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**An Introductory Course in Theoretical
English Grammar**

*Metodinė mokymo priemonė aukštųjų
mokyklų studentams*

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Preface

This book is intended for university-level students of English who have taken a practical grammar course and are now ready to take a course in theoretical grammar.

Our aim is to provide the students with a brief survey of English morphological problems in the light of present-day linguistics.

We want to express our gratitude to Assoc. Prof. Algimantas Martinkėnas, Dean of the Faculty of Foreign Languages, for the congenial atmosphere and encouragement, to the staff of the Department of English Philology, to Assoc. Prof. Gražina Rosinienė and Assoc. Prof. Daiva Verikaitė for reading the manuscript and contributing valuable suggestions.

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Introductory

For a start, let us try and answer the question “what is grammar?” The term *grammar* is derived from the Greek word *grammatikē*, where *gram* meant something written. The part *tikē* derives from *technē* and meant *art*. Hence *grammatikē* is the art of writing. Since its appearance in ancient Greece the term has undergone considerable modifications. In ancient Greece and ancient Rome the terms *grammatikē* and *grammatica* respectively denoted the whole apparatus of literary study. In the middle ages, *grammar* was the study of Latin. In England, this conception of grammar continued until the end of the 16th century. Latin grammar was the only grammar learned in schools. Until then there were no grammars of English. The first grammar of English, *Bref Grammar for English*, written by William Bullokar, was published in 1585. The most influential grammar of English (published in 1762) was R. Lowth’s *Short Introduction to English Grammar*. It started the age of prescriptive grammar. To a prescriptive grammarian, grammar is rules of correct usage; its aim was to prescribe what is judged to be correct rather than to describe actual usage.

A new, modern understanding of grammar appeared only by the end of the 19th century, when the period of scientific (descriptive) grammar began. To descriptivists, grammar is a systematic description of the structure of a language. With the appearance of structural descriptive linguistics, *grammar* came to mean the system of word structures and word arrangements of a given language at a given time. To transformational-generative grammarians, who are an offshoot of structural descriptive linguistics, grammar is a mechanism for producing sentences. Thus the actual definition of *grammar* is determined by pragmatic factors. If we wish to learn to speak and write, we will focus on the system of rules that underlie a given language, and if we wish to describe the structure of a language, we will focus on the units that make up the language and their relations, and if we wish to understand how speakers of a given language produce and understand sentences, we will focus on the nature of the rules used. Hence we can speak of two types of grammar: *practical* and *theoretical*. *Practical grammar* gives practical rules of the use of the linguistic structures while *theoretical grammar* gives an analysis of the structures in the light of general principles of linguistics and the existing schools and approaches.

Historically, English grammars, according to their general aims and objectives, can be divided into: a) *traditional* (prescriptive and non-structural descriptive); b) *structural descriptive* and c) *transformational-generative*.

Traditional Grammar

Traditional Grammar in Ancient Greece

Formally, traditional grammar is the type of grammar as it was before the advent of structural linguistics. Two periods of traditional grammar could be distinguished: 1) *prescriptive* (pre-scientific) and 2) *descriptive* (scientific).

Traditional grammar has its origins in the principles formulated by the scholars of Ancient Greece and Rome – in the works of Dionysius Thrax, Protagoras, Plato, Aristotle, Varro, and Priscian.

Dionysius Thrax (c. 100 B.C.) was the first to present a comprehensive grammar of Greek. His grammar remained a standard work for thirteen centuries. Thrax distinguishes two basic units of description – the sentence (*lògos*), which is the upper limit of grammatical description, and the word, which is the minimal unit of grammatical description. The sentence is defined notionally as “expressing a complete thought”. The constituents of the sentence were called *mèros lògos*, i.e. parts of the sentence. Thrax distinguished *ònoma* (noun) class words, *rhèma* (verb), *metochē* (participle), *árhron* (article), *antōnymia* (pronoun), *próthesis* (preposition), *epirrhēma* (adverb), and *syndesmos* (conjunction). He reunited the Stoic common and proper nouns into the single *ònoma* (noun) class; he separated the participle from the verb. The adjective was classed with the noun, as its morphology and syntax were similar to those of nouns.

The noun was defined as a part of the sentence inflected for case and signifying a person or a thing; the verb as a part of the sentence without case inflection, but inflected for tense, person, and number, signifying an activity or process performed or undergone; the participle as a part of the sentence sharing the features of the verb and the noun; the article as a part of the sentence inflected for case and preposed or postposed to nouns; the pronoun as a part of the sentence substitutable for the noun and marked for person; the preposition as a part of the sentence placed before other words; the adverb as a part of the sentence without inflection, in modification of or in addition to the verb; the conjunction as a part of the sentence binding together the discourse and filling gaps in its interpretation.

Each defined class of words is followed by a statement of the categories applicable to it. Thrax refers to them as *parepόμενα*. By *parepόμενα* he means grammatically relevant differences in the forms of words which include both inflexional and derivational categories. To illustrate this, consider the noun. Thrax distinguishes five such categories of the noun:

- 1) *Génos* (gender): masculine, feminine, neuter;
- 2) *Eídos* (type): primary or derived;
- 3) *Schēma* (form): simple or compound;
- 4) *Arithmós* (number): singular, dual, or plural;
- 5) *Ptōsis* (case): nominative, vocative, objective, genitive, dative.

The *parepόμεna* of the verb included mood, voice, type, form, number, person, tense, and conjugation. Three basic time references are distinguished: present, past, and future. Thrax's set of parts of speech has undergone only minor modifications and is still very much in use today. The main omission in this grammar is the absence of any section on syntax. Syntax was dealt with, rather extensively, by Appolonius Dyscolus. Appolonius based his syntactic description on the relations of the noun and the verb to each other and of the remaining word classes to these two. The achievements of the Greek scholars lie in devising and systematizing a formal terminology for the description of the classical Greek language, a terminology which, through adaptation to Latin and later on adopted from Latin by other languages, has become part and parcel of the grammatical equipment of the linguistics of our day.

Traditional Grammar in Ancient Rome

Roman linguistics was largely the application of Greek thought to the Latin language. The relatively similar basic structures of the two languages facilitated the process of this metalinguistic transfer. The first Latin grammar was written by Varro (116–27 B.C.). His *De Lingua Latina* comprised 25 volumes. One of Varro's merits is the distinction between *derivation* and *inflection*. Inflectional formations are characterized by great generality; they do not vary in use and acceptability from person to person and from one word root to another. The former part of morphology Varro called *declinatio naturalis* (natural word variation) and the latter, *declinatio voluntaria* (spontaneous word form variation). Varro set up the following system of four inflexionally contrasting classes:

- 1) those with case inflexion (nouns including adjectives);
- 2) those with tense inflexion (verbs);
- 3) those with case and tense inflexion (participles);
- 4) those with neither (adverb).

The Latin grammars of the present day are the direct descendants of the works written by late grammarians, Priscian (c. A.D. 500) in particular. His aim, like theirs, was to transfer as far as he could the grammatical system of Thrax's grammar, as well as the writings of Appolonius, to Latin. He uses the classical system of eight word classes laid down by Thrax and Appolonius,

with the omission of the article and the inclusion of the interjection. Priscian's work is based on the language of the best writers (e.g. Cicero, Virgil), i.e. not on the language of his own day. Priscian's work marks the bridge between Antiquity and the Middle Ages in linguistic scholarship.

Prescriptive Grammar

As already known, until the end of the sixteenth century, the only grammars used in English schools were Latin grammars. The aim was to teach Englishmen to read, write and sometimes converse in this lingua franca of Western Europe. One of the earliest and most popular Latin grammars written in English was William Lily's grammar, published in the first half of the 16th century. It was an aid to learning Latin, and it rigorously followed Latin models.

The Renaissance saw the birth of the modern world. It widened linguistic horizons. Scholars turned their attention to the living languages of Europe. Although the study of Greek and Latin grammar continued, they were not the only languages scholars were interested in. As can be expected, the first grammars of English were closely related to Latin grammars. Latin had been used in England for centuries, scholars had treated it as an ideal language. They were struck by its rigor and order. English, which replaced Latin, had to appear as perfect as Latin. As a result, some English scholars were greatly concerned with refining their language. Through the use of logic they hoped to improve English.

The first grammars of English were prescriptive, not descriptive. The most influential grammar of this period was R. Lowth's *Short Introduction to English Grammar* (1762). The aim of this grammar was "to teach us to express ourselves with propriety... and to enable us to judge of every phrase and form of construction, whether it be right or not". Unfortunately, the criterion for the discrimination between right and wrong constructions was Latin. As Latin appeared to conform best to their concept of ideal grammar, they described English in terms of Latin forms and imposed the same grammatical constraints. For instance, a noun was presented in the form of the Latin noun paradigm:

Nominative: *the house*
Genitive: *of the house*
Dative: *to the house*
Accusative: *the house*
Ablative: *in, at, from the house*
Vocative: *house*

Prescriptivists promoted those grammatical variants which corresponded, in one way or another, to equivalents in Latin. Anxious to do it, they prescribed and proscribed many of the constructions used in English from time immemorial. They condemned the use of a preposition in sentence-final position, e.g. *who are you looking at?* or *who are you talking to?* The reason for the condemnation was that sentences do not end with a preposition in Latin. But even in Old English we could find sentences ending with prepositions. The rule 'It is incorrect to end a sentence with a preposition' was repeated in prestigious grammars towards the end of the eighteenth century, and from the nineteenth century on it was widely taught in schools. To quote Geoffrey K. Pullum and Rodney Huddleston (2002: 627), "The result is that older people with traditional educations and outlooks still tend to believe that stranding (i.e. the use of prepositions in sentence-final position – L. Valeika, J. Buitkiene) is always some kind of mistake."

Another restriction that the prescriptivists applied to English was the Latin constraint on the use of the accusative form of a noun after the verb *esse* (to be). Since *me* is historically the accusative form of the person (nom.: *I*; gen.: *my*; dat.: *to me*; acc.: *me*; abl.: *by me*; voc.: *o me*), it was considered wrong to say *it's me*. Instead we must say *It's I*. The pattern *It's me*, which had been common for centuries and still is, was thought incorrect since the Latin construction *ego sum* made use of the nominative form of the pronoun.

Another prescription was not to use the construction *better than him*. Writers of Lowth's era used both *better than he* and *better than him*. His preference for the former he explained by the fact that *better than he* can be followed by the verb *is* and *better than him* cannot. His decision and his reasons continue to be observed today.

Prescriptivists disliked variation and change. Correctness was associated with what used to be the case. *Different from* was preferable to *different to*, or *different than*, because the *di*-part of the word in Latin indicated *division* or *separateness*, and therefore *from* suits the etymological argument better.

Prescriptivists condemned constructions on account of logic as well. For instance, *had rather* and *had better*, double comparatives (*lesser*, *worser*) were regarded as contradicting the laws of reason. Logic was used to stigmatise some constructions and promote others. The most notorious example concerns double negation, e.g. *I don't know nothing*. Such patterns were traditional. Shakespeare used double negation. However, they were condemned as incorrect.

Last but not least, prescriptivists disregarded English of their day: they would rather draw their examples from the past. Even the English of the best

writers of the past was sometimes regarded as wrong if it did not correspond to their conception of correct English.

Prescriptivists are conservative linguists: when there is a competition between an older form and a more recent alternative, they dislike change which is identified with corruption: the language of their ancestors had beauty, but the Language of his contemporaries is always diminished (Randal L. Whitman, 1975:6).

Latinization of English grammar was also reflected in the system of parts of speech. Patterning after Latin, prescriptivists set up a classification of eight parts of speech: *noun, pronoun, verb, adjective, adverb, preposition, conjunction, and interjection*. The English articles *a(n)* and *the*, having no Latin counterparts, were not given the status of a part of speech, but merely referred to as signs before nouns to identify them as nouns. Some prescriptivists treated the articles as a subclass of adjectives. Only Ben Jonson assigned them to a class of their own. Similar to Latin grammarians, prescriptivists, in defining word classes or syntactic structures, relied either on meaning or function. E.g. a noun is the name of a person, place or thing; an adjective is a word that modifies a noun; a sentence is a group of words expressing a complete thought; the subject is that of which something is said; the predicate is that which is said of the subject.

To sum up, prescriptive grammar could be characterized by the following features:

- 1) Patterning after Latin in classifying words into word classes and establishing grammatical categories;
- 2) Reliance on meaning and function in definitions;
- 3) Approach to correctness: the standards of correctness are logic, which was identified with Latin, and the past.
- 4) Emphasis on writing rather than speech.

As prescriptive grammarians were concerned with the rules for the correct use of English, they could be called the first standardizers of English. Unfortunately, their 'standardization' work was often based on subjective criteria and other languages. However, not all works written in the prescriptive era ignored actual usage. Those which did not paved the way to Standard English, which has today become an objective standard for correct English. Those grammarians who adhere to the norms of Standard English (the English of government, education, broadcasting, news publishing, and other public discourse) are also prescriptivists – prescriptivists in a good sense.

Non-Structural Descriptive Grammar

In the second half of the 19th century the development of prescriptive grammar was completed. The best prescriptive grammars of the period, C.P. Mason's *English Grammar*, 1858 and A. Bain's *Higher English Grammar*, 1863, paved the way for the appearance of a new type of grammar, viz. descriptive, or scientific grammar: a need was felt for a grammar which could give a scientific explanation of the actually occurring structures without assessing the correctness of the structures. Henry Sweet (1845–1912), the father of a new approach to linguistic studies, described it in the preface to his work, *New English Grammar, Logical and Historical* (1891) as follows: "As my exposition claims to be scientific, I confine myself to the statement of facts, without attempting to settle the relative correctness of divergent usages. If an 'ungrammatical' expression such as *it is me* is in general use among educated people, I accept it as such, simply adding that it is avoided in the literary language" (H. Sweet, 1891: XI). Similar to prescriptive grammarians, Sweet mostly concerned himself with the written language, the language of the best writers of his time¹. Sweet also adopted the grammatical system of his predecessors, but in classifying words into word classes he was more explicit as regards the criteria, or principles, of classification than prescriptivists. The scholar seemed to adhere to the same conception of parts of speech as his ancient colleagues, viz. parts of speech are syntactic categories – they manifest themselves in the sentence as *relational categories*: the noun is related to the verb, the adverb is related to the verb, the preposition is related to the noun, the adjective is related to the noun. This approach can be clearly seen in his description of the noun: "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." (H. Sweet: 1891, 35). "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..." (ibid.).

The term *scientific grammar* means reliance on facts and the use of the inductive method. Henry Sweet was the first to undermine the old tradition in linguistic studies where the function of grammar was to prescribe what is

¹ Being interested in phonetics, Sweet could not ignore the spoken language: "The first requisite is a knowledge of phonetics of the form of language. We must learn to regard language solely as consisting of groups of sounds, independently of the written symbols..." (Words, Logic and Meaning, p. 471). This is in fact the recognition of the priority of oral speech over written.

judged to be correct rather than describe actual usage. Among his followers we can mention Poutsma, Kruisinga, Zandvoort, Curme, and Jespersen. However, of all the descriptivists, special mention should be given to Otto Jespersen (1860–1943), a Danish linguist whose most enduring work is in the theory of grammar and the grammar of English. Like Sweet, he proposes three principles of classification – meaning, form, and function. He is much more original in syntactic studies. His theory is set out in *The Philosophy of Grammar* (1924). It is based on the concepts of *ranks* distinguished in *nexus* (predication) and *junction* (subordination). The term *rank* is used of successive levels of subordination, or dependency. E.g. in the junction *very cold water*, *water* has the highest rank and is a *primary*; *cold* has the next highest rank and is a *secondary*; *very* has the lowest and is a *tertiary*. The ranks are also distinguished in *nexus*, e.g. *He* (primary) *writes* (secondary) *a letter* (primary) *every day* (tertiary). This sentence contradicts his theory of ranks since *a letter* is subordinate to *writes*. If the scholar had been more consistent, he would have had to apply the same principle of subordination to both junction and nexus structure, as he did in his analysis of *a furiously barking dog* and *a dog barks furiously*. Despite this inconsistency, the theory of ranks undoubtedly served as an impulse to transformational-generative grammarians who saw transformational relations between predicative and non-predicative structures. Non-predicative structures were treated as transformationally derived from the corresponding predicative ones – both were built on the same type of subordination.

Non-Structural Descriptive Grammar in Summary

1. Unlike prescriptivists, descriptivists focus their attention on actual usage without trying “to settle the relative correctness of divergent usages”;
2. Descriptivists rely on the English of the best authors of their day as well as the English of the past. To them, change in language is not associated with corruption;
3. Similar to prescriptivists, descriptivists use meaning and function in their definition of parts of speech.

Structural Descriptive Grammar

The non-structural descriptive approach to language had its heyday between 1900 and 1930, when it was replaced by structuralism. The father of American structuralism is generally called Leonard Bloomfield, who in his book *Language* presented the new approach as follows: “The study of language can be conducted... only so long as we pay no attention to the meaning of what is spoken” (1933:75).

Followers of this approach sought to study the structure of a language as objectively as possible, without reference to meaning and other languages. By other languages they, first and foremost, meant Latin and Greek, the languages prescriptive and, to a lesser degree, descriptive grammarians modelled their analysis on. English was regarded as a language having its specific structure, and the task of a linguist was to reveal it by using scientific (i.e. formal) methods of analysis. Meaning as a criterion was not reliable since, being unobservable, it could be interpreted differently by different linguists. Therefore the linguist was to devise formal methods of analysis and replace meaning by form; the linguist must be interested in what he observes, i.e. objective data. The structuralists based their conclusions on the analysis of sentences that they had collected from native speakers of English, giving priority to Spoken English.

To structuralists, language is a highly organized affair, where the smaller units are built into larger units, which in turn are built into larger ones, until the largest unit is reached. Such building-blocks are *phonemes* and *morphemes*. The structures that we build out of the 'bricks' are *lexemes*. Lexemes, in their own turn, serve to build the largest unit, the *sentence*, i.e. the *predicative unit*.

Structural linguists ignored meaning not because they were not interested in it. Meaning was ignored on the grounds that it was not observable and could not be described objectively by using formal methods. The description of meaning had to wait until appropriate methods were devised. Such being the case, they focused their attention on structural, i.e. grammatical, meaning¹.

How are structural meanings conveyed in English? Structural grammarians have pointed out four devices used in English to indicate structural meaning: 1) *word form*; 2) *function words*; 3) *word order*; 4) *intonation and accent patterns* (prosodic patterns). Present-day English depends strongly on word order to convey meaning. Charles Fries (1956) argues that "certain positions in the English sentence have become to be felt as subject territory, others as object territory, and the forms of the words in each territory are pressed to adjust themselves to the character of that territory". Function words are another device. Having little or no lexical meaning of their own, they serve to vary the functions of the lexical words. Consider:

The mother of the boy will arrive tomorrow.

The words *mother*, *boy*, *arrive*, and *tomorrow* have meaning in themselves quite apart from their grammatical relation, or meaning, in the sentence. They

¹ By structural meaning is meant meaning expressed morphologically or syntactically; it can be simply described as meaning formed within a structure. So, for instance, when morphemes are organized into lexemes or predicative units, a new kind of meaning emerges which is not associated with the individual morphemes or individual lexemes.

are full, or notional, words. But the words *the*, *of*, and *will* express primarily a grammatical idea and have little or no meaning apart from the grammatical function they indicate: *the* functions as a determiner of *mother* telling us that a particular member of the class is meant; *of* relates *the boy* to *the mother* or, in other words, *of* makes the word *boy* an attribute, or modifier, of the word *mother*; it is equivalent to a genitive inflection (cf. *the boy's mother*); *will* indicates that the process of *arriving* will occur in the future¹. The role of intonation is obvious when we have to differentiate between *statements* and *questions*, between the *theme* and the *rheme*. Stress, or accent, helps to distinguish nouns from verbs (e.g. *ˈsuspect* vs. *suspect*), juncture-pause in speech distinguishes between such structures as *night-rate* and *nitrate* or phrases, clauses and sentences.

As already mentioned, anxious to be objective, structural grammarians used formal methods of linguistic analysis, such as *immediate constituent*, *distribution*, *substitution*, *transformation* (*deletion*, *permutation*, etc.).

The term *immediate constituents* (*IC*) was introduced by L. Bloomfield as follows: “Any English-speaking person who concerns himself with this matter is sure to tell us that the immediate constituents of *Poor John ran away* are the two forms *Poor John* and *ran away*; that each of these is, in turn, a complex form; that the immediate constituents of *ran away* are *ran* and *away*, and that the constituents of *Poor John* are *poor* and *John*”. To put it in more simple language, the constituents *Poor John* and *ran away* belong together, for they stand side by side. They are the most important constituents since they constitute the core of the sentence. The same principle of togetherness underlies the constituents *Poor* and *John*, *ran* and *away*. However, as compared to *Poor John* and *ran away*, they are constituents of a lower level: they are subconstituents of the higher level – *Poor John* and *ran away*. Hence two levels of analysis: higher and lower where the lower level is subordinated to the higher level.

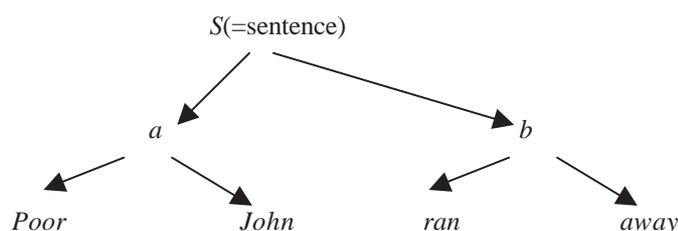
According to D. Bolinger (1968: 195), the principle of togetherness is very pervasive in language. It manifests itself in “our resistance to putting something between two things that are more closely related to each other than they are to what is inserted. Teachers find it hard to enforce the rule of interior plurals in forms like *mothers-in-law* and *postmasters general* – speakers want to put the *-s* at the end. They are even more reluctant to say *hardest-working person*, inserting the *-est* between the members of the compound *hard-working*; and though some might manage it there, probably no one would say **farthest-fetched story* for *most far-fetched story*”.

¹ Linguists are not agreed on the status of *shall* and *will*: some linguists treat the words as grammatical word-morphemes, others as lexical words. For a fuller discussion of the status of *shall* and *will*, see p p. 81–3.

The aim of IC analysis is to discover and demonstrate the interrelationships of the words in a linguistic structure – the sentence or the word-combination.

It is not difficult to see a similarity between immediate constituent analysis and the traditional procedure of ‘parsing’ sentences into *subject* and *predicate*, *attribute*, *object* and *adverbial*. Thus L. Bloomfield’s sentence could be described by a traditional grammarian as a simple sentence whose subject is a *noun-phrase*, made up of the noun *John* modified by the adjective *poor*, and whose predicate is a *verb-phrase* consisting of the verb *ran* modified by the adverb *away*. Both the traditional procedure and the IC method view the sentence not as just a linear sequence of elements but as made up of “layers” of immediate constituents, each lower-level constituent being part of a higher-level constituent. The analysis of the sentence *Poor John ran away* can be represented graphically in a number of ways:

- a) we may use brackets: (*Poor/John*) (*ran/away*)
- b) we may construct a tree diagram:

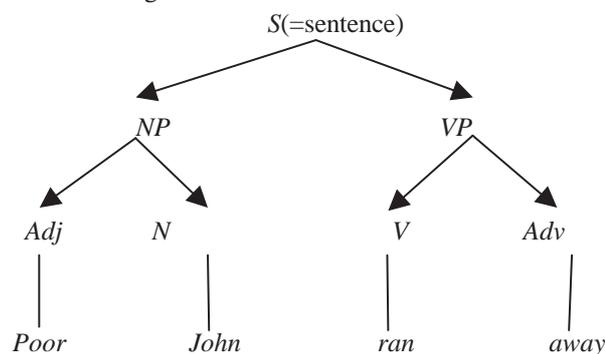


The tree-diagram given below is to be read as follows: the ultimate constituents of the sentence are *poor*, *John*, *ran*, *away*; the words *poor* and *John* are the immediate constituents of one construction (layer) indicated by ‘node’ (a); the words *ran* and *away* are the immediate constituents of another construction (layer) indicated by ‘node’ (b). The two constructions *Poor John* and *ran away* are the immediate constituents of the highest-level construction, the sentence itself.

As can be seen, in analyzing the sentence into ICs we do not class the ICs into speech parts, nor do we say that *Poor John* is a noun-phrase. Neither do we call *Poor John* subject, and *ran away* predicate. In this respect IC analysis differs from, and is poorer than the traditional analysis. Its merit is that it does not use the traditional concepts, concepts which are not defined clearly. However, “it tells us nothing about the nature of the elements nor the manner in which they are related” (D. Bolinger, op. cit., 196).

Bloomfield’s followers, Wells and Harris, formulated the principles of IC

analysis in greater detail. We will not go into them but will only add that the *nodes* were replaced by the terms *noun phrase* and *verb phrase*; the *noun phrase* was analyzed into the Adjective (Adj) and the Noun (N); the *verb phrase* was analyzed into the Verb (V) and the adverb (Adv). These symbols were then replaced by the ultimate constituents – *poor, John, ran, away*. Consider now the new tree-diagram:



As already mentioned, the aim of IC analysis is to show the syntagmatic interrelations between the sentence constituents. Structuralists would agree that if we have described these interrelationships, we have described the syntax of the sentence in its entirety.¹ The shortcoming of the IC method lies in its extreme formality: the analyst, using this method, is not interested in the content of the interrelationships. Such syntactic notions as *subject, predicate, object, complement, attribute, adverbial*, which constitute the basis of traditional analysis, practically were never used by structuralists. In this way, content was separated from form. And language is a dialectical unity of content and form. Besides, the method of IC analysis is only capable of revealing word relationships within the sentence. But, to quote D. Bolinger (op. cit., 201), “How could a frame so confined as that of immediate constituents be expected to fit comfortably around the whole of syntax, when there are many important relationships that escape it? The classic example is the relationship between the active and the passive voice: *George sees Mary; Mary is seen by George*. An immediate-constituent analysis of these two sentences tells nothing about their underlying kinship.”

Let us now turn to *distribution*. Distribution is the set of contexts, or environments, within sentences in which a unit can appear. So, for instance, the distribution of *hair* in written English is the set of the following contexts:

¹ For a more detailed analysis of the IC method, see J. Skarulis (1987: 24-30).

I combed my hair.
Give me the hair spray.
My hair is too long, etc.

The distribution of the word *hair* can be described as follows: 1) it can follow the word *my*; 2) it can precede the word *spray*; 3) it can precede the verb *be*. If we analyze other words, we shall find other positions they occupy, or other environments in which they are used. Words that have the same distribution are words of the same class. We test their distribution by substituting them for other words. Consider the sentence *I combed my hair*: The word *hair* can be formally substituted for other words, such as *place, town, wood, etc.* Distribution and substitution were used by structuralists for the classification of linguistic units. Like the IC method, the method of distribution was treated as a method that enables the analyst to classify words into classes objectively, i.e. without having recourse to meaning.

The *transformational method* was developed by Zellig Harris in the 1950s. The aim of a transformational operation was to reveal similarities and differences in the structure of the units being examined or to reveal the structural potential of the unit.¹ To understand it, let us examine the following structures:

- 1) *Mary has a new car.*
- 2) *Mary has a good time.*

Superficially, the two sentences are identical in structure. However, they present two distinct structures. Sentence (1) cannot be turned into the passive while sentence (2) can:

Mary has a new car. → **A new car is had by Mary.*
Mary has a good time. → *A good time is had by Mary.*

The structural potential of a linguistic unit can also be tested by this method:

- a) *my dog* → *the dog of mine*;
- b) *Susan's dog* → *the dog of Susan* → *the Susan dog*;
- c) *John gave the book to me.* → *John gave me the book* → *The book was given to me.*
- d) *John bought the book for me* → *John bought me the book* → *The book was bought for me* → **I was bought the book.*
- e) *A number of people came* → *People came* → **A number came* → **The number of people came.*
- f) *Bill fixed up a drink for John* → *Bill fixed a drink up for John* → *Bill fixed a drink for John up* → *Bill fixed up John a drink.*

¹ No matter which aim is pursued, transformations help to reveal the existing relations between linguistic structures.

- g) *John resides in New York* → **John resides.*
- h) *John is my best friend* → *John is.*
- i) *John is walking in the park* → *John is walking.*
- j) *Mary put the flowers in the vase* → **Mary put the flowers.*
- k) *Mary is writing a letter.* → *Mary is writing.*
- l) *The door was closed* → *the door was closed by the janitor.*
- m) *The door closed* → **The door closed by the janitor.*
- n) *The woman looked angry* → **The woman looked angrily.*
- o) *The woman appeared angry* → **The woman appeared angrily.*
- p) *We do not allow smoking in the lecture hall* → *It is not allowed to smoke in the lecture hall* → *Smoking is not allowed in the lecture hall.*
- q) *The student arrived late.* → *The student's late arrival.*

Through the transformational method we can show the structural potential of a linguistic unit as compared to units exhibiting superficially similar structure. If linguistic units can be subjected to the same transformation, we can say that they are identically structured. But if they cannot, their structure is different. To sum up, the merit of the transformational method can be stated as follows: 1) it enables the analyst to diagnose linguistic structures; 2) it reveals the structural potential of linguistic structures. The emergence of this method practically marks the end of post-Bloomfieldian linguistics and the beginning of a new stage of structural linguistics.¹

Transformational – Generative Grammar

From the transformational method there was only one step to the creation of a new type of grammar, viz. transformational-generative grammar. This method and the method of ICs had paved the way for the emergence of a grammar that could account for the generation of the sentence.

Unlike the structural grammarian, the transformational-generative grammarian is not content with describing what he finds in a corpus of sentences collected from native speakers. He is interested in possible sentences, i.e. the speaker's-hearer's knowledge of a language (*competence*), rather than in his actual use of it (*performance*).

There are two types of transformational-generative grammar: 1) the Harris – Chomsky grammar and 2) the Chomsky grammar. The first type of transformational-generative grammar (TG) was developed by Harris (1951) in concert with his pupil Chomsky, in the 1950s. By the end of the decade their

¹ A fuller analysis of the use of the transformational method in syntax can be found in J. Skarulis (op. cit.).

paths had separated. But first let us discuss the model of TG as worked out by Harris in association with Chomsky. According to this model, a language consists of a limited number of *kernel sentences* (i.e. structurally the most simple sentences)¹, and their transforms, i.e. structures derived from them. Kernel sentences are generated by the use of the IC model. The set of rules showing how a sentence is generated is called *rewrite rules*, or *rewriting rules*. Consider the kernel sentence *The man hit the ball*. This sentence is generated by the application of the following rules:

- 1) $Sentence \rightarrow NP + VP$
- 2) $NP \rightarrow T (a \text{ determiner}) + N$
- 3) $T \rightarrow the$
- 4) $N \rightarrow man$
- 5) $VP \rightarrow V + NP$
- 6) $V \rightarrow hit$
- 7) $NP \rightarrow T + N$
- 8) $T \rightarrow the$
- 9) $N \rightarrow ball$

This sentence is derived by the use of 6 rules (rules 7, 8, 9 are recursive, i.e. they have already been used before). From this sentence, applying transformational rules, we can derive other sentences, such as *The ball was hit by the man*; *Did the man hit the ball?*; *The man did not hit the ball*; *What the man did was hit the ball*; *It was the man who hit the ball*, etc.

The principal transformational rules that can be applied to kernel sentences include:

- 1) expansion of the verb phrase and the noun phrase, e.g.
John is at home. \rightarrow *John must be at home.*
We like him. \rightarrow *We came to like him.*
John is walking. \rightarrow *John is walking in the park.*

The verb in the kernel sentence can be expanded by using modal and aspective verbs; the noun by restrictors (articles, pronouns), e.g.

- John is at home* \rightarrow *The John* (i.e. our John) *is at home.*
 \rightarrow *Poor John is at home.*
 \rightarrow *Mary's John is at home.*

- 2) permutation – change of the word-order, e.g.
He is a student. \rightarrow *Is he a student?*

¹ Harris gives the following list of kernels: 1) *The team went there*; 2) *We'll take it*; 3) *The teacher looked at him*; 4) *He's an architect*; 5) *The girl is pretty*; 6) *The paper is of importance*; 7) *The man is here*.

Jane sent me a letter. → *Jane sent a letter to me.*

3) introduction of functional words, e.g.

He arrived tonight. → *Did he arrive tonight?*

Ted is clever → *How clever Ted is!*

4) use of introducers (*there, it*), e.g.

A bell rang. → *There rang a bell.*

5) deletion of an element, e.g.

Would you like a cup of tea? → *A cup of tea?*

6) use of negation words, e.g.

The evening was warm. → *The evening was not warm.*

7) passivisation, e.g.

The teacher praised the boy. → *The boy was praised by the teacher.*

Kernel sentences can be nominalized, i.e. they can be transformed into noun-phrases (NP) which preserve the semantic relations of the kernel sentence, e.g.

The bird sings → 1) *the singing of the bird;*

2) *the song of the bird;*

3) *the bird's song;*

4) *a singing bird.*

To sum up, this model of TG is divided into three parts: 1) phrase-structure rules, 2) lexicon, and 3) transformational rules. First we begin with the phrase-structure rule which says: $S \rightarrow NP + VP$. Then we select the rules that are used to generate NP and VP. Then we turn to the lexicon and substitute words for the symbols. Having thus generated a kernel sentence, we can now derive other structures by using appropriate transformations. This model of TG is rather 'democratic': it does not require that the transformations should fully preserve the meaning of the kernels – they may or may not preserve it. Besides, it is very simple. Hence its great popularity among teachers of English.

As already mentioned, the second type of TG was worked out by N. Chomsky (1962), who radically moved away from the first type by distinguishing two levels of the sentence – *surface* and *deep*. Besides, Chomsky gave up the concept of *kernel sentence* – his model aimed to show how all sentences (simple and composite) are generated in English.

So what is *surface structure* and what is *deep structure*? We will begin with *deep structure*. A deep structure is a structure generated only by phrase-structure rules and lexical rules, e.g. *not John past can sing well*. A deep structure that has been transformed into a grammatical English sentence is called a surface structure, e.g. *John could not sing well*. All grammatical English sentences are *surface structures*; underlying each one is a *deep structure*. The deep structure of

a sentence is a kind of ‘springboard’ for other structures which are generated by the application of transformational rules. As compared to the first type of TG, the Chomskyan TG imposes one important restriction on the transformations applicable to a deep structure, viz. the transformations must not change the meaning of the deep structure. In the first type of TG, Harris and Chomsky would derive, for instance, yes/no questions from related declaratives:

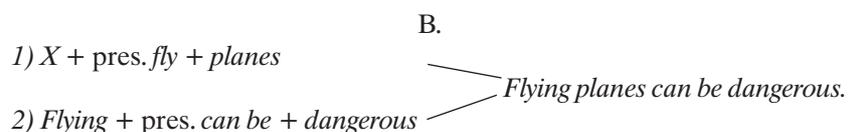
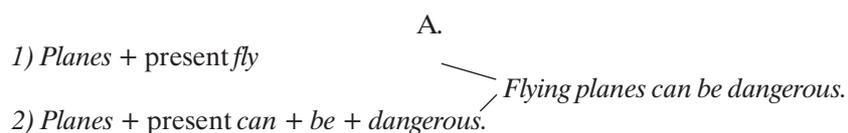
Tom is sick. → *Is Tom sick?*

He heard us. → *Did he hear us?*

But as the transformation would change the meaning of the sentences, questions are not derived from declaratives. The idea of interrogation must be presented in the deep structure of a question, e.g. *Q* (question) + *Tom* + present *be* + *sick*. This goes to say that declaratives and questions are based on different deep underlying structures.

What is especially new and useful in this type of TG is the observation that grammar is a device for generating grammatical sentences¹. The rules comprising this grammar are limited in number, but the sentences we generate by means of those rules are infinite. Although most of the sentences we encounter every day are totally new to us, we have no difficulty understanding them because the rules they are based on are very well known to us. A good knowledge of the rules enables the speaker to ‘create’ new sentences every time he speaks a language.

Special mention should be made of the importance of the concept *deep structure*. TG grammarians would agree that this concept helps us to account for ambiguity and predict it, e.g. *Flying planes can be dangerous*. The sentence *Flying planes can be dangerous* is ambiguous because it can be related to different deep structures:



¹ The term *grammatical* means two things: 1) generated by the application of phrase-structure and transformational rules; 2) generated by the application of lexical, or semantic rules. Thus the sentence *Green ideas sleep furiously* is not grammatical because it violates the rule of semantic compatibility (Lith. *suderinamumo principas*)

That the sentence *Flying planes can be dangerous* realizes both types of deep structure (A and B) can only be accounted for by the structural peculiarities of English. Cf. Lith.: *Skraidantys lėktuvai yra pavojingi* (deep structure A) and *Skristi lėktuvu yra pavojinga* (deep structure B). Generative grammar allows us to predict that deep structures such as represented by A and B will produce ambiguous sentences when they are combined.¹ Other deep structures will not produce ambiguous sentences, e.g. *Planes + pres. be + dangerous + planes + pres. fly* → *Flying planes are dangerous*. Nor will the deep structure *X + pres. + fly + planes + Flying + pres. be + dangerous* produce an ambiguous sentence – *Flying planes is dangerous*.

It will be obvious that the ambiguity of the sentence *Flying planes can be dangerous* as well as the ambiguity of other sentences can also be accounted for using the first type of TG, viz. using the concept of *kernel sentences*. Consider, for a change, the sentence *Hunting tigers can be dangerous*:

- A.
- Hunting tigers can be dangerous* ← 1. *Tigers hunt.*
2. *Tigers can be dangerous.*
- B.
1. *X hunts tigers.*
2. *Hunting can be dangerous.*

The sentence *Hunting tigers can be dangerous* is ambiguous because it can be treated as deriving from two types of kernel sentences (A and B). Harris' model is more in keeping with the principles of structural grammar (the emphasis is on structure) than Chomsky's (the emphasis is on the rules used to generate linguistic structures).

Other transformational-generative grammarians, such as Charles Fillmore, soon came to see a major inadequacy of the Chomskyan model when they had to account for such sentences as *John bought the book from Mary* and *Mary sold the book to John*. Semantically, the two sentences describe the same situation, but since they do not contain the same content words (i.e. nouns, verbs, adjectives, and adverbs), we cannot derive them from the same deep structure. Therefore,

¹ A transformation which combines two separate structures is called generalized transformation, or a double-base transformation. In the mid-1960s the concept of generalized transformation was rejected: the type of structures came to be derived in a base component, i.e. by phrase-structure rules.

they suggested abandoning the Chomskyan deep structure for a more abstract deep, or semantic, structure, which could allow us to generate the said structures. Such a deep structure is *Agent + Process + Affected + Recipient*. *Mary* is the Agent, *sold* is the Process, *the book* is the Affected, and *John* is the Recipient. Given this semantic structure, we can derive either *John bought the book from Mary* or *Mary sold the book to John*. The use of one or the other construction is the speaker's choice: if the speaker wishes to use *John* as the *Theme* (or the point of departure), he will give preference to the first pattern, and if the speaker wishes to use *Mary* as the *Theme*, he will give preference to the second pattern. The type of grammar which is concerned with the generation of semantic structure and derives linguistic structures from it is called *generative semantics*.¹

The era of structural and transformational-generative grammar has already come to an end. However, their achievements have not vanished without trace: they have been incorporated into present-day traditional grammar.

The Explanatory Power of Non-Structural Descriptive, Structural Descriptive and Transformational-Generative Grammar (by way of summing up)

Grammar should seek to explain how language is structured, what functions its structures perform, what rules are used to form sentences or word-combinations. Different grammars solve these problems with a different degree of success. We will test the explanatory power of each type of grammar by considering the *sentence*, the largest unit of grammar over which a rule of grammar can operate.

1. Non-Structural Descriptive Grammar

Traditionally, the sentence is a group of words that expresses a complete thought or a group of words that contains a *Subject* and a *Predicate*. The first definition, which is a notional one, is rather subjective since there are no criteria by which we can judge the completeness of a thought. The second definition is not satisfactory either because it rules out verbless sentences. *The sentence is a unit of communication*, which suggests that any structure that can perform this function is a sentence². To be more precise, *any structure that can express new information is a sentence*.

¹ For more information on semantic syntax and the application of its principles to English syntax, see Laimutis Valeika (1998).

² This interpretation of the sentence is also traditional in the sense that it is neither structural nor transformational-generative; it is present-day, or contemporary, traditional.

Traditional grammarians devote a great deal of time and energy to sentence analysis. According to the traditional method, the sentence is analyzed in terms of the parts of the sentence: *Subject, Predicate* (principle parts), *Object, Attribute, Adverbial Modifier* (secondary parts). Having identified the parts, traditional grammarians proceed to characterize them morphologically: What part of speech is it? In what form, tense, aspect, mood, voice, etc. is it expressed? The main shortcoming of the traditional method is that sentence analysis is based on syntactic notions which are not defined clearly. Such being the case, syntactic analysis turns into an art: one and the same constituent is often given more than one analysis. Consider the sentence: *John wants to go there*. There being no clear criteria for distinguishing parts of the sentence, we cannot say for certain whether the infinitive is part of the verbal predicate or the object. Consider another sentence: *He was known to like her*. It is not clear whether the Subject is only *he* or *he + to like her*. Both analyses can be found in traditional grammar. A similar situation can be observed when we analyze secondary parts of the sentence, e.g. *He swam across the river*: vs. *He swam the river*. The word *the river* is often given the same analysis despite a difference in pattern. The same indeterminacy concerns the analysis of a *key* in *He opened the door with a key*: is it an Adverbial Modifier of Manner or a Prepositional Object? All this suggests that traditional sentence analysis is endowed with serious problems.

Traditional grammarians cannot adequately cope with ambiguity in language, e.g. *He is a man to watch*. They are aware of the ambiguity and say that the sentence is ambiguous because *a man* may be given two interpretations: subjective and objective – *He is a man who watches* or *He is a man who is watched*. Although it is a correct account, we cannot say it is adequate: it does not say what is “responsible” for the ambiguity. A similar problem arises when we analyze the sentence *He fed her dog biscuits*. The traditionalist will be forced to say that the sentence is ambiguous, or that it is a trick sentence. He/she will say that *her* may be treated as the Indirect Object of *fed* (*fed her*) or the possessive restrictor (determiner) of the noun *dog* (*her dog*). But he/she will not be in a position to answer the question what makes it ambiguous. Also, in treating the structure *the love of God*, the traditionalist will admit that it is ambiguous, for the constituent *God* may be given a subjective and an objective interpretation. Although the traditional analysis is correct, it is not adequate.

Traditional grammarians treat syntactic structures as independent units, although they are aware of existing derivational relationships between them. For instance, such relationships are assumed to exist between active and passive sentences, between simple and composite (compound and complex) sentences,

between declarative, negative, interrogative, and exclamatory sentences. However, the existing relationships are not formalized in terms of paradigmatic relations. Traditional grammarians do not see such relationships between predicative structures and non-predicative ones, e.g. *John arrived* vs. *John's arrival*.

It will be obvious that what has been said about traditional grammar so far is only true of the type of traditional grammar which existed before the advent of structural descriptive grammar. These days traditional grammar, which continues to be based on meaning and function, incorporates the achievements of the past and the present, and, as in the past, is used as a reference source by teachers of English and as a point of departure by scholars. The adoption of new methods of analysis (structural, statistical) greatly enhances its explanatory power.

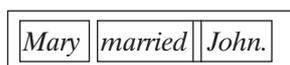
2. Structural Descriptive Grammar

Structural grammarians prided themselves on being true linguists: they based their analysis on actual English, giving preference to spoken English; they used 'discovery procedures' such as distribution and substitution tests, transformations of various sorts, etc. As compared to traditionalists, they were more analytic: their attention was on *segmentation* and *categorization* (i.e. labeling structures).

Rejecting traditional concepts and methods as unscientific, structural grammarians focused on the development of a grammar which would be devoid of 'old illnesses', a grammar not influenced by Latin or Greek. It was in the field of syntax that Latinization was the most obvious. As already indicated, structural grammarians put forward a new method of sentence analysis, viz. the immediate constituent (IC) method. The essence of the method is that the sentence is viewed as being composed of layers, or levels – higher and lower. The layers are subordinate to each other. By means of this method we can identify the syntactic relations between constituents that are adjacent (next) to each other. The term *immediate* means that there is no other syntactic element in between. Consider:

Mary married John.

Graphically, the IC structure of the sentence can be presented as follows:



As can be seen, the sentence is divided into two immediate constituents

Mary and *married John* subordinated to the sentence as a whole: *married John* is divided into *married* and *John* which are subordinated to *married John*. The highest level is represented by the sentence: the first unit represents a lower level and the second unit, the lowest. Is this method an improvement on the traditional one? Yes and No. This method makes it possible to demonstrate that sentences having identical grammar may have different structure. Consider:

The police shot the man in the red cap.

The police shot the man in the right arm.

The first sentence has the following IC structure:

<i>The police</i>	<i>shot</i>	<i>the man</i>	<i>in the red cap.</i>
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The second sentence is structured differently:

<i>The police</i>	<i>shot</i>	<i>the man</i>	<i>in the right arm.</i>
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The difference between the two sentences concerns the relationship between *the man* and the adverbial constructions *in the red cap* and *in the right arm* with respect to the verb *shot*: in the first sentence the second cut is between *shot* and *the man* while in the second sentence it is between *the man* and *the right arm*. In traditional terms, in the first sentence *in the red cap* is an Attribute to *the man* while in the second sentence *in the right arm* is an Adverbial of Place. So far so good. But how can we show different structure in the case of *the love of God*? Traditionalists would say that *God* may be treated in two ways: it may have a subjective and an objective function. The structuralists' immediate constituent method is powerless here. However, the transformational method copes with the ambiguity easily:

The love of God → 1. *X loves God.*
 2. *God loves X.*

Returning to IC analysis, we must say that it only identifies syntactic relations, or dependencies: it does not fill the relations with content. Traditional sentence analysis into sentence parts, or into the syntactic functions of the sentence constituents, seems to be more acceptable since it does not ignore syntactic function.

Structuralists rejected the traditional method of the classification of words into word-classes and replaced it by the distributional method, or, roughly speaking, the positional method. As there are few forms in English, the behavior of a word in the context becomes a crucial factor in classifying words. But the

distribution of a word is practically the same as the function of a word in a sentence. This suggests that the traditionalist also makes use of the same principle as the structuralist. Despite the similarities, structural grammar has an advantage over traditional grammar in being more rigorous as concerns linguistic analysis.

Giving an overall evaluation of structural grammar, it is necessary to point out that it pays special attention to analysis, to the distinction of structural units (phonemes, morphemes, lexemes, sentences). Structuralists were too preoccupied with the sequence of phoneme-to-sentence and failed to see the interrelationships outside the sentence. Last but not least, structural grammarians spent all the energies in gathering more and more examples without trying to create an all-encompassing theory of language that “would, as theories must, see first the whole and then the parts” (D. Bolinger, op. cit., 201).

3. Transformational-Generative Grammar

Transformational-generative grammar does not teach us how to analyse sentences; it teaches us how sentences are generated in a language. Neither traditional nor structural grammar was interested in the generation of sentences. What is more, the recognition of two types of structure – *surface* and *deep* – makes it possible to relate all the sentences of a language and even different languages: sentences and languages which are quite different on the surface often show many similar features in their deep structures.

Transformational-generative grammar can account for any structural ambiguity by relating ambiguous constructions to two (or more than two) deep structures. Ambiguity is the result of the neutralization of the deep, or underlying, relations. Consider:

Hunting tigers can be dangerous.

This sentence can be related to two different deep structures:

DS (1) *Tigers* + pres. *hunt* + *X* + *Tigers* pres. *can be* + *dangerous*;

DS (1) *X* pres. *hunt* + *tigers* + *It* + pres. *can be* + *dangerous*.

As already mentioned, TG makes it possible to relate one sentence to another: sentences are related if they derive from the same deep structure:

DS *The manager* + past *wrote* + *the letter* →

The manager wrote the letter.

The letter was written by the manager.

Besides, TG can relate sentences to other structures: the structures *The letter written by the manager* and *the manager's having written the letter* are related through the same deep structure – *The manager past write* + *the letter*. However, if we apply the Harris model, we shall be able to derive more structures

from the same deep structure, for the Harris model, in contrast to the Chomskyan model, is 'more democratic' – it is not bound by the requirement that transformations should not change the meaning of the transforms. Thus the Harris model will derive all the structures derived by the Chomskyan model and others:

Did the manager write the letter?

The manager did not write the letter.

Who wrote the letter?

What did the manager write?

The writing of the letter by the manager.

For the manager to write the letter.

Because the manager wrote the letter, etc.

In view of this, the Harris model is more powerful: it can derive more structures from the kernel sentence. Besides, it is more simple. Being more simple, it is easier to use in the classroom. Transformations demonstrate the cohesiveness of language where simpler constructions are built into more and more intricate ones. The shortcoming of TG lies in its complexity. Besides, language is more complex than transformational grammarians thought it was: it contains structures that can only be described by a very sophisticated (intricate) formal apparatus which would render it useless in the classroom. Transformational grammar concentrates on *competence* and ignores *performance*, i.e. the actual use of linguistic structures, which suggests that the picture of a language presented by TG is one-sided.

Structural Features of Present – Day English

In the course of its development, English, as compared to Anglo-Saxon, its parent language, has changed beyond recognition: it has lost, with the exception of a few remains, most of its inflections. What used to be expressed by inflected noun forms is now expressed either by means of prepositions, i.e. lexically, or by a special position in the sentence or the word-combination, i.e. syntactically. The greatest changes of all can be seen in the adjective and the verb. The elaborate declension system of the adjective has completely disintegrated, and the adjective is now an invariable part of speech (not mentioning degrees of comparison). To quote B. Ilyish (1973:307), “the simplification of adjective morphology had to be ‘paid for’ by limitation of freedom in word order”. The verb has undergone radical changes as well: personal inflexions, with the exception of the singular 3rd person present tense inflexion, have been lost; new tense forms have come into being: present-day English now boasts of 16

tense forms against two in Anglo-Saxon. To innovations we should attribute the passive forms, the analytic forms of the subjunctive mood, and others. All these modifications have changed the structure of English: present-day English is generally described as an analytic language. This statement is not precise, for English is still in the process of development. We can still observe the struggle between the old and the new, i.e. between synthetic and analytic forms. At this stage, English is a predominantly analytic language.

The struggle between the old and the new can be seen in many areas of English. Consider, for instance, the formation of feminine nouns. Since the beginning of the 13th century, together with the decay of grammatical gender, English has gradually lost the unrestricted power of forming feminines by inflections and has replaced the morphological process by the syntactic, or analytic, process, i.e. by the addition of words denoting sex to the noun:

A visitor → a gentleman visitor

A servant → a woman servant

An employee → a female employee

A teacher → a male teacher

A cat → a she (lady) cat; a Tom-cat

The process of the replacement of old synthetic forms is also seen in the use of the forms *who/whom*. The inflected, or old, form *whom* is disappearing from the spoken language and being replaced by *who*. It is quite normal to say *I don't know who to invite*, though in the written language we still find *whom*. *Whom* seems to be unshakable in one position, viz. after a preposition. Cf.

To whom shall I give it? vs.

**To who shall I give it?*

I don't know for whom it is intended. vs.

**I don't know for who it is intended.*

In the spoken language, sentences with *whom* are not usually used; they occur with *who* and the prepositions *to*, *for*, *with* in sentence final position:

Who shall I give it to?

I don't know who it is intended for.

Analytic processes are also seen in the formation of the comparative and the superlative of adjectives, where forms with *-er* and *-est* are being replaced by forms with *more* and *most*, e.g. *commoner → more common*, *commonest → most common*. Other adjectives with *more* and *most* include *cloudy*, *fussy*, *cruel*, *quiet*, *subtle*, *clever*, *profound*, *simple*, and *pleasant*. The spread of *more* and *most* can be illustrated by forms like *more well-informed* and *most well-informed* or *more well-dressed* and *most well-dressed*, where people used to say *better-informed/ best-informed* and *better-dressed/ best-dressed*. *More* and *most*

are spreading even to monosyllabic adjectives: *crude* → *more crude, most crude*; *plain* → *more plain, most plain*; *keener* → *more keen, most keen*.

Analytic processes are also going on in the 'realm' of the verb. For example, the distinction formerly made between *shall* and *will* is being lost, and *will* is coming to be used instead of *shall* when the meaning intended is simply futurity (i.e. prediction):

I will be there.

We will do it.

The same can be said about *should* and *would*:

I would like to know.

We would like to know.

However, there are some co-texts where *should* cannot be replaced by *would*:

I insist that he should come with us.

I asked the man whether the boy should wait.

Should is being replaced by *would* in purpose clauses:

I lent him the book so that he should/would study the subject.

New auxiliaries are coming into existence, for instance, *get* and *want*. *Get* is used in forming a passive:

He got hurt. vs. *He was hurt.*

Suppose someone gets killed. vs. *Suppose someone is killed.*

He failed to get re-elected. vs. *He failed to be re-elected.*

Want is used in the spoken language to mean *ought to, must, or need*:

You want to be careful what you're doing.

You want to go to a doctor.

You want to take it easy.

Another analytic process that is going on in English concerns the use of the verb *have*. When *have* is a full verb (i.e. when it means possession), not an auxiliary, it forms its negative and interrogative constructions in two ways: 1) with the auxiliary *do* (e.g. *Do you have a car? He did not have a car.*) and 2) without the auxiliary *do* (e.g. *Have you a car? He hadn't a car.*) Under the circumstances, British English would often add *got*: *Have you got a car? He hadn't got a car.* The use of the auxiliary *do* in possessive constructions is due to American usage. When *have* means experience, only the analytic construction is used – in both American and British English:

I had difficulty breathing.

Special mention should be made of the analytic construction consisting of verb + verbal noun: *to have a look at, to give a ring, to make a mistake*. This is a construction that is gaining ground rather fast in present-day English. The

usefulness of the constructions becomes obvious when we compare them with the corresponding synthetic constructions:

A.

He looked at his watch. vs. *He had a look at his watch.*

He walked in the park. vs. *He had a walk in the park.*

He danced at a discotheque. vs. *He had a dance at a discotheque.*

B.

He had a bad dream. vs. **He dreamed badly.*

He made a terrible mistake. vs. **He mistook terribly.*

The comparison of the constructions shows that they 'come in handy' when we have to express the completion of the process and when we wish to modify the process in ways other than the synthetic form can be modified. In other words, the nominalized verb has more expressive possibilities than the corresponding verb.

The struggle between the old and the new is a perpetual process. The old forms will not give in so easily. Some of them, for instance, the old genitive seems to be strongly entrenched and even to be regaining lost territories. According to Charles Barber (1964), the old genitive has come into common use with nouns denoting inanimate entities. The scholar illustrates the statement by such constructions as *biography's charm*, *the record's imperfection*, *evil's power*, *criticism's standard*, *human nature's diversity*, *amendments to the game's laws*. The reason for this must lie in the simplicity and brevity of such constructions as compared to the corresponding analytic ones. To quote Barber, "This tendency for 's to replace *of* is a movement from the analytic to the synthetic: a syntactic form is being replaced by an inflexion" (op. cit. 133).

The inflexions that remain in English (the third person singular present tense inflection of the verb, the past tense inflection, the past participle inflection, the *-ing* inflection, the plural and genitive inflections of the noun, the nominative - accusative contrast in the personal pronouns (*we/us; he/him*), to quote Barber, "show little sign of erosion" (op. cit., 130). The remaining synthetic forms, however, cannot overshadow the general picture: English has come to rely more and more on function words (prepositions, auxiliary verbs) and word-order in expressing meaning.

By way of summing up, let us recall the analytic and synthetic forms characteristic of present-day English:

A. *Analytic forms*

A form is analytic if the grammatical meaning is realized by a grammatical word-morpheme, e.g. *John has done his work*, where the grammatical meaning of the form *has done* is expressed by the grammatical word-morpheme *has*. In a

broad treatment of analytic constructions, the grammatical meaning may be expressed by words which are not devoid of their lexical meaning, e.g. *the man of property* or *we work*, where the grammatical meanings of subordination (or modification) and person are realized lexically by the preposition *of* and the pronoun *we*, respectively.

To grammatical word-morphemes we can assign the following: *have* (*John has done the work* or *John had a dream*), *be* (*The work is being finished*), *do* (*He does not love her*). The status of *shall* and *will* is controversial: there is a view that *shall* and *will* have a lexical meaning. The status of such constructions as *more beautiful* and *most beautiful* is controversial, too: it is not clear whether *more* and *most* are adverbs, i.e. notional words, or grammatical word-morphemes.

B. Synthetic forms

Present-day English possesses four synthetic forms, i.e. forms which are an inseparable part of the word. There are three types of such forms in English:

1) outer forms, or outer inflexions, i.e. *book + s → books*; *clever + er → cleverer*; *clever + est → cleverest*; *walk + s → walks*; *walk + ed → walked*; *walk + ing → walking*.

2) inner forms, or inner inflexions (sound alternation), e.g. *mouse → mice*; *man → men*; *write → wrote → written*; *sing → sang → sung*.

Sound alternations do not play a significant role in Modern English; their role has been greatly reduced as compared to Old English (B. Ilyish, 1971: 25).

3) suppletive forms, e.g. *good → better → best*; *bad → worse → worst*; *go → went*; *I → me, mine*; *we → us, our*.

In a broad treatment, suppletion – a morphological process in which one form wholly replaces another – is of two types: *full* and *partial*. For example, *went* illustrates full suppletion (*go* vs. *went*) while *thought* illustrates partial suppletion (*think* vs. *thought*)¹. *Go* and *went*, *think* and *thought* are considered as two forms of the same words because in the vast majority of verbs the past tense is derived from the same stem as the present or infinitive. “It is against this background that the units *go* and *went* come to be considered as forms of one word, formed from different stems” (B. Ilyish, op. cit., 26). In Modern English suppletive forms constitute a very insignificant element. Yet they present very widely used words.

It will be obvious that these synthetic forms are not productive in present-day English. This is especially true of inner and suppletive forms. The low productivity of the forms is compensated for by their universality: one and the same grammatical element is often employed to build different grammatical forms:

¹ Traditionally, however, *thought* is not a suppletive form of *think*; *thought* derives from *think* by vowel change, or gradation.

-s:

a horse + s → horses; a horse + 's → a horse's; he drink + s → he drinks; a drink + s → drinks;

-ed:

John work + ed → John worked; work + ed → worked (past participle); close + ed → closed (past participle or adjective);

-ing:

John works → John is working (present participle); John's work is boring (adjective); John's working in the office will only ruin him (a gerund).

Grammatical Classes of Words

The Principles of Classification as Used by Prescriptive Grammarians

Prescriptive grammarians, who treated Latin as an ideal language, described English in terms of Latin forms and Latin grammatical constraints. As already shown, a noun, for instance, was presented in the form of the Latin noun paradigm (Rendal L. Whitman, 1975:5):

Nominative: *the house*

Genitive: *of the house*

Dative: *to the house*

Accusative: *the house*

Ablative: *in, at, by, or from the house*

Vocative: *O house*

Similar to Latin, words in English were divided into declinables (*nouns, adjectives, pronouns, verbs, participles*) and indeclinables (*adverbs, prepositions, conjunctions, interjections, articles*). The number of parts of speech varied from author to author: in early grammars nouns and adjectives formed one part of speech; later they came to be treated as two different parts of speech. The same applies to participles, which were either a separate part of speech or part of the verb. The article was first classed with the adjective. Later it was given the status of a part of speech and toward the end of the 19th century the article was integrated into the adjective. The underlying principle of classification was *form*, which, as can be seen from their treatment of the English noun, was not only morphologic but also syntactic, i.e. if it was form in Latin, it had to be form in English.

The Principles of Classification as Used by Non-Structural Descriptive Grammarians

Non-structural descriptive grammarians adopted the system of parts of speech worked out by prescriptivists and elaborated it further. Henry Sweet (1892:1), similar to his predecessors, divided words into *declinable* and *indeclinable*. To declinables he attributed *noun-words* (noun, noun-pronoun, noun-numeral, infinitive, gerund), *adjective-words* (adjective, adjective-pronoun, adjective-numeral, participle), *verb* (finite verb), *verbals* (infinitive, gerund, participle) and to indeclinables (particles), *adverb*, *preposition*, *conjunction*, *interjection*. Henry Sweet speaks of three principles of classification: *form*, *meaning*, and *function*. However, the results of his classification reveal a considerable divergence between theory and practice: the division of the parts of speech into declinable and indeclinable is a division based on form. Only within the class can we see the operation of the principle of function.

Otto Jespersen, another noted descriptivist, also speaks of three principles of classification: “In my opinion everything should be kept in view, form, function and meaning...” (O Jespersen, 1935:91). On the basis of the three criteria, the scholar distinguishes the following parts of speech: *substantives*, *adjectives*, *pronouns*, *verbs*, and *particles* (adverbs, prepositions, conjunctions, interjections). Otto Jespersen’s system is a further elaboration of Henry Sweet’s system. Unlike Henry Sweet, Otto Jespersen separates nouns (which he calls substantives) from noun-words, a class of words distinguished on the basis of function – a noun word is a word that can function as a noun; he also distinguishes pronouns as a separate part of speech, thus isolating them from Henry Sweet’s noun-words and adjective-words. Both scholars treat the verb alike: to Henry Sweet the verb includes primarily finite forms: he doubts as to the inclusion of non-finites in the verb. Although the scholar speaks of form, function and meaning, in practice he gives preference to form.

The Principles of Classification as Used by Structural Descriptive Grammarians

The traditional classification of words into parts of speech was rejected by structural grammarians who bitterly criticized it from two points. First, in their opinion, traditional grammar relies heavily on the most subjective element in language, meaning. The other is that it uses different criteria of classification: it distinguishes the noun, the verb and the interjection on the basis of meaning; the adjective, the adverb, the pronoun, and the conjunction, on the basis of function, and the preposition, partly on function and partly on form.

One of the noted representatives of American structuralism, Charles Fries (1956), rejected the traditional principle of classification of words into parts of speech replacing it with the methods of distributional analysis and substitution. Words that exhibit the same distribution (which is the set of contexts, i.e. immediate linguistic environments, in which a word can appear) belong to the same class. Roughly speaking, the distribution of a word is the position of a word in the sentence. To classify the words of English, Charles Fries used three sentences called substitution *frames*. He thought that the positions, or the slots, in the sentences were sufficient for the purpose of the classification of all the words of the English language.

Frame A

The concert was good.

Frame B

The clerk remembered the tax.

Frame C

The team went there.

The position discussed first is that of the word *concert*. Words that can substitute for *concert* (e.g. *food, coffee, taste*, etc.) are Class 1 words. The same holds good for words that can substitute for *clerk, tax* and *team* – these are typical positions of Class 1 words. The next important position is that of *was, remembered* and *went*; words that can substitute for them are called Class 2 words. The next position is that of *good*. Words that can substitute for *good* are Class 3 words. The last position is that of *there*; words that can fill this position are called Class 4 words. According to the scholar, these four parts of speech contain about 67 per cent of the total instances of the vocabulary. He also distinguishes 15 groups of function words set up by the same process of substitution but on different patterns. These function words (numbering 154 in all) make up a third of the recorded material. Charles Fries does not use the traditional terminology. To understand his function words better, we shall use, where possible, their traditional names:

Group A words (determiners); *Group B* (modal verbs); *Group C* (the negative particle “not”); *Group D* (adverbs of degree); *Group E* (coordinating conjunctions); *Group F* (prepositions); *Group G* (the auxiliary verb “to”); *Group H* (the introductory “there”); *Group I* (interrogative pronouns and adverbs); *Group J* (subordinating conjunctions); *Group K* (interjections); *Group L* (the words “yes” and “no”); *Group M* (the so-called attention-giving signals: look, say, listen); *Group N* (the word “please”); *Group O* (the forms “let us”, “lets” in request sentences).

It will be obvious that in classifying words into word-classes Charles Fries

in fact used the principle of function, or combinability (the position of a word in the sentence is the syntactic function of word). Being a structuralist, he would not speak of function: function is meaning while position is not.

His classification is not beyond criticism. First, not all relevant positions were tested. Class 3 words are said to be used in the position of *good* (Frame A). But the most typical position of these words is before Class 1 words. If this position had been used by the scholar, such words as *woolen, wooden, golden*, etc. (i.e. relative adjectives) would have found their place in the classification. But if he had done it, the classification would have collapsed, for their position can be filled by other word-classes: nouns, numerals, pronouns. Second, his functional classes are very much 'splintered', i.e. broken into small groups. This is good for practice but bad for theory, for theoretical grammar is more interested in uniting linguistic facts than in separating them. Third, being deprived of meaning, his word-classes are "faceless", i.e. they have no character. No wonder, other structuralists deemed it necessary to return to traditional terminology and to use the criterion of form and, additionally, position¹. Such a linguist is Nelson Francis (1958). According to the scholar, "we must make our classification on the basis of form, not meaning". By this he means the five signals of structural meaning: *word order, prosody, function words, inflections, and derivational contrasts*. The same line of approach can be observed in J. Sledd's (1959) and H. A. Gleason's (1965) works. J. Sledd distinguishes *inflectional* (noun, pronoun, verb, adjective, adverb) and *positional word-classes* (nominals, verbals, adjectivals, adverbials, determiners, prepositions, conjunctions, relatives, interrogatives, intensive-reflexives, auxiliaries, adverbials of degree). H. A. Gleason speaks of *paradigmatic classes*, i.e. words having formal features (noun, pronoun, verb, adjective) and *syntactic classes* (i.e. words occurring in the same or comparable environments). Not only do inflectional and paradigmatic classes coincide in the two works; positional and syntactic classes coincide, too (nominals, verbals, adjectivals, adverbials, determiners, prepositions, conjunctions, relatives, interrogatives, intensive-reflexives, auxiliaries, and adverbials of degree). By the terms *nominal, verbal, adjectival* and *adverbial* the linguists mean word-classes which lack a paradigm²

¹ The return to traditional terminology was a return to meaning, for the parts of speech, as you already know, are traditionally defined notionally and functionally. As pointed out by Baxter Hathaway (1967:14), "the structuralist's approach has always been particularly useful for the description of exotic languages, where the avoidance of certain pre-conceptions about meaning is important. The carry-over of the same machinery to the description of well-known languages is unduly cumbersome, except as a laboratory check on the rightness of basic assumptions".

² A paradigm is the forms of a given word-class arranged systematically according to their grammatical features.

but which are capable of being used in the same linguistic environment as the corresponding paradigmatic classes. For instance, the word *beautiful* is an adjective but at the same time it can be used as a noun; it is not a true noun, it is a nounal only, or the word *stone* is a noun, but it can be used as an adjective and is then an adjectival. Consider:

Mary is beautiful. vs. *Mary is interested in the beautiful.*
The wall was made of stone. vs. *The stone wall was high.*

The Classification of Words in Post-Structural Traditional Grammar

Transformational generative grammarians did not concern themselves with classification problems at all: they focused on the generation of potential sentences. The TG theorists rejected the structuralists' purely empirical approach to language which manifested itself by the rejection of description and the "primary linguistic data" (i.e. a corpus of actually occurring structures) as the starting point. By the advent of TG structural linguistics had already exhausted itself, and linguists gradually returned to the problems of synthesis, i.e. to the account of how speakers produce sentences (competence). In a way, TG theorists contributed to the rehabilitation of traditional linguistics by arguing that TG owes more to traditional grammar than to structural grammar, which was of course an exaggeration whose aim was to emphasize the fact that TG had its origins in traditional and universal grammar. However, traditional grammarians' work was greatly overshadowed by the work being done by transformational-generative grammarians. This is particularly true of linguists living in the USA and other English-speaking countries. It was only in Europe that traditional linguists calmly continued to examine their problems.

In post-structural linguistics parts of speech are discriminated on the basis of three criteria: *semantic*, *formal* and *functional*. The lexemes of a part of speech are united by their meaning. This meaning is a category-forming one. Therefore, it is referred to as categorical meaning. Lexemes that have the meaning of substance or thingness are nouns, those having the meaning of property are adjectives; those having the meaning of process are verbs; those having the meaning of circumstantial property are adverbs. As categorical meaning is derived from lexemes, it is often called lexico-grammatical meaning. In the surface, lexico-grammatical meaning finds outward expression. For instance, the meaning of substance, or thingness, is realized by the following lexico-grammatical morphemes: *-er*; *-ist*; *-ness*; *-ship*; *-ment*. It is also realized by specific grammatical forms constituting the

grammatical categories of number and case. These outward features are a formal criterion of classification. The functional criterion concerns the syntactic role of a word in the sentence.

In accordance with the said criteria, we can classify the words of the English language into *notional* and *functional*. To the notional parts of speech belong *the noun, the adjective, the numeral¹, the verb, and the adverb*. To the functional parts of speech belong *the article, the pronoun, the preposition, the conjunction, the particle, the modal words, and the interjection*. The notional parts of speech present open classes while the functional parts of speech present closed classes, i.e. the number of items constituting the notional word-classes is not limited while the number of items constituting the functional word-classes is limited and can be given by the list. The contrast *notional word-classes vs. functional word-classes* do not suggest that functional word-classes are devoid of content. As suggested by B.Khaimovich and B.Rogovskaya (1967:40), function words can be called semi-notional. This distinction is to some extent reflected in the phenomenon of substitution: notional words usually have substitutes, e.g.:

I saw a cat in the street. It was shivering with cold.

He gave me an interesting book. vs. He gave me this book.

John has ten friends. vs. John has many friends.

He speaks English better than you do.

She lay down. Her eyes closed. It was thus (i.e. in this manner) that Robert saw her.

The lexical meaning of functional words is usually so weak and general that these words can hardly be replaced by substitutes, words whose meaning is even more general. Function words have other roles in the language: their duty is to 'service' the notional words by restricting the reference of a notional word (the article), by substituting for them (the pronoun), by expressing a relation between notional words or predications (the preposition and the conjunction), by intensifying the meaning of a notional word (the particle). As for the modal words and interjections, they function as restricters of predications: modal words help to remove the directness of a statement or express the presence or absence of an obligation and interjections serve to colour our statement emotionally. Consider a few examples:

¹ The numeral should be best treated as a functional part of speech. Its function is to restrict, or actualize, the noun by revealing its numeric structure. Similar to the other functional classes, the numeral cannot build word combinations of its own, i.e. it cannot be modified, or restricted, by other parts of speech. Cf. *an extremely good car vs. the two students*, where *the* modifies *students*, not the numeral *two*. However, traditionally the numeral is treated as a notional part of speech.

A

The dog is man's best friend (the dog refers to the whole class).
I need a dog (a dog refers to an unspecified member of the class).
I saw a dog running across the street (a dog refers to a specific, i.e. concrete member of the class).
The dog came to our house again (the dog refers to a particular member of the class: you know what dog I'm talking about).

B

He was a member of a famous golf club.
I came here 1972 and I have lived here ever since.

C

Even Anthony enjoyed it.
The video is to be used for teaching purposes only.

D

There are perhaps fifty women here.
If nothing is done, there will certainly be an economic crisis.

E

"He refused to marry her the next day!" "Oh!" said Scarlett, her hopes dashed (M. Mitchell).
Oh dear, I'm late.

It will be obvious that the system of English parts of speech as presented here is not the only one possible. All depends on which feature we want to base our classification. So, for instance, if the classifying criterion is the variability of a form, we shall have to unite prepositions, conjunctions, interjections and particles into one class (cf. H. Sweet's and O. Jespersen's classifications). If we classify words in accordance with the criterion of meaning, we shall distinguish only four word-classes: nouns, adjectives, verbs and adverbs. Besides, linguists do not agree on the number of features needed to distinguish a part of speech. So, for instance, besides the traditional parts of speech, some linguists distinguish the *stative* (I. Vinocurova, 1954; B. Ilyish, 1971; B. Khaimovich and B. Rogovskaya, 1967) and *response words* (B. Khaimovich and B. Rogovskaya)¹.

Of all the parts of speech, the noun and the verb are the most important: they form the nucleus of the sentence, i.e. a subject-predicate structure. However, of the two parts of speech, the central role in the sentence is played by the verb: it is 'responsible' for both its meaning and structure. Consider the verb *break*. The verb expresses a 'doing' situation. This type of situation

¹ We will return to the problem of the stative in the section of the adjective.

typically includes the following obligatory participants: *Agent, Affected (Patient): Peter (Agent) broke (Process) the window (Affected)*. Thus the meaning of this sentence is the situation as represented by the Agent *Peter*, the Process *broke* and the Affected *the window*. Syntactically, the Agent here is the *Subject*, the Process the *Predicate* and the Affected the *Objective Complement*. It should be stressed, however, that the number of constituents in the semantic structure and the syntactic structure may not coincide: the context and the paradigmatic properties of a linguistic unit may render the use of a constituent redundant.

Cf. *Who broke the window? Peter vs. (You) get out of here!*

The verb does not only shape the semantic and syntactic structures but also expresses grammatical information, without which the sentence would only have a propositional structure.

Cf. *Peter broke the window (sentence) - Peter + break + the window (proposition)*.

The grammatical information which turns a proposition into a sentence is: *person, number, tense, aspect, voice, mood, order*. We should not underestimate the role of the noun: in the semantic (propositional) structure the noun performs the role of a participant; in the syntactic structure the noun is a constituent. In other words, in both types of structure the noun serves as a building-block. Although it is the verb that is responsible for the form of the sentence, the noun makes its own contribution: it determines the person and the number of the verb: *The student is in the lecture-room vs. The students are in the lecture room*.

The remaining notional parts of speech – the *adjective*, the *numeral* and the *adverb* – are satellites of the noun (adjective, numeral) and the verb (adverb): they serve as their restricters, or concretisers. As for the functional parts of speech, some serve as satellites of the noun (*article, pronoun, preposition*), others serve as satellites of the verb (*modal words, interjections*). Some functional parts of speech – the *conjunction*, the *particle* – serve two masters – the *noun* and the *verb*.

The Noun

The noun is one of the most important parts of speech: its arrangement with the verb helps to express a predication, the core of the sentence. As already indicated, the categorical meaning of the noun is ‘substance’ or ‘thingness’. As a part of speech, the noun is characterized by a set of formal features, or markers.

- a) word-building affixes such as *-ment, -tion, -sion, -age, -al, -ance/-ence, - (e)ry, -ure*, etc. E.g. *engagement, destruction, marriage, arrival, allowance, persistence, bribery, enclosure*;
- b) the categories of number, case, gender, and determination (restriction).

It is also characterized by the syntactic functions it performs in the sentence. Nouns may function not only in the core of the sentence, i.e. as *Subject*, but also outside the core of the sentence - as *Objective* and *subjective Complements* and *Adjuncts*. Consider:

The old woman is resting (Subject).

Please give *that man some money* (Objective Complement).

Washington was *the first President* of the United States (Subjective Non-circumstantial Complement).

Mary lives *in London* (Subjective Circumstantial Complement).

Mary is working *in London* (Circumstantial Adjunct).

The use of nouns as adjuncts of nouns is peculiar to English; most such adjuncts are singular in form, but some may be plural, e.g. *student activities* (not**students activities*), *women doctors*. Many such structures are merely set phrases that have been established by usage. New adjunct structures are constantly being created because of the increasing need for the names for new entities. Such structures are very common in technical, academic, and newspaper writing (Marcella Frank, 1972:11). As pointed out by M. Blokh (1983:50–51), the status of the structures has presented a big problem for many scholars: are they compounds or free word-combinations? This is a problem of English, a language in which compounds may not differ formally from free word-combinations. Cf. *bathroom* (a compound) vs. *garbage dump* (a compound or a free word-combination)¹. To solve the problem, M. Blokh suggests applying the so-called isolability test. If the structure cannot be transformed into the corresponding prepositional structure, it is a compound, e.g. *bathroom* → **a room for a bath*. But: *a stone wall* → *a wall of stone* (a free word combination). Another test is the addition of a modifier: as the most essential feature of the compound is its indivisibility, the added modifier restricts the structure as a whole not one or the other part. E.g. *a big department store*, not *a big department store*. In speech, compounds and free word-combinations are distinguished by stress: compounds have even stress while free word-combinations have uneven stress (O. Jespersen, 1922:313; E. Kruisinga, 1932:5), e.g. *a 'department store* vs. *a 'stone 'wall*.

¹ Compounds are more likely to be hyphenated in British English than in American English.

The Semantic Classification of Nouns

We can distinguish two grammatically relevant classes of nouns: *countable* (discrete) and *uncountable*, or *mass* (indiscrete). Countables are subdivided into *proper* and *common* nouns. A proper noun is the name of a particular member of a class or of a set of particular members. Cf. *Smith* and *the Smiths*. The function of a proper noun, or name, is similar to the definite article – both are particularizers: *Smith* means *the man Smith / the Smith man*. However, there is a difference between *the man Smith / the Smith man* and *the man*: it concerns the mode of naming. In the first case, *man* is particularized through the use of another name (i.e. *Smith*) while in the second case *man* is particularized through the use of a grammatical word-morpheme, i.e. the definite article. The addition of a proper (i.e. particularizing) name renders the common name (i.e. *man*) semantically redundant and it is dropped in the surface structure. Another difference concerns the way the two modes of naming solve the problem of the uniqueness of reference: proper names are not always ‘proper’, i.e. they may refer to more than one individual. Consider:

A. *There’s an Alice on the phone.*

B. *Is that the Alice you told me about?*

A. *There’s a Broadway in almost every city.*

B. *The Broadway I’m referring to is in New York City.*

This suggests that proper names may function as common names. To put it otherwise, proper names, when they have no unique reference, behave like common names. Such ‘proper’ nouns need particularizing by the definite article, i.e. by a grammatical element that marks the entity denoted by the noun as unique. Proper names ‘proper’ have unique reference and do not need to be particularized by the definite article. The use of the definite article with such nouns can only be accounted for by the fact that as proper names they are still in the making. Consider: *London vs. the Thames / the river Thames* but not yet **Thames*. The knowledge of the said peculiarities of proper nouns is directly related to grammar, viz. to the category of determination and to the category of number. The relation of proper nouns to the category of case is not so clear: proper nouns denoting animate entities are used in the genitive while proper nouns denoting inanimate entities may or may not be used so.

A *common noun* is a common name, i.e. it is the name common to the class as a whole. Similar to proper nouns, common nouns form two grammatically relevant groups: *animate* and *inanimate*. Animate common nouns are further subdivided into person and non-person nouns. This subdivision of nouns constitutes the basis for the category of gender in English:

person nouns can be either *masculine or feminine*, while non-person nouns are *neuter*. Both types of countables – proper and common – serve as a basis for the category of number. The category of case is based on animate nouns.

Uncountable nouns, in contrast to countable nouns, do not denote individuals; they either denote substance as such (material nouns) or concepts, or ideas, which exist in our minds only (abstract nouns). Uncountables, naturally, cannot form the opposition of *singular vs. plural* within their class: they are singulars only. The other member of the opposition does not exist, or, to put it otherwise, is neutralized. Being singulars only (e.g. *Beauty is rare*), they do not behave in the same way as countables used in the singular: they do not take a numeral or the indefinite article, e.g. **one butter, *a butter, *one justice, *a justice*¹. They also take different quantifiers (i.e. a word which gives an indefinite indication of quantity, distinguished as such from a numeral, which gives a precise indication of quantity). Cf. *few children vs. little money; fewer children vs. less money*. Uncountables are not primary nouns: they are, as a rule, derived from countable nouns or from other parts of speech – mostly from verbs and adjectives. Let us first consider uncountables derived from countables²:

She likes lemon in her tea. vs. Here's a lemon.

I taste onion in the salad. vs. There's a large onion in the salad.

Do you like roast? vs. I'll buy a roast for dinner.

Would you like pie or cake? vs. She made a pie and a cake today.

This table is made of oak. vs. An oak is growing in the field.

However, some such nouns cannot be related to corresponding countables:

Would you like tea?

I smell gas.

Would you like cream in your coffee?

Such nouns as *tea, coffee, cream, whiskey, juice*, etc. are primaries, i.e. undervived. But they can function as countables:

Would you like a green tea or a black tea?

Would you rather have a Chinese tea?

Our Chinese teas are especially good.

This is a rich heavy tea.

Is it a gas or a liquid ?

¹ The indefinite article can be used with uncountables when we mean 'a type of or 'certain, some'. Consider: 1) *He has a courage* (i.e. a type of courage) *equaled by few of his contemporaries*. 2) *A knowledge of English* (i.e. a certain, some knowledge) *is needed for this job*.

² The examples were drawn from Danielson & Hayden (1973: 112, 114).

When used so, they denote a kind, type, or variety of the substance. These nouns can be turned into countables by using a container word:

He ordered a cup of tea / a glass of milk, whiskey, beer, juice, etc.

The container word may be dropped and we have *a tea, a milk, a whiskey, a beer, a juice*. However, such nouns are not countables proper since they function as units only: *a tea* means *a cup of tea*, i.e. *tea* remains uncountable despite the form. Cf. *a tea/two teas* vs. **He drinks many teas* instead of *He drinks a lot of tea*.

As already mentioned, the other type of uncountable is nouns derived from verbs and adjectives:

She married him. → Her marriage to him.

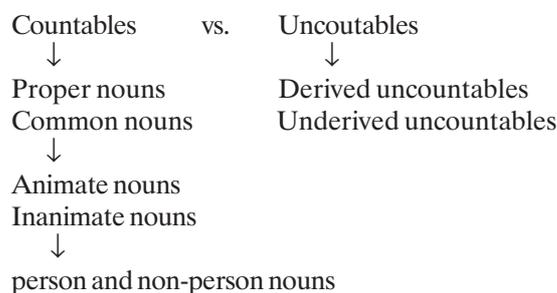
John loves money. → John's love of money.

She is kind. → Her kindness.

Rose was mad. → Rose's madness.

Similar to material uncountables, abstract uncountables can be turned into either partially countables (e.g. *He is sinking into a madness*) or full countables (e.g. *She moved with languor → Her movements*)¹. The noun *a madness* is similar in meaning to *a green tea* – both mean a type of the entity.

To sum up, we can distinguish the following grammatically relevant semantic classes of nouns:



The Grammatical Category of Number

First, what is a grammatical category? A grammatical category is linguistic meaning expressed by the opposition of mutually exclusive forms. The mutually exclusive, or opposed, forms must possess two types of features: *common* and *distinctive*. Consider, for example, the nouns *a book* and *books*. What is common to the two forms? Both forms denote discrete, or individualized, entities: *a book* means 'one book' while *books* mean 'one book + one book + one book...'. What

¹ For more information on the concretization of abstract nouns, see Laimutis Valeika (1988).

feature differentiates them? Number: *a book* refers to one individual book, while *books* refers to more than one – ‘oneness vs. non-oneness’. The category of number is, then, the opposition of the plural of the noun to the singular form of the noun. The plural form is the marked member of the opposition while the singular form is the unmarked member¹. The marked member of an opposition must have a marker in the surface structure. The markers of plurality are the inflection -(e)s [-z, -s, -iz]: *dog - dogs, clock - clocks, box - boxes*. The singular form has no material marker, it has a ‘zero’ inflection. The other, non-productive ways of marking plurality are: 1) internal vowel change in several relict forms (*man - men, woman - women, foot - feet, mouse - mice*, 2) the use of the archaic inflection -(e)n (*ox - oxen, child - children, cow - kine, brother - brethren*). Some words borrowed from Latin and Greek preserve their classical plural forms (*formula - formulae, phenomenon - phenomena, crisis - crises, criterion - criteria*, etc.). There is an increasing tendency for regular -s plurals to alternate with classical plurals, e.g. *memorandum - memoranda / memorandums; vertebra - vertebrae / vertebrae; vortex - vortices/vortexes; criterion - criteria / criterions; bureau - bureaux / bureaus; cactus - cacti / cactuses; index - indices / indexes; formula - formulae / formulas, antenna - antennae / antennas*, etc. The tendency to use the classical plural form is still strong in the language of science. The English form is preferred in fiction and spoken English (Gunnar Kiviväli, 1971:37). In some cases the plural form of the noun is homonymous (i.e. identical in form) with the singular form (*sheep - sheep; deer - deer; swine - swine; trout - trout; code - code; pike - pike; salmon - salmon; haddock - haddock; mackerel - mackerel; carp - carp; perch - perch; grouse - grouse; wildfowl - wildfowl; species - species; series - series; craft - craft; aircraft - aircraft*).

The category of number is based on countable nouns, i.e. nouns having numeric (discrete) structure. Uncountable nouns have no category of number, for they have quantitative (indiscrete) structure. Two classes of uncountables can be distinguished: *singularia tantum* (only singular) and *pluralia tantum* (only plural). M. Blokh (op. cit., 59) does not exclude the *singularia tantum* subclass from the category of number. He calls such forms *absolute singular forms* comparable to the ‘common’ singular of countable nouns.

The absolute singular² is characteristic of the names of abstract notions (*love, courage, beauty, cruelty*, etc.), the names of the branches of professional

¹ Marked means ‘having a differential, or distinctive, feature’, and unmarked means ‘lacking such a feature’. This opposition is generally called *privative*.

² The term *absolute singular* is a semantic category: it is applied to nouns which are only singular in meaning. The same holds for *absolute plural*, which is applied to nouns having a plural meaning only.

activity (*philology, linguistics, mathematics, pragmatics*), the names of materials (*steel, iron, water, gas*), the names of collective inanimate objects (*foliage, fruit, furniture*), the names of some diseases (*measles, mumps*).

As already indicated, some uncountables can be used in both singular and plural. To use M. Blokh's terminology, "in the form of the common singular with the common plural counterpart". When used so, they mean either different sorts of materials or a separate aspect, or a manifestation of the properties denoted by the uncountable noun. Consider:

She shouted with joy. vs. It was a joy to see her again. Who can resist the joys of spring?

Georgian tea is of high quality. vs. This is a Georgian tea. I am fond of Georgian tea.

Our Georgian teas are especially good.

We can actualize, or restrict, uncountable nouns by combining them with words that express discreteness: *a bit, a piece, an item, a sort of, etc*¹.

He took some paper and a few bits of wood and soon made a fire.

Are there any interesting items of news in the paper this morning?

They served a sort of coffee.

She offered me another beer (i.e. another serving of beer).

There were five different sorts of wine.

It will be noted that the absolute singular can also be used with countable nouns, i.e. countables can be turned into uncountables:

The refugees needed shelter. The baby does not like apple.

Man is mortal. We had chicken for lunch.

As for the absolute plural, it is characteristic of uncountable nouns which denote objects consisting of two halves (*trousers, jeans, scissors, tongs, spectacles, etc.*), nouns expressing some sort of collective meaning (*outskirts, clothes, earnings, contents, police, cattle, poultry, etc.*). Similar to absolute singulars, they can be actualized (individuated) by using words showing discreteness. Cf.

He bought a pair (two pairs) of trousers.

Several cases of measles were reported.

Special mention should be made of absolute, non-distributive plurals expressed by the so-called collective nouns. Consider:

This family is friendly. vs. This family are early risers.

The common, or correlative, plural of the same noun can be illustrated by the following:

Almost every family in the village has a man in the army. vs. There are twenty families in the village.

¹ For a full discussion of the problem, see Laimutis Valeika (1988).

The absolute singular and the absolute plural exhibit a linguistic process called *oppositional reduction*: the absolute singular means that its plural counterpart has been neutralized, and the absolute plural means that its singular counterpart has been neutralized.

Languages may differ with respect to the count/non-count distinction: what is countable in one language may be uncountable in another. In English, for instance, the basic noun for *dust*, *sand*, *wheat* and *grass* is a non-count noun denoting the substance, just like *water*. Cf. **one dust*, **one sand*, **one wheat* and **one grass*. In Lithuanian, however, these entities can be individuated: *dulkelė/dulkytė*, *smiltelė*, *kvietys*, *žolelė/žolytė/žolė*. If we want to talk about individual particles, we have to use appropriate words expressing discreteness: *a particle of dust*, *a grain of sand*, *an ear of wheat*, *a blade of grass*. According to John Payne and Rodney Huddleston (2002: 338), “if the particles are very small and non-significant, then the conceptualization is likely to focus on the substance”. Larger entities such as *peas*, *strawberries*, *potatoes* are individuated and lexicalised as countable nouns: *one pea*, *one strawberry*, *one potato – peas*, *strawberries*, *potatoes*. In Russian, however, these entities are generally conceptualized as non-countable nouns: *горох* ‘a quantity of peas’, *клубника* ‘a quantity of strawberries’, *картошка* ‘a quantity of potatoes’. Similar differences in lexicalisation can be found with concrete nouns denoting aggregates, and with abstract nouns. Cf. *furniture – baldas, baldai*; *information – informacija*, *viena informacija* vs. *мебель* but *одна информация*.

The Grammatical Category of Case

In present-day linguistics *case* is used in two senses: 1) *semantic*, or *logic*, and 2) *syntactic*. The semantic case concept was developed by C. J. Fillmore in the late 1960s. According to this theory, *case* is the semantic relation of the noun to the verb. E.g. In *I opened the door with the key* the cases of *I*, *the door* and *with the key* are respectively *Agent*, *Affected / Patient*, and *Instrumental*. Semantic cases may correspond to varying forms in the syntactic structure of the sentence. In English, they are marked by the order of words and the use of the preposition *with*, but in Lithuanian they would be marked by case endings: the *Nominative*, the *Accusative* and the *Instrumental*. The syntactic case concept dates back to the grammars of Ancient Greece and Ancient Rome. It is a case whose main role is to indicate a relationship between constituents. To put it otherwise, its role is to indicate a *construction* in syntax. Thus *genitive* is a case which marks one noun as dependent on another, e.g. *John’s car*.

The conception of case as a marker of a syntactic relation or a construction can be found in prescriptive, non-structural descriptive and structural

descriptive grammars. Prescriptivists spoke of the *nominative*, the *dative*, the *genitive*, the *accusative*, and the *ablative*.¹ H. Sweet's views (1925) rest on the syntactic conception of case: case to him is a syntactic relation that can be realized syntactically or morphologically. He speaks of *inflected* and *non-inflected* cases (the *genitive* vs. the *common* case). Non-inflected cases, according to the scholar, are equivalent to the *nominative*, *vocative*, *accusative*, and *dative* of inflected languages. O. Jespersen (1933) speaks of the *genitive* and the *common case*. But G. O. Curme (1935), who adheres to the syntactic conception of case, distinguishes four cases: *nominative*, *accusative*, *dative*, and *genitive*. G. Curme thinks that some prepositions have developed into inflectional particles, e.g. *the sun of the man*. Some grammarians (R. W. Pence (1947), H. Whitehall (1965), H. Shaw (1952)) give three cases in English - *nominative*, *genitive* (possessive) and *accusative* (objective). This three-case system, based on the analogy of the form of pronouns, remained extremely popular in the grammars of the 20th century, including some structural grammars (H. Whitehall). H. Whitehall, however, does not reflect the general situation in the school of structural grammar: structuralists at large recognize the existence of two cases - the *genitive* and the *common*.

Transformational - generative grammarians, who were interested in the generation of potential sentences, did not examine the problem of case in English: they accepted the two-case system without question. Those who adhered to the Harris model treated the genitive noun as a result of the nominalizing process (e.g. *John arrived* → *John's arrival*; *John has a hat* → *John's hat*); those who adhered to the Chomskyan model treated genitive nouns as primaries, i.e. underived. Only genitive nouns used in construction with the gerund were derived from corresponding deep structures, e.g. *John writes* → *John's writing*. The reason for this lies in the very conception of the model: transformations applied to the deep structure cannot change its meaning, or, to put it otherwise, only structures that preserve the same meaning are treated as transforms of the deep structure: verbal nouns and the corresponding verbs differ in meaning, while gerunds and the corresponding verbs do not.

However, the controversy over case is not over yet. Some linguists deny the existence of the category of case in the English noun (G. Vorontsova, 1960:180; B. Ilyish, 1971:47). G. Vorontsova treats the inflection 's as a *postposition*, i.e.

¹ The said cases reflected the syntactic function (position) of a noun: the nominative realized the function of the *Subject* or the *Predicative*; the genitive, the function of the *Attributive Adjunct* or the *Adverbial Adjunct*; the dative, the function of the *Indirect Objective Complement*; the accusative, the function of the *Direct Objective Complement* and the ablative, the function of the *Adverbial Adjunct*.

a kind of preposition. B.Ilyish thinks that 's has developed into a *particle* denoting possession. Other linguists, G.Curme, for instance, treats the prepositions *of* and *to* as "inflexional prepositions". To quote B.Ilyish (op. cit., 42), "... once we admit prepositions, or word order, or indeed any non-morphological means of expressing case, the number of cases is bound to grow indefinitely. Thus, if we admit that *of the pen* is a genitive case, and *to the pen* a dative case, there would seem no reason to deny that *with the pen* is an instrumental case, *in the pen* a locational case, etc., etc." M. Blokh recognizes a two-case system in English, but thinks that the element 's is no longer a typical inflexion; it has turned into a *particle* (1983:68). To sum up, we can distinguish the following case-theories in Anglistics: 1) the theory of positional cases, which identifies the syntactic position, or function, with case; 2) the theory of prepositional cases, which treats prepositional constructions as analytic cases; 3) the theory of limited cases, which recognizes a two-case system in English; 4) the theory of 'null' case, which argues that English has completely lost the category of case.

We adhere to the view that English does possess the category of case, which is represented by the opposition of the two forms - the *genitive* vs. the *non-genitive*, or the *common*. The marked member of the opposition is the genitive and the unmarked the common: both members express a relation - the genitive expresses a specific relation (the relation of possession in the wide meaning of the word) while the common case expresses a wide range of relations including the relation of possession, e.g. *Kennedy's house* vs. *the Kennedy house*. While recognizing the existence of the genitive case, we wish to say that the English genitive is not a classical case. Its peculiarities are:

- 1) the inflection -'s is but loosely connected with the noun (e.g. *the Queen of England's daughter*; *the man I met yesterday's son*);
- 2) genitive constructions are paralleled by corresponding prepositional constructions (e.g. *Shakespeare's works* vs. *the works of Shakespeare*);
- 3) the use of the genitive is mainly limited to nouns denoting living beings;
- 4) the inflection -'s is used both in the singular and in the plural (e.g. *a boy's bicycle* vs. *the boys' bicycles*), which is not typical of case inflexions.

The said peculiarities are often presented as facts demonstrating that English has already lost the morphological case. However, these are only specific facts, i.e. they do not reflect the general situation. According to the data obtained by B. Khaimovich and B. Rogovskaya (op.cit., 64), the -'s morpheme is mostly attached to individual nouns, not noun groups, to 96 per cent of the collected examples. Second, the possibilities of the replacement of a genitive-noun construction with the corresponding

prepositional construction can only be treated as stylistic differentiation - the standard construction is the one with the genitive and its stylistic variant is the prepositional construction: the genitive noun is grammatically more integrated in the head-noun than its counterpart in the prepositional construction. As a result, the construction *the work of Shakespeare* makes it possible to give greater prominence to the adjunct *Shakespeare*. As to the semantic limitation, English does not seem to observe it very strictly: we can come across such constructions as *the biography's charm*, *the record's imperfection*, *human nature's diversity*, etc. Only the fourth peculiarity deserves more serious attention: in inflected languages, such as Lithuanian, we find different case inflexions in the singular and in the plural, e.g. *berniuko dviratis* vs. *berniukų dviračiai*. This would suggest that the English inflection 's is not a typical case inflection. However, we should not use in flected languages as a standard: 'separable' inflections are also known in other languages – Moldavian, for instance (V. J. Plotkin, 1975:30).

The genitive in English expresses a wide range of meanings. Two large groups of genitive constructions can be distinguished: *non-descriptive genitive constructions* and *descriptive genitive constructions*. The noun can be used in two functions: it can refer to a specific (i.e. concrete, occurring in a real situation) entity or to a non-specific (i.e. abstract, occurring in a generalized situation) entity:

The children's room vs. *Children's room*.

The construction *the children's room* is ambiguous, for it may be interpreted in two ways: the noun *children* may refer either to specific or non-specific children. The ambiguity can be demonstrated by the IC method:

The / children's room (descriptive genitive, cf. Russ. *детская комната*) vs.

The children's / room (non-descriptive genitive, cf. Russ. *комната детей*).

The descriptive genitive construction is similar in meaning to the corresponding common-case construction. Cf. *a cow's house* vs. *a cow house*. The difference concerns the stylistic aspects of the two constructions: the genitive noun expresses a complex of images, the very substance of the thing while the common noun, functioning as an adjective, performs a labeling function. Cf. Lith. *Vaikų batai* vs. *Vaikiški batai*. It should be noted that not all non-descriptive genitive constructions can be paralleled by the corresponding descriptive ones: Consider: the people's houses.¹

Structurally, the genitive construction consists of two parts: *Adjunct + Head-noun*. In other words, it is a structure of modification: the genitive noun

¹ *People* will be conceived as referring to specific individuals rather than to non-specific, or generic, individuals. Ch. Lith. **Žmoniški namai* vs. *žmonių namai*.

serves as a modifier of the other noun. Between the Adjunct and the Head-noun there obtain the following semantic relations, the actual content of which being determined by the semantic properties of the sentence the construction derives from:

- 1) *Possessor + Possessed*, e.g. *Jane's doll; Peter's hand; John's sister*. The three constructions illustrate two types of possession: *alienable* (*Jane's doll*) and *inalienable* (*Peter's hands; John's sister*);
- 2) *Carrier + Attribute*, e.g. *Mary's vanity*;
- 3) *Agent + Process*, e.g. *the President's arrival*;
- 4) *Patient + Process*, e.g. *John's trial*;
- 5) *Agent + Effected (Result)*, e.g. *Smith's novel*;
- 6) *Circumstantial attribute + Carrier*, e.g. *an hour's delay*;
- 7) *Circumstance + Effected*, e.g. *yesterday's newspapers*.

All these constructions derive from the corresponding semantic sentence types¹. Construction (1), traditionally called the genitive of possession, is derived from a relative sentence of possession: *Jane has a doll* → *Jane's doll*; construction (2), the genitive of quality is also derived from a relative sentence: *Mary is vain* → *Mary's vanity*; construction (3), the subjective genitive is derived from a 'doing' sentence: *the President has arrived* → *the President's arrival*; construction (4) derives from a 'doing' sentence, too, but it may be also related to a 'happening' sentence: *They tried John* → *John's trial*; *The King died* → *The King's death*; construction (5), the genitive of authorship is derived from a 'doing' sentence: *Smith wrote a novel* → *Smith's novel*; construction (6), the adverbial genitive is derived from a relative sentence: *The delay lasted an hour* → *an hour's delay*; and construction (7), the adverbial genitive is derivationally related to a 'doing' sentence: *They published the newspapers yesterday* → *yesterday's newspapers*.

The Category of Gender

Gender in inflected languages is a grammatical category dividing nouns into classes for grammatical purposes, viz. for declension, agreement, pronoun reference. In Old English nouns were divided into *masculine*, *feminine*, and *neuter*: *stan* (stone), *duru* (door) and *reced* (house). Formal, or grammatical, gender disappeared with the loss of inflections. The category of gender in modern English is inherently semantic, i.e. it divides nouns into *masculine* (nouns denoting person males), *feminine* (nouns denoting person females), and *neuter* (nouns denoting non-persons). Of the said functions of gender,

¹ Semantic sentence-types are discussed in detail in Laimutis Valeika (1998).

only the last function - pronominal concord - has been preserved in modern English: the category of gender is expressed now mostly by “the obligatory correlation with the personal pronouns of third person” and it is based on the opposition of *person nouns* vs. *non-person nouns* (M. Blokh, op. cit., 53).¹ Persons are either masculine or feminine while non-person nouns are neuter. Speaking of person nouns, the strong (marked) member of the opposition is the feminine member; the weak (unmarked) member of the opposition is the masculine member. The common meaning, or the common semantic feature, is the meaning of *person*, the distinctive meaning is that of sex: masculine nouns are characterized negatively as *non-female persons* while feminine nouns as *female persons*. As already indicated, the term *unmarked* suggests greater generality: when we do not know the sex or when we are indifferent to it, we generally use the masculine gender, e.g.

If anybody calls, tell him I'm out.

In the cited example, the pronoun *him* is not a marker of masculine gender: *anybody* signifies both masculine and feminine gender at the same time. In this respect it is similar to the pronoun *they*: *Jane and Peter* → *They came*. This usage of the pronouns *he* and *they* demonstrates the linguistic process of *gender neutralization*, and the said pronouns can be called *gender neutralizers*.

The sentence *If anybody calls, tell him I'm out* is representative of formal English. In informal English, *him* will be generally replaced either by *they* or by the *he* or *she* construction:

If anybody calls, tell them I'm out.

If anybody calls, tell him or her I 'm out.

He has traditionally been regarded as characteristic of relatively formal style. To quote John Payne and Rodney Huddleston (2002: 492), “The issue of the choice between *he* and *they* has concerned writers on usage for some 200 years, but since this use of *he* represents one of the most obvious and central cases of sexism in language, the matter has received much more widespread attention since the early 1980s in the context of social changes in the status of women... The strong and persuasive criticisms that have been made of sex-neutral *he* by supporters of the feminist movement have led to a marked reduction in its use”. To avoid the sexist bias of *he*, the speakers or writers of English use the disjunctive coordinative construction *he* or *she*, which is more common in relatively formal style, but can also be found in informal conversation. It is regarded as somewhat clumsy. A relatively recent strategy is the use of (s)*he*, *s/he*, *he/she* in written texts.

¹ The affixes *-er* / *-or*, *-ess*, *-ine*, *-ix*, *-ette* are no longer productive in English.

The use of *they* with a singular antecedent goes back to Middle English. It is very common in informal style, and with the decline of the use of the sex-neutral *he* it has spread to other styles.

We can observe another relevant linguistic process: the process of *depersonalization* and *personification*. Consider:

The baby is learning to walk, but it is still unsteady.

The noun *baby* is treated here as a non-person, i.e. *baby* is depersonified. On the other hand, the use of *it* can also be interpreted as gender neutralization: *baby* → *he/she* → *it*, where *it* includes both genders. To give just another example of depersonification:

Four schoolboys during a break are talking about their new teacher:

“Well, what do you think of it?”

“Looks as if it won’t stand any rot” (Andrè Joly, 1975:260).

The pronoun *it* refers to the new teacher who may be a female or a male. *It* implies contempt or disparagement. But its main function is to exclude the referent from the sphere of humanity (Andrè Joly, op. cit., 260). *It* may also be used affectionately:

Mother is talking to her dearly loved daughter:

“What’s the matter, sweet one? Is it worrying itself over that letter?”

(Andrè Joly, op. cit., 254)

As for non-persons, they present two oppositions: living beings and non-living beings. They are of neuter gender, no matter which subclass they belong to. But they can be subjected to the personification process, and when personified, i.e. treated as persons, they may be either masculine or feminine: *a cat* → *he* or *she*. It will be remembered that the sex of an animal is not relevant grammatically, i.e. the noun may refer to a female or to a male, yet it will be treated as being neuter. E.g. *bull* → *calf*; *cow* *calf* → *it*; *Tom-cat* → *it*; *lady-cat* → *it*. This goes to say that sex and gender are different categories in non-person animate nouns; only in person nouns they are, as a rule, mutually related, e.g. *woman* → *she*; *a boy-friend* → *he*; *a washer-man* → *he*; *a waiter* → *he*; *a waitress* → *she*. But: *a baby* → *she*, *he*, *it*. These examples illustrate three ways of expressing sex in English: lexical (*a woman*), morphological (*a waitress*), and syntactical (*a boy-friend*). Personification does not only concern living beings; it may also affect non-living beings. In literary English *he* sometimes refers to *sun*, *river*, *mountain*, *oak*, *love*, *death*, *time*, *war*, etc.; *she* correlates with *boat*, *ship*, *engine*, *train*, *balloon*, *aeroplane*, *moon*, *sea*, *earth*, *country*, *city*, *the church*, *Nature*, *science*, *Liberty*, *mercy*, *peace*. According to Andrè Joly, the choice of gender with non-living beings is mostly determined by the capacity of an entity to exert force: entities of major power are masculine and entities of minor power are feminine.

The Category of Determination

The term *determination*, as used here, means the actualization of the functions (semantic, grammatical, informational, and pragmatic) of the noun.

1. Semantic determination of the noun

1.1. Countable nouns

Semantically, the noun presents a dialectical unity of *genus* (class) and *individual*. In the text, it may be actualized as a representative of the class or a subclass as a whole or as an individual member of the class or a subclass. Consider the following sentences:

1. *The dog is an animal.*
2. *A dog is an animal.*
3. *Any dog is an animal.*
4. *Dogs are animals.*
5. *All dogs are animals.*
6. *I see a dog.*
7. *The dog is under the table.*

These sentences illustrate different types of semantic determination (or restriction): in sentences (1-5) the noun *dog* refers to the *subclass as a whole*; in sentences (6 and 7) the noun *dog* refers to *an individual member of the subclass*. As for the ‘subclass’ function, the sentences demonstrate different subtypes of determination: in sentence (1) the subclass is presented as an undifferentiated (indiscrete) unit, which reminds us of mass nouns (abstract or material); in sentences (2 and 3) the subclass is represented through a typical individual member; in sentences (4 and 5) the subclass is represented through individual members. As the said sentences describe a generalized situation, the nouns in them do not refer to a *specific member* or *specific members* of the subclass; they only denote a specific subclass. Only in sentences (6 and 7) do they refer to a specific (concrete) member. Specificity is of two types: *particular* and *non-particular*, or to put it in traditional terms, *definite* and *indefinite*. There is only one problem here: how should we treat the article used with the noun *dog* in the first sentence? Does it function as a particularizer? It does. To understand this, consider the diagram:

The animal class

<i>The dog</i>	<i>The horse</i>		
<i>subclass</i>	<i>subclass</i>		
<i>The cat</i>	<i>The cow</i>		
<i>subclass</i>	<i>subclass</i>		

Each square in the section *The dog subclass* stands for an individual representative of the subclass. If we mean any representative of the subclass, we say, *a dog*; if we mean a particular (i.e. unique) representative of the subclass, we say *the dog*. It will be obvious that any member can be rendered particular. A different situation is observed when we deal with the animal class as a whole. Here each big square stands for a subclass: *dogs, cats, horses, cows, sheep, whales, dolphins*, etc. Each subclass is unique, i.e. there is only one such subclass in the animal class. That is, we cannot say *any dog subclass*. Cf. *any dog*. We can only say *the dog subclass*. The construction *the dog* in *The dog is an animal* is then the result of the elision of the noun *subclass* (Cf. *the river Thames* → *the Thames* vs. *the subclass 'dog'* → *the dog*), and the article *the* is a reminder of the elision.¹ Functionally, *subclass* is similar to *river* in *the river Thames* and *dog* is similar to *Thames* in the same construction, i.e. *dog* and *Thames* are identifying, or particularizing names. However, the result of the elision may also be a construction in which the identifying name is preceded by the zero article, e.g. *the writer Dickens, the continent Europe, the country Italy* → *Dickens, Europe, Italy*. These are proper nouns proper, while those with the definite article are still in the process of development.

1. 2. Uncountable nouns

Uncountable nouns do not much differ from countables as concerns the realization of the category of determination: in the text they may be actualized as representatives of the entities as a whole or an individual manifestation of the entities. Consider:

1. *Beauty is rare.*
2. *They had a courage that no defeats would crush.*
3. *Mary's beauty simply paralysed him.*

In sentence (1) the noun *beauty* stands for the entity as a whole; in sentences (2 and 3) the nouns *courage* and *beauty* refer to an individual manifestation of entities: *courage* denotes a non-particular, specific manifestation (aspect) and *beauty*, a particular, specific manifestation of the notion².

How important is the article as a semantic determiner? The definite article generally needs the support of the co-text: off the co-text nouns determined by the definite article are semantically ambiguous, e.g. *the dog, the robbery of old people*. Does *the dog* mean a specific particular dog or a particular class? Does the noun *robbery* mean a specific or a particular manifestation of the entity? We cannot

¹ To get a different perspective on the situation, we shall have to use the indefinite article with the said structure: *The animal class is composed of a dog subclass, a cat subclass, a horse subclass, a cow subclass*.

² For more information, see Laimutis Valeika (1988, op. cit.).

answer the question without recourse to the cotext. Only the indefinite article is an unambiguous marker: it marks the noun as an individual representative or an individual aspect of the entity. However, it cannot tell us whether the noun means a specific or a non-specific individual. The conclusion that we can draw from this analysis is that language often needs more than one signal to realize its meanings, the most powerful signal being the context or the co-text¹.

2. Grammatical determination of the noun

The article is generally treated as a marker of the noun - full or partial, e.g. *a man, the rich*. However, not all nouns are invariably used with the 'material' article, e.g. *strength*. Even countables are not always preceded by the material article, e.g. *books*. Besides the article, nouns are identified in the sentence by other determiners (pronouns, numerals), prepositions, by the presence of appropriate affixes, their relative position (i.e. by the co-text). The role of the article is often secondary, or supplementary. To prove this, compare the texts below: the original and its version in which the nouns have been stripped of the articles:

It was a hot day. The two windows opened upon the distant murmur of London. The burning sun of July danced on the rosy and grey waters of the Thames (J. Galsworthy).

It was hot day. Two windows opened upon distant murmur of London. Burning sun of July danced on rosy and grey waters of Thames

Despite the absence of the articles in the second text, the reader still finds the passage comprehensible from a semantic point of view. The elimination of the definite article from the word-combination *two windows* only affects the communicative structure of the sentence as compared to the original: *the two windows* conveys thematic information, while *two windows* conveys rhematic information.

Yet, we should not minimize the role of the article as a noun-marker: the article speeds up the process of identification and, consequently, it speeds up the process of the comprehension of the text. In this respect the article can be said to act as a compensatory mechanism for the scarcity of derivational affixes which would help us to differentiate nouns from the other parts of speech, verbs in particular, e.g. *ship sales* where *ship* may be a noun or a verb, and *sales* may be a noun or a verb.

¹ The context is the very situation in which a linguistic unit occurs, while the co-text is the linguistic environment of a linguistic unit.

3. Informational determination of the noun

To quote M. Halliday (1985:274-5), “Information is a process of interaction between what is already known or predictable and what is new or unpredictable”. Hence the sentence, which is a unit of information, is a structure made up of two parts: the *New* and the *Given*. By *Given Information* is meant information shared by both the speaker and the addressee: it may be recoverable from the context or familiar to them due to the shared environment. Besides the context, *Givenness* and *Newness* can be expressed by the definite and indefinite article, respectively. Consider the following text:

A man and a woman were sitting on a park bench. The man was about forty years old. The woman was somewhat younger. The bench had recently been painted.

How important is the definite article as a marker of *Givenness*? In this type of text, where *Givenness* is established through the secondary mention of the entity, the article plays a supplementary role. But in texts where *Givenness* is established through the shared knowledge of the environment or the world in general, the article plays a primary role. Consider:

A. Where did you find the cat?

R. In the car.

When *Givenness* is not marked in any way, the text may lose communicative cohesion. Consider the following part of the text cited on p. 59:

It was a hot day. Two windows opened upon the distant murmur of London. The text “comes off its hinges”: the referents of *two windows* are not treated as part of the shared environment; the use of the indefinite article, i.e. the zero article, suggests that the author speaks of some other two windows, not the windows of the shared environment. In other words, the zero article signals to the reader that *two windows* is new information.

4. Pragmatic determination of the noun

Pragmatically, the noun can function as the *Theme* and the *Rheme*. The *Theme* is what we are talking about, and the *Rheme* is what we are saying about the *Theme*. Consider:

The ship (Theme) was glistening in the sun (Rheme).

Themes are generally selected from *Given* while *Rhemes* from both *New* and *Given* entities. Consider:

John (Theme) wrote a novel (Rheme). vs. *John (Theme) wrote the novel (Rheme).*

The *Theme* and the *Rheme* may be signalled by the article : the *Theme* by the definite article and the *Rheme* by both indefinite and definite. Consider:
A strange dog came to the porch. The dog seemed very friendly.

5. The linguistic status of the article

The question is: is the article a separate part of speech (i.e. a word) or a word-morpheme? If we treat the article as a word, we shall have to admit that English has only two articles - *the* and *a/an*. But if we treat the article as a word-morpheme, we shall have three articles - *the*, *a/an*, \emptyset . B. Ilyish (1971:57) thinks that the choice between the two alternatives remains a matter of opinion. The scholar gives a slight preference to the view that the article is a word, but argues that “we cannot for the time being at least prove that it is the only correct view of the English article”. M. Blokh (op. cit., 85) regards the article as a special type of grammatical auxiliary. Linguists are only agreed on the function of the article: the article is a *determiner*, or a *restrictor*. The linguistic status of the article reminds us of the status of *shall/will* in *I shall/will go*. Both of the structures are still felt to be semantically related to their ‘parent’ structures: the numeral *one* and the demonstrative *that* (O.E. *sē*) and the modals *shall* and *will*, respectively.

The articles, according to some linguists, do not form a grammatical category. As is pointed out by B. Khaimovich and Rogovskaya (1967:214), “the members of an opposition must belong to the same lexeme and have identical meanings”. The articles, they argue, do not belong to the same lexeme, and they do not have meaning common to them: *a/an* has the meaning of *oneness*, not found in *the*, which has a demonstrative meaning. For this reason, they argue, *a book* and *the book* are not analytic structures.

B. Ilyish thinks that “There seems to be nothing to prevent us from thinking that *a room* is an analytical form of the noun *room*...” (1971:57). If we treat the article as a morpheme, then we shall have to set up a grammatical category in the noun, *the category of determination*. This category will have to have all the characteristic features of a grammatical category: *common meaning + distinctive meaning*. So what is common to *a room* and *the room*? Both nouns are restricted in meaning, i.e. they refer to an individual member of the class ‘room’. What makes them distinct is that *a room* has the feature [-Definite], while *the room* has the feature [+Definite]. In this opposition the definite article is the strong member and the indefinite article is the weak member.

The same analysis can be extended to abstract and concrete countable

nouns, e.g. *courage: a courage vs. the courage*. Consider: *He has a courage equaled by few of his contemporaries.* vs. *She would never have the courage to defy him.* In contrast to countables, restricted uncountables are used with two indefinite articles: *a/an* and *zero*. The role of the indefinite article is to individuate a subamount of the entity which is presented here as an aspect (type, sort) of the entity. Consider also: *Jim has a good knowledge of Greek,* where *a* denotes a subamount of knowledge, Jim's knowledge of Greek.

A certain difficulty arises when we analyze such sentences as *The horse is an animal* and *I see a horse*. Do these nouns also form the opposemes of the category of determination? We think that they do not: *the horse* is a subclass of the animal class; *a horse* is also restricted - it denotes an individual member of the horse subclass. Cf. *The horse is an animal.* vs. *A horse is an animal.* Unlike the nouns in the above examples, the nouns here exhibit determination at the same level: both *the horse* and *a horse* express a subclass of the animal class.

6. Other ways of determining the noun

Besides the article, the noun can be determined by pronouns (*all, any, some, another, each, every, either, neither, no; this/that, these/those; my, your, his, her, its; our, their; much /many; little /a little; few /a few; several*), numerals (*one, two; first, second, etc.*), and a genitive noun (*John's coat*).

The category of determination can be given even a broader interpretation: it will then include notional words proper such as *adjectives, numerals, nouns, adverbials, non-finites*, which, when used with nouns, also function as determiners, or restricters.¹

The article can be attributed to grammatical determiners on the ground that its meaning is the least specific. Determiners expressed by pronouns are semi-grammatical determiners, for, apart from the function of individualization, they express other functions. Consider, for example, the definite article and the demonstrative pronoun. The definite article identifies the entity by referring it to its prior mention (anaphoric reference) or to its prospective mention (cataphoric reference), e.g. *A man came in. The man looked very sad; This is the man you were*

¹ Speaking of the category of determination, mention should be made of 3rd person pronouns and proper nouns: they are particularizing expressions. Consider: 1. *I've just been talking to your sister. She seems rather depressed (she is identifiable by virtue of having been introduced by the antecedent).* 2. *London is the capital of the United Kingdom (London is a particularizing expression standing for a unique entity).* In both cases the nouns express information shared by both the speaker and the addressee.

talking about. The demonstrative pronoun individuates by pointing: *this man* means the man near the speaker who is the deictic center, or the reference point of the act of communication. To put it otherwise, the demonstrative pronoun does not need prior or prospective mention of the entity. Cf.

- *A house is burning.*
- *Which house?*
- *This house, not *The house.*

Possessive pronouns also individualize entities. However, apart from the function of individuation, they express possession. Cf. *the book* vs. *my book*. Demonstrative and possessive pronouns are particularizing determiners. The other pronouns are non-particularizing determiners. They fall into three groups: 1) determiners which are not explicit in regard to the exact number of entities or their exact quantity (*some, several, a few, etc.*); b) determiners which denote a small number or a large number of entities or a small quantity or a large quantity of the entity (*many, much; a few; a little /little*) and c) determiners which denote an absolute number of entities or an absolute quantity of entities (*all, any*).

Semantically, the two types of determiners (grammatical and semi-grammatical) are closely related. Take, for instance, the definite article and demonstrative pronouns: *the book* vs. *this book*. *This* means *the + here*, i.e. *the book here*. As *this* in fact includes *the*, constructions used with both are not acceptable: **this the book; *the this book*. That is, the article *the* and the demonstrative pronoun form mutually exclusive determiners. The same holds good for the construction **the my book*: the use of the definite article is redundant: the feature [Definite] is included in the possessive pronoun. A different picture emerges when we add a demonstrative pronoun, e.g. **the my book* vs. *this book of mine*. In contrast to the definite article, the demonstrative pronoun enriches the entity semantically by giving it an emotional colouring. The peculiarity of English lies in the fact that the demonstrative determiner is not generally used in preposition to the possessive determiner, although some writers do use such constructions, e.g. *this our London*. English usage demands that demonstrative and possessive determiners should be separated. Cf. Lith. *Šis mūsų Londonas; ši mano knyga*.

Similar to definite semi-grammatical determiners, indefinite semi-grammatical determiners can also be used as complex determiners, i.e. we can also speak of the coexistence of determiners, e.g. *some other young man*. The rules are the same: the new determiner must point out a new aspect of the noun. We can also observe the coexistence of definite and indefinite determiners, e.g. *several of the students are members of the club*. The determiners are arranged in

the order *indefinite + definite*. Because of their position, indefinite determiners are called *predeterminers* and determiners following them, *postdeterminers*. Here are some examples of *predeterminers + postdeterminers* constructions:

A few of the students came to the party.

All (of) the box lunches are in those cartons.

Any (one) of the boys should be able to ride a bicycle.

None of the small children will sit still for more than a few minutes.

Every one of the boys has a locker.

Either of the boys can do it.

Neither of the boys is here.

Quite a few of the students understand the article.

Most of the volunteers are women.

If we omit the prepositions and the definite determiner, the resulting construction will be indefinite:

A few students came to the party.

Any boy should be able to ride a bicycle.

No small child will sit still for more than a few minutes.

Every boy has a locker.

All dogs are nasty, smelly brutes.

Most volunteers are women.

An apparent exception is the case of *either, neither, both*: the omission of the preposition and the definite determiner does not render the construction indefinite:

Either boy can do it.

Neither boy is here.

I want both books.

Apart from the pronouns, the noun can also function as a determiner: *a boy's book* vs. *the boy's book/John's book*. If the adjunct is indefinite, the head-noun is also indefinite, and if the adjunct is definite, the head-noun is also definite.

The Verb

Semantic Features of the Verb

The verb is a part of speech that denotes a process in the wide meaning of the word. The processual meaning is embedded in all the verbs. We can distinguish the following types of process: 1) processes of doing, or material

processes, e.g. *Mary is writing a letter*; 2) processes of happening, e.g. *The old man is dying*; 3) verbal, e.g. *She told me the truth*; 4) mental, e.g. *The student did not know the answer*; *The woman did not see the lorry driving at full speed*; *She did not feel the pain*; 5) relational, e.g. *John is clever*; *Mary is at home*; *John has a new car*; 6) existential, e.g. *There is a dog under the table*.

Semantically, the said process-types are expressed by two types of verb: 1) *bounded* and 2) *unbounded*. Unbounded verbs are verbs that have no *end-point* built in. Such verbs denote processes that go on without reaching a limit, i.e., there is nothing in them that can stop them; they can only be stopped from the outside. So, for instance, when we say *The earth turns round the sun*, we do not mean that *turns* has a programmed limit beyond which the process comes to an end. The verb *turns*, however, can be used as bounded. Consider:

The wheel is turning. It will finish turning in half an hour.

As can be seen, *turning* in this sentence does have an end-point programmed. When processes function as bounded, they can be paraphrased using the verb *finish*: *John lived to be old*, i.e. John finished living when he reached an advanced age, i.e. when his 'programmed' life span exhausted itself.

When processes are unbounded, they can be paraphrased using the verb *stop*: *John loves Mary*. vs. *John stopped loving Mary*. Unbounded processes can only be interrupted, but not finished. The word *finish* implies a programmed end-point and, consequently, cannot be used with an unbounded process. However, theoretically and practically traditional unbounded verbs can all be used as bounded: the actual meaning of such verbs is determined by the co-text. Consider:

A. *Is the baby still sleeping?* (i.e. Hasn't the baby had enough sleep?)

B. *Yes. She generally sleeps (for) two hours during the day.*

Sleep is potentially a bounded process: one sleeps until one has had his fill of sleep. Can we say, then, that the traditional unbounded verbs are a category which has no foundation, i.e. linguistic facts do not support it? No, we cannot. The category of unbounded verbs include verbs that *typically* function as unbounded; it is only in an appropriate co-text that they change their status. The same cannot be said about *boil*, for instance, which is bounded irrespective of the co-text in which it may occur. Verbs like *boil* can be called *bounded verbs proper*. Unlike unbounded verbs, bounded verbs proper do not have to be 'programmed' with respect to an end-point; an end-point is inherent in their semantics.

So, for instance, the process of *boiling* (e.g. *John is boiling water*) necessarily comes to an end; its end-point is the start of boiling. The same analysis can be extended to the process of writing (e.g. *John is writing a novel*) which comes to

an end when the 'program', a novel, comes into existence. Unlike unbounded processes, bounded processes can be paraphrased using the verb *finish*: *John wrote a novel.* vs. *John finished writing a novel.*

Unbounded verbs can be of two types: *stative* and *dynamic*. Stative unbounded verbs express a static situation, i.e. a situation in which the entity is at rest while dynamic verbs express a situation in which the entity is engaged in some or other activity. To stative verbs belong: 1) cognitive verbs (e.g. *know, think*, i.e. be of an opinion; *understand, believe, remember*); 2) perceptive verbs (e.g. *smell, taste, feel*); 3) affective verbs (e.g. *like, love, hate*); 4) relational verbs (e.g. *be, have, lack*). Semantically, they generally present the result of a bounded process. Consider:

John has learned the rule. → *John knows the rule.*

Mary has grasped the meaning of the word. → *Mary understands the word.*

The dog has perceived the smell of a cat. → *The dog smells a cat.*

Dynamic unbounded verbs express a dynamic situation, i.e. a situation in which the entity is engaged in some activity. To dynamic unbounded verbs belong: *run, walk, swim, skate, play, sleep, stand* (i.e. to keep an upright position), *live, stay*, etc. Consider:

Peter is running.

The girl is walking.

The children are swimming in the river.

As already mentioned, unbounded processes have no end-point built in: they either denote the end of a bounded process (statives) or the activity itself (dynamic verbs).

Bounded verbs constitute a much larger class. We can distinguish two sub-classes of the verbs: 1) punctual (e.g. *shoot, promise, propose, fire, name*); 2) non-punctual (e.g. *boil, read, write, paint, peel, slice, kill*). Punctual verbs have very short duration: the time occupied to express the process is longer than the time occupied to perform it. Such processes are indivisible, i.e. we cannot say **The soldier started shooting an arrow* nor **The soldier is shooting an arrow* nor **The soldier finished shooting an arrow*. Only non-punctuals can be thus divided: *He started writing; he is writing; he finished writing*. However, not all such verbs have all the phases realized. Take, for instance, the verb *arrive* which denotes only the final phase while the inceptive and the middle phases are realized through the verb *go*: *he started going; he is going; he is arriving*. The end-point of the process of going is the time of arriving. Verbs that denote only the inceptive or the final phase are called *achievements*; and verbs that have all the three phases are called *accomplishments* (e.g. *write, read, paint, do, make*, etc.)

The question arises: how important are the said semantic features of the

verb to the user of the language? The feature [\pm Boundness] is directly related to *aspect*. Consider:

John wrote/will write two letters.

The boy broke/will break the window.

The verb *write* is bounded. Its peculiarity is that that the past and future forms of it can be *perfective* and *imperfective* in meaning¹. When used as an imperfective verb, *write* denotes the middle, or the developmental, phase (e.g. *John wrote letters yesterday*); when used as a perfective verb, it denotes the final phase (e.g. *John wrote two letters*). However, not all bounded verbs can be used so, e.g. *The boy broke/will break the window*, where *broke*, *will break* are perfective only. We will call verbs of the first type *dual aspect verbs* and verbs of the second type *single aspect verbs*. To dual aspect verbs belong: *write, read, paint, ring, lead, climb, build, teach, show, spend, learn*, etc.; to single aspect verbs belong: *break, put, leave, die, open, take, make, produce, pay, sell, bend*, etc.

Unbounded verbs are imperfective in meaning, e.g. *The baby slept well (badly)* or *We lived very simply*. However, in an appropriate environment, unbounded verbs can turn into bounded: *The girl slept through everything* or *He lived out the remaining years of his life in London*. Unbounded verbs are generally perfectivized by using an adverbial particle: *up, down, off, through, out, over, across, away*, etc. These elements can also be used with bounded verbs of dual aspect, e.g. *eat, write*. Consider: *She ate up the cream in silence* or *I wrote down what the boy said*.

An understanding of the aspective features of the verb helps both the speaker and the translator. The speaker, using unbounded verbs, has to differentiate between statives and non-statives: statives are not generally used in the progressive aspect, while non-statives are. Cf.

**Max is knowing the answer.* vs.

Max is running in the yard.

Unbounded verbs as well as dual aspect bounded verbs may be used in both progressive and non-progressive perfect forms without a marked difference in meaning:

John has been living in London for ten years. vs.

John has lived in London for ten years.

Peter has been smoking for ten years.

Peter has smoked for ten years.

In Lithuanian or Russian, in languages which are sensitive to aspect, the above sentences may be translated using two opposite aspects:

¹ The aspect of a verb can only be identified when the verb is used in the past and the future tense. Cf. *The boy breaks his toys.* vs. *The boy broke his toys; The boy will break his toys.*

Džonas gyvena Londone dešimt metų. vs.
Džonas išgyveno Londone dešimt metų.
Peteris rūko dešimt metų.
Peteris išrūkė dešimt metų.

However, if a dual aspect verb finds itself in a different co-text, its progressive perfect form will have a non-perfective meaning while its non-progressive form will have a perfective meaning:

John has been painting the garage door. vs.
John has painted the garage door.

Cf. Lith.

Džonas dažė garažo duris. vs.
Džonas nudažė garažo duris.

If the bounded verb is perfective only (i.e. if it is a single-aspect verb), the non-progressive form is invariably perfective in meaning and the progressive is imperfective:

Max broke the door. Cf. Lith. Maksas išlaužė duris.

Max was breaking the door when I came home. Cf. Lith. Maksas laužė duris, kai aš parėjau namo.

If the bounded verb is punctual, the meaning is perfective, e.g. *He shot an arrow*. If the verb is used in the progressive, the form denotes a repetition of such acts, e.g. *He was shooting arrows*.

Verbs can also be examined from the point of view of their syntactic features. We can distinguish two classes: 1) *verbs of complete predication* (i.e. notional verbs); 2) *verbs of incomplete predication* (function verbs – non-modal and modal). Verbs of complete predication are capable of expressing the predicate of the sentence by themselves: they do not need the support of other words, e.g. *John read a book*. It is only when they have to express *tense, person, mood, voice, aspect, order* and other distinctions that they are combined with function verbs (*be, have, do, shall, should, will, would, can, could, may, might*). Verbs of incomplete predication are not capable of expressing the predicate of the sentence by themselves. Cf.

John read a book.

**John will.*

**John tried.*

**John became.*

Their role is both grammatical and semantic: through them we realize the grammatical meanings of the notional verb and express various semantic aspects.¹ Metaphorically speaking, they are semantic colours of the notional

¹ An exception is taken by verb *be*, which is a purely grammatical ‘dummy’ serving as an element for the indication of tense, mood and aspect.

part of the predicate. Consider:

- 1) *John will read the book.*
- 2) *John tried to read the book.*
- 3) *John managed to get across the river.*
- 4) *John seems to have crossed the river.*

In sentence (1), *will*, besides futurity (a prediction), expresses intention; in sentence (2), *tried*, besides the grammatical categories of tense, voice, etc., expresses the meaning of non-factivity – *tried to read* does not mean that he read the book through; in sentence (3), *managed*, besides the grammatical categories of tense, voice, etc., expresses the meaning of attainment – difficult as it was, John was able to reach the other bank of the river; in sentence (4), *seems*, besides its grammatical meaning, expresses the meaning of epistemic modality.

Verbs of incomplete predication present a problem to the analyst. Such verbs as *do* and *have* are grammatical word-morphemes; but the status of *shall/should, will/would, may/might, can/could* is not clear enough. Consider:

If John came, Mary would be happy.

They came early so that they wouldn't miss the overture.

They made a note of it so that they could not forget.

Linguists are not agreed on the status of the said verbs: some think that in the type of co-texts they still preserve their lexical meaning while others think that they can already be treated as grammatical word-morphemes. An exception may be taken by the verb *be*, which is generally seen simply as a link or mark of a relationship between one element and another. It is distinguished from the existential *be*, e.g. *There is a solution* (i.e. A solution exists). This type of *be* is notional.

The semantic properties of the verb are not only related to the meaning of the sentence but also to its combinability with other parts of the sentence. The verb is the centre of a predication: it organizes all the other sentence constituents. The combining power of words in relation to other words is called their syntactic valency. We can distinguish two types of valency: *obligatory* and *optional*. An obligatory constituent is a constituent without which the sentence is incomplete semantically, e.g. **John is making*. To complete the sentence, we need one more constituent: *John is making a toy*. The valency of a verb, or the number of syntactic elements it is associated with, is determined by the type of process, or situation, it represents. Let us consider each type of verb and its *valents*.

Transitive doing, or material, verbs represent a situation in which we find the following participants: *Agent, Patient (Affected), Recipient, Effected,*

Beneficiary, and *Instrumental*. Besides participants, processes are also associated with *Circumstances*. Processes, participants and circumstances constitute the semantic structure of the sentence. The said participants are not on a par: some are obligatory (i.e. required), others optional (i.e. permitted but not required). To obligatory participants belong: *Agent*, *Patient*, *Recipient*, *Effected*. *Beneficiary* and *Instrumental* participants are optional. Circumstances also belong to optional elements in 'doing' processes. Consider the following 'doing' sentences:

- 1) *He moved the table.*
- 2) *They built a bridge.*
- 3) *She gave the cat some milk.*
- 4) *John bought her a car.*
- 5) *Peter opened the door with a key.*
- 6) *Max read the book in the library.*

In the sentences, *he*, *they*, *she*, *John*, *Peter*, *Max* are *Agents*, or performers of the process; *the table* is a *Patient*, or a participant affected by the process; *a bridge* is an *Effected* participant, i.e. a participant that represents an entity brought into existence; *the cat* is a *Recipient*, i.e. a participant receiving *milk*; some *milk* is a *Patient*; *her* is a *Beneficiary*, i.e. a participant for whom some service is done; *a key* is an *Instrumental*, i.e. an entity serving as an instrument with which the process was carried out; *the library* is a *Place Circumstance*, i.e. a semantic element indicating the place of the process. The *Beneficiary*, the *Instrumental* and the *Circumstance*, as used in the said sentences, are semantically optional. If we suppress them, the sentences will still be conceived to be semantically complete: they will contain the necessary minimum of information.

A distinction should be made between semantic and grammatical, or syntactic completion. Cf. *John is making a toy*. vs. **John is making*. The sentence *John is making*, which consist of *Subject* and *Predicate*, is only complete from a grammatical point of view. It will be obvious that such a sentence is useless communicatively: it does not convey *New* information, information which is the backbone of any sentence. As for intransitive doing verbs, they are associated with one participant, the *Agent*, e.g. *John is walking*.

Happening verbs represent a situation in which the participant is affected by the process:

- The King is dying.*
The old lady collapsed.

These verbs are obligatorily associated with one participant, viz. the *Patient*. In other words, they are one-valent verbs.

Verbal processes, i.e. processes of *saying* or *communicating*, obligatorily include the *Sayer*, the *Recipient* and the *Verbiage* (or the *Report*):

She told me the story of her life.

He announced to his wife that he was leaving.

In the above sentences, *she*, *he* are *Sayers*; *me*, *his wife* – *Recipients* and the *story of her life*, *he was leaving* are *Verbiage*, or *Report*. Verbs of saying are, then, three-valent.

Mental verbs obligatorily include two participants: *Recipient Experiencer* and *Phenomenon*. Consider:

Mary heard a strange noise in the street.

The student did not know the answer to the question.

In these sentences, the Subjects are *Recipient Experiencers* (*Mary*, *the student*, *John*) and the Objective Complements are *Phenomena*. Recipient Experiencers are participants affected by Phenomena. As can be seen, mental verbs are two-valent.

Relation verbs express a situation with two obligatory semantic elements: a participant called the *Carrier* and the *Attribute*. Consider:

Mary is beautiful

Mary has a daughter.

Mary is in the room.

Mary is the *Carrier*, *beautiful*, *a daughter*, *the room* are *Attributes*. Relational verbs are two-valent. Last but not least, existential verbs are obligatorily associated with one participant, viz. the *Existent*, and the *Circumstance*, e.g. *Once upon a time there lived a king.*

It should be observed that obligatory participants may not be realized in the surface structure. Take, for instance, the material verbs *read*, *paint*, *write*:

The boy is reading (painting, writing).

In the literature, such verbs are said to have an incorporated object, or verbs with an incorporated participant. In the above existential sentence, the place *Circumstance* is only implied. And if we place the sentences discussed in a context, the possibilities of the deletion of obligatory sentence elements will be much greater: with a few exceptions, all previously mentioned participants or circumstances can be deleted.

Sentences in which the verb is followed by a participant (i.e. an object) are called *transitive*. Semantically, such a participant is generally the *Patient* or the *Effected*. However, it may also be the *Phenomenon* (e.g. *She heard a cry*), the *Verbiage* (e.g. *She did not utter a word*) or even the *Circumstance* (e.g. *They walked the streets*). Transitive verbs are opposed to *intransitive verbs*, i.e. verbs not followed by a participant, e.g. *The King is dying*. How

important is the division of verbs into transitive and intransitive?

It is important for the category of voice: the active and the passive voice are based on transitive-verb sentences, i.e. it is only transitive-verb sentences that are capable of being used as both active and passive, e.g. *Charles Dickens wrote "David Copperfield"* (active) vs. *"David Copperfield" was written by Charles Dickens* (passive).

Finite Forms of the Verb

All verbal forms can be analyzed under the rubric "The Category of Finitude" (Cf. M. Blokh, op.cit.,88), which divides the forms of the verb into finite and non-finite (verbals). These forms constitute a system of their own which is united by such verbal categories as *voice*, *aspect* and *order*. The categories that set finites and non-finites apart are *tense*, *person*, *number*, and *mood*.

Speaking of non-finites (the *infinitive*, the *participle*, the *gerund*) special mention should be made of the infinitive. It has a unique position: it is the principal representative of the verb-lexeme as a whole. The infinitive serves both as the name of a process and as a derivative base for all the other forms of the verb.

The Category of Person

The category of person serves to associate the process with three deictic categories in a communicative act: the *speaker*, the *addressee* and the *one (ones) not participating in a communicative act*. The *speaker* is *first person* (I, we); the *addressee* is *second person* (you) and the *one (ones) not participating in the act* is *third person* (he, she, it, they)¹. The deictic centre of the communicative act is *the speaker*, i.e. first person. In the process of communication, the deictic center keeps changing: *I* → *you*; *you* → *I*, which suggests that the deictic center is always the speaker, i.e. the one who is speaking at the moment.

The three deictic categories, or persons, are, as a rule, lexicalized in languages, i.e. special words are used. These words are called personal pronouns. Apart from special lexemes, the category of person is often grammaticalized, i.e. a special form of the verb additionally shows which person, or deictic category, is meant. Cf. Russian, Lithuanian and English:

¹ In a communicative act, third person pronouns can be deictic and non-deictic (anaphoric). Cf. *John got home late and he was very tired* (*he* is anaphoric). vs.

John looked up when he came in (with *he* bearing heavy stress) (*he* is deictic).

If third person pronouns are deictic, there will usually be some accompanying paralinguistic feature: a nod of the head, a gesture with the hand, etc.

[Я] <i>иду</i> – [мы] <i>идем</i>	[Aš] <i>einu</i> – [Mes] <i>iname</i>	<i>I go – we go</i>
[Ты] <i>идеешь</i> – [вы] <i>идете</i>	[Tu] <i>eini</i> – [Jūs] <i>inate</i>	<i>You go – you go</i>
[Он/Она] <i>идет</i> – [они] <i>идут</i>	[Jis,ji] <i>eina</i> – [Jie, jos] <i>eina</i>	<i>[He, she, it] goes – They go</i>

As can be seen, in Russian *person* is fully grammaticalized in the present tense; grammatically, the personal pronouns are redundant: they merely reduplicate the person information contained in the verb form. Even lexically they may be redundant: *Я, мы, ты, вы* can be dispensed with, for they denote the person(s) speaking and the person(s) being addressed and, therefore, they do not need additional specification. Only *он, она, они*, which denote neither, require such specification, for the forms *идет, идут* are neutral as concerns person gender: *он/она идет*. Cf. *иду, идеешь*, where the addressee and the speaker know who is who.

In Lithuanian, only first and second persons can be discriminated grammatically; third person has the same form in the singular and the plural. Such being the case, the use of third person pronouns is obligatory in Lithuanian: the omission of the pronouns would render the situation indeterminate with respect to gender and number. Consider:

- A. *Žiūrėk, eina!*
- B. *Kas eina?*
- C. *Jonas eina. Jie eina.*

In English, only the *third person present tense singular* form expresses person grammatically; therefore, the verb forms are obligatorily associated with personal pronouns.¹

Special mention should be made of the modal verbs and the verb *be*. Modal verbs, with the exception of *shall/should* and *will/would*, do not show person grammatically. Cf.

<i>I can speak English</i>	<i>I shall speak English</i>
<i>You can speak English</i>	<i>You will speak English</i>
<i>He, she can speak English</i>	<i>He, she will speak English</i>

The verb *be* is more grammaticalized in this respect: it takes an exception to the other verbs. Consider:

<i>I am/was</i>	<i>We are/were</i>
<i>You are /were</i>	<i>You are/were</i>
<i>He, she, it is/was</i>	<i>They are/were</i>

As can be seen, it has two grammaticalized persons in the singular - first and third person – and no grammaticalized persons in the plural. In the past

¹ As for anaphoric third personal pronouns, they can be omitted in compound sentences: *Dove went to the carnival and (he) rode the Ferris wheel.*

tense, the verb *be* does not distinguish person – without a personal pronoun we cannot say which person the form expresses.

To sum up, the category of person is represented in English by two member oppositions: *third person singular* vs. *non-third person singular*. The marked member of the opposition is *third person*; the unmarked member is *non-third person* (it includes the remaining forms – first person, second person forms – singular and plural).

The Category of Number

The category of number shows whether the process is associated with one doer or with more than one doer, e.g. *He eats three times a day*. The sentence indicates a single eater; the verb is in the singular despite the fact that more than one process is meant. The category of number is a two-member opposition: *singular* and *plural*. An interesting feature of this category is the fact that it is blended with person: *number* and *person* make use of the same morpheme.

As *person* is a feature of the present tense, *number* is also restricted to the present tense. Cf.

John goes to college. vs. *John went to college.*

The students live in dormitories. vs. *The students lived in dormitories.*

Goes is singular + third person; the remaining forms are not marked for number. The same holds good for the verb *be* used in the present tense:

I am/ at home.

John is/ at college now.

The forms *am, is* are first and third person singular; the remaining forms are not marked for number. Consider now examples in which *be* is used in the past tense:

I was at home.

John was at college.

The form *was*, unlike *is*, is not blended with person: it marks only singular; the form *were* is not blended with person either. However, it can be used in both singular and plural:

You were at home.

They were at home.

Some verbs – modals – do not distinguish number at all. Still others are only used in the plural because the meaning of ‘oneness’ is hardly compatible with their lexical meaning (B. S. Khaimovich, B. I. Rogovskaya, op. cit., 150):

The boys crowded round him. vs.

**The boy crowded round him.*

The soldiers regrouped and opened fire. vs.

**The soldier regrouped and opened fire.*
The boys scattered, squealing in horror. vs.
**The boy scattered, squealing in horror.*

The analysis of the examples demonstrates the weakness of the English verb as concerns the expression of person and number and its heavy reliance on the subject: it is the subject that is generally responsible for the expression of person and number in English.

The Category of Tense

Introductory

1. Time and tense.

Time is an unlimited duration in which things are considered as happening in the past, present or future. *Time* stands for a concept with which all mankind is familiar. *Time* is independent of language. *Tense*, which derives from the Latin word *tempus*, stands for a verb form used to express a time relation. *Time* is the same to all mankind while *tenses* vary in different languages.

Graphically, time can be represented as a straight line, with the past represented to the left and the future to the right. Between the two points there is the present.

Time can be expressed in language in two basic ways: 1) *lexically*; 2) *grammatically*. Cf. *John is in his study now*. This sentence expresses the present time in two ways: grammatically (*is*) and lexically (*now*). As for lexical means, English has three sets of temporal adjuncts: those which refer to the present (*now, today, this morning, this week, this month, this century, this epoch*, etc.); those which refer to the past (*yesterday, last week, last month, last year, last century, last decade*, etc.; *two minutes, days, weeks, months*, etc. *ago*); those which refer to the future (*tomorrow, next minute, hour, week*, etc.; *a minute, hour, day, week, month, decade*, etc. *from now*). The question may arise now: can English dispense with tense (i.e. grammaticalized time)? Consider:

- 1) *He + read + now.*
- 2) *He + read + yesterday.*
- 3) *He + read + tomorrow.*

Of the three constructions, only the first could replace the grammaticalized way of expressing the ongoing process at the time of speaking. Cf. *He + read + now*. vs. *He is reading now*. The other constructions are not in a position to replace the corresponding tenses: this situation is generally expressed in English

by using two tense forms:

- 1) *He read yesterday.*
- 2) *He was reading yesterday.*
- 1) *He will read tomorrow.*
- 2) *He will be reading tomorrow.*

As can be seen, in English lexicalized time is semantically poorer as compared to grammaticalized time. Can, then, grammaticalized time (i.e. tense) dispense with lexicalized time? To answer the question, let us delete the temporal adjuncts from the above sentences:

- 1) *He read.*
- 2) *He was reading.*
- 1) *He will read.*
- 2) *He will be reading.*

Sentences stripped of their temporal adjuncts sound indefinite: they express the time distinctions in a rather general way, i.e. the processes are conceived to be tied to some specific time which, unfortunately, is not made explicit. Our analysis shows that English needs both ways of expressing time – *lexical* and *grammatical*. However, as has been pointed out by John Lyons (1996:312 – 3), there are languages (e.g. Chinese, Malay) that do not have tense. Tenseless languages are not semantically or expressively poorer than tensed languages on condition they have a sufficient wide range of lexical expressions, i.e. time distinctions as expressed by tense should be expressed in such languages by appropriate lexical expressions.

2. Tense and time.

Does tense always show real time? No. Consider the present tense:

This guy comes up to me and says that he wants to see the boss, so I didn't think anything of it, and take him back to the office.

This sentence describes an event that occurred in the past but the verbs are mostly used in their present forms. This use, called the 'historic' present (in other words, the 'past' present), is motivated by a desire to achieve a dramatic effect by bringing the situation into the moment of speaking. Consider more examples:

- A rolling stone gathers no moss.*
John walks to school every morning.
I leave for London tomorrow.

It will be obvious that the present forms of the verbs used in the above sentences do not show real time, i.e. they are not directly associated with the moment of speaking: a rolling stone may not now be in the process of gathering moss; John may not be walking to school now and I may not be leaving for

London now. The first two sentences describe a habitual situation, i.e. a situation that holds at all times. However, this does not suggest that it does not hold at the time of speaking. In the last example, the present tense is used to refer to the future. This form is generally used for programmed (planned) events. A clash between tense and time can also be observed in sentences recounting the plots of books and films:

This book describes a situation where a man is going off to report some trouble somewhere in America... On the way he gets on the wrong train and ends up in the wrong place. (taken from Downing and Locke, 1992)

The present tense with a past meaning is often used in reporting information: *Peter tells me* (i.e. told) *he has changed his job.*

The weatherman forecasts (i.e. forecast) *heavy showers in the north.*

So much about the present tense forms. Let us now look at the past tense forms. Consider a few examples:

I thought you were on the beach.

I was wondering whether you needed any help.

Did you want to see me now?

I wish I weighed less than I do.

If he went tomorrow, he could get all his work done.

He said he would not marry her.

In all these examples the past forms of the verbs do not express the past time: they express present time with the exception of the last sentence in which the past form *would* refers to future time. To sum up, we cannot simply equate the Present Tense with the meaning of 'present time' and the Past Tense with the meaning of 'past time'. However, the basic meaning of the present form of the verb is present time and the basic meaning of the past form of the verb is past time. The meanings expressed by the above sentences are derived from the basic meanings, i.e. they are secondary meanings.

3. Tense as a deictic category.

Any process must be located in time. Otherwise it is useless communicatively. To locate it in time, it is necessary to establish some arbitrary reference point (Lith. *atskaitos taškas*). Such a reference point is the present moment, or the moment of speaking. Tenses locate situations either at the same time as the present moment, or prior to the present moment, or subsequent to the present moment. A system, which relates processes to a reference point is called a *deictic* ['daiktik] system. Tense is deictic since it relates processes to the present moment: processes that occur at the same time as the present moment are expressed by the *present* tense; processes that occur before the

present moment are expressed by the *past* tense and processes that occur after the present moment are expressed by the *future* tense. These tenses we will call absolute. Tenses that are established with reference to some other point in time are relative. Cf. *Mary is walking in the garden* (*is* is related to the moment of speaking; therefore, it is an absolute present tense) vs. *Peter said that Mary was walking in the garden* (*was* is related to the time expressed by *said*; therefore, it is relative). However, the tense of *said* is established with reference to the present moment. Hence it is an absolute tense, or the tense used absolutely.

The category of tense in English is a system of two-member oppositions showing the relation of the time of the process denoted by the verb to the present moment, or the moment of speaking. The existence of a future tense in English is problematic. We will return to the problem when we have examined the present and the past tense.

The present tense is the unmarked member of the opposition: it is the least specific in meaning and therefore can be used to express a wide range of temporal meanings. The present tense is also unmarked morphologically (except for the *-s* inflection); its forms are identical with the forms of the 'bare' infinitive. The past tense is marked both semantically and morphologically: it refers to a process that is visualized as remote, either in time or as unreality, and in the vast majority of verbs it has a distinct past form.

*Present Tense*¹

The present tense locates the process at the same time as the present moment, e.g. *John lives in at Oxford now*. The verb form *lives* expresses a process that coincides with the present moment, or the time of speaking. We can distinguish three types of relationship between the process and the present moment:

- 1) the duration of the process is the same as the duration of the report of the process;
- 2) the duration of the process is longer than the duration of the report of the process
- 3) the duration of the process is shorter than the duration of the report of the process

Consider the following sentences:

1. *I name this ship the 'Titanic'*
2. *The Eiffel Tower stands in Paris.*

¹ The term *present tense* as well as the terms *past tense*, *future tense* are used to refer to the respective traditional *indefinite* tenses – tenses not mixed with *aspect* and *order*.

3. *He shoots an arrow and runs away.*

In the first sentence, the process of naming occupies as much time as the report of the process; in the second sentence, the process of standing occupies a much longer period of time than the report of the process, i.e. The Eiffel Tower will continue to stand long after the report of the process; in the third sentence, the process of shooting is shorter than the report of the process, i.e. it takes us a longer time to utter the sentence than to shoot an arrow.

However, what has been said has nothing in common with the present tense from a grammatical point of view: what is important is that the verb used in the present tense expresses a situation located at the present moment. The form itself does not say how long the process lasted, or whether the same situation continues or does not continue beyond the present moment, nor that it held or did not hold in the past. Whether or not this situation is part of a larger situation is an *implicature* (Bernard Comrie, 1985). In practical grammars we often observe the confusion of grammar with pragmatics, a branch of linguistics examining meanings beyond linguistic meanings, i.e. contextual meanings. So, for instance, in discussing the meaning of the present tense, A. S. Hornby (1962:90) says that the present in such sentences as *The sun shines during the day* or *Your sister speaks French well* indicates that what is referred to could be found in the past, and can be found now and it will be possible to find it in future. As already said, the meaning of the present form of the verb has nothing to do with the above meanings, meanings based on our general knowledge.

Past Tense

The past tense locates the process prior to the present moment. The past form of the verb does not say anything about whether the past process occupied a single point or an extended time period. This is not the job of the past tense; it is the job of appropriate adjuncts or the lexical meaning of the verb. Consider:

1. *At seven o'clock yesterday John promised to give me ten pounds* (a single point).
2. *John Lived in Manchester from 1962 to 1982* (an extended time period).

As already pointed out, the past form of the verb only locates the process in the past, without saying anything about whether the situation described by it occupied a single point or an extended time period. Consider another example: *John used to live in London*. In practical grammars, the construction *used to live* is described as follows: "If we say that somebody used to do something, we mean that some time ago he did it habitually, but that he does not do it now." (Michael Swan, 1984:615). As with the present tense, the second meaning (i.e.

“that he does not do it now”) is not the meaning of the past tense: it is an implicature or the listener’s or reader’s meaning. If we say that *John used to live in London*, it is very natural for us to think that *John no longer lives in London*; if he still lives in London, we would use the present tense. That the past tense does not mean it can be clearly seen from the following text in which the implicature that John no longer lives in London is cancelled, or eliminated:

A. *Where did John live ten years ago?*

B. *He used to live in London then and still does.*

A similar interpretation can be given to past progressive constructions, e.g. *John was eating his lunch when I looked into his room*. The sentence says nothing about whether the situation described by the past progressive construction still continues at the present moment or not. The implicature that John is no longer eating his lunch or that he is still eating it can be qualified or cancelled contextually:

A. *John was eating his lunch when I looked into his room.*

B. *Is he still eating it?*

A. *Yes, he is /No, he isn’t*

The Problem of Future Tense

Traditional grammar usually presents English as having a future tense expressed by *will* (for some speakers, also *shall*) and the citation form of the verb¹, e.g. *Mary will get married tomorrow*. But is it a tense? There are several objections to the traditional treatment of the said construction. The first objection concerns the meaning of the future tense in general: the future tense differs from the past and the present tense – the future describes a non-factive situation while the past and the present tense describe a factive situation. So, for instance, when we say that *Mary will get married tomorrow*, we do not present the situation as a fact; we only make a prediction or say what we think will happen. The second objection concerns the meaning peculiarities of *will*: the auxiliary *will*, apart from the meaning of prediction, has modal uses which do not necessarily have future time reference, e.g. *He will go swimming in dangerous waters* or *He will be swimming now*. The third objection concerns the expression of a future meaning by the present tense, e.g. *Peter leaves for London tomorrow* or *If it rains tomorrow, we will get wet*. These examples show that we can refer to future time by using the present tense. Reference to future time can also be made by using the construction *to be about to do something* vs. *to be going to do something*. *Will* then is not the only means of referring to

¹ The citation form of the verb is the form of the infinitive without the marker *to*.

future events. If we choose to say that *will* is the future tense marker in English, what is then the status of other means? But perhaps *will* (or *shall*) can be treated as grammatical word-morphemes? If they are grammatical word-morphemes, then they must have lost their former lexical meaning. But have they? There are co-texts in which *will* or *shall* express a mere prediction. In other words, *will* is 'demodalized' in the co-texts. Consider:

- 1) *Mary will get married tomorrow.*
- 2) *Mary will be twenty tomorrow.*
- 3) *If John does not change his mind, Mary will get married tomorrow.*

The difference between the past tense and the present tense on the one hand, and the future tense on the other, can be treated as a difference of mood (a speculative one) rather than that of tense: *will* or *shall* + *infinitive* does not describe a real situation, a feature not peculiar to tense. We cannot refer to future events as facts, as we can to past and present events. Events in the future have not yet happened; we can predict them with more or less success.

If we do agree that it is a tense, then *will* and *shall*, as already pointed out, will have to be assigned to grammatical word-morphemes. Otto Jespersen defended the view that *will* and *shall* have preserved their modal meanings in all their uses. A similar treatment can be found in works by structural grammarians. So, for instance, Randal L. Whitman (1975:77) says that "The syntax of the modal *will* is identical to the syntax of the other modals, *must*, *can*, etc (well almost), so that it would be incorrect to say that *will*, by itself, represents a future tense form (of the verb *will*) unless you are willing to say the same of all auxiliaries". The same treatment can be found in Rodney Huddleston (2002: 210): "If one looks at the verbal system of English without preconception that the tripartite division between past, present, and future time will inevitably be reflected in a system of three corresponding tenses, then the evidence is overwhelming for grouping *will*, *shall*, *may*, *can*, *must*, etc., together as auxiliaries of the same kind." A similar view is taken by L. S. Barkhudarov (1972(3):55-56), who does not regard the construction *shall/will* + *infinitive* as an analytic future tense. The scholar argues that *shall* and *will* always preserve their modal meanings which, depending on the co-text, either dominate over the meaning of futurity or are considerably weakened. Other linguists, for instance, B. Ilyish (op. cit., 87), B. Khaimovich and B. Rogovskaya (op. cit., 163-164) argue that the original meaning of *shall* or *will* has been obliterated and in some co-texts they are markers of pure futurity only:

- I shall be forty next autumn.*
They will know it in due time.
It will take place next month.

But as already indicated, such “pure” future sentences express a prediction: we can predict with more or less confidence what will happen. The above examples are ‘safe’ predictions – predictions which do not involve the subject’s volition. However, to quote M. Blokh, “a certain modal colouring of the meaning of the English future cannot be denied... But then, as is widely known, the expression of the future in other languages is not disconnected from modal semantics either” (op. cit., 145). We can add by saying that in other languages, for example, Lithuanian, the modal meaning of prediction is expressed morphologically while in English it is still expressed syntactically. Terms do not matter here – we can use the term ‘the category of futurity’ or ‘the category of future tense’. What matters is the way we express the category, i.e. whether it is grammaticalized or not. The creation of such terms as *the category of posteriority* (B. Khaimovich and B. Rogovskaya, op. cit., 146-148) or *the category of prospect* (M. Blokh, op. cit., 144) only leads us away from the problem. To attribute the forms *shall/should* and *will/would* to grammatical word-morphemes, we must prove that the said words have lost their modal meanings. As we cannot do this, all attempts to prove the existence of a grammaticalized future tense, or the grammatical category of posteriority or prospect, are futile. At present we could speak of a semi-grammaticalized future tense despite the existence of the so-called predictive future forms expressed by *shall* or *will* which are only demodalized (i.e. lose the meaning of *obligation* and *volition*) in specific co-texts.

What is the future of the so-called future tense in English? There are signs that *shall* and *will* are turning into a kind of inflection (similar to the genitive inflection ‘s), e.g. *I’ll do it tomorrow*. The contracted form ‘ll, which is a feature of spoken English, neutralizes the distinction between *shall* and *will* and at the same time turns into a marker of futurity. However, the element ‘ll may be convenient enough when the subject is expressed by a personal pronoun, but it may be cumbersome and not quite suitable phonologically when the subject is expressed by a noun. Cf. *I’ll go – Victor’ll go* or *Beryl’ll go*. The possibility of misinterpretation of such constructions in oral speech (*Victor’ll* may be treated as a name) may be a discouraging factor in the use of the element with nouns. Whether the clitic ‘ll will completely replace *shall* and *will* is a question that cannot be answered now. But if it does, we shall then have the right to speak of a grammatical future in English.

To sum up, English has no *grammatical* category that can be analyzed as a *future tense*. *Shall* and *will* are auxiliaries of mood, not tense. Although English has no grammatical future tense, it has numerous constructions which permit a future time interpretation:

[Give] her my regards (imperative);
It is essential[that she tell the truth] (mandative);
The match [starts] tomorrow (main clause present futurate);
If [she goes], I'll go too (subordinate present);
I may/will [see her tomorrow] (bare infinitival);
I intend/want [to see her tomorrow] (to-infinitival);
I intend/am [seeing her tomorrow] (gerund-participial) (see Rodney Huddleston, *ibid.*).

Absolute and Relative Tenses

As has been pointed out, depending on the nature of the reference point (deictic center), tense forms can be of two types: *absolute* (primary) and *absolute-relative* (secondary). Thus far we have been examining absolute, or primary, tenses and said little about secondary, or absolute-relative tenses. So what are absolute, or primary tenses? In absolute tenses the point of time from which we measure the time of the process is the present moment only, i.e. the time of the speaker, e.g. *John visited his mother yesterday*. Here the speaker locates the process of visiting in the past. As for absolute-relative tenses, the point of time from which we measure the time of the processes are the present time and some other time. Typically they are expressed in a complex sentence. Consider:

John said that he visited his mother once a week.
John said that he would visit his mother once a week.
John said that he had visited his mother once a week.

The form *said* is used absolutely, i.e. the process of saying is located with reference to the present time. In other words, the form *said* describes a situation in the past. The forms *visited*, *would visit* and *had visited* are dependent, or relative to the point of time established by the form *said*: the time of *visited* coincides with the time of *said* (both processes took place in the past simultaneously); the time of *would visit* is posterior to the time of *said* and the time of *had visited* is prior to the time of *said*. Processes that are simultaneous with the time of reference point are expressed by the past simple or past continuous forms; processes that occur after the reference point are expressed by the so-called future-in-the-past form, and processes that precede the reference point are expressed by the past perfect tense forms.

Special mention should be made of the perfect forms of the verb. Consider:

The President has arrived.
The President had arrived by six o'clock yesterday.
The President will have arrived by six o'clock tomorrow.

The form *has arrived* is temporally complex: it is based on two time points – *present* and *past*. The present is indicated by the form *has* and the past by *arrived*. The role of *has* is to relate the process of arriving to the reference point, which is the moment of speaking. In view of this, the present perfect tense form is used absolutely. The other perfect forms are absolute-relative. The forms *had arrived* and *will have arrived* are related both to the moment of speaking and to the moment established by the adverbial *six o'clock yesterday* and *six o'clock tomorrow*, respectively. The form *had* establishes the point of time prior to the moment of speaking and *will* establishes the point of time after the moment of speaking. However, the forms as a whole – *had arrived* and *will have arrived* also relate the process to the time denoted by the said adverbials (relative use).

Relative tenses are typically used in subordinate clauses: object and temporal. Consider:

Mary said she wanted to be a teacher.

When John came home, Jane was watching a TV programme.

Object clauses are reported statements, questions, and exclamations. In reported speech, two obvious changes take place: 1) the speaker's original wording may be changed (*leave* → *depart*, for instance); 2) the deictic center is changed. This change involves other changes. Cf.

Mary said: "I want to be a teacher".

Mary said that she wanted to be a teacher.

One such change is a change of the personal pronoun: *I* → *she*; the other change concerns tense: the present absolute tense changes to the past relative tense to correspond to the deictic center established by the verb in the reporting clause. As the tense of this utterance denotes a past time, the tense of the reported clause must also denote a past time. To put it otherwise, with the main clause describing a past situation, the subordinate clause, which presents the content of the past situation, must be based on a past form of the verb. This feature distinguishes English from Lithuanian where tenses are used absolutely under similar circumstances, e.g. *Marytė pasakė, kad ji nori būti mokytoja*, where *nori* is made to correspond to the deictic centre of the speaker, which is the moment of speaking - *now*.

The correspondence between the tenses is called the sequence of tenses. It should be observed that the English sequence of tense rule is subject to one interesting modification: even when the main verb is in a past tense, it is possible to use the tense absolutely in the reported clause provided the content of the reported clause still has validity. Cf. *John said that he was ill.* vs. *John said that he is ill.* In the first sentence, the speaker is not explicit as to whether

John is still ill or not; in the second sentence, the speaker is reporting an illness which he believes still has relevance.

The Category of Aspect

The category of aspect is concerned with the internal character of the process denoted by the verb: the process can be *durative* (i.e. considered as continuing or as being in progress) or *non-durative* (i.e. considered as non-continuing, or completed). Consider:

John wrote letters yesterday (Lith. *Džonas rašė laiškų vakar*). vs.

John wrote two letters yesterday (Lith. *Džonas parašė du laiškų vakar*).

As can be seen, the form *wrote* in the two sentences denotes two types of process: durative and non-durative. This is *lexical aspect* since *wrote* has no morphological, or grammatical markers that would signal one or the other aspect. Thanks to its meaning peculiarities, *write*, depending on the co-text, can denote either a process seen as developing or a process seen as accomplished.

Theoretical grammar is naturally concerned with grammaticalized aspective forms. Unfortunately, English is only in a position to express *duration* grammatically (completion is expressed lexically). However, duration expressed by the so-called progressive forms differs from the duration expressed lexically. To see the difference, compare the following sentences:

John wrote letters yesterday. vs.

John was writing a letter when his wife returned.

Traditional grammarians analyze the sentences as follows: the durative process of *wrote* is not tied to a specific moment, i.e. the duration of the process is not specific in this respect. But the process of *was writing* concerns a specific moment – *when his wife returned*. Specific duration is relatively short duration, i.e. the process is viewed as temporary. Cf. *He walks to work every morning*. vs. *He is walking to work now/this week*. The moment the progressive form is connected to may denote a short or a relatively long period (*now* vs. *this week, this year*) treated as specific point of time. Can *yesterday* be treated as such a point? It can if the process occupied the whole period denoted by the adverbial, e.g. *John was writing all day yesterday*. The same is true of *tomorrow* and other temporal adverbials, e.g. *John will be writing all day tomorrow*. As the process denoted by the progressive form is specific, the present, past and future forms can be referred to as the *real present*, the *real past* and the *real future* compared to the corresponding non-progressive forms which generally denote habitual situations (e.g. *John walks to work*).

What has been said about the progressive aspect so far is somewhat

superficial: it fails to reveal the inherent (the invariant) function of the progressive: the progressive is used to present a durative situation as dynamic, or developing.¹ Consider:

1. *John is working in the library.*
2. *This process has been going on ever since the beginning of time.*

Dynamic durative situations are specific, i.e. they are tied to a particular moment; they include the moment and do not overstep its temporal boundaries. Thus, when we say *John is working in the library*, we merely indicate what *John* is doing at the moment of speaking. Our experience tells us that *John* must have started working before this moment and, consequently, he is now in the middle phase of the process. It will be obvious, however, that this is only an implicature and has nothing to do with the meaning of the progressive. The phases of the process can be explicitly expressed in the co-text only. Consider:

1. *Mother was just boiling water when the telephone rang* (the beginning phase).
2. *Between 10 and 12 I was working in the library* (the beginning, the middle and the terminal phases).

Being confined to a particular moment, dynamic durative situations are of relatively *limited duration*, the limit being established by appropriate temporal circumstances (*now, today, this week, this month, this year, this century, this millennium*, etc.). As for non-specific (i.e. habitual) durative situations, their duration is not restricted in this way: they are typically restricted by circumstances denoting the frequency of the process, e.g. *John works in the library every day*, where *every day* indicates that we are dealing with a *multiple situation* rather than a *singularly situation*. Such circumstantial elements as *this week, this month* may be said to express a multiple situation as well: *this week = seven weekdays*. This is true, but such circumstances, when they combine with the progressive, are interpreted as singularly points of time.

The category of aspect, then, consists of two members: *progressive* and *non-progressive*. The progressive form is marked and the non-progressive is unmarked. Outside the co-text, the unmarked form denotes non-specific duration or non-duration, or completion. Consider:

- Mother was reading old letters yesterday* (specific duration).
Mother read old letters yesterday (non-specific duration).
Mother read two old letters yesterday (non-duration). Cf. Lith.
Mama perskaitė du laiškų vakar.

¹ Specific processes may not be dynamic, e. g. *where do you live now?* vs. *where are you living now?*

To these examples we can add the so-called *behavioural* process sentences, such as *John is being foolish*. Cf. *John is foolish*. The first sentence describes John's temporary state (i.e. he is acting foolishly at a specific moment), while the second sentence speaks of John's permanent state (i.e. he generally acts foolishly).

As can be seen, the progressive form has the effect of dynamizing the process; i.e. owing to it the process can be viewed as developing.

Process (atelic) verbs (i.e. verbs denoting duration) are dynamic verbs and, consequently, can be used in the progressive form without any restrictions. More problematic are *achievement verbs* (i.e. verbs denoting the initial or the final phase of the process). Such verbs resemble momentary, or point-action verbs. Consider:

He started singing.

He finished singing.

The verbs *start* and *finish* denote relatively short duration and are not the best candidates for the progressive form. However, when we wish to 'stretch out' the process, or increase its duration, we can do it using the progressive form:

He is starting singing.

He is finishing singing.

Take other, more common examples:

John is arriving at the hotel.

Mary is winning.

The verbs *arrive* and *win* are *achievement* verbs: they denote the final phase of the process. What about *accomplishments (telics)*? When used in the progressive form, they implicate the middle phase of the process, e.g. *Mother is boiling the water*.

Last but not least, mention should be made of such sentences as *She is always chewing gum*. According to M. Blokh (op. cit., 32), the form of the present progressive in such sentences "stands in sharp contradiction with its regular grammatical meaning, action in progress at the present time". But does it contradict it? The sentence *She is always chewing gum* means *She is chewing gum now* + *She always chews gum*. Cf. *She always chews gum*. vs. *She is always chewing gum*. As can be seen, one of the 'blended' processes expresses specific duration. Hence no contradiction. The use of such sentences is not restricted to expressing disapproval, as is generally maintained in reference grammars: they can express both approval and disapproval of one's behaviour – specific behaviour which is a specific manifestation of habitual (permanent) behaviour. Cf. *A good student always prepares homework*. vs. *She is always preparing homework*.

It will be obvious that aspect in English differs from aspect in Lithuanian or Russian, where specific dynamic duration is not grammaticalized; it is only the co-text that can show whether the process is specific or non-specific (habitual). An apparent exception is the compound progressive form in Lithuanian:

Aš jau buvau beišeinąs, kai suskambo telefonas, which can be interpreted as *I was in the initial phase of the process of leaving the house when the telephone rang*.

This compound progressive form is restricted to initial-phase durative processes and cannot compare to the English progressive form: the English progressive, as has been pointed out, can denote the beginning phase, the middle phase or the terminal phase, the actual meaning being determined by the co-text.

The Category of Mood

Mood is a grammatical category which expresses the speaker's attitude toward the process, indicating whether it is regarded as a *fact* or as a *non-fact*, i.e. as a matter of supposition, desire, possibility, etc. Hence two moods – fact and non-fact.

Presenting facts, the speaker may be categoric and non-categoric:

John's health is bad. vs.

John's health must be bad.

Facts are expressed by the *indicative mood* and non-facts by the *subjunctive mood*. Cf.

I go to university. vs. *He suggests I (should) go to university.*

I am a student again. vs. *I wish I were a student again.*

What about the imperative mood? Is it a fact or a non-fact mood? Traditionally, this mood is referred to as a separate mood. The scholar M. Blokh thinks that the imperative is a variety of the mood of attitudes, i.e. the subjunctive. To prove this, he says that “the imperative form displays every property of a form of attitudes, which can easily be shown by means of equivalent transformations” (op. cit., 189). Consider his examples:

Be off! → *I demand that you (should) be off.*

Do be careful with the papers. → *My request is that you (should) be careful with the papers.*

Do as I ask you! → *I insist that you (should) do as I ask you.*

As can be seen, the meaning of the imperative does not much differ from the meaning of the subjunctive. It expresses a directive which may or may not be translated into a fact. Thus if we agree with M. Blokh, we shall have only two moods – the *indicative* and the *non-indicative*, or *spective*.

Speaking of the non-fact, i.e. the subjunctive mood, linguists distinguish various semantic varieties of the mood: *subjunctive I*, *subjunctive II*, *conditional*, *suppositional*. These moods are distinguished on the basis of meaning which is coloured by the linguistic environment of the forms, i.e. these are 'modal' varieties of the subjunctive mood.

How does English realize the moods? The *fact*, or the *indicative mood*, is expressed by indicative mood forms. Its modalized variety is expressed by the use of appropriate modal verbs. The imperative variety of the non-fact mood is realized by the use of the bare (i.e. unmarked) infinitive. The subjunctive variety of the non-fact mood is more complicated. The only regular inflections by which the subjunctive is distinguished from the indicative are the forms of the old subjunctive: 1) the citation form of the verb (i.e. the bare infinitive); 2) the form *were*. Traditionally, the former is called the present subjunctive and the latter, the past subjunctive. Consider:

Mary suggests I go to university.

My wife wishes she were a student again.

The present subjunctive is not common in British English: it is generally restricted to elevated prose, poetry and official documents. In American English, it is used in both spoken and written English. The past subjunctive form *were* is being replaced by the form *was* in spoken English (Collins Cobuild, 1992:771):

If I was an architect, I'd re-design this house.

This would still be true if Britain was out of the Community.

Sometimes, however, both forms can be found in the same text:

My wife says she wishes I were a thousand miles away, and I wish I was.

Were is replaced here by *was* for the sake of emphasis: *was*, being more substantial phonologically, is more suitable for this purpose than *were*.

A notable characteristic of English is that there is not a single verb form which could be unambiguously labelled a subjunctive: though a form may express a non-fact meaning, it always happens to look like some indicative form. To put it more definitely, one and the same form can be used to express both facts and non-facts. Consider more examples:

If only I had more time! vs. *I had more time when I was younger.*

If only I had had more time! vs. *He said he had had more time then.*

The question that linguists have been trying to answer is: are the forms used in the subordinate clauses the same as those used in the past indicative? In other words, can we speak of the homonymity of subjunctive forms with indicative forms? According to J. B. Khlebnikova (1965), "homonyms are only those homographs that belong to different microsystems and therefore express diametrically opposed grammatical features. For example: *were* in *we*

were there and *if we were there, things would be different* are considered homonyms because they express, in a certain environment, incompatible grammatical features of reality – unreality.” However, past forms can also be viewed as polysemous, i.e. related semantically: the meaning that underlies both past forms is the meaning of *distance*. Something that occurred in the past can be treated as distant from the speaker’s current situation. In the case of the subjunctive, the past form marks a process presented by the speaker as not being close to present reality. The past form, then, could be called the remote or distal form which can be used to communicate not only distance from the moment of speaking, but also distance from current reality (George Yule, 1996:15). Depending on the co-text, the distal meaning, which is an inherent feature of a past form, may denote reality or unreality.

Apart from synthetic ‘subjunctive’ forms, English possesses analytic ‘subjunctive’ forms composed of *shall/should, will/would, may/might, can/could* and the base form of a verb. Consider:

Make a note of it so that you shan’t forget.

Make a note of it lest you should forget.

They have arrived early so that they won’t miss the overture.

They came early so that they wouldn’t miss the overture.

He is going to London so that he can/may see the Queen.

He bought a car so that he could/might be more mobile.

Similar problems concern *should* or *would* constructions: they may be treated as a case of homonymy or polysemy. To quote B. Ilyish (op.cit., 108), “If we have decided to avoid homonymy as far as possible, we will say that a group of this type is basically a tense (the future in the past), which under certain specified conditions may express an unreal action – the consequence of an unfulfilled condition.” The scholar, however, has no solution to the remaining forms of the subjunctive: *shall, will, may, can*. He thinks that the existence of the said forms complicate the problem of the subjunctive mood, for it is not clear whether the said forms are *auxiliaries* (similar to *should* and *would*) or *modal verbs*. This problem can be solved if we deny the forms *shall/should* and *will/would* the status of grammatical word – morphemes and treat them, along with *may, can*, as modal verbs¹.

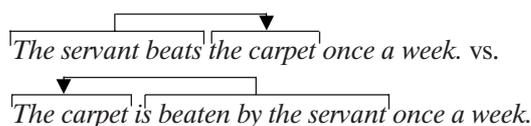
To sum up, the category of mood is represented by two oppositions: the

¹ As already pointed out, B. Ilyish (op.cit., 87) argues that *shall* and *will* may be treated as grammatical word-morphemes. He does not agree with O. Jespersen, who denies the existence of a future tense in English. According to B. Ilyish, there are contexts in which the forms *shall* and *will* are free from the meanings of obligation and volition, expressing mere futurity, e.g. *I am sorry, I am afraid I will have to go back to the hotel.*

indicative mood and the *spective* mood. The indicative mood is the basic mood of the verb. Morphologically it is the most developed system. Semantically, it is a fact mood; it is the least subjective of all the moods. The *spective* mood, which includes the traditional imperative and the subjunctive mood, represents a process as a non-fact, i.e. as something imaginary, desirable, problematic, contrary to reality. The imperative variety of the *spective* mood is morphologically the least developed mood: it is only expressed by the bare infinitive form. The subjunctive variety of the *spective* mood makes use of two types of construction: 1) *non-modal*: a) the base form of a verb; b) *were*; c) forms identical with indicative mood forms; 2) *modal* (modal verb + the base form of a verb). The problems that face the analyst are: 1) the linguistic status of non-modal subjunctive forms; 2) the linguistic status of the modal forms *shall/should, will/would, etc.*

The Category of Voice

Voice is the grammatical category of the verb that shows the direction of the process in regard to the subject: in the active-voice construction, the process issues from the *Subject*; in the passive-voice construction, the process issues from the *Agentive Adjunct*.¹ Consider:



Issuing from the *Subject*, the process affects the *Objective Complement*, and issuing from the *Agentive Adjunct*, it affects the *Subject*. To put it otherwise, in the active-voice construction, the *Agent* is turned into the *Subject* of the sentence and the *Affected* into the *Objective Compliment* while in the passive-voice construction the *Affected* is turned into the *Subject*² and the *Agent* into the *Agentive Adjunct*. Cf.

¹ In the traditional analysis, the by-constituent is treated as an *Objective Complement*. In our analysis, it is an *Agentive Adjunct* since structurally it is optional.

² The terms *Agent* and *Affected* can only be applicable to the sentences under discussion. The process of passivization may involve other participants as well, for instance, the *Recipient Experiencer* (e.g. *John* (Recipient Experiencer) *loves Mary*), the *Phenomenon* (e.g. *Mary* (the Phenomenon) *is loved by John*), the *Recipient* (e.g. *Mary was given a ring by John*). The general principle of passivization can be worded as follows: we can turn an active-voice sentence into the corresponding passive-voice sentence on condition the constituent following the verb in the active voice is conceived to be affected by the process. Consider:

Several famous personages have lived in the house. → *The house has been lived in by several famous people.*

Generations of lovers have walked under this bridge. → *This bridge has been walked under by several generations.*

1. *The servant (Agent) beats the carpet (Affected) once a week.*
2. *The carpet (Affected) is beaten by the servant (Agent) once a week.*

Example (1) is called active because *the Subject* is aligned with an active role, the role of *the Agent: the servant* carries out the process. Example (2) is called passive because *the Subject, the carpet*, is associated with a passive role, the role of *the Affected: the carpet* is the entity on which the action is performed.

The question that may arise is: what motivates the process of passivization? The motives are informational-pragmatic:

- 1) the speaker's wish to use the *Agent* as the *Theme* (the active construction) or the *Affected* as the *Theme* (the passive construction). Consider:
Who made this chair? My father did./This chair was made by my father.
- 2) the speaker's reluctance or inability to use the *Agent*.

The speaker may not want to mention the *Agent* for the sake of tact, or he/she may want to avoid making explicit reference to the *Agent* and thus give the writing a more objective flavour, or he/she simply may not know who carried out the process. Consider:

A man was killed yesterday.
The room has not been cleaned.

- 3) the speaker's wish to avoid semantic redundancy, i.e. to avoid non-informative constituents. Consider:
English is spoken in many countries (instead of *People speak English in many countries*).

As already known, the category of voice is based on transitive verbs, i.e. verbs associated with at least two nouns whose semantic roles are characteristically those of an *Agent* and an *Affected (Patient)*. The passive voice is an analytic form: it is built up by means of the corresponding tense of the auxiliary verb *be* and the past participle of the given verb. Transformationally, it derives from the deep structure of the corresponding active sentence: *Mary + past + give + apple + to John* → *John was given the apple by Mary*. The rules that are applied to the deep structure include: 1) *Agent* postposing; 2) *Recipient* preposing; 3) verb passivizing. Passive-voice sentences and active-voice sentences are syntactic synonyms: they have the same cognitive meaning.

Do all active-voice transitive-verb sentences have passive counterparts? In reference grammars we are advised not to passivize the future progressive and perfect progressive forms. Instead of the said forms the learner is advised to use the corresponding non-progressive forms. Cf.

John will be writing the letter → *The letter will be written by John.*

John has been writing the letter for an hour → *The letter has been written by John for an hour.*

The learner would be better advised if he were told to avoid using the passive under circumstances. What he is now told to use does not correspond to the meaning of the corresponding active-voice sentences. The advice not to use the passive contradicts language facts. Such constructions as *The letter will be being written by John* and *The letter has been being written by John for an hour*, clumsy as they may look, are to be found in spoken and written English. According to M. A. K. Halliday (1976: 145), such forms are rare because the contexts in which they would be appropriate are rare. But they can occur if called for. Consider the examples given by the scholar:

A. *Can I use the machine when I come in at this time tomorrow?*

B. *No – it's going to be being tested (or: will be being tested). It'll have been going to be being tested every day for a fortnight now.*

And one more example:

Work in this aspect of English syntax has been being pursued by linguists in the United States for some considerable time.

Formally, passive constructions present two types: *full (non-elliptical)* and *elliptical*. More common are elliptical passives, i.e. passives without the *Agentive Adjunct*. However, not all passive sentences can get rid of the *Agentive Adjunct*. Cf.

1) *The letter was posted by Mary.* vs. **The letter was posted.*

2) *The plane was driven by a propeller.* vs. **The plane was driven.*

First of all, the *Agentive Adjunct* cannot be removed if it conveys novel information, i.e. if it is the answer to the question *Who by?* (sentence 1). Second, it cannot be removed if it is semantically inherent and functions as a *Complement* (sentence 2). Third, the *Agentive Adjunct* cannot be removed if the verb *be* is used in the present tense simple and the participle derives from a dual-aspect verb, e.g. **Many houses are built.* vs. *The work is finished.* But: *Many houses are built in the town.*

It will be noted that the combination of the verb *be* with the past participle does not always form the passive voice; it may also be a compound nominal predicate. When the verb *be* with the past participle expresses a process, it is the passive voice. When the construction expresses a state resulting from a process, the verb *be* is a link-verb and the participle is a predicative. Hence two types of passives: verbal and adjectival. Consider:

The door was closed by the janitor. vs. *The door was closed.*

The two constructions have been the subject of many discussions in the linguistic literature. Some linguists are against this interpretation. So, for

instance, L. S. Barkhudarov and L. A. Shteling (1973:156) argue that in such cases we have a passive voice; the idea of state is not inherent to the construction as a whole but to the past participle whose actual meaning is determined by the meaning of the verb it derives from. It is only in the context that we can say which is which. The scholars think that it is only when the past participle has been subjected to adjectivization that we can speak of a nominal predicate construction, e.g. *I am very interested*. B. Khaimovich and B. Rogovskaya (op.cit., 128) are inclined to believe that such constructions as *The door was closed* cannot be treated as passive. These are ‘passive’ constructions which have no active counterparts. Consider another example: *His duty is fulfilled*. The sentence corresponds rather to *He has fulfilled his duty* rather than to *He fulfills his duty*. M. Blokh (op. cit., 184) thinks that the grammatical status of a construction is determined not by the meaning in isolation; it is determined by the semantic properties of its constituents, its participial part in particular. If the participle expresses a process, then the whole construction is passive and if the participle expresses a result, the whole construction is a nominal predicate. Cf. *You are mistaken*. vs. *I was often mistaken for my friend*. As for the sentence *The door was closed*, the participle is wholly neutralized and only a living context may deneutralize it both ways. Cf.

A.

The door was closed by the janitor.

The door is often closed.

B.

The door on the left was closed, and the door on the right was open.

To ‘voice stimulating’ means belong the forms of the future, the progressive and the perfect. According to M. Blokh (op. cit., 184), the said voice-stimulators are especially important for bounded dual-aspect verbs since their past participles can express a process or a resultative state. As for bounded perfective verbs, their past participles express a resultative state, e.g. *My work is finished*. Constructions with such participles are synonymous with the corresponding perfect constructions. Cf. *My work is finished* vs. *My work has been finished*. The first sentence draws attention to the result; the second sentence draws attention to the process. Consider also: *The snow is melted* vs. *The snow has melted*, where we observe the same meaning distinctions.

Besides *be-passives*, grammars generally give separate treatment to *get-passives*. Cf.

They were killed by the hijackers. vs. *They got killed by the hijackers.*

The main differences between the two types of passives are:

1. *Get-passives* are characteristically used in sentences involving adversity or benefit (e.g. *Kim got sacked.* vs. *Kim got promoted*);
2. *Get-passives* tend to be avoided in formal style.

However, *get* is not a grammatical word-morpheme; it is not devoid of lexical content. Hence, it is not an analytic construction in this sense (Gregory Ward, Betty Birner, Rodney Huddleston, 2002: 1442).

Opinions differ as to the number of voices in Modern English. Most linguists recognize only two voices – active and passive. Some (e.g. B. Ilyish, op. cit., 116-8) speak of the reflexive voice which shows that the process passes on to the subject, e.g. *John is shaving himself*.

Transformationally, *John is shaving himself* derives from *John* + pres. *be* + *ing shave* + *John*. The derivation shows that *John* is both the *Subject* and the *Objective Complement*, or, in semantic terms, *John* is both the *Agent* and the *Affected* (patient). This is an explicitly reflexive construction, i.e. a construction in which the *Affected* is actualized as a reflexive pronoun. This function may not be realized in the surface structure, i.e. reflexivity may not be stated explicitly, e. g. *He never shaves before lunch*. Inexplicit-reflexive constructions are not very common in English.

The analyst is faced with the linguistic status of self-pronouns. The problem is whether self-pronouns used in such sentences as *John is shaving himself* are auxiliary words (grammatical word-morphemes) used for forming a special voice of the verb, thus making part of an analytic verb form, or words performing the function of a separate part of the sentence, i.e. the *Objective Complement*. We can hardly prove that *self-pronouns*, although weakened semantically, have turned into a kind of grammatical word-morphemes. As is rightly pointed out by B. Khaimovich and B. Rogovskaya (op.cit., 129), “If we regard *washed himself* as an analytical word, it is necessary to admit that the verb has the categories of gender (*washed himself* – *washed herself*), person – non-person (*washed himself* – *washed itself*), that the categories of number and person are expressed twice in the word *washes himself*”. The existence of such sentences as *She washed herself and the baby* clearly demonstrates that self-pronouns function as the *Objective Complement* of the verb.

The other voices distinguished in English are *reciprocal* and *middle*. The reciprocal voice is expressed with the help of reciprocal pronouns added to a verb, e.g. *They kissed each other*. The problem is similar to that of the reflexive voice – are reciprocal pronouns *each other* or *one another* grammatical word-morphemes or lexical words? Examples such as *They kissed each other and the child* suggest that the pronouns cannot be treated as grammatical word-morphemes.

The so-called ‘middle’ voice¹ can be illustrated by such sentences as *The door opened*. Semantically, this sentence reminds us of the passive sentence proper; yet it cannot be completed with the by-construction: **The door opened by the wind*, only *The door was opened by the wind*. Examples of that kind have been treated in the linguistic literature as the notional passive or activo-passive constructions. In semantic syntax, they are related to the corresponding causative sentences:

The wind opened the door. → *The door opened.*

Transformationally, *The door opened* is obtained by the deletion of the Agent *wind* and the rearrangement of the remaining parts. It will be noted that the semantic relation between the verb *opened* and the noun *the door* is the same in both sentences. The verb that is in a position to construct such sentences is referred to as *ergative*, and such sentences are referred to as *ergative pairs*.

There is one more ‘middle’ voice construction in English which is also mentioned in the literature in connection with the category of voice. Consider:

The play acts well.

The book is selling excellently.

The fabric washes easily.

The door won't open.

Glass breaks easily.

Such sentences express a characteristic property of the entity realized by the adjuncts *well*, *excellently*, *easily*. Semantically, such sentences are similar to the type of sentence discussed above. However, there is a difference: sentences of the type *The door opened* can be easily rewritten as passive sentences proper – *The door opened* vs. *The door was opened*. As for the type *The play acts well*, the passive transformation is not always possible. Cf. *Glass breaks easily*. vs. *Glass can be broken easily*. But: *This novel reads very well* vs. **This novel can be read very well*. Neither the sentence-type *The door opened* nor *The door won't open* can be regarded as passive sentences proper, despite similarity in meaning, for the simple reason that they cannot be completed with the by-agent construction. The suppression of the Agent imparts a new meaning to the sentence: the meaning of a characteristic property. According to Halliday (1967), this type of verb is especially frequent in simple present tense, particularly in negative sentences where the form is *don't/won't* and not *can't*; it is not, however, restricted to these verbal forms, and may in fact occur with any tense form, especially with certain *-ly* adverbs. The scholar calls the type

¹ The term *middle voice* was originally used of forms of verbs in Ancient Greek whose meaning was reflexive; called *middle* because seen as intermediate between active and passive.

of verbal form *process-oriented* in contradistinction to the *agent-oriented* type in *The clothes were washed*. To process-oriented forms we can also add forms in *The door opened*, *The wheel is turning*. However, these ‘self-acting’ processes differ from *The door won’t open* which implies that it is due to some property of the door that I cannot open it. In Lithuanian and in Russian, the equivalent of the so-called process-oriented forms may take the form of a reflexive. Cf. *The fabric washes easily*. vs. *Ši medžiaga lengvai skalbiasi*. *Этот материал легко стирается*. Lithuanian speakers generally avoid using the reflexive verb under the circumstances, giving priority to non-reflexive forms – active or passive, e.g. *Šią medžiagą lengva skalbti/Ši medžiaga lengvai skalbiama*.

The Category of Order (the Perfect)

The category of order is constituted by the opposition of perfect forms to non-perfect forms of the verb. The marked member of the opposition is the perfect form and the unmarked, the non-perfect form.

The English perfect has been the subject of a lengthy discussion. There are three views on the problem: 1) the *tense-view*; 2) the *aspect-view*, and 3) the *specific category-view*.

Henry Sweet (1892: 97-105), G. O. Curme (1931,2: 231-232), Otto Jespersen (1931: 112-113) and other traditional grammarians treat the perfect as tense. According to the second view, the perfect is a peculiar aspect category. So, for instance, John Lyons (1968: 315) argues that English has two main aspects “which combine fairly freely with tense and mood: the ‘perfect’ (e.g. *I have/had read the book*, *I will/would have read the book*) and the ‘progressive’ (*I am/was reading the book*, *I will/would be reading the book*). They also combine freely with one another (*I have/had been reading the book*)”. The scholar also speaks of other aspectual distinctions, e.g. the ‘habitual’ (*I used to read*), the ‘mutative’ (e.g. *I got killed*). According to the third view, the perfect is neither tense nor aspect, but a specific category different from both.

A.I. Smirnitsky (1959: 274-316) was the first to draw attention to the fact that the forms *writes – has written*, *wrote- had written* or *to write – to have written* represent a grammatical category different from that of tense. The scholar proposed to call it “the category of time relation”. Later the term was replaced by “the category of correlation” (1955), since it was thought that the former term might imply that the perfect was a special kind of tense. The term “the category of correlation” was adopted by B. Ilyish (1971, 93) “until a better term is found”. B. S. Khaimovich and B. I. Rogovskaya (op. cit., 132) find the said term inconvenient. They suggest the term “the category of order”, which, according to the scholars, reveal the essence of the category better. M.

Blokh (op. cit., 156) suggests the term “the category of retrospective coordination” or, contractedly, “the category of retrospect”. N. Slonimskaya (1975: 98) calls the opposition of perfect – non-perfect forms “the category of taxis”. We could suggest one more term – *the category of relevant retrospect* or *the category of relevant precedence*. But in this course we will use the term *the category of order*. The reasons are: 1) it has already taken root in Anglistics; 2) it is brief and to the point: perfect forms express order of processes, i.e. they present a process as prior to the moment of speaking or to some other moment.

The Function of the Category of Order

There are languages which have no perfect forms, for instance, Russian. As for Lithuanian, it is similar to English in this respect: it has the perfect. However, Lithuanians, the younger generation in particular, do not always use it: instead of *Jonas yra parašęs daug gražių eilėraščių* we often hear *Jonas (jau) parašė daug gražių eilėraščių*, for it is the co-text or the context (situation) that renders the meaning of the perfect form. Lithuanian, unlike English, is showing a tendency to replace the analytic construction (i.e. the perfect) with grammatically simpler structures, i. e. with the corresponding synthetic construction. Why do we use the perfect? The simple answer to this question is: *we use it to actualize a process that is anterior to another process, or another moment of time*. In other words, to show its relevance to the reference point: if the anterior process is relevant to the moment of speaking, we use the present perfect; if the anterior process was relevant to the reference point located in the past, we use the past perfect; and if the anterior process will be relevant to the reference point located in the future, we use the future perfect. Consider a few examples:

A.

I have worked in London for three years.

I have finished already.

The present forms *have worked* and *have finished* refer to working and finishing up to or before the moment of speaking (i.e. the deictic center).

B.

I had worked in London for three years.

I had finished already.

The past forms *had worked* and *had finished* refer to working and finishing before some moment which is itself in the past.

C.

I will have worked in London for three years.

I will have finished.

In the sentences the future forms *will have worked* and *will have finished* the working or finishing is prior to the moment which is itself in the future.

The semantic structure of the perfect can be represented as follows:

The present perfect = $\overbrace{\text{the past} + \text{the present}}^{\blacktriangledown}$ (i.e. the moment of speaking, or the deictic center)

The past perfect = $\overbrace{\text{past}(1) + \text{past}(2)}^{\blacktriangledown}$ (the deictic center).

The future perfect = $\overbrace{\text{future}(1) + \text{future}(2)}^{\blacktriangledown}$ (the deictic center)

As can be seen, the deictic center is either the present (*the absolute perfect*) or the past, or the future (*the absolute-relative perfect*). Theoretically, the explication of the deictic center of *the perfect* through the use of special temporal constructions is not necessary: it is already expressed grammatically – by the auxiliary *have* (*had*, *will have*). As language is a redundant system (i.e. a system that has more signals than is minimally necessary), the deictic center is additionally expressed by the co-text (i.e. by the use of special temporal constructions – *so far*, *now*, *up to now*, *until now*, *until then*, etc.) or the context Consider:

A.

We have finished five chapters so far.

He has lived in the United States four years now.

Up to now, we have not found the kind of paint we need for the job.

He will not come to the party until he has written his essay.

B.

He had already graduated from the University by then.

Before then, nobody had dared enter the castle.

He had just (already) gone to bed when the telephone rang.

After I had spoken, I realized my mistake.

C.

By then, we will have visited London.

On June 10 she will have been a widow for two years.

When he retires from his work, he will have made more than a million dollars.

Theoretically, the use of the perfect is not necessary when the connection to the deictic center or centers is expressed by the context or by the co-text: it could be replaced by non-perfect forms. According to Marcella Frank (1972:81), “except for *since* and *for*, most of the other past-to-present time expressions may be used informally with the past tense”:

We finished five chapters so far.

He just (now) came in.

He recently published his memoirs.

If this tendency gains ground, we can expect a reduction in the patterns in which the perfect occurs. We can hardly predict total disintegration of the perfect since there are patterns in which the perfect is obligatory, e.g. *He will not go to the party until he has written the essay.* The form *has written* means *has finished writing* and cannot be replaced with the form *writes* which has a durative meaning in this co-text, e.g. **He won't go to the party until he writes the essay.* But if the verb has a perfective meaning, it can be used in the present non-perfect form, e.g. *He won't go to the party until he completes (finishes) his essay.* The difference between the perfect and the non-perfect form is that of emphasis: the perfect form lays emphasis on the completeness of the process. Cf. Lith. *Jis neis į pobūvį, kol neparašys (nebus parašęs) rašinio*, where *neparašys* has a perfective meaning. As can be seen, Lithuanian can manage without the perfect form here – the perfective meaning is expressed lexically by the verb *parašyti* which stands in opposition to the imperfective *rašyti*.

As already indicated, the perfect form is used when the speaker or writer wishes to show the relevance of a past or a future event to the moment serving as the deictic center, or the reference point: the present perfect expresses the relevance of a past event to a moment of speaking; the past perfect expresses the relevance of a past event to the moment in the past, and the future perfect expresses the relevance of a future event to a moment in the future. This is the general meaning of the perfect. In a specific context, however, the perfect acquires a pragmatic meaning. Consider: *You know, John has married Mary.* The perfect form *has married* is used to show the relevance of a past event to the moment of speaking – John's marrying Mary is the news. If the addressee knows *John* and *Mary* well, the implied meaning may be: *How happy John is! How happy Mary is!* or *Poor John!* or some other meaning.

When we use the perfect with unbounded (durative) verbs, we are often under the impression that the situation being described still holds at the time indicated by the reference point:

He has lived in London for many years now.

Does it mean that *he* still lives in London? It may or it may not, but the form itself has nothing to do with it: the role of the perfect is to relate the anterior situation to the deictic (the reference) point by showing that the situation has occurred, had occurred, or will have occurred *before the deictic point*. If the person in question is still in London, this is not part of the meaning of the perfect; this is only an implicature. To show that the person is still in

London, we can use the so-called *qualifying structure*; if he is no longer in London, we can use a *cancelling structure*. Consider:

He has lived in London for many years, and he still does.

(or: *As far as I know, he still does/he doesn't live there any longer.*)

The same indeterminacy, or vagueness, is characteristic of progressive perfect forms:

He has been living in London for many years.

The progressive perfect form *has been living* describes a situation that is usually interpreted as including the deictic center, or the reference point. In point of fact, the form itself does not say this. Consider another example:

A. *Why are you shivering?*

B. *I have been swimming.*

The context clearly shows that speaker B is not swimming now. No such indeterminacy arises when we use simple perfect forms based on bounded verbs:

Father has painted the house.

It will be obvious that the process is already over and no such implicatures can be derived from the sentence. But if we use progressive perfect forms, we shall be able to derive the same implicatures, e.g. *Father has been painting the house*. The process of painting may be interpreted as being over or as still in progress. However, the form itself only means that the process of painting has occurred before the reference point. Consider:

Father has been painting the house, and he still is/but he no longer is.

There is another question relating to the perfect, viz. the *temporal distance* between the anterior process and the deictic center. For instance, when we say *John has written another novel*, we of course know when John wrote his novel, i.e. we know the temporal distance. However, the addressee may not know it since there is nothing in the perfect form that can tell him whether the anterior process occurred recently (a short time ago) or a long time ago. It will be obvious that the speaker often uses the perfect form to convey the most recent information, the news (Cf. radio news). But this form is not confined to recent events only. Cf.

3. *The King has died. Long live the King!*

4. *Have you been to London?*

The context of the first sentence shows that the process of *has died* is recent; it is 'hot' news. The sentence *Long live the King!* reinforces the idea of recency: a new king is generally appointed immediately after the death of the former king, which suggests that the interval between the death of the king and the appointment of the new king is rather short - the death occurred a short

while ago. The second sentence is rather indefinite in this respect: it has no context or a proper co-text which could help us to tell whether the process is recent or not recent¹. Besides the context, the recency of a process can be conveyed by such adverbial structures as *just, recently, lately, of late, finally, already, since* (+noun; +predication), *this week (month year), this Saturday, this morning*. The notion *recency* should not be confused with *currency*, i.e. the relevance of the anterior process to the deictic center. Cf.

1. *John wrote a letter just now.* (*just now* = a moment ago)
2. *John has just written a letter.* (*just* = a very short time ago)

As can be seen, both processes are recent. Yet they have different perspectives: *wrote* merely locates the process in the past while *has written* focuses on the relevance of the past process to the moment of speaking.

The Perfective Form and the Perfective Aspect

In traditional grammar the perfect is said to express a process as a completed whole, i.e. the perfect is identified with the perfective aspect in such languages as Lithuanian or Russian. In fact, the perfect has nothing to do with the perfective aspect. As pointed out by L. S. Barkhudarov (1972:3), partially the source of this interpretation is the Latin term *perfectum* used for forms of the verb denoting the completion of the process. Another source, points out the scholar, is the fact that in many cases the English perfect is translated into Russian by perfective-aspect forms. Cf.

I have already written the letter.

Я уже написал письмо. Cf. Lith.

Aš jau parašiau laišką.

After the teacher had gone, the students dispersed:

После того как учитель ушёл, студенты разошлись. Cf. Lith.

Kai dėstytojas išėjo, studentai išsiskirstė.

However, this kind of coincidence is by no means absolute: there are many cases when the perfect is translated into Russian (or Lithuanian) by using imperfective-aspect forms:

Only fancy, I have not read anything of his yet!

Представьте, я ещё не читала! Cf. Lith.

Tik pagalvokit, aš dar jo nieko neskaičiau!

All this goes to say that the English perfect is indifferent to aspect. It is as indifferent as the past simple. Cf. *I wrote the letter.* vs. *I skated yesterday.* It is

¹ According to D. Crystal and R. Quirk (1964:39), the probability of the more distant past may be conveyed by laying more emphasis on the past participle: *I've been to the old Vic* in opposition to the heavily stressed *Vic* which refers to a very recent past – *I've been to the old Vic*.

not the perfect form that renders the verb perfective in meaning but the meaning of the verb. If the verb denotes a bounded perfective process only, the perfect form, irrespective of the co-text, denotes the end of the process. Consider:

The child broke the vase. vs. The child has broken the vase.

John sold his car to Mary. vs. John has sold his car to Mary.

You look worried. What happened? vs. You look worried. What's happened?

You dropped your purse. vs. You have dropped your purse.

The train stopped there. vs. The train has stopped.

If the verb denotes a bounded perfective and an imperfective aspect, the actual meaning of the perfect form is determined by the co-text. Cf.

A.

We sat on the couch and she played records. We drank and watched TV. vs.

We have played records. We have drunk and watched TV.

How did he earn his living? He made films. vs. He has made films.

John smoked for two years. vs. John has smoked for two years.

She often went to the beach. vs. She has often gone to the beach.

B.

He saved some money. vs. He has saved some money.

He wrote two letters. vs. He has written two letters.

She made a movie. vs. She has made a movie.

She danced a bit. vs. She has danced a bit. (i.e. has done some dancing)

All these examples demonstrate the role of the co-text in actualizing the aspect of the verb: 1) verbs used absolutely or followed by objective complements used in the plural or process circumstances (e.g. adverbials of duration or frequency), when put in the perfect form, will convey an imperfective meaning; 2) verbs followed by objective complements preceded by a quantifier (a numeral or a respective pronoun) or by other process-restricting structures (e.g. adverbials of quantity), when put in the perfect form, will convey a perfective meaning¹.

Non-Finite Forms of the Verb

Introductory

As already indicated, verb forms make up two distinct classes: *finites* and *non-finites*, also called *verbals*, *verbids*. Finites serve to express a *primary predication*, i.e. they 'tie' the situation described by a proposition to the context.

¹ For more information on the relationship of the perfect and the perfective aspect, see Libuše Dušková (1974:2); also L.Valeika (1975:8).

In this finites are aided by the categories of person, number, tense, mood, aspect, voice, and order. Non-finites serve to express a *secondary predication*. Consider:

1. *She was walking in the garden.* vs.
2. *I saw her walking in the garden.*

Sentence (1) is based on one proposition, or on one predicative unit; sentence (2) is based on two propositions, or on two predicative units (*I saw + she was walking in the garden*). With the help of non-finites we can expand the simple sentence and thus abbreviate the text. Cf.

We are sitting here in the sun. We can see hills. The hills are covered with snow. vs. *Sitting here in the sun, we can see snow-covered hills.*

Non-finites, then, could be referred to as a language economy device.

Non-finites do not express the categories of person, number, tense, and mood. But they express time, which is either simultaneous with or prior to the time expressed by the finite form.

Non-finite forms (the infinitive, the gerund, and the participle) express a 'transposed' process, i.e. in the non-finites, which are derivationally related to the verb, the meaning of a process either includes the component of substantivity (thingness) or the component of quality or property. The infinitive is a process including the component of substantivity; the gerund is also a substantival process; the participle is an adjectival process. The question arises: if the non-finites possess the components of substance and property, why are then they included in the system of the verb? The answer is very simple: their fundamental meaning is that of a process. Their processuality, or verbality, is revealed by their morphological categories (aspect, voice, order).

The Infinitive

Historically, the infinitive is a verbal noun. Hence its double nature: it combines the features of the verb with those of the noun. It is the form of the verb which expresses a process in general, i.e. a process that is not restricted (i.e. concretized) by person, number, tense, and mood. Because of its general-process meaning, the infinitive is treated as the head-form of the whole paradigm of the verb. In this respect it reminds us of the nominative case of the noun in inflected languages. From the infinitive we derive all the forms of the verb.

The infinitive has two presentation forms: *marked* and *unmarked*. The marked infinitive is distinguished by the grammatical word-morpheme *to*, historically a preposition. Similar to other grammatical word morphemes, *to* can be used to represent the corresponding construction as a whole, e.g. *you*

can read any of the books if you want to (read). It can also be separated from its notional part by a word or phrase, usually of adverbial nature, forming the so-called *split infinitive*, e.g. *To systematically rid this town of layabouts, we must adopt a special law*. The marked infinitive is an analytic grammatical form. The other form of the infinitive is unmarked; it is traditionally called *the bare infinitive*. It is used in various analytic forms (non-modal and modal), with verbs of physical perceptions, with the verbs *let, bid, make, help* (optionally), with a few modal phrases (*had better, would rather, would have*, etc.), with the relative *why*.

The Verbal Features of the Infinitive.

First, let us examine the morphological features of the infinitive. Like the finite form of verb, the infinitive distinguishes the categories of aspect, voice, and order.

<i>to write</i> (non-progressive, non-passive, non-perfect)	vs.	<i>to be written</i> (non-progressive, non-perfect, passive)
<i>to be writing</i> (progressive, non-passive, non-perfect)	vs.	<i>to be being written</i> (progressive, passive, non-perfect)
<i>to have written</i> (non-progressive, non-passive, perfect)	vs.	<i>to have been written</i> (non-progressive, passive, perfect)
<i>to have been writing</i> (progressive, non-passive, perfect)	vs.	<i>to have been being written</i> (progressive, passive, perfect)

It will be obvious that the paradigm of the infinitive is determined by the semantico-syntactic properties of the process. If the process is intransitive, we shall not be able to derive voice forms, e.g.

<i>to walk – to be walking</i>	vs.	<i>*to be being walked</i>
<i>to have walked – to have been walking</i>	vs.	<i>*to have been being walked</i>

Consider a few examples:

1. *John hopes to learn Chinese.*
2. *The courses to be taught are listed in the catalogue.*
3. *The term ‘discourse’ is seen to be being used extremely diversely.*
4. *He’s lucky to have found such a wonderful wife.*
5. *It’s better to have loved and lost than never to have loved at all.*
6. *He looked too young to have been publishing for five years.*
7. *This bridge seems to have been being built for two years.*

Of all the forms of the infinitive, the most common are non-perfect non-passive forms. Such forms as used in sentence (3) and sentence (7) are less common. The principle is: the more simple the form is, the more common it is.

Syntactically, the infinitive is similar to the finite form of verb in several respects: first, it is part of the predicate; second, it can be followed by an objective complement (e.g. *John hopes to learn Chinese*, where *hopes to learn* is the predicate and the infinitive is its notional part; *Chinese* is an objective complement of the predicate and, of course, of the infinitive; third, it can function as an adjunct, e.g. *Man eats to live*. Cf. *Man eats so that he can live*; last but not least, it can replace the finite form of the verb, e.g. *All I need is the money. Ah, but how to get it?* Transformationally, sentences like *John hopes to learn Chinese* have an embedded sentence of the form *He learns Chinese*. In other words, the said sentence is based on two predications: *John hopes + John learns Chinese*. This treatment is in keeping with the history of such sentences. According to G. O. Curme (1931: 49), the infinitive clause introduced by *to* was originally a clause introduced by *that* and constituted by a subject and a finite verb. Cf. *I am not eager that I should go* → *I am not eager to go*. As the subject of the subordinate clause refers to the same entity as the subject of the principal clause, the use of such a subject was redundant and, consequently, suppressed. Cf. *John hopes that he will learn Chinese*. vs. *John hopes to learn Chinese*. However, in cases where clauses contained different subjects, the subject of the subordinate clause was not suppressed. Cf. *I should prefer to wait until evening*. vs. *I should prefer you to wait until evening*.

As already said, the temporal meaning of the non-finites is determined by its categorial properties: if the infinitive is *non-perfect*, it denotes a process which is simultaneous with the process of the finite verb; if the infinitive is *perfect*, it denotes a process preceding the process of the finite verb.

As to their meaning in the co-text, the infinitives can be divided into two groups: *non-factive* and *factive*. Consider:

Mary does not want this news to be made public yet.

Mary remembered to visit her old friend.

The infinitive, unsimilar to the gerund, is said to express something hypothetical, unfulfilled, or future (Cf. D. Bolinger, 1968). Indeed, in the first sentence *to be made public* is non-factive, i.e. it denotes only a hypothetical process. In the second sentence, however, *to visit* is factive, i.e. it denotes an accomplished process. The actual meaning of the infinitive depends on the meaning of the finite verb or the finite-verb construction as a whole: if the finite verb is not *implicative* (e.g. *want, plan, hope, be eager, be sure*, etc.), the infinitive denotes a hypothetical process; if the finite verb is implicative, the

infinitive denotes an accomplished process. To implicative verbs, or verb phrases, belong: *manage, fail, remember, dare, care, venture, happen, begin, start, take the opportunity*, etc. These verbs can be divided into two groups: *positive* and *negative*. (They were first described by L. Kartunen (1971)). Note that if you negate a positive implicative verb, you get a negative, or a non-factive meaning, e.g.

John managed to get the loan (it implies that John got the loan). vs.

John failed (did not manage) to get the loan (it implies that John did not get it).

But if you negate a negative implicative verb, you get a positive, or factive meaning, e.g.

We didn't fail to finish the job in time (it implies that we finished the job in time).

The majority of verbs taking infinitive complements are not implicative (Marianne Celce-Murcia, Diane Larsen-Freeman, 1983:438).

The Nounal Features of the Infinitive

Semantically and morphologically, the infinitive is much more similar to the verb than to the noun: its verbal features outweigh its nounal features. What reminds us of the noun is the syntax of the infinitive. Similar to the noun, the infinitive can be used as the subject or part of the subject, part of the objective complement, the predicative, and the attribute¹. Consider:

A.

To see his children again will make him very happy.

It will make him very happy to see his children again.

He was seen to leave the house.

B.

I saw the man cross the road.

Did anyone hear John leave the house?

We can't let the matter rest here.

She would like John to go abroad.

They thought him to be an honest man.

C.

To decide is to act.

Our intention was to help you.

His desire was to leave the country.

¹ The said functions are not on a par: the functions of subject and object are nounal functions proper, while those of predicative, attribute and adverbial are shared by other parts of speech.

D.

She was the last to learn the news.
He is not the man to do such a thing.
It was a sight to gladden one's heart.

The Gerund

The gerund is originally a verbal noun in *-ing* (until about 1250 also with the form *-ung* (G. O. Curme, 1931; 50)). Similar to the infinitive, the gerund is the name of a process but its substantive meaning is more strongly pronounced than that of the infinitive (M. Blokh, op. cit., 108): unlike the infinitive, the gerund can be modified by a noun in the genitive case or by the possessive pronoun and used with prepositions.

If the gerund is an abstract name of a process, why is then the infinitive, not the gerund, the citation, or standard, form of the verb in general? There are several reasons: 1) it is more substantival than the infinitive; 2) it does not take part in the conjugation of the verb; 3) structurally it is more complex than the infinitive – it has an inflectional form (*-ing*).

The verbal features of the gerund. Like the verb, the gerund distinguishes the categories of voice and order: *writing* (non-passive, non-perfect) – *being written* (passive, non-perfect), *having written* (non-passive, perfect) – *having been written* (passive, perfect). It will be obvious that gerunds derived from intransitive verbs will have only two forms: non-perfect active and perfect active, e.g. *walking* vs. *having walked*.

The gerund has the following syntactic features of the verb: it can function as part of the verbal predicate (e.g. *If he stops working, he will die*); it can be followed by an objective complement (e.g. *I remember locking the door*) and an adverbial (e.g. *He avoids driving fast*).

The nounal features of the gerund. Similar to the noun, the gerund can be modified by a noun in the genitive case or in the common case, which, when pronominalized, turn into the possessive and objective forms, respectively:

She did nothing to encourage John's going abroad.
She did nothing to encourage John going abroad. vs.
She did nothing to encourage his going abroad.
She did nothing to encourage him going abroad.

The standard form is the form with the noun in the genitive case or with the possessive pronoun. The other form is more common in spoken English. The gerund in the latter construction is traditionally called the *half-gerund*. The semantic difference between the two types of construction is inconsiderable: the gerund modified by a noun in the genitive or a possessive pronoun is

generally thought to be more nounal in meaning and the gerund modified by a noun in the common case or the objective form of the pronoun is thought to be more verbal. According to B. Khaimovich and B. J. Rogovskaya (op. cit., 195), "This usage is suggestive of the further verbalization of the gerund". Unlike the noun, the gerund cannot be used in the plural; it cannot be preceded by the article (or its substitute); it cannot be determined by the adjective. Cf.

His coming at such a late hour disturbed me (gerund). vs.

His comings and goings disturb me (verbal nouns).

I resented his constantly questioning my motives (gerund). vs.

I resented his constant questioning of my motives (verbal noun).

There's no point in breaking the seal (gerund). vs.

She had witnessed the breaking of the seal (verbal noun).

His coming, however, can also be interpreted as a verbal noun. Cf. *Telling Mary was a big mistake* (gerund).

Like the noun, the gerund can be used as *the subject, the objective complement, the predicative, and the attribute*:

1. *Going there would have been imprudent.*

2. *I prefer seeing a play to reading it.*

3. *Seeing is believing.*

4. *She gave the impression of being more interested and excited than ever.*

The gerund and the infinitive. As already known, some verbs can be followed by either the gerund or the infinitive (*like, begin, start, continue, try, regret, remember, forget, etc.*). According to D. Bolinger (1968), the gerund expresses something "real, vivid, fulfilled", whereas the infinitive expresses something "hypothetical, future, unfulfilled":

1. *John hopes to learn French.*

2. *Max enjoys swimming.*

In the first sentence, the infinitive *to learn* denotes a process that will be fulfilled in the future, i.e. it is not a factive process; in the second sentence the gerund *swimming* denotes a process that has already been fulfilled before the moment of speaking: we can only *enjoy* things we have already directly experienced (Marianne Celce-Murcia, Diane Larsen-Freeman, op. cit., 435). D. Bolinger's principle of factivity vs. non-factivity also helps to explain the difference between such sentences as *I like camping in the mountains* and *I like to camp in the mountains*. *Camping* suggests that the person has already experienced the process while *to camp* is a non-factive process, which is especially obvious when *like* is modified by a modal. Cf. *I would like to camp in the mountains*. However, according to N. V. So (1973), most native speakers do not readily perceive the difference between *like + doing* and *like to do*.

Another interesting case is presented by the verbs *start* and *begin*:

1. *Helen started doing her homework.*
2. *Helen started to do her homework.*

In the first sentence, *doing* suggests entry into the middle phase of the process while in the second sentence *to do* suggests entry into the initial phase of the process. Cf. *Helen started to do her homework but the phone rang and she had to interrupt her work.* vs. **Helen started doing her homework but the phone rang and she had to interrupt her work.* (Václav Řeřicha, 1987 (69): 129-132).

With factive implicative verbs, the difference between the gerund and the infinitive concerns a different temporal perspective. Consider:

- I remember locking the door.* vs.
I remembered to lock the door.

Both sentences speak of the process of *locking* as accomplished: in the first sentence *locking* occurred before *remembering* (i.e. I locked the door and I still remember this); in the second sentence, *locking* occurred after *remembering* (i.e. I remembered and, consequently, locked the door).

With non-factive verbs, the difference is more obvious: the gerund expresses factivity while the infinitive expresses non-factivity, e.g.

- I tried closing the window* (i.e. I actually closed the window by way of making an experiment).
I tried to close the window (i.e. I made an attempt to close it).

On second thoughts, however, the second sentence is neutral between factivity and non-factivity. To resolve its neutrality, we can qualify it (i.e. deneutralize it) by adding appropriate information:

- I tried to close the window and in fact I closed it in the end* (i.e. I not only tried, but I succeeded in closing it).

The Participle

The participle is a term applied to adjectival forms of verbs. It is a form that 'participates' in the features of the verb (e.g. *The girl is sitting there*) and of the adjective (e.g. *The girl sitting here*).

There are two types of participle: *the present participle* and *the past participle*.

The present participle. The term *present participle* may be misleading since the participle does not express tense distinctions. It is a traditional term, originally applied to adjectival forms of verbs in Ancient Greece which were inflected for tense, aspect, and case. It was borrowed from Greek grammar through Latin grammar and uncritically applied to English verbal forms which

had an adjective-like use. As to its temporal meaning, the present participle expresses a process simultaneous with or prior to the process of the finite verb: it may denote present, past, and future. Consider: *I see/saw/ will see a child crying in the street.* vs. *Having heard the noise, we stopped talking.*

Present participles, in their outer form, are homonymous with the gerund. They are similar in meaning to the gerund: both forms denote a process – the present participle (or the past participle) denote a qualifying process while the gerund denotes a substantival process. Both the present participle and the gerund distinguish the same grammatical categories of *voice* and *order*:

A.

writing (non-perfect, non-passive) – *being written* (non-perfect, passive)
having written (perfect, non-passive) – *having been written* (perfect, passive)

B.

walking (non-perfect, non-passive) – *having walked* (perfect, non-passive)

As already indicated, the said grammatical categories relate the present participle to the verb. What are the other verb traits of the present participle? Like the verb, it combines with the object (e.g. *Entering the room, I was dazzled by the bright light*), the adjunct (e.g. *He came in laughing loudly*); like the verb, it participates in the formation of the verbal predicate (e.g. *Lucy is writing now*). To verbal features we can also attribute the use of the present participle as secondary predicate:

Believing that Juliet was dead, Romeo decided to kill himself.

Having failed twice, he didn't want to try again.

Walking along the street, I met a friend whom I had not seen for a long time.

What are its adjectival properties? Like the adjective, the present participle can be used as an attribute – generally as a postposed attribute, e.g. *The man talking to John is my boss*. More problematic is the use of the present participle in preposition to the noun: the point is that such attributes must denote permanent, or characteristic properties. Cf. *The girl is clever* → *the clever girl* vs. *The girl is smiling* → **the smiling girl*¹. But if the process of *smiling* is conceived as habitual, the word combination *the smiling girl* is acceptable, e.g. *Where is that smiling girl?* Cf. also: *I was awakened by a barking dog.* or *The beginning student should be given every encouragement.*

¹ When used out of context, such constructions may sound ungrammatical. But in the context they may look quite normal although they denote a particular situation. This generally happens when the preposed-participle construction presents a transformed version of the respective postposed-participle construction. That is, to use the participle preposedly, we must first use it postposedly, e.g. A. *The girl smiling at you is my daughter.* B. *Who, did you say, is the smiling girl?*

The past participle. The forms of the past participle are derivationally related either to transitive or intransitive verbs, e.g.

write → *written*

go → *gone*

Unlike the present participle, it has no paradigm of its own. Its verbal features are participation in the structure of the verbal predicate (e.g. *The house was destroyed by a bomb*) and the use as secondary predicate (e.g. *Her spirit, though crushed, was not broken*). Its adjectival feature is its attributive function, e.g. *She looked at the broken cup*.

The meaning of the past participle is determined by the aspective peculiarities of the underlying verb: if the verb expresses a bounded perfective process, the past participle expresses priority (e.g. *He stopped before a closed door*); if the verb expresses an unbounded process, the participle expresses simultaneity (e.g. *This man, loved and respected by all his friends, is a teacher*); if the bounded verb is both perfective and imperfective, the meaning of such a participle is determined by the co-text: it may denote priority or simultaneity (e.g. *His was a victory gained against all rules. vs. The questions discussed at the meeting are of great importance*, where *discussed*, because of the double nature of the verb it derives from, can be interpreted in this co-text as expressing either simultaneity or priority (Cf. Lith. *Klausimai, aptarti/aptariamai susirinkime, yra labai svarbūs*).

Similar to the present participle, the past participle can be used in postposition or in preposition to the noun: *the broken cup* vs. *the cup broken*. But as compared to the present participle, the past participle occurs in preposition to the noun more frequently, which is especially true of past participles derived from bounded perfective verbs, e.g.

1. *The police used hidden television cameras.*
2. *The teenager was shot and killed while driving a hijacked car.*
3. *He loved to feel the covers of newly printed books.*

Past participles derived from unbounded verbs are less common as preposed attributes, e.g. **a watched game, *loved people*. Cf. Lith. *stebimos rungtynės, mylimi žmonės*. But if such participles are modified by adverbs, we can use them in this position more freely, e.g. *a carefully watched game, well-loved people*.

It will be noted that it is mostly participles derived from transitive verbs that are used as attributes; past participles derived from intransitive verbs are more usual as parts of analytic words. The exceptions are: *runaway, fallen, collapsed, vanished, gone, come, faded, withered, retired*. E.g. *a fallen idol, vanished civilizations, retired people*, etc. In these examples the idea of a process is suppressed and the idea of a quality is made prominent.

We have said earlier that the participle has no category of aspect. But the existence of such examples as *Questions discussed at the House of Parliament are of great importance* and *The questions being discussed now are of great importance* show that the forms *discussed* and *being discussed* can be regarded as aspective pairs. Consider more such examples:

A.

The music which is played at the concert hall is by Bach →
The music played at the concert hall is by Bach.

B.

The music which is being played now is by Bach →
The music being played now is by Bach.

Theoretically, even perfective participles can have aspective pairs: *having played* vs. *having been playing* (cf. Marcella Frank, op. cit., 305). Practically, however, such forms are not generally used.

By way of summing up, let us discuss constructions with non-finites.

Constructions with the Infinitive. Traditionally, grammarians distinguish the following constructions with the infinitive:

1. *The objective infinitive construction;*
2. *The subjective infinitive construction;*
3. *The for - to infinitive construction.*¹

The first construction consists of a noun in the common case or a pronoun in the objective form and the infinitive. In the sentence this construction has the function of a complex object, e.g. *I saw John cross the street*. This construction is used after verbs of *mental processes* (e.g. *hear, watch, feel, observe, notice; know, think, consider, believe, suppose, expect, imagine, find; like, want, wish, desire, mean, intend, choose*), *verbal processes* (e.g. *pronounce, report, declare*), and verbs of *causative processes* (e.g. *make, cause, get, have, order, allow*).²

The second construction consists of a noun in the common case or a pronoun in the nominative form and the infinitive. In the sentence, the construction functions as a complex subject, e.g. *John was seen to cross the street*. The construction is used with verbs in the passive voice denoting *mental* (e.g. *see, hear, etc*), *verbal* (e.g. *say, report, etc.*), *modal* (epistemic) *processes* (e.g. *appear, be likely, etc.*), and verbs of *causative processes* (e.g. *make, order, allow*). This construction is in fact a passive version of the former.

¹ As can be seen, the classification is of little scientific value: it is based on two criteria – function and form. But no-one has offered a better one so far.

² A causative process is a resultative process: it changes the situation being described. Structurally, causative processes are of two kinds: *synthetic* (e.g. *kill, ripen*) and *analytic* (e.g. *make + infinitive, have + infinitive, let + infinitive*). It will be obvious that subjective infinitive constructions can only be formed on the basis of causative processes expressed analytically.

The third construction consists of the preposition *for* (or *of*), a noun in the common case or a pronoun in the objective form and the infinitive, e.g. *He is a good man for you to know*. As already shown elsewhere, the prepositions are used when the speaker wishes to explicate the 'subject' of the infinitive clause. If the subject is not explicated, the sentence expresses a generic situation. Cf.

He is a good man to know. vs.

He is a good man for me/you to know.

Syntactically, the construction is polyfunctional: it may function as a complex subject (e.g. *For you to do such a thing will only cause trouble*), a complex object (e.g. *The store arranged for us to pay the money in three installments*), a complex predicative (e.g. *The regulation is for boys and girls to live in separate dormitories*), and a complex adverbial (a complex adjunct) (e.g. *In order for me to buy a car, I'll have to take a loan from the bank*).

Constructions with the Gerund. The gerund can form a construction which consists of a noun or a pronoun followed by the gerund, e.g. *Do you mind John's smoking in the room?* The noun may be expressed either in the genitive case or in the common case, e.g. *I insist on Mary's going there.* vs. *I insist on Mary going there.* If a pronoun is used, it may be either in the possessive form or in the objective form, e.g. *I don't like his coming here.* vs. *I don't like him coming here.* As already indicated, the two constructions – with the gerund preceded by a genitive noun or a possessive pronoun and with the gerund preceded by a common-case noun or an objective pronoun – differ in meaning: the first verbal is more substantive in meaning than the second. In the literature, the second verbal is called *the half-gerund* or *the fused participle*. M. Blokh (op. cit., 121) calls it *a transferred participle* and *a gerundial participle*. Despite the difference in form, we do not think that such forms as *Mary going* in *I insist on Mary going there* or *him coming* in *I don't like him coming here* should be given a special name: they merely present another variety of the gerund construction. To quote W. Stannard Allen (1962: 188), "They are not participle constructions but true gerunds, since the object in each case is <...> the whole phrase to the end of the sentence". The 'possessive' form is considered to be more literary and elegant; the 'objective' form is found mainly in the spoken language, "where it is probably just as common as the possessive form" (W. Stannard Allen, op. cit., 188).

Constructions with the Participle. There are four such constructions:

- 1) *The objective – participle construction;*
- 2) *The subjective – participle construction;*

3) *The subjective – absolute participle construction;*

4) *The absolute participle construction.*¹

The first construction is similar to the corresponding objective-infinitive construction. Cf. *I saw John running away.* vs. *I saw John run away.* The first construction represents the situation in progress and the second as completed. The second construction is similar to the corresponding subjective-infinitive construction. Cf. *John was seen running away.* vs. *John was seen to run away.* As with the first two constructions, the subjective-participle construction views the process in progress while the subjective-infinitive construction views the process as completed.

The subjective-absolute participle construction, traditionally called “the nominative absolute participial construction”, consists of a common-case noun or a pronoun in the nominative form and a participle, e.g. *The elevator being out of order, everyone had to walk.* Personal pronoun “subjects” of such a construction are more likely to occur in conversational English than in formal English (Marcella Frank, op. cit., 358), e.g. *He being sick, we’ll have to do his work.* If a personal pronoun is preceded by the preposition *with*, the pronoun is in objective form, e.g. *With him being sick, we’ll have to do his work.* The nominal position can be taken by the expletives (i.e. prop-words) *it* and *there*, e.g.

It being Sunday, the stores were not open.

There having been some question about the bookkeeper’s honesty, the company asked him to resign.

The participle can be elided in such constructions e.g. *His book [being] now a best-seller, he felt pleased with the world.*

The subjective-absolute participial construction functions in the sentence as an adverbial of time (e.g. *Dinner [being] ready, the hostess asked her guests to be seated*), cause (e.g. *The children having been fed, their mother put them to bed*), condition (e.g. *A riot once begun, our small police force will be unable to handle it*), manner (e.g. *She sat in a corner, her hands over her eyes*).

The absolute participle construction is a construction in which the participle is not connected with the sentence, just as the participle in the subjective absolute construction. Cf. *Generally speaking, I don’t like cats.* vs. *Her mother being away, she has to do all the housework.* The absolute participle construction should not be confused with the adverbial participle construction, e.g. *Not knowing anyone in town, he felt very lonesome*, where *not knowing anyone in town* is not absolute (i.e. independent of the sentence): the “subject” of the construction is the same as the subject of the sentence. The learner

¹ Similar to infinitival constructions, participial constructions are distinguished on the basis of two criteria – form and function.

should use such constructions with care if he is to avoid the so-called ‘dangling’ participle, a participle which does not depend on any other individual element of the sentence, e.g. **Walking back, it snowed.*

The Adjective

The adjective expresses the property of an entity. In the sentence, the adjective performs the functions of an *attribute* (an adjunct) and a *predicative*. Of the two, the more typical function is that of an *attribute* since the function of a *predicative* can also be performed by other parts of speech.¹ Cf. *The young man* vs. *The man is young*. In the latter example, the adjective is syntactically the complement of the verb *be*, but semantically they both constitute the predicate. As a lexeme, *be* has little meaning; it performs the function of predicativity; it expresses the verbal categories of person, number, tense, etc. The combination of *be* + *adjective* is then comparable to a verb with its own lexical content. Cf.

The man was dead. vs. *The man died.*

Typically, adjectives denote states, usually permanent ones, although there are also adjectives which can denote temporary states (e.g. *John is being clever*). A state can also be denoted by verbs (e.g. *know, understand, like*, etc.). However, the more typical meaning of the verb is a dynamic process.

Derivationally, adjectives are related either to nouns or verbs. Suffixes changing nouns to adjectives are: - (*i*)*al*, -*ar*, -*ary* or -*ery*, -*ed*, -*en*, -*esque*, -*ful*, -*ic(al)*, -*ish*, -*istic*, -*less*, -*like*, -*ly*, -*ous*, -*ward*, -*wide*, -*y*. E.g. *monument* → *monumental*, *family* → *familiar*, *element* → *elementary*, *talent* → *talented*, *picture* → *picturesque*, *hope* → *hopeful*, *history* → *historic(al)*, *style* → *stylish*, *character* → *characteristic*, *use* → *useless*, *life* → *lifelike*, *friend* → *friendly*, *fame* → *famous*, *back* → *backward*, *world* → *world-wide*, *wind* → *windy*. Suffixes changing verbs to adjectives are: -*able* or -*ible*, -*ent* or -*ant*, -*ed*, -*ing*, -*ive*, - (*at*)*ory*. E.g. *to navigate* → *navigable*, *to sense* → *sensible*, *to depend* → *dependent*, *to frustrate* → *frustrated*, *to bore* → *boring*, *to attract* → *attractive*, *to congratulate* → *congratulatory*.

All the adjectives can be divided into two large groups: *gradable* and *non-gradable*. Gradable (also called descriptive, or qualitative) adjectives denote

¹ Adjectives were treated in antiquity as a subclass of a noun, added or adjoined (Lat. *adjectivus*, that is added) to nouns, to restrict, or concretize the referents. They were said to have a role parallel to that of adverbs in their relation to verbs. Adjectives were distinguished as a separate part of speech (‘noun adjective’ vs. ‘noun substantive’) in the later Middle Ages, and in the modern period, seen as sharing properties with the verbs.

properties of entities that can be estimated quantitatively, or measured. So, for instance, the property *beautiful* can be estimated as high (*very beautiful*) or low (*not very beautiful*), adequate (*beautiful enough*) or inadequate (*not beautiful enough*). To put it otherwise, entities may have a different amount of property: some may have more than others (*She is more beautiful than Mary*, i.e. she has more of the property *beauty* than Mary); some have the most (*She is the most beautiful of the other girls*). As already mentioned, to gradable adjectives linguists generally attribute qualitative, or descriptive adjectives. However, not all such adjectives are gradable, i.e. not all of them are variable with respect to the quantity of the property, e.g. *extinct*, *extreme*, *genuine*, *final*, etc. They denote the highest degree of the properties, e.g. *an extinct fire* cannot be *less* or *more extinct*.

Gradable adjectives can be further divided into *stative* and *dynamic*.¹ Adjectives are characteristically stative. Many adjectives, however, can be seen as dynamic. These are generally adjectives denoting the person's behaviour. Cf. *He is tall* (stative property) vs. *He is being careful* (dynamic property). The stative property of an entity is a property that cannot be conceived as a developing process, and the dynamic property of an entity is a property that is conceived as active, or as a developing process. Cf. *John is very tall*. vs. **John is being very tall today* or *John is very careful today* (unemphatic). vs. *John is being careful today* (emphatic).

Dynamic adjectives closely resemble activity verbs: like activity verbs, they can be used in the progressive and in the perfect form (e.g. *John is being careful today* vs. *John has been careful today*. Cf. **John has been very tall today*). The progressive form is used when the speaker wishes to give greater prominence to the relevance of the process to the moment of speaking. In this usage such constructions are comparable to *John is always talking in class*. Both are used to express emotions – positive and negative.

Non-gradable adjectives constitute three groups: 1) *relative*; 2) *intensifying*; 3) *restrictive*, or *particularizing*.

Relative adjectives express the property of an entity related to some other entity. For instance, *wooden* is related to *wood*, *chemical* to *chemistry*, *coloured* to *colour*, etc. Relative adjectives express non-gradable properties. If entities have such properties, they cannot be said to have less or more of such properties as compared to other entities having the same properties. So, if a house is made of wood, it cannot be more wooden than the other house: both are made of wood. However, if a house is built of wood and concrete, we can say that the house is more wooden than the other house.

¹ Stative here means *permanent state* and dynamic, *temporary state*.

Intensifying adjectives constitute two groups: 1) *emphasizers*; 2) *amplifiers*. *Emphasizers* have a heightening effect on the noun (*clear, definite, outright, plain, pure, real, sheer, sure, true*); *amplifiers* scale upwards from an assumed norm (*complete, great, firm, absolute, close, perfect, extreme, entire, total, utter*). *Restrictive adjectives* restrict the noun to a particular member of the class (*chief, exact, main, particular, precise, principal, sole, specific*)¹.

It should be observed, however, that the said types of adjective exhibit varying degrees of resistance to the process of comparison. The most stubborn are relatives and intensifiers, whereas amplifiers can sometimes be subjected to comparison. According to Geoffrey K. Pullum and Rodney Huddleston (2002: 532), *unique, complete, perfect, total* are not absolutes proper, i.e. native speakers do not treat them in this way. Consider: *highly unique, one of the more unique features, the most unique person; more complete; more perfect*. The appearance of the above constructions can be accounted for by the desire of the speaker to set the entity apart from other entities having the same property.

From a syntactic point of view, adjectives can be divided into three groups: 1) adjectives which can be used attributively and predicatively; 2) adjectives which can be used attributively only; 3) adjectives which can be used predicatively only. Gradable adjectives denoting a permanent property, or state, belong to the first group, e.g. *a big house* vs. *the house is big*. Intensifying and restrictive adjectives are usually used attributively only, e.g. *a complete fool* vs. **The fool is complete* or *a particular child* vs. **The child is particular*. Adjectives denoting a temporary property, or state, are used predicatively only, e.g. *She is being very clever today* does not yield *she is a very clever girl*.

The category of comparison. It is the only grammatical category of the adjective in English. It is based on gradable, or qualitative adjectives. The category of comparison is constituted by the opposition of three forms of the adjective: *the positive, the comparative, and the superlative*. Some grammarians have expressed the view that there are only two degrees of comparison. Otto Jespersen (1968: 244), for instance, argues that the positive degree cannot be regarded as a degree of comparison as it does not convey the idea of comparison. According to A.I. Smirnitsky (1959: 158), the degrees of comparison include the positive degree and the relative degree which is subdivided into the comparative and the superlative degree. As is rightly pointed out by Gunnar Kiviväli (1971: 52), "The solution of the problem depends on how we define degrees of comparison. If we define them as forms which show whether the adjective denotes the property of some substance **absolutely** or **relatively**,

¹ The classification and the examples have been taken from Randolph Quirk et al., 1972: 259.

there would be three degrees of comparison. If we define degrees of comparison as forms expressing comparison of some substance with another in respect of a certain property, there would be only two degrees of comparison". In this book we shall adhere to the first view on the problem.

There are three ways of forming degrees of comparison: *synthetic*, *analytic*, and *suppletive*. The synthetic way of forming degrees of comparison is by the inflections *-er*, *-est*; the analytic way, by placing *more* and *most* before the adjective. The synthetic way is generally used with monosyllabic adjectives and dissyllabic adjectives ending in *-y*, *-ow*, *-er*, *-le* and those which have the stress on the last syllable, e.g. *tall* → *taller*, *tallest*; *pretty* → *prettier*, *prettiest*; *narrow* → *narrower*, *narrowest*; *clever* → *cleverer*, *cleverest*; *simple* → *simpler*, *simplest*; *polite* → *politer*, *politest*. An apparent exception to this rule are the following adjectives which are stressed on the first syllable: *pleasant* → *pleasanter*; *cruel* → *crueler*, *cruellest*; *quiet* → *quieter*, *quietest*; *stupid* → *stupider*, *stupidest*; *common* → *commoner*, *commonest*. However, in the dissyllabic group we can observe radical changes: adjectives formerly taking *-er* and *-est* are tending to go over to *more* and *most*, e.g. *more common*, *most common*; *more cloudy*, *most cloudy*; *more fussy*, *most fussy*; *more cruel*, *most cruel*; *more quiet*, *most quiet*; *more clever*, *most clever*; *more profound*, *most profound*; *more simple*, *most simple*; *more pleasant*, *most pleasant* – all these were normally compared with *-er* and *-est* before the war (Charles Barber, 1964: 131-132).

According to Charles Barber, recently there have been many cases of *more* and *most* spreading even to monosyllabic adjectives: *more crude*, *most crude*; *more plain*, *most plain*; *more keen*, *most keen*. All this goes to show that English comparison is getting more and more analytic. The analytic way of comparison is preferable when the speaker wishes to focus attention on the degree. Cf. *She seems happier than she used to be.* vs. *She seems more happy than she used to be.* vs. *She seems more happy than she used to be.* Analytic forms are in complementary distribution with the synthetic forms of comparison, i.e. the distribution of analytic forms, or the use of analytic forms, complements the distribution of synthetic forms. To put in simple language, where the speaker cannot use synthetic forms, he resorts to analytic forms. They complement each other.

The question that linguists have been grappling with is: what is the linguistic status of analytic forms? Are *more* and *most* adverbs of quantity (degree) or grammatical word-morphemes? The problem is similar to the problem of the future in English. At present linguists are divided on this question: some linguists (A. I. Smirnitskyj, op. cit., 98-99; B. Khaimovich and B. Rogovskaya,

op. cit., 77-78; B. Blokh, op. cit., 215-219) treat degrees of comparison with *more* and *most* as analytic constructions proper while others (V. N. Zhigadlo et al., 1956: 41; L. S. Barkhudarov, D. A. Shteling, op. cit., 115) treat them as free combinations of adverbs and adjectives. Still others (B. Ilyish, 1971, 60-61) think that “considerations of meaning tend towards recognizing such formations as analytical forms, whereas strictly grammatical considerations lead to the contrary view”. However, the scholar adds that “the tendency towards making linguistics something like an exact science <...> should make us prefer the second view, based on strictly grammatical criteria”. It goes without saying that it is convenient to treat *more*, *most* as analytic elements functionally identical with the bound morphemes *-er* and *-est*. Acting together (i.e. being in complementary distribution), *more*, *most* and *-er*, *-est* cover all the gradable adjectives. However, this circumstance is no proof of the grammaticalized status of *more* and *most*.

To analytic forms of comparison M. Blokh also attributes *less/least* combinations. He calls them forms of *reverse comparison* (op. cit., 219). By the way, the forms *less*, *least* are generally used as an argument against the treatment of *more* and *most* as grammatical word-morphemes. So, for instance, B. Ilyish (op. cit., 60) argues that if *less* and *least* are not grammatical word-morphemes, *more* and *most* are not grammatical word-morphemes either. While we can speak of direct and indirect way of comparison, the way M. Blokh does, the problem of the linguistic status of *more* and *most* or *less* and *least* remains unsolved. In our opinion, attempts to prove that *more* and *most* have turned into grammatical word-morphemes are as futile as attempts to prove that *shall* and *will* have turned into grammatical word-morphemes in *I shall/will go there*. Forms with *more* and *most* can only be referred to as analytic if the notion *analytic form* is given a broad interpretation, i.e. if we waive the requirement that an analytic form proper should consist of a lexically emptied word and a notional word.¹

As already pointed out, the third way of forming degrees of comparison is by the use of suppletive forms: *good* → *better*, *best*; *bad* → *worse*, *worst*; *far* → *farther/further*, *farthest/furthest*; *little* → *less*, *least*; *much/many* → *more*, *most*.

In discussing the category of comparison, linguists generally mention such constructions as *a most beautiful girl*. The use of the indefinite article with them is sometimes exploited as an argument against the treatment of *more* and *most* as grammatical word-morphemes. However, the indefinite article has

¹ According to V. J. Plotkin (op. cit., 61), full delexicalization is not a necessary condition for the treatment of a word as a grammatical word-morpheme. Hence his treatment of adjective combinations with *more* and *most* as analytic structures.

nothing to do with comparison; it points to another problem, viz. the lexicalization of superlative forms: *most* no longer marks the superlative degree; it has turned into an adverb of degree whose meaning is the same as that of *very*. Cf. also *the best suit* vs. *a best suit*; *the best seller* vs. *a best-seller*.

The problem of the category of state. There is a class of words in English with the following morphological, semantic and syntactic characteristics:

1) The words of this type may be characterized by the prefix *a-* (it derives from the Middle English preposition *an* 'in, on'): *alive, asleep, ajar*, etc.; they generally do not form degrees of comparison, e.g. **Mary is more asleep*; **Mary is the most asleep*;

2) The words of this type denote a temporary state, e.g. *The child is ill*. Cf. *The child is healthy*;

3) The words of this type are used predicatively only, e.g. *He is awake*.

Because of the said features, these words are regarded by some grammarians as a separate part of speech which has been variously referred to as *the category of state words, adlinks, and statives* (B. Ilyish, op. cit., 74-75; B. S. Khaimovich and B. I. Rogovskaya, op. cit., 199). Can we distinguish the category on the basis of the above-mentioned features? First of all, the number of such words does not exceed several dozen. These words cannot be compared to other parts of speech. "Why, then - asks M. Blokh (op. cit., 211) - an honour of the part-of-speech status to be granted to a small group of words...?" The prefix *a-* is, of course, a marker of such adjectives. However, there are many adjectives of temporary state without the prefix *a-*, e.g. *ill, well, glad, sorry, fine, worth(while), great, swell, wonderful, lousy, dizzy, hot, blue*, et. Consider:

*How is your friend? He's fine (great, swell, wonderful, lousy, dizzy, hot, blue, green, faint, laudatory)*¹. Cf. **a fine (great, swell, etc) friend*.

Besides, other adjectives can also be used as temporary adjectives, e.g. *John is being noisy today*. A stronger argument is that such adjectives are restricted to a predicative position, or a position after the noun, e.g. *The man is ready* or *The materials ready will be shipped*. vs. **The ready man*; **The ready materials*. Postposed position is generally a marker of temporariness, and the preposed position is a marker of permanence.

The analysis shows that temporary adjectives are generally distinguished on the basis of meaning and syntactic function. The last argument concerns the category of comparison. Temporary adjectives, unsimilar to 'normal' adjectives, are said to lack forms of comparison. This is true, but to some extent, only: temporary adjectives do not take the synthetic forms of the degrees of comparison, but they are capable of expressing comparison analytically

¹ The examples have been drawn from B. Bolinger (1967: 18-19).

(M. Blokh, op. cit., 210), e.g. *Jack was the one most aware of the delicate situation in which we found ourselves* or *He is more dead than alive*.

The traditional view of the stative, which separates temporary adjectives from other adjectives, does not seem to be convincing: temporary adjectives are part and parcel of the adjective class as a whole. At the same time, we must admit that these adjectives have features (meaning, function) that allow us to assign them to a separate subclass of the adjective. But the features examined are not sufficient for the distinction of the category of state within the adjective.

Substantivization of adjectives. Language is an economical system. When the need arises, the users of a language can easily change the categorial function of a word: verbs are transposed into nouns, nouns into verbs, adjectives into nouns. In English it is easier than in other languages owing to the scarcity of suffixes. Linguists generally distinguish two types of substantivized adjectives: *fully* and *partially substantivized adjectives* (e.g. *native* → *a native* vs. *rich* → *the rich*). More often than not, substantivization is but partial.

The Adverb

The adverb is one of the parts of speech established in antiquity. In the grammar of English and other Indo-European languages, the adverb is a word denoting a *non-substantive property*, a feature which sets the adverb apart from the adjective which, as already known, denotes a substantive property, e.g. *He wrote it badly*, where *badly* denotes a property of the process expressed by *wrote*.

As to their structure, adverbs may be non-derived, or simple (e.g. *here, there, now, then, so, quick, why, how, where, when, very, rather*) and derived (e.g. *slowly, sideways, clockwise, homewards, away, ahead, apart, across*). We can also distinguish composite forms and phrasal forms of the adverb: *sometimes, nowhere, anyhow; at least, at most, at last, to and fro, upside down*.

A prolific source of adverbs is the adjective: many *-ly* adverbs are transformationally related to respective adjectives. Consider:

He liked Mary considerably. ←- *He liked Mary to a considerable extent.*

He spoke to John sharply. ←- *He spoke to John in a sharp manner.*

He wrote frequently. ←- *He wrote on frequent occasions.*

Politically, it is a bad decision. ←- *From the political point of view, it is a bad decision.*

The suffix *-ly* is a typical marker of the adverb. However, many adverbs related to adjectives may not be necessarily used with the suffix *-ly*, e.g. *fast, late, hard, high, clean, clear, close, loud, tight, firm, quick, right, sharp, slow, wide*, etc. Consider:

John drives fast.

He came late. vs. *Have you been to the cinema lately?*

Father works hard. vs. *I hardly know her.*

Open your mouth wide. vs. *He traveled widely.*

I clean forgot to ask him about it. vs. *The top of the ornament broke cleanly off.*

The bullet went clear through the door. vs. *I couldn't see him clearly.*

Stay close to me. vs. *She studied the photographs very closely.*

We decided to go slow (i.e. to work slowly). vs. *He was moving slowly.*

Very characteristic of English are adverbs which can be used as prepositions and conjunctive words, e.g. *before, after, round, within*. Cf.

We arrived just before two o'clock. vs.

Have you been to London before?

She ran after him into the courtyard. vs.

Soon after, Faraday began his research into electricity.

There was a wall all the way round. vs.

He now has five shops scattered (a)round the town.

The prisoners demanded the freedom to congregate within the prison. vs.

He decorated the house within and without.

On second thoughts, however, the said words can be regarded as prepositions in all the cited examples. So, for instance, *Have you been to London before?* may be treated as an elliptical sentence in which the noun is omitted, e.g. *Have you been to London before the present time?*

Special mention should be made of *preposition-adverb like elements* which form a semantic blend with verbs: *to give up, to give in, to give out, to give away, to give over*, etc.; *to set up, to set in, to set forth, to set down*, etc.; *to get on, to get off, to get through, to get about*¹, etc. The verb-adverb combination goes by several names: *two-part verbs, composite verbs, phrasal verbs*. The verbs in such combinations are mostly one-syllable words; the most common adverbs are those denoting place, e.g. *in, out, on, off, over, up, down, through*, etc. Some of the adverbs may be separated by objective complements, e.g. *Please hand in your papers.* vs. *Please hand your papers in.* Others are non-separable, e.g. *John called on me.* vs. **John called me on.*

In verb-adverb combinations the second element may: a) retain its adverbial properties of showing direction (e.g. *to go out, to go in, to go away*); b) change the aspect of the verb, i.e. mark the completeness of the process (e.g. *to eat – to eat up; to stand – to stand up; to sit – to sit down; to lie – to lie down; to shave – to shave off; to speak – to speak out*); c) intensify the meaning of the process (e.g. *to end – to end up; to finish – to finish up (off); to cut – to cut off; to talk*

¹ The material and classification have been taken from Gunnar Kiviväli (op. cit., 96).

– *to talk away*); d) lose its lexical meaning and form an integral whole, a set expression (e.g. *to fall out* ‘to quarrel’; *to give in* ‘to surrender’; *to come off* ‘to take place’; *to leave off* ‘to stop’; *to boil down* ‘to be reduced in quantity’).

These combinations have been treated by different scholars in different ways. Some scholars have treated the second element as *a variety of adverbs*, as *preposition-like adverbs* (A. Smirnitsky, 1959, 376), as a special kind of adverb called *adverbial postpositon* (I. E. Anichkov, 1947), as *postverbial particles* (L. Kivimägi et al., 1968: 35), as a special kind of form-word called *pospositive* (N. N. Amosova, 1963: 134), *a postfix* or *postpositive affix* (Y. Zhluktenko, 1954), a separate part of speech called *posposition* (B.A. Ilyish, 1948: 243 – 5). As for B. Ilyish, he later (1971:148) changed his view arguing that, since the second element does not indicate the circumstances in which the process takes place, the whole construction is a phraseological unit: the whole has a meaning different from the meanings of the components. M. Blokh (op. cit., 225) calls the second element a *special particle*. Gunnar Kiviväli (op. cit., 96) notes that the second element in such combinations has formally not merged with the verb: the grammatical ending is added not to the second element but to the verb (e.g. *He gets up at seven*); the second element may be separated from the verb (e.g. *Give my love to Polly and tell her to feed you up*). All this would say that the second element looks like a loose morpheme, a postfix (Cf. Y. Zhluktenko). The great variety of interpretations shows the complexity of the problem. At present we cannot say which interpretation is the right one: the problem requires further research.

Semantic classification of adverbs. We can distinguish two large groups of adverbs: 1) *non-spatial* and 2) *spatial*. To non-spatial adverbs belong: 1) viewpoint adverbs (e.g. *Looked at politically, it was not an easy problem*); 2) focusing adverbs (e.g. *He is doing it purely and simply for your benefit*); 3) intensifying adverbs (e.g. *It’s simply a question of hard work*); 4) process adverbs (e.g. *They treated him badly*); 5) subjective adverbs (e.g. *Bitterly, he buried his children*); 6) adverbs of cause and consequence (e.g. *We have a growing population and therefore we need more food*). To spatial adverbs belong: place adverbs (e.g. *They are not there; He threw his manuscript aside*); 2) time adverbs (e.g. *He arrived last night; He washes his car every Sunday*).¹

Similar to adjectives, adverbs can be gradable and non-gradable. Gradable adverbs are adverbs which are capable of expressing the intensity of the process, e.g. *loudly – more loudly – the most loudly*. The number of non-gradables is much greater among adverbs than among adjectives.

¹ For a more detailed classification of adverbs, see Randolp Quirk et al., op. cit., 189-224. The term *space*, as treated here, includes both non-temporal and temporal space.

The Pronoun

As already indicated, words are classified into parts of speech by taking into consideration their meaning, form and syntactic function. The peculiarity of pronouns as a class of words is that they are not united by any of the said features. What unites them is the way they denote reality: they denote it indirectly. Take, for instance, the pronoun *he*. *He* denotes a male human not directly but through a noun: *a male human* → *John* → *he* or *he* → *John* → *a male human*. In view of this, pronouns are not notional words in the true meaning of the word; they are function words, their interpretation derives from the antecedent or the situation so that they need contain little descriptive information themselves. Their number is strictly limited and their meanings are acquired from the context.

Pronouns are said to ‘deputize’ for other parts of speech: nouns (*he, she, it, they*); adjectives (*his, her, its, their; this/these, that/those*); numerals (*many, much, few, several, some*), and adverbs (*here, there, thus*).

Traditionally, pronouns are divided into: 1) personal (*I, you, he, she, it; we, they*); 2) possessive (*my, your, his, her, its; our, their – mine, yours, his, hers, its; ours, theirs*); 3) reflexive (*myself, yourself, himself, herself, itself; ourselves, yourselves, themselves*)¹; 4) demonstrative (*this/these, that/those, here, there, now, then, the same, such*); 5) interrogative-relative (*who, what, which, when, where, how, that*); 6) reciprocal (*one another, each other*); 7) indefinite-negative (*some, somebody, any, anybody, anyone, anything, another, other - no, no-one, none, nobody, nothing*); 8) generalizing (*all, each, every, everything, either, both*); 9) quantitative (*much, many, few, several, some*).

Etymologically, the word *pronoun* means “a word used instead of a noun”. That is why many English grammarians (J. C. Nesfield, 1924; G. Curme, 1963; A. M. Clark, 1965) define the pronoun as a word used instead of a noun only. Thus, words such as *my, your*, etc., which are used in the function of an adjective, are not pronouns but adjectives; the words *this/these, that/those* may be either a pronoun (e.g. *Who is this?*) or an adjective (e.g. *this man*). This is a purely functional view of the problem. If we apply the same principle to other pronouns, we shall have to admit that to the class of pronouns we shall not be able to attribute many of the above-mentioned words. Being aware of such a situation, other linguists have defined the pronoun as a word used instead of a noun or an adjective; still others, as a word that is used instead of a noun, an adjective, a numeral, and an adverb. The word *used* should not be taken in its literal sense: here it means *functioning as*.

¹ In present – day traditional grammar, personal pronouns include personal pronouns proper, possessive and reflexive pronouns.

Some linguists use the term *substitute* saying that pronouns substitute for or can replace other parts of speech. This is true in general, but there are pronouns which do not act as ‘deputies’ for other parts of speech. Consider, for example, the pronouns *I*, *you*, *we*. What nouns can they substitute for? Semantically, *I* means *the speaker*; *you*, *the addressee*, and *we*, *the speaker* and *the addressee*. It is only in such sentences as *I, John Smith, was born in 1970* that we can speak of substitution. However, it is a different kind substitution – a substitution whereby the pronoun is substituted for by a noun. Can we say that *this* in *this book* substitutes for an adjective? There is no such adjective which could be replaced by *this*? Nor can we say that the pronouns *my*, *your*, *our* are substitutes for adjectives. The same can be said about many other pronouns. Yet, the term *substitute* should not be rejected, for there are many pronouns (e.g. *he*, *she*, *it*; *this/these*, *that/those*; *here*, *there*; *the same*, *such*) which can be used as substitutes proper. Consider:

John is a student. He is studying at Oxford.

Mary went to Oxford. John did the same.

I don't believe in magic; there is no such thing.

John has got married. This is fantastic!

He substitutes for *John*; *the same* substitutes for *went to Oxford*, and *this* substitutes for the whole sentence. The term *substitute*, unlike the term *pronoun*, makes it possible to account for the use of the 3rd person personal pronouns in the following sentences:

1. *Mary thinks she may be able to help.*

2. *The woman next door thinks she may be able to help.*

In sentence (1), *she* stands for *Mary* and is a pronoun in the proper meaning of the word; in sentence (2), *she* stands for a noun phrase (NP), not for a noun. Traditional grammar does not draw the distinction between nouns and NPs. 3rd person pronouns could be then defined as words that stand for NPs.

Other linguists treat pronouns as determiners, or restrictors (i.e. words limiting, or concretizing, the referent of a noun), which function as markers of nouns. Cf. *rich* vs. *the rich*, *the writing*, *a writing* vs. *his writing*. Besides the article, to the class of determiners they attribute demonstratives (they limit reference to individuals standing in a relation to the speaker), possessives, indefinite pronouns, and quantitative pronouns. It will be obvious that even the term *determiner* does not cover all the items referred to as pronouns. Cf. *this man* vs. *he*. Unlike *this*, *he* does not enter into an attributive relationship with a noun; it is used absolutely, or independently.

The pronouns are a mixed bag and we can hardly find a name common to them. They constitute a functional word class – words that perform various

functions in speech: *semantic* (act as determiners), *deictic* (act as words localizing entities in the context), and *textual* (act as cohesive devices across sentences).

Morphological features of the pronouns. Speaking of the personal and possessive pronouns, linguists (e.g. B. Ilyish, 1971: 67) argue that the said pronouns distinguish *the nominative*, *the objective*, and *the possessive case*. Attempts to treat such forms as *I – me*, *you – you*, etc. as case-forms date back to prescriptive grammar, when *case* was generally identified with a syntactic function. According to M. Blokh (op. cit., 73), “the categories of the substitute have to reflect the categories of the antecedent, not vice versa”: the so-called nominative case of the pronoun has no antecedent (i.e. a nominative case) in the noun; nor has the so-called objective case of the pronoun an antecedent in the noun. Such forms as *I*, *you*, *we* have no noun antecedents at all; only *he – him*, *she – her*, *it – it*, *they – them* have. The same holds for *my*, *your*, *our*; only *his*, *her*, *its*, *their* have noun antecedents. As we cannot speak of nominative and objective cases in nouns, we cannot speak of nominative and objective cases in personal pronouns. But what about *his*, *her*, *its*, *their*? These forms correspond to such nounal forms as *Tom’s*, *Mary’s*, *the dog’s*, *Tom and Mary’s*. If we treat *his*, *her*, *its*, *their* as case forms, what is the status of *my*, *your*, *our*? And if we treat *him*, *her*, *it*, *them* as case-forms, what is then the status of *me*, *you*, *us*? Hence the best solution to the problem is not to treat the said forms of the pronoun as case forms.

The personal pronominal case-system has completely disintegrated in English, and in its place there have appeared four forms: the *nominative form*, the *objective form*, and the *possessive form* in two versions (the *conjoint* and the *absolute*). Case can only be found in indefinite and reciprocal pronouns, e.g. *somebody* vs. *somebody’s*; *each other* vs. *each other’s*. As regards number, it has only a very restricted field in pronouns: it is found in the pronouns *this/these*, *that/those*, *other/others*. Personal pronouns have no grammatical category of number. *We* is not the plural form of *I*, but a separate word; *they* is not the plural form of *he*, or *she*, or *it*, but a separate word. As for reflexive pronouns, such forms as *myself* and *ourselves* cannot be treated as number forms in the same way as *book* and *books*: *myself* and *ourselves* stand in the same relationship as *I* and *we*.

The deictic functions of the pronouns. Deixis is a term for one of the most basic things we do with words. It means ‘pointing’ via language. Any linguistic form used so is called a *deictic expression*. Deictic expressions such as *this*, *that*, *me*, *you* are among the first forms to be spoken by very young children. The pronouns give us three types of deixis: *person deixis*, *spatial deixis* and *temporal deixis*.

1. *Person deixis*. A communicative act (interaction) generally consists of the speaker, the addressee, and others. The speaker is the reference, or deictic centre, i.e. he or she organizes the conversation: the speaker talks to the addressee, then the role of the speaker is transferred to the addressee. This suggests that the deictic centre shifts from one participant to another. The roles of the speaker, the addressee and others are generally grammaticalized in language: the speaker is actualized as *I* or *we*; the addressee as *you*, and others as *he, she, it, they*.¹ To the last group we can add indefinite pronouns, e.g. *somebody, each*. It should be noted that third person and indefinite pronouns can also be used as 'addressee' words, e.g.

A.

A. *Who will come to the blackboard?*

B. (pointing to Peter) *He will* (Cf. *You will*).

B.

Somebody hasn't cleaned the blackboard (instead of *you haven't cleaned the blackboard*). *Would anybody clean the blackboard?*

When such pronouns are used deictically, they are generally accompanied by a gesture with the hand, a nod of the head, etc., i.e. by certain paralinguistic features.

2. *Spatial deixis*. By means of spatial deictic expressions we locate entities in space shared by the speaker, the addressee and the other participants, if any. Entities can be located near the speaker and away from the speaker. Hence two types of distance: *proximal* and *distal*. When the speaker uses the pronouns *this, these, here*, he or she refers to entities near him or her; when the speaker uses the pronouns *that, those, there*, he or she refers to entities away from him or her. It is interesting to note that the pronoun *that* does not necessarily denote distance away from the speaker: the entity may be close to him, e.g. *I don't like that stuff*. *That* is used when the speaker wishes to distance himself from the entity. Thus, distance can be of two types: physical and psychological.

3. *Temporal deixis*. Like entities, processes are located with reference to the deictic centre. Such a deictic centre is *the present moment*, or *now*. *Now* is the speaker's time. The English pronouns give us only two deictic items – *now* and *then*. Temporal deixis in English is also expressed by appropriate

¹ Speaking of deixis, Gregory Ward, Betty Birner and Rodney Huddleston (2002: 1470) argue that 3rd person pronouns are not deictic: "There is nothing in the meaning of those expressions that relates them to the situation of utterance. We believe, therefore, that it would represent an unnecessary and undesirable dilution of the sense of deixis..." While we agree with this, we would like to point out that in the context these pronouns can be used deictically (Cf. John Lyons, 1977: 660).

adverbs or adverbial structures (e.g. *these days*, *nowadays*, *today* vs. *yesterday*, *the other day*, *last week*; *tomorrow*, *next year*, etc.)¹ and grammatically, i.e. by tense.

The textual function of the pronouns. As already said, pronouns can be used as cohesive devices: referring back or forward to their antecedents, they connect one sentence to another. To cohesively used pronouns belong third-person pronouns and demonstrative pronouns. Consider:

- 1) *John and Mary came into the room: he was laughing and she was crying.*
- 2) *I turned the corner and almost stepped on it. There was a large snake in the middle of the path.*
- 3) *I've never seen him. That's a lie.*
- 4) *I'd like to buy a Volvo or a BMW, but such cars are very expensive.*

Possessive pronouns may also act as cohesive devices, e.g. *I have a car. My car is very old.* However, such texts are rather clumsy since *my car* is used redundantly: *my car* means *I have a car*. A better solution would be to use the pronoun *it* instead of *my car*, e.g. *I have a car. It is very old.*

The Preposition

The preposition is traditionally defined as a word expressing relations between words in the sentence, e.g. *Mary sent her photograph to John*. The preposition *to*, as used in the sentence, relates *John*, the Recipient, to the verb *send*. The weakness of the traditional definition is that it does not allow us to distinguish prepositions from subordinating conjunctions. Cf. *She never saw him after the concert.* vs. *She never saw him after he left town.* In traditional analysis, the preposition is used with the noun phrase, not with the verb phrase. Such being the case, *after* in the first sentence is a preposition, while *before* in the second sentence is a conjunction. In other words, the status of *after* is determined by the linguistic status of the following phrase. Accepting this approach, we shall have to treat the two uses of *after* as homonyms.

A new approach to prepositions and subordinating conjunctions is to treat the two traditional categories as prepositions (Geoffrey K. Pullum and Rodney Huddleston, 2002: 600). The said scholars include in the preposition category all of the subordinating conjunctions of traditional grammar with the exception

¹ Despite tradition, the said adverbs and adverbial structures can be attributed to the class of adverbial pronouns for the simple reason that their semantic structure includes the feature [This]: *nowadays* [in these days], *today* [this day], *yesterday* [the day before this day], *the other day* [a few days before this day], *tomorrow* [the day after this day], *next year* [the year after this year].

of *whether* and *that*: *when, until, although, before, after, since*, etc.. Prepositions are taken as heads of phrases and are comparable to verbs, nouns, adjectives, and adverbs which also function as heads. To prove their point, the scholars present the following examples:

1. a. *I remember the accident.* b. *I remember you promised to help.*
2. a. *He left after the accident.* b. *He left after you promised to help.*

The scholars argue that *remember* remains the same part of speech despite the difference in the complementation. The same holds for (2): *left* remains a verb although in sentence (2a) it is complemented by a noun phrase and in sentence (2b) by a verb phrase. Hence “There is no reason to handle *after* in (2) any differently: it can be analysed as a preposition in both cases”. This approach to prepositions makes it possible to combine prepositions and subordinating conjunctions into one class and thus solve the problem of the discrimination of prepositions and conjunctions.

Prepositions are peculiar to both synthetic and analytic languages. However, if in synthetic languages they are generally employed to realize circumstantial functions (e.g. *prie namo, su namu, į namą, iš namo*), in analytic languages, like English, prepositions are used to realize both grammatical and circumstantial functions (e.g. *John’s marriage to Mary* vs. *John’s wedding-party in the Town Hall*). Being a predominantly analytic language, English has developed an adequate compensatory mechanism. One such mechanism is the preposition, which historically derives from adverbs, nouns, and participles (B. N. Aksenenko, 1956).

Structurally, prepositions fall into two categories: *simple*, or *one-word, prepositions* (*in, on, for, to, about, after*, etc.) and *composite*, or *two- or three-word, prepositions* (*ahead of, because of, according to; by means of, at the cost of, with reference to*, etc.).

Functionally, prepositions can be divided into *grammatical*, and *non-grammatical* (spatial and non-spatial).

Grammatical prepositions have no identifiable meaning independent of the grammatical construction in which they occur. Consider:

1. *He was interviewed by the police.*
2. *They were discussing the speech of the President.*
3. *She sent the letter to John.*

In all these examples the prepositions have no identifiable meaning of their own: it is only in the co-text that we can say what meaning they express. In (1) *by* marks the element that is the Agent; in (2) *of* marks the possessive relationship between *the speech* and *the president*; in (3) *to* marks the Recipient.

In their grammatical functions, prepositions are similar to inflections in synthetic languages. Cf.

interviewed by the police: policijos apklaustas;

the speech of the President: prezidento kalba;

sent to John: siuntė Džonui.

As for non-grammatical prepositions, their meaning can be easily identified outside the co-text (e.g. *in, on, above, under*, etc.). Unsimilar to grammatical prepositions, non-grammatical prepositions can be replaced by other non-grammatical prepositions. Cf.

He put it under/above/near/on the table. vs.

*They disposed of the box. → *They disposed at/below/on/through/under the box.*

As already indicated, non-grammatical prepositions can be divided into spatial and non-spatial, the term *spatial* including two types of space: non-temporal and temporal. Spatial non-temporal prepositions mark the position of entities with respect to each other: one entity is treated as a reference point (the deictic centre) with respect to which another is located.¹ The reference point could also be called the *landmark* (Lith. *orientyras*) and the entity whose location or moment is specified the *trajector*. So, for instance, in *The canary is in the cage*, *the canary* is the trajector, and *the cage* is the landmark. Landmarks can be both concrete and abstract entities. Cf. *The canary is held in the cage. vs. The canary is held in captivity.*

The Trajector can be static and dynamic. In the case of a dynamic situation, the trajector moves from an initial location (the *source*) to its destination, or *goal*, e.g. *John left London for New York*, where *John* is the trajector, *London* the source and *New York*, the goal. The source may not be explicitly stated: it is generally given in the context, e.g. *John left for New York*. Even the goal may be suppressed if it has already been mentioned, e.g. *John has already left*. Besides the source and the goal, we must mention the *path*, e.g. *John went to New York via Paris*, where *Paris* is the path.

Spatio-temporal relations may be expressed by the prepositions which are used to express spatio-non-temporal relations (historically the latter prepositions derive from the former). Cf.

She is in the room. vs. She was born in May.

He walked for two miles. vs. He stayed for two hours.

We met at the airport. vs. We met at noon.

¹ Two types of deictic centre can be distinguished in the text: *external* (the deictic centre is the speaker) and *internal* (the deictic centre is some other entity), or a *primary* and a *secondary deictic centre*.

He walks from his home to the centre of the town. vs. He works from morning till night.

However, this spatio-non-temporal and spatio-temporal parallelism is far from being complete (M. A. K. Halliday, 1994: 153). Time is unidimensional, whereas space is three-dimensional. Time is dynamic, whereas space is static. So, for instance, *Tuesday*. It comes and goes. *London* stays where it is.

As indicated, non-grammatical prepositions (to be more exact, their non-grammatical functions) also include non-spatial adverbial prepositions: *because of, in case of, for, for the purpose of, with, along with, according to, out of, from, except (for), with (in) regard to*, etc. It will be obvious that some of the prepositions (*out of, from*) can also mark spatial relations. Cf.

Because of his selfishness he has very few friends.

In case of rain, the picnic will be cancelled.

She went to the grocery store for milk.

With all his faults, she still loves him.

They helped us out of pity.

She collapsed from fatigue.

vs.

He ran out of the house.

When were you released from prison?

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