1) The seme of individualization, i.e. the noun determined by the definite article is singled out of the class of similar objects;

- 2) The seme of uniqueness, signaling that the object determined by the article is the only one: the sun, the earth;
- 3) The seme of demonstration, which makes the definite article similar in meaning with the demonstrative pronouns;
- 4) The seme of generalization, i.e. the object is perceived as a generalized definition of all the objects of the class (The horse is a domestic animal).

The semantic structure of the indefinite article:

- 1) The seme of classification, i.e. the object is one of the similar objects of that class;
- 2) The seme of singleness, which signals that the identified object is one;
- 3) The seme of novelty, i.e. the indefinite article points out that the information about the noun it determines is new.

The meaning of the zero article coincides either with the meaning of the definite or that of the indefinite article.

The use of articles in the sentence is determined not only by the meaning they express but also by a situation the referent of the noun modified by an article is found in. Thus, the definite article serves as an indicator of the information which is presented as the “facts already known”, i.e. as the starting point of the communication. In contrast to this, the indefinite article or the zero article introduces the central communicative part of the sentence, presenting “new facts”. In the situational study of syntax the starting point of the communication is called its “**theme**”, while the central informative part is called its “**rheme**”. Traditionally the grammatical subject coincides with the theme, and the grammatical predicate is the rheme of the utterance. Still there are situations where there are disagreements between grammatical and communicative subjects and predicates.

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

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

Practice assignments:

Task 1. Define the means that render the category of definiteness/ indefiniteness with the head nouns in the next given word combinations.

A vehicle that uses the power of the sun; my oldest son, human beings; model human beings; king's last journey; to be in bed for hours; to be at work; the ones in the window; two of those coats; washing powder; to buy food; cooking oil; a bottle of cooking oil; an interesting experience; wine; the wines of Italy; two teas; a Mr. Brown; a dozen eggs; half a pound of margarine; a jar of jam; to play music; to play some Bach; doing research; to do a research into radioactivity; giving advice; mineral water; fizzy mineral water; to contain egg (e.g. a pie); Dave; our neighbor Dave.

Task 2. Suggest examples in English to illustrate the below stated means of the semantic category of definiteness:

a) determiners; b) quantifiers; c) preposed modifiers; d) postposed modifiers.

Task 3. Comment on how the articles render the category of definiteness/ indefiniteness of the nouns in the following sentences:

1. Is there life after death? She has lived the life of misery since the death of her husband. 2. They experience freedom from pain. The freedom to say what you want is a basic democratic freedom. 3. There's a feeling of love, joy, beauty and peace. My new car's a beauty. It's a real joy to drive. 4. That numerous people have had Near Death Experiences is not a doubt. There is still a doubt in my mind about whether it was a right thing to do. 5. The future looks bleak — drought, disease and economic collapse. The drought in Africa last year cost many lives. There is a drought every year.

Task 4. Write *a, the* or nothing in each gap:

1. ___ worry about ___ state of his finances drove him to ___ despair. 2. He sauntered down ___ streets without anybody in ___ world to support him. 3. ___ main worry of ___ people is ___ good health. 4. ___ news is just coming into ___ studio of Mr. Paul Beaston, ___ film Director. 5. I can't wait to go on holiday. ___ sea, ___ sand and ___ books — that's what I want. 6. I went to ___ theatre last night and saw ___ great play. I thought it was good, anyway, but I read in ___ papers this morning that ___ critics had slammed it. 7. ___ Paris of ___ 1980's is nothing compared to ___ Paris of 1968. 8. She was appointed ___ President of ___ National Union of ___ Print workers. 9. ___ last year was good for business. 10. I decorated ___ children's bedroom as fast as I could. In ___ week, I had finished. 11. I met my wife at ___ party on ___ New Year's Eve. It was on ___ Wednesday, I seem to recall.

Task 5. Supply *the* or —:

1. A lot of people are giving up ___ meat. ___ meat we had for lunch last Sunday was tough. 2. As someone said, ___ life is just one damned thing after another. I don't know much about ___ life of ___ Napoleon. 3. ___ running is supposed to be good for you. I ought to be fit with all ___ running I do, but I don't feel fit. 4. Which is your favorite colour? — ___ red. I think ___ red one will suit you best.

___ red is more your colour. 5. We learnt ___ English at school. ___ English we learnt was useless. 6. ___ London is a safe city today, but ___ London of the 18th century was pretty rough.^[17] ___ watches have become very cheap and very attractive. Most of ___ watches you see today work on ___ quarts. 8. ___ Bach gives me a great deal of pleasure. ___ Bach recording you bought for my birthday is first class. 9. What has been the longest period of ___ peace in ___ history? If you study ___ History, you've got to read a lot. 10. I'm not interested in the price of ___ silver or the price of ___ gold.^[17] 1. ___ fasting during Ramadan is more difficult in the summer months.

Task 6. Put in *a, the, an* or —. Translate the text into Ukrainian picking up proper means to render the nominal category of definiteness/indefiniteness:

I travel all over ___ world on ___ business and my neighbor thinks my life is one long holiday. You know what ___ business travel is like: up at ___ dawn to catch ___ plane; ___ breakfast in ___ London, ___ lunch in ___ New York, ___ luggage in ___ Bermuda. When you are in ___ sky, you see only ___ snow in ___ Arctic or ___ Greenland. You have glimpses of ___ Andes or ___ Pacific. You are always exhausted. Your wife or husband complains you are never there to take ___ children to ___ school or put them to ___ bed. When you get home your neighbor says "Another nice holiday, eh?" Oh, give me ___ Home, Sweet Home any day.

Task 7. Translate into English. Mind the correct use of the articles with the proper names.

1. Ірландія острів чи континент? 2. Уральські гори вищі, ніж Альпи, чи не так? 3. Хто населяє Європу? 4. У яких країнах розмовляють німецькою? 5. Волга довша, ніж Темза? 6. Яка мова важча, китайська чи японська? 7. Турки, араби, афганці, індійці, китайці, японці населяють Азію. 8. Монголія така ж за величиною, як Канада? 9. Фінляндія, Норвегія, Швеція, Данія розташовані у північній Європі. 10. Де розташовані Великі озера? 11. На якому континенті пустеля Гобі? 12. Він вважає себе американцем, хоча батько — поляк, а мати родом з Італії. 13. На Північному полюсі не так холодно, як на Південному, хоча тут буває півроку ніч, а півроку можна бачити північне сяйво. 14. Велика Британія — острівна країна, яка відділена від Франції протокою Дувр. 15. Африка відділена від Австралії Індійським океаном.

Task 8. Say whether the underlined nouns realize the semantic category of definiteness or indefiniteness. What means creates it? Translate the text into Ukrainian pertaining the exposed category of the noun.

Mr. Denys Stocks, a retired policeman, has just been given a B.Sc. for twelve years' research into ancient Egyptian industrial methods. Egyptologists have often wondered how Egyptians were able to cut such hard stone and how they

produced such fine jewelry. Mr. Stocks has shown that Egyptians used saws and drills. The saws and the drills were made of copper, which is very soft. But Egyptian craftsmen turned them into powerful tools. First a craftsman made a cut in a stone with a soft saw. Then the craftsman poured sand into the cut. The hard sand got into the teeth of the saw and did a cutting.

Task 9. Decide whether the following Ukrainian nouns realize the semantic category of definiteness or indefiniteness. State the means of its realization in both languages. Translate the sentences into English.

1. Зараз за домом ріс старий розкішний сад (Н.Лев). 2. Про навчання, завдяки якому хтось може оволодіти риторичним мистецтвом, я тверджу: потрібно, щоб ми намагалися вкласти працю і зусилля, рівні тому подвигу, котрий кожний має перед красномовством (Феоф.). 3. В усіх народів світу існує повір'я, що той, хто забув звичаї своїх батьків, карається людьми і Богом. Він блукає по світі, як блудний син, і ніде не може знайти собі притулку та пристановища, бо він загублений для свого народу (Вороп.). 4. Вирують весняні струмки, курличуть ключі журавлині (Лук.). 5. У багатьох начальницьких кабінетах бачили цього щуплявого аса з блідим, ніби весь час схвильованим обличчям і мовою різкою, нервовою, вимогливою (Гонч.). 6. Дужчав мороз. Дим з коминів валив рівно, зливаючись з небом. От на цій річечці вирішив Кузьма самотужки побудувати місток (Ст.). 7. Мономах втомлено озирався. Коли б зараз половецька орда змогла їх настигнути, то його вої загинули б. І Святополча дружина, і Давида Святославича ратники полягли б у цьому розгаслому, розм'яклому степу. Але в цю теплу непогодь і половчани на своїх конях не рушать. І веж своїх не покотять швидко... (Іванч.). 8. Кожна голова має свій розум. (Нар. тв.).

Unit 7. Functional Parts of Speech in English and Ukrainian

1. Prepositions
2. Conjunctions
3. Particles
4. Interjections

The number of functionals in the contrasted languages is practically the same, the only exception being the article in English. Their nomenclature is as follows: the preposition, the conjunction, the particle and the interjection. Functional parts of speech are such words whose only function is to render different relations between parts of the sentence without naming them. They are never parts of the sentence themselves.

The Preposition is a part of speech, which is characterized by the following features: lexico-grammatical meaning of relations of substances; combinability with words belonging to almost any part of speech; function of a linking word.

The lexico-grammatical meaning of prepositions as semi-notionals is **isomorphic** in both languages. Prepositions may be **temporal** (before до, after that після того, during під час, since від, until доки etc.), **local** (along вздовж, across через, behind за etc.), **causal** (because через те, що; in view of з погляду на etc.), **concessive** (despite, всупереч).

Allomorphy is observed in the nature of the syntactic functions of prepositions. These are linking in English: prepositions do not require any special case from the right-hand nominal component (the book of my brother, toys for the child, four of the boys) with the exception of the few prepositions capable of expressing some case relations, cf. of (genitive case: books of hers/theirs), to and for (dative case: sent to them, books for him/us), by and with (instrumental case: written by him/them/us, went with her/us/them). In Ukrainian prepositions govern nouns, pronouns, numerals, substantivized adjectives and nominal groups, cf. працю в садку/на полі, лежати під грушею/дубом, лист від нього/іншого, захист від польових гризунів.

Isomorphic are prepositions, which are used to link, but not govern unchangeable foreign nouns, cf. їхати в таксі, вийти з фойє, ходити без кольє.

Isomorphism is observed in the morphological structure of prepositions. As far as their stem structure is concerned, prepositions fall into:

- (1) simple, cf. at, in, on, of, with, to, by, for; в, з, о, на, за, при, без;
- (2) derivative which are very few, cf. be-low, be-side, a-long; в-наслідок, завдяки, по-верх, по-перек, до-вкіл etc.;
- (3) compound, cf. inside, outside, into, within, throughout, upon, without; із-за, з-під, з-понад, попід, поперед, посеред, поміж, щодо, задля;
- (4) composite, cf. by means of, instead of, because of, in accordance with, owing to, in front of, in spite of, with regard to; на відміну від, у зв'язку з, згідно з, незалежно від, збоку від, в межах, близько від, поруч з, у відповідь на.

The only structural difference is the group of Ukrainian simple prepositions consisting of a single consonant or vowel (в, у, о, з).

In Modern English prepositions are less closely connected with the word or phrase they introduce, than in Ukrainian. There exist the so-called *retained prepositions* when a preposition is used at the very end of the sentence, e.g.: The child was taken care of.

The Conjunction is a part of speech, which is characterized by the following features: lexico-grammatical meaning of relation between substances and situations; combinability with units of similar type: homogenous parts of

coordinate phrases and sentences or subordinate clauses in composite sentences; function of a linking word.

As for their syntactic functions, conjunctions in the contrasted languages fall into two isomorphic groups: (1) coordinating conjunctions and (2) subordinating conjunctions.

Coordinating conjunctions fall into the following subclasses:

- (a) copulative/єднальні: and, nor, neither...nor, as well as, both...and, not only...but also; і/й, та, також, і...і, ні...ні, як...так і, не тільки...але й/і.
- (b) disjunctive/розділові: or, either... or; або, чи, або...або, чи...чи, то...то, чи то...чи то;
- (c) adversative/протиставні: but, still, yet; але, проте, зате, однак, все ж;
- (d) resultative/пояснювальні: so, hence; так, тож/отож, тобто, а саме, як от.

Subordinating conjunctions include:

- (a) connective, introducing subject, object, predicative and attributive clauses: that, whether, if; що, чи, якщо/якби. Common functions in both contrasted languages are also performed by relative pronouns: who, what, how, how many; хто, що, який, котрий, чий, скільки; and by connective adverbs: where, when, how, why; де, коли, куди, як, чому;
- (b) *adverbial*: of time, cf. since, until, till, as long as, after, before, while, as soon as; коли, відколи, поки, аж поки, доки, аж доки, як, після того як та інш.; of place and direction, cf. where, wherever, whence; де, де б, куди, звідки; of cause or reason, cf. as, because, since, seeing; бо, через те що, тому що, з тим що, оскільки; of condition, cf. if, unless, provided, supposing; якби, якщо, якщо б, коли б, аби; of purpose, cf. lest, that, in order that, so that; щоб, для того щоб, з тим щоб; of result, cf. so, that; так що, отож, тож; of concession, cf. though, although, as, even if, even though, however, wherever, whichever; хоч, хай, нехай, дарма що, незважаючи на; of comparison, cf. as, as...as, not so... as, than, as if, as though; як, мов, мовби, немовби, наче, неначе, начебто, ніби, нібито.

English and Ukrainian conjunctions can be: ^[1] (1) *simple*, cf. and, but, or, if, that, till; і/й, а, бо, ні, та; ^[2] (2) *derivative*, cf. unless, until, because; або, зате, проте; ^[3] (3) *compound*, cf. although, whereas; якщо, якби; ^[4] (4) *composite*, cf. as if, as soon as, in order that; так що, через те, що; для того, щоб; з того часу як; відтоді, як. Besides, there are correlative conjunctions, consisting of two parts, cf. both...and, either...or, neither...nor, no sooner...than; і... і, ні ... ні, то ... то, чи ... чи, не то ... не то, не стільки ... скільки.

The Particle is a part of speech, which is characterized by the following features: lexico-grammatical meaning of emphatic specification; ^[1] unilateral combinability with words of different classes as well as clauses; function of a specifier.

Particles have no power of nomination, they merely render different emotional and evaluative attitude of the speaker to the content of an element of a sentence or to the whole utterance. The particles can be classified into:

Limiting particles: only, just, alone, merely etc. навіть, тільки, лише, таки etc.

Intensifying particles: simply, still, all, yet, but, even etc. саме, якраз, точно, власне, неначе, мов, мов би, немов, буцім etc.

Negative particles: not, never, не, ні, ані.

Connecting particles: also, else, either, too etc. теж, також, до того ж, адже.

Particles fall into form building and word-building. The above-mentioned particles are form building. Word-building particles include: else- (elsewhere), not- (notwithstanding), no- (nothing), more- (moreover); будь- (будь-хто), -небудь (хто-небудь), казна- (казна-хто).

Particles have no typical stem-building elements. As far as their stem structure is concerned particles fall into:

(1) simple-stem, cf. all, else, even, just, too, yet, not; все, так, ну, не, ж, еге, та, це, оце, чи;

(2) derivative-stem, cf. alone, merely, scarcely, simply; нумо, просто; (3)

compound-stem, cf. almost, also; невже, якраз; (4) composite-stem, cf. why not; до того ж, ще й.

English Particles are often homogeneous with adverbs and even adjectives, e.g. a just person (A), just now (particle), thus some grammarians speak of less developed particle system in it or even about treating it as separate part of the sentence (prof. V.Ilyish, V.Khaimovich, V.Rogovskaya). While the Ukrainian language is characterized by a developed and more or less stable multicomponent system of particles.

A distinguishing feature of present day Ukrainian is a more extensive use of particles in speech, e.g.: мовби, бодай, хай, нехай, нумо та інш.

The English language in its turn has more practical nature; an action itself is in the foreground but not modal attitude towards it. The speech system has a limited set of tools to render emotional and expressive shades. These meanings are rendered by intonation.

Interjections are unchangeable words or phrases expressing emotional and volitional reaction of the speaker to some event. Hence, there are to be distinguished communicative, emotive, and signaling interjections, which express respectively joy or pleasure, sadness or warning, etc.

Interjections in English and Ukrainian utterances mostly occupy a front position, rarely a midposition or a closing position. Interjections may be primary (первинні) and derivative (похідні).

According to their structure, interjections may be *simple* (ah, a, oh, oo, a! o! ай, ох та інш.), *compound* (*whoop, wo-ho, yo-ho, Господи Боже, Боже мій*) and *composite, or phrasal*. (*howdy* –from how do you do, *alright* from all right, *attaboy* from that's a boy; *добридень* від добрий день)

One interjection being often used in English and Ukrainian can express different meanings, for example positive feelings: 'Great!' Michael said. (Shaw) – "Чудово!"- вигукнув Майкл. *Ooh-ooh!* The crowd was moaning in a kind of enormous agony (Huxley) "У-у! У-у! – стогнав, переповнений якимось замилюванням, збуджений натовп.

Practice assignment:

Task 1. Define the meaning and form of the following prepositions. Compare them with the corresponding Ukrainian ones.

In, below, with regard to, during, concerning, till, in front of, without, behind, under, in view of, outside, off, into, until, across, according to, with, along, up, inside, out of, owing to, at, regarding.

Task 2. Find subordinate and coordinate conjunctions, define their kinds.

1. The stranger had not gone far, so he made after him to ask the name (Ch. Dickens). 2. Be quick, or it may be too late (Ch. Dickens) 3. ... real accuracy and purity she neither possessed, nor in any number of years would acquire (Ch. Bronte). 4. She stood quite silent while Butler appealed to her (Th. Dreiser). 5. Since Miss Wilfer rejected me, I have never again urged my suit (Ch. Dickens). 6. It seemed to him that he could contrive to secure for her the full benefit of both his life insurance and his fire insurance... (H. Wells). 7. The reference was as plain as it was unexpected (A. C. Clark). 8. Give me your promise that this shall be done (J. B. Priestly). 9. But for a long time we did not see any lights (E. Hemingway). 10. Once they reached the open country the car leapt forward like a mad thing (I. Murdoch). 11. Mrs. Banks has come down into the Yard tonight, on purpose that you should hear him (Ch. Dickens).

Task 3. Analyze the following conjunctions according to its function in the sentence, syntactic and semantic relations and its form. Translate the sentences into English:

1. В небі хмарка, наче білий лебідь, пропливає в далекії краї, вітер спілі колоски теребить, а я руки згадую твої (Д. Павличко). 2. Якби з ким сісти хліба з'їсти, промовить слово (Т. Шевченко). 3. В неволі тяжко, хоча й волі, сказати по правді, не було (Т. Шевченко). 4. Татарські погроми зменшили нашу літературну продукцію, проте спинити вони її не змогли (І. Огієнко). 5. Змолоду треба набратися знань, щоб не пуста була твоя власна криниця (І. Цюпа). 6. То наближаючись, то віддаляючись, але не стихаючи зовсім,

гуркотіло і гуркотіло два трактори в полі (І. Рябокляч). 7. Не боїться любов розлуки, не дається печалі в руки, синім зором зорить у далі, хоч за це й не дають медалі (А. Малишко).

Task 4. Identify particles in the following sentences, define their type, and translate the sentences into Ukrainian.

1. It is just because I want to save my soul that I am marrying for money (B. Shaw). 2. Rosa feared this power, but she enjoyed it too. 3. Oh, doctor, do you think there is any chance? (B. Shaw). 4. We merely want to see the girl and take her away (Th. Dreiser). 5. I shall also try to be there at ten (H. Wells). 6. Tom, you'll manage it and if you do I'll give you something ever so nice (M. Twain). 7. They did not even look at him (W. Faulkner). 8. We followed him along the corridor... He never looked back; he never hesitated (M. Collins).

Task 5. Comment on the following extracts:

А. У сучасному мовознавстві існує кілька поглядів на природу й статус вигуків: а) вигук перебуває поза системою частин мови; б) вигук належать до системи частин мови, але посідає особливе місце в ній; в) вигук – частина мови, що належить до службових одиниць поряд із частками, прийменниками й сполучниками; г) вигук – частина мови, що належить до розряду повнозначних слів, які мають самостійне лексичне значення; д) в дискурсивній лінгвістичній парадигмі вигуки розглядають як дискурсивні слова, що своєрідно актуалізуються в дискурсі й мають прагматичну наповненість, що залежить від різних чинників, окреслених мовленнєвою ситуацією (див., напр., праці Ф. Бацевича, Т. Космеди та ін.). Вигук, звісно, належить до найбільш характерних елементів емоційної сфери мовлення, які безпосередньо пов'язані з паралінгвістичними, невербальними засобами, що й виокремлює їх серед інших класів слів. Вигук має “тонку контекстуальну чутливість”. До найбільш уживаних вигуків української, російської та англійської лінгвокультур належать ті, що вербалізують *радість, здивування, обурення, гнів, страх та розчарування*, наприклад: *Ах так! Ось воно що! Тим більше! На жаль! А! Ач який! Ач що вигадав! Ось як! Ось що! А ну його! Ну тебе! What! So, that's what you want! So that's it! All the more so! Alas! Bugger this for a lark! Damfino! Tough titty!* (Квеселевич 2009)

В. Вигуки, до складу яких входить два і більше слів, називають, як відомо, вторинними, похідними. Такі словосполучення переходять до класу вигуків як готові мовленнєві одиниці, при цьому вони ресемантизуються й набувають цілісного вигукового значення, що не виводиться, на відміну від вільних словосполучень, з семантики складових одиниць, наприклад: *So long!*, де два слова повністю десемантизувалися й виражають сигнал

фатичної комунікації, – “Бувай!”; *Beat it! Bug off! Buzz off! Clear off! Go climb a tree! Go cook a raddish! Go fish! Drop dead! Fry your face! Fry ice! Forget you! Frig off! Get rooted! Get lost! Get off my back! Get on your bike! Get stuffed! Get knotted! Go to grass! Go to blue blazes! Hop off! Jump at yourself! Kiss my foot! Peddle your fish! Peel a grape! Pick a pickle! Scrape yourself!*, де слова також десемантизувалися й позначають “*Забирайся геть!*”. Ці англійські вигуки вербалізують емоцію *гніву* [Kudryavtsev 1993]. Відмінність між вигуківими конструкціями української, російської й англійської лінгвокультур убачаємо в наявності в українській та російській лінгвокультурах вигуків-проклять, що не характерні для англійської.

C. Primary and secondary interjections, interjective constructions are used to represent emotional sphere of a person in Ukrainian, Russian and English linguocultures. As a part of speech interjection doesn't have an unanimous definition and interpretation: its status has been defined in modern linguistic studies. Interjection has been analyzed as a controversial phenomenon in linguistics of emotions and linguoculture, as an open system of words that is constantly enriched by means of grammatical alteration, desemantisation, pragmatic colouring. Interjection belongs to discourse words and is represented in different linguocultures depending on different communicative situations, traditions. (Сліпецька 2012)

D. Натомість в англійській граматиці термін «частка» зустрічається досить рідко. Загалом можна виділити два основні напрями щодо визначення статусу часток. Зарубіжні науковці не виділяють частки як окремий розряд слів. Термін «particles» використовується насамперед у ранніх граматиках англійських дослідників на позначення всього розряду службових частин мови (Г. Світ, О. Єсперсен). У більшості досліджень сучасних англійських лінгвістів розряд часток розглядається у межах окремих частини мови, які об'єднуються на основі відсутності граматичних категорій. Найчастіше частку відносять до класу прислівників; у такому випадку часто використовують термін «adverbials» (вільний модифікатор щодо визначуваного, що виконує другорядну функцію) та «focusing adverbials» (вільний модифікатор з класу фокусовидільних прислівників) [Nevalainen 1987].

Task 6. Read the sentences and comment on the morphological structure of the interjections and their meaning. Give Ukrainian/English appropriate correlates.

1. “The Boers are a hard nut to crack, uncle James”. “H'm!” muttered James. “Where do you get your information?” (J. Galsworthy). 2. “Good Lord!” said Fleur. “Am I only twenty-one? I feel forty-eight”. (J. Galsworthy). 3. Heavens! How dull you are! (R. B. Sheridan). 4. Ah! You are, both of you are good-natured (R. B. Sheridan). 5. A man jumped on the top of the barricade and, waving exuberantly, shouted: “Americans!

Hurrah!" 6. "Hark!" cried the Dodger at this moment, "I heard the tinkle", catching up the light, he crept softly upstairs (Ch. Dickens). 7. "Who is that?" she cried "Hush, hush!" said one of the women, stooping over her (Ch. Dickens). 8. Well, I don't like those mysterious little pleasure trips that he is so fond of taking (E. L. Voynich). 9. Here! I've had enough of this. I'm going (B. Shaw). 10. Креслять тригонометричні фігури високо в небі запізнiлі журавлі, запитуючи своїм «кру-кру»: – Чуєш, брате мій, товаришу мій? Відлітаємо! (Остап Вишня). 11. Спасибі, – сказала нарешті Улянка. – Я забула, що треба подякувати. 12. Дзелень, дзелень!... – забило на вежі, видко, дев'яту годину (А. Головка). 13. Ого-го! Та тут, мабуть, на одну підводу не забереш! 14. Ура! Ура, Панченко! – дружно лунають вигуки в залі (О. Бойченко). 15. Тсс! – хтось іззаду. І стихло (А. Головка). 16. Ох, той щоденник... Хоч би він не потрапив до чужих рук... (М. Стельмах).

Unit 8. The Verb in English and Ukrainian

1. General features of the Verb
2. Grammatical categories of person, number and gender
3. Grammatical category of Tense
4. Grammatical category of Aspect
5. Grammatical category of Voice
6. Grammatical category of Order
7. Grammatical category of Mood

The following features characterize the Verb as a part of speech:

- (1) Lexico-grammatical meaning of action, cf. *work, smile*, etc., state, cf. *want, belong, know etc.*, and process, cf. *grow, change, die* etc.;
- (2) Typical stem-building elements, cf. -ate (facilitate), -en (strengthen), -ify (beautify), -ize (organize), -esce (acquiesce); -ти/ть (*брати/брать*); -тися/ться-сь (*братися/молиться-сь*);
- (3) Bilateral combinability with nouns or noun substitutes denoting the doer and the object of the action (He kissed Mary/ Він **поцілував** Мері) and adverbs (to walk slowly/**йти повільно**);
- (4) Functions of the predicate (finites: He wanted a drink/ Він **хотів випити**) and secondary predicate (Verbals: watch him swimming) in a sentence;
- (5) Categories of person, number, tense, aspect, voice, mood. Besides, the English verb has the morphological category of order (perfect forms).

Grammatical categories

Finite verbs in both contrasted languages have **six common morphological categories, which** are realized with the help of synthetic (person and number) and analytical means (tense, aspect, voice, mood). Besides, English has the morphological category of time correlation (perfect forms) realized analytically.

Ukrainian verbs change their form in accordance with the person, number, tense. This change is called declension.

The **category of person** is a grammatical word-changing category of the verb, expressing the relation of the subject (of the action, process, quality) to the speaker. As soon as the category has a regular expression of verb forms, often in combination with personal pronouns, it is considered to be an explicit category. The category of person is connected with other verb categories, such as the category of tense, aspect, mood, voice.

The **category of number**, expressing the quantitative characteristics of different phenomena, depends on the number of the noun or pronoun in the function of the subject of the sentence. In Ukrainian the agreement of the subject with the predicate in person, number and gender is mandatory (the morphological paradigm according to the conjugation of the verb). English, being mostly analytical with the destroyed inflection system is characterized by sporadic agreement of the subject with the predicate in person and number. The ways to express this agreement are: the ending *-s* for the third person singular in the Present Indefinite, the Past Indefinite form *were* of the verb *to be* for the plural, the Present Indefinite of the verb *to be* (*am* for the 1st person singular, *is* for the 3rd person singular and *are* for the plural forms and 2nd person singular).

The **category of gender** is characteristic of the Ukrainian verb only and alongside with the categories of person and gender is included into the morphological word-changing paradigm of every verb.

The category of number shows whether the action is associated with one doer or more than one. In English the category of number is represented in its purity only by the forms of the verb *to be* *was* :: *were* in past tense and by the discontinuous morphemes of the continuous aspect of the past tense and the past tense in the passive voice containing *was/were*. In the rest of the forms (*am – are, is – are; speak – speaks; has – have*) number is blended with person.

In Ukrainian the category of number is represented by the inflexions of the present tense and also synthetic (perfective) and analytical (non-perfective) future tense forms, the past tense and the subjunctive mood forms and also by the imperative mood forms.

The category of tense shows the relation of the time of the action denoted by the verb to the moment of speech. There are three tenses both in English and

Ukrainian: present, past and future. In English the category of tense is represented by a system of three member opposemes such as works/work :: worked :: 'll work; am/is/are working :: was/were working :: 'll be working; has worked :: had worked :: 'll have worked. In English tense is blended with aspect and time correlation and is expressed synthetically (present/past simple, affirmative) and analytically (present/past simple negative and interrogative; future simple; present/past future continuous/ perfect/ perfect continuous).

In Ukrainian, with the exception of non-perfective future, which is rendered analytically, the category of tense is expressed synthetically: by a system of inflexions, different for the 1st, 2nd and 3^d person and singular/plural number in the present and perfective future, and for the singular (masculine, feminine and neuter gender) and plural number in the past, cf. *нес-у/нес-еш/нес-е/нес-емо/ нес-ете/ нес-уть // нес-е :::: нес-тима/ при-несе/буде нести.*

Some doubts have been expressed about the existence of the future tense in English. O. Jespersen discussed this question more than once. The reason why Jespersen denied the existence of the future tense in English was that the English future is expressed by the phrase “*shall/will + infinitive*”, and the verbs *shall* and *will* which make part of the phrase preserve, according to Jespersen, some of their original meaning (*shall*: an element of obligation, and *will*: an element of volition). Thus, in Jespersen’s view, English has no way of expressing “pure futurity”, free from modal shades of meaning, i. e. it has no form standing on the same grammatical level as the forms of the past and present tenses.

Tense forms can be absolute, i.e. those which do not depend on the other tense forms and determined by the moment of speaking: the present tense form, denoting the action, taking place at the moment of speaking; the past tense form, denoting the action, which took place before the moment of speaking; and the future tense form, denoting the action after the moment of speaking. Relative tense forms denote actions, regarded not in connection with the moment of speaking but depend on other tense forms or time indicators.

According to some researchers, the tense system of the English verb includes two sets of forms: absolute tense forms (Indefinite) and relative forms (Continuous and Perfect).

The category of aspect shows the character of the action, i.e. whether the action is taken in its progress or simply stated, its nature being unspecified. In English it is represented by a system of two member opposemes such as work/works :: am/is/are working; worked :: was/were working; etc..

In Ukrainian there is no morphological category of aspect. The meaning of continuous aspect blended with that of passive voice and is expressed by lexicogrammatical means, namely it is expressed by affixes, such as:

- 1) Suffixes *-іть, -ує* and interchange of vowels or consonants are used to form imperfective verbs: *зігрівати, показувати.*

2) Suffix *-ну-*, added to the verb stem is used to form perfective from imperfective verbs: *стрибнути*.

3) Prefixes *з-*, *зі-*, *по-*, *за-* and other: *з'їсти*, *зірвати*, *побудувати*, *занести*.
Change of the stressed syllable: *насипати* – *насипати*.

There are also pairs of verbs formed from different roots: *брати* – *взяти*.

As far as the English language has no perfective/imperfective aspects, and still the way how the action is going on is characterized morphologically, we are to speak about different aspectual properties of the English verb in comparison with the Ukrainian one.

Treating the category of aspect as characterizing the actions by their behavior and having certain morphological signs, Prof. Smirnitsky singled out two aspects, common and continuous. Common aspect is expressed by zero ending or *-s* in the Present, *-ed* ending or vowel interchange in the Past, *shall/will* + *verb forms* in the Future and denotes the fact. Continuous aspect is expressed by the verb *to be* in the corresponding tense form and *-ing* ending of the verb and denotes the process.

As distinct from Ukrainian aspect category, where all the verbs form correspondent pairs of perfective and imperfective verbs with their own morphological characteristics, presenting two correspondent sets of forms, in English verbs of common and continuous aspect do not form such pairs, almost any verb can appear in both common and continuous form.

So, it is obvious that there is no direct correspondence between English and Ukrainian aspects, thus the English continuous aspect is not identical with the Ukrainian imperfective. The relation between the two systems is not simple. On the one hand, the English common aspect may correspond not only to the Ukrainian perfective but also to the Ukrainian imperfective aspect; thus *he wrote* may correspond both to *написав* and to *писав*. On the other hand, the Ukrainian imperfective aspect may correspond not only to the continuous but also to the common aspect in English: *писав* – *wrote, was writing*.

The category of voice shows whether the action is represented as issuing from its subject or as experienced by its object. Both English and Ukrainian have two voices: active and passive. The category of voice is represented by the opposeemes like *loves/love* :: *am/is/are loved*.

In Ukrainian the passive voice is expressed by the discontinuous morpheme: *бути* ... Vpast participle, cf. *Лист (є)/був/буде написаний*.

The fact that the both languages have similar grammatical categories does not prove their typological similarity. One should take into account their distribution and functioning. If we compare the use of passive voice forms in the contrasted languages, we will see that it differs considerably. Thus, for instance, in English the passive forms are widely used when the action is directed at the subject of the sentence, while in Ukrainian and Russian word

order is used in this case (the object in the accusative case is placed before the predicate: *this long bridge was built at the beginning of this century* – *цей довгий міст побудували на початку сторіччя*).

The Ukrainian verb in the active voice form functioning as the predicate of the indefinite-personal sentences corresponds to the English passive verb form: *нам повідомили приємну новину* – *we were told good news. John was given a good mark* – *Джону поставили гарну оцінку*.

In English some forms of the active voice find no parallel in the passive: the forms of future continuous, present perfect continuous, past perfect continuous.

The category of order (time correlation) shows whether the action is viewed as prior to (perfect) or irrespective of (non-perfect) other actions and situations. In English it is represented by the system of opposemes such as writes/write – has/have written, wrote – had written, writing – having written, to be written – to have been written. Thus, in English there exist present, past and future perfect forms. In Ukrainian this category is only represented by the pluperfect, which corresponds to the English Past Perfect (*задрімав був/задрімала була/задрімали були*).

In Ukrainian the verb category of order is expressed by means of combination of tense-forms in complex sentences with sub-clauses of time, as well as in sentences with homogeneous predicates and compound sentences if such time indicators as «спочатку», «потім» are found in them.

The Modern English perfect forms have been the subject of a lengthy discussion. The difficulties inherent in these forms are plain enough and may best be illustrated by the present perfect. This form contains the present of the verb *to have* and is called present perfect, yet it denotes an action which no longer takes place, and it is (almost always) translated into Ukrainian by the past tense, e. g. *has written* – *написав*, *has arrived* – *приїхав*, etc. The position of the perfect forms in the system of the English verb is a problem, which has been treated in many different ways. Among the various views on the essence of the perfect forms in Modern English the following three main trends should be mentioned:

1. The category of order is a peculiar tense category. O. Jespersen held this view, for example.

2. The category of order is a peculiar aspect category. This view was held by a number of scholars, including G. Vorontsova.

3. The category of order does not belong to the tense system or to the aspect but a specific category different from both. This view was expressed by L. Bloomfield and A. Smirnitsky.

Thus, the opposition between *writes* and *wrote* is that of tense, that between *wrote* and *was writing* is that of aspect, and that between *wrote* and *had written* is that of order. It is obvious that two oppositions may occur

together; thus, between *writes* and *was writing* there is an opposition of tense and aspect; between *wrote* and *will have written* there is an oppositions of tense and order, and between *wrote* and *had been writing* there is an opposition of aspect and order. And, finally, all three oppositions may occur together: thus, between *writes* and *had been writing* there are the oppositions of tense, aspect, and order.

The category of mood reflects the relation of the action denoted by the verb to reality from the speaker's point of view. Both contrasted languages have the system of three moods: indicative, imperative, and subjunctive.

The relations of the action to reality can be different: if the action is thought to be real, we deal with **the indicative mood**, if it is considered to be unreal, possible or impossible, desirable or probable, we talk about **the subjunctive mood**. The **imperative mood** serves to express orders or requests.

The indicative mood in the contrasted languages denotes a real action, taking place in the present or past, or which is to be performed in the future. However means of expressing indicative mood differ in the languages under analysis (see the categories of tense, aspect, time correlation, voice).

Much greater differences can be found in the system of the subjunctive mood forms in English as compared to Ukrainian. In Ukrainian there is just one mood, expressing unreality, called either subjunctive, or conditional or suppositional. It is used to denote an action, thought to be unreal, desirable or possible. It is formed by means of the past tense form of the verb and particle *бу (б)*, which can both precede or follow the verb. The action can be referred to the present, past or future: *він би пішов; якби ви йому все розповіли*.

As distinct from Ukrainian, in English there are 4 oblique moods: subjunctive I (**Be it as it is**), subjunctive II (*It is time we **went** home*), suppositional (*It is only natural that we **should do** it*) and conditional (*To go there **would be unreasonable***), expressed both synthetically and analytically.

The system of Oblique Moods in English, represented by the abovementioned forms, functions in the set of sentence-patterns, used to express different attitude of the speaker to the unreal action. The number of sentence-patterns is large, and it is traditional use of this or that form of the verb, which is important, not the meaning of the form.

Thus, for instance, in conditional sentences, expressing unreal condition, we use the Subjective II in the conditional clause, while in the main clause we find the Conditional Mood (*If it **didn't rain**, they **would go** for a walk*).

The main controversy and difficulty in the mood system of the English language is that it has no special form of expressing subjunctive (no particle, no morphological means of its own). It results in the use of existing analytical and synthetic forms of the verb to express unreal, desirable action, some

supposition or intention. Thus, the forms of the Subjective II coincide with those of the Past Indefinite and Past Continuous (if the action is referred to the present) and the Past Perfect and Past Perfect Continuous (if the action is referred to the past): *It is time he **were** here! Oh, if only they **were going** home now! (present) I wish she **had not said** a word to them.*

The Conditional Mood coincides in form with the Future-in-the-Past and modal verbs *would* and *could* plus Infinitive. *To speak to them **would be** to waste time. He **could have done** it long ago.*

The Suppositional Mood has the same form as the Future-in-the-Past and the modal verb *should* plus Infinitive. *The request is that the students **should bring** their papers by the 1 March.*

So we can see that there is no straightforward mutual relation between meaning and form.

The imperative mood in English is expressed synthetically (affirmative: do it!) and analytically (negative: *Don't do it!*). English imperative with let (Let me do it!) has the corresponding Ukrainian forms with the particles **нум** (singular) and **нумо** (plural), cf. *Нум я зачитаю! Нумо заснівайте!*

Practice assignments:

Task 1 Answer the following questions (1-5 sentences)

1. What is the lexico-grammatical-meaning of the verb?
2. What are syntactic functions of the verb in the contrasted languages?
3. What classes of English nominal verbs are not available in Ukrainian?
4. What classes of verbs can we distinguish according to semantic and grammatical criteria?
5. What grammatical categories does the verb possess in English and Ukrainian?
6. What is declension?
7. Comment on the category of time correlation, its isomorphic and allomorphic features.

Task 2 Classify the verbs into subclasses in accordance with semantic and grammatical criteria: notional – semi-notional (link (being – becoming – remaining) modal – auxiliary):

Be (She's beautiful/ She is to come at five/ She's taking a shower/She's being examined); might (She might have warned him); continue (The weather continued wet/He continued singing); walk (He was walking up the street).

Спати (Скільки можна спати!), зватися (Це зветься роботою); залишатися (Він залишився вдома/Він залишився задоволеним); ставати (Він став вчителем); говорити (Треба діяти, а не говорити).

Task 3 Classify the verbs into allomorphic and isomorphic subclasses in accordance with their aspective nature (terminative – durative – mixed type; reflexive – reciprocally reflexive, indirectly reflexive, generally reflexive, active-objectless, passive-qualitative, impersonal-reflexive, impersonal):

Open (He opened the door); work (she was working from morning till night); sit (Don't sit here! Do something!/Sit down!); remember (I can't remember her name/We'll always remember him).

Зустрічатися; сидіти; журитися; збиратися (в похід); зачиняти; кусатися (собака кусається); знаходити; вітатися; не спиться; вечоріє; журитися; злитися.

Task 4. Find allomorhism and isomorphism in the expression of grammatical categories:

I work – she works; Let us sing; Do it! Don't do it!; The article will have been translated; The work is done; The house is being built; I had visited her before I went to Moscow.

Я писав/писала – ми писали; Нумо заспіваємо! Він працює/працював/буде працювати – вона працює/ працювала/буде працювати; Школа вже будується; Пиши!/ пишіть!; Лист був/буде/(є) написаний; Стаття перекладена; Він задрімав/вона задрімала/воно задрімало/вони задрімали.

Task 5. Put the verbs in brackets into a correct form; translate the sentences into Ukrainian and comment on the way the category of order is expressed in English:

1. Gemma __ badly the last few nights, and there were dark shadows under her eyes, (to sleep) (Voynich) 2. When he returned to his hotel he found a message that someone __ in his absence... (to telephone) (Hilton) 3. The Gadfly __ a moment, glancing furtively at Gemma; then he __ (to pause, to go on). (Voynich) 4. They __ the door of their inn, and __ a little way down the village, before they __ the precise spot in which it stood, (to pass, to walk, to recollect) (Dickens) 5. The moon __ There was nothing to dispel the dark of the night, (to rise — negative) (Abrahams) 6. Hardly __. she __ when a very stout gentleman __ into the chair opposite hers, (to sit down, to flop) (Mansfield) 7. They did not speak to him again, until he __ (to eat) (Greene) 8. Now the madman on the stairs spoke again and his mood __ suddenly __ ; he seemed quietly merry, (to

change) (Priestley) 9. When Martini __ the room, the Gadfly turned his head round quickly, (to enter) (Voynich) 10. No sooner __ he __ a drink himself, than Mrs. Fettle __ in. (to take, to look) (Lessing)

Task 6. Put the verbs in brackets into a correct past form, translate the sentences into Ukrainian and comment on the English and Ukrainian of tense and aspect forms:

1. After some desultory conversation, the Director inquired how long he __ Montanelli. (to know) (Voynich) 2. It was almost dinner-time by then, and we __ no food all day, but neither of us was hungry, (to have) (Hilton) 3. We_ in silence for some time when Ah-Yen spoke, (to smoke) (Leacock) 4. The party __ already __ for a week before I could get away from London, (to sail) (Snow) 5. Breakfast __ long __ on the table, when Arthur came tearing into the room, (to be — negative) (Voynich) 6. Mr. Morrough, who __ my doctor for some years and __ also my friend, came at once, (to be, to be) (Johnson) 7... since his arrival in April he __ simply __ round the house, helping Ann with the washing up, running errands, (to hang) (Murdoch) 8. She __ there more than two months when she fell down a flight of steps and hurt her spine, (to be — negative) (Mansfield) 9. He found that he __ stock still for over half an hour, wrestling with his thoughts, (to stand) (Lindsay) 10. Bertha __ at her husband since he came into the room, unable in astonishment to avert her eyes, (to look) (Maugham)

Task 7. Read the following extracts and comment on the approaches of the grammarians to the aspect category:

“Verbs exhibit various changes in human languages; some tongues inflect their verbs to indicate tense (past, present, future); some inflect verbs to indicate the person and number of the subject and/or object; and some have special forms to indicate “moods” such as commands (imperatives), conditional or hypothetical statements, and so forth. An element of verb mechanics that seems to be neglected by many language designers is **aspect**.”

(If you are not interested in invented languages but rather came here hoping to understand aspect in natural languages, read on! You will see that constructed languages provide some of the clearest examples of certain aspects.)

Aspect refers to the internal temporal constituency of an event, or the manner in which a verb’s action is distributed through the time-space continuum. Tense, on the other hand, points out the location of an event in the continuum of events. <...>

In the sentence *she was singing when I entered*, the verb “entered” presents its action as a single event with its beginning, middle, and end included; this is an example of the **perfective** aspect. The verb “was singing,” on the other hand, refers to an internal portion of her singing, without any reference to the beginning or end of her singing; this is an example of **imperfective** aspect. In

other words, the perfective treats a situation as a single shapeless whole, similar to the concept of a “point” in geometry, while the imperfective looks at the situation from the inside out and admits the possibility that the situation has a temporal shape. “Situation” refers to anything that can be expressed by a verb: a “state” (a static situation that will remain the same unless something changes it), an “event” (a dynamic situation considered as a complete, single item) or a “process” (a series of dynamic transactions viewed in progress).”
(Rick Harrison *Verb Aspect*)

Task 8. Choose the appropriate answer to the following statements:

1. Terminative verbs denote actions:
 - a) directed at some limit
 - b) directed at no limit
 - c) in process
 - d) performed by the subject

2. Which of the following are not categories of the verb:
 - a) aspect and voice
 - b) number and person
 - c) number and case
 - d) mood and voice

3. Ukrainian verbs are characterized by:
 - a) perfective and imperfective aspects
 - b) perfect tense forms
 - c) indefinite aspect
 - d) past perfective aspect

4. In English the category of aspect is regarded as a part of:
 - a) the mood category
 - b) the tense category
 - c) the voice category
 - d) the person category

5. Perfective/Imperfective in Ukrainian and Common/Continuous in English:
 - a) coincide completely
 - b) have partial correspondence
 - c) have nothing in common
 - d) belong to different spheres of knowledge

6. Perfective verbs in Ukrainian have:
- a) present, past and future forms
 - b) past and future forms
 - c) present and future forms
 - d) past and present forms
7. Absolute tense forms are:
- a) those which do not express any time reference
 - b) those which do not depend on the other tense forms and are determined by the moment of speaking
 - c) those which are regarded not in connection with the moment of speaking but depend on other tense forms or time indicators
 - d) those which are both determined by the moment of speaking and depend on other tense forms or time indicators
8. Passive voice is possible to form only if the verb is:
- a) Durative
 - b) Terminative
 - c) Transitive
 - d) reflexive
9. The category of voice is represented in:
- a) English and Ukrainian
 - b) English only
 - c) Ukrainian only
 - d) in English but it is not expressed morphologically
10. Find an incorrect statement:
- a) Active is always rendered from English into Ukrainian with the help of active
 - b) Passive is always rendered from English into Ukrainian with the help of passive
 - c) Active is never rendered from English into Ukrainian with the help of passive
 - d) Active can sometimes be rendered English into Ukrainian with the help of passive
11. Unreal action is denoted in English by means of:
- a) Subjunctive I, Subjunctive II, Conditional and Suppositional Moods

- b) Subjunctive I, Subjunctive II and Conditional Moods
- c) Suppositional Mood
- d) Conditional and Surreptitious Moods

Unit 9. Verbals in English and Ukrainian

1. General characteristics of non-finite forms.
2. The Infinitive.
3. The Gerund.
4. The Present Participle.
5. The Past Participle.

Verbals are the forms of the verb intermediary in many of their lexico-grammatical features between the verb and the non-processual parts of speech. The mixed features of these forms are revealed in the principal spheres of the part-of-speech characterization, i.e. in their meaning, structural marking, combinability, and syntactic functions.

The nomenclature of Verbals in the contrasted languages includes some common/isomorphic and some divergent/allomorphic forms. Common are the *infinitive* and the two participles; divergent are *the gerund* in English and *the diyepryslivnyk* in Ukrainian. Far from identical are the morphological categories pertaining to these non-finite forms of the verb.

Every verb-stem (except for a few defective verbs), by means of morphemic change, takes both finite and non-finite forms, the functions of the two sets being strictly differentiated. While the finite forms serve in the sentence only one syntactic function (that of the finite predicate), the non-finite forms serve various syntactic functions other than that of the finite predicate.

Lexically non-finites do not differ from finite forms. *Grammatically* the difference between the two types of forms lies in the fact that non-finites may denote a secondary action or a process related to that expressed by the finite verb. Non-finites possess the verb categories of voice, perfect, and aspect. They lack the categories of person, number, mood, and tense. None of the forms have morphological features of non-verbal parts of speech, neither nominal, adjectival nor adverbial. In the sphere of *syntax*, however, non-finites possess both verbal and non-verbal features. Their non-verbal character reveals itself in their syntactical functions. Thus, the infinitive and the gerund perform the main syntactical functions of the noun, which are those of subject, object and predicative. Participle I functions as attribute, predicative and adverbial modifier; participle II as attribute and predicative. They cannot form a predicate by themselves, although unlike non-verbal parts of speech they can function as part of a compound verbal predicate.

Syntactically the verbal character of non-finites is manifested mainly in their *combinability*. Similarly to finite forms they may combine with nouns functioning as direct, indirect, or prepositional objects, with adverbs and prepositional phrases used as adverbial modifiers, and with subordinate clauses.

Non-finites may also work as link verbs, combining with nouns, adjectives or statives as predicatives, as in: *to be/being a doctor (young, afraid)*. They may also act as modal verb semantic equivalents when combined with an infinitive: *to have/having to wait, to be able/being able to stay*. So the structure of a non-finite verb group resembles the structure of any verb phrase.

All non-finite verb forms may participate in the so-called **predicative constructions**, that is, two-component syntactical units where a noun or a pronoun and a non-finite verb form are in predicative relations similar to those of the subject and the predicate: *I heard Jane singing; We waited for the train to pass; I saw him run*, etc.

THE INFINITIVE

The infinitive is the non-finite form of the verb, which combines the properties of the verb with those of the noun, serving as the verbal name of a process.

The forms of the infinitive in both languages represent allomorphic features. Thus, the English infinitive is always distinguished by its identifier “to” (*to come, to be asked, to be doing*), whereas the Ukrainian infinitive is characterized by the suffixes -ти, -ть, -тись, -тися (*бігти, взяти, сісти, їхати, сіяти*). In Ukrainian every verb has just one form of the infinitive, while in English we find a paradigm of six analytical forms bearing specific grammatical meaning (*to do, to be doing, to have done, to have been doing, to be done, to have been done*).

Specifically Ukrainian is the diminutive infinitive formed by suffixes: спатки, спатоньки, спатусі, спатусеньки, купці, купоньки, сістоньки, їстоньки.

The infinitive is used in three fundamentally different types of functions:

- as a notional, self-positional syntactic part of the sentence^[SEP]
- as the notional constituent of a complex verbal predicate built up around a predicator verb^[SEP]
- as the notional constituent of a finite conjugation of the verb.

The first use is grammatically “free”, the second is grammatically “half-free”, the third is grammatically “bound”.^[SEP] The dual verbal-nominal meaning of the infinitive is expressed in full in its free, independent use.^[SEP] *Do you really mean to go away and leave me here alone? ~ What do you really mean?*

The combinability of the infinitive also reflects its dual semantic nature, in accord with which there can be distinguished its verb-type and noun-type connections.

The verb type combinability of the infinitive is displayed in its combining:

- with nouns expressing the object of the action
- with nouns expressing the subject of the action
- with modifying adverbs
- with predicator verbs of semi-functional nature forming a verbal predicate
- with auxiliary finite verbs (word-morphemes) in the analytical forms of the verb.

The self-positional infinitive, in due syntactic arrangements, can perform the following functions: the subject, the predicative, the object, the attribute, and the adverbial modifier.

The infinitive is a categorically changeable form. It distinguishes three grammatical categories sharing them with a finite verb: the category of aspect (continuous in opposition), the category of retrospective coordination (perfect in opposition), the category of voice (passive in opposition).

Consequently, the categorial paradigm of the infinitive of the objective verb includes eight forms: the indefinite active (to take); the continuous active (to be taking); the perfect active (to have taken); the perfect continuous active (to have been taking); the indefinite passive (to be taken); the continuous passive (to be being taken); the perfect passive (to have been taken); the perfect continuous passive (to have been being taken).

The infinitive paradigm of the non-objective verb, correspondingly, includes four forms: the indefinite active (to go); the continuous active (to be going); the perfect active (to have gone); the perfect continuous active (to have been going).

So, allomorphy is observed in the categorical meanings of the infinitive. The infinitive in Ukrainian has no perfect (perfective) passive form, no continuous aspect form, no perfect active, that are pertained to present-day English (*to have slept, to be sleeping, to have been seen; etc.*).

THE GERUND

The gerund is the non-finite form of the verb, which, like the infinitive, combines the properties of the verb with those of the noun. Similar to the infinitive, the gerund serves as the verbal name of the process, but its substantive quality is more strongly pronounced than that of the infinitive. Namely, as different from the infinitive, and similar to the noun, the gerund can be modified by a noun in the genitive case or its pronominal equivalents (expressing the subject of the verbal process), and it can be used with prepositions.

The general combinability of the gerund, like that of the infinitive, is dual, sharing some features with the verb, and some features with the noun. The verb type combinability of the gerund is displayed in its combining: with nouns expressing the object of the action, with modifying adverbs, with certain semi-functional predicator verbs, but other than modal of the noun type is the combinability of the gerund, with finite notional verbs as the object of the action, with finite notional verbs as the prepositional adjunct of various functions, with finite notional verbs as the subject of the action, with nouns as the prepositional adjunct of various functions.

The gerund, in the corresponding positional patterns, performs the functions of all the types of notional sentence-parts: the subject, the predicative, the object, the attribute, and the adverbial modifier. Like the infinitive, the gerund is changeable. It distinguishes the two grammatical categories, sharing them with the finite verb and the present participle: the category of retrospective coordination (perfect in opposition), the category of voice (passive in opposition). Consequently, the categorial paradigm of the gerund of the objective verb includes four forms: the simple active (taking), the perfect active (having taken), the simple passive (being taken), the perfect passive (having been taken).

The gerundial paradigm of the non-objective verbs, correspondingly, includes two forms: the simple active (going), the perfect active (having gone).

The gerund and the adverbial participle represent allomorphic verbals in English and Ukrainian respectively. As a result, they cannot be contrasted in any way.

The functions of the infinitive and the participles in the sentence generally coincide in both languages. Allomorphic for the Ukrainian language are some syntactic functions typical of the English participles and infinitives, which may form with some classes of verbs (for example, those of the physical and mental perceptions) complex parts of the sentence. These parts of the sentence are completely alien to Ukrainian:

He was seen to go/going home. We heard him sing/singing. He wants me to be reading. The lesson (being) over, the students went to the reading-hall.

Each of these secondary predication complexes, with the exception of the for-to-infinitive construction, has a subordinate clause or incomplete sentence equivalent in Ukrainian: *Бачили, як він ішов/коли він ішов додому. Ми чули, як він співає/співав. Після того/оскільки заняття закінчилося, студенти пішли до читальної зали.*

THE PRESENT PARTICIPLE

The present participle is the non-finite form of the verb, which combines the properties of the verb with those of the adjective and adverb, serving as the

qualifying-processual name. In its outer form the present participle distinguishes the same grammatical categories with gerund as retrospective coordination and voice.

The verb-type combinability of the present participle is revealed: [in its being combined with nouns expressing the object of the action, with nouns expressing the subject of the action, with modifying adverbs, with auxiliary finite verbs (word-morphemes) in the analytical form of the verb.

The adjective-type combinability of the present participle is revealed in its association with the modified nouns as well as with some modifying adverbs such as adverbs of degree. [SEP]

The adverb-type combinability of the present participle is revealed in its association with the modified verbs. [SEP] The self-positional present participle, in the proper syntactic arrangements, performs the functions: [SEP] the predicative (occasional use, and not with the pure link BE); the attribute; [SEP] the adverbial modifier of various types.

THE PAST PARTICIPLE

The past participle is the non-finite form of the verb, which combines the properties of the verb with those of the adjective, serving as the qualifying-processual name. The past participle is a single form having no paradigm of its own. By way of the paradigmatic correlation with the present participle, it conveys implicitly the categorial meaning of the perfect and the passive. As different from the present participle, it has no distinct combinability features or syntactic function features especially characteristic of the adverb. The main self-positional functions of the past participle in the sentence are those of the attribute and the predicative.

Thus, Verbals

- constitute a specific group of verbs, because they lack number, person, mood;
- possess the qualities of the verb and the noun (інфінітив, the infinitive, the gerund) or the adjective, the adverb (the participle, дієприкметник, дієприслівник);
- build specific constructions in English (the Accusative-with-the infinitive \ participle; the Nominative-with-infinitive \ participle, the For-phrase, the Absolute constructions, the gerundial complex);
- perform syntactic functions not typical of a verb;
- possess only time relevance (to do – to have done, writing – having written, пожовклий, відмовивши, співаючи), aspect (to do – to be doing, being written – having been written, зблідлий, стоячи, принісши), voice (writing – being written, having written – having been written, вживаний, вжитий).

The **participle** has much in common with **дієприслівник** and **дієприкметник**. The **gerund** is a unique form typical only of present-day English. **Allomorphy** is observed in the categorical meanings of the **Infinitive** and **інфінітив**, because the latter has no aspect and voice forms.

The Gerund, the Participle as well as **дієприкметник** and **дієприслівник** are formed by means of word-building **affixes**. The semantic and functional equivalents to the present and past *diyepryslivnyks* in Ukrainian are indefinite or perfect participles (active and passive) in English performing **the functions of the adverbial modifiers of time, cause or attending circumstances**. The functions of the infinitive and the participles in the sentence generally coincide in both languages, though Ukrainian **participles have gender, number and case distinctions** (працююча, працюючий, працюючі, працюючого...), which are lost in English.

Allomorphic for Ukrainian are some syntactic functions pertained to English participles and infinitives, which may form with some classes of verbs (e.g., those of the physical and mental perceptions) **complex parts of the sentence**. These parts of the sentence are completely alien to Ukrainian, e.g.,

He was seen to go/going home. We heard him sing/singing. He wants me to be reading. The lesson (being) over, the students went to the reading-hall.

Each of these secondary predication complexes, with the exception of the for-to-infinitive construction, has a subordinate clause or incomplete sentence equivalent in Ukrainian: *Бачили, як він ішов/коли він ішов додому. Ми чули, як він співає/ співав. Після того/оскільки заняття закінчилося, студенти пішли до читальної зали.*

Practice assignments

Task 1. Tell about the Verbals, found in English and Ukrainian, isomorphic and allomorphic.

Task 2. Analyze possible ways to render the gerund into Ukrainian, the equivalents of the adverbial participle, to translate it into English.

Task 3. Tell about the forms of the English Verbals. Compare them with Ukrainian Verbals.

Task 4. Speak on the double nature of the infinitive, participle I, participle II, and the gerund.

Task 5. Describe the functions, the Verbals perform in the sentence, compare their use in English and Ukrainian.

Task 6. Give characteristics of the Verbals as far as their grammatical categories are concerned.

Task 7. Suggest possible contextual equivalents for the subjective with the infinitive constructions below and translate the sentences into Ukrainian:

1. They were seen to just touch each other's hands, and look each at the other's left eye only. (Galsworthy) 2. «She wants, I'm sure, to be seen today.» (J.G.Griffin) 3. Paper is said to have been invented in China. 4. Her situation was considered very good. (Bennett) 5.... he was impelled to reestablish their lines of communication (Seghal) 6. ... the injured teacher had an operation for a head wound and is said to be improving. (The Guardian) 7. She was not expected to reply, but she did. (Dreiser) 8. «They're certainly entitled to think that, and they're entitled to feel respect for their opinions...» (H.Lee) 9. The economic problems facing France are certain to have strong repercussions. (The Guardian) 10. They were told to get the children back to sleep. (H.Fast) 11. ... the fetters that bound their tongues were considered to be locked and the key thrown away. (M.Twain) 12. He was thought to be honest and kindly. (Dreiser) 13. He was never expected to recover his equilibrium. 14. «You appear to be in poor shape, all the same.» 15. Her name appeared to be Millicent Pole.

Task 8. Use the appropriate form of the infinitive in brackets.

1. I am glad (to introduce) to you. 2. The box was (to handle) with care. You should (to ask) someone (to help) you. 3. Her mood seems (to change) for the worse. We had better not (to speak) to her now. 4. I am sorry (to disappoint) you but I did not mean anything of the kind. 5. He is happy (to award) the first Landscape Prize for his picture. 6. He was anxious (to take) the first place in the figure skating competition. 7. The poem can easily (to memorize). 8. This poem is easy (to memorize). 9. I did not expect (to ask) this question. 10. There were so many things (to do), so many experiments (to try). 11. The teacher expected him (to give) a better answer at the examination. 12. They are supposed (to experiment) in this field for about a year and are believed (to achieve) good results. 13. He must (to read) something funny; he is smiling all the time. 14. This might not (to happen).

Task 9. Translate into English/Ukrainian paying special attention to the Infinitive constructions:

A. 1. Думати було ніколи. 2. Він зміг довести її невинність. 3. Ви не повинні так поводитися. 4. Почнемо з того, що ви вже бували в цих місцях. 5. Здається, протягом довгого часу ви не були у своїх батьків. 6. Ваші висновки залишають бажати кращого. 7. Щоб її не знайшли, вона реєструвалася під іншим ім'ям. 8. Він досить добре знає мова, щоб вільно спілкуватися з носіями мови. 9. Не заставляйте її надто багато плавати. 10. Що змусило вас так думати про мене?

B. 1. The professor made the students repeat the experiment. 2. We want them to receive this information as soon as possible. 3. We know the first atomic power station to have been built in the USSR. 4. The only thing for you to do is to use a microscope. 5. A material, which allows electricity to flow through it, is called a conductor. 6. We did not see them make this experiment. 7. For him to take this decision was not easy. 8. We think this work to be completed in a month. 9. Our professor wants us to use these data. 10. It was easy for our mechanic to repair this device.

Unit 10. Adverbs and Statives in English and Ukrainian

The adverb is a part of speech characterized by the following features:

- (1) Lexico-grammatical meaning of qualitative, quantitative or circumstantial characteristics of actions, states or qualities;
- (2) Typical stem-building elements, cf. -ward(s) (eastward(s)), -ly (firstly), -ways (sideways); -е (добре), -а (дарма) etc.
- (3) Unilateral combinability with verbs (to walk quickly/ йти швидко), adjectives (rather tired/ дуже стомлений), adverbs (almost instantly/ майже миттєво);
- (4) The most typical function of adverbial modifiers (She started working very carefully/ Вона почала працювати дуже обережно);
- (5) Category of degree of comparison.

In accordance with their lexico-grammatical meaning, adverbs in contrasted languages fall into:

- (1) Qualifying, denoting the quality or state of an action, cf. loudly, badly, fast, well, slowly – голосно, погано, швидко, добре, повільно;
- (2) Quantifying, denoting quantitative characteristics of an action, cf. very, rather, too, nearly, fully, hardly, quite, utterly – дуже, досить, надто, майже, повністю, досить-таки, цілком;
- (3) Circumstantial, denoting various circumstances attending an action; accordingly they fall into:
 - (a) Adverbs of time and frequency, cf. now, then, today, soon, rarely, sometimes, frequently – зараз, тоді, сьогодні, скоро, рідко, інколи, деколи, часто;
 - (b) Place and direction, cf. here, there, inside, outside, upstairs – тут, там, всередині, надворі, наверху.

Language	Time	Place	Direction	Manner

Meaning				
English	now, then, when, today, soon	here, there, where, nowhere	hence, thence, whence, inside, inwards	hence, now, how, so
Ukrainian	доти, іноді, тоді, коли, скоро, сьогодні	всюди, куди, туди, де, ніде, там, тут	туди, сюди, звідти, вліво, вправо, назад	так, сяк, як відтак, отак, сяк-так

Completely allomorphic are the so-called personal adverbs in Ukrainian, cf. по-моєму, по-їхньому, по-нашому, по-своєму (their English equivalents are adverbial phrases like in my/their/our opinion); and adverbs of comparison and likening, cf. соколом, стрілою, по-батьківському, по-осінньому (their English equivalents are like a falcon, like an arrow, like a father, like in autumn).

As for their **stem structure** adverbs divide into: ^[1]_{SEB} (1) simple-stem adverbs, cf. now, then, here, there – зараз, тоді, ту, там; ^[2]_{SEB} (2) derivative-stem adverbs; in English they are formed with the help of such suffixes as -ly (strictly), -ward(s) (eastward(s), -ways (sideways), -fold (twofold) and partly prefixes, cf. a-(aloud); Ukrainian adverbs are formed by means of the suffixes -о (гарно), -е (зле), -а (дарма), the prefix по- and the suffixes -ому (по-нашому), -єму (по-моєму), -и (по-людськи).

It is typical of Ukrainian adverbs to be formed with the help of prefixes correlating with prepositions, cf. в + гору – вгору, в + день – вдень, в + друге – вдруге, see also безперестанку, відразу, догори, зранку, скраю, удень, вмиць, надвечір, навік, заміж, надвір, підряд, повік;

(3) Compound-stem adverbs, cf. so-so, upside-down, moreover, therefore – насамперед, на півдорозі, водночас;

(4) Composite-stem adverbs, cf. by chance, by turns – пліч-о-пліч, всього-на-всього, віч-на-віч.

Grammar categories

Qualitative adjectives in contrasted languages have the category of degrees of comparison which is formed with the help of synthetic (-er,-est, cf. fast – faster – fastest – -ше, -іше, -чій, най- щонай-, якнай-, cf. швидко – швидше – найшвидше; цікаво – цікавіше – щонайцікавіше; хутко – хутчій – якнайхутчіше) and analytical means (more, most, cf. interesting – more interesting – most interesting; більш, найбільш, cf. повільно – більш повільно – найбільш повільно).

Some adverbs in both languages form degrees of comparison with the help of suppletivity, cf. well – better – best; badly – worse – worst; little – less – least; far – farther – farthest; добре – краще – найкраще; погано – гірше – найгірше.

A particular (allomorphic for English) feature of many Ukrainian qualitative adverbs is their ability to take diminutive suffixes (**-еньк-, -есеньк-, -юсіньк-, -очк-, -ечк-**) and become diminutive: *гарно* — *гарненько* — *гарнесенько* — *гарнюсінько* — *гарнюньо*; *тоненько* — *тонюсінько*; *трохи* — *трішечки*; *рядочком*, *шнурочком*, etc.

An isomorphic feature is the existence in both languages of a large group of pronominal adverbs some of which are not available in English. Among these are: 1) interrogative and relative adverbs: where, when, why, how - де, куди, коли, звідки, чому, як, поки, доки; 2) demonstrative adverbs: there, here, then, so — там, тут, сюди, туди, тоді, так; 3) complementing adverbs: always, everywhere, sometimes, otherwise — завжди, всюди, інколи, по-всякому, по-іншому; 4) negative adverbs (more numerous in Ukrainian): nowhere, never - ніде, нізвідки, нікуди, ніяк, нізащо; 5) indefinite adverbs which are more numerous in Ukrainian as well: ever, somehow, somewhere, erewhile - десь, де-небудь, колись, коли-небудь, кудись, чомусь, казна-звідки, казна-коли, хтозна-де, казна-куди, etc.

Completely allomorphic for English is the group of the so-called “personal pronouns” adverbs available only in Ukrainian. They are as follows: *по-моєму, по-твоєму, по-нашому, по-вашому, по-наськи* and the reflexive adverb *по-своєму*. Their lexical equivalents in English are adverbial phrases like “in my opinion/ in my judgment, in your opinion, etc.”

Also not available in English are some adverbs of comparison and likening (означально-уподіблювальні) as *соколом, стрілою, зозулею, по-батьківському, по-новому, по-осінньому*, etc. These and other adverbs of the kind have in English for their equivalents adverbial phrases like *in a fatherly way (по-батьковськи), like a falcon (соколом), in a new fashion (по-новому)*, etc.

Adverbs in English and Ukrainian **perform three main functions in the sentence** serving as 1) Identifying complements (cf. *very tall, rather better*

today, *дуже* високий, *значно* краще сьогодні); 2) As attributive adjuncts (*quite* a man, the voice *inside*, *майже* озеро, *внутрішній* голос, голос *ізнадвору*); 3) As different adverbial complements: of place (to live *here/there, everywhere* мешкати *тут/там, скрізь*), of time (to arrive *today/soon* приїжджати *сього- дні/невдовзі*); of cause and purpose (*Why* do you think so? *Чому* ти так гадаєш?)

Note. Pertaining to Ukrainian (allomorphic for English) is the use of adverbials in the function of a simple nominal predicate. Eg: Сонце *вгорі*. Стежка *справа*. Города *скрізь*. І ні душі *ніде*.

Statives and their Typological Characteristics

The stative is a part of speech, characterized by the following features:

- (1) lexico-grammatical meaning of states of persons, things or phenomenon;
- (2) typical stem-building elements;
- (3) peculiar combinability with link-verbs (to be alive/ *бути* холодно);
- (4) function of a predicative complement (I lay awake/ Рут була приголомшена).

As for their lexico-grammatical meaning, statives in contrasted languages share only one class: those denoting psychological or physical state of a person, cf. *aswim, afraid, a shiver, alive*; *страшно, боязко, досадно, жаль, охота, боляче, тоскно, сумно*. On top of that, English statives can express the state of things, cf. *afloat, ablaze, afire, alike*.

Ukrainian statives also denote: (1) state of nature, cf. *холодно, тепло, сонячно, тихо*; (2) possibility, impossibility, necessity, cf. *треба, слід, доцільно, можна, необхідно*; (3) estimation of the state as for: (a) its temporal and locative characteristics, cf. *пізно, рано, далеко, близько, низько*; (b) its perception, cf. *видно, чутно*.

As for their stem structure, statives are mostly derivative: English statives have specific stem building element, the prefix *a-*, cf. *ashamed, afraid*; Ukrainian statives are formed with the help of the suffixes *-о*, cf. *прикро, соромно*; *-а*, cf. *шкода, треба*; *-е*, cf. *добре*.

Pertaining only to English is the combinability of Statives with the gerund (cf. *afraid of answering, ashamed of having said that*). Allomorphy is also pertained to Ukrainian in which some Statives may take instead a direct prepositionless nominal complement also other indirect case forms which is impossible in English. Cf. *шкода праці, треба часу, сором сліз and легше вже йому* (dative case, object) *вже краще малому /старшому, обом*, etc.

Practice assignments:

Task 1. Analyze typological characteristics of English and Ukrainian adverbs as parts of speech.

Task 2. Speak about lexico-grammatical classes of English and Ukrainian adverbs: allomorphic and isomorphic features.

Task 3. Characterize stem structure of English and Ukrainian adverbs, their allomorphic and isomorphic features.

Task 4. Dwell upon isomorphism and allomorphism in the expression of grammatical categories by English and Ukrainian adverbs.

Task 5. Put into classes (in some cases there are several possibilities):

Almost, here, hence, quite, loudly, today, sufficiently, very, quickly, rather, entirely.

Глибоко, туди, всюди, відтак, сьогодні, іноді, голосно, гарно, завзято, досить-таки, цілком, догори дном, також, ледве, ясно, рядочком.

Task 6. Put into allomorphic and isomorphic groups on the basis of the stem- structure:

Aside, rarely, so-so, almost, too, enough, inside, here, deliberately, always, sooner or later.

Тоненько, спросоння, дуже, гарнісінько, несвідомо, досить-таки, навмисно, сюди, по-всякому, по-новому, по-твоєму, зараз.

Task 7. Give English/Ukrainian equivalents and explain the nature of allomorphism/isomorphism:

Quickest, longer, completely, frequently, twice, purposely.

Якнайшвидше, надвір, соколом, вгору, гарнесенько, трішечки, гарно – краще – найкраще, ясніше, по-осінньому, стрілою.

Task 8. Define typological characteristics of English and Ukrainian statives as parts of speech.

Task 9. Dwell upon lexico-grammatical classes of English and Ukrainian statives: allomorphic and isomorphic features.

Task 10. Put into allomorphic and isomorphic classes:

Afloat, afire, ashamed, awake, ablaze, afraid, aghast, alight.

Шкода, прикро, тихо, видно, соромно, треба, холодно, слід, доцільно, можна, необхідно, пізно, рано, далеко, близько, низько, чутно.

Unit 11. Contrastive syntax. Phrases in English and Ukrainian

1. Typological constants in the syntactic system.
 2. Types of phrases in English and Ukrainian.
 3. Phrases of subordination: Noun phrases, Verb phrases, Adjective phrases etc.
- The syntax of a language is a level of the language dealing with units more complicated than the word. These are the phrase, the sentence and the text. The syntax as a branch of linguistics studies the language mechanisms that make it possible to form speech units by means of language elements (words, word-forms, word-combinations, sentences). It studies the formation of speech expressions (statements, characterized by certain intonation that can be included into a text). The syntax also studies and formulates the rules of speech formation.

The syntax is divided into three parts:

1) The syntax of the phrase, also called **Minor Syntax**. It studies the combinability of words (syntactic valency), ways of their realization (agreement, government, adjoinment). It also studies the relations they express (attributive, complementary).

2) The syntax of the sentence, also called **Major Syntax**. It studies the inner structure and communicative types of the sentence (statement, question, inducement), predicativity and modality; semantics and synonymic transformations (replacement of a clause by a participial construction); the simple and composite sentence as an integral predicative and poly-predicative unit; the ways and means to form the relations within the complex and compound sentences (coordination and subordination). Word-forms and phrases are observed as parts of the sentence.

3) **The syntax of the text**. It studies the modifications the syntax undergoes in the process of text formation; the rules of adopting a sentence to the context (inversion, ellipsis, meta-text parenthetical words, such as 'however', 'therefore' and others) and to the situation (addressing and authorization). Syntactic systems of the English and Ukrainian languages can undergo syntactic analysis for they have both isomorphic and allomorphic features and phenomena to study.

The principal **isomorphic features** of these are predetermined, as will be shown in this section, by several factors, the main of which are the following: 1) by common in both languages classes of syntactic units which are word-groups, sentences and various types of super syntactic units; 2) by generally common paradigmatic classes and types of these syntactic units; 3) by isomorphic and allomorphic types and means of syntactic connection in them; 4) by mostly isomorphic syntactic processes taking place in their word-groups and sentences; 5) by identical syntactic relations in word-groups and sentences of both contrasted languages; 6) by common functions performed by different parts of speech in word-groups and sentences.

The **allomorphic features** and phenomena at the syntactic level find their expression in the following: 1) in the existence of various qualitative and quantitative differences in some paradigmatic classes of word-groups and sentences; 2) in some types of word-groups; 3) in the unequal representation of different means of syntactic connection; 4) in the existence of different ways of expressing predication; 5) in the difference in the structural forms of some English parts of the sentence; 6) in the means of joining some subordinate clauses to the main/principal clause, etc.

The phrase is a combination of two or more notional words syntactically related to each other and having a nominative function. Phrases, like words, denote objects, phenomena, action or process. However, unlike words, they represent them as complicated phenomena.

The sentence is an integral unit of speech having a communicative purpose; it expresses a statement, a question or inducement. The sentence expresses predication, i.e. shows whether the event is real or unreal, desirable or obligatory, stated as truth or asked about, etc. The sentence can consist of one or several notional words. Phrases and sentences are universal linguistic phenomena. Their structure can be used as a basis for typological comparison. For identifying the type of a phrase, the following criteria have been established:

- a) The type of syntactical connection in a phrase;
- b) The means of expressing the syntactical connection;
- c) The position of the elements of the phrase.

The elements of a phrase can be syntactically **equal or unequal**. In the former case, neither of the elements modifies the other. We can change their position without any change of meaning. Such combinations are called *equipollent*. e.g. father and son; son and father. If the elements are syntactically unequal, one of them modifies the other. The principal element is called the “kernel” or “head word”. The subordinate element is called “the adjunct”. Their respective positions are different for different types of phrases and different languages. Such phrases are called *dominational*.

The connections between the elements of a dominational phrase can be further grouped into

- **Predicative** (the combination of the subject and the predicate of a sentence) e.g. the train arrived, him running, вона говорила.
- **Attributive** (the combination of a noun with its attribute expressed by an adjective or a noun) e.g. an emerald ring; a woman of strong character, цікава книга.
- **Objective** (the combination of a verb with a subordinate element expressed by a noun, pronoun or a verbal) e.g. to read the book; to read it; подивитись дім.
- **Adverbial** (the combination of a verb and an adverbial modifier or the combination of an adjective or an adverb and the subordinate element

expressed by an adverb) e.g. to talk quickly; говорити голосно. These syntactical connections can be **formally expressed** in different ways:

Government - the form of the adjunct is influenced by the headword. (e.g. позвати брата; сказати брату; to call her, to ask him)

Agreement - the kernel and the adjunct have the same number, gender, case, person. (e.g. велика кімната, про нову кімнату, this book – these books, that boy – those boys).

Contact (Adjoinment) - the elements are combined with one another by sheer contact, without the help of any grammatical forms. (e.g. бігти швидко, to read aloud).

The adjunct can be in **preposition or in postposition** to the headword. e.g. a health certificate; довідка про стан здоров'я.

The *types of syntactical connection* coincide in English and Ukrainian phrases. Both languages have combinations of a noun with its attribute, a verb with an object, an adverb with the headword expressed by a verb, an adjective, or another adverb. At the same time, there are some differences in the structure of attributive phrases.

In Noun phrases the attributive complements may be in pre-position or in postposition to the noun head. Their way of connection is analytical in English and synthetic in Ukrainian, though not without exceptions.

The noun phrase is the main construction, which can appear as the subject, object, or complement of a clause. It consists essentially of a noun or noun like word, which is the most important constituent of the phrase: *a fat cat, the horses in the stable, the poor, ten Chinese*. Sometimes the noun appears alone or accompanied by one or more other constituents, some of which are themselves fairly complex syntactic units in their own right. As a result, noun phrases are more varied in their construction than any other kind of phrase in English.

In Ukrainian, the adjunct of the phrase is frequently expressed by an adjective. In the same cases, many English phrases are made up of two nouns. One of the reasons for that is the fact that there are fewer relative adjectives in English. Therefore, when the kernel and the adjunct denote two connected objects (e.g. the thing and the material it is made from; the factory and the product made by it, etc.) the English-speaking person uses a noun as an attribute, e.g. *silver spoon = срібна ложка; sugar industry = цукрова промисловість*.

Sometimes it is difficult to determine whether the adjunct in such phrases is a noun or an adjective. Lack of grammatical markers of the parts of speech makes English similar to the isolating languages. Sometimes it is difficult to say whether such combinations are phrases or compound words: e.g. schoolboy, schoolteacher, school building. In these cases, English has some features of incorporating languages, which don't have a borderline between the word and the phrase.

Noun + noun phrases are also used in English if the adjunct denotes a period of time: e.g. *a two hours' trip*=*двухчасова подорож* and a quality of the person denoted by the headword, e.g. *a woman of sense*=*розумна жінка*

Some types of phrases can be found only in one of the languages. In English, the adjunct of an attributive phrase can be expressed by a passive infinitive: e.g. a letter to be sent. This type of phrase is non-existent in Ukrainian. The idea is rendered by a subordinate clause: e.g. *лист, який треба відправити*.

In Ukrainian, the adjunct of an attributive phrase can be expressed by an adverb, e.g. *погляд з під очей; капелюх набік*. This type of phrase is non-existent in English. The idea is rendered by lexical semantics: e.g. *a scowl at somebody, with one's hat on one side*.

Verb Phrase is also characterised in English and Ukrainian by some isomorphic and allomorphic features. The structural types of verb phrases are common for the languages:

- 1) with simple objective or adverbial complements;
- 2) with extended or expanded complements;
- 3) with simple or extended objective and adverbial complements.

In both languages one can find verb phrases with pre-posed and postposed complements.

Simple verb phrases with a transitive verb as a head-word contain nouns, adjectives, numerals or adverbs as subordinate elements, e.g.: *to like books, to receive four, to love her, to prefer blue (to red), to love it to be asleep*; *любити книжки, отримати четвірку, кохати її, любити синє, щиро любити, почуватися краще, etc.*

Prepositions are found both in English and Ukrainian verb phrases, e.g.: *to speak of somebody, to divide by two*; *говорити про когось, ділити на два (на двоє)*.

Ukrainian has no equivalents, however, for the combinations of a verb with a gerund. Such phrases as *to sit reading, to like reading* are characteristic of the English language; while it is only in Ukrainian that we find the combination of a verb with an adverbial participle, e.g.: *читати, стоячи; іти, співаючи; співаючи, іти*. The adverbial participle is usually rendered into English by means of the participle. It should be pointed out, however, that unlike English, most of Ukrainian complements and adverbial adjuncts have no fixed position in the word-group, e.g.: *слухати музику – музику слухати, гарно співати – співати гарно*.

Allomorphy is observed in the nature of some complements (gerundial, infinitival, participial) which often form predicative complexes in English verbal word-groups, e.g.: *to wait for them to come* (Verb plus For-to-Infinitive Construction); *to rely on Bob's reading the article* (Verb plus Gerundial Construction); *to see the boy playing tennis* (Verb plus Participial Construction).

Adjective Phrase. Due to the restricted combinability of different notionals

with the adjectival head, this paradigmatic class of word-groups has a much smaller number (and varieties) of structural models. The most productive and usual in English and Ukrainian are the following simple and extended models with different dependent components.

Allomorphic, i. e. pertaining to English only are adjectival word-groups with gerundial complements, for instance: *worth reading (being read); worth reading the book; proud of Pete/ him being decorated, proud of his having been invited.*

Apart from the non-existence of gerundial complements, Ukrainian adjectival word-groups are characterised by some other features of their own. Among these, for example, is the free location of most of adjectival and complements adjuncts which is absolutely impossible in English. Ex.: *дуже добра – добра дуже; радий чути – чути радий; значно молодший за мене – за мене значно молодший, добрий до всіх - до всіх добрий.*

Nevertheless, it is impossible to change the order or position of any immediate constituent as in the word-groups like *багато молодший, ніж вона* but not *ніж вона, багато молодший*, though the pattern can not be considered completely ungrammatical for a predominantly synthetic language, like Ukrainian either.

Ukrainian head adjectives, however, express the morphological categories of number, case and gender, which is impossible in English. E.g.: *гарний зовні, гарна зовні, гарні зовні; гарної/гарній зовні, гарною зовні; добрий/добрим до всіх; рідна/рідної для нас, etc.*

The English and the Ukrainian languages differ significantly in *the means of expressing syntactical connections* in a phrase. In Ukrainian all the three ways of connection are used. In English, the use of government and agreement is restricted to the phrases with pronouns: e.g. *to see him; these books*. In most cases the elements of the phrase are combined by contact.

The position of the elements is by far more important in English than in Ukrainian because of the lack of grammar markers. In Ukrainian, a change of position can signal of a change of style: e.g. *зелений дуб - дуб зелений*

In English, the kernel and the adjunct of the phrase are identified by their position, e.g. *Glass window = скляне вікно; Window glass= віконне скло.*

In some types of phrase, the position of the elements differs in Ukrainian and English. In English attributive phrases; the adjunct expressed by a noun in the possessive case is always in preposition to the headword: e.g. *my father's house*. In the corresponding Ukrainian phrases, the adjunct expressed by a noun in the genitive is usually in postposition, e.g. *Будинок батька.*

In English attributive phrases denoting objects in numerical order, the adjunct expressed by a cardinal numeral is in postposition to the kernel expressed by a noun, e.g. *Room 15*. In the corresponding Ukrainian phrases, the adjunct expressed by an ordinal numeral is in preposition to the headword, e.g. *п'ятнадцята кімната.*

In adverbial phrases, the adjunct expressed by an adverb is in postposition to the verb in English and in preposition to the verb in Ukrainian, e.g. *гарно працювати* = *to work hard*.

Practice assignments:

Task 1. Answer the following questions (1 – 3 sentences)

1. What is the object of syntactic studies?
2. Characterize the main syntactic units. Explain the difference between the phrase and the sentence.
3. What criteria have been established for identifying the type of phrase?
4. How do we call the type of connection when the form of the adjunct is influenced by the headword?
5. What are subtypes of word-groups in English and Ukrainian according to relations between their components?
6. What are the parts of the Noun Phrase?
7. What types of Verb Phrases are distinguished according to the nature of its complements?

Task 2. Divide the word-groups listed below into three sets: coordinate, subordinate, predicative:

a book and a pencil; a cold winter day, to sing merrily, rose garden, very well, fond of books, glad to see, time to go, her singing, прочитати листа, голосно і весело сміятися, шумлять лани, вибір твору, питання праці й заробітку, бажання знати, читати книжку.

Task 3. State the type of subordination (agreement, government, adjoinment) in the following word-groups:

Look at me, depends on me, a black cover, his answer, speak loudly, those people; літній ранок, підготовка до іспиту, зручно для всіх, радісна звістка, мої уявлення, завершити вчасно.

Task 4. Arrange subordinate word-groups listed below into the following sets: a) attributive, b) objective, c) adverbial:

lovely face, to write a novel, a teacher's desk, to come in time, to meet her, написати роман, стіл вчителя, початок травня, прийти вчасно, зустріти її.

Task 5. State the types of the following Ukrainian word-groups and translate them into English:

студент першого курсу, зустріти з радісною усмішкою, лекція на наукову тему, жити душа в душу, хочу відпочити дома, дуже цікаве питання, гордий за тебе, де-хто з учнів.

Task 6. Choose the appropriate answer to the following statements:

1. The head-word of the noun phrase is:

- a) pronoun
- b) noun
- c) verb
- d) adverb

2. The secondary predication word-groups contain:

- a) subject and predicate
- b) predicative complexes
- c) noun and adjective
- d) subject and object

3. Word-groups can be:

- a) simple and compound
- b) extended and non-extended
- c) simple and complex
- d) compound and complex

4. Syntax studies:

- a) the word
- b) the sentence
- c) the morpheme
- d) the text

5. Minor syntax studies:

- a) the text
- b) the word-group
- c) the sentence
- d) the word

Task 7. Mark the following statements as TRUE or FALSE:

1. Phrases of subordination in English and Ukrainian are comprised by components, equal in rank, which are connected either syndetically or asyndetically.

2. Phrases of subordination in all the languages consist of two parts: a headword, which is the nucleus of the phrase, and of one or more complements.
3. Noun phrases are more varied in their construction than any other kind of phrase in English.
4. The *postmodification* comprises any other words appearing between the determiner and the head noun-mainly adjectives or adjective-like words.
5. The Verb Phrase is characterised in English and Ukrainian by some isomorphic and allomorphic features.
6. Unlike Ukrainian, most of English complements and adverbial adjuncts have no fixed position in the word-group
7. Ukrainian head adjectives express the morphological categories of number, case and gender, which is impossible in English.
8. A characteristic feature of English pronoun phrases is their considerably free position within the pattern, which is never possible in Ukrainian.
9. The extensively used in English predicative word-groups are not found in present-day Ukrainian.

Task 8. Comment on the following extracts and give your own examples to illustrate the point of view:

1. **Agreement.** Two words are said to **agree** in their grammatical forms when the form of a headword determines the form of a dependent word. In English head word and dependent words usually agree in number and sometimes case.

The repetition of the inflection of a headword in its adjunct word is called **concord**. Still in most cases in English there is no concord. In highly inflected concord-languages such as Ukrainian, dependent words agree in number, gender and case, if the headword is a noun and adjunct words are adjectives and pronouns.

Government. A word assumes a certain grammatical form through being associated with another word, and the governing word is said to govern the grammatical form of the other word.

2. There is another means of expressing syntactic connection based on the positional principle, which plays a significant part in Modern English, but is completely alien to Ukrainian syntax. It is called enclosure. Some element of a phrase is placed (enclosed) between two parts of another element. The most widely known case of enclosure is putting of a word between an article and a noun to which the article belongs. Any word or phrase thus enclosed is shown to be an attribute to the noun. Many other words than adjectives and nouns can be found in that position, and many phrases, too.
3. Predicative phrases may be primary and secondary. Primary predicative phrases (those that comprise the subject and the predicate) are of

isomorphic nature, therefore translated without any transformations e.g.: ... Secondary predicative phrases are not found in Ukrainian and are represented in English in the following structural types or syntactic constructions which are often referred to as complexes: Complex object with the infinitive ..., Complex subject with the infinitive ... , For- complex ..., Complex object with the participle ..., Complex subject with the participle ..., Absolute participle construction ..., Gerundial complex Being of allomorphic nature secondary predicative phrases require transformations in translation; in Ukrainian translation they are frequently transformed into primary predicative phrases. ...

4. Features of the Attributive Phrase. The attributive cluster is a group of words with a key noun and a number of attributive components modifying it. The average number of attributes is 5 ± 2 . The attributes can be expressed by an adjective, by a noun, or by a compound phrase similar to a clause. The order of attributes is not random. In English, closest to the key noun come the “factual” (objective) attributes (according to the general rule: the closer in meaning, the nearer in position), then the evaluative (subjective) attributes. Thus, some grammarians formulate the rule for the order of attributes before the noun: “OPSHACOM”, where OP stands for OPINION adjectives (*beautiful, horrible, nice*), SH for SHAPE adjectives (*long, short, round, narrow*), A for AGE (*old, new, young*), C for COLOR (*red, black, orange*), O for ORIGIN (*British, Canadian, German*), M for MATERIAL (*plastic, metal, aluminum*). For example, it is correct to say *a nice long new black Chinese wooden pen*, and it would be unnatural to change the word order.

English and Ukrainian attributive groups differ in their vectors. The English phrase is regressive, that is, it develops to the left, with the headword being the final element on the right. The Ukrainian attributive phrase is progressive, it develops mostly to the right, with the attributes used in postposition. For example: *US car safety expert* – *американський фахівець з безпеки автомобілів*.

To translate a multi-structured attributive group, it is necessary to analyze the meaning of its immediate constituents and then to adapt them to a proper Ukrainian structure. For example, to translate the phrase *a life support system control box*, we single out its head noun, which is on the right and then do a kind of semantic immediate constituent analysis: *a life support system* – **control box** (purpose) – *пульт керування*; *a life support* – **system control** (object) – *box* – *пульт керування системою*; *alife* – **support system** (characteristics) – *control box* – *пульт керування системою підтримки*; *a life support* (object) – *system control box* – *пульт керування системою підтримки життя* – *пульт керування системою життєзабезпечення*.

Unit 12. The Sentence in English and Ukrainian

1. Definition of the sentence
2. Structural types of sentences
3. One member and two member sentences
4. Parts of the sentence

The sentence in the contrasted languages has a large number of typologically relevant features in common. The existence of such isomorphic features both in the simple and in the composite sentence is predetermined by the main common types of aspects characteristic of the sentence as a peculiar language unit. These aspects are three: 1) structural; 2) semantic and 3) pragmatic. These three aspects are practically of universal nature; they constitute the main basis for a systemic arrangement and systemic contrasting of simple and composite sentences in all languages.

The principal distinguishing features characterizing the sentence as a universal language unit are as follows: 1) the sentence is the main language unit; 2) it is the main syntactic unit and 3) it is the main communicative unit.

The structural types of sentences are common in the contrasted languages:

Simple: extended and unextended; one-member and two-member; complete and elliptical. **Composite:** compound and complex. However, different types of sentences display a lot of **allomorphic features** in English and Ukrainian.

The Simple sentence

English and Ukrainian structural types of sentences are two-member sentences and one-member sentences. Binary sentence structures are more characteristic of English, i.e. they are represented by a larger variety of paradigmatic subtypes than in Ukrainian. This quantitative correlation of two-member sentences in English and Ukrainian constitutes the main typological difference in the system of simple sentences of the two languages. As a result, English two-member sentences are represented by a larger variety of extended and expanded models, than Ukrainian two member sentences.

The basic kernel structure of two-member sentences constitutes the binary S — P (Subject — Predicate) mode. The only two-member sentences, which are non-existent in Ukrainian, are the following:

1. Impersonal sentences, which are introduced by the impersonal pronoun/subject, it: It is thundering. It drizzles.
2. Indefinite personal sentences in which the subject is expressed by the indefinite personal pronouns *one, they, you*, e.g.: One says. They say. You don't say so.

3. Sentences with the above-mentioned introductory “it” or “there” like It is time to start. There is nothing/much to say.
4. Sentences with the implicit agent and passive predicate verb followed by a preposition like He was sent for. The project is objected to everywhere.
5. Sentences with the secondary predicative constructions as the following: I thought him to be a teacher. We saw her cross the street. She made herself seem friendly. Etc.

Such English two-member sentences have in Ukrainian either simple or complex definite personal sentences for their semantic equivalents. Cf. Я думав, що він учитель. Ми бачили, як він переходив вулицю. Кажуть, що він спортсмен. Усі чекали оголошення наслідків/що оголосять наслідки. Він зайшов у кімнату з люлькою в зубах.

One-member sentences

Unlike two-member sentences, which have a larger quantitative representation of paradigmatic/structural types in English, one-member sentences, on the contrary, have a larger number of paradigmatic classes in Ukrainian. This is due to the morphological nature of Ukrainian as a mainly synthetic structure language. Nevertheless, there exist common types of one-member sentences in both contrasted languages. The latter, naturally, are not devoid of some divergent features in English or Ukrainian either. Common in English and Ukrainian are the following paradigmatic types of one-member sentences:

1. Nominal sentences. *Half past eleven. Confidence for confidence. Пів на дванадцятю. Довір'я за довір'я.*
2. Imperative sentences: *Open the door! Відчиніть двері!*
3. Exclamatory sentences: *How funny! Як гарно!*
4. Infinitival sentences: *To be or not to be? To be alive! Бути чине бути? Бути живим!*

Other allomorphic features observed in the types of one-member sentences have a larger representation in Ukrainian than in English. Thus, among these Ukrainian types are the following not pertained to the English syntactic system:

1. The definite personal sentences, which are widely used in literary and colloquial Ukrainian speech. The finite verb and its personal ending correlating with the main part of the sentence indicate the doer of the action. E.g.: Люблю (я) пісні мого краю. Пам'ятаєш (ти) перший клас?
2. The indefinite personal sentences: Давніх друзів не забувають. Нам дають чаю, гарячого, міцного.
3. Generalized personal sentence: За правду й за народ ставай життям! Поживемо — побачимо!
4. Impersonal sentences, e.g.: Світає. Не спалось.

Another difference of paramount importance between the two languages is that of **word order**. Ukrainian, conveying grammatical information mostly through

inflection, allows relative flexibility, which can be used to encode pragmatic information such as topicalisation or focus. Word order in English is of much greater importance than in Ukrainian. The word order in the English sentence is fixed, for English as an analytic language relies much on the order of sentence constituents to convey important grammatical information. The meaning of a sentence in English often depends entirely on the order in which the elements are placed (cf.: *The man ate the fish* and *The fish ate the man*). Therefore inversion in English is a powerful stylistic device. In Ukrainian, with its non-fixed, flexible order of words, inversion is less conspicuous. Hence, inversion as it is, often doesn't adequately convey the expressiveness of the English sentence: *Now was the moment to act*. "Зараз" placed at the beginning in the Ukrainian translation is not enough. As an adequate translation, one may perhaps use "came зараз". So inversion in English is a much more expressive means of the language than that in Ukrainian.

Another important difference between English and Ukrainian concerns **ellipsis** (omitting some elements of the sentence to avoid repetition). Ellipsis is the most vivid manifestation of "word economy". Elliptical sentences are typical of both English and Ukrainian, but Ukrainian as a synthetic language has far more possibilities for missing out informatively redundant elements of the sentence. English binary sentence structure and fixed word order makes it a problem to miss out obligatory parts of the sentence. The omission of an obligatory element may lead to the sentence becoming ungrammatical. One cannot omit a word without supplying another one instead. Therefore English makes extensive use of words called substitutes (or pro-words). Modern English has a large number of word substitutes. Here belong all the auxiliary and modal verbs, various classes of pronouns (*he, she, it, hers, his, that, those, one, some*), some adverbs (*there, so*), and particle *to*. The pro-words do not have denotative meaning, they are absolutely contextual. Cf.: *She never gets confused over her dates, and I always do*. *Вона при цьому не бентежиться так, як я. Не speaks French well, doesn't he? Він добре говорить по-французьки, правда?*

Of allomorphic nature are also English sentences containing the secondary predication constructions (or complexes), e.g.: *He felt **fear mounting in him** again*. Sentences containing secondary predication are treated as semi-complex sentences. They mostly correspond to Ukrainian complex sentences. Cf. Ukrainian translation of the given sentence: *Він відчув, що нум опановує страх*, the construction *fear mounting in him* becomes an object clause. Absence of secondary predication constructions in Ukrainian makes it impossible to obtain direct correlative transforms of some simple sentences.

All **parts of the sentence** in the contrasted languages have both isomorphic functional meaning and lexical-grammatical nature. Common is also the traditional subdivision of them into the main parts (the subject and predicate) and the secondary parts (the object, attribute, adverbial modifier) of the sentence.

Structurally, the parts of the sentence in the contrasted languages are isomorphic. The common types of the parts of the sentence are 1) simple, i.e. expressed by a single word-form (synthetic or analytical); 2) extended or expanded, expressed by a subordinate or co-ordinate word-group; 3) clausal, expressed by a clause within a complex sentence.

The English parts of the sentence have two structural types not found in Ukrainian, they are 1) complex parts of the sentence, expressed by verbal and non-verbal predicative constructions; 2) formal subject and object.

Structural Forms of the Subject

LANGUAGE	English	Ukrainian
Simple	+	+
Expanded	+	+
Extended	+	+
Formal	+	-
Quotation words/expression	+	+
Complex	+	-

Typological Characteristics of the Predicate

The main features of the predicate are common in English and Ukrainian. Allomorphy is pertained only to some forms of expressing it in English (by the continuous and perfect forms of the finite verb or by the gerund), eg: Minnie **was thinking** of the resource, which Carry **would add**. Many young men had taken silk. Deciding **is acting**.

As to its structure, the predicate may be Simple and Compound in both languages. **Simple Predicates:** 1) Simple verbal (expressed by the synthetic or analytical form of the finite verb, as in the sentences above); 2) Simple nominal, which is very widely used in Ukrainian and much rarer in English. For example: "Splendid game, *cricket*". Чудова гра *крикет!* 3) Phraseological predicates expressed by verbal set expressions. For example, of all that Johnny *took no notice*. На все це Джонні *не звертав уваги*.

Pertaining only to English is the simple contaminated predicate consisting of a verb in any tense and aspect form and of a past participle. Cf. The air-raids on Berlin in March 1945 had *continued unabated*.

The Compound Predicate and Ways of Expressing It

There exists complete isomorphism in the nature, meaning and structural types of the compound predicate in the contrasted languages. Their subtypes are generally common too. Namely:

1. *The Compound Verbal Modal Predicate*, which comprises a modal verb or its equivalent and the infinitive or gerund (the latter in English only). You must work now. Вам повинні працювати.
2. *The Compound Verbal Aspective Predicate* consisting of verbs denoting the beginning, duration or cessation of an action/state plus the imperfective infinitive or gerund (in English). Eg: Her legs *began to tire*. Ноги її *почали стомлюватися*.

Only in English, however, there is the so-called compound double verbal predicate formed by the subjective with the infinitive construction, e.g.: He *seemed to have completely lost interest* in everything. The space mission is *unlikely to finish* this week.

3. *The Compound Nominal Predicate* consists in both languages of linking verbs, which may have a vague lexical meaning (*to be, to get*) or preserve its lexical meaning (*to remain, to become, to grow, to turn, to look, to seem, to feel*), which have direct lexical equivalents in Ukrainian. The nominal part of the compound predicate in English may be expressed by the gerund and by predicative constructions, missing in Ukrainian. E.g.: *deciding is acting*. That is *for me to decide*. It was *his reading, which impressed me*. Other nominal parts are isomorphic in the contrasted languages.
4. The *mixed types* of the compound predicate are of isomorphic nature in English and Ukrainian. E.g.: the compound modal nominal predicate: The boy must be forty by now. Цьому хлопцеві *має бути сорок років*.

The general implicit morphological nature, the syntactic function and the nomenclature of the secondary parts of the sentence are generally isomorphic in the contrasted languages. Allomorphic features are observed, as a rule, in the structural forms of some types of English objects, attributes and adverbial modifiers, though some Ukrainian secondary parts of the sentence are also characterized by divergent features of their own.

Practice assignments:

Task 1. Answer the questions:

1. Compare structural types of sentences in English and Ukrainian.
2. What are the isomorphic features of two-member and one-member sentences in English and Ukrainian?

3. What are the functions of word order in the contrasted languages? Provide examples.
4. In which languages is ellipsis more widely spread? Give examples.
5. Comment upon one-member sentences in English and Ukrainian. Give examples.
6. Characterize the parts of sentence in the contrasted languages as whole, from the point of view of their structure, ways of expression and meaning.
7. What are the main parts of the sentence in English and Ukrainian?
8. What allomorphic features are found in English and Ukrainian as far as the subject of the sentence is concerned?
9. Dwell upon the ways of expression of the predicate in the contrasted languages. Speak of the types of the predicate in English and Ukrainian.
10. Give the definitions of all the secondary parts of the sentence and speak on the nomenclature of the secondary parts of the sentence in the contrasted languages.

Task 2. Read the following definitions of the sentence and comment upon them:

- A. The sentence is the minimal syntactical construction, used in the acts of speech communication, characterized by predicativity and having a definite structural scheme (Ivanova, Burlakova, Pocheptsov).
- B. The sentence is the independent unit of finite predication, which possesses communicative force and can occur as an independent unit of information (Morokhovskaya E.).

Task 3. Choose the appropriate answer to the following statements:

1. All parts of the sentence are divided into:
 - a) strong and weak
 - b) main and secondary
 - c) functional and notional
 - d) main and auxiliary

2. The subject and predicate:
 - a) are interdependent parts of the sentence
 - b) are secondary parts of the sentence
 - c) are not connected
 - d) are not found in English

3. The subject in English and Ukrainian can be expressed by:
 - a) noun, pronoun, gerund
 - b) finite form of the verb, noun, participle
 - c) gerund, pronoun, numeral
 - d) noun, pronoun, numeral, clause

4. The subject in Ukrainian cannot be expressed by:
- a) numeral
 - b) pronoun
 - c) noun
 - d) gerund
5. The following types of the parts of the sentence are found only in English:
- a) simple
 - b) compound
 - c) clausal
 - d) complex and formal
6. Complex object cannot be expressed by:
- a) For-to-Infinitive construction
 - b) Objective Infinitive construction
 - c) Gerundial construction
 - d) Infinitive phrase
7. The Compound nominal predicate in English consists of:
- a) auxiliary verb and predicative
 - b) link verb and predicative
 - c) modal verb and infinitive phrase
 - d) link verb and infinitive phrase
8. In English the predicative cannot be expressed by:
- a) noun
 - b) modal verb
 - c) adjective
 - d) participle
9. Primary predication is found in:
- a) the subject-object group
 - b) the subject-predicate group
 - c) the subject-attribute group
 - d) the predicative construction
10. Secondary predication relations are found in:
- a) the predication construction
 - b) the subject-predicate group
 - c) the predicate-object group
 - d) the subject-attribute group
11. The simple predicate can be of two types:
- a) complex and formal

- b) verbal and nominal
- c) compound and complex
- d) verbal and attributive

12. The compound verbal predicates cannot be:

- a) modal
- b) phrasal
- c) of double orientation
- d) predicative

13. The object in Ukrainian cannot be expressed by:

- a) noun phrases
- b) formal pronoun
- c) substantivized adjective
- d) pronoun

14. The attribute in the contrasted languages can:

- a) only postmodify the word it depends on
- b) both premodify and postmodify the word it depends on
- c) only premodify the word it depends on
- d) not modify the word it depends on

Task 4. Mark the following statements as TRUE or FALSE:

1. Syntactic relations constitute a universal feature and are realized depending on their grammatical nature either at sentence level or at word-group level.
2. The placement of the predicate in Ukrainian is the same as in English.
3. Objective relations in English are expressed predominantly in the analytical way.
4. In Ukrainian there are more types of one-member sentences.
5. English binary sentence structure and fixed word order makes it a problem to miss out obligatory parts of the sentence.
6. Inversion in Ukrainian is a powerful stylistic device.
7. Two-member sentences have a larger quantitative representation of structural types in English.
8. The structural types of sentences are common in the contrasted languages.

Task 7. Distinguish definite personal, indefinite personal and impersonal sentences:

1. You cannot eat your cake and have it.
2. It was getting darker and darker.

3. Can you give me a light?
4. Той монастир недавно збудували.
5. Забуду моря віщий шум чи юнь, даровану роками.
6. Світлішає.

Task 8. Identify what language English or Ukrainian has the following features:

1. In ... the prepositional object and the indirect object can be the subject of the passive construction.
- 2 In ... subjectless sentences are widely used.
3. In ... the subject may be a syntactical word-morpheme, a gerund or a complex.
4. Word order in ... is of much greater importance than in
5. Binary (S – P) sentence structures are more characteristic of ...; they are represented by a larger variety of paradigmatic subtypes than in
6. Inversion in ... is a much more expressive means of the language than that in
7. One-member sentences have a larger quantitative representation of structural types in

Task 9. Read the following extract and comment upon it:

Prof. G.Pocheptsov initiated constructional analysis of the English sentence in his book published in Kyiv in 1971. This analysis deals with the constructional significance/insignificance of a part of the sentence for the whole syntactic unit. The theory is based on the obligatory or optional environment of syntactic elements. For example, the element *him* in the sentence *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.

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. 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.

Unit 13. The Composite sentence in English and Ukrainian

1. Definition of composite sentences

2. Compound sentences

3. Complex sentences

A composite sentence in English and Ukrainian contains two or more primary predication centers mostly represented by as many corresponding clauses. The structural types of the composite sentence are identified on the ground of the syntactic relation (and connection) of its predicate parts, which are not always distinctly identified. Thus, common in the syntactic systems of English and Ukrainian are sentences that are semantically intermediate between simple extended, on the one hand, and composite sentences, on the other. These are the so-called semi-compound and semi-complex sentences. For example, the sentence "One does not give up a god easily and so with White Fang." (London) can not be treated as a simple extended one. Neither can it be identified as a composite sentence since the second part in it (and "so with White Fang") contains no subject and no predicate and wholly depends on the predicative center of the first clause. Ukr.: Не так легко відмовитися від свого власника – Бога, саме так було це і в Білозубця.

English sentences containing the secondary predication constructions or complexes are traditionally called semi-complex sentences. They mostly correspond to Ukrainian complex sentences.

THE COMPOUND SENTENCE

Clauses in compound sentences of the contrasted languages are mostly joined by means of co-ordinate conjunctions, which provide parataxal relations between them. Conjunctions joining clauses in compound sentences of the contrasted languages are practically of the same semantic nature: copulative, adversative, and causal (in English only). Equally common in the contrasted languages are various connectives that join coordinate clauses. These are as follows: *therefore, consequently, accordingly, then, hence, so, while, as well as* and some explanatory connective words (*that is to say, such as, like, let me say* and others), which have corresponding functional (and semantic) equivalents in Ukrainian (*отже, та, а саме, звідси, тобто, тоді, як-то, так-як,...так, скажімо, то...то*).

As to their structure, compound sentences in English and Ukrainian fall into two clearly distinguishable groups: 1) compound sentences proper; 2) intermediaries between the simple extended sentences and the compound sentences proper. They are communicative units in which one (usually the first) clause is structurally complete and the succeeding clause is incomplete, i. e. lacks one or both main parts of the sentence, *He couldn't believe it and was a little scared* - *Він не міг повірити цьому і був дещо наляканий*.

Some English semi-composite sentences have no structural sentence equivalents in Ukrainian. Here belong sentences whose parts are expressed by

secondary predication constructions. Thus, the English semi-compound sentence *He looked at her and saw her crying*, has a complete complex sentence for its equivalent in Ukrainian: *Він глянув на неї і побачив, що вона плаче* (object clause).

English semi-compound sentences with the nominative absolute participle constructions have mostly complete compound sentences for their equivalents in Ukrainian as well: *Nancy's head was already turned toward the barred door, her eyes filled with red lamplights.* — *Голова Ненсі була повернута до запертих дверей, і в очах її відбилося червоне світло лампочки.*

THE COMPLEX SENTENCE

Like the simple and compound sentence, the complex sentence too presents a universal unit in the syntactic systems of all 5,651 languages of the world. Consequently, this type of composite sentence has some isomorphic features of its own. They are in the contrasted languages as follows: 1) the complex sentence has a polypredicative nature; 2) it is characterized by the subordinate way of joining the clauses to the principal/matrix clause; 3) it may consist of homogeneous clauses or of consecutively dependent clauses joined to the matrix clause or to each other syndetically or asyndetically; 4) the arsenal of syndetic means of connection includes conjunctions, connective pronouns, connective adverbs and subordinating connective words; 5) the connectors join clauses and express some logico- grammatical relations formed within the complex sentence. These include predicative, objective, attributive and various adverbial relations expressed by the corresponding clauses, which may occupy either the preceding or the succeeding position/place in regard to the matrix clause.

The contrastive analysis of the compound and complex has testified to the existence of complete isomorphism in the syntactical nature, nomenclature and functions of their clauses in English and Ukrainian. The few divergences refer to the structural nature and to the ways of connection of some clauses in these two languages. Allomorphic for English are definite personal clauses whereas Ukrainian has no tag-clauses and some structural forms of subject and predicative clauses and no syndetic way of joining the attributive clauses to the antecedent in the matrix clause. There is mostly no structural identity between the English sentences containing some secondary predication and passive voice constructions and their corresponding Ukrainian syntactic units. Hence, the regularity of the necessary transformations, which the English simple and composite sentences often, undergo in Ukrainian. This usually happens in the following cases:

1. When a passive construction in the English simple sentence has no functional verb-form equivalent in Ukrainian: *It was a chance not to be missed* – *Це була нагода, яку я не маю права упустити.*

2. When in the English simple sentence there is an objective with the infinitive construction: He had seen *the world change*. Він бачив, як на його очах змінюється світ.

3. When in the English simple sentence there is an objective with the participle or adjective construction/complex: I saw the bush moving on. – Я побачив, як заворушився кущ.

4. When in the English simple sentence there is a subjective with the infinitive/participle construction: *Fleur is said to resemble her mother*. Кажуть, що Флер схожа на свою матір.

5. When there is a gerund or a gerundial complex in some function in the simple English sentence: Do you mind opening the window? Ви не будете заперечувати, якщо я відкрию вікно?

6. When the English simple sentence contains a nominative absolute participial construction in some adverbial function: The weather being fine, we went for a walk. Оскільки погода була гарною, ми пішли на прогулянку.

The absence of structurally equivalent transforms for such and the like English simple and composite sentences in Ukrainian testify to the existence of some typological allomorphy in the system of the highest syntactic level units in the contrasted languages.

Practice assignments:

Task 1. Discuss the following issues:

1. Typology of the composite sentence in the contrasted languages.
2. Analyse compound sentences in English and Ukrainian.
3. Characterize the complex sentence, the main types of subordinate clauses in the languages under analysis.

Task 2. Choose the appropriate answer to the following statements:

1. Compound sentences consist of:
 - a) the main clause and subordinate clause
 - b) the main clause and extended clause
 - c) equal subordinate clauses
 - d) clauses, equal in rank
2. What clauses can be introduced by the formal *it*?
 - a) attributive
 - b) subjective and objective
 - c) adverbial

d)predicative

3. In the contrasted languages the following types of the adverbial modifier are not found:

- a)the adverbial modifier of time
- b)the adverbial modifier of replacement
- c)the adverbial modifier of manner
- d)the adverbial modifier of attendant circumstances

4. The composite sentence can contain:

- a)one main clause and one subordinate clause
- b)two equal clauses
- c)any number of clauses
- d)limited number of clauses

5. The composite sentences are characterized by the use of:

- a)one subject-predicate group
- b)more than one subject-predicate group
- c)two predicative word-groups
- d)primary and secondary predication word-groups

6. Adverbial clauses can be of the following types:

- a)conditional, of time, attributive
- b)conditional, of time, of manner
- c)conditional, of concession, attributive
- d)attributive, objective, conditional

7. Subject clause performs the function of:

- a) the object of the main clause
- b) the subject of the main clause
- c) the attribute of the main clause
- d) the predicative of the main clause

Task 3. Mark the following statements as TRUE or FALSE:

1. Syntactic relations constitute a universal feature and are realized depending on their grammatical nature either at sentence level or at word-group level.
2. The placement of the predicate in Ukrainian is the same as in English.
3. Objective relations in English are expressed predominantly in the analytical way.
4. In Ukrainian there are more types of one-member sentences.

5. Most of English complements and adverbial adjuncts have no fixed position in the word-group.
6. English sentences containing the secondary predicative constructions (or complexes) are of isomorphic nature with Ukrainian ones.
7. In English restrictive attributive clauses are more tightly connected with the main clause than in Ukrainian and are not separated by a coma.
8. English binary sentence structure and fixed word order makes it a problem to miss out obligatory parts of the sentence.
9. There is much common in the nature and structure of the composite sentence in English and Ukrainian.
10. Compound coordinate sentences are more spread in Ukrainian.
11. Complex sentences may be two-member (subordinate clause is not part of the main clause) and one-member (subordinate clause is part of the main clause) in both contrasted languages, but English has more one-member complex sentences than Ukrainian.
12. English object clauses are more tightly connected with the main clause and are never separated by commas.
13. Two-member sentences have a larger quantitative representation of structural types in English.

Task 4. Define the type of the subordinate clauses in the following sentences:

1. There is nothing for me to say except that I know nothing about it.
2. It occurred to me that perhaps he thought I could not face it.
3. Poets are people who despise money except what you need for today.
4. He did not want to lose her whatever she might think.
5. Once they reached the open country, the car leapt forward like a mad thing.
6. Поки він їв, він розповідав нам про те, що трапилося.
7. Тільки-но ми зайшли в кімнату, як почалася злива.

Task 5. Read the following extract and define types and subtypes of composite sentences in Ukrainian, compare them with the English ones.

“Складними називаються речення, що складаються з двох або кількох простих речень, об’єднаних в ціле за змістом та граматичними засобами. Загальний зміст складного речення, що служить для вираження складної думки, є результатом синтезу змісту простих речень, які входять до його складу і перебувають у певних синтаксичних відношеннях одне з одним. Прості речення в складному поєднуються між собою сурядним або підрядним зв’язком. Засобами вираження синтаксичних відношень між простими реченнями в складному є сполучники і сполучні слова та інтонація або лише інтонація.

За наявністю сполучників і сполучних слів та синтаксичними відношеннями (сурядності і підрядності) виділяються основні види

складного речення. При визначенні різновидів складнопідрядного речення береться до уваги також його будова, граматичне значення підрядних речень.” (В.В.Лобода, Л.В.Скуратівський)

Task 6. Define the type of the composite sentences:

1. Хто щастя взяв у лютій боротьбі, той може захистити його в бою. 2. Зима без снігу – літо без хліба. 3. Місяць на небі, зіроньки сяють, тихо по морю човен пливе. 4. Вже червоніють помідори, і ходить осінь по траві. 5. Вже вони й повечеряли, а сата матір не втомилась, слухаючи свого гостя дорогого. 6. Чи довго плив Еней, не знаю... 7. Коли весело живеться, до роботи серце рветься. 8. As we approached the George Washington Bridge, I saw a thunderstorm over the city. 9. It was one o'clock by my watch when we landed. 10. There was once a king who was so ill that it was thought impossible his life could be saved. 11. He had three sons, and they were all in great distress on his account, and they went into the castle gardens and wept at the thought that he must die.

Task 7.

Unit 14. Pragmatic Types of Sentences in English and Ukrainian

1. Communicative types of sentences
2. Pragmatic types of sentences
3. Speech Act Theory
4. Direct/indirect speech acts

According to the role in the performance of communication and due to the modality/intention expressed, all sentences in the contrasted languages fall into the following five common semantic types: 1) declarative sentences (statements); 2) interrogative sentences; 3) imperative and inductive sentences; 4) sentences of hypothetical modality; 5) exclamatory sentences. Consequently, the communicative types of sentences and their paradigmatic classes are absolutely isomorphic in English and Ukrainian. However, there still exist some minor structural divergences in some of these classes of sentences in both contrasted languages. For example: allomorphic is the often use of prepositions in the closing position of the special question in English: *What are you quitting for? Where do you come from? What do you point to?*

Pragmatics is the study of 'how to do things with words' (the name of a well-known book by J. Austin, a philosopher). Pragmatics is contrasted with other linguistic disciplines, mainly semantics and syntax. Semantics is the study of the relation of linguistic units to the objects they denote. Syntax is the study of the

relations of linguistic units to one another, 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? We are talking*

(b) *What the hell are you doing here? We're chewing the rag*

The utterances 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 is hot' may be just mentioning of the fact, explanation, excuse, and inducement to do smth. etc.

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 name this ship The Albatros, I bet you 5 dollars it will rain, I apologize, etc.*

The peculiar thing about these sentences is that they are not used to say or describe things, but rather actively do things. After you have 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**. Only a priest (or a person with corresponding power) can make a couple a husband and wife. Besides, it must be done before witnesses and the couple getting married must sign the register.

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.

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.

Representatives – here the speaker asserts a proposition to be true, using such verbs as: *affirm, believe, conclude, deny, and report*.

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

Commissives – here the speaker commits himself (or herself) to a (future) course of action, with verbs such as: *guarantee, pledge, promise, swear, vow, undertake*.

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

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

Although assertions, questions and orders are fairly universal, and most of the world's languages have separate syntactic constructions that distinguish them, other speech acts do not have a syntactic construction that is specific to them. Compare: *I'll be back* – can be a promise and a threat.

Sometimes a sentence characterized by formal features of some pragmatic type in speech acquires illocutionary power of sentences of another type. Such cases are referred to as **indirect speech acts**. Speaking on the difference between direct and indirect speech acts, J. Searle suggests that a speaker using a **direct speech act** wants to communicate the meaning that the words conventionally express. There is a direct relationship between the form and the function. On the other hand, the use of an **indirect speech act** shows that the meaning the speaker wants to communicate is different from what lies on the surface. For example, the commissive "*I'll give you a lift*" has the function of a directive.

However, the same utterance can be a statement, a request, a command or a joke.

The number and range of illocutionary functions remain almost the same in different languages. The difference can be observed in the use of certain speech acts and the choice of forms for their realization in different situations. These restrictions are caused by socio-cultural factors. The illocutionary forces of certain utterances often have to be changed due to differences in cultural norms. For example, a business letter in Ukrainian contains the following sentences „*Будь ласка, повідомте нам про ...*”; „*Будемо вдячні, якщо Ви повідомите нам про...*”; in English they are: ‘*we should be grateful if you would let us know...*’ or ‘*we should like to suggest...*’ rather than ‘*kindly inform us immediately of your intentions ...*’ or ‘*we are sending you instructions....*’ There former are conventional ways of requesting a favour in English. The English question “*Have you got a match?*” is a request, while the Ukrainian utterance “*Чи маєте Ви сірники?*” carries two meanings. The speaker either asks you for matches or offers them to you. Only the utterance “*У Вас немає сірників?*” pronounced with interrogatory intonation and a stress falling on “*немає*” is unambiguously a request.

When advice is offered in Ukrainian, speakers prefer not to use modal verbs (*можти, хотіти*) that would make the speech act indirect. Preference is given to direct speech acts of advice.

To see off a guest, a Ukrainian would use causative verbs, for example, “*Заходіть! Телефонуйте! Пишіть!*” This form of communication often provokes an inadequate response from a foreigner. Instead of “*Дякую!*” prescribed by the Ukrainian speech etiquette, the bewildered guest will say: “*With great pleasure!*” or ask “*When exactly should I come? What for?*”

Mikhail Goldenkov offers an interesting description of a typical indirect speech act used in US public transport. If a passenger wants to get off a crowded bus, he/she is not supposed to ask the passengers blocking the way if they are getting off or not the way people do in Ukraine. A direct speech act would be taken as meddling in other people’s personal matters. Instead a request to make way must be disguised as a statement: “*Excuse me, I am getting off*” or as a question in the first person: “*Could I get off please?*”

Indirect speech acts must always be taken into account when teaching a foreign language. In many cases they make the communicative center of a conversation and sound much more natural than direct speech acts.

The study of different cultural ways of speaking is sometimes called **contrastive pragmatics**.

Prof. Karaban V.I. (2003) singles out the following types of relationship between the speech acts of the Source and Target Languages:

1. A speech act of the source language correlates with the same type of a speech act in the target language. Compare: “There are things going on, sir, that I don’t

understand". Armstrong said sharply: "Things? What things?" (A.Christie) "Тут відбуваються такі події, сер, які я не можу збагнути". "Події? Які ще події?" – різко урвав його Армстронг. The representative and quesitive speech acts in the source text are rendered by the same speech act types in the target text.

2. A speech act of the source language correlates with another type of a speech act in the target language: *I should worry! А чого мені хвилюватися?*

3. A direct speech act in the source language correlates with an indirect speech act in the target language. The Ukrainian utterance „*Дозвольте запитати Вас ...*” needs to be translated as ‘*Will you answer the question?*’ or “*Спочатку закінчуйте твір, потім переходьте до наступного тексту.*”

‘Why don’t you finish your essay and then you can turn to the next text?’

Practice assignments:

Task 1. Answer the following questions (1-3 sentences)

1. What is Linguistic Pragmatics?
2. What range of questions does Pragmatics cover nowadays?
3. What is Contrastive Pragmatics?
4. Who were the first authors of Speech Act Theory?
5. What is the difference between a sentence, an utterance and a speech act?
6. Give examples of the constative and performative utterances in English and Ukrainian.
7. What are basic principles of classification of speech acts?
8. Comment on J.Searle’s classification of speech acts.

Task 2. Analyze different definitions of the subject matter of pragmatics:

A. “Pragmatics starts out from an active conception of language as being used. Pragmatics is where the action is. Pragmatics is needed if we want a fuller, deeper and generally more reasonable account of human language behavior.”
Jacob Mey

B. “Pragmatics is all about the meanings between the lexis and the grammar and the phonology. Meanings are implied and the rules being followed are unspoken, unwritten ones.” *George Keith*

C. “The advantage of studying language via pragmatics is that one can talk about people’s intended meanings, their assumptions, their purposes or goals, and the kind of actions that they are performing when they speak. The big

disadvantage is that all these very human concepts are extremely difficult to analyze in a consistent and objective way.” *George Yule*

D. “Прагматика вивчає людські виміри комунікації, пов’язаність їх з мовними структурами. Прагматика ще займається виробленням тих чи інших комунікативних стратегій, пошуком аксіоматики нашого спілкування.” *Г.Г.Почепцов*

E. *Jenny Thomas* says that pragmatics considers the negotiation of meaning between speaker and listener, the context of the utterance, the meaning potential of an utterance.

Task 3. Define the type of a speech act performed by the Speaker who produces the utterance “I am tired” depending upon the context and his intention. Fill in the following table:

Context	Intention	Meaning	Type of ac
A friend has asked how I feel	To answer the question	I feel fatigued	
My husband and I are watching a football game on television	That we do smth else	Could we turn this off?	
It’s late and my small children are asking if we can go to the movies	To put them to bed	No, go to bed	

Task 4. Define the type of a speech act performed by the underlined utterances:

1) - Do you give each other advice?

- Well, we have given each other enough advice [Time]

2) Оголошую вас чоловіком і дружиною; Присягаю на вірність батьківщині;

3) Ми, старі кадрові робітники, бажаємо вам великих успіхів у роботі і обіцяємо найближчим часом виготувати у своїй майстерні для вас два плуги, два культиватори...» (М. Стельмах).

4) «Клянусь Аполлоном-цілителем, Асклепієм, Гігією та Панацеєю й усіма богами та боги- нями, беручи їх у свідки, виконувати чесно ... таку

присягу: вважати того, хто навчив мене..., ділитися з ним ..., допомагати йому...» (клятва Гіппократа).

4) “Могли б ми піти до якогось шинку і взяти, приміром, холодного пива?”
Дівчина кивнула, і вони пішли (Пасілінна)

5) A: There have been reports in the press that the government will finally seize assets of some oil companies that are not paying taxes. B.: Their oil will be seized and that will be the end of it. [Newsweek].

6) Mistress (to new maid): Now, Norah, I always take my bath at 9 every morning.

Norah: ‘all right, mam, it won’t interfere with me a bit. I’m never ready with mine before 10.

7) Grace: You are going with him, Charteris. Julia: You will not leave me here to be insulted by this woman, Mr.Charteris. /She takes his arm as if to go with him/ [Shaw]

8) Policeman: Miss, you were driving sixty miles an hour!

She: Oh, isn’t it that splendid I only learned to drive yesterday.

Task 5. Consider the following point of view. Try to formulate felicity conditions for a directive or any other speech act.

The act performed always depends on certain conditions, called **felicity conditions**. The name *felicity* comes from the Latin root - “felix” or “happy”. Felicity conditions predetermine the success of a speech act. For example, only certain people have the authority to declare war, to baptize people or to sentence convicted felons. The speaker also must be sincere if he utters an apology or makes a vow. On top of everything else, external circumstances must be suitable for the successful performance of a speech act. For example, the utterance “*Can you give me a lift?*” will only make sense if the hearer has a motor vehicle, is able to drive it and if the speaker has a reason to ask for a ride. Sometimes an utterance can be meant as a joke or sarcasm, which calls for a different interpretation. Generally speaking, there are four kinds of felicity conditions: preparatory conditions, propositional content conditions, sincerity conditions and essential conditions.

1. **Propositional content:** Propositional content condition explains about the illocutionary forces specify the acceptable conditions regarding with

propositional content. In other words, it is the proposed condition of the speaker or hearer.

2. **Preparatory condition:** In attempt to conduct a felicitous illocutionary act the speaker has to have a certain beliefs about the speaker's act and conditions and also, the speaker is required to have the power of authority over the hearer.

3. **Sincerity condition:** In performing felicitous act the performer must have a certain psychological attitude concerning the propositional content of the utterance. For example, when a person is making a promise, he/she must have an intention of keeping it.

4. **Essential condition:** Essential condition of an utterance has to do with its intention to get the hearer to perform the intended act. (J.Searle)

Task 6. What is an indirect speech act? Analyze the following examples:

A) Pamela /moving to the table/. It's too cold to think in French, Walter.

Walter: Very well. I'll light the fire. [Shaffer];

B) He stood up and knocked out his pipe, "I must get back to work". "Me too". But Alex, when he was alone, sat silent, thoughtful. Edwina took an express elevator... [Hailey];

C) The Captain /to Ellie/ Your room is ready. /Ellie rises/ [Shaw].

D) This time the butler was brought in. "Mr.Swaffield, dinner is served." ... The party was led across the hall to the dining room, also on the ground floor, according to the old London practice. [Shaw]

E) Jones was always trying to borrow money, and his friends had begun to avoid him. One morning he tackled an acquaintance in the street before the latter had a chance to escape. "I say, old man" began Jones, "I'm in a terrible fix. I want some money badly, and I haven't the slightest idea where on earth I'm going to get it from". "Glad to hear it, my boy", returned the other promptly". I was afraid that you might have an idea you could borrow it from me" [Language and Humour]

F) Bill: *I ... love your house.*

Norman: Thank you. It's not for sale.

Bill: Oh, no, I wasn't thinking about buying it. I just like it. [Thompson]

Task 7. Compare the type of the speech act in the source language with the type of it in the target language:

1. Dr. Watson: "Couple of biscuits too, if you've got'em." – Доктор Ватсон: "Можна з печивом, якщо у вас є."

Sherlock: "If you're so keen, why don't you investigate it?" – Шерлок: "Як такий розумний, сам візьмися."

2. Tony Stark: "What do you mean? All this, came from you." [19]. – Тоні Старк: "Не зрозумів. Все це ти зробила."
3. Nick Fury: "Agent Romanoff, would you show Dr. Banner to his laboratory, please?" – Нік Ф'юрі: "Агенте Романофф, покажіть доктору Беннеру його лабораторію."
4. Lestrade: "Well, if you tell me how he does it, I'll stop him." – Лестрейд: "Без проблем, тільки скажи, як він все знає?"
5. Lestrade: "A bungee rope, a mask, Derren, Brown. Two years, and the theories are getting more stupid. How many more've you got for me today?" – Лестрейд: "Банджі, гіпноз, маска. Ти отупів за минулі два роки. Що ще ти вигадась?"
6. Jimmy: "I'm just going home; get my mum's umbrella." – Гаррі: "You can share mine!" – Джиммі: "Та візьму собі парасольку". Гаррі: "І цієї вистачить!"
7. Natasha Romanoff: "Gentlemen, you may wanna step inside." – Наташа Романофф: "Добродії, може хочете зайти в приміщення?"

Unit 15. Politeness in English and Ukrainian

1. Approaches to Politeness.
2. Politeness in terms of principles of conversation
3. Politeness and management of face

Politeness is defined as a system of communicative strategies and concrete speech act tactics aimed at showing consideration to others. G. Lakoff describes it as a system of interpersonal relations designed to facilitate interaction by minimizing the potential for conflict and confrontation inherent in all human interchange. Politeness is a feature of language in use. Over the past years, the term 'politeness' has been used in different applications, with reference to a number of phenomena:

- 1) politeness as a real-world goal;
- 2) politeness as a reflection of social norms;
- 3) politeness as a pragmatic phenomenon.

Politeness as a real-world goal deals with the speaker's personal motivation and psychological state. Human motivations are inaccessible to linguists, who work only with what speakers say and how their addressees react.

When looked upon as a social norm, politeness reflects certain norms and rules of speech behavior (etiquette), which should be taken into account by linguists.

As a pragmatic phenomenon, the category of politeness can be reduced to a set of principles of human communication and the management of face.

Politeness can be viewed as a strategy and as a set of linguistic conventions that operate independently of the speaker's current goal. R. Lakoff describes politeness as one of the two "strategies in human communication: the strategy of "clarity" that guides the transmission of information, and the strategy of "rapport." Using both strategies as a criterion, the author comes up with two rules of speech behavior: (1) Be clear and (2) Be polite. Although those two rules are often in conflict, they can also reinforce one another.

"Being polite" is a complex strategy including three specific rules: do not impose (distance), give options (deference), and be friendly (camaraderie).

G. Leech divides the Politeness Principle into six different maxims: tact, generosity, approbation, modesty, agreement and sympathy.

Principles and maxims of human communication are universal and can be interpreted as a moral code of speech behavior: How to be a good and efficient conversationalist. There are also some specific culture- and language-conditioned aspects of politeness.

Politeness is influenced by the context – both situational and cultural. If the form of the utterance is more polite than the context requires, the hearers may assume that the speaker's intention is more than just being polite. See, for example, the following invitation to a young lady: *"Won't you come into my garden? I would like my roses to see you.* The invitation is used to flatter the young woman.

Leech's approach can be helpful in explaining **cross-cultural differences in politeness**. The whole issue of politeness and language is culture-bound.

In Cuba, for example, friends are not expected to show any distance between each other. Therefore an utterance like *"thank you for a cup of coffee"* may cause offense. The hearer perceives it as 'maximizing praise,' which results in putting up barriers between two friends. The use of the maxims of approbation and modesty is also deeply rooted in culture. For example, the British reject praise in the form of a personal compliment, 'minimizing praise of self', whereas the Japanese accept a personal compliment graciously. The British and Americans tend to use direct compliments, while the Ukrainians often perceive them as negative remarks. Even the word 'compliment' in these languages associates with different concepts. In English, 'a compliment' is a sign of solidarity, respect and positive evaluation. In English culture, a compliment is associated with honor, admiration, courtesy and tribute. *"I take it as a compliment to be invited here."* *"Я вважаю за честь бути запрошеним сюди"*.

In Ukrainian, the same word may have a negative meaning: комплімент, люб'язності, похвала, лестощі: *„не вважайте це за комплімент, але ви чуйна людина"*.

A comparative study of compliment responses in different languages is a very exciting activity. For example, in English, a response to a compliment is

usually positive. It is a sign of solidarity and/or good feeling towards the interlocutor. In Ukrainian/Russian, compliments are often rejected: “На жаль, це лише комплімент. Ви мені лестите.” Compare: “How are you, Jane? Compliments of the season.” - Як справи, Джейн? Бажаю всього найкращого.”
With compliments... з привітом, з повагою...

The face-saving view of politeness is associated with the theory of Penelope Brown and Stephen Levinson.

This theory distinguishes and identifies the language-user both as an individual and as a member of a group. The term ‘face’ refers to a speaker’s sense of linguistic and social identity. Any speech act may challenge the speaker’s image of himself, which turns communication into a face-threatening activity. The person’s self-image or ‘face’ has two aspects. First of all, every individual has the so-called **negative face**, which is his inherent right to pursue his own desires and to be free from impositions. Individuals strive to be independent, to have freedom of action, and not be imposed upon by others. People don’t want their actions to be constrained by other individuals and tend to do their best to avoid inhibitions.

Another constituent of our self-image is the so-called ‘**positive face**’— an inherent desire to be loved and appreciated by others. Everybody wants to be accepted and liked by others and to be treated as a member of the group.

Regardless of the language or culture, speakers are expected to respect each other’s expectations regarding self-image. It is only natural for people to guard their own face, both positive and negative. Being considerate involves taking other people’s feelings into account and avoiding face-threatening acts (FTA’s). When a FTA can’t be avoided, the speaker can redress the threat with negative politeness that respects the hearer’s negative face or with positive politeness that appeals to the hearer’s positive face. The steps people take to achieve those goals add up to politeness.

Speakers normally adapt their conversation to different situations.

Politeness strategies are specifically developed to deal with FTA’s. Suppose I see a bottle of beer in my neighbor’s house. Being thirsty, I might say:

- *I want some beer.*
- *Is it O’K for me to have a beer?*
I hope it’s not too forward, but would it be possible for me to have a beer?
- *It’s so hot. It makes you really thirsty.*

According to P. Brown and S. Levinson, ‘polite’ behavior can be manifested in four different strategies: **bald-on record behaviour, negative politeness, positive politeness, and off-record-indirect strategy.**

The bald on-record strategy does nothing to minimize threats to the hearer's face. The speaker uses direct speech acts including utterances in the imperative form. There are no mitigating devices. The hearers can either do as they are told or face the risk of being considered uncooperative. This is the most face-threatening mode of action. Consider the examples: An emergency: *Help!* Task oriented: *Give me those!* Request: *Put your jacket away.* Alerting: *Turn your lights on!* (while driving). On the other hand, sometimes bald-on-record strategy can actually be used to save the hearer's face. If someone hears an utterance like 'Have another biscuit' or 'Marry me,' he probably won't mind being imposed upon. In this situation, the FTA is quite pleasant. For this reason, the firmer the invitation, the more polite it is. Besides, in this case, directness indicates a desire to be seen as socially close. Most of the time, speakers combine on-record FTA's with 'face-management' acts.

The positive politeness strategy shows you recognize that your hearer has a desire to be respected. It also confirms that the relationship is friendly and expresses group reciprocity. One of the main types of positive politeness strategy is claiming common ground. Speakers can claim common ground by attending to the hearer's interests, wants and needs. Let us imagine that you are at a resource center trying to find a particular web site. Using on-record positive politeness would include utterances emphasizing friendship and closeness: *'Ann, you're computer whiz-kid – I'd really appreciate it if you'd tell me the address for that web-site they were talking about today'*.

Positive politeness has the following strategies: attend to the hearer, avoid disagreement, assume agreement, hedge opinion.

Negative politeness strategy focuses on the interlocutors' negative face. The speakers emphasize the distance between each other and try to avoid any intrusion on each other's territory. The hearer is offered all kinds of options, which is achieved by emphasizing the importance of his time and concerns, by using an apology and/or a hesitation, or a question that gives him the opportunity to say no. For example: *"I don't want to be a nuisance, but could you possibly tell me the address for that web-site they were talking about?"*

Negative politeness includes the following specific strategies.

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

Off-record indirect strategies take some of the pressure off of you. Instead of asking for a beer, let someone around you know that you want one. He may offer it to you, and you will avoid a FTA. Sometimes it is better to ask for help indirectly, by saying in a voice loud enough for your neighbors to hear: *I wonder*

where on earth that web-site is. I wish I could remember the address. These are indirect speech acts. You have just used a declarative representative functioning as a question, but the hearers are expected to interpret it as a directive, as a request for help.

- Give hints: It's a bit cold in here.
- Be vague: Perhaps someone should have been more responsible.
- Be sarcastic, or make a joke: Yeah, he's a real Einstein (rocket scientist, Stephen Hawking, genius and so on)!

These strategies are not universal. Depending on the specific culture, they are used more or less frequently. For example, in some eastern societies, the off-record-indirect strategy will place on your hearer a social obligation to give you anything you admire. So speakers learn not to express admiration for expensive and valuable things in homes that they visit. The British put more emphasis on negative politeness than other cultures do.

Practice assignments:

Task 1. Answer the questions:

1. What is the difference between politeness as an accepted norm of behavior and linguistic politeness?
2. What is imposition from a pragmatic perspective? How can imposition pose problems for the addressee?
3. What is face in terms of pragmatics?
4. What is positive face? negative face?
5. How can you interpret the expressions face threatening act/situation, lose face, save face?
6. What speech acts may threaten the addressee's positive and negative face?
7. What are main types of strategies to deal with face-threatening situations?
8. How can the speaker's face be threatened?

Task 2. Read the following extract written by G.Hofstede and find arguments to support or contradict his ideas:

In the wider, cross-cultural meaning we can perceive politeness as a set of rules, or strategies that are culturally specific, ritualized in communication that tends to harmonize communication and avoid conflicts. There are no polite/impolite nations and cultures but there are different, culture-specific behavioral norms that are usually based on social and cultural relationships, cultural values and national peculiarities. Politeness is tied up with the most basic principles of socio-cultural organization, and interpersonal relationships within social groups and should be viewed in the context of social distance and Power distance, which are considered the main dimensions of cultures [Hofstede 1991].

Task 3. Read the following extracts of conversation and define the politeness strategy used in them:

- a) You must be hungry. It's a long time since breakfast. How about some lunch?
b) A: What is she, small? B: Yes, yes, she's small, smallish, um, not really small but certainly not very big. c) So when are you coming to see us? d) You really should sort of try harder. e) I will always do what you ask, but I'll never stop loving you. And if you need me, I'll always be here. f) Turn your lights on! (while driving) g) I'm looking for a pen. h) Perhaps someone should have been more responsible.

Task 4. Read the following point of view on cross-cultural differences and comment on it:

A comparative research on the norms of communication and politeness has been carried out on the material of German and English. The analysis reveals that when an English text is translated into German, certain transformations are required. The evasive and polite tone of the English source text needs to become more direct and undiplomatic (House 1998). The following table can represent dimensions of cross-cultural differences:

German	English
Directness	Indirectness
Orientation towards self	Orientation towards others
Orientation towards content	Orientation towards addressees
Explicitness	Implicitness
Ad-hoc formulation	Verbal routines

It follows that German speakers prefer self-oriented strategies and long for directness and explicitness. On the other hand, English-speaking individuals are more addressee-oriented and prefer implicitness and indirectness.

Task 5. The study of English/Russian speech behavior with reference to politeness (Кузьменкова 2005) has shown the following major differences:

The Speaker expressing	English behavior	Russian speech behavior
Imposition	Indirectness, implicitness	Directness, explicitness
Positive evaluation	Overstatement	Understatement
Negative evaluation	Softening, understatement	Exaggerating, overstatement

Give examples to illustrate English and Russian speech behavior.

Task 6. There is also some evidence that Ukrainian speech behavior is more explicit and direct than English conversational norms. Could you prove it? Give examples to illustrate common and divergent features.

Task 7. Do you agree or disagree with the following. Give your arguments:

A. The Ukrainians regard politeness as showing deference to the close people and elderly people. The English think that politeness consists of showing respect and consideration. The representatives of both cultures achieve their aim due to the appropriate language, polished manners and polished behavior.

В. Ввічливість є одним із способів вираження схвальної оцінки статусу іншої особи. У такому співвідношенні: “повага” – це “те, що”, а “ввічливість” – це “те, як”. Значення ввічливості в українській мові передається словами *ввічливий, гречний, делікатний, тактовний*. Ввічливий той, хто “дотримується правил пристойності, виявляє уважність, люб’язність, чемність”; гречний – “шанобливо ввічливий у поведженні з людьми: чемний”. Ці ознаки віддзеркалюють процесуальний бік поведінки, зовнішній план, оскільки гарні манери можуть виявлятися без поваги. Гармонія зовнішнього із внутрішнім пошаним ставленням до особи відбивається у лексичному вираженні: делікатний – “запобігливий, м’який у поведженні”, “ввічливий, люб’язний, завжди готовий виявити увагу, зробити послугу”; тактовний, “який володіє почуттям міри, такту”.

C. R. Lakoff describes politeness as one of the two “interests” or strategies in human communication: the strategy of “clarity” that guides the transmission of information, and the strategy of “rapport.” Using both strategies as a criterion, the author comes up with two rules of speech behavior: (1) Be clear and (2) Be polite. Although those two rules are often in conflict, they can also reinforce one another. “Being polite” is a complex strategy including three specific rules: do not impose (distance), give options (deference), and be friendly (camaraderie).

D. G. Leech divides the Politeness Principle into six different maxims: tact, generosity, approbation, modesty, agreement and sympathy.

The **tact** maxim is probably the most important form of politeness in English-speaking society. It focuses on the hearer and encourages people 'to minimize cost to others' and 'to maximize benefit to others': *"Could I interrupt you for half a second – what was that website address?"* or *"If I could just clarify this then."*

The maxim of **generosity** focuses on the speaker, who is expected 'to minimize benefit to self' and 'to maximize cost to self'. The utterances *"Could I copy down the website address?"* or *"You relax and let me do the dishes."* are perfect illustrations of this maxim.

The maxim of **approbation** suggests 'minimizing dispraise of others' and 'maximizing praise of others.' Below are several examples of this maxim in action:

"Ann, you're very efficient and make notes of everything – you must have a copy of that website address we were given today." *"I heard you singing at the karaoke last night. It was, um ... different."*

The maxim of **modesty** deals with 'minimizing praise of self' and 'maximizing dispraise of self.' Let us look at some illustrations: *"Oh, I'm so stupid – I didn't make a note of that website address! Did you?"* *"I don't know much about this area but I think that ..."*

Following the maxim of **agreement** involves 'minimizing disagreement between self and others' and 'maximizing agreement between self and others.' For example: *"I know you hate parties, John, but come anyway. We'll all be there, and it'll be cool seeing if Ally is with Andrea!"*

The **sympathy** maxim encourages speakers to 'minimize antipathy between self and others' and 'to maximize sympathy between self and others.' This particular maxim finds its perfect realization in the polite speech acts of congratulating, commiserating and expressing condolences. For example, *"I am sorry to hear about your father"* meaning 'about your father's death'.

Principles and maxims of human communication are universal and can be interpreted as a moral code of speech behavior: How to be a good and efficient conversationalist. There are also some specific culture- and language-conditioned aspects of politeness.

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I. Basic notions

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

Grammar

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

- is a device that specifies the infinite set of well-formed sentences and assigns to each of them one or more structural descriptions;
- is the set of structural rules that govern the composition of sentences, phrases, and words in any given natural language.

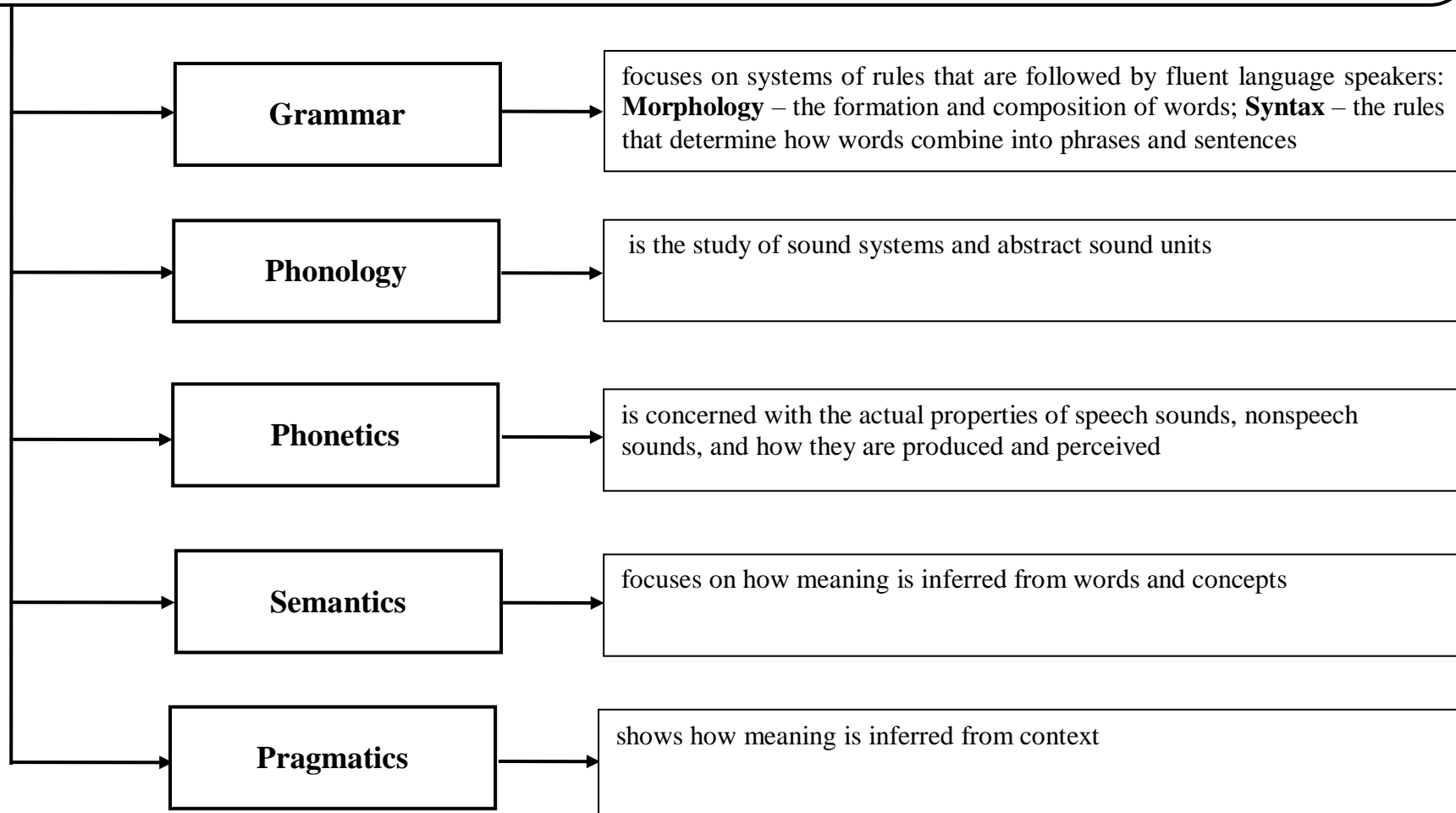
Practical grammar
is the description of
grammar rules that are
necessary to
understand and
formulate sentences.

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

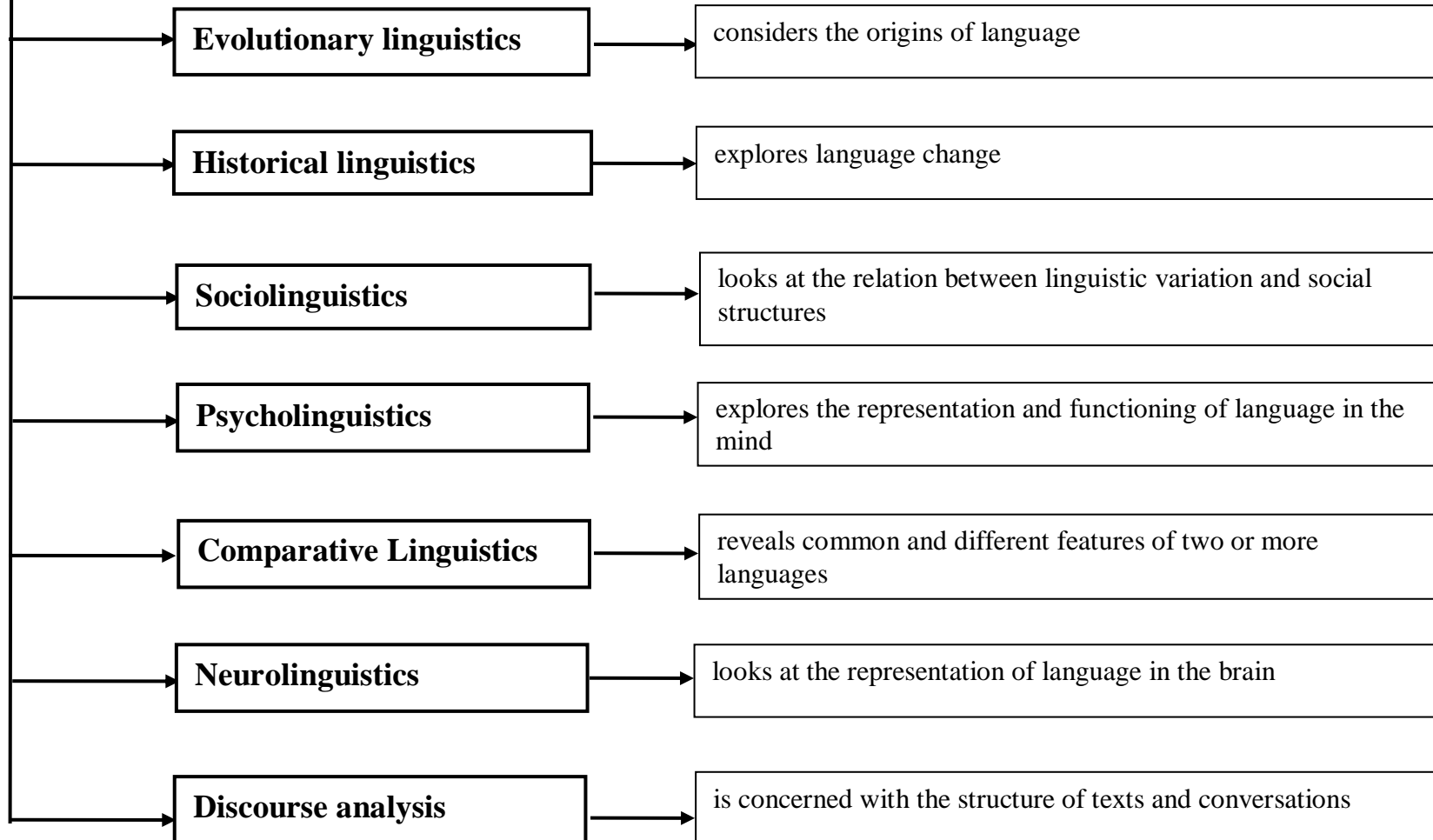
Linguistics

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

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



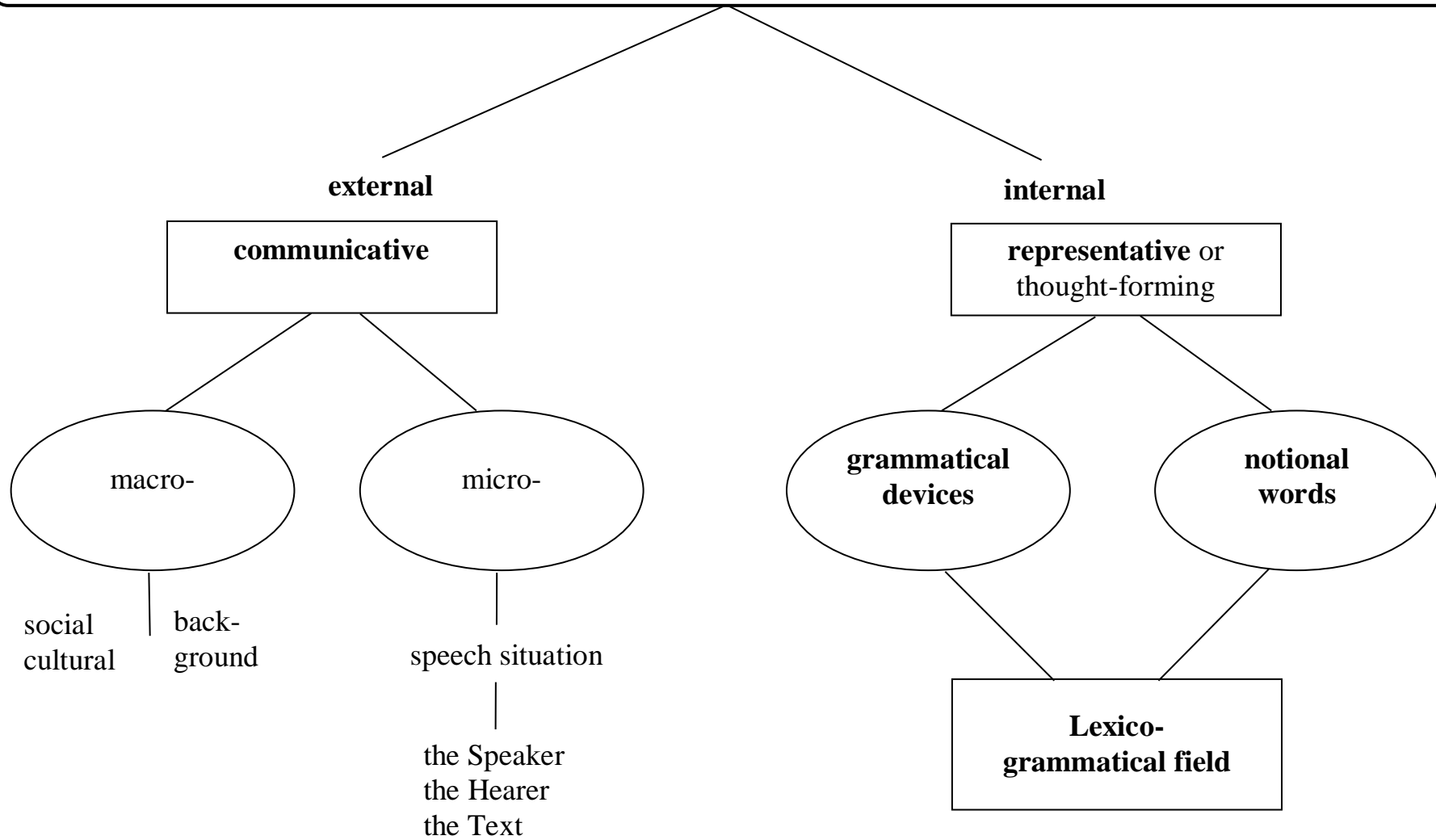
Many other subdisciplines of linguistics tackle language within a broader context:



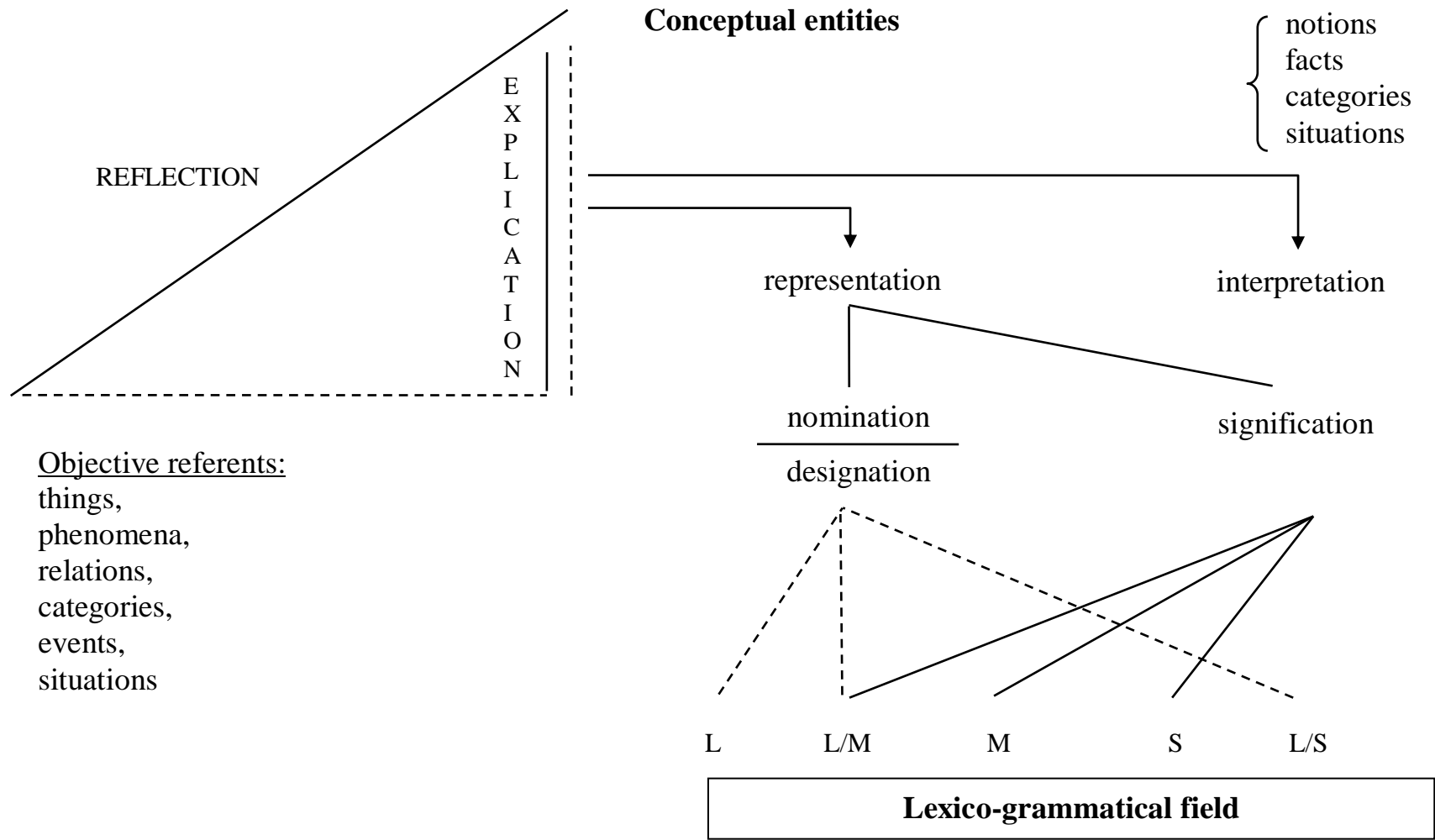
Functions of Language

Communicative	as a means of communication
Representative	as a means of thinking
Emotive	as a means of expressing feelings/emotions
Phatic	as a means of establishing contact
Metalingual	as a means of language investigation

Functions of Language



Representative Function



Relationship between Language and Thinking

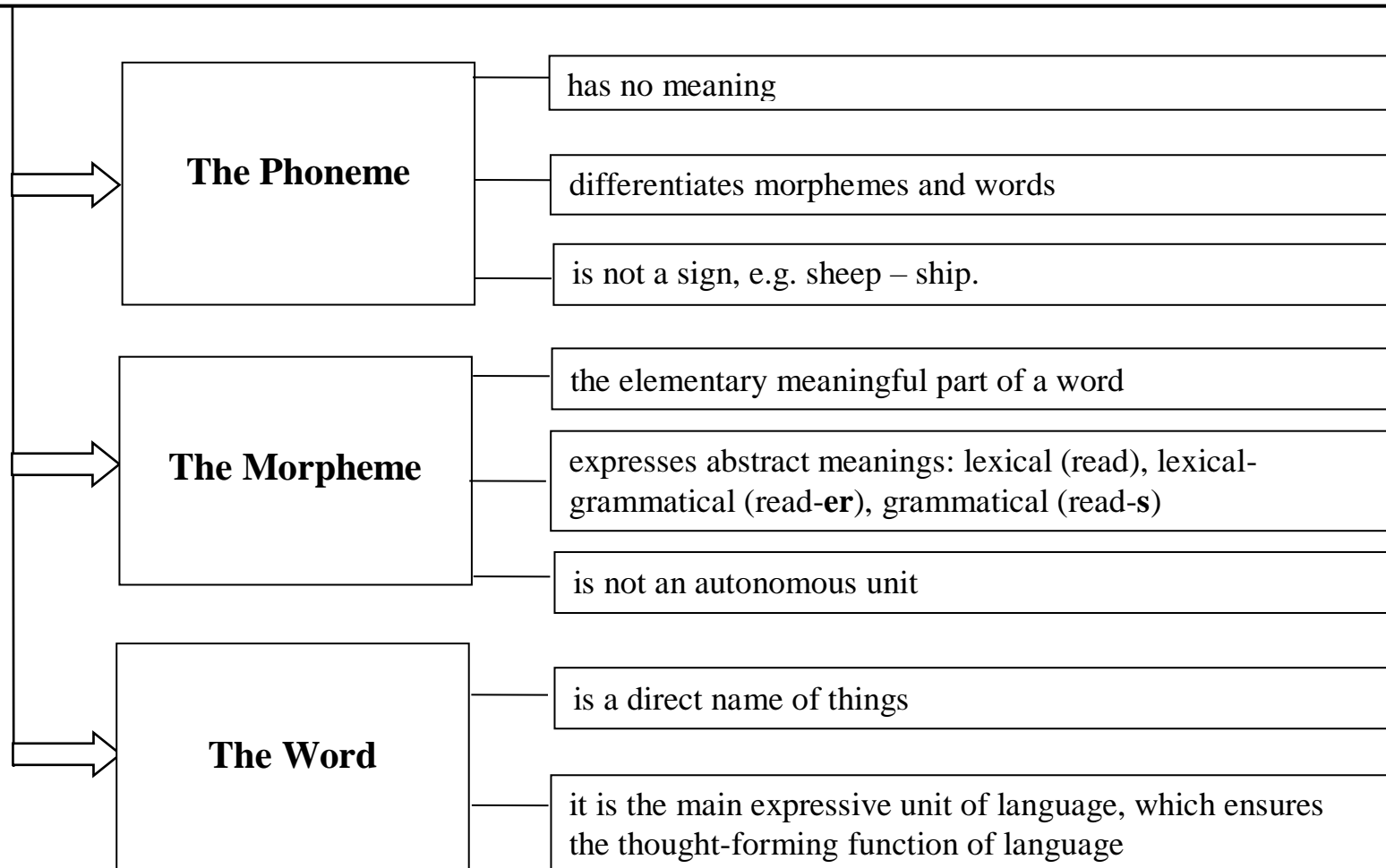
Different points of view:

1. Language and thought are totally separate entities, with one being dependent on the other: language might be dependent upon thought or thought might be dependent upon language. The traditional view supports the first of these: people have thoughts and then they put these thoughts into words;
2. Language and thought are identical – it is not possible to engage in any rational thinking without using language. The way people use language dictates the lines along which they can think. The Sapir – Whorf hypothesis: language determines the way we think (**linguistic determinism**); the distinctions encoded in one language are not found in other languages (**linguistic relativity**).
3. Language may not determine the way we think, but it influences the way we perceive and remember, and it makes mental tasks easy or difficult. The interdependence of language and thought – linguistic relativity – is the fact that can hardly fail to be acknowledged.

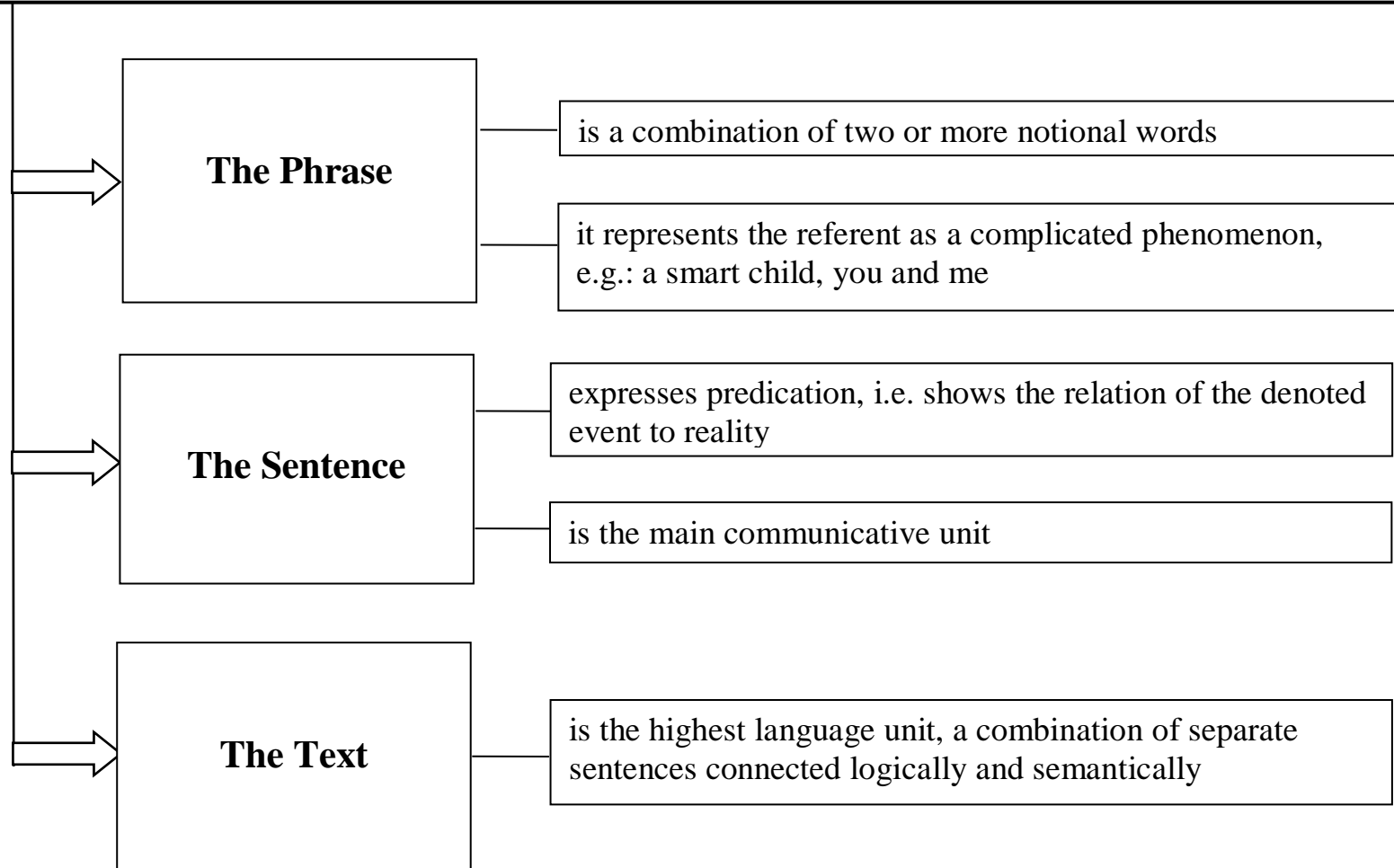
Language as a structure

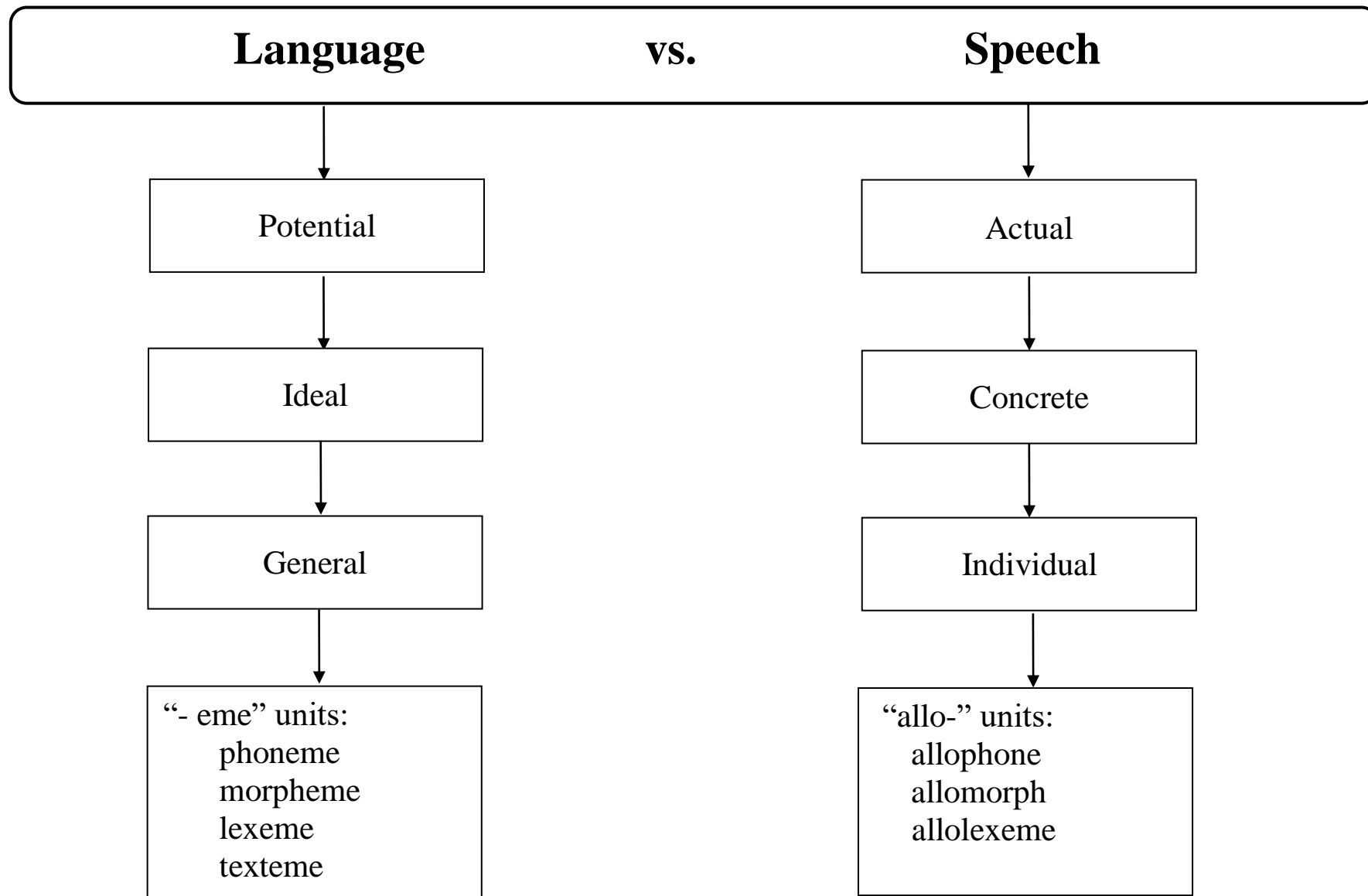
Levels	Units	Definitions
Phonological	phoneme	the smallest distinctive unit
Morphological	morpheme	the smallest meaningful unit
	word	the smallest naming unit
Syntactical	word combination	
	sentence	the smallest communicative unit
Super syntactical	text	

Linguistic units



Linguistic units





Language as a system

- System is a group of things or parts working together in a regular relation.
- Language is a complex system of linguistic units that exist only in their interrelation and interdependence.
- Language is an organized set of linguistic units regularly interrelated, ultimately interdependent and interlocked.
- Language is a semiotic system.
- Language appears naturally, develops all the time, it is capable of self-regulation when other sign systems are artificial and conventional.
- Language is a universal way of communication; other sign systems have limited spheres of usage.
- Language has a lot of layers, a very complicated hierarchical system.

Semiotics

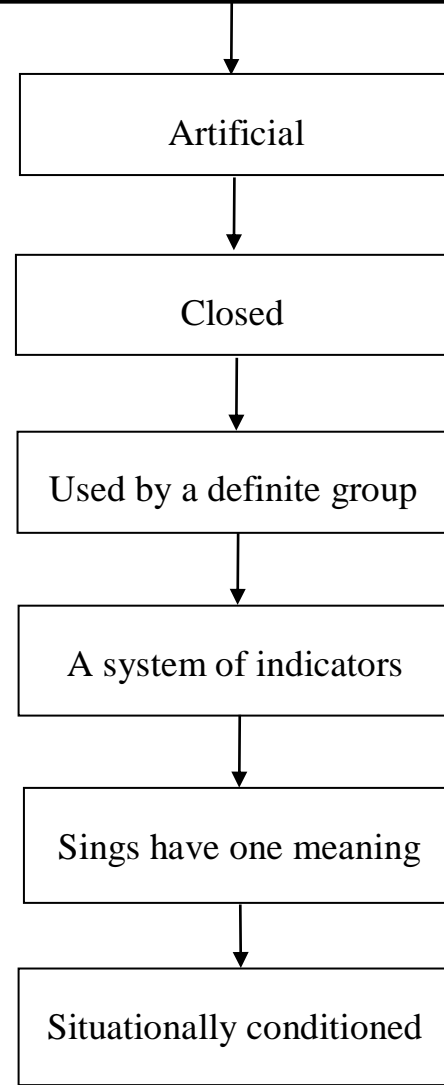
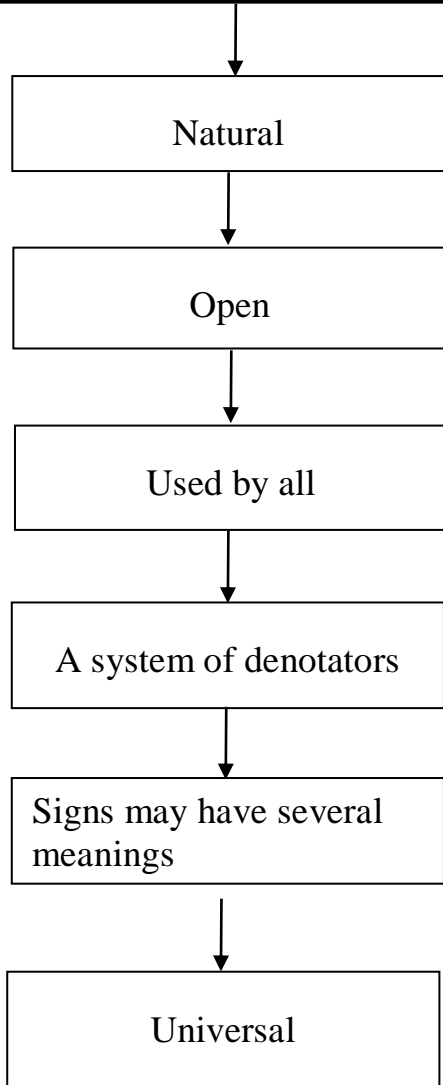
It studies the system and structure of different signs

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

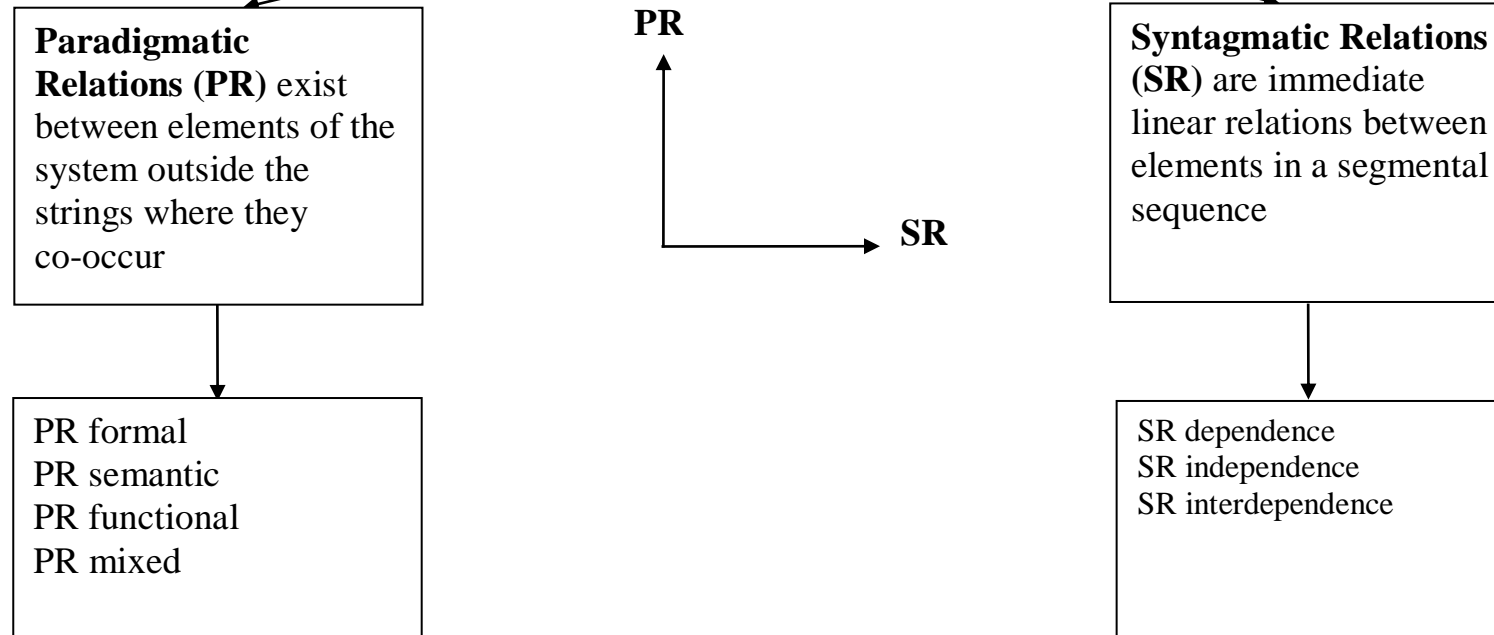
Signs create definite systems and their value is determined by its place in the system

Sign Systems: traffic and military signs, computer languages, language etc.

Language vs. Other Sign System



Systemic Relations



Types of Paradigmatic Relations

PR formal are based on the similarity of the form of a linguistic unit:

- speaker
- speakers
- speaker's
- speakers'

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

Developed, Analytical:

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

Reduced, Synthetic:

- Clever
- Cleverer
- The cleverest

Types of paradigms:

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

Types of Paradigmatic Relations

PR₂ semantic: synonyms, antonyms, topical connections:
e.g. Verbs of motion: go, move, come, cross, return, etc.
Furniture items: bed, chair, table, wardrobe, etc.

PR₃ functional:

- A
- The
- This
- That
- All
- Some

} book(s)

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

PR₄ mixed (functional + semantic)

- **The boy** is here.
- **He** is here.
- **All** are here.
- **Three** are here.

} **N-like elements**

Types of Syntagmatic Relations

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

II. Basic Grammatical notions

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

Lexical meaning

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

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

Two Components of Lexical Meaning

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

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

Types of Connotative Meaning

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

Grammatical meaning

Grammatical meaning is a generalized, rather abstract meaning, always expressed by special formal markers or in opposition by the absence of markers.

Grammatical meaning is recurrent in identical sets of individual forms of different words. The common element in the words *kids*, *tables*, *types* is the grammatical meaning of plurality.

Types of Grammatical meaning

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

Grammatical Form

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

Types of Grammatical form

Synthetic forms:
pen - pens,
foot - feet

Analytical forms:
shall/will go
have/has done

Grammatical Opposition

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

Types of Grammatical opposition

Binary and more than binary

Privative:
love :: loved

Equipollent:
am :: are :: is

Gradual:
strong :: stronger
:: the strongest

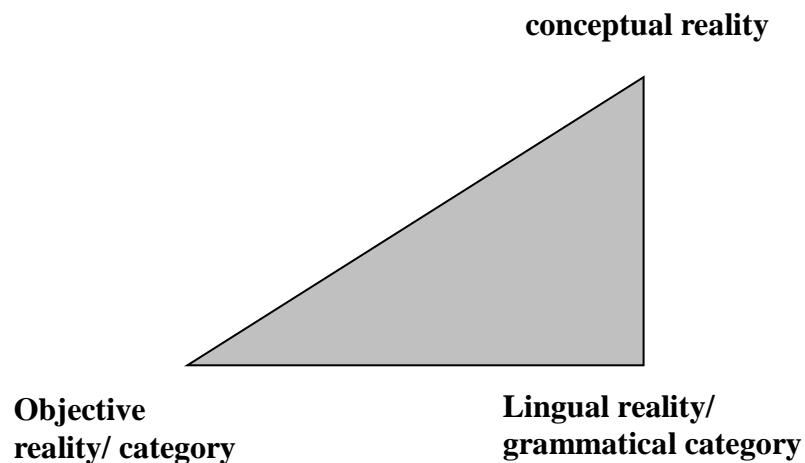
Grammatical Category

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

Types of Grammatical form

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

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



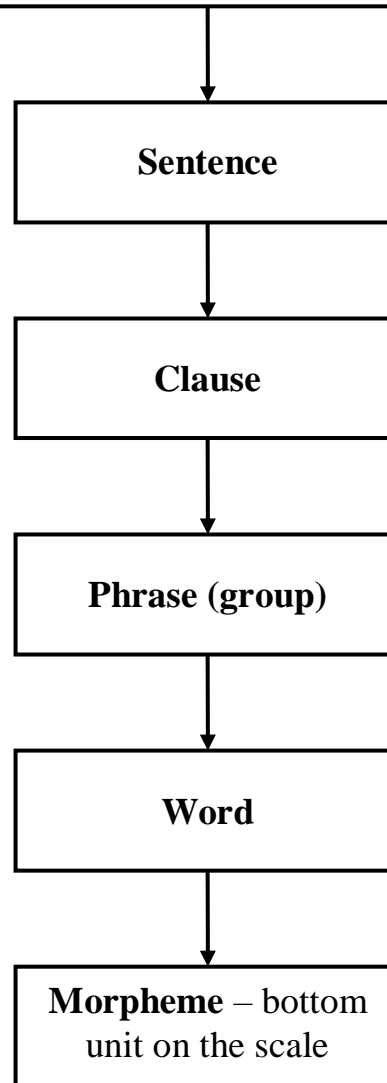
III. Morphology

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

Levels of Language

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

Rank Scale of Linguistic Units



The Morpheme

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

Classification of morphemes

According to meaning

- **lexical** (roots): *sing, pen, boy*;
- **grammatical** (inflections): *penss, writer*;
- **lexico-grammatical** (affixes): *unhelpful, defrost*.

According to form

- **free** (can stand as individual words on their own): *sad, bamboo*;
- **bound** (depend on their meaning on being conjoined to other items): *disfunction, useless*
- **semi-bound** (can function as a free morpheme and as a bound morpheme): *a man of forty - mankind*

According to linear characteristics

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

The Word

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

word = <u>content</u> = expression						contextual
					actualized	connotative
				potential	category	gram.
	general implicit l/gr meaning		particular implicit gram. meaning	potential caterial gram. meaning	gram. meaning	meaning
	lexical meaning					
derivation pattern						
					∅	
					marker	
						word form

Words can be

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

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

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

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

IV. Parts of speech

Different approaches to parts of speech problem:

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

Tendencies in grouping English words

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

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

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

Traditional approach

is based on Latin and Greek languages (synthetic languages)

Lexico-grammatical classes of words:

Declinable (capable of inflection) vs. **indeclinable** (incapable of inflection).

Declinable:

- Noun
- Pronoun
- Adjective
- Verb
- Adverb

Indeclinable:

- Prepositions
- Conjunction
- Interjection
- Particles
- modal words

Parts of speech

Synthetic Languages

In Synthetic languages inflection is a marker of a part of speech reference of a word, e.g. **ГЛОКАЯ** кузdra.

Word classes

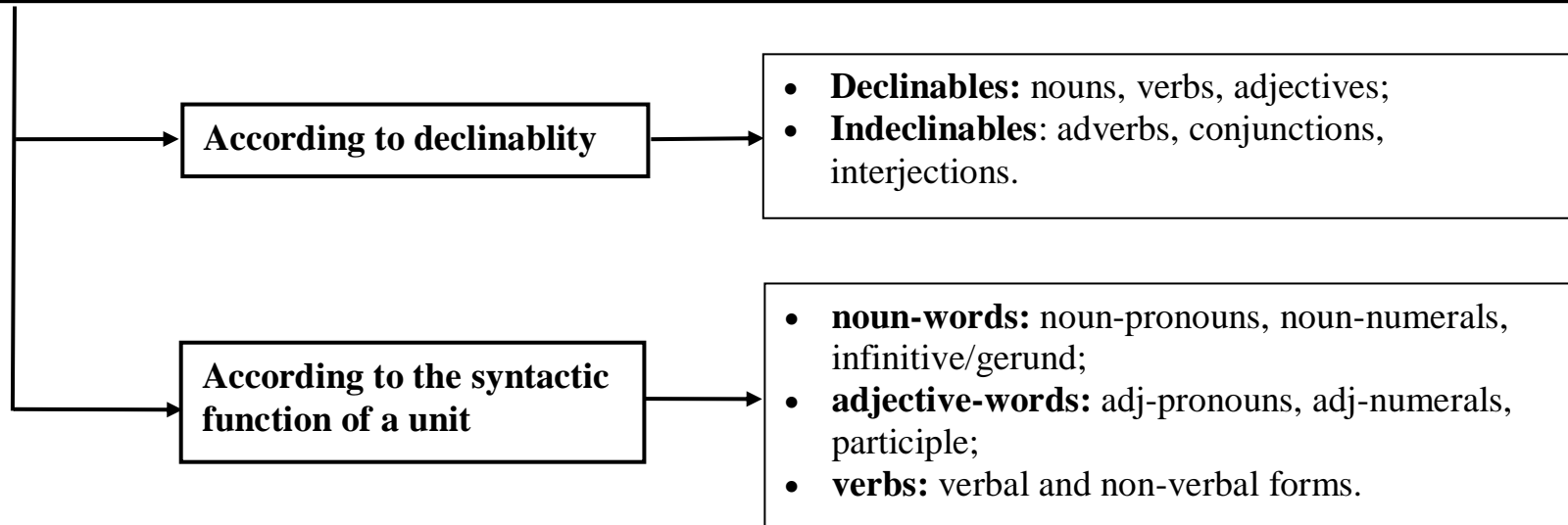
Analytic Languages

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

All the instances of one part of speech are “the same” only in the sense that in the structural patterns of English each has the same **functional significance**. (Ch.Fries)

Henry Sweet

1st scientific grammar of English



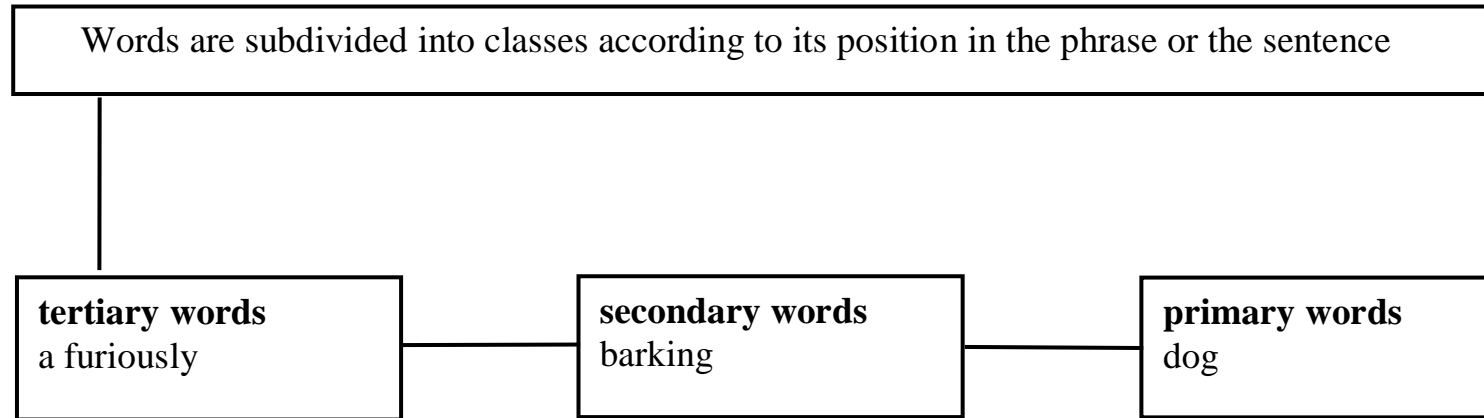
Critical Remarks:

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

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

Otto Jespersen

The theory of three ranks



Charles Fries distributional classification

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

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

According to the position of a word in the sentence

Four classes of words:

Class 1 – N,
Class 2 – V,
Class 3 – A,
Class 4 – D.

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

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

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

Critical Remarks

Weak points of Charles Fries' classification

- It is not a classification of words but the classification of syntactic positions and distributions of words;
- It neglects the morphological properties of words;
- The classes and groups are overlapping. One and the same word can refer to different classes and groups.

Positive points of Charles Fries' classification

For the first time he described function words:

- **Specifiers of notional words:** modal verbs, modifiers and intensifiers of adjectives and adverbs.
- **Interpositional elements:** prepositions, conjunctions.
- **The words that refer to the sentence as a whole:** question words, attention-getting words, affirmation and negation words, etc..

Modern Approach to Parts of Speech Problem

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

- Semantic – evaluation of generalized meaning;
- Formal – inflexional and derivational features;
- Functional – combinability and syntactic role of words in the sentence.

The features of the Noun

According to meaning

- the general implicit lexico-grammatical meaning – substantivity.

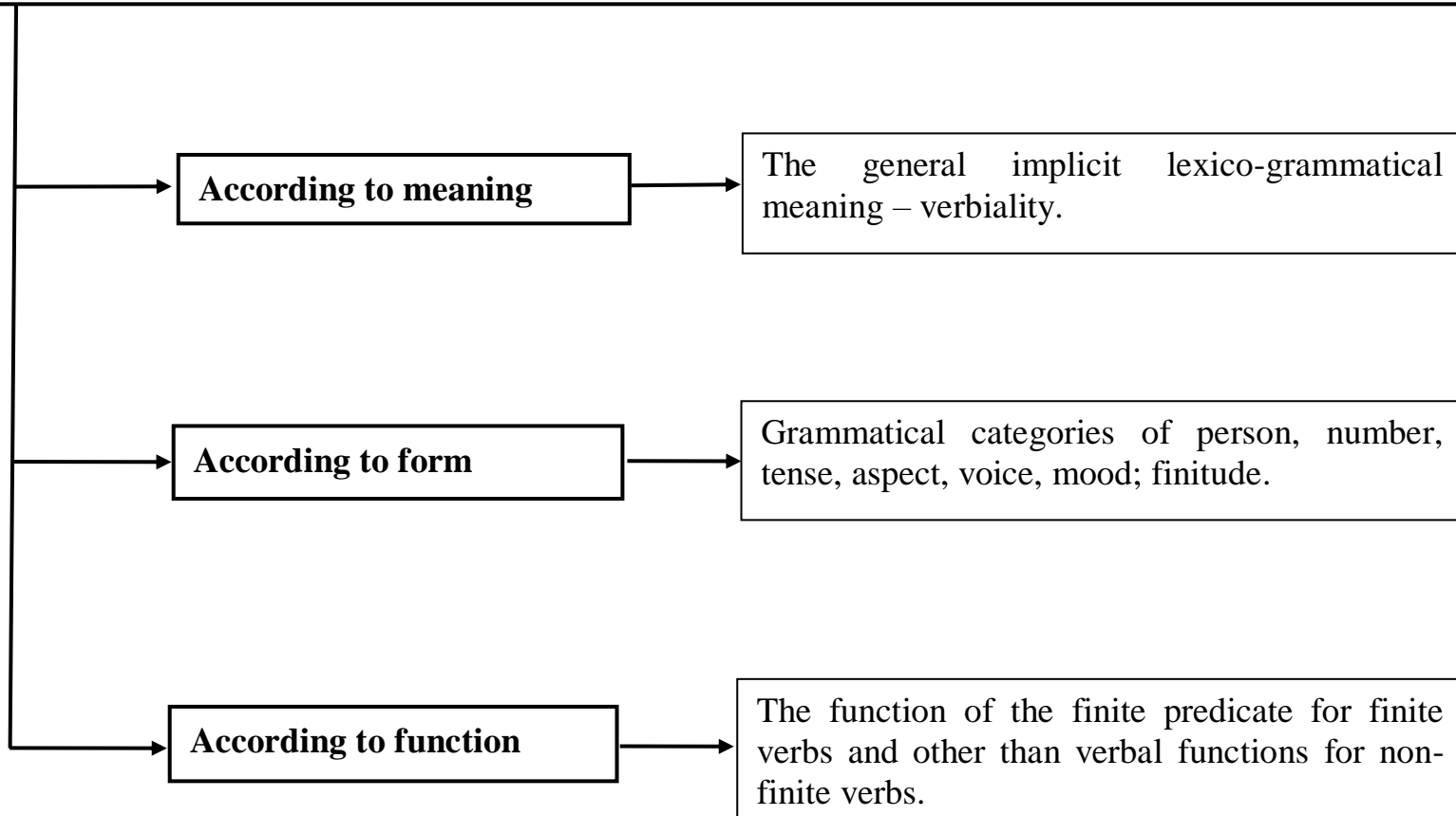
According to form

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

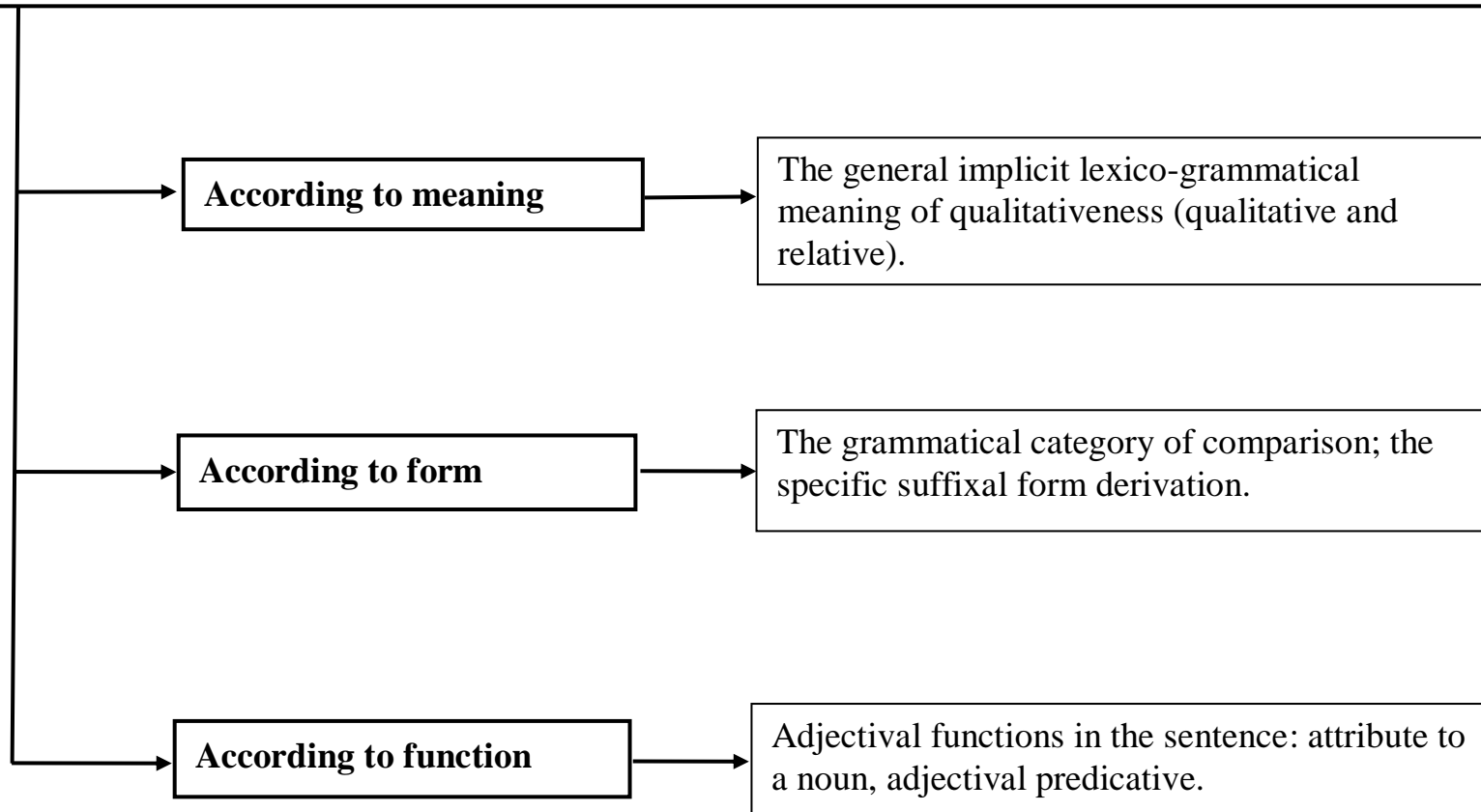
According to function

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

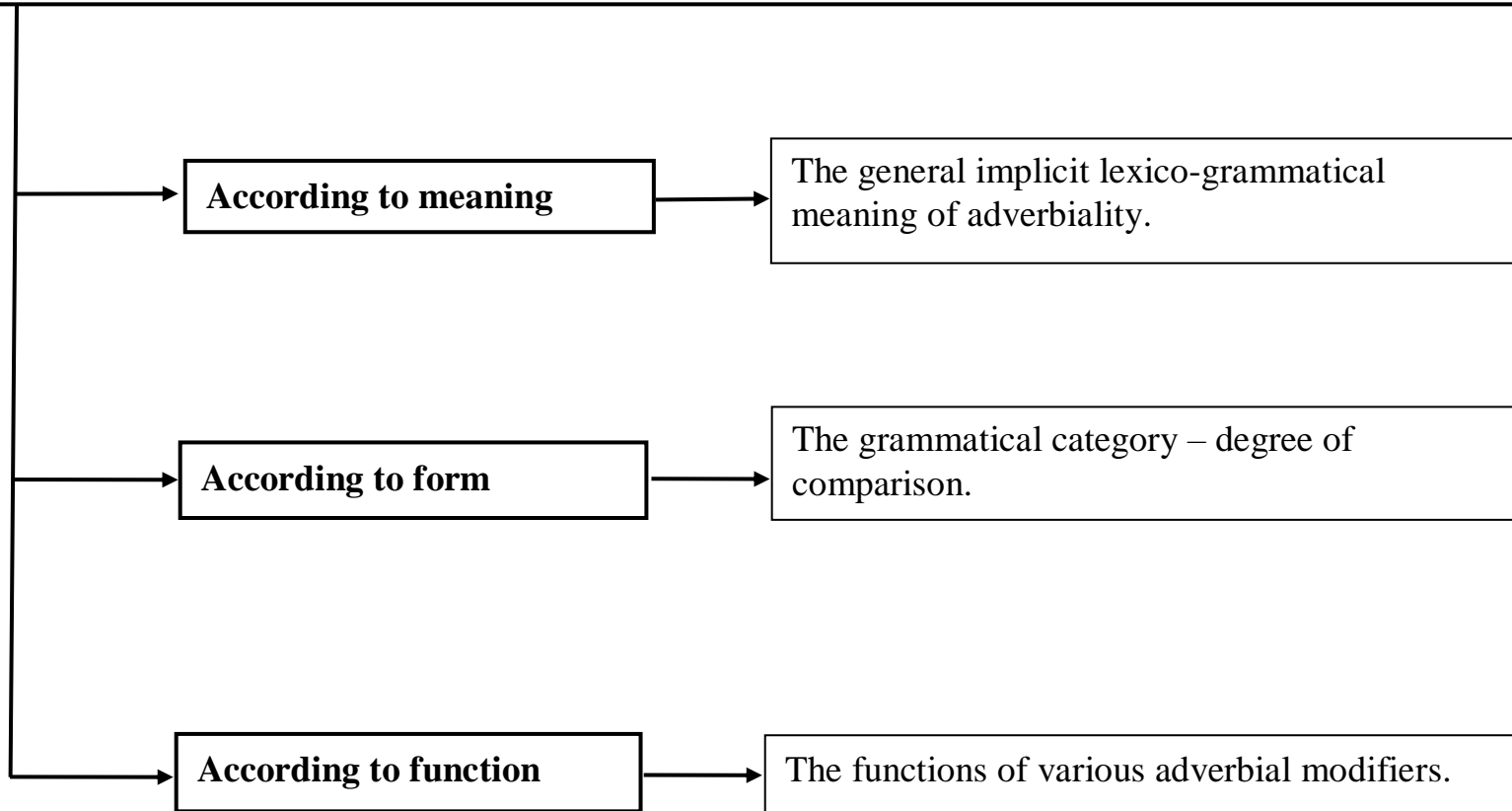
The features of the Verb



The features of the Adjective



The features of the Adverb



Functional parts of speech

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

The Article

The Preposition

The Conjunction

The particle

The modal word

The interjection

V. The Noun

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

The Noun

is the central lexical unit of language

Semantic Features

According to the type of nomination

Proper:

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

Common:

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

According to the form of existence

- animate;
- inanimate

According to their quantitative structure

- countable
- uncountable

Morphological features of the Noun

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

Grammatical categories of **number and case**.

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

Syntactic features of the Noun

used in the sentence in all syntactic functions but predicate

combinability: right-hand and left-hand connections with practically all parts of speech

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

The grammatical category of number

All Nouns may be subdivided into three groups

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

Singularia tantum

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

Pluralia tantum

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

The grammatical category of number

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

The singular form may denote:

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

The plural form may denote:

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

Classification of nouns

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

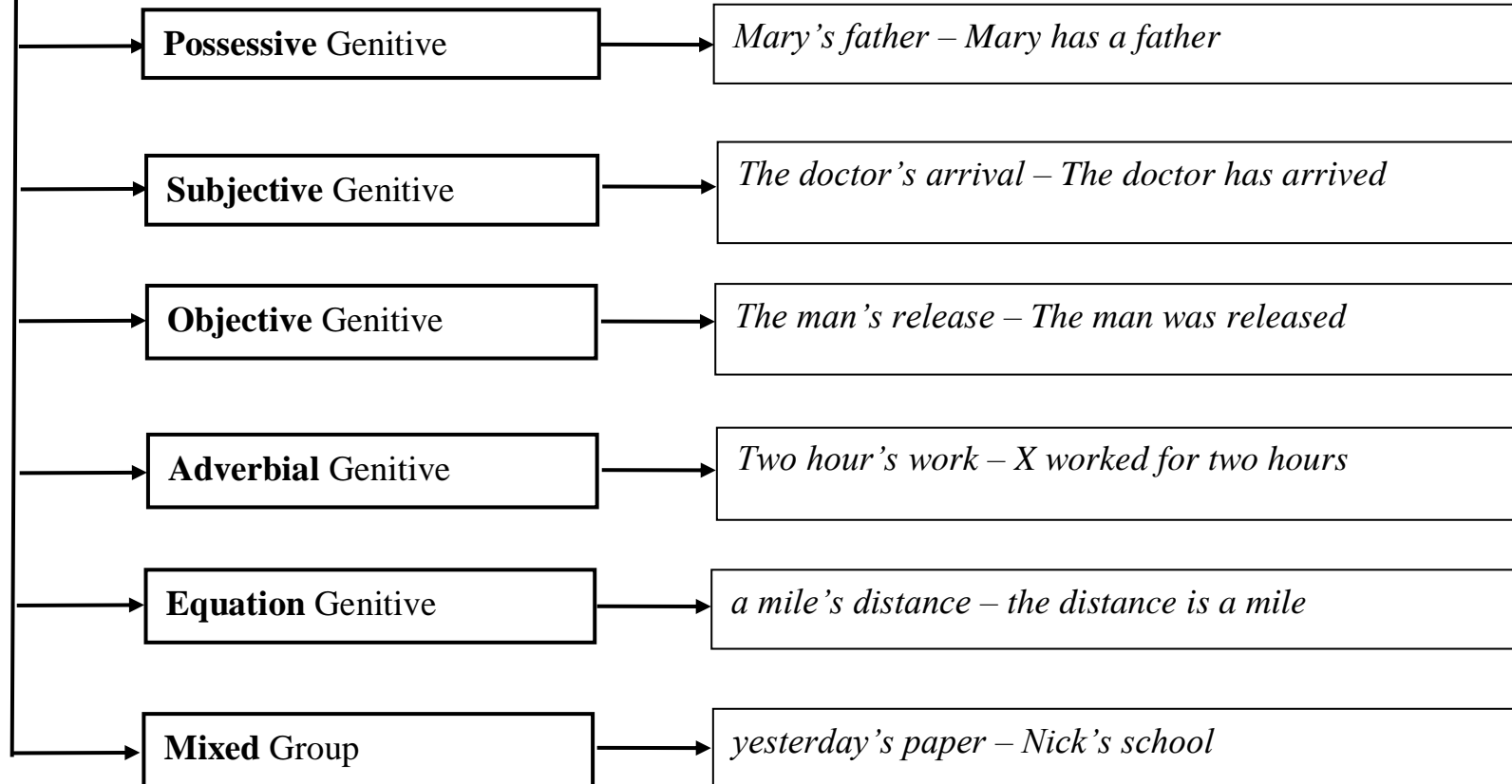
The category of case

correlates with the objective category of possession, is realized through the opposition:

The Common Case :: The Genitive or Possessive Case

sister :: sister's

Meanings rendered by the Genitive Case



Points of view on cases

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

There are **no cases** at all:

a) the form `s is **optional** because the same relations may be expressed by the '**of-phrase**': *the doctor's arrival – the arrival of the doctor*;

b) `s may be appended **to the whole group**: *The man I saw yesterday's son*;

c) It may follow a word which is not a noun, as in *somebody else's book*.

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

Ch.Fillmore – Case Grammar

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

The Problem of Gender

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

The meaning of gender may be expressed by different means:

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

Two points of view on gender

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

VI. The Article

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

The Article

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

Semantically the article can be viewed as a **significator**, i.e. a linguistic unit representing some conceptual content without naming it: (like identification, classification, and the like). Any human language has a system of devices used to determine words as parts of speech. In analytical languages the article is the basic **noun determiner**. In synthetic languages, like Ukrainian and Russian the same function is performed by inflexions.

the definite article
“**the**”

the indefinite article
“**a, an**”

the “**zero**” article
combines with
uncountable nouns and
countable nouns in the
plural

Functions of the indefinite article

The classifying function

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

The indefinitizing function

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

The introductory function

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

The quantifying function

- The indefinite article developed from the numeral “one”. The meaning of “oneness” is still preserved when the article is used with nouns denoting measure, like “a minute”, “a year” or “a pound”.

Functions of the definite article

The identifying function

When we speak, we may point out to smth. that the S and the H perceive with our organs of feeling:

- We can **see** it: *Do you like **the** picture?*
- **hear** it: *I believe, **the** music is too loud.*
- **feel** it: ***The** pillow is so soft!*
- **smell** it: *What is the name of **the** perfume?*
- **taste** it: ***The** soup tastes bitter.*

The definitizing function

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

The individualizing function

The object is singled out from the class it belongs to. The particularizing attribute can be expressed by:

- adjectives in the superlative degree: e.g. *This is the **easiest** way out.*
- ordinal numerals: e.g. *I have forgotten the **first** word.*
- attributive relative restrictive clause: e.g. *I need the **book I bought yesterday**.*

The Article System (Brown)

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

Definite article usage

- *unique for all*: the moon, the earth, the sun;
- *unique for a given setting*: the blackboard, the ceiling, the floor;
- *unique for a given social group*: the car, the dog, the baby, the President;
- *unique by pointing, nodding, etc.*: the book, the chair;
- *unique because of characteristic that get attention*: the explosion, the streamer;
- *unique by entailment*: in talking about a house: the window, the garden, the kitchen;
- *unique by definition*: the house with a view, the girl who speaks Basque;
- *unique by prior utterance*: I saw a funny-looking dog today. The dog...
- *unique by a specified order or rank in a set*: the last sentence on the page; the fastest runner in the heat;
- *unique by anticipation*: We found the hubcap of a car that must be very expensive.

Indefinite article usage

- to introduce a noun to the listener that is specific for the speaker but not the listener, e.g.:
I saw a funny-looking dog today.
- to show that the noun does not have a specific referent for either the speaker or the listener, e.g.:
I need a new belt.
- to refer to a noun that is nonspecific for the speaker but which is assumed to be specific for the listener, i.e., the speaker guesses, or pretends to guess, e.g.: *FBI man to homeowner: Don't be coy.*
We know there's a spy hiding in your cellar.
Barbara Walters to King Hussein: I understand you've made a proposal to the Israelis concerning the West Bank.

VII. The Verb

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

The Verb

The general implicit lexico-grammatical meaning

verbiality

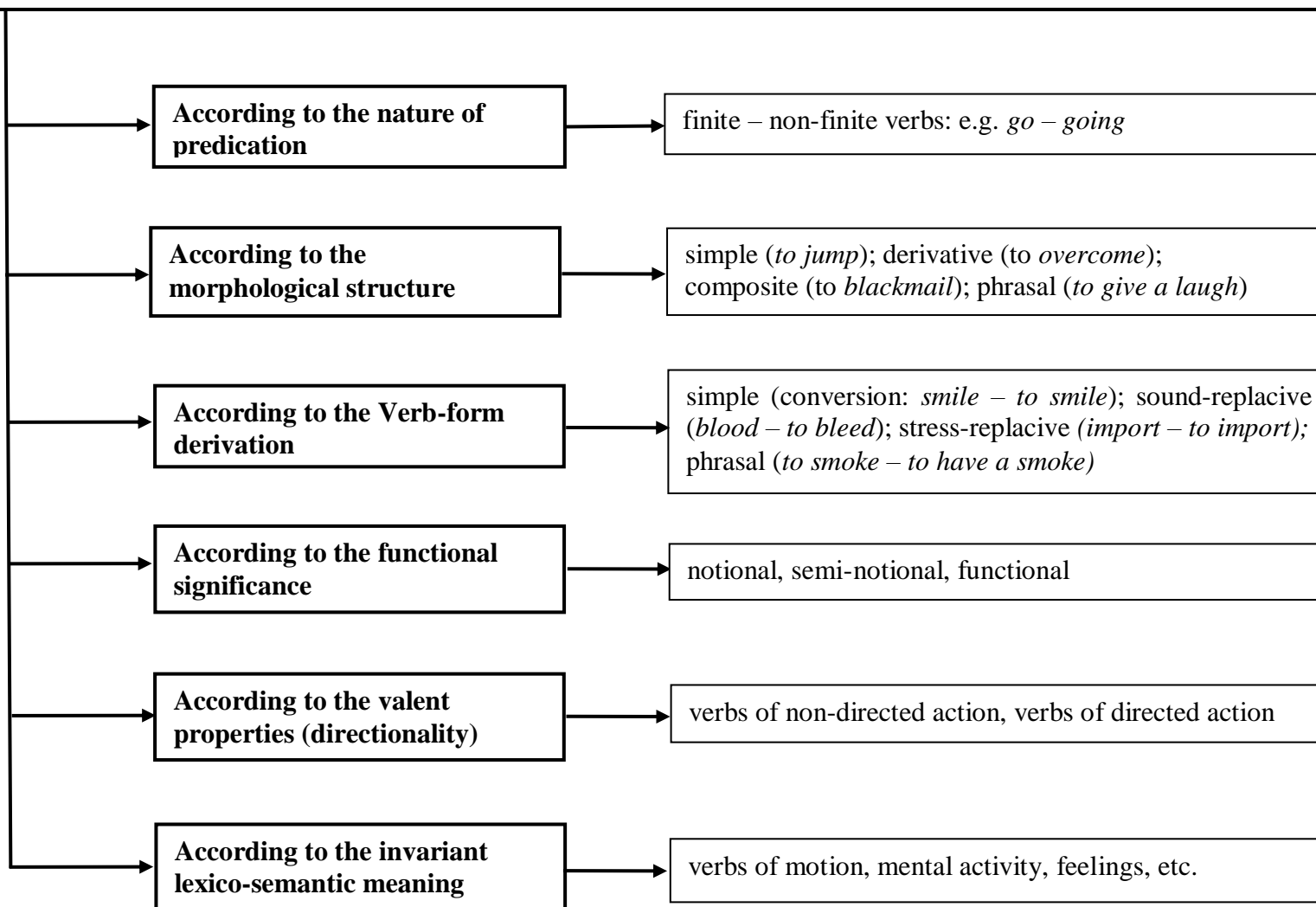
Implicit grammatical meanings

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

Functions

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

The Verb classifications



Syntagmatic classification

Verbs of **non-directed** action:

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

Verbs of **directed** action:

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

Points of view on tenses

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

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

H.Sweet:

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

O. Jespersen

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

The grammatical category of voice

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

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

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

6 groups of verbs

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

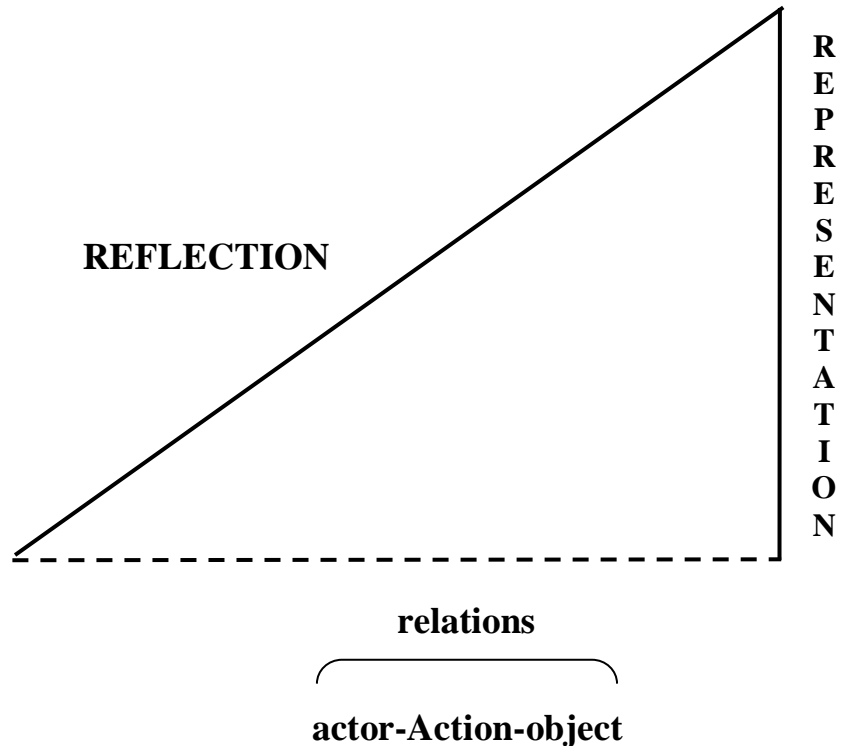
Points of view on voices

There are **two voices**:

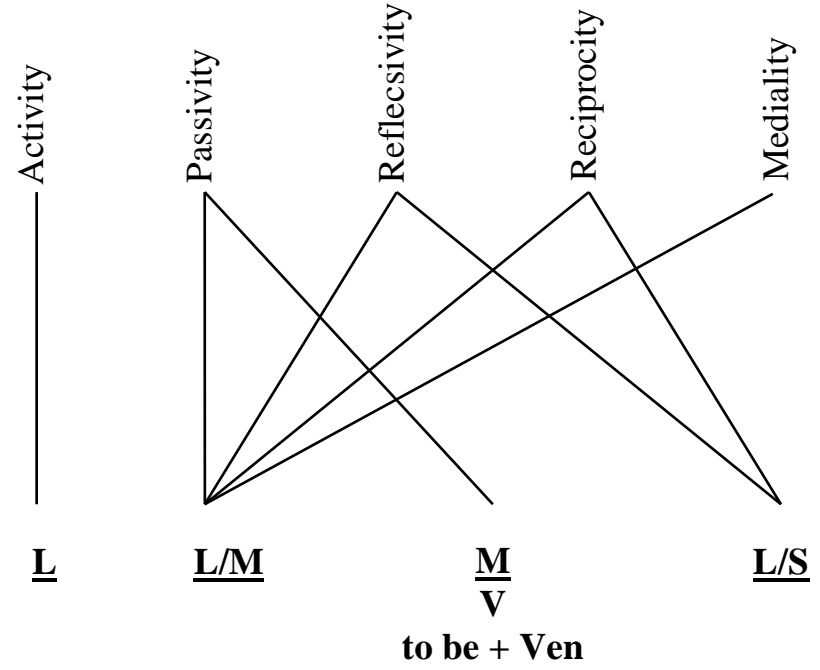
- Active Voice: *He wrote a book.*
- Passive Voice: *The article was written by him.*

There are more than two:

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



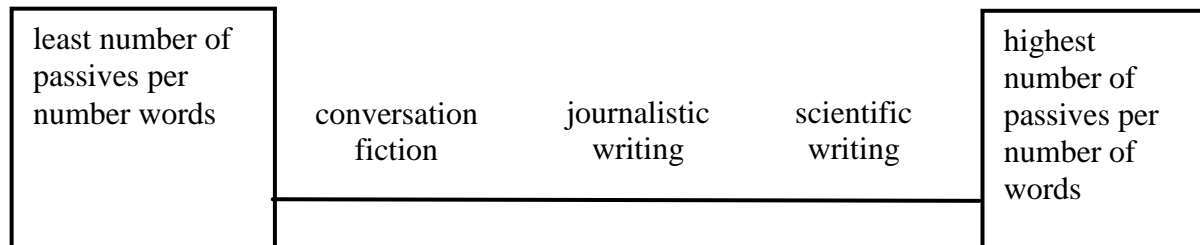
Semantic voices (voice notions)



Lexico-grammatical field

When to use the passive voice

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



The passive is often used

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

Stative passives

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

Situations in which agentless “change-of-state” are preferred

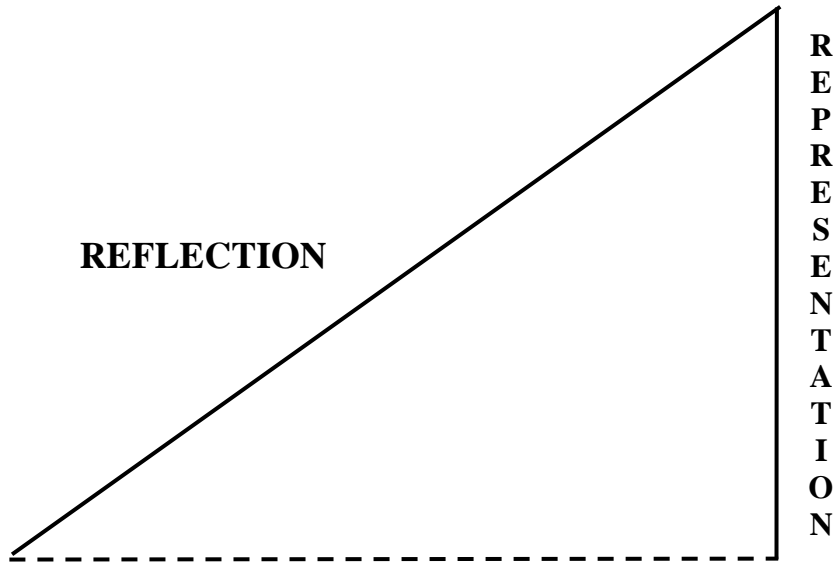
1. When the focus is on the change of state and the agent is irrelevant or very secondary.
The store opens at 9 a.m.
2. When the writer or speaker’s objective is to create an aura of mystery or suspense—i.e., things seem to be happening without the intervention of an agent. *We were sitting quietly in front of the fire when suddenly the door opened.*
3. When the subject is something so fragile or unstable (e.g., a balloon, a bubble, a cobweb) that it can break, change dissolve, etc., without any apparent intervention on the part of agent.
Left hanging on the fence, the red balloon suddenly burst and scared all of us.
4. When it is natural to expect change to occur (i.e., physical, social, or psychological “laws” seem to be involved. *Mrs. Smith’s opinion of Ronald Reagan changed.*
5. When there are so many possible causes for a change of state that it would be misleading to imply a single agent. *Prices increased.*

The Category of Aspect

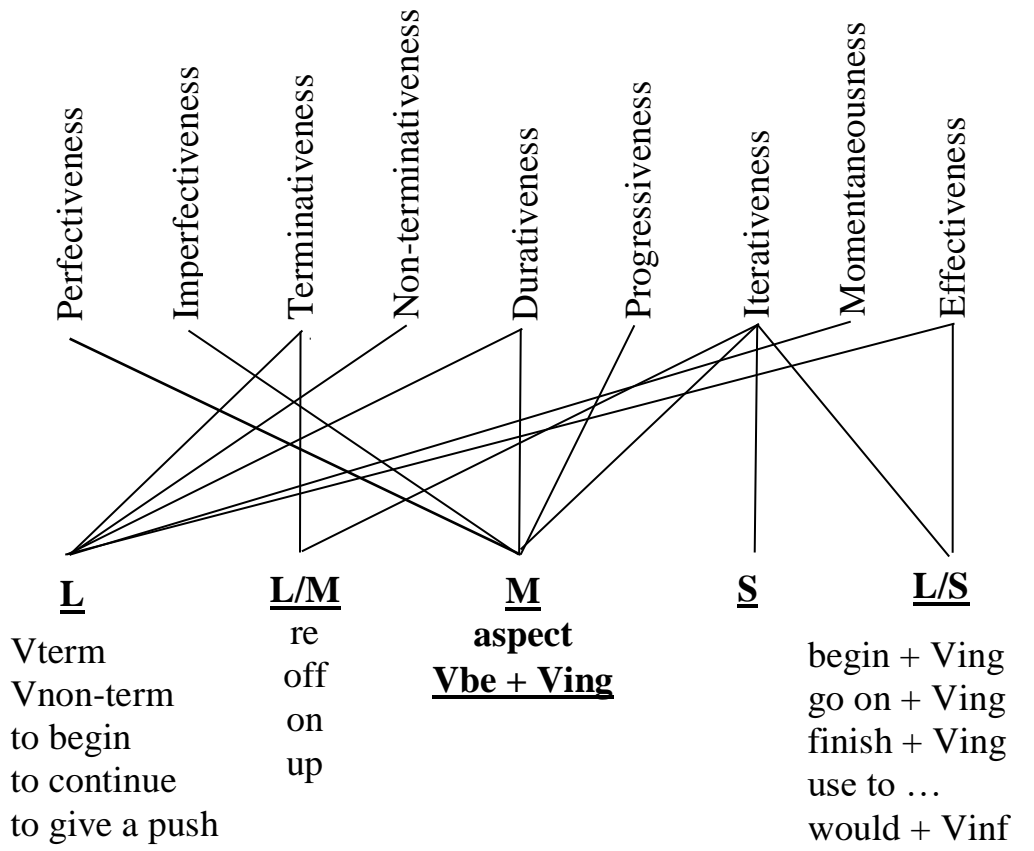
is realised in the opposition: Continuous::Non-Continuous

is restricted by the implicit grammatical meaning of
terminativeness/ nonterminativeness

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



Aspectuality



Lexico-grammatical field

The Grammatical Category of Perfect

1. The category is also called the category of Phase or Temporal relativity;
2. It finds its realization through the opposition Perfect Phase :: Non-Perfect Phase, e.g. writes :: has written;
3. It is a significational grammatical category;
4. It is closely connected with the category of tense and does not exist separately;
5. The realization of the category is restricted by the implicit grammatical meaning of terminativeness or non-terminativeness of the verb.

The Grammatical Category of Mood

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

- 1) to the coexistence in Modern English of both synthetical and analytical forms of the verb with the same grammatical meaning of unreality;
- 2) to the fact that there are verbal forms homonymous with the Past Indefinite and Past Perfect of the Indicative Mood which are employed to express unreality.
- 3) There are analytical forms of the subjunctive with the auxiliaries *should, would, may (might)* which are devoid of any lexical meaning.

H. Sweet – 3 moods:

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

G.O. Curme – 3 moods:

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

Smirnitsky – 6 moods:

1. indicative;
2. imperative;
3. subjunctive I;
4. subjunctive II;
5. conditional;
6. suppositional.

VIII. The Pronoun

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

The Pronoun

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

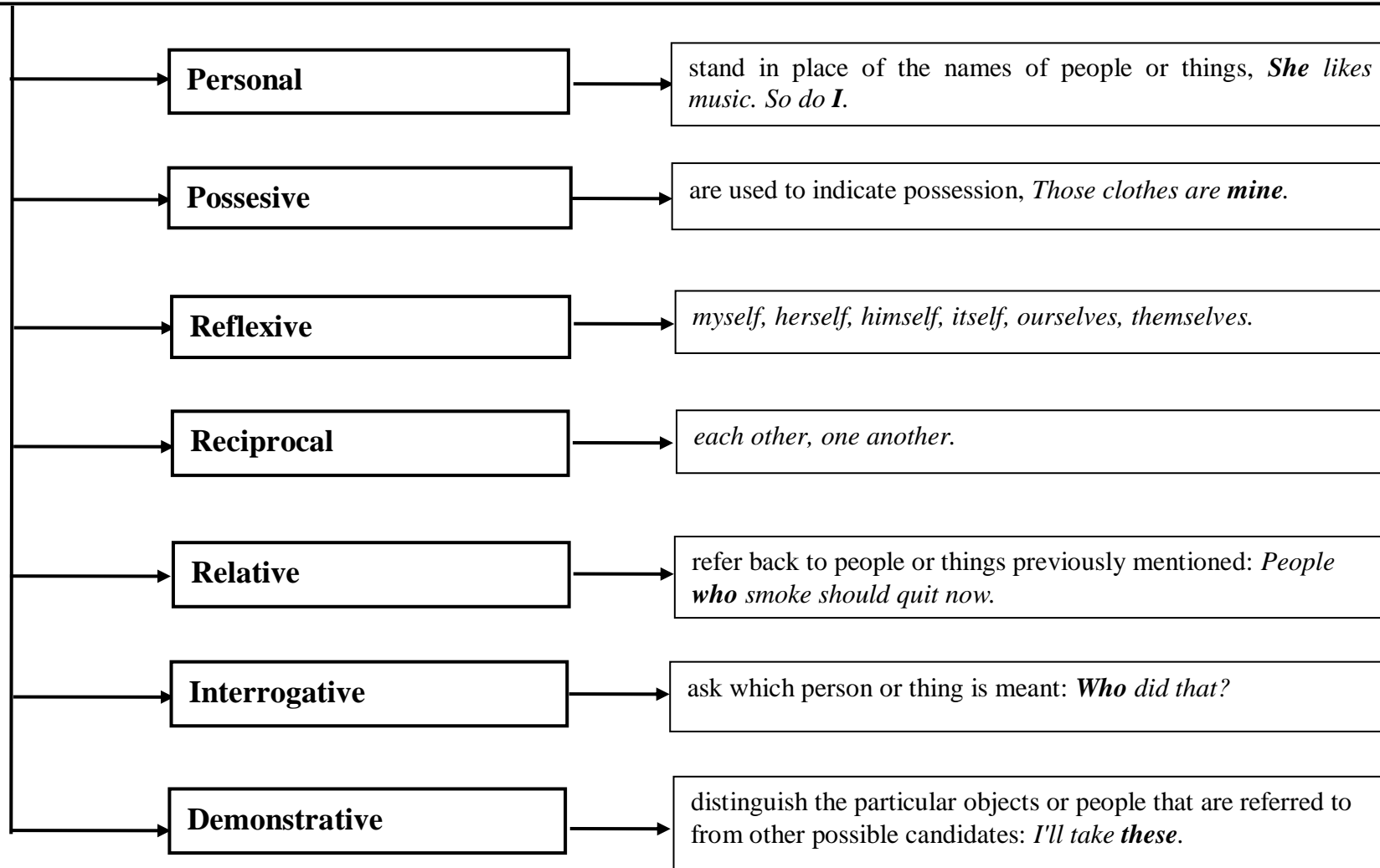
Pronouns were classified as follows

- **indexes** or indicators (*Charles Sanders Peirce, William Edward Collinson*);
- words with changeable signification (*Adolf Noreen*);
- moveable **identifiers** (*Otto Jespersen, Roman Jakobson*);
- word remnants or **substitutes** (*Lev Shcherba, Leonard Bloomfield, Zellig Harris*);
- «**survivals** of special part of speech» (*Viktor Vinogradov*);
- updating or **means of transferring** from language to speech (*Charles Bally, Émile Benveniste*);
- words of subjective-objective lexical meaning (*Alexey Peshkovsky*);
- word **remnants** or substitutes (*Lev Shcherba, Leonard Bloomfield, Zellig Harris*).

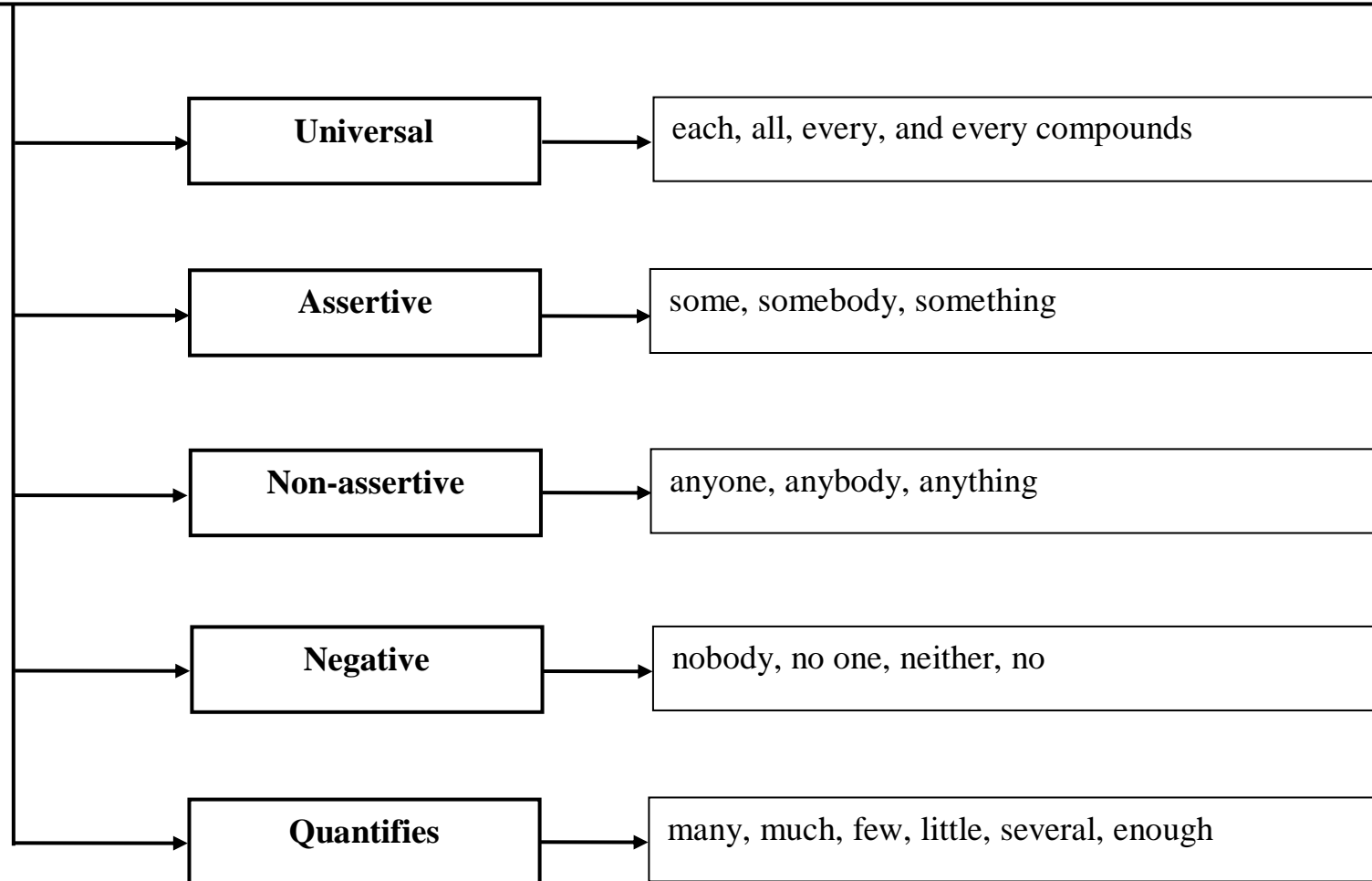
Specific and indefinite reference pronouns

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

Specific reference pronouns



Indefinite reference pronouns



Personal pronouns in Modern English

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

Grammatical categories of pronouns

Case

Most pronouns have 2 cases: Common and Genitive;
Six pronouns have an Objective case:

- **Subjective:** *I we he she they who*
- **Objective:** *me us him her them who (m)*
- **Genitive:** *my our his her their whose*

Gender

English pronouns have natural, not grammatical gender:

- **masculine:** *he, him, himself, his,*
- **feminine:** *she, her, herself, hers,*
- **non-personal:** *it, itself, its.*

Person and Number

- **first person singular:** *I;*
- **first person plural:** *we.*

IX. The Adjective. The Numeral. The Adverb

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

The Adjective

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

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

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

The Adjective

Semantic Features

Relative / qualitative

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

Gradable / non-gradable

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

Inherent/non-inherent

e.g.: *a big mouse – a big fool*

Semantic sets and adjectival order

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

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

Postdeterminers and limiters: *the only possible occasion*

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

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

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

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

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

The Numeral

The general implicit lexico-grammatical meaning of **quantitativeness**;

Types of the Numeral:

Cardinals: three, twenty;

Ordinals: the third, the twentieth;

Fractional: one-fourth, two-third.

No grammatical **categories**

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

The Adverb

The general implicit lexico-grammatical meaning of adverbiality.

Types of adverbs

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

Grammatical category - Degree of comparison.

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

The functions of various adverbial modifiers.

X. Function Words

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

The Particle

The main function is to correlate two pieces of information in the text.

Only John came. – Nobody came.

“One piece of information is expressed, another is implied.”

Even John came. – Everybody came.

The classification of particles is based on the textual meaning:

Contrastive

Additive

Already

Again

Actually

Also

Alone

Chiefly

Contrastive particles

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

Conjunctions

1. Conjunctions are used to join sentences and clauses in the text thus making it coherent.
e.g., *It was a very difficult situation. Nevertheless, he passed it with distinction.*
He does not need any money from us. On the contrary, we should be going to him for a loan.
2. **5 groups of conjunctions:**
 - **Additive:** besides, in addition to, moreover, by the way, what is more, etc.;
 - **Contrastive:** however, still, yet, etc.;
 - **Parallel:** likewise, accordingly, similarly;
 - **Summarizing:** thus, consequently, in general, therefore, etc.;
 - **Sequencing:** first, last, finally, next, etc.

Modal words

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

Modal words are classified into 3 groups

Evaluative:
happily,
foolishly,
fortunately

Suppositional:
maybe,
surely,
possibly

Commentary:
frankly,
normally,
naturally, etc..

XI. Syntax

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

Syntax

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

Syntactic unit

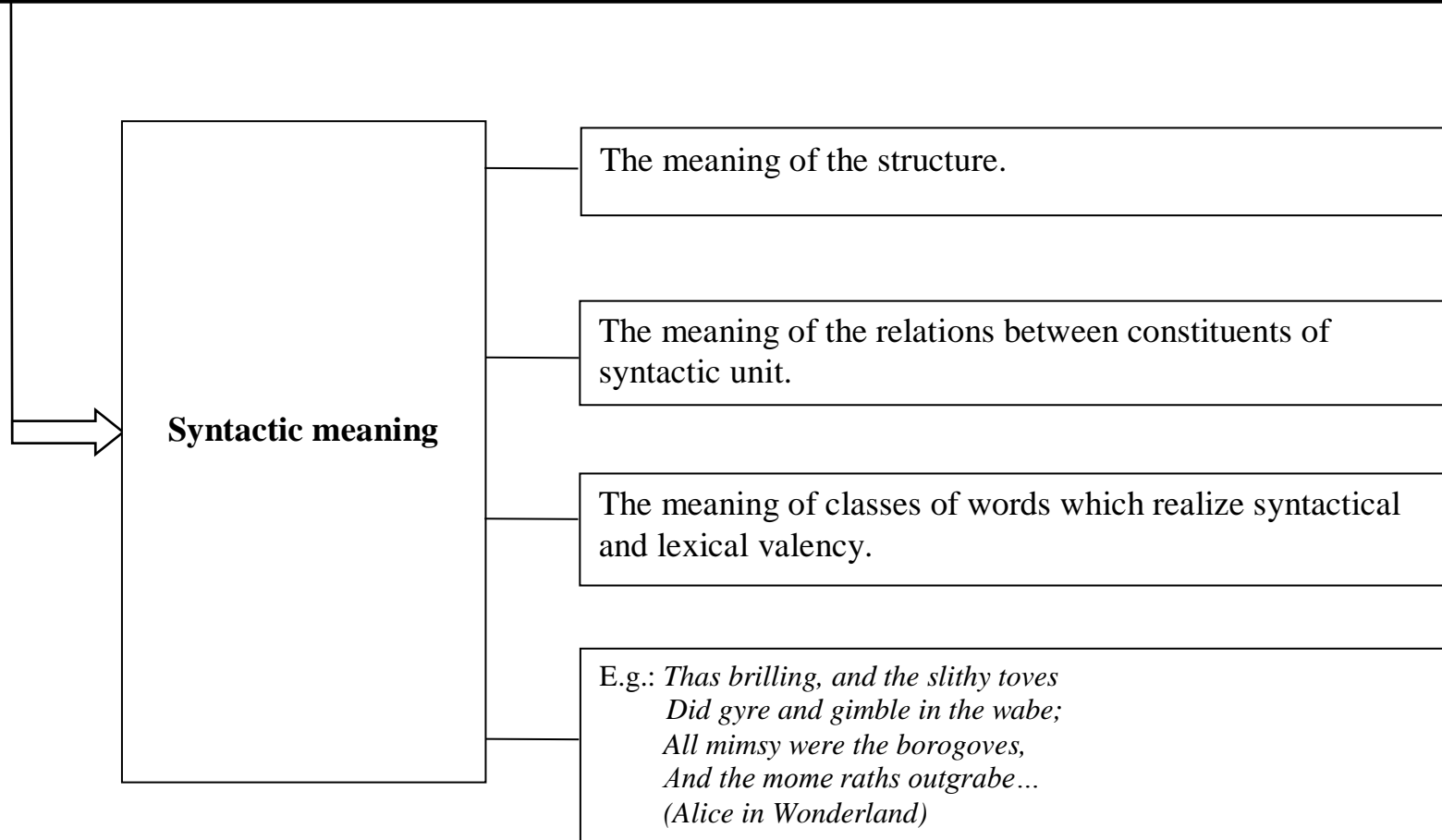
is always a combination that has at least two constituents: e.g. *a word-group, a clause, a sentence, and a text.*

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

units of two-fold nature: *content side – syntactic meaning; expression side – syntactic form*

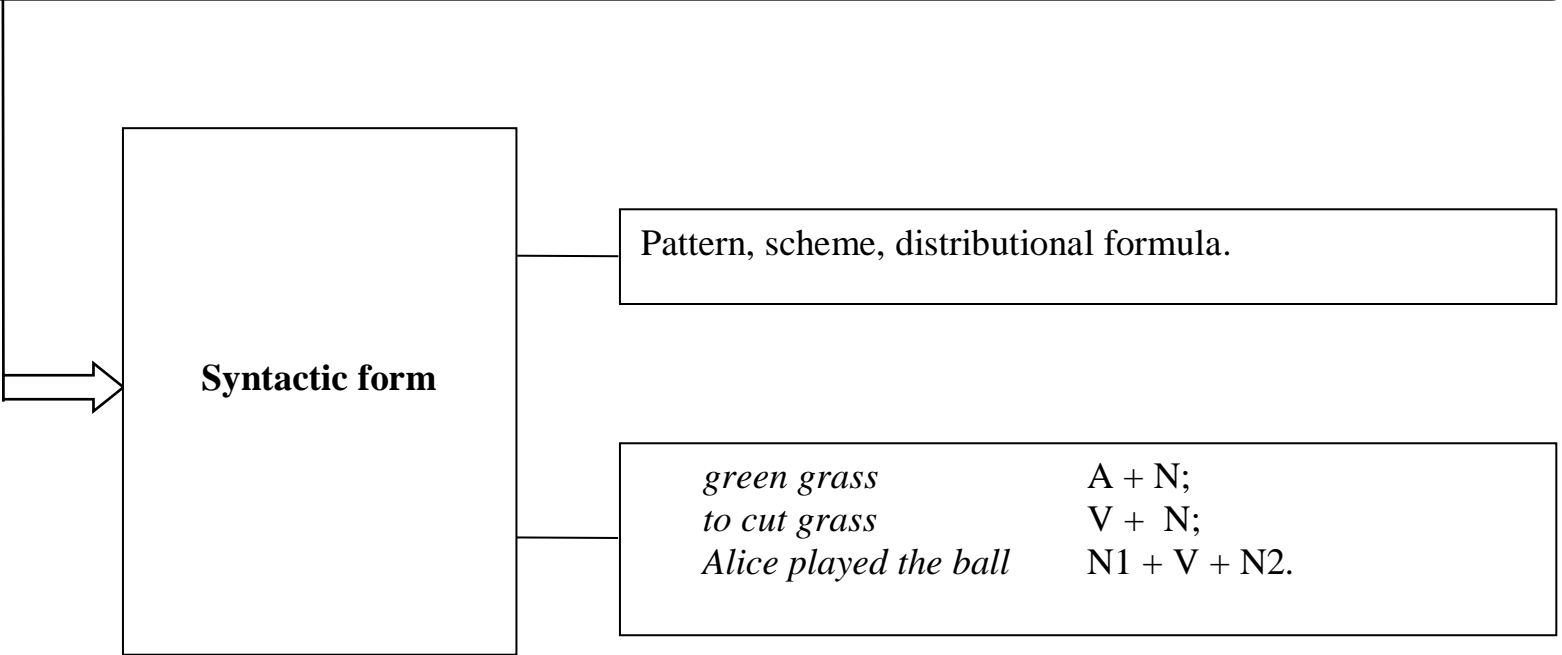
units of communicative and non-communicative nature:
word-groups, clauses – non-communicative; sentences, texts – communicative.

Basic syntactic notions. Syntactic meaning

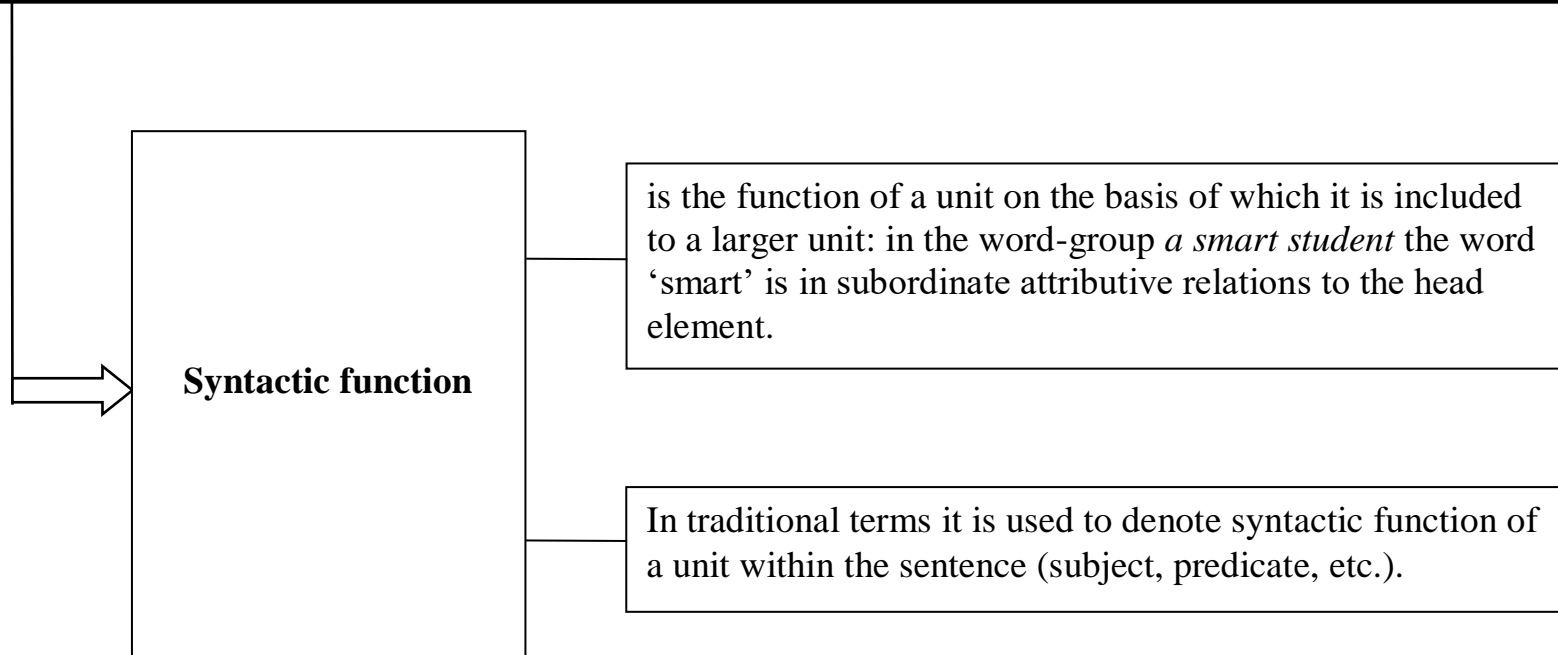


Basic syntactic notions.

Syntactic form



Basic syntactic notions. Syntactic function



Syntactic relations

Syntagmatic relations observed between syntactic units:

- **Coordination (SR1)** – SR of independence;
- **Subordination (SR2)** – SR of dependence;
- **Predication (SR3)** – SR of interdependence

Devices of syntactic connection

- **Inflectional devices** limited: *these books, to see him/them;*
- **Function words:** coordinators (*and, or, but, yet*) and subordinators (*that, when, as if, though*);
- **Word Order:** *to read a book.*

Coordination

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

Subordination

kinds of subordination:

- **Adverbial:** *to go slowly;*
- **Objective:** *to see a house;*
- **Attributive:** *a beautiful flower.*

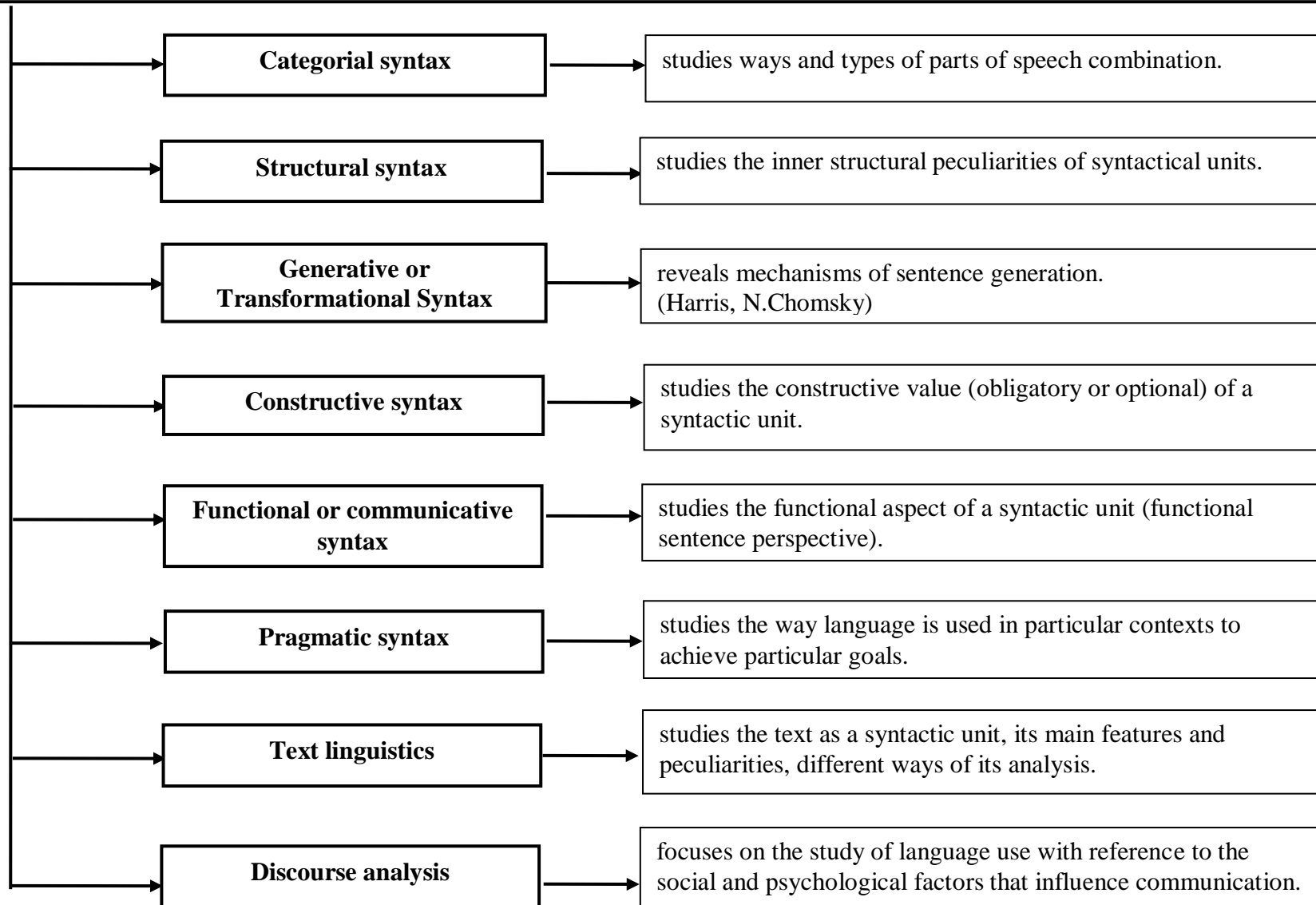
Forms of subordination:

- **Agreement:** *this book – these books;*
- **Government:** *to help us;*
- **Adjournment:** *to run quickly;*
- **Enclosure:** *an interesting book, the then government.*

Predication

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

Syntactical theories



Generative or Transformational Syntax

Two main problems:

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

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

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

Transforms are the constructions which are derived from kernels.

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

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

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

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

Constructional Syntax – G.Pocheptsov

The elementary sentence or kernel

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

External Syntactic Processes

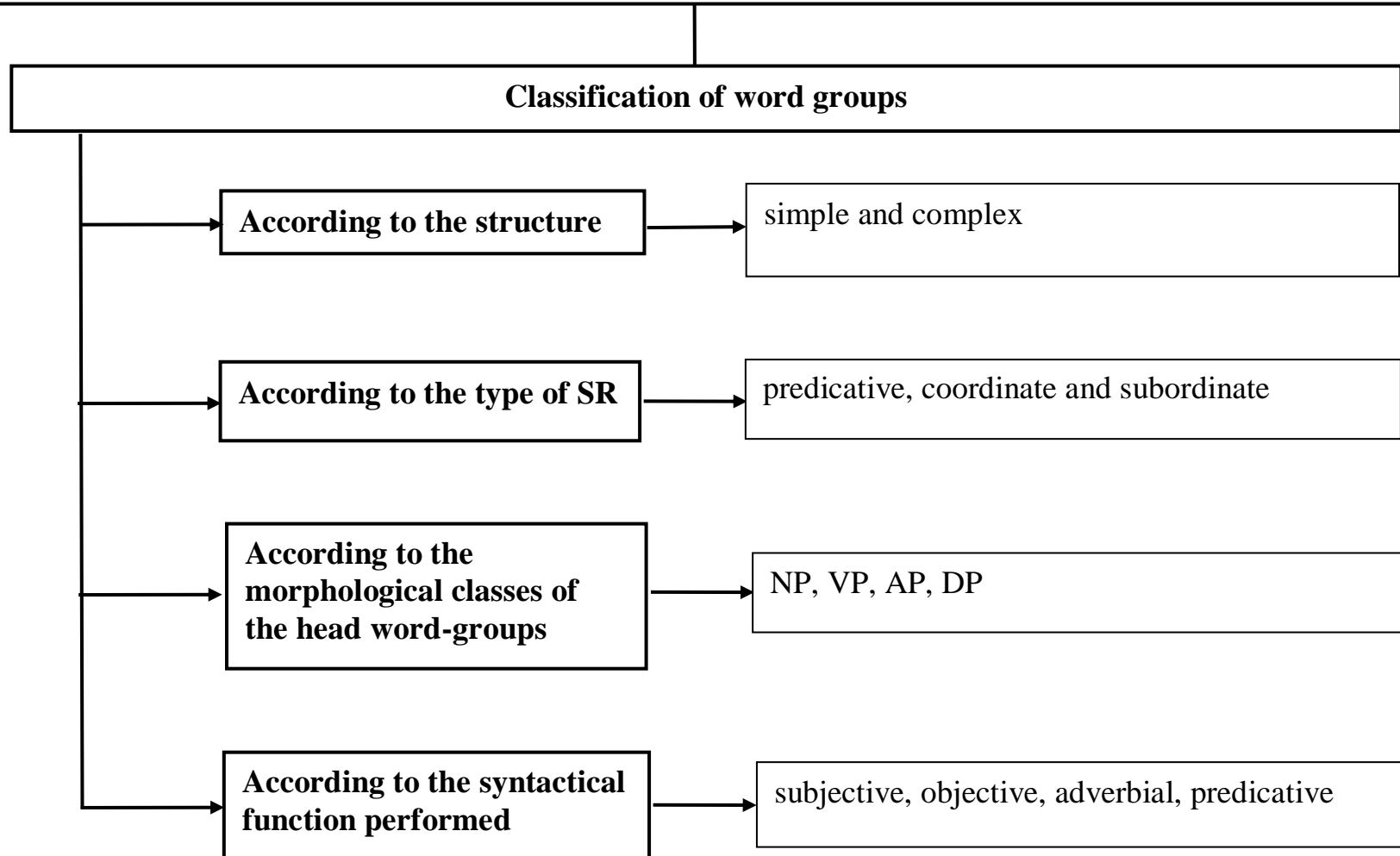
- **Extension:** *She gave a smile. – She gave a pleasant smile.*
- **Adjoiment:** *He was the same. – He was just the same.*
- **Enclosure:** *It was nice. – It was nice, really.*

Internal Syntactic Processes

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

The word group

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



Word group vs sentence

word group

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

sentence

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

Word group vs word

word group

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

word

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

The Noun Phrase

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

Types of modification

Pre-modification

A + N, e.g., *a wise man*

Post-modification

N + A, e.g., *time to arrive*

Pre- and Post-modification

A+N+A, e.g., *an interesting book on grammar*

NP with Pre-Posed Adjuncts

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

Pre-Adjectivals

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

Basic Noun Phrases with Pre-Posed Adjuncts

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

NP with Post-posed Adjuncts

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

The Verb Phrase

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

Types of complementation

Nominal

to study English, to make a mistake

Adverbial

to speak in a loud voice, to behave well

Mixed

to put a book on the table, to deliver a report well

Functional, semantic and grammatical classification of VP:

1. The head is a link-verb: adjuncts are post-posed, grammatically fixed, predicative complements:

N	<i>She is an actress.</i>
Adj.	<i>She is so smart.</i>
Vinf.	<i>He seemed to be happy.</i>
Ving	<i>It is annoying.</i>
Num	<i>He is ten.</i>
Stative	<i>She is not alone.</i>

2. The head is a transitive verb. Adjuncts of these phrases are mainly nouns or pronouns, sometimes gerunds or infinitives which perform the function of a direct object. The syntactic position of the adjuncts is determined by the lexical meaning of the verb: *to give John advice; to hand a book to Mary.*
3. Intransitive verbs are the heads of the group. The adjuncts are expressed by different word classes and they function as adverbial complements:

V prep. N	<i>to leave for Kiev</i>
V D	<i>to stay there</i>
V Ving	<i>to stand smiling</i>
V V inf.	<i>to come to dine</i>
V conj. Ven	<i>to look as if startled</i>
V absolute const.	<i>to see him crossing the street</i>

XII. The Sentence

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

The Sentence

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

“the minimal syntactical construction, used in the acts of speech communication, characterized by predicativity and having a definite structural scheme.” (Ivanova, Burlakova, Pocheptsov)
“the independent unit of finite predication, which possesses communicative force and can occur as an independent unit of information.” (Morokhovskaya E.)

Predicativity

- Is one of the ways in which language describes things and situations connecting them with reality.
- Predication is the establishment of predicative relations between the Logical Subject and the Logical Predicate.
- The bearer of predication is **PROPOSITION**, the main predicative form of thought.

Propositional basis

Predicative words: *stormy sea;*
Predicative word groups: *her running;*
Clause: *when she runs;*
Sentence: *She runs quickly.*
Paragraph;
Text.
3 main groups of kernels:
NV kernel represents the **actional proposition**: *I took a pen from the table.*
N is A/N represents the **attributinal proposition**: *She is clever.*
N is D represents the **existential proposition**: *He is here.*

Examples of Kernels (by Pocheptsov G.)

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

Different approaches to the study of the sentence

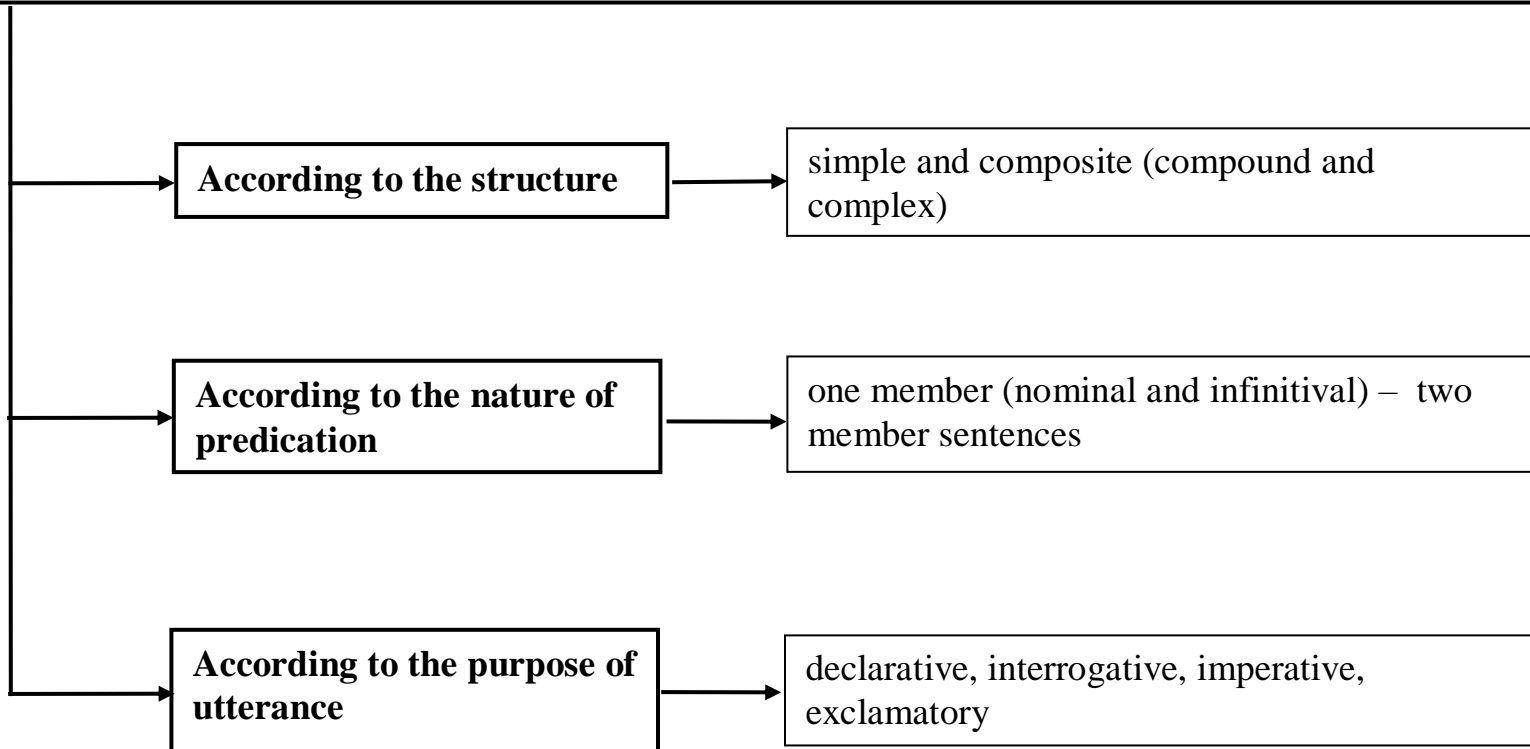
Principal and secondary parts of the sentence.

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

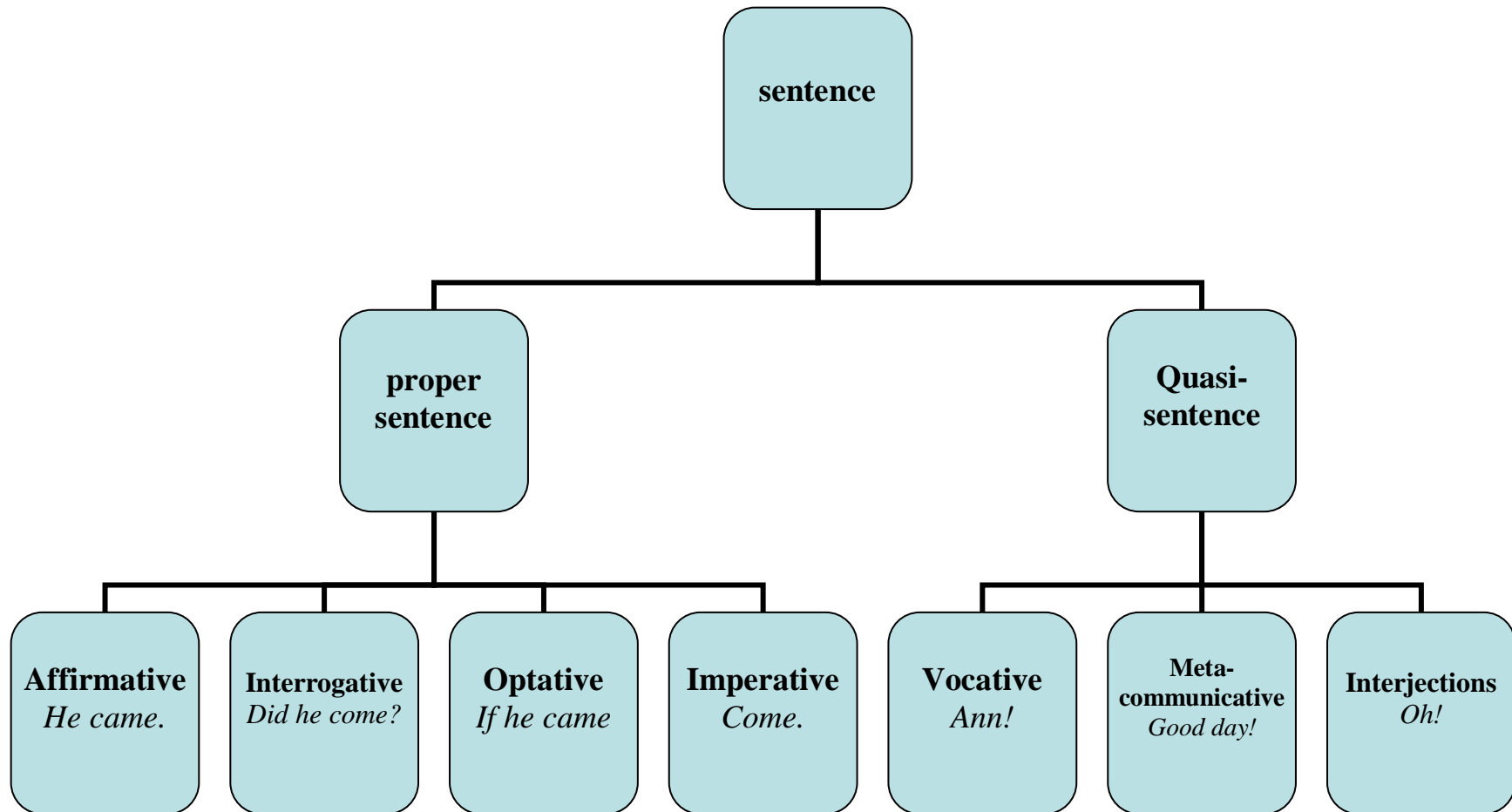
Oppositional analysis: two member sentence – one member sentence: e.g., *John worked.* – *John! Work!*

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

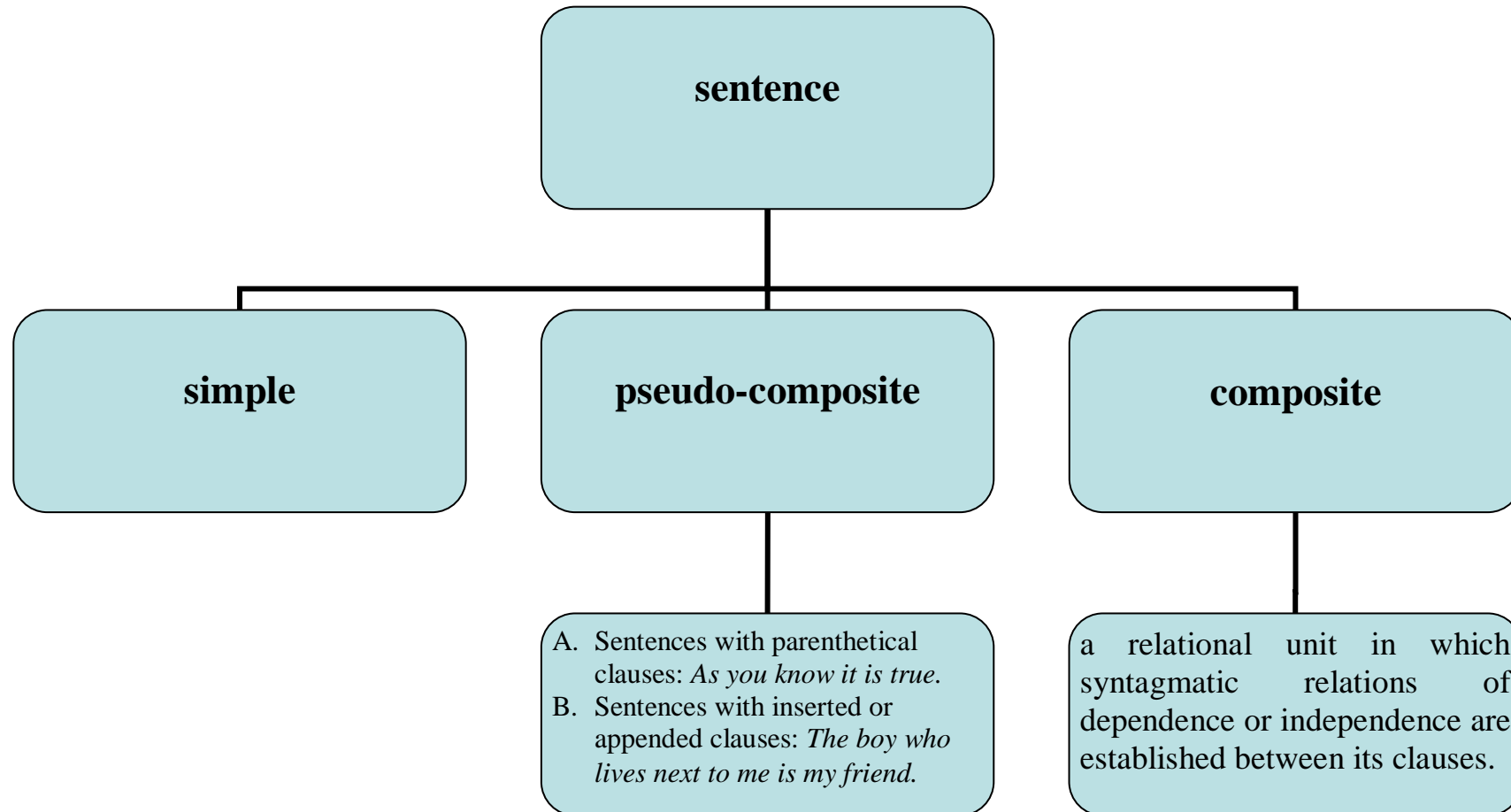
Classifications of Sentences



Classifications of Sentences by Pocheptsov G.



Structural Sentence Types



The Utterance

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

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

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

The rheme expresses the basic informative part of communication, its relevant center.

The Rheme making devices are:

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

Functional typology of utterances

Actional utterance: N + V actional + Compliment

Performative utterance: I + V performative + Compliment

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

Equational utterance: N + V be + N

Existential utterance: N + V exist + D place

XIII. Pragmatics

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

Pragmatics

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

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

M.Baker

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

Jacob Mey

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

George Keith

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

Svitlana Shvachko

Pragmatics

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

Joan Cutting

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

George Yule

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

Ф.С.Бацевич

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

Г.Г.Почепцов

Pragmatics focuses

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

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

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

J.Austin “How to Do Things with Words”

Constatives vs Performatives

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

A speech act includes three separate acts

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

Examples:

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

J. Austin's classification

verdictives	I estimate, grade etc.
exercitives	I order, advice etc.
commissives	I promise, bet etc.
behabitives	I congratulate, apologize etc.
expositives	I affirm, argue, etc.

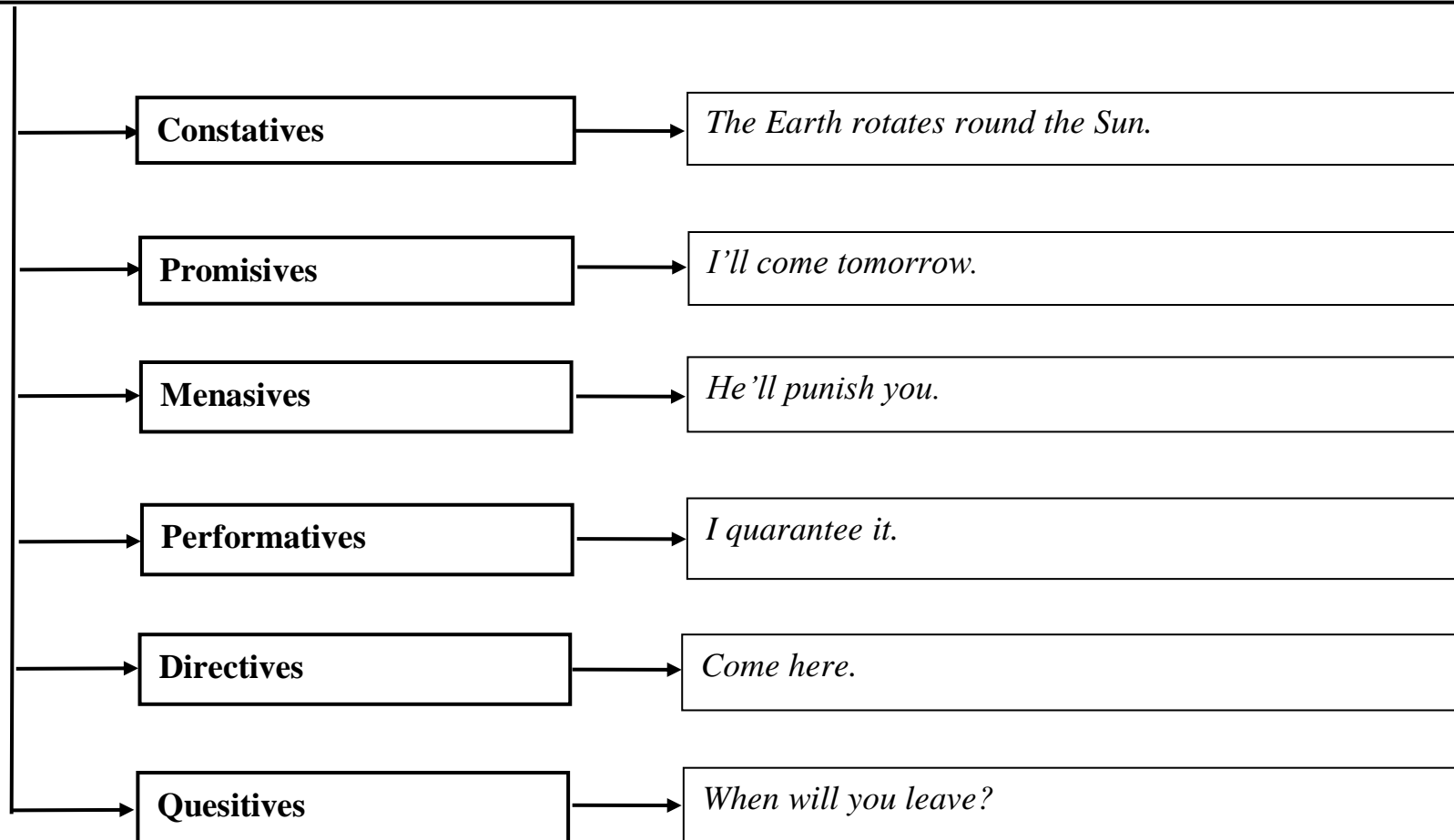
J.Searle's Classification of Speech Acts

- **Representatives:** here the speaker asserts a proposition to be true, using such verbs as: *affirm, believe, conclude, deny, report. The weather is fine today.*
- **Directives:** here the speaker tries to make the hearer do something, with such words as: *ask, beg, challenge, command, dare, invite, insist, request. Read the text.*
- **Commissives:** here the speaker commits himself (or herself) to a (future) course of action, with verbs such as: *guarantee, pledge, promise, swear, vow, undertake, warrant. I shall wait for you.*
- **Expressives:** the speaker expresses an attitude to or about a state of affairs, using such verbs as: *apologize, appreciate, congratulate, deplore, detest, regret, thank, welcome. I thank you for doing it.*
- **Declarations:** the speaker alters the external status or condition of an object or situation by making the utterance: *I now pronounce you man and wife, I sentence you to be hanged by the neck until you be dead, I name this ship...*

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G. Pocheptsov's Classification



Classifications of Speech Acts

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

Pragmatic Types of Texts

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

Direct speech acts

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

Indirect speech acts

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

Indirect speech acts

- are associated with greater politeness than direct Speech Acts.
- are a matter of asking or stating if the felicity conditions for a Speech Act are satisfied

e.g., *Why don't you be quiet?*

It would be a good idea if you gave me the money now.

How many times have I told you (must I tell you) not to eat with your fingers?

I would appreciate it if you could make less noise.

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

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

Indirect requests

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

The conversational implicature

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

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

The Cooperative Principle

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

XIV. The Text

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

Text Linguistics

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

Seven standards of textuality:

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

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

Text - Kernel

Pragmatic Component

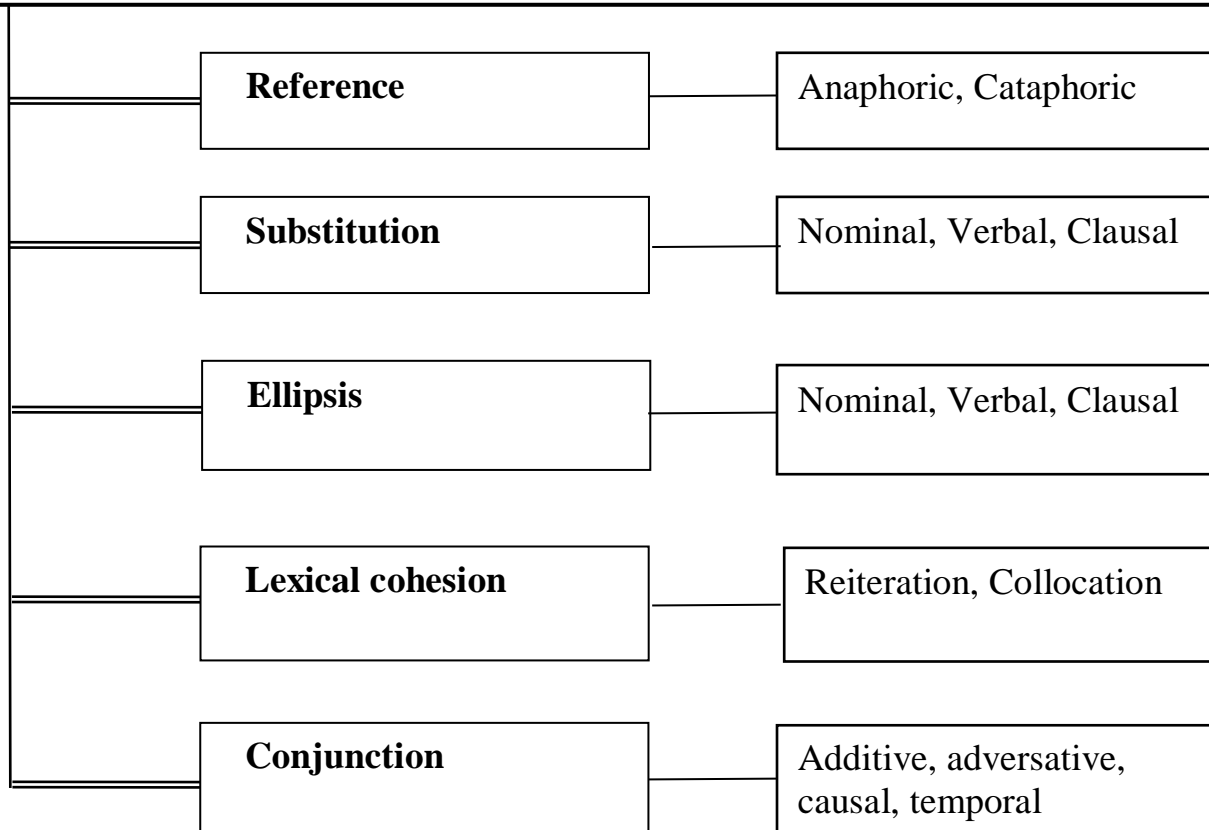
I (the author) **V**
promise
agree
announce
inform

Propositional basis

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

Cohesion “sticking together”

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



Reference

Anaphoric reference

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

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

(Premiere Magazine)

The item **he** is uninterpretable.

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

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

Cataphoric reference

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

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

**REFERRING BACK
(ANAPHORIC RELATIONS)**

X ← Y

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

**REFERRING FORWARD
(CATAPHORIC RELATIONS)**

X → Y

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

Substitution

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

Ellipsis

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

Conjunction

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

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

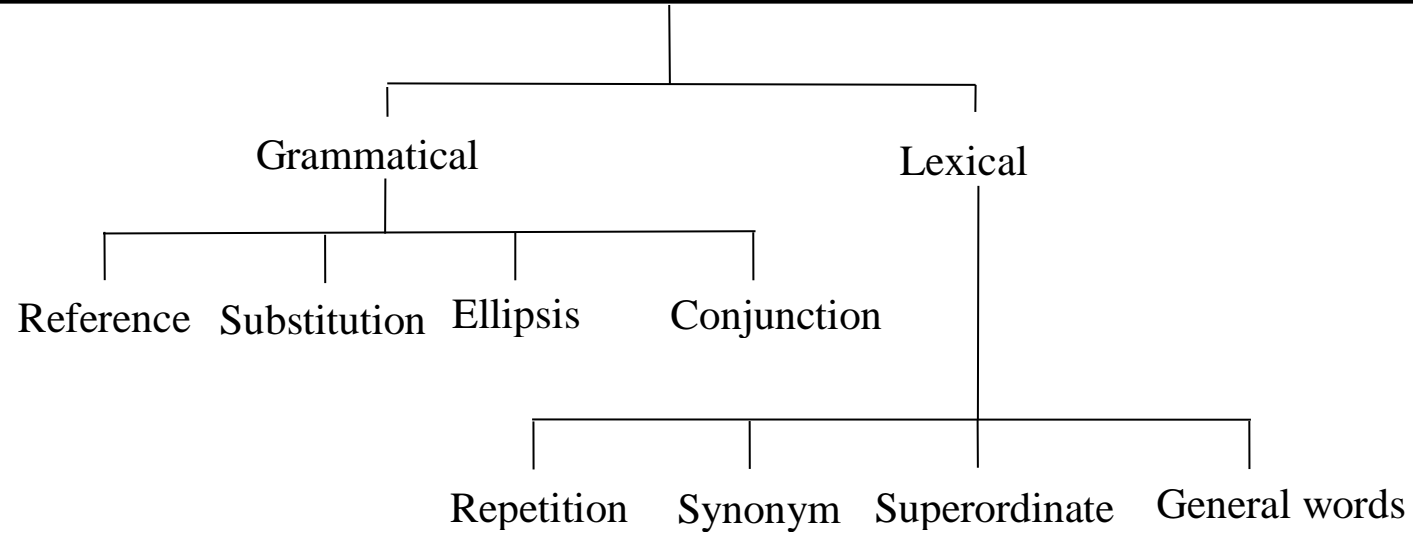
e.g. temporal conjunction

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

Lexical cohesion

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

Cohesion

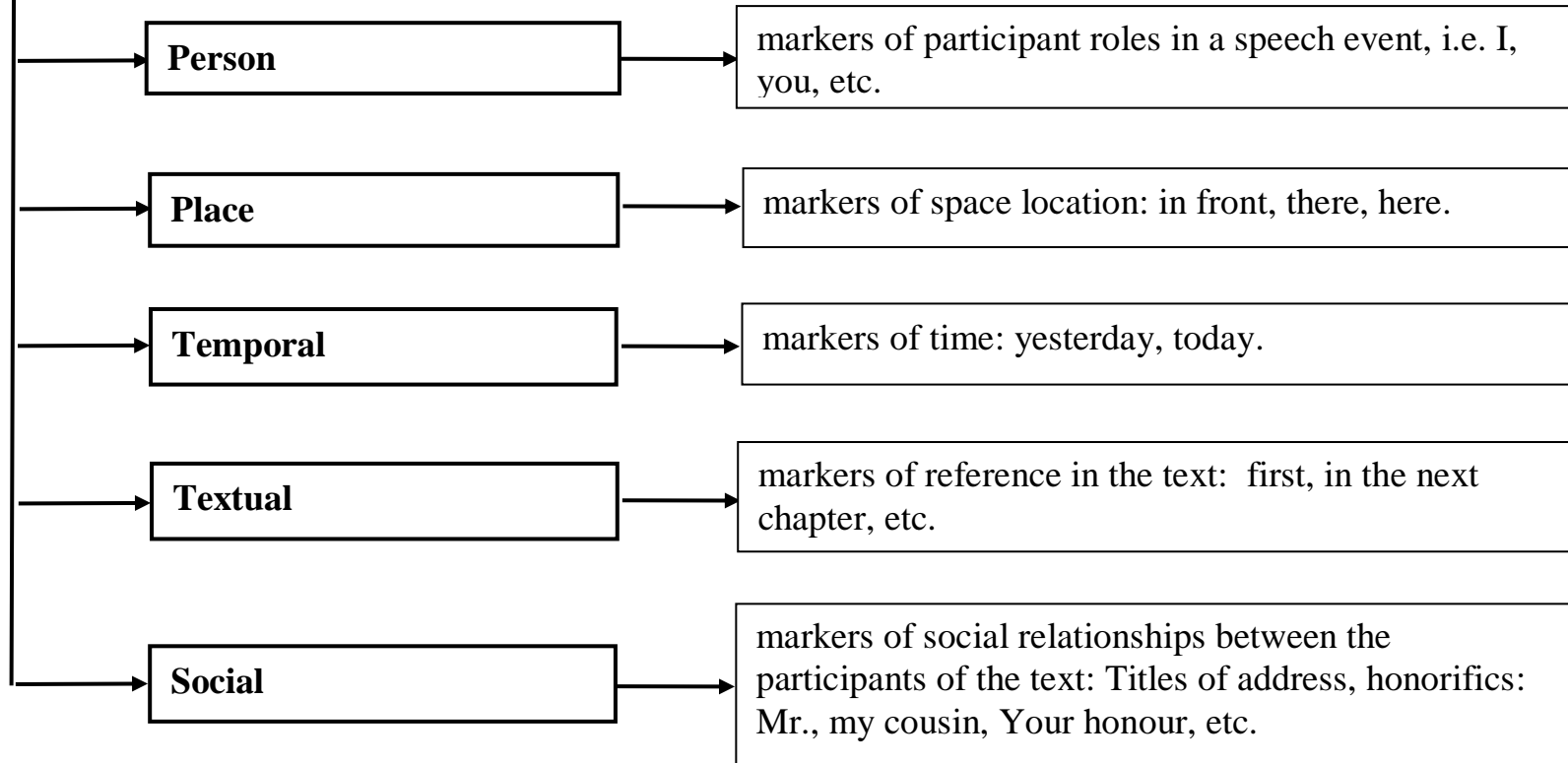


Coherence

logical, topical connectedness

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

Deictic markers



Functional Sentence Perspective

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

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

Types of Theme – Rheme Progression.

- Linear Progression
- Simple Progression
- Continuous Progression

Linear Progression

T1 — R1

↓

R2

—

T3

R3

↓

e.g.

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

Simple Progression

is characteristic of argumentative texts.

T1 → R1

T1 → R2

T1 → R3

CINDERELLA-THE REAL STORY

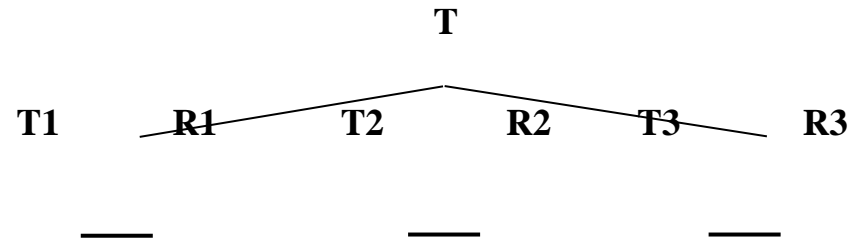
By Yvonne Augustin

My name is Oscar and I am a mouse.

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

Continuous theme

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



e.g.: Stresses

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

Standards of textuality

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

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

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

Situationality: concerns the factors which make a text relevant to a situation of occurrence.

SLOW CHILDREN AT PLAY

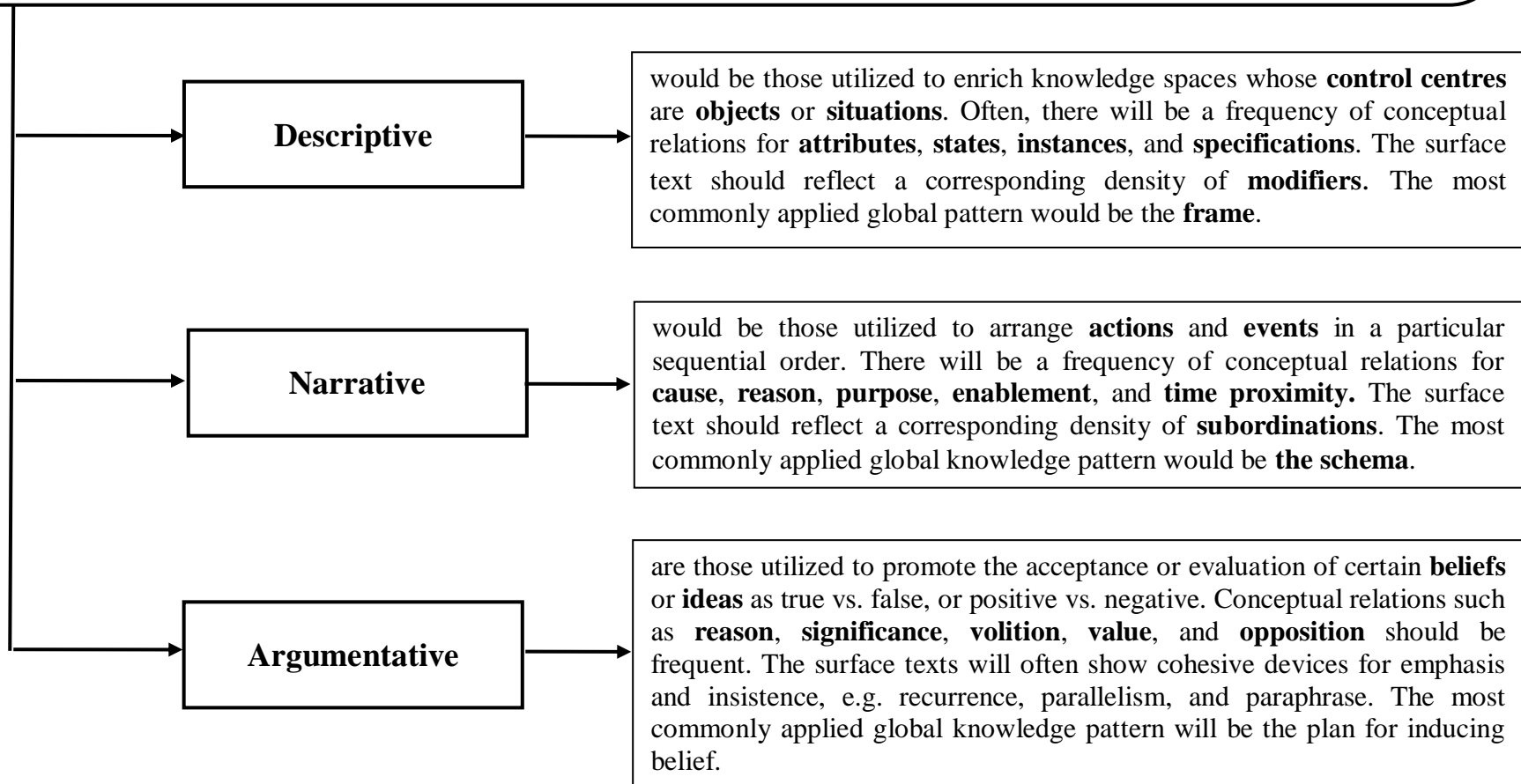
might be divided up into various dependencies:

1. we may construe it as a notice about 'slow children' who are 'at play' or
2. we may divide the text into 'slow' and 'children at play', and suppose that drivers should reduce speed to avoid endangering the playing children

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

Text Types

The question of text types offers a severe challenge to linguistic typology, i.e. systemization and classification of language samples. **Intertextuality** is responsible for the evolution of text types as classes of texts with typical patterns of characteristics. Within a particular type, reliance on intertextuality may be more or less prominent. In types like parodies, critical reviews, rebuttals, or reports, the text producer must consult the prior text continually, and text receivers will usually need some familiarity with the latter.



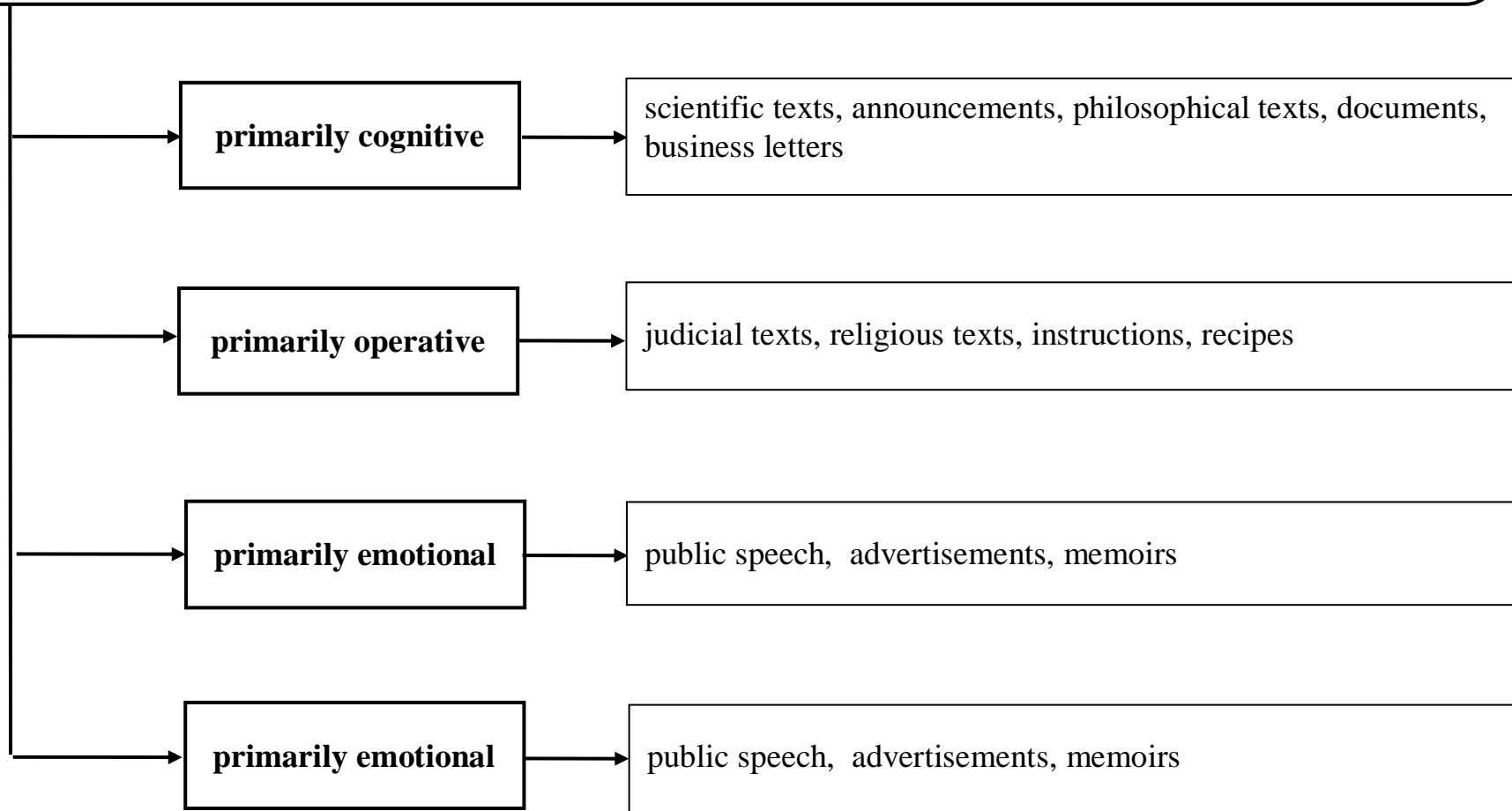
Text Types

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

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

Text Types

according to the prevailing type of information



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

XV. Discourse

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

Discourse

Latin – “argument”, French – “speech”

- “Language in operation” (**Halliday**)
- Stretches of language perceived to be meaningful, unified, and purposive (**Cook**)
- “A continuous stretch of especially spoken language larger than a sentence, often constituting a coherent unit, such as a sermon, argument, joke or narrative.” (**Crystal**)
- Discourse is verbal communication; talk, conversation, a formal treatment of a subject in speech or writing, such as a sermon or dissertation, a unit of text used by linguists for the analysis of linguistic phenomena that range over more than one sentence. (**Poluzhyn**)
- “the interpretation of a communicative event in context” (**Nunan**)
- In the broad sense the term “discourse” is used for designating various types of speech and speech compositions.
- It is a coherent text in combination with pragmatic, sociocultural, psychological and other factors.
- It includes all language units with definable communicative function, spoken or written.

Discourse analysis

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

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

Discourse analysis

Telephone conversations

British English	French
<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Telephone rings.• Answerer gives number.• Caller asks for intended addressee.	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Telephone rings.• Answerer: “Allo”.• Caller verifies number• Answerer: “Oui”.• Caller identifies self, apologizes, asks for intended addressee.

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

Implicature

additional conveyed meaning – IMPLICATURE

Conventional

- Includes those aspects of information that are connected with what is said (in a strict sense) in a sentence.
- is derived from a definite lexical or grammatical structure of an utterance.
E.g. *I saw only John - I didn't see anyone else.*
- is such component of an utterance that is not expressed but is understood by communicants in the process of communication.
Q: Would you like some coffee?
R: Coffee would keep me awake ("Yes" or "No"?)
Think of situations when it means "yes" and "no".

Conversational

Conversational implicature is connected with the violation of maxims, the A interprets this violation as a purposeful means of making him understand without words: e.g. if a question "*Is Mr. Smith a good scientist?*" is answered "*He plays chess well.*" the S means that he is not of a high opinion of a scientific abilities of Smith. Otherwise Maxim of relevance would be violated.
Polonius: *What do you read, My Lord?*
Hamlet: *Words, words, words.*
(*Maxim of Quantity*)

The politeness principle (G. Leech)

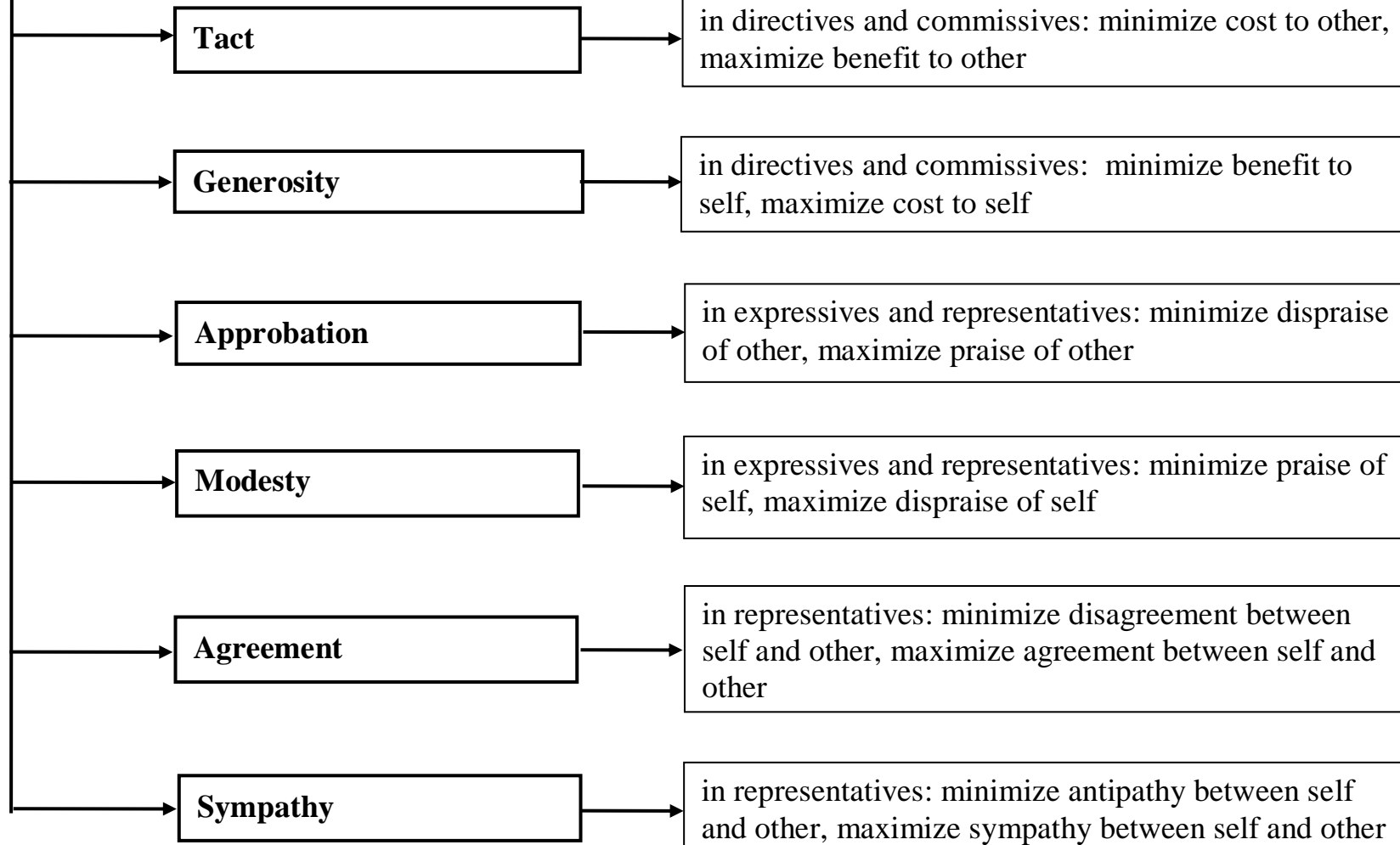
Politeness is a form of behavior that establish and maintain comity.

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

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

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

Maxims by G. Leech



Face and Politeness

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

Positive politeness means being complimentary and gracious to the Addressee.

Negative politeness is found in ways of mitigating the imposition.

- **Hedging:** *Could you, er, perhaps, close the, um, window?*
- **Pessimism:** *I don’t suppose you could close the window, could you?*
- **Apologizing:** *I’m terribly sorry to put you out, but could you close the window?*
- **Impersonalizing:** *The management requires all the windows to be closed.*

Penelope Brown and Stephen Levinson

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

Negative face: freedom of action, freedom from imposition.

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

Brown and Levinson sum up politeness behavior in four strategies

Bald on-record:

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

Positive politeness:

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

Negative politeness:

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

OFF-Record

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

Dominant features of speech behavior

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

Inducement

English:

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

Українська:

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

Overstatement

- Intensification: *so, too, extremely, awfully, terribly, absolutely etc.*,
e.g.: Thank you so much/ very much indeed! I'm terribly sorry.
- Exaggeration: *like, want – dream, adore, love, enjoy etc.; good – happy, delighted, super, smashing etc.*,
e.g.: How is it going! – Great! I really hate to bother you.

Understatement

- Minimizing adverbs: *a little, a bit, just, only, somewhat etc.*,
e.g.: It is just a slip of the tongue. The news somewhat shocked me.
- Fillers: *a sort of, a kind of, more or less, so to speak etc.*,
e.g.: I've got a bit of a problem.
- Verbs of intention: *to intend, to mean, feel etc.*,
e.g.: You tend to miss your classes.
- Negation: *not, hardly ever, barely, not, to fail, to lack etc.*
e.g.: Sorry, but I'm not quite clear on ... (= I don't understand).
I hardly ever speak in public. (= I never speak in public).

Examples

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