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Theoretical Grammar
and Phonetics of English

Lecture notes

Ministry of Education and Science of Ukraine
Sumy State University
Faculty of Foreign Philology and Social Communications

Theoretical Grammar
and Phonetics of English

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PREFACE

Lecture notes on the course "Theoretical Grammar and Phonetics of English" serve as a comprehensive guide and resource for postgraduate students, scholars, and researchers interested in linguistic analysis. The aim of the course is for students' achievement of fundamental thinking and the system of specific knowledge in the sphere of philological science, its theoretical bases, and the ability to use the knowledge of the language as a semiotic system in the scientific research and scientific-pedagogical activity.

After the course study, students are supposed to learn to:

• know the notions of modern English grammar and phonetics, identify grammatical meanings, grammatical forms, grammatical oppositions in the system of morphology, English phonemes, stress and intonation, modifications of vowels and consonants in speech, explain the difference between English vowel and consonant sounds, non-predicative and predicative units at the syntactic level, determine the methods of linguistic investigation and approaches to language study;

• find the regularities of the English grammatical and phonetical structure, describe the morphological, accentual, and syllabic structure of a word form, distinguish syntactic relations, connections, and processes, apply the understanding of the correct pronunciation in oral interpretation;

• explain grammatical and intonational phenomena within modern concepts, use linguistic notions in comparison of paradigmatic and syntagmatic relations, lexical and grammatical aspects of a word, division of words into classes, classification of sounds into vowels and consonants;

• demonstrate the skills to characterize the grammatical classes of English words, their realization of grammatical categories, English rhythm, the status of intonation in different contexts, classify word groups, sentences, and parts of the sentence, generalize the knowledge about the main parameters that characterize pronunciation and speech;

• analyse phonetical, morphological, and syntactical units in English, evaluate the role of analysis results for personal research and produce innovative ideas based on the obtained theoretical knowledge in philology in scientific and pedagogical work, consider the transformational phonetic models of languages in translation and make conclusions about their appropriateness in transition from a source text to a target one.

The lectures are based on knowledge in separate content modules that integrate with other parts of the course. They are complemented with the tasks for the independent work that enable the students to apply theoretical knowledge in scientific work.

Lecture 1
PRINCIPLES OF GRAMMATICAL ANALYSIS

Grammar may be viewed as a language structure or a branch of linguistics. As a branch of linguistics, it investigates the grammatical system of a language. Its object is a feature/phenomenon of the morphological or syntactic level in the language.

Grammar studies the grammatical structure of the language – a set of language means, which are used for utterance production. The two sublevels of grammatical analysis are morphological and syntactic levels. The units of the morphological system of any language are morphemes and parts of speech. The units of the syntactic system are word groups, sentences, and parts of the sentence. The basic notions of grammar are a grammatical category, a grammatical meaning, and a grammatical form. The grammatical category is a unity of the grammatical meaning and form. It is an opposition between mutually exclusive grammatical forms expressing general grammatical meaning. E.g., the grammatical category of number is realized through the opposition of the singular and plural forms (*table – tables, boy – boys*).

Grammatical categories are subdivided into morphological and syntactical, general and specific, explicit and implicit/ any grammatical category is represented in the opposition of two or more forms.

The grammatical meaning is a generalized, rather abstract meaning that unites large groups of words that is always expressed by unique formal markers or in opposition by the absence of markers. E. g., the grammatical meanings of the words "*students, universities*" are as follows:

1) nouns as they have the meaning of substantivity, denote persons (general implicit grammatical meaning) (the meaning of a part of speech;

2) animate, countable (dependent implicit grammatical meaning) (the meaning of a subclass);

3) the plural number (explicit grammatical meaning) (the categorial meaning showing the grammatical category).

The grammatical form is a synthetic or analytical means of expressing grammatical meaning. The grammatical form is a combination of the stem of a word with an inflectional morpheme (sometimes zero-morpheme), i.e., with inflections. Inflections are the bearers of the grammatical meaning, e. g., *speak, speaks, speaking*. These are grammatical forms of the lexeme "speak" because each word has the stem "speak-" and inflectional morphemes. The lexemes "*students, universities*" have a synthetic form of expressing the meaning of plurality.

The grammatical system of a language may be studied by descriptive, explanatory, synchronic, and diachronic (historical) grammar. Recently, communicative and corpus grammar has appeared.

World languages are classified according to two criteria: origin and inner structure. The linguists took their grammatical (morphological) properties as an absolute criterion for linguistic typology.

Morphological typology of the 19th century established four language types:

a) *flective (flexional)* (Indo-European, Semitic languages);

b) *agglutinative* (Turkic, Mongolian, Japanese, Manchurian, Finno-Ugrian languages);

c) *isolating* (the Chinese group);

d) *incorporating (polysynthetic)* (languages of American Indians, the Chukchi-Kamchadal languages).

However, any language structure can have phenomena that are not peculiar to its type. Thus, in English, some peculiarities refer to another language type: the features characterizing English as agglutinative, e.g., absence of agreement, or incorporating, e.g., *don't-touch-me attitude*. Such features represent the so-called type in the language.

A certain linguistic regularity inherent in some languages, a specific feature of their linguistic structure is a *language type*, e.g.,

presence/absence of analytical forms, distinguishing of derivative and word-changing elements, of parts of speech, function words, agreement, word order, compound word-sentences, synonymy, homonymy of grammatical elements, grammatical gender and classes of nouns, the notion of sentence, existence of non-finite forms of the verb, subordinate clauses. Such regulations exist objectively in languages. A specific combination of such objective language types determines a type of any natural language. The last is a stable combination of the critical features of the language connected in a certain way, the existence or absence of other features.

Typological contrasting of the grammatical systems of two or more languages becomes possible due to several isomorphic and allomorphic phenomena in them. It aims to study the peculiarities of the grammatical systems of the languages contrasted, to define their similarities and distinctions, and to help the students cope with linguistic interference, giving them clues to understanding and translating the foreign language.

Therefore, the object of contrastive grammar is inflexional morphemes, parts of speech, morphological categories of the notional parts of speech, paradigmatic classes and types of the syntactic units, syntactic connections, relations, and processes, word groups, sentences, parts of the sentence.

According to the syntactic typology of languages, there are nominative, ergative, and active languages.

Thus, modern English is a nominative, flective-analytical language with some features of isolation, agglutination, and incorporation.

Lecture 2
PROBLEMS OF PART-OF-SPEECH DISCRIMINATION IN ENGLISH

The morphological level is the basic one for the investigation of grammatical structure. It deals with morphemes in all their variety, morphs, allomorphs, grammatical meanings, structure of the words, word forms, paradigms, parts of speech, and grammatical categories as the unity of a grammatical meaning signified by an appropriate grammatical form. Each of the enumerated linguistic phenomena may be used as a basis for typological analysis of languages to identify their specific features.

English represents a flective type of language subdivided into flective-synthetic and flective-analytical languages (English is analytical). The fact is that the grammatical function of a word in interrelation in the sentences can be expressed differently: in **synthetic** languages – using inflections, which change within the same word, shift of vowels or consonants, external suffixation, suppletivity, and stress; in **analytical** – using particular formal (auxiliary) elements, fixed word order, outer categorization and reduplication. In analytical English, functional words are desemantized and used regularly as purely formal elements, positional words in the grammatical structure of a sentence – *it, do, one, have, had been*. In synthetic, however, as has been stressed above, there are no pure types of languages, and in English, we can trace both analytical and synthetic features.

Lexico-grammatical classes of words, **parts of speech,** reflect the segmentation of lexis into logico-grammatical classes. The Greeks had two criteria for parts of speech distinction: morphological and semantic. Languages developed, and the limits of the ancient classification could not meet the demands of linguists. Now, nuclear classifications are based on entirely different principles. These classifications are controversial. The most reasonable one proposes three criteria – meaning (lexical meaning), morphological

(morphological form), and syntactic (function) – that would be applied to the majority of languages.

In general, there are five such subcriteria:

1. *Semantic* (general lexico-grammatical categorial abstract meaning which is characteristic of all words constituting a given part of speech), e.g., substantivity, quality, quantity.

2. *Morphological* (common paradigmatic relations, existence of explicitly marked grammatical categories).

3. *Syntactic* (specific functions of a given part of speech - subject, predicate, object, attribute, and adverbial modifier).

4. *Combinability* (the ability of words of a given part of speech to combine with words of other parts of speech, to form definite patterns with other classes).

5. *Word-building means* (the ability of words of a given part of speech to derive new words according to specific patterns. The presence of a certain lexico-grammatical morpheme in a word brings about its part-of-speech reference).

For English as the analytical language, syntactic criterion and combinability are dominant, which makes English parts of speech lexico-syntactic classes of words. Notional parts of speech are nouns, adjectives, pronouns, numerals, verbs, and adverbs; functional ones are prepositions, conjunctions, particles, and independent – interjections, response words and modal words. With the development of the language, new parts of speech appeared: statives and articles. Notional parts of speech have full lexical meaning, grammatical categories. They form up paradigms and perform syntactic functions. They are the bearers of the semantic information in the sentence. Functional parts of speech express syntactic connections between the constituents of the sentence. They neither have grammatical categories nor perform the functions of parts of the sentence. Their nominative meaning is incomplete. Independent parts of speech are fully lexical words feelings, emotions, and speaker's attitude to the information. The are devoid of inflections and syntactic functions. Nevertheless, they may constitute a sentence.

Lecture 3
GRAMMATICAL PROPERTIES OF PARTS OF SPEECH

Words are bilateral units that have content and expression sides. They express the meaning or participate in its expression. As language units words form a separate level and enter the overall system of the language. They are in interrelationship with units of other levels.

All the words of a language fall into **notional** (those denoting things, objects, notions – words having denotators in the objective reality) and **function(al)** (those having no denotators of their own and used only as one of the grammatical means to form up the utterance). Notional words constitute the bulk of the existing word stock. Nouns numerically make up the largest class (33 %), verbs come second (25 %), they are followed by adjectives (17 %), adverbs make up 12 %, and the smallest group is pronouns, numerals, statives (13 %).

Table 1 lists grammatical categories of **notional** parts of speech in modern English.

Table 1

Part of speech	*Grammatical categories*
Noun	**The category of number:** Singular / Plural number forms **The category of case:** Common / Genitive case forms
Verb	**The category of tense:** Past, Present, Future tense forms **The category of aspect:** Continuous / Non-Continuous aspect forms **The category of voice:** Active / Passive voice forms **The category of mood:** Indicative / Oblique (Conditional / Suppositional /

	Subjunctive I, Subjunctive II) / Imperative mood forms **The category of correlation (phase):** Perfect / Non-perfect correlation (phase) forms **The category of person:** 1st, 2nd, 3rd person forms **The category of number:** Singular / Plural number forms
Adjective	**The category of degree of quality:** Positive / Comparative / Superlative degree forms
Adverb	**The category of degree of quality:** Positive / Comparative / Superlative degree forms
Pronoun	**The category of number** (personal, demonstrative, possessive, reflexive): Singular / Plural number forms **The category of case** (personal and *who*: Nominative / Objective case forms; indefinite, negative, reciprocal: Common / Genitive case forms) **The category of person** (personal, possessive, reflexive): 1st, 2nd, 3rd person forms **The category of gender** (personal, possessive, reflexive): Masculine / Feminine / Neuter gender forms
Numeral	There are **no grammatical (morphological) categories**
Stative	There are **no grammatical (morphological) categories**

There are different views on the case category that gave rise to such theories as the theory of positional cases, the theory of prepositional cases, the theory of the possessive postposition, and the limited case theory. The verbal category that acquired different interpretations is the category of tense which depend on overlapping some grammatical meanings in one verbal form: the meanings of aspect, mood, correlation, and voice.

The notional words express a definite lexical meaning – either denotative or significative. Accordingly, they are denotators and significators. Their grammatical meaning is always significative.

In most **functional** words (prepositions, articles, modal words, conjunctions, interjections), the grammatical meaning dominates over the lexical one. Function words are devoid of denotative ability. They are designed to form linguistic units. Some peculiarities characterize them:

1) in some English constructions, the usage of function words is obligatory;

2) the number of function words is limited. There are only 150 function words in Modern English.

Functional parts of speech are synsemantic. They have no full lexical meaning and provide only functional information, which is necessary for making utterances out of notional words. They are words with incomplete nominative meanings. They participate in the expression of meanings. Functional words express grammatical meanings of relation and connection (prepositions and conjunctions), determination (articles), and specification (particles). They do not perform the function of parts of the sentence; their role in the syntactic structure is to express the syntactic connection between the constituents of the phrase and sentence. They are devoid of grammatical categories, so they are not inflectional.

Some grammarians refer to modal words, interjections, and response words as independent parts of speech. They are fully lexical words expressing the speaker's attitude to the information in the sentence, feelings and emotions, affirmation, and negation. They are not inflectional. They do not perform any syntactic function.

Independent parts of speech are not the constituents of the sentence structure; they have no syntactic connection with the sentence elements and usually refer to the whole sentence.

Prepositions in English have a morphological structure that can be as follows: simple (*at, in of*); compound (*inside, without*); derivative (*along, below, коло, поперек*); composite (phrasal) (*by means of, owing to*). Prepositions may be temporal (*after that, during, since*), local (*along the road, in front of, behind, over*), or casual (*because of, in view of*). Prepositions are characterized by an almost exclusive bilateral combinability with any left-hand notional and a right-hand nominal part of speech / its equivalent. A peculiar feature of English is a postposed use of prepositions in interrogative sentences (*What paper have you subscribed to?*), in exclamations (*What an accident he's got in!*), in infinitive clauses (*She is impossible to work with.*).

Prepositions are linked in English where they generally do not require any case form from the right-hand nominal component; that is, they do not govern nouns, pronouns, or numerals, e.g., *a book of my brother, toys for the child*.

The syntactic functions of prepositional phrases are standard in both languages. They may be complements to verbs, adjectives (*sorry for smth.*), attributive or adverbial adjuncts (*books for reading, singing in the room*), disjuncts (*to my surprise, on the other hand*).

Conjunctions realize the connection of homogeneous parts in word groups, sentences, or linking clauses in a composite sentence. They fall into coordinate and subordinate ones.

The function of particles in English is to emphasize, restrict, or evaluate.

Interjections in English have emotive, incentive, and other functions, e.g. *Great! Hey! Nuts!*

Lecture 4
CONSTRUCTIVE SYNTAX

The main syntactic theories are categorical, structural, functional, communicative, pragmatic, generative (transformational), and paradigmatic syntax.

Syntax dealing with its level units – word groups, sentences, and parts of the sentence – has formal and content aspects. The formal aspect is the subject matter of constructive syntax that deals with sentence theory. The sentence may be defined from the point of view of internal and external approaches. The external approach concentrates the attention on the relatedness of sentences with extralinguistic phenomena and on their functional design. The internal approach presupposes its linguistic characterization of its linguistic status, and its internal, structural, and semantic properties.

The definitions of the sentence are based on logical, psychological, phonetic, graphical and grammatical criteria. The latter rekies on such sentence aspects as modality and predication.the verbal element that realizes the primary predication is characterized by finiteness that is expressed by tense and mood.

Unlike a word group, a sentence is the central syntactic unit of communicative design that has intonation and expresses a proposition. It is a complex language unit studied in various aspects that serve the basis for classifications.

A sentence is built according to linguistic patterns whose number is limited; they are idioethnic and specific for a concrete language. In English linguists distibguish from 3 to 39 patterns. The well-known sentence models are functional and categorical. The former relies on the part-of-the-sentence model, and the latter reflects its part-of-speech representation.

Constructive syntax also deals with the main and secondary parts of the sentence and the correlation between parts of the sentence and parts of speech. It analyses sentence parts from the point of view of their being principal, obligatory, and optional members of the sentence. Besides, it raises the issue of sentence

typology, recognition of simple, semi-composite, and composite sentences, and interrelation between a sentence and a word group. Typology of sentences cause some disputes among grammarians, e.g., the status of compound sentences and sentences with the secondary predication syntagmemes.

The sentence structure is not bound to the subject and predicate as its structural minimum. It regards the other elements that are necessary for its constructive completeness. Complements are structurally relevant secondary parts of the sentence, and extensions are optional ones that can be omitted without destroying the grammatical and semantic body of the sentence. Complements and extensions show structural and functional significance.

Constructive syntax theory suggests the revision of the traditional interpretation of such notions as complete / incomplete, extended / unextended. Thus a traditionally complete sentence may be be viewed incomplete because it lacks a complement. E.g. *We see*. According to the constructive syntax theory a traditionally extended sentence may be considered unextended when all its parts are obligatory, from the communicative point of view, e.g., *We see the presentation*.

Constructive syntax studies word order or order of sentence parts (sentence constituents) that is fixed in English. It does not negate formal syntax variability, whose reasons are determined by the communicative parameters of a sentence. The position of English words in the syntactic structure is significant and decisive for part-of-speech discrimination. The deviations from the fixed word order may be of formal-structural and communicative nature and be dealt with colloquial and communicative syntax. They are often vivid in oral speech, literary works and mass media where they are stylistically relevant.

Lecture 5
SEMANTIC SYNTAX

The semantic view of the sentence is one of its content analysis parameters. It is regarded as a linguistic sign. A sentence is the main syntactic unit that has close reference to language and speech. It is a communicative unit of the highest linguistic form.

While a word designates an object of the extralinguistic reality, a sentence denotate is an extralinguistic situation. The latter concerns the state of things and their qualities in interrelations with other objects. The sentence and situation do not correlate directly but through the mental phenomenon of the proposition.

A *proposition* is a two-member logical unit reflecting objective relations of things and properties. It consists of the logical subject and logical predicate. They create logical predicativity. Predicate actants are arguments that are thought correlates of natural objects.

The proposition as a modal predicative unit is a meaningful centre of the sentence correlating with language units manifested in speech. It converts into a sentence in two ways. Firstly, it is linearization: what is presented simultaneously in a proposition is successive in the sentence. Secondly, it gives a semiotic linguistic status to proposition members that derive sentence parts. The proposition structure must be isomorphic to the situation structure.

Language and speech manifesting proposition are the forms and means of communicating the thought. It is an extermal approach to the definition of the sentence that makes linguists concentrate their attention on the relatedness od the units with extralingual phenomena.

Semantico-syntactic investigations are conducted in three directions:

1. The theory of the semantic significance of a syntactic structure is based on the idea that a syntactic sentence model is a marker of both structural and semantic parameters.

2. The subject-predicate theory that describes a sentence as a language form of thinking.

3. The predicate-argument theory regards a sentence as a reflection of a proposition. The sentence structure can be shown as *aRb*, where *a* and *b* are arguments participating in the ontological situation, and R is a relational predicate for expressing relations among actants.

Different parts of speech are not equal in interpretation of sentence semantic structure. The bulk of the sentence is names and predicates expressed by nouns, pronouns and verbs, and adjectives correspondingly. Due to the verb combinability with the subject and secondary parts, it is an organizing, semantic center of the sentence.

Predicates may be actional and statal; avalent, monovalent, divalent and polyvalent. Arguments are agents, patients, beneficiants, experiencers, objects, resultatives, instrumentals, elementatives, partitives, and locatives. Semantic syntax deals with predicate and – non-predicate functors (phasal, causative and modus) and operators (operators of negation, implication, equivalence, conjunction and disjunction).

The immanent feature of a sentence is predication stressing the reference of a sentence meaning to the reality. This most important inner property of the content side of the sentence correlates with two-member predication structure of the proposition. Its grammatical expression is one- or two-headed that accounts for the subdivision of sentences into one-member and two-member, according to the number of constituents of predication.

A semantic category that defines the subjective-objective relations of the content side to the real world from the view point of their existence is modality. The latter is manifested in two types – subjective and objective. Modality is obligatory semantico-syntactic feature of the sentence.

Lecture 6
COMMUNICATIVE SYNTAX

While constructive and semantic syntaxes deal with the nominative aspect of the sentence, the communication theory focuses on an utterance. A sentence in its wide and neutral meaning covers both language (structural-semantic) and speech (functional-pragmatic) phenomena is appropriate for communicative syntax. The communicative aspect of the sentence is concerned with the grammatical category of person, functional sentence perspective, and communicative types.

The grammatical category of person is regarded in view of personal pronouns where it has a content and communicatively relevant nature. While communication is interaction and the latter is impossible without interlocutors, the corresponding positions are marked by the pronoun of the first person (speech addresser) and the pronoun of the second person (speech addressee). The personal pronouns of the first and second persons are specific language means to indicate the positions of the communicative act participants. The pronoun of the third person is contrasted to them based on participation / non-participation in the communicative act. The grammatical category of person is communicatively oriented.

The functional sentence perspective (theme-rheme division) is an approach to the sentence from the point of view of the information it conveys. It divides a sentence into a thematic (theme, topic, the known) and rhematic (rheme, comment, the new) block. The starting point of the sentence is termed a theme, and the new information is called the rheme. Rhematization is mainly idioethnic. In English the ways to indicate the rheme are:

- cleft constructions in which any part of the sentence can be rhematicized;
- article determination where an indefinite article is a rheme marker;
- word order which is a great demand of the normative grammar;

- phrase (logical) stress that significantly matters in oral speech;
- "there be construction".

While making a sentence according to the rules of functional sentence perspective, an addresser builds it as a certain informationally significant hierarchy, putting accents and governing the listener's attention. An addressee can perceive correctly only those signals sent by the message author that carry new important information for him/her.

The communicative types of sentences are distinguished according to the purpose of utterance. The classification is based on the communicative principle suggesting the correlation between the communicative purpose of utterance and sentence type in which it is produced. The primary communicative function of a declarative sentence is a change of the interlocutor's epistemic state by communicating some information to him. An interrogative sentence performs the function of changing one's epistemic state at the expense of the answer of the interlocutor who was asked. The communicative function of an imperative sentence in the interlocutor's behavioral reaction expressed in performance or failure to perform an action (in case of prohibition).

At the same time, the sentence of one communicative type can express the communicative meaning of the sentence of other types. Sometimes a sentence is a combination of several communicative types when it has a sophisticated structural organization.

The communicative-syntactic theory sheds light on the functional aspect of the sentence as a unit of communication. The language means used for the communicative sentence potential (grammatical category of person, functional sentence perspective, communicative sentence types) are phenomena of the same order within the concept of language-speech as one of the forms of interpersonal communication.

Lecture 7
PRAGMATIC SYNTAX

Another content aspect of syntax is pragmatic. Pragmatics is one of the key notions of semiotics. It denotes the relations between a sign and its users while semantics deals with relations between signs and its denotates and syntactics – relations between signs.

Since the 20th century there has been established such a branch of linguistics as pragmalinguistics. It raises the issues about aims and tasks of communicants in speech interaction, discourse strategies of speech interlocutors, and communicative effects – everything related to the intentional potential of an utterance, an act of speech as a specific human activity.

Pragmalinguistics focuses on two main theories: speech act theory and the theory of presuppositions. Nevertheless, it is regarded in the domain of syntax because it delves into communication aspects and syntax is a minimal communicative level of a language. So, syntactic level is the language level where pragmalinguistic theory works.

Speech act theory was established by the English philosopher John Austin. It is based on discriminating two types of utterances – constatives and performatives. The former state something while the latter denote actions, deeds of purely speech character. Such classification of speech acts modified linguists' idea of the functional aspect of the language. They began to apply an actional approach to linguistic phenomena in view of such actionally relevant characteristics of it as motives, strategies, aims.

Speech act theory elaborated the typology of performative utterances:

- requestives;
- prohibitives;
- promisives
- directives.

Speech act theory introduced such notions as a locutionary act, illocutionary force a perlocutionary effect. Speech acts are also regarded as direct and indirect.

Another source for pragmatic syntax was the theory of presuppositions. According to it, any affirmative sentence falls into assertive and presuppositional parts. Assertion is the main thought expressed in the sentence. The presupposition is the condition that makes this thought expression possible. It is implicit in the sentence. The idea of presupposition was developed in pragmatic syntax into a situational context, which is a background that makes an utterance topical for interlocutors. The existence of post-supposition was also suggest ed. Post-supposition is a trace of the speech act reflected in the interlocutors' consciousness. Sometimes presupposition and post-supposition are united into consupposition meaning the associative notions.

Both speech act theory and the theory of presuppositions investigate a speech utterance produced in an actual interactive situation. They analyze circumstances, motives, purposes, and results of the communicative act and the rules of personal interaction.

Modern grammar considers the basic semantics of grammar as a sum of content components: lexical, combinability and structural semantics. It is a large verbal sign correlated with the situation fragment. The sense of the utterance correlates with the sentence semantics differently: it may be identical with it, deviate from it, contradict and overlap it. The incongruence appears due to some extralinguistic, paralinguistic and linguistic factors.

Usual and occasional senses are discriminated, according to their being predicted, countable, limited. Due to a lot of different circumstances, a sender inputs some information, and its receiver extracts an occasional sense from the utterance. Usual sense is closer to the language, so the means of its explication, sense-generating operators, can be distinguished. Sense-generating operators fall into lexical, morphological, syntagmatic and article operators. They describe the transition from meaning to sense.

Lecture 8
COGNITIVE GRAMMAR AS A BRANCH OF GRAMMAR

Cognitive grammar is a branch of cognitive linguistics. According to it, language is a mental phenomenon, the product of consciousness and thinking. It is the result of a person's ability to think symbolically. The cognitive approach to languages recognizes linguistic and conceptual world pictures. The latter resorts to concepts, conceptualization, and categorization, revealing the essence of a language meaning. It supports the idea of language as a primary means to receive, store, process, and transmit from one individual to another.

Linguistic cognitology disseminates a new approach to categorization principles: the world does not consist of discrete classes of objects; the categories are open classes exposed to migration. A unit can have a whole set of category features, be more quickly identified, and be a more typical representative – its prototype. The main idea of the prototypical approach is inequality of category members, heterogeneousness of the category, transparency, and permeability of its borders.

Cognitive grammar relies on the psychology of perception, which uses the terms of trajectory and landmark and sheds light on the structure of the whole class of utterances. Cognitive grammar states that the metaphor has a cognitive nature consisting of target and source domains.

Linguistic utterance analysis acquired the factor of an observer who creates the perspective of the utterance. The ability to look at the situation with other people's eyes was called empathy.

Cognitive grammar is oriented semantically. Language is viewed as a person's mental ability to focus on the operations of informational order.

Lecture 9
FUNDAMENTALS OF TEXT GRAMMAR

A text is the highest language entity that has its categories, units and compositional rules, i.e. specific grammar. According to text grammar, the text has features that are not a sum of features of sentences constituting it. Its basic unit is supraphrasal unity.the basic peculiarities of the text are integrity, coherence and cohesion. Integrity presupposes the inability of omitting some fragments from the text.

The means of the intertextual connections are cohesion and coherence. Cohesion refers to formal (structural) connections, and coherence – content ones. Cohesion may be of different types: reference, substitution, ellipsis, conjunction, and text isotopy. The content text parameters are intentionality, acceptability, informativity, situationality, and intertextuality.

Text deals with the notion of horizontal and vertical context. It is also viewed in relation to discourse that is a verbal reaction pf a person to a communicative situation.

Recently the term text linguistic has been preferred to text grammar. The subject matter of text linguistics is functional aspect of the language. The science makes a system of text categories and describes the conditions of the effective human communication. It regards a text as reflection of definite events, relations, and situations.

Some linguists consider the text as a language unit. They deal with its formal and structural criteria and a set of modelling rules. Other scientists support the view that the text is a product of thinking and speech activity. The third admit the text a two-sided unit: the main speech unit expressing the complete thought and a language unit, since principles of text building are the basis of speech units. Text linguistics studies the text as a system of higher rank on the basis of its integrity and cohesion, investigation of text categories and interphrasal relations and connections and as a global unity having its deep and surface structure.

Lecture 10
GRAMMATICAL VARIABILITY

Variology is a supplementary discipline that studies changeability of different objects. There are three main groups of variability: individual and collective, somatic and mutational, isolated and connected. Variability is possible within one quality. Its inner reasons are inherent in an object. External reasons lie outside the object.

A language changes in space and time. Spatial language variability is related to its dialect and variant changeability, temporal variability – with its diachrony. However, language has also got a social parameter oriented at a person.

Variability occurs at all language levels. At the grammatical level the same grammatical form can express different meanings and the same meaning can be expressed differently. Moreover, variability characterizes a speech portrait of a certain language personality. To evaluate the grammatical correctness of a sentence one should put it on the evaluation scale – absolutely correct or absolutely incorrect.

In grammar, there are many strict rules necessary to be observed by all the members of the society. Besides there are acceptable rules dealing with variant forms of expression.

The grammatical type of a language can be interpreted differently. The grammatical form cannot be exposed to the same classification. It can be exemplified by the interpretation of the English article status, superlative and comparative degree forms, and theories of simple and composite sentences.

Any new point of view on the grammatical phenomenon provokes variability.

Lecture 11
PRINCIPLES OF PHONETIC ANALYSIS

Theoretical phonetics is concerned with the functioning of phonetic units in the language. It regards phonetic phenomena synchronically without any special attention paid to the historical development of English. Phonetics is divided into segmental (individual sounds) and suprasegmental (syllables, words, phrases, and texts).

Human speech is the result of a highly complicated series of events: psychological, physiological, and acoustic. The listeners' hearing physiological apparatus receives sound waves. The spoken message is transmitted through the nervous system to the brain, and the information conveyed is interpreted linguistically.

The organs of speech involved in the speech mechanism may be grouped as follows: the respiratory or power mechanism formed by the lungs, the wind-pipe and the bronchi, the larynx containing the vocal cords, the glottis, and supraglottal cavities (the pharynx, the mouth, and the nasal cavities). So, three branches of phonetics study different stages of the communication process:

- articulatory;
- acoustic;
- auditory.

The branch of phonetics that studies the linguistic function of consonant and vowel sounds, syllabic structure, word accent, and such prosodic features as pitch, stress, and tempo is called phonology. Phonetics proper is subdivided into segmental (concerned with individual sounds) and suprasegmental (dealing with syllables, words, phrases, and texts).

A new way of looking at phonetic phenomena is phonostylistics, which studies the use of phonetic means in different situations. It aims to analyze all possible kinds of spoken utterances with the primary purpose of identifying the phonetic features restricted to certain kinds of contexts. The situation is

connected with the purpose and the topic of communication, participants, and setting (scene).

Several factors are singled out, which result in phonostylistic varieties:

- the purpose of the utterance is a phonetic style-forming factor);
- the speaker's attitude, the form of communication;
- the degree of formality;
- spontaneity that are style-modifying.

The extralinguistic factors are the speaker's individuality, temporal provenance, social provenance, intelligibility, sex, and age. They are concomitant and accidental. The style-differentiating characteristics establish intonational styles:

- informational;
- academic (scientific);
- publicist (oratorial);
- declamatory (artistic);
- conversational (familiar).

A *phoneme* is a minimal abstract linguistic unit realized in speech in the form of speech sounds. It is a material, real, and objective unit performing a discriminatory function. The variants of the phoneme in different positions are allophones. Allophones fall into principal and subsidiary.

The final aim of the phonological analysis is to identify the phonemes and find out the patterns of relationship into which they fall as a sound system of the language. It employs the distributional and semantic methods in an attempt to systematize the sounds of a language to group them into functionally similar classes. There are two major classes of sounds – consonants and vowels. Consonants are known to combine voice and noise, while vowels are sounds consisting of only voice.

The phonological analysis of the sounds of a language is based on such notions as contrastive and complementary distribution, minimal pairs, free variation, and phonetic similarity.

Lecture 12
SYSTEM OF VOWELS IN ENGLISH

Vowels are produced with no obstruction to the stream of air. They are classified according to the following criteria:

- stability of articulation, which specifies the actual position of the articulating organ (monophthongs [i], [e], [æ], [ɒ], [u], [ʌ], [ə], [ɑ:], [ɔ:], [ɜ:], diphthongs [ei], [ɜu], [ai], [au], [ɒu], [iə], [ɜə], [uə], [ai]and dipthongoids [i:], [u:]);
- tongue position characterized by two aspects:
- ✓ the horizontal movement:
  - ➢ front [i], [e], [æ], [ɜ(ə)];
  - ➢ front-retracted [i], [iə];
  - ➢ central [ʌ], [ə], [ɜ:], [ɜ(u)], [ɜ(u)];
  - ➢ back [ɑ:], [ɔ:],[u:], [ɒ];
  - ➢ back-advanced [u], [uə];
- ✓ vertical movement:
  - ➢ close: narrow [i:], [u:] and broad [i], [u], [uə], [iə];
  - ➢ mid: narrow [e], [ə], [ɜ:], [e (i)], [ɜ(u)] and broad [ʌ], [ə];
  - ➢ open narrow [ɜ(ə)], [ɔ:], [ɔ(i)] and broad [æ], [a(i, u)], [ɒ], [ɑ:];
- lip position (spread, neutral and rounded);
- character of the vowel ends termed checkness in English. All English short vowels are checked when stressed. All long vowels are free;
- length:
- ✓ short monohpthongs [i], [e], [æ], [ɒ], [u], [ʌ], [ə];
- ✓ long monohpthongs [i:], [ɑ:], [ɔ:], [u:], [ɜ:];
- tenseness that characterizes the state of the organs of speech at the moment of vowel production. Historically, long vowels are tense, while historically short vowels are lax.

In a speech continuum, quantitative and qualitative modifications of vowels occur. The decrease of the vowel quantity (the shortening of the vowel length) is a quantitative modification of

vowels. Qualitative modifications occur in unstressed positions where vowels lose their quality.

The pronunciation of speech sounds can vary according to their position in the word. The sound variations in words, their derivatives and grammatical forms are sound alternations that are mainly historical. Sound alternations are also spread on the synchronical level, they are considered contextual. So, there arises the problem of phonetic identification of alternated sounds. The functioning of sounds in different grammatical forms and derivative words seems very involved and flexible. The relationationships between phonemes and morphemes are studied by morphophonemics. The interrelation of phonology and morphology is morphonology that deals with the way which sounds can alternate as different realisations of one and the same morpheme.

Vowel reduction is qualitative or quantitative weaking of vowels in unstressed positions.

The variability in the sound realizations is caused by the environment, distribution of sounds in speech, the accentual and the rhythmical structures of the utterance. The modifications may be stylistically marked.

Stylistic oppositions have long been observed in the two types of pronunciation: formal and informal. Formal speech suggests dispassionate information on the part of the speaker, informal – everyday conversation. Stylistic modifications of intonation do not coincide with those of sounds. Segmental modifications are less recognizable. The use of the simplified sound form is often more typical for speaking than for reading. Stylistic sound variations have the tendency towards the increase of the sound modifications in speech with the quickening of its tempo and the weakening of the carefulness. In formal situations, the participants will monitor their behaviour and sound explicit and supercorrect. In informal situations, the degree of simplification of speech (assimilation, reduction, elision) may be viewed as a style forming means. Diphthongs are often monophthongized in informal speech.

Lecture 13
SYSTEM OF CONSONANTS IN ENGLISH

Consonants are characterized by close articulation: complete, partial or intermittent blockage of air-passage by organs. They are classified according to:

- the type of obstruction and the manner of production of noise:
  ✓ occlusive:
    ➤ noise (plosives (stops) and affricates);
    ➤ sonorants;
    ✓ constrictive:
    ➤ noise;
    ➤ sonorants (medial and lateral);
  - the place of articulation:
  ✓ labial (bilabial, labio-dental),
  ✓ lingual (forelingual, mediolingual and backlingual)
  ✓ glottal;
    - the position of the soft palate:
  ✓ oral;
  ✓ nasal.

As a result of the intercourse between consonants and vowels and within each class there appear such processes of connected speech as assimilation, accommodation, vowel reduction and elision which is sometimes called deletion. Consonants are modified according to the place and manner of articulation.

Assimilation is the adaptive modification of a consonant by a neighbouring consonant in the speech chain. It takes place when a sound changes its character in order to become more like a neighbouring sound. Accommodation is the interchanges of "vowel + consonant" or "consonant + vowel", e.g., nasalization of vowels or labialization of consonants. Elision is complete loss of sounds, both vowels and consonants.

Lip position and the position of the soft palate may be affected by the accommodation, the interchange of consonant +

vowel type. Labialization of consonants is traced under the influence of the neighbouring back vowels (accommodation). Accommodation also involves the position of the soft palate. Slight nasalization as the result of prolonged lowering of the soft palate is found in vowels under the influence of the neighbouring sonant [m] and [n].

The manner of articulation may result in the loss of plosion, nasal plosion, and lateral plosion. In the sequence of two plosive consonants the former loses its plosion. In the sequence of a plosive followed by a nasal sonorant the manner of articulation of the plosive and the work of the soft palate result in the nasal character of plosion release. In the sequence of a plosive followed by the lateral sonorant [l] the noise production of the plosive stop is changed into that of the lateral stop.

The voicing value of consonant may also change through assimilation. It affects the work of the vocal cords and the force of articulation. Voiced lenis sounds become voiceless fortis when followed by another voiceless sound. Assimilation affecting the place of articulation is the most typical of English sound system.

The occasional process in the connected speech is sound insertion because it is sometimes easier from the articulatory point of view to insert sons, e.g., linking [r].

These phenomena manifest the economy of pronouncing efforts on the part of the speaker. The listener is mainly interested in the meaning the speaker aims to convey but not in the precise phonetic organization of the connected speech. He/she does not usually notice omissions.

Thus, modifications of sounds in a speech chain are of allophonic character, i.e., they are realizations of allophones of phonemes. When one feature of the phoneme is lost there remain a considerable number of its characteristics, its status and functions are not lost.

Lecture 14
NOTION OF SYLLABLE

Speech can be broken into minimal pronounceable units where sounds tend to group themselves. These smallest phonetic groups are syllables. A syllable as a complicated phenomenon may be studied on acoustic, articulatory, auditory, and functional levels. It introduced expiratory, sonority, muscular tension, and loudness theories.

The syllable is a chain of phonemes of varying lengths constructed based on contrast of its constituents. Its nucleus is a vowel. The sonorants [l], [m], [n] are syllabic if they are preceded by noise consonants. The distribution of phonemes in the syllabic structure follows the specific rules for a particular language.

In English syllable formation is based on the phonological opposition vowel – consonant. There are four types of syllables – CV, VC, CV(C), V (C). The most typical syllabic structure is of (C) VC type. The fundamental type of syllable is the closed one. The number of syllables in an English word can vary from one to eight.

The syllabic structure of the language and its syllabic typology are determined by its syllabic structure. The latter is studied by phonotactics. The point of syllable division may be inside the intervocalic consonant preceded by vowels or before the intervocalic consonant if the vowels mentioned above do not precede it. The first syllable always remains closed. In English, word final consonants are usually of weak-end type.

The syllable performs two functions:
1) constitutive;
2) distinctive.

Its constitutive function consists in the ability to be a part of a word or a word itself. The distinctive function of a syllable reveals its ability to differentiate words and word-forms.

Lecture 15
PROSODY

The syllable that is uttered with more prominence than the other syllables of the word are stressed or accented. The prominence effect is achieved by force, tone, length, and vowel color. The dynamic stress characteristic of European languages implies greater force or muscular energy with which the syllable is pronounced. The variations in force, pitch, quantity, and quality mark stress. However, prominence in speech is also obtained by the loudness, length, quality of the vowel, and its inherent sonority and historical length.

Languages are differentiated according to the placement of ord stress into those with fixed stress and those with free stress. The word stress in English is free. Besides, it may be shifting performing the semantic function of differentiating lexical units, parts of speech, and grammatical forms.

The word has as many degrees of stress as there are syllables. The British conception of three degrees of word stress is accepted as relevant. The primary stress is the strongest; the secondary stress is the second strongest, and all the other degrees are termed weak stress.

The accentual structure of English words is unstable due to the different origins of the vocabulary, e.g., in Germanic languages, the word stress falls on the first initial or second syllable; in English words without prefixes – on the root syllable. This is an example of the recessive tendency. Moreover, modern English also pertains to the rhythmical tendency that causes the secondary stress in multisyllabic words. Finally, the retentive tendency is observed in English word stress: a derivative always retains the stress of the original or parent word.

The word stress performs three functions in a language:
1) constitutive (it constitutes a word organizing its syllables into a language unit);
2) identificatory (enables the identification of the succession of syllables as a definite accentual pattern of a word);

3) distinctive (capable of differentiating meanings of words or forms).

There are no languages that are spoken without any change of intonation. On the perception level, intonation is a complex formed by variations of three prosodic components:

1) pitch;
2) loudness;
3) tempo.

The basic unit of intonation is an intonation pattern that contains one nucleus and other stressed or unstressed syllables.

The communicative functions of intonation are versatile:

- to structure the information content of a textual unit;
- to determine the speech function of a phrase;
- to convey connotational means of attitude;
- to structure a text;
- to differentiate the meaning of textual units;
- to express the stylistic function.

Nevertheless, all these functions perform the general function of communication. The choice of an intonational style is determined by the purpose of communication and some extralinguistic and social factors.

On the phonological level, intonation is viewed as a complex structure of all its prosodic parameters. In oral English the smallest piece of information is associated with an intonation group, that is a union of intonation containing the nucleus. There is only one position that is normal or unmarked in an intonation group, while the other positions give a special or marked effect. When we want to draw attention to an earlier part of an intonation group we shift the nucleus to it. Then the nucleus is contrastive focus or logical sentence stress. In marked position the nuclei may be on any word in an intonation group or phrase. Even functional words can receive nuclear stress for special contrastive purposes.

TASK FOR SELF-STUDY

Comment on the basic terms and notions:

a) External approach, internal approach, theoretical grammar, language, speech, sign, cognitive function, communicative unit, nominative unit, lingual unit, systemic organization, morphological level, syntactical level, syntagmatic relations of dependence, syntagmatic relations of independence, syntagmatic relations of interdependence, paradigm, paradigmatic relations, semantic similarity, common derivational properties, functional similarity, functional and semantic similarity, hierarchical structure, grammatical category, the category of number, the category of case, the category of gender, the category of person, the category of degree of quality, the category of tense, the category of aspect, the category of mood, the category of voice, the category of correlation (phase), general implicit grammatical meaning, dependent implicit grammatical meaning, explicit grammatical meaning, synthetically expressed, analytically expressed, extralingual grammatical meaning, intralingual grammatical meaning, analytic(al) grammatical form, synthetic(al) grammatical form, binary grammatical opposition, opposeme, strong (marked, positive) member of the opposition, weak (unmarked, negative) member of the opposition, private opposition, gradual opposition, equipollent opposition, free morph, bound morph, zero morpheme, semi-bound morpheme, derivational morpheme, inflectional morpheme, prefix, suffix, affix, stem, root, allomorph, notional words, function(al) words, declinable parts of speech, indeclinable parts of speech, complementary distribution, semantic criterion, combinability, functional criterion, discourse cognitive classes, lexico-grammatical classes, field theory, nucleus, periphery, independent parts of speech, noun, adjective, verb, adverb, numeral, stative, pronoun, conjunction, preposition, article, particle, interjection, modal words, response words, Singular / Plural number, Common / Genitive case, Nominative / Objective case, Masculine / Feminine / Neuter gender, 1st, 2nd, 3rd person, Past, Present, Future tense, Continuous / Non-Continuous aspect, Active / Passive voice,

Indicative / Oblique (Conditional / Suppositional / Subjunctive I, Subjunctive II) / Imperative mood, Perfect / Non-perfect correlation (phase), Positive / Comparative / Superlative degree.

b) Word-centric approach, sentence-centric approach, text-centric approach, structural hierarchy, syntactical level unit, structural approach, logical approach, semantic approach, syntactic theories, categorial syntax, structural syntax, constructive syntax, functional syntax, communicative syntax, pragmatic syntax, generative (transformational) syntax, paradigmatic syntax, minor syntax, major syntax, word group (phrase), clause, sentence, composite sentence, paragraph, super-syntax, texteme, communicative / non-communicative units, predicative / non-predicative units, basic syntactic notions, syntactic relations, syntactic connections (coordination, subordination (agreement, government, adjoinment, enclosure), predication (primary, secondary)), devices (means) of syntactic connection (inflections, functional words, word order), syntactic processes (expansion, extension, complexation, contamination, application, insertion, replacement, ellipsis), endocentric / exocentric word groups, noun phrases, verb phrases, adjective phrases, adverb phrases, numeral phrases, pronoun phrases, subjective (objective, predicative, attributive, adverbial) phrases, pre-modification, post-modification, mutual modification, preposed / postposed adjunct, prepositional / prepositionless phrases, subordinate (coordinate, predicative) word groups, proposition, predication, finiteness, modality, nucleus-headed structure, nominative / communicative aspect, functional sentence perspective, theme, rheme, deep / surface structure, intonation contour, 1-member / 2-member (declarative / interrogative / imperative; affirmative / negative; simple / composite (complex / compound); semi-composite; full / elliptical) sentence; constatives / promisives / menacives, performatives / directives (injunctives / requestives) / questitives; kernel / derived sentence, part-of-the sentence (distributional, constructive, immediate constituents, transformational) model, main (subject, predicate) / secondary (object, attribute, adverbial modifier) parts of the sentence, personal

(definite, indefinite and generalized) / impersonal; formal / notional; simple / complex / compound subject; simple / compound (verbal / nominal); double (contaminated) predicate; direct / indirect, pure / addressee, cognate object; subjective / objective / predicative / appositive, simple / complex, prepositive / postpositive attribute; direct / indirect speech act; subject-clause; object-clause; predicative clause; adverbial clause; attributive clause; main / subordinate clause; leading / sequential clause; locutionary, illocutionary, perlocutionary acts; utterance; speech event; discourse strategy; communicative competence; the Cooperative Principle; the politeness principle; non-verbal communication;

c) sound; phoneme; vowel; consonant; stress (primary, secondary); syllable; intonation; intonation pattern; modification; elision; reduction; accommodation; assimilation; insertion; prosody; articulation.

QUESTIONS FOR SELF-CHECK ON THEORETICAL GRAMMAR

1. Describe the principles of grammatical analysis.
2. What is the role of typological investigations?
3. Comment on the problems of part-of-speech discrimination in English.
4. Analyze grammatical properties of notional, functional and independent parts of speech.
5. What does constructive syntax deal with?
6. How does constructive syntax regard basic syntactic units?
7. What do the main ideas of the semantic syntax consist in?
8. What is semantic syntax?
9. Find out the role of semantico-syntactic investigations.
10. Point out differences between a sentence, a proposition and an utterance.
11. What is the subject matter of pragmalinguistics?
12. Comment on the issues of speech act theory.
13. Analyze the peculiarities of the theory of presuppositions.
14. What does cognitive grammar as a branch of grammar study?
15. What does text linguistics investigate? Text a supraphrasal unit.
16. Where does variability occur in the language?

QUESTIONS FOR SELF-CHECK ON THEORETICAL PHONETICS

1. What does phonetics study?
2. Describe the principles of phonetic analysis.
3. Comment on the system of vowels in English.
4. Analyze the system of consonants in English.
5. What are the ways of phoneme modifications?
6. Point out the difference between accommodation and assimilation.
7. What is the study of syllable related to?
8. What are the constituents of prosody?
9. Comment on the functions of word stress.
10. Describe the phenomenon of phonostylistic variety.
11. What are the main types of syllables in modern English?
12. What is meant by an intonational style?

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