

LECTURE 3. NOUN AND ITS CATEGORIES IN ENGLISH AND UKRAINIAN

In the world's languages, the most usual inflectional categories of nouns are grammatical number, grammatical case, and grammatical gender.

Category of Number

In some languages nouns reflect the number of objects to which they refer. In most of languages the category of number is realised through the binary opposition *Singular* vs. *Plural*. Some languages (sanskrit, Old Slavonic, Arabic, Hebrew etc.) distinguish objects occurring in pairs by assigning **dual** number to the noun, a special grammatical form denoting two objects. The paradigm of such languages include three forms: Singular vs. Dual vs. Plural.

Not all languages have number as a grammatical category. In those that do not, quantity must be expressed either directly, with numerals, or indirectly, through optional quantifiers. However, many of these languages compensate for the lack of grammatical number with an extensive system of measure words. There is a hierarchy among number categories: no language distinguishes a trial unless having a dual, and no language has dual without a plural.

A language has grammatical number when its nouns are subdivided into morphological classes according to the quantity they express, such as:

1. Every noun belongs to a single number class.
2. Noun modifiers (such as adjectives) and verbs have different forms for each number class, and must be inflected to match the number of the nouns they refer to.

This is the case in English: every noun is either singular or plural (a few, such as "fish", can be either, according to context), and at least some modifiers of nouns — namely the demonstratives, personal pronouns articles and verbs are inflected to agree with the number of the nouns they refer to: "this car" and "these cars" are correct, while "*this cars" or "*these car" are ungrammatical.

English distinguishes two numbers, singular and plural. The former is used to indicate singular objects or referents that can be neither singular nor plural (mass nouns like *contemplation*). Plural sometimes refers to singular objects, too, e.g. *glasses*, so the category is clearly grammatical and not semantic.

Ukrainian (Russian and Byelorussian) has three numbers singular, plural, and dual number (двоїна), which is often mixed up with the plural or replaced by it by many Ukrainians. The nouns express dual number only in connection with the numeral adjuncts *two, three and four*. This number is mostly indicated by stress which differs, as a rule, from that of the plural form, eg:

Sg.	Dual	Pl.
берег	— (два) 'береги	— бере'ги

Many modern Indo-European languages show residual traces of the dual, as in the English language distinctions *both* vs. *all*, *either* vs. *any*, *twice* vs. *<number> times* (an archaic *thrice* also exists, meaning "three times"), and so on.

The declension (**declension** is an inflectional paradigm of inflection nouns and adjectives) of noun phrases containing numeral expressions in Ukrainian, as in other Slavic languages, is subject to complex rules while English system of number inflections is rather simple. The productive formal mark for the strong member of the binary opposition of number in English (the plural form), is the suffix (-e)s [-z -s, -iz] as presented in the forms *dog* :: *dogs*, *clock*::*clocks*, *box* :: *boxes*. But there are also nouns which form their plurals by the archaic suffix *-(e)n* (*ox/oxen*, *child/children*). Completely allomorphic, i.e. pertaining only to the English language are some non-productive ways of forming plural number. One is by way of root vowel interchange (umlaut) as in the following seven English nouns: *foot* — *feet*, *tooth* — *teeth*. A few nouns have in English identical (homonymous) singular and plural forms (e.g. *deer*, *salmon*, *means*, *species*, etc.). Standard English presents a large number of further irregular plurals taken from other languages. Examples are *radius/radii*, *index/indices*, *formula/formulae*, *alga/algae*, and others.

Typologically isomorphic is subcategorization in the class of nouns into countables and uncountables. The singularia and pluralia nouns include common in the contrasted languages semantic groups :

Singularia tantum

1. Names of materials (*iron*, *milk*, *snow*; *срібло*, *бруд*, *нісок*, etc.)
2. Collective nouns (*brushwood*, *foliage*, *leafage*, *furnitur*; *білизна*, *птаство*, etc.)
3. Abstract notions (*courage*, *knowledge*, *recognitio*; *відвага*, *знання*, *буття*, etc.)

Pluralia tantum

1. Summation plurals (*scissors, tongs, trousers; терези, шорти, окуляри* etc.)
2. Nouns denoting remnants after some processes (*scraps, leavings, sweepings; висівки, недопитки, помії*, etc.)
3. Geographic names (*Athens, the Netherlands, the Andes; Афіни, Нідерланди, Анди, Бровари, Лубни, Суми, etc.*)
4. Nouns having the meaning "finance and property" (*savings, valuables; заощадження, цінності, etc.*)

However there are a lot of nouns not coinciding in the two languages. Consequently, a number of nouns may have plural meaning in English and singular meaning in Ukrainian (*barracks, goods, police, arms - казарма, товар/майно, поліція, зброя*, etc. and some Ukrainian plurals (*меблі, вершки, дріжджі, дрова, гроші*) have singularia tantum equivalents in English (*furniture, cream, yeast, firewood, money*, etc.). Also, countables in one language may correspond to uncountables in the other (e.g. the nouns *onion, potato* are countable in English while their Ukrainian counterparts are used as singularia tantum nouns: *цибуля - onions, картопля - potatoes*). There are also cases when English countable nouns correspond to pluralia tantum nouns in Ukrainian (*sledge - сани, election - вибори, rake - граблі*). Another important allomorphy is lexicalised plural forms, which are more frequent in English and almost unknown in Ukrainian, Cf: custom (C) - звичай, customs (UC Pl) - таможня, мито.

Category of Case

Case is the immanent morphological category of the noun manifested in the forms of noun declension and showing the relations of the noun referent to other objects and phenomena.

Historically, the Indo-European languages had eight morphological cases, though modern languages typically have fewer, using prepositions and word order to convey information that had previously been conveyed using distinct noun forms.

Ukrainian, as a predominantly synthetic language, has 7 morphological cases (Nominative, Genitive, Dative, Accusative, Instrumental, Locative, Vocative).

Modern English has 2 cases - Common and Genitive (compared to 4 cases in Old English). The apostrophised -s serves to distinguish in writing the singular noun in the genitive case from the plural noun in the common case (e.g.: the man's duty). The genitive of the bulk of plural nouns remains phonetically unexpressed: the few exceptions concern only some of the irregular plurals. Thereby the apostrophe as the graphic sign of the genitive acquires the force of a sort of grammatical hieroglyph. Cf.: *the carpenters' tools*.

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

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

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

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

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

1. possessive genitive
2. subjective genitive
3. genitive of the author
4. objective genitive
5. descriptive genitive
6. appositive genitive
7. partitive genitive
8. genitive of gradation

In terms of structure English has genitive forms unknown in Ukrainian: double genitive, absolute genitive. The **double genitive** is sometimes called the “post-genitive”. The double genitive has been around since the fifteenth century, and is widely accepted. It’s extremely helpful, for instance, in distinguishing between “a picture of my father” (in which we see the old man) and “a picture of my father’s” (which he owns). What precedes the element “of” is usually indefinite article (a friend, not the best friend but “one of many”), unless it is preceded by the demonstratives *this* or *that*, as in “*this friend of my father’s*”. Absolute genitive is used to avoid repetition of the noun (*Tom’s is a nice car.*) or it can be used in the meanings of “dwelling place” (*He spent the week-end at his uncle’s.*) and “establishment” (*dentist’s*).

Category of Determination

Most languages also have a way of distinguishing definite and indefinite objects. A definite object is one that the speaker expects the listener to already know about either from previous discussion or from experience. If you don’t expect the listener to know what you are talking about, you would say, for example, I’ve bought a car today. If the listener can see the car or if you have already mentioned it to the listener, you would normally say I’ve bought the car today. The category with the meaning of definiteness/indefiniteness of the object named called the category of article determination is found in most European languages (English, French, German, Dutch, Bulgarian, etc).

The system of articles in English is described as the one consisting of three articles – the definite article, the indefinite article and the zero article, which, correspondingly, express the categorial functions (meanings) of identification, relative generalisation, and absolute generalisation.

The definite article expresses the identification or individualisation of the referent of the noun: the use of this article shows that the object denoted is taken in its concrete, individual quality. The definite article may also identify the whole class of objects (***The tiger** lives in the Jungle.*).

The indefinite article, as different from the definite article, is commonly interpreted as referring the object denoted by the noun to a certain class of similar objects; in other words, the indefinite article expresses a classifying generalisation of the nominal referent, or takes it in a relatively general sense and metonymically denotes the whole class.

The meaning of the zero article (the meaningful absence of the article before the noun) depends on the context:

1. Zero article before the countable noun in the singular signifies that the noun is taken in an abstract sense, expressing the most general idea of the object denoted. This meaning, which may be called the meaning of “absolute generalisation”, can be demonstrated by inserting in the tested construction a chosen generalising modifier (such as *in general, in the abstract, in the broadest sense*). Cf.: *Law* (in general) begins with the beginning of human society. *Steam-engine* (in general) introduced for locomotion a couple of centuries ago has now become obsolete.
2. The absence of the article before the uncountable noun corresponds to the two kinds of generalisation: both relative and absolute. To decide which of the two meanings is realised in any particular case, the described tests should be carried out alternately. Cf.: John laughed with *great bitterness* (that sort of bitterness: relative generalisation). The subject of *health* (in general: absolute generalisation) was carefully avoided by everybody. *Coffee* (a kind of beverage served at

the table: relative generalisation) or *tea*, please? *Coffee* (in general: absolute generalisation) stimulates the function of the heart.

3. The absence of the article before the countable noun in the plural, likewise, corresponds to both kinds of generalisation, and the exposition of the meaning in each case can be achieved by the same semantic tests. Cf.: *Stars*, *planets* and *comets* (these kinds of objects: relative generalisation) are different celestial bodies (not terrestrial bodies: relative generalisation). *Wars* (in general: absolute generalisation) should be eliminated as means of deciding international disputes.

The article paradigm is generalised for the whole system of the common nouns in English and is outstretched into the subsystem of proper nouns (the Tames, a Brown, the Browns).

The status of the combination of the article with the noun is defined by some linguists as basically analytical, the article itself being regarded as a special type of grammatical auxiliary. Other linguists consider it to be neither part of an analytical form nor part of a word-phrase.

In Ukrainian the category is expressed by other language means:

1. syntactically, by word order
2. lexically (by words один, якийсь, який-небудь)
3. by case forms (Cf.: Дай мені чаю. – relative generalisation Дай мені чай. - identification).

Category of Gender

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

Languages which distinguish either type of gender usually also have an **agreement** system whereby adjectives modifying gendered nouns must have an ending which reflects the gender of the noun they modify. Verbs also often reflect the gender of their subject nouns and, sometimes, their object nouns as well. The most common genders are Masculine and Feminine but some languages have Neuter.

Grammatical gender, like many other grammatical concepts such as singular-plural, definite-indefinite, or past-present, is not a logical necessity in a language, and billions of people easily survive and communicate without it. Most Western languages have some form of distinction between masculine and feminine nouns, with some of them adding neuter for good measure. Interestingly, the two non-Indo-European language groups of Europe—Finno-Ugric (Hungarian, Finnish, and Estonian) and Basque—have no grammatical genders. English has almost lost them when referring to inanimate objects, with the exception of the feminine sometimes used for vessels and other means of transportation. However, it has preserved the three pronouns for the three genders (he, she, it), which the Finno-Ugric languages and Basque lack.

Ukrainian gender has purely formal features that may even “run contrary” to semantics. The Ukrainian category of gender essentially divides the noun into the inanimate set having no meaningful gender (*книжка, стіл, ліжка*), and the animate set having a meaningful gender reflecting objective sex distinctions.

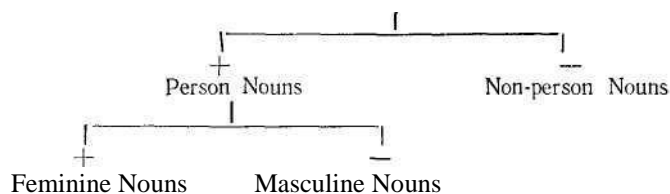
The grammatical gender in English had disappeared by the end of the Middle English period. The expression of objective sex distinctions is provided only by lexical means. English nouns can show the sex of their referents lexically.

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

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

Thus English category of gender has a semantic character. But it relates to grammar because of the obligatory correlation of nouns with the personal pronouns of the third person. The oppositional structure of the category of gender can be shown schematically on the following diagram:

GENDER



Thus the English gender differs much from the Ukrainian gender: the English gender has a semantic character, while the gender in Ukrainian is partially semantic (Ukrainian animate nouns have semantic gender distinctions), and partially formal.

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

LECTURE 4. VERB AND ITS GRAMMATICAL CATEGORIES IN ENGLISH AND UKRAINIAN

Classes of Verbs in English and Ukrainian

Grammatically the verb is the most complex part of speech in both languages. This is due to the central role it performs in the expression of the predicative functions of the sentence. The complexity of the verb is inherent not only in the intricate structure of its grammatical categories, but also in its various subclass divisions, as well as in its falling into two sets of forms profoundly different from each other: the finite set and the non-finite set. Finite verbs perform the function of the predicate, expressing the processual categorial features of predication, i.e. time, aspect, voice, and mood (*He rejected the proposal*). Non-finite verbs perform different nominal functions (those of the syntactic subject, object, adverbial modifier, attribute) or secondary predicates (*His rejecting the proposal surprised us*).

The main classes of verbs as to their functional significance are common in the contrasted languages. These are a) notional verbs (go, ask, write; іти, запитувати, писати) and b) auxiliary verbs. The latter split into auxiliary proper (be, do, have; бути, мати), modal (can, may, must, could, should, need; могли, мусити, сміти, мати, etc.) and linking verbs (appear, look, become turn grow; ставати, здаватися).

English notional verbs split into two subclasses not known in Ukrainian. These are 1) regular verbs with their past stem and the past participle ending in -ed(-d) (*dressed/worked, paid/said*); 2) irregular verbs with their past stems and the past participle formed by way of alteration of their base vowel (*bind - bound - bound, take - took - taken, begin - began - begun*) or invariables (*cast - cast - cast*). Vice versa, unknown in English is Ukrainian subdivision of verbs into classes based on the correlation between the infinitival stem of the verb on the one hand and its present or simple future stem on the other. On this morphological basis thirteen classes of verbs are distinguished in Ukrainian.

Notional verbs also split into some common subclasses in the contrasted languages, singled out on the basis of their valency or implicit dependent grammatical meaning. On the basis of their valency such verbs are distinguished:

1. Subjective verbs (always intransitive): to act, to go, to sleep, to glisten (діяти, йти, спати, блищати and others)
2. Objective verbs (always transitive): to give, to take, to envy (брати, давати, заздрити and others)
3. Impersonal (implying no agent) (rain, snow, freeze, сипіти, розвиднятися, примерзати).

According to implicit dependent grammatical meaning verbs split into:

- 2.1. Actional (denoting action): to close, to open, to come, to find; зачиняти, приходити, заходити)

2.2. Statal (denoting state): to like, to love, to hate, to hope, (подобатись, любити, ненавидіти)

2.3. Limitive (arrive, stop, conclude, sit down, get out, сісти, прочитати)

2.4. Unlimitive (gaze, live, sleep, work, спати, працювати)

Some of these subclasses (objective, actional, statal) have an unquestionable grammatical relevance in English, which is expressed, in their peculiar correlation with the categorial aspective forms of the verbs. In English there are also so called mixed-type verbs, which can have both limitive and unlimitive meaning: *to sit, to stand, to know, to remember*. Impersonal verbs are more numerous in Ukrainian than in English. They may be in Ukrainian of several types: 1) verbs denoting natural phenomena (*морозити*), 2) verbs denoting physical states (*трясти, пекти*), 3) verbs denoting mental states (*гнітити*), 4) verbs denoting actions connected with fortune (*щастити*). English has impersonal verbs denoting only natural phenomena.

In Ukrainian there are reflexive verbs, which have some peculiar allomorphic features. Some of them (called "reflexive verbs proper" - *вмиватися, голитися*, etc.) have equivalents in English, which are used with reflexive pronouns: *to wash oneself, to shave oneself*, etc. Other groups of Ukrainian reflexive verbs have no equivalents in English: 1) reciprocally reflexive/взаємно-зворотні: *зустрічатися, змагатися, вітатися, листуватись, цілуватись*, 2) indirectly reflexive/непрямо-зворотні: *радитися, збиратися (в похід), лаштуватися (в дорогу)*, 3) generally reflexive/загально-зворотні: *милуватися, дивуватися, злитися, журитися, мучитися* and others, 4) active-objectless/reflexive verbs (активно-безоб'єктні): *кусатися, дряпатися, жалитися, колотися*, 5) passive-qualitative/reflexive (пасивно-якісні): *гнути, битися, ламатися, м'ятися, кривитися* (залізо гнеться, скло б'ється, дитина кривиться), 6) impersonal-reflexive verbs (безособово-зворотні): *не спиться, не їється, погано/гарно живеться, не лежиться*.

Verbs of incomplete predication fall into:

1. **Auxiliary proper** (*to be, to do, to have, shall/will*), which are used in English in the corresponding person and tense form to express the following categorial meanings of the verb: a) the continuous aspect, i. e. the present, the past and future continuous/progressive tenses (*/ am/ was, shall be reading*); the interrogative and negative or future tense forms of the Indefinite group of tenses (*Does he speak English? He did not know me. Will he come soon?*); the imperative mood (*Do come, please!*); the perfect forms of the verb (*I have done it. He had had his dinner by then already. We shall have translated the text by then.*); subjunctive mood forms (*His aunt would not give the photograph. I suggest we should meet here.*). Auxiliary verbs in Ukrainian are restricted only to one verb *бути*, which is polyfunctional and is used to form some categorial meanings: a) the passive voice (*Текст був перекладений*); b) the analytical future tense form (*Текст буде перекладений*); c) some subjunctive mood forms (*Якби я був знав, я був би прийшов*); d) the pluperfect tense form, which fully corresponds to the English past perfect. (Cf. *Ніби й задрімав був зразу, але щось приверзлося, то й проснувся.*).
2. **Modal verbs**. Their number is larger in English (can, may, must, shall, will, should, would, ought (to), have to/be to, dare, need) than in Ukrainian (вміти, могли, мусити, слід/треба, мати сміти, потребувати).
3. **Linking verbs** in both contrasted languages form a verbal, nominal or mixed-type compound predicate. They fall into different semantic groups:
 - a. **Linking verbs of being**, which do not always have direct equivalents in both languages. Cf. *to be, to feel, to look, to seem, to taste, to smell* — *бути, виявлятися, зватися, вважатися, доводитися*.
 - b. **Linking verbs of becoming** (not all of which have equivalents in Ukrainian): *to become, to get, to grow, to turn* — *ставати, робитися* (*They grew stronger. - Вони стали міцнішими. But: He turned gray. - Він посивів. She grew older. - Вона постаріла.*
 - c. **Linking verbs of remaining** (*to remain, to keep, to stay, to continue*): *He remained satisfied. Він зостався задоволений. The winter continued damp and wet. The weather kept obstinately hot and dry. Погода вперто стояла сухою.*

An important allomorphism is that in English, the same verb lexeme may enter more than one of the outlined classification subsets. For example:

The railings **felt** cold. (*feel* — link-verb). We **felt** fine after the swim. (*feel* — subjective verb). You shouldn't **feel** your own pulse like that. (*feel* — objective verb).

Grammatical categories of the verb

The finite forms of the verb express the processual relations of substances and phenomena making up the situation reflected in the sentence. These forms are associated with one another in an extremely complex and intricate system in both languages. In English, the verb has the most developed paradigm of all parts of speech. It has lost almost all its flecational forms since Old English period, but instead, acquired new analytical forms. The English verb expresses grammatical categories of **person and number, tense, aspect, retrospective coordination, voice and mood**. The same grammatical categories except the category of coordination are expressed by Ukrainian verbs, which also inflect to match the gender of the noun (bear grammatical **gender** distinctions). Thus the contrasted languages have almost the same set of morphological categories expressed by the verb (with the grammatical category of gender, absent in English, and the grammatical category of coordination, absent in Ukrainian). But there is no correspondence in the way these categories are expressed in the two languages.

Thus the paradigm of the English verb includes 58 forms (47 finite forms and 11 non-finite forms). 50 forms are analytical and 8 are synthetic.

Categories of Person and Number

Person and number, treated by scholars as closely related categories, have almost no expression in the morphology of the English verb (there exists only one person-number mark – the morpheme of the third person singular (*e*)s). Such deficient system cannot exist by itself. The person-number system in English only backs up the person-number system of the subject-referent. So in the categorial sence one should speak of the personal pronouns set consisting of three in the singular and three in the plural. Due to it the combination and strict correlation of the English finite verb with the subject is obligatory not only syntactically but also categorially. Some linguists treat pronouns as a kind of affixes expressing person in English because the verb is always preceded by the subject.

In Ukrainian, on the contrary, all finite forms of the verb (except past forms) are marked grammatically for person and number (*пишу, пишеш, пише, пишемо, пишете, пишуть*). Consequently, Ukrainian finite verb is more independent syntactically and are often used in one-member sentences, definite-personal (*За всіх скажу.*) and indefinite-personal (*На Донетчині вже сіють. Ніколи не знаєш, де знайдеш, де загубиш.*). Impersonal verbs are used in one-member impersonal sentences in Ukrainian (*Вечоріє.*). English indefinite-personal sentences are always two-member. To refer to an unspecified person they employ pronouns that take on additional roles of indefinite or generic referents (*you, they, we, one*) used as formal subjects (*One should be careful in experimenting.*). English impersonal sentences usually take formal subject *it*.

Category of Tense

Time is a basic concept that exists independently of human language. Temporal information is encoded in human languages by the linguistic category of *tense*. Tense is deictic in that it indicates the *temporal location* of a situation, i.e., its occurrence in relation to the moment of speaking, which serves as the demarkation line between the past and the future. While English has only absolutive use of tenses, i.e. the tense system is based on the reference to the moment of speaking, Ukrainian has also relative use of tenses widely spread (immediate orientation of tenses not towards the moment of speech, but towards the relation to another event, described in the sentence). In particular, it refers to the presentation of reported speech in the plane of the past: (1) *Він сказав, що вивчає німецьку.* (2) *Він сказав, що вивчав німецьку.* (3) *Він сказав, що вивчатиме німецьку.* In English, the primary tenses in similar conditions retain their absolutative nature and keeping with their direct, unchangeable meanings: (1) *He said that he was learning German.* (2) *He said that he had learned German.* (3) *He said that he would learn German.* Thus, it should be stressed that the tense-shift involved in the translation of the present-plane direct information into the past-plane reported information is not a formal, but essentially a meaningful procedure.

In both languages, the category of tense is based on the three-member opposition: Past vs. Present vs. Future (*сказав vs. каже vs. скаже said vs. says vs. shall/will say*). However, there are objections on the part of some linguists (O.Jespersen, L.Barhudarov) against inclusion of the construction *shall/will*+ infinitive in the tense system of the verb on the grounds that they preserve their modal meaning and must be treated as modal verbs rather than auxiliaries. Thus, the future of the English verb is highly specific in so far as its auxiliaries in their very immediate etymology are words of obligation and volition, and the survival of the respective connotations in them should be thoroughly taken in consideration (in the clear-cut modal uses of the verbs *shall* and *will* the meaning of the future is not expressed at all: *He who does not work, neither shall he eat. None are so deaf as those who will not hear*). Besides, there are some other grammatical and lexico-grammatical ways for explicit expression of the future in English (the forms

Present simple, Present Continuous, Future continuous in their secondary meanings, the constructions *be going, be about*), each of them combining in its semantic structure the meaning of a future action and some other modal connotation. For example, the construction *be going + infinitive* may denote a sheer intention or assurance, annoyance based on the meaning of prediction. Cf.: *I'm going to ask you a question. You are going to like the performance. The rain is never going to stop.*). The grammar of English provides several ways of referring to events which are to take place later than the speech moment (i.e. in future time). Each of these verbal expressions are related to particular shades of meaning. Below are listed the most important of these expressions and the typical meanings expressed by them.

Category of Aspect

The category of aspect is a morphological category of the verb denoting the mode (aspect) in which the action of the predicate is realised. In Ukrainian it characterizes all forms of the verb, including infinitives, imperatives, and participles. This means that Ukrainian speakers are required to mark verb aspect, regardless of whether the marking contributes to the meaning of the sentence. All Ukrainian verbs, with the exception of *бути*), belong to one of two aspectual categories: imperfective (незавершений вид) that refers to the process or state (e.g., *іти*) and perfective (завершений вид) that refers to achievement or accomplishment (e.g., *іти*). Imperfective aspect marks repeated actions and actions that have not been completed (e.g., *ходила, сиділа, дивилась*). Perfective aspect marks actions that have been successfully completed (e.g., *пішла, посиділа, подивилась*). A lot of verbs constitute aspectual oppositional pairs: *читати – прочитати, укрити – укривати, збирати – зібрати, говорити – сказати*. The given examples show the diversity of the existing morphological ways to express aspect: prefixation, suffixation, inner flexion, suppletion. There are a lot of aspectual pairs with one imperfective member and several perfective ones created by means of adding prefixes with spatial meanings to unidirectional verbs: *їхати – під'їхати, поїхати, доїхати*. Meanings expressed by aspect forms in Ukrainian are not homogenous the general meaning of completeness may be realised as resultive action (побудувати), inchoative action The **inchoative** aspect indicates the beginning of a *state* (as opposed to a process or activity) (полюбити), **cessative** (which indicates that a situation is ending (відшуміти) excessive action (зголодніти), momentaneous action (уколотити) та ін.

In English, the grammatical category of aspect is realized through the binary opposition **Non-Continuous vs. Continuous**, the strong member expressed analytically: *did vs. was doing*. The English category of aspect has different semantic basis from that of Ukrainian: Ukrainian aspect is based upon the meaning of “completeness of an action”, while English aspect is based on the categorial meaning of “development of an action at a definite time moment”. The continuous form has at least two semantic features - - **duration** (the action is always in progress) and **definiteness** (the action is always limited to a definite point or period of time). In other words, the purpose of the Continuous form is to serve as a frame which makes the process of the action more concrete and isolated. The meaning of development may be regarded as a special type of imperfectivity which emphasizes that an action is in progress; often this is mentioned to provide a background or frame of reference for some other situation. One of the secondary meanings of the Continuous is to indicate a more temporary situation than is indicated by the basic form of the verb, e.g. *the Sphinx stands by the Nile* versus *Mr. Smith is standing by the Nile*, or *I live at 123 Main Street* (semi-permanently) versus *I'm living at 123 Main Street* (temporarily). English generally does not use continuous forms of verbs denoting state; the phrase **you aren't hearing* seems odd in English.

When explicit inflections are not available to indicate aspect, languages will use less elegant methods, often involving idiomatic set phrases or phrasal verbs, and this can be said about English. Therefore, it can be said that apart from morphological aspect English has also lexico-grammatical aspects: **iterative** (would+ inf, used to + inf), **durative** (kept + gerund), **inchoative** (burst + Ger.; come to + inf, get to +N, Ger; take to+Ger), **completive** (*eat it all up*).

The category of aspect is expressed also by non-finite forms of the verb, infinitives, in English (*to read vs. to be reading*) and in Ukrainian (*робити vs. зроби*).

Category of Retrospective Coordination

In theoretical grammar the interpretation of perfect/non-perfect verb forms refers to disputable questions. Some linguists interpret the opposition of perfect/non-perfect forms as aspective (O. Jespersen, I.P. Ivanova, G.N. Vorontsova), others – as the opposition of tense forms (H. Swwet, G. Curme, A. Korsakov). A.I. Smirnitsky was the first to prove that perfect and non-perfect forms make up a special, self-sufficient category, and called it the “category of time correlation” («часова віднесеність»); this viewpoint is shared now by a vast majority of linguists. After Prof. M.Y. Blokh we call this category

“the category of retrospective coordination”. The functional content of the “category of retrospective coordination” was defined as **priority** expressed by the perfect forms in the present, past or future contrasted against the non-expression of priority by the non-perfect forms. The time moment, to which Perfect forms express priority, depends on the nature of the perfect form. The action expressed by Present Perfect usually correlates with the moment of speaking, while with the past perfect forms the time moment is expressed by the context.

In Ukrainian the meaning of priority of an action to some definite time moment is expressed lexically, not grammatically. Cf.: *He'd always been so spruce and smart; he was shabby and unwashed and wild-eyed.* (S. Maugham) - *Раніше він був таким чепуристим і елегантним. А тепер блукав по місту брудний, в лохмітті, з дикими очима.*

Perfect-continuous forms are treated as forms having marks in both aspect category and category of coordination: “*What have you been doing down there?*” *Miss Peel asked him. “I've been looking for you all over the play-ground”* (M. Dickens).

Category of Voice

The verbal category of voice shows the direction of the process as regards the participants of the situation reflected in the syntactic construction. The voice of the English verb is expressed by the binary opposition of the passive form of the verb to the active form of the verb. The strong member (passive voice) is marked analytically by the combination of the auxiliary *be* with the past participle of the conjugated verb. In colloquial speech the role of the passive auxiliary can occasionally be performed by the verb *get*: Cf.: *John was hurt in the accident* (neutr) and *John got hurt in the accident* (colloq.); *We got caught in a heavy shower* (colloq.) and *We were caught...* (archaic)

The category of voice has a much broader representation in the system of the English verb than in the system of the Ukrainian verb, since in English not only transitive, but also intransitive objective verbs including prepositional ones can be used in the passive (the preposition being retained). Besides, verbs taking not one, but two objects, as a rule, can feature both of them in the position of the passive subject. Depending on the type of the verb and the type of the object they take, English has four types of passive constructions: (1) **Direct**, e.g., *The frown on his face disturbed her* → *She was disturbed by the frown on his face*, (2) **Indirect**, e.g., *They offered him another post* → *I was offered another post*, (3) **Prepositional**, e.g.: *They won't talk to me like this* → *I won't be talked to like this*, (4) **Adverbial** (with a few verbs – *live, sit, step, walk, sleep* etc), e.g.: *Nobody lives in this house in winter* → *This house is not lived in in winter*.

The situation reflected by the passive construction does not differ in the least from the situation reflected by the active construction — the nature of the process is preserved intact, the situational participants remain in their places in their unchanged quality. What is changed, then, with the transition from the active voice to the passive voice, is the **subjective appraisal** of the situation by the speaker, the plane of his presentation of it. It is clearly seen when comparing any pair of constructions one of which is the passive counterpart of the other. In particular, we find the object-experience-featuring achieved by the passive in its typical uses in cases when the subject is unknown or is not to be mentioned for certain reasons, or when the attention of the speaker is centred on the action as such.

In English and Ukrainian passive constructions are used with different frequency and have different stylistic coloring. While in Ukrainian the use of passive is restricted by formal and scientific registers, English passive is stylistically neutral, though more frequently used in written style. E.g., *At that moment the door was opened by the maid.* (S. Maugham, *Before the Party*) - *Двері відчинились і заглянула покоївка.* The attempt to retain the passive construction in the Ukrainian translation would have led to stylistically unacceptable phrase. The less frequent use of the Ukrainian passive can be accounted for by the free word order in the Ukrainian sentence: the appraisal of the situation by the speaker, the plane of his presentation of it is shown by changing word order of the sentence, or by dropping the subject. On the contrary, in English the subject of the sentence can never be dropped and the rigid word order considerably restricts the possibilities of the logical accentuating of different parts of the sentence. Therefore, passive constructions perform important communicative functions in English, they are used to: (1) omit the doer of the action (if it is not important), e.g., *The pyramids are considered the last of the seven wonders of the world still in existence.*

A big problem in connection with the voice identification in English is the problem of “medial” voices usually considered as special grammatical voices, called, respectively, “reflexive” and “reciprocal”, “middle” voices. The reflexive and reciprocal pronouns within the framework of the hypothetical voice identification of the uses in question should be looked upon as the voice auxiliaries.

LECTURE 5. CONTRASTIVE SYNTAX OF ENGLISH AND UKRAINIAN

In both contrasted languages, phrases fall into three types according to the type of syntactic relations between the components: (1) coordinate, (2) subordinate and (3) predicative. In **coordinate** phrases the components are equal in rank and may be connected syndetically (*young but clever, школи та бібліотеки*) or assyndetically (*young, non-chalant, charming; гармати, вози, машини*). Such word-groups in both contrasted languages perform the function of homogeneous parts of the sentence, eg: *He was clean, handsome, well-dressed, and sympathetic. Це було зроблено досконало, гарно й швидко.*

In **subordinate** phrases the syntactic ranks of the constituents are not equal as they refer to one another as the modifier and the modified (the head/nucleus and the adjunct/complement). Subordinate phrases fall into two main groups: **objective** (*ask a question, заснівати нісню*) and **qualifying**. Objective subordinate phrases effect the relation of the object to the process. Qualifying subordinate phrases are divided into **attributive**, expressing quality of an object (*a flowery dress, настольна гра*) and **adverbial**, expressing quality of an action or another quality (*laughed a little, extremely difficult, рано ніти, надто повільно*). Subordinate phrases are also classified in accordance with the name of the part of speech representing the head (nucleus) of the subordinate phrase. Thus, we can distinguish between noun phrases, verb phrases, adjectival phrases, adverbial phrases etc.

Predicative phrases may be **primary** and **secondary**. Primary predicative phrases (those that comprise the subject and the predicate) are of isomorphic nature, therefore translated without any transformations e.g.: *The student works hard. Студент багато працює.* Secondary predicative phrases are not found in Ukrainian and are represented in English in the following structural types or syntactic constructions which are often referred to as complexes: Complex object with the infinitive (*I heard him roll in blankets*), Complex subject with the infinitive (*He is reported to have been taken into custody.*), For-complex (*The boy stood aside for me to go by.*), Complex object with the participle (*I saw her coming*), Complex subject with the participle (*The rain was heard clattering*), Absolute participle construction (*This being so, I should like to go out.*), Gerundial complex (*Excuse my being late*). Being of isomorphic nature secondary predicative phrases require transformations in translation; in Ukrainian translation they are frequently transformed into primary predicative phrases: *The boy stood aside for me to go by. – Хлопчик відійшов, щоб я міг проїти.*

In both languages phrases may be elemental, with one type of syntactic relations, e.g.: *happy but sad*, and complicated (expanded or extended), having two or several different types of syntactic relations, e.g.: *an event for us to expect* (subordinate – sec. predicative), *search the room carefully and slowly* (subordinate[objective-adverbial] – coordinate).

Means of syntactic connection in English and Ukrainian phrases

subordinate

There is a considerable difference in the way the components of subordinate phrases are connected in the contrasted languages. Being a flecional language, Ukrainian predominantly employs **synthetic** means of syntactic connection, which are of two types: **agreement** and **government**.

Agreement is a method of syntactic connection, which consists in making the subordinate word take a form similar to that of the word to which it is subordinate, e.g.: *добра порада*. On the contrary the sphere of agreement in Modern English is extremely small: it is restricted to several pronouns — *this, that, such a, many a*, which agree with their head word in number when they are used in front of it as the first components of a phrase of which the noun is the centre, e.g.: *this case, these cases*.

Government is the use of a certain form of the subordinate word required by its head word, but not coinciding with the form of the head word itself, e.g.: *читати книжку*. The role of government in Modern English is almost as insignificant as that of agreement. We do not find in English any verbs, or nouns, or adjectives, requiring the subordinate noun to be in one case rather than in another, so the notion of government does not apply to forms of nouns in English. The only thing that may be termed government in Modern English is the use of the objective case of personal pronouns and of the pronoun who when they are subordinate to a verb or follow a preposition. Thus, for instance, the forms *me, him, her, us, them*, are required if the pronoun follows a verb (e. g. *find or invite*) or any preposition whatever. Even this type of government is, however, made somewhat doubtful by the rising tendency to use the forms *me, him*, etc., outside their original sphere as forms of the objective case. The notion of government has also become doubtful as applied to the form whom, which is rather often superseded by the form *who* in such sentences as *Who(m) did you see?*

In English dominant in practically all subordinate phrases is the **analytic** way of connection, **syndetic**, with a linking element (usually preposition), e.g.: *speak about the news, the capital of the*

country or **asyndetic** (also called adjoinment), without a linking element (*next morning, cigarette smoke, tell the news*). Adjoinment (described as absence both of agreement and government) is gaining more productivity in Modern English marking the tendency of the language approaching the isolating type with rigid word order. In Ukrainian syndetic analytic way of syntactic connection is only observed in combination with synthetic government, e.g.: *питання до доповідача*, except for cases when nouns are indeclinable, as in sentences like *Вони оформили фойє, ми взяли таксі, їй подобається кімоно/сари*. Adjoinment is observed in Ukrainian in adverbial phrases: *встати рано*, but the difference is that in Ukrainian the position of the elements may be changed without any change in meaning, while in English position change may lead to ungrammaticality of the phrase or to the change in its meaning, Cf.: *встати рано* → *рано встати: tell the news* → **the news tell, a bird cage* → *a cage bird*.

There is another means of expressing syntactic connection based on the positional principle which plays a significant part in Modern English, but is completely alien to Ukrainian syntax. It is called enclosure. Some element of a phrase is placed (enclosed) between two parts of another element. The most widely known case of enclosure is putting of a word between an article and a noun to which the article belongs. Any word or phrase thus enclosed is shown to be an attribute to the noun. Many other words than adjectives and nouns can be found in that position, and many phrases, too, e.g.: *the **then** government, a **don't- touch-me** look*.

5.2. Sentence

While word-groups are subject of investigation in Minor syntax, the sentence is investigated in the so-called Major syntax. The sentence is the only language unit, capable of expressing communication containing some kind of information about the objective reality. The sentence as the central syntactic unit is characterised by the structural, semantic and pragmatic aspects. This aspective trichotomy directly correlates with the meaning, form and functioning of the sentence in speech where it realises its explicit form of an utterance corresponding to a logically complete proposition. These three aspects are of universal nature.

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

However, different types of sentences display a lot of allomorphic features in English and Ukrainian..

5.2.1. Simple sentence

Binary (S-P) sentence structures are more characteristic of English, i.e. they are represented by a larger variety of paradigmatic subtypes than in Ukrainian. This quantitative correlation of two-member sentences in English and Ukrainian constitutes the main typological difference in the system of simple sentences of the two languages.

As a result, English two-member sentences are represented by a larger variety of extended and expanded models, than Ukrainian two-member sentences. Consequently, English two-member sentences are represented by a larger variety of paradigmatic subtypes than in Ukrainian. The two-member sentences non-existent in Ukrainian are the following:

1. Impersonal sentences which are introduced by the personal pronoun *it* (*It snowed*).
2. Indefinite personal sentences in which the subject is expressed by the indefinite personal pronouns *one, they, you*, eg: (*One should know such things. They say. You never know*).
3. Sentences with the introductory "it" or "there" (*It is time to start. There is nothing to say*.)
4. Sentences with the implicit agent and passive predicate verb followed by a preposition (*He was sent for. The project is objected to everywhere*.)
5. Sentences with secondary predication constructions (*He is said to be a sportsman*.)

Unlike two-member sentences, which have a larger quantitative representation of paradigmatic/structural types in English, one-member sentences, on the contrary, have a larger number of

paradigmatic classes in Ukrainian. This is due to the morphological nature of Ukrainian as a mainly synthetic structure language. Common in English and Ukrainian are the following paradigmatic types of one-member sentences:

1. Nominal sentences: *Nice time for a rector to come down for breakfast.* (B. Shaw) *Ще один вибух аплодисментів.*
2. Imperative (or inductive) sentences: *Open the door.* *Відчиніть двері*
3. Exclamatory sentences may structurally often coincide in English and Ukrainian with nominal and infinitival sentences, eg: *Thieves! Fire! How funny! To think of it! Damn your money! Злодії! Вогонь! Як гарно! Подумати тільки! К бісу твої гроші!*
4. Infinitival sentences in both contrasted languages have practically identical structural forms: To be or not to be. *Бути чи не бути.* Why not go there. *Чому б не піти туди?*

Allomorphic in English and Ukrainian are the following paradigmatic types of one-member sentences:

1. Definite personal sentences, which are widely used in literary and colloquial Ukrainian speech. The doer of the action in these sentences is indicated by the finite verb and its personal ending correlating with the main part of the sentence. Eg: *Люблю (я) пісні мого краю.* (Рильський)
2. Indefinite personal sentences: *Дзвонять в усі дзвони.*
3. Generalised personal sentences: *Давніх друзів не забувають.*
4. Impersonal sentences
 - Impersonal proper (власне безособові) one-member sentences with the principal part expressed by the finite (predicate) verb, e.g: *Світає.*
 - Impersonal sentences with the main part/finite verb expressing the state of the agent denoted by the noun in the dative case, e.g.: *Дітям спочатку було дуже нудно.*
 - Impersonal sentences with the principal part expressed by verbs ending in, E.G.: *-то, -но: Роботу покинуто.*
 - Impersonal sentences with modal predicative phrases functioning as part of the modal verbal predicate, e.g.: *Йому не слід було дивитись, Неможливо знищити того, кому симпатизує народ.*
 - Infinitive sentences, e.g.: *Що мені робити? Від долі не втікти.*

Another difference of paramount importance between the two languages is that of **word order**. Ukrainian, conveying grammatical information mostly through inflection, allows relative flexibility which can be used to encode pragmatic information such as topicalisation or focus. Word order in English is of much greater importance than in Ukrainian. The word order in the English sentence is fixed, for English as an analytic language relies much on the order of sentence constituents to convey important grammatical information. The meaning of a sentence in English, often depends entirely on the order in which the elements are placed (cf.: *The man ate the fish* and *The fish ate the man*).

Therefore inversion in English is a powerful stylistic device. In Ukrainian, with its non-fixed, flexible order of words, inversion is less conspicuous. Hence, inversion as it is, often doesn't adequately convey the expressiveness of the English sentence: *Now was the moment to act.* "Запаз" placed at the beginning in the Ukrainian translation is not enough. As an adequate translation, one may perhaps use "саме запаз". So inversion in English is a much more expressive means of the language than that in Ukrainian.

Another important typological difference between English and Ukrainian concerns **ellipsis** (omitting some elements of the sentence to avoid repetition). Ellipsis is the most vivid manifestation of "word economy". Elliptical sentences are typical of both English and Ukrainian, but Ukrainian as a synthetic language has far more possibilities for missing out informatively redundant elements of the sentence. English binary sentence structure and fixed word order makes it a problem to miss out obligatory parts of the sentence. The omission of an obligatory element may lead to the sentence becoming ungrammatical. One can not omit a word without supplying another one instead. Therefore English makes extensive use of words called substitutes (or pro-words). Modern English has a large number of word substitutes. Here belong all the auxiliary and modal verbs, various classes of pronouns (*he, she, it, hers, his, that, those, one, some*), some adverbs (*there, so*), and particle *to*. the pro-words do not have denotative meaning, they are absolutely contextual. Cf.:

She never gets confused over her dates, and I always do. *Вона при цьому не бентежиться так, як я.*

He speaks French well, doesn't he?

Він добре говорить по-французьки,
правда?

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

Absence of secondary predication constructions in Ukrainian makes it impossible to obtain direct correlative transforms of some simple sentences.

5.2.2. Composite sentence

A composite sentence in English and Ukrainian, like in all other languages, contains two or more primary predication centres mostly represented by as many corresponding clauses. There is much common in the nature and structure of the composite sentence in English and Ukrainian. Isomorphism is also observed in the inventory of the Major Syntax units represented by the compound and complex sentences. But still there are some divergent features.

1. In English causative-resultative relations may be expressed not only by subordination, but by coordination as well: *It was not yet daylight, for the candle was burning. She hasn't much stress in her, so I easily kept her quiet*. In Ukrainian this meaning is expressed only by subordinate clauses.

2. Compound coordinate sentences are more spread in Ukrainian. Ukrainian compound sentences with connectives *аж, коли, як* expressing the meaning of a sudden, unexpected event in English are transformed into subordinate sentences with the meaning of unexpectedness expressed lexically: *Іду лісом, аж біжить дусиця. – I was going through the forest when suddenly a fox came running*.

3. Complex sentences may be two-member (subordinate clause is not part of the main clause) and one-member (subordinate clause is part of the main clause) in both contrasted languages, but English has more one-member complex sentences than Ukrainian, Cf.: *It was where they used to meet before* – *Це було там, де вони зустрічались раніше*. The example shows it is more usual in Ukrainian to use two-member complex sentences with the antecedent (in this example it is the word *там*) in the main clause.

4. Attributive sentences are of two types in both contrasted languages – restrictive and non-restrictive. Restrictive attributive clauses are more tightly connected with the main clause, their elimination leads to the ambiguity of the sentence, e.g.: *Where is the book that I gave you yesterday?* *Де книжка, яку я тобі вчора дав?* Non-restrictive attributive clauses can be easily removed without making the main clause semantically incomplete: *This was a hit at George, who was notoriously hard up* – *Це був випадок проти Джорджа, який сидів без грошей*. The divergence is that in English restrictive attributive clauses are more tightly connected with the main clause than in Ukrainian and are not separated by a comma. Besides, this type of clause easily turns into a contact clause, i.e. joined to the main clause without a conjunction (unless its conjunction is the subject the attributive clause): *Where is the book that I gave you yesterday?* => *Where is the book I gave you yesterday?*

Another divergence is that English attributive clauses distinguish the category of person and non-person. If the antecedent is expressed by a person noun they have relative pronoun *who*, in the other case the relative pronoun *which*, the relative pronoun *that* is used in both cases. All the three may be used in restrictive clauses, but only *who* and *which* are used in non-restrictive clauses.

English attributive clauses may refer to the antecedent expressed by the whole main clause, in which case the linking element is the relative pronoun *which*: *He knew psychology, which was probably the reason of his popularity*.

English attributive sentences must be put in contact with the antecedent in the main clause while in Ukrainian they may be distanced: *Дивилася любовно очима на сина, що в них і радість і жура* /А.Головка/.

5. English object clauses are characterised by the rule of sequence of tenses.

English object clauses are more tightly connected with the main clause and are never separated by commas.

6. English has conditional clauses joined without the help of conjunctions (with inversion), e.g.: *Should he come, ask him to wait*.

English has conditional sentences with negation expressed by conjunctions (unless, lest): *He is sure to come unless he is told otherwise*.