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PART-61

CATEGORY OF MOOD AND ITS CHARACTERISTIC FEATURES IN THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE

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Abstract: *The article deals with the problem of the category of Mood and its characteristic features in the English language, results based on the theoretical and practical investigation has been shown on the base of examples*

Key words: *category, relations, form, language, reflection, grammar, morphology, semantics, investigation, results, syntax, representation, lexical structure, directions*

Annotatsiya: *Maqolada Ingliz tilidagi nisbat kategoriyasi muammosi va uning o'ziga xos xususiyatlari ko'rib chiqiladi, nazariy va amaliy tadqiqot natijalari misollar asosida ko'rsatilgan.*

Kalit so 'zlar: *kategoriya, munosabatlar, shakl, til, aks ettirish, grammatika, morfologiya, semantika, tergov, natijalar, sintaksis, vakillik, leksik tuzilma, yo'nalishlar*

Аннотация: *В статье рассматривается проблема категории наклонения и ее характерных особенностей в английском языке, на основе примеров показаны результаты теоретического и практического исследования.*

Ключевые слова: *категория, отношения, форма, язык, отражение, грамматика, морфология, семантика, исследование, результаты, синтаксис, представление, лексическая структура, направления.*

Mood is the grammatical category of the verb reflecting the relation of the action denoted by the verb to reality from the speaker's point of view.

In the sentences *He listens attentively; Listen attentively; You would have listened attentively if you had been interested*, we deal with the same action of listening, but in the first sentence the speaker presents the action as taking place in reality, whereas in the second sentence the speaker urges the listener to perform the action,; and in the third sentence the speaker presents the action as imaginary.

These different relations of the action to reality are expressed by different mood-forms of the verb: listens, listen, would have listened.

There is no unity of opinion concerning the category of mood in English. Thus A.I. Smirnitsky, O.S. Akhmanova, M. Ganshina and N. Vasilevskaya find six moods in Modern English ('Indicative', 'Imperative', 'Subjunctive I', 'Subjunctive IF', 'Conditional' and 'Suppositional'), B.A. Ilyish, L.P. Vinokurova, V.N. Zhigadlo, I.P. Ivanova, L.L. Iofik find only three moods – 'Indicative, 'Imperative' and 'Subjunctive. The latter, according to B.A. Ilyish appears in two forms – the conditional and the subjunctive. L.S. Barkhudarov and D.A. Shteling distinguish only the 'Indicative' and the 'Subjunctive mood. The latter is

subdivided into 'Subjunctive I' and 'Subjunctive IF'. The 'Imperative' and the 'conjunctive' are treated as forms outside the category of mood.

G.N. Vorontsova distinguishes four moods in English: 1) 'Indicative', 2) 'Optative', represented in three varieties ('imperative', 'desiderative', 'subjunctive'), 3) 'speculative', found in two varieties ('dubitative' and 'irrealis') and 4) 'presumptive'.

In general the number of English moods in different theories varies from two to seventeen.

In this work the indicative, imperative and subjunctive moods are considered.

The difficulty of distinguishing other moods from the indicative in English is connected with the fact that, barring be, they do not contain a single form which is not used in the indicative mood. At the same time the indicative mood contains many forms not used in other moods. The subjunctive mood is richer in forms than the imperative mood.

So the meaning of the three moods are distinguished in the language structure not so much by the opposition of individual forms (as is the case in the opposemes of other categories), as by the opposition of the systems of forms each mood possesses. By way of illustration let us compare the synthetic forms of the lexeme have in the three moods.

Indicative	Subjunctive	Imperative
have, has, had	have, had	have

This is why it is difficult to represent the category of mood in opposemes, like other categories.

In speech, the meanings of the three moods are distinguished not so much by the forms of the verbs, as by their distribution.

Ex: When I need a thing, I go and buy it. We insist that he go and buy it. Go and buy it.

One of the most important differences between the indicative and the other moods is that the meaning of 'tense' does not go with the meanings of subjunctive mood and imperative mood. 'Tense' reflects the real time of a real action.

The meaning of 'perfect order' does not go with the meaning of imperative mood because one cannot require of anyone to fulfill an action preceding the request. But it is easy to imagine a preceding action. Therefore the system of the subjunctive mood includes opposites of order.

Semantically it is a fact mood. It serves to present an action as a fact of reality. It is the "most objective" or the "least subjective" of all the moods. It conveys minimum personal attitude to the fact. This becomes particularly manifest in such sentences as Water consists of oxygen and hydrogen where consists denotes an actual fact, and the speaker's attitude is neutral.

We shall now proceed to the analysis of the grammatical categories of the indicative mood system.

The category of tense is a system of three-member opposemes such as writes – wrote – will write, is writing – was writing – will be writing showing the relation of the time of the action denoted by the verb to the moment of speech.

The time of an action or event can be expressed lexically with the help of such words and combinations of words as *yesterday, next week, now, a year ago, at half past seven, on the fifth of March, in 1957*, etc. It can also be shown grammatically by means of the category of tense.

The difference between the lexical and the grammatical expression of time is somewhat similar to the difference between the lexical and the grammatical expression of number.

a)   Lexically it is possible to name any definite moment or period of time: a century, a year, a day, a minute. The grammatical meaning of 'tense' is an abstraction from only three particular tenses: the 'present', the 'past' and the future*.

b)   Lexically a period of time is named directly (e. g. *on Sunday*). The grammatical indication of time is indirect: it is not time that a verb like asked names, but an action that took place before the moment of speech.

c)   As usual, the grammatical meaning of 'tense' is relative. Writes denotes a 'present' action because it is contrasted with wrote denoting a 'past' action and with will write naming a 'future' action. Writing does not indicate the time of the action because it has not tense opposites. Can has only a 'past tense' opposite, so it cannot refer to the past, but it may refer to the present and future (can do it yesterday is impossible, but can do it today, tomorrow is normal).

N o t e. By analogy with can, must has acquired the oblique meaning of 'present-future' tense, but sometimes it refers to the past.

It is usual to express the notions of time graphically by means of notions of space. Let us then imagine the limitless stretch of time – a very long railway along which we are moving in a train.
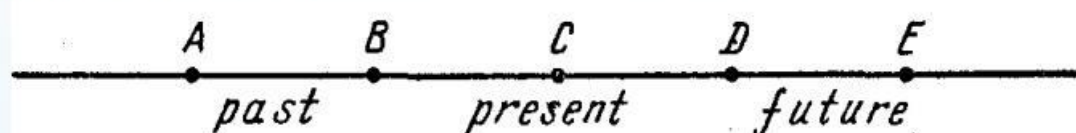
Let us further suppose that the train is now at station C. This is, so to say, the present. Stations A, B and all other stations passed by the train are the past, and stations D, E and all other stations the train is going to reach are in the future.

It would seem that the present is very insignificant, a mere point in comparison with the limitless past and future. But this point is of tremendous importance to the people in the train, because they are always in the present. When the train reaches station D, it ceases to be the future and becomes the present, while station C joins the past.

In reality, and accordingly in speech, the relation between the present, the past and the future is much more complicated. The present is reflected in speech not only as a mere point, the moment of speaking or thinking, but as a more or less long period of time including this moment. Compare, for instance, the meanings of the word now in the following sentences:

1.   A minute ago he was crying, and n o w he is laughing.

2.   A century ago people did not even dream of the radio, and now we cannot imagine our life without it.

The period of time covered by the second now is much longer, without, definite limits, but it includes the moment of speaking.

In the sentence The Earth rotates round the Sun we also deal with the present. But the present in this case not only includes the present moment, but it covers an immense period of time stretching: in both directions from the present moment.

Thus the 'present' is a variable period of time including the present moment or the moment of speech.

The 'past' is the time preceding the present moment, and the 'future' is the time following the present moment. Neither of them includes the present moment.

In English such relative use of tenses is also possible with regard to some future moment.

- He works at a factory.
- He will say that he worked at a factory.
- He will work at a factory.

But as a rule, this is impossible with regard to a moment in the past, as in

- He works at a factory.
- He said that he worked at a factory.
- He will work at a factory.

Instead of that an Englishman uses:

- He worked at a factory.
- He said that he had worked at a factory.
- He would work at a factory.

Therefore a 'present tense' verb may be used here only if the time of the action it expresses includes the moment of speech, which occurs, for instance, in clauses expressing general statements (*He said that water boils at 100° C*), in clauses of comparison (*Last year he spoke much worse than he does now*), and in some other cases.

Similarly, a 'future tense' verb may be used here if the action it expresses refers to some time following the moment of speech.

E. g. *Yesterday I heard some remarks about the plan we shall discuss tomorrow.*

The past tense of *worked* in the sentence *He said that he worked at a factory* also shows the past time not with regard to the time of the action of saying (as would be the case in the Russian sentence *он сказал, что работает на заводе*), but with regard to the moment of speech.

Since English has special forms of the verb to express 'precedence' or 'priority' – the perfect forms – the past perfect is used to indicate that an action preceded some other action (or event) in the past. *He said that he ha d worked at a factory*. But both in the principal and in the subordinate clause the tense of the verb is the same – the past tense used absolutely.

Summing up, we may say that a 'past tense' verb is used in an English subordinate clause not because there is a 'past tense' verb in the principal clause, i.e. as a result of the so-called sequence of tenses, but simply in accordance with its meaning of 'past tense'.

The category of posteriority is the system of two-member opposemes, like *shall come – should come, will be writing – would be writing*, showing whether an action is posterior with regard to the moment of speech or to some moment in the past.

As we know, a 'past tense' verb denotes an action prior to the moment of speech and a 'future tense' verb names a posterior action with regard to the moment of speech. When priority or posteriori is expressed in relation to the moment of speech, we call it absolute. But there may be relative priority or posteriori, with regard to some other moment. A form like *had written,* for instance, expresses an action prior to some moment in the past, i.e. it expresses relative priority. The form should enter expresses posteriori with regard to so Tie past moment, i.e. relative posteriori.

The first, member of the oppose me *shall enter – should enter* has, the meaning of 'absolute posteriori', and the second member possesses the meaning of 'relative posteriori'.

These two meanings are the particular manifestations of the general meaning of the – category, that of 'posteriority'.

A.I. Smirnitsky tries to prove that they are not 'tense forms' but 'mood forms', since they are homonymous with the so-called 'conditional mood forms'.

Ex. *I thought it would rain. I think it would rain if it were not so windy.*

In our opinion none of these theories are convincing.

1.   The grammemes discussed are not isolated. As shown above they belong to the morphological category of posteriority.

2.   They are not "tense forms". In the sentences:

I know she will come.

I knew she would come.

I had Mown she would come.

3. The grammemes in question are not 'mood forms'. As we know all the grammemes of the subjunctive mood (with the exception of be) are homonymous with those of the indicative mood. So the fact that would rain is used in both moods proves nothing.

The examples produced by A.I. Smirnitsky clearly show the difference between would rain in the sentence *I thought it would rain* and in the sentence *I think it would rain, if it were not so windy*. The first *would rain* is opposed to *will rain* (*I think it will rain*) and denotes a real action following some other action in the past (*I thought…*). In other words, it possesses the meanings of 'indicative' mood and 'relative' posteriority. The second *would rain* cannot be opposed to *will rain*. It denotes an imaginary action simultaneous with or following the moment of speech (*I think…*). Hence, it has the meanings of 'non-perfect' order and 'subjunctive mood'.

The category of person in the Indo-European languages serves to present an action as associated by the speaking person with himself (or a group of persons including the speaker), the person or persons addressed, and the person or thing (persons or things) not participating in the process of speech.

In Modern English the category of person has certain peculiarities.

1.   The second member of the opposemes

speak – speakest – speaks

am – art – is

is not used colloquially. It occurs in Modern English only in poetry, in solemn or pathetic prose with a distinct archaic flavour, e.g.:

Kind nature, thou art to all a bountiful mother. (Carlyle).

The category of person is practically represented by two-member opposemes: *speak – speaks, am – is*.

2.   Person opposemes are neutralized when associated with the 'plural' meaning.

A.I. Smirnitsky thinks that owing to the presence of the plural personal pronouns (we, you, they) person distinctions are felt in the plural of the verb as well.

E. g. we know – you know – they know.

This idea is open to criticism. If the verb itself (in the plural) does not show any person distinctions we are bound to admit that in Modern English the verb in the plural has no person.

3.   Person distinctions do not go with the meaning of the 'past tense' in the English verb, e. g. I (he) asked...

4.   As regards all those groups of gram memes where the word-morphemes shall and should are opposed to the word-morphemes will, would, one has to speak of the first person expressed by forms with *shall (should)* as opposed to the non-first person expressed by the forms with *will (would)*: The person distinctions in such opposites *(shall come – will come)* are not connected-with number meanings.

These distinctions, however, are being gradually obliterated through the spreading of -*'ll* and the extensive use of *will* and *would* for *shall* and *should*.

The category of number shows whether the action is associated with one doer or with more than one. Accordingly it denotes something fundamentally different from what is indicated by the number of nouns. We see here not the 'oneness' or 'more-than-oneness' of actions, but the connection with the singular or plural doer. As *M. Bryant puts it, «He eats three times a day»* does not indicate a single eating but a single eater.

The category is represented in its purity in the opposite *was – were* and accordingly in all analytical forms containing *was – were (was writing – were writing', was written – were written)*.

In *am – are, is – are* or *am, is – are* it is blended with person. Likewise in *speaks – speak* we actually have the 'third person singular' opposed to the non-'third-person-singular'.

Accordingly the category of number is but scantily represented in Modern English.

Some verbs do not distinguish number at all because of their peculiar historical development: (we) can…, he (they) must…, others are but rarely used in the singular because the meaning of 'oneness' is hardly compatible with their lexical meanings, e. g. to crowd, to conspire, etc.

It is natural, therefore, that in Modern English the verb is most closely connected with its subject, which may be left out only when the. doer of the action is quite clear from the context.

The Subjunctive Mood: Probably the only thing linguists are unanimous about with regard to the subjunctive mood is that It represents an action as a 'non-fact', as something imaginary, desirable, problematic, contrary to reality. In all other respects opinions differ.

To account for this difference of opinion it is necessary to take into consideration at least two circumstances:

1) The system of the subjunctive mood in Modern English has been and still is in a state of development. There are many elements in it which are rapidly falling into disuse and there are new elements coming into use.

2) The authors describing the subjunctive mood often make no distinction between language and speech, system and usage. The opposition of the three moods as systems is mixed up with detailed descriptions of the various shades of meaning certain forms express in different environments.

The development of the modal verbs and that of the subjunctive mood – the lexical and morphological ways of expressing modality – have much in common.

The original 'present tense' forms of the modal verbs were ousted by the 'past tense' forms (may, can). New 'past tense' forms were created (could, might, must, ought). The new 'past tense' forms must and ought have again superseded their 'present tense' opposites and are now the only forms of these verbs.

The forms be, have, write, go, etc., which were originally forms of the 'present tense', 'subjunctive mood' grammemes, have suffered a similar process and are now scarcely used in colloquial English. They have become archaic and are found as survivals in poetry, high prose, official documents and certain set expressions like *Long live..., suffice it to say...,* etc. The former 'past tense subjunctive' has lost its 'past' meaning, and its forms are mostly used to denote an action not preceding the moment of speech.

The new analytical forms with should have replaced the former present subjunctive in popular speech.

Take heed, lest you should fall.

Having no 'tense' opposemes the subjunctive mood system makes extensive use of 'order' opposemes. The 'perfect' forms are used to express an action imagined as prior to some other action or event.

E. g. *The Married Woman's Property Act would so have interfered with him if he hadn't mercifully married before it was passed. (Galsworthy).*

The 'perfect' forms, naturally, express actions imagined as prior to the event of speaking, i. e. actions imagined in the past.

E.g. *If I had known that, I s ho u I d have acted differently. It is strange t/iat he s h o u I d have spoken so.*

The non-perfect forms do not express priority. The action they denote may be thought of as simultaneous with some event or even following it. The order of the action in such cases is expressed not by the form of the verb but by the whole situation or lexically.

Cf. I wish he were here now. I wish he were here tomorrow. Even if he c a m e to-morrow that will be too Me. (Ruck).

The 'passive voice' and 'continuous aspect'' meanings are expressed much in the same way as in the indicative mood system.

E. g. In a moment he would have been drowned. (Braddon).

She sat not reading, wondering if he were coming in… (Galsworthy).

The various shades of meaning subjunctive mood grammemes may acquire in certain environments, and the types of sentences and clauses they are used in, are not part of the morphological system of moods and need not be treated here. Still an, exception can be made.

The arguments are as follows:

1. The form would help expresses 'dependent unreality': the realization of the action depends on the condition expressed in the subordinate clause (If-clause).

2. It is 'mainly used in the principal clause of a complex sentence with a subordinate clause of unreal condition'.

3. Should is used for the first person and would for the other persons.

Let us analyze these arguments:

1. If the meaning of 'dependent unreality' is to be treated as the meaning of a separate mood, then the meaning of 'dependent reality' in a similar sentence *If he is here, he will help us* must likewise be regarded as the meaning of a separate mood which is to be distinguished from the indicative mood. The meaning of tell in the sentence *If you see her tell her to come* can also be defined as 'dependent urging' and be regarded as the meaning of a separate mood distinct from the imperative mood.

2. The second argument deals with speech environment and is of little value since the same authors produce examples of the 'conditional mood' in different types of sentences.

Would you mind my opening the window?

I should like to speak to you, etc.

3. The third argument is justly rejected by G.N. Vorontsova who produces many literary examples to show that 'would-Forms' are used with the first person as often as 'should-forms'.

E. g. If I had held another pistol in my hand /would have shot him. I would love to think that you took an interest in teaching me… I wish I had a lot of money, I wouldn't live another day in London. (Galsworthy).

Besides, the popular use of forms with – 'd instead of *should* and *would* shows the obliteration of 'person' distinctions.

4. The name conditional hardly fits, seeing that the forms with should –would are as a rule not used in conditional clauses. They are mostly used in principal clauses or simple sentences, which distinguishes their distribution from that of forms without should – would used almost exclusively in subordinate clauses.

E. g. After all, if he lost it would not be he who paid. (Galsworthy).

Under normal conditions Winifred would merely have locked the door. (lb).

The difference between the two sets of opposemes

- had written (order)

- wrote - were written (voice)
- were writing (aspect)
- should have written (order)
- should write -   should be written (voice)
- should be writing (aspect)
- would write (person, irregular)

Hence the necessity of further investigation.

What unites all the grammemes above and distinguishes them from the homonymous grammemes of the indicative mood as a system is

1)   The meaning of "non-fact", the presentation of the action as something imaginary;

2)   The system of opposemes, as contrasted with that of the indicative mood.

The Imperative Mood: The imperative mood represents an action as a command, urging, request, exhortation addressed to one's interlocutor. It is a direct expression of one's will. Therefore it is much more 'subjective' than the indicative mood. Its modal meaning is very strong and distinct.

The imperative mood is morphologically the least developed of all moods. In fact, the grammeme write, know, warn, search, do, etc. is the only one regularly met in speech (as to don't write, do write). The 'continuous' and 'passive' opposites of this grammeme (be writing, be searching, etc; be known, be warned, etc.) are very rare.

E.g. B e always searching for new sensations. (Wilde). Be warned in time, mend your manner. (Shaw).

Though the system of the 'imperative' mood does not contain 'person' opposemes, it cannot be said that there is no meaning of 'person' in the imperative mood grammemes. On the contrary, all of them are united by the meaning of 'second person' because it is always to his interlocutor (the second person) that the speaker addresses his order or request expressed with the help of – imperative mood forms. Thus the meaning of «second person» is a lexico-grammatical meaning common to all the imperative mood grammemes. This meaning makes it unnecessary to use the subject you with predicate verbs in the imperative mood. But sometimes you is used for emphasis, as in *Don't you do it*!

Some linguists are of the opinion that Modern English possesses analytical forms of the imperative mood for the first and the third person built up with the help of the semantically weakened unstressed let, as in *Let him come, Let us go*, etc.

G.N. Vorontsova gives a detailed analysis of these constructions to prove that they are analytical forms of the imperative:

1) Sentences like *Let's let newspaper reporters take a crack at her (Gardner)* prove that unlike the second let which is a notional verb the first let is devoid of lexical meaning.

2) It is quite possible to treat the objective case pronouns in the sentences *Let me be frank, Let him look out, Let them both see,* as the subjects.

3) An order can be addressed not only to the second person but to the third person as well.

Compare: *Someone make an offer – and quick! (Barr).*

Let someone make an offer.

4) The recognition of the let-constructions as the analytical forms of the imperative would make the imperative a developed morphological system.

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